A MULTIMODAL ANALYSIS OF

INTERPERSONAL MEANING IN CHINESE AS A

SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the construction of interpersonal meanings through multimodal elements of teacher talk and teachers' body language in Chinese as a second language classrooms (CSL) in Malaysian primary schools. CSL classes have increasingly grown in numbers but has yet to gain the attention of researchers in examining their discourse. The study aims to: (1) identify the semiotic resources realised in CSL classrooms; (2) study the use of linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources to construct interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms; and (3) study the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed on the teaching and learning of CSL. An integrated theoretical framework which brings together various schools of thought namely Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL), teacher immediacy and multimodal discourse analysis, was adopted to examine the interpersonal meaning constructed in CSL classrooms, a first attempt in analyzing the discourse in Malaysia. In addition, educational theories were referred to in order to systematically discuss the deployment and co-deployment of various semiotic resources in constructing interpersonal meaning via teachers' roles and teacher-student relationships. The study proposes a comprehensive framework in analyzing teacher immediacy, a realisation of interpersonal meaning. Data were obtained from four CSL teachers from four schools in Selangor, Malaysia and 63 students who attended the Level 4 CSL course in the schools through classroom observations, recording of classroom lessons and interviews with the teachers and students.

The study not only provides empirical data which is lacking in research previously carried out in Malaysia identifying resources use in the teaching of second language but also discusses the co-deployment of verbal and non-verbal resources evident in classroom

discourse to create meaning. In addition, the study impresses upon the importance of time parameter and space to provide richer discussions of the semiotic resources identified. Other findings include the fact that CSL teachers were to some extent multilingual such that they can code-switch between Chinese, Malay and English, were sensitive to the cultural norms of the various races in the classes, used the lexical item 'teacher' to refer to themselves in teacher talk, appraised students positively through the use of judgement resources and are creative in negotiating the various resources at every stage of their teaching, able to foreground and background resources wherever relevant. Strategies through the enactment of various teacher's roles were identified to realize teacher immediacy such as remembering students' names, code-switching to facilitate student's learning, smiling frequently, and establishing frequent eye contact. Such immediate behaviour of the teachers have positive impact on the teaching and learning of CSL which includes reducing learning anxiety, increasing motivation and interest in learning, developing student's confidence, instilling good behaviour and developing student's discipline. These in turn help establish a close rapport and a meaningful teacher-student relationship, creating a conducive learning environment for teaching and learning. The findings of this study will benefit teachers of not only CSL classes but teachers of other disciplines, developers of teaching programs as well as researchers in the field of multimodal discourse.

Keywords: Chinese as a second language (CSL); Interpersonal meaning; Teacher immediacy; Multimodal discourse analysis; Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL)

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini meneroka bagaimana makna interpersonal dibina melalui elemen multimodal pertuturan dan bahasa badan guru dalam pengajaran bahasa Cina sebagai bahasa kedua (CSL) di sekolah-sekolah rendah di Malaysia. Kelas CSL didapati telah semakin bertambah bilangannya namun masih tidak mendapat perhatian penyelidik untuk mengkaji wacananya. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk: (1) mengenalpasti sumber-sumber semiotik yang direalisasikan dalam kelas CSL; (2) mengkaji penggunaan sumber linguistik dan bukan linguistik dalam membentuk makna interpersonal dalam kelas CSL; dan (3) mengkaji impak makna interpersonal yang dibina dalam pengajaran dan pembelajaran CSL. Satu kerangka teori yang mengintegrasikan beberapa pendekatan iaitu Linguistik Sistemik Fungsian (SFL), 'Immediacy' guru dan Analisis Wacana Multimodal telah digunakan untuk menganalisa makna interpersonal yang dibina dalam kelas CSL. Ini merupakan usaha pertama dalam menggunakan kerangka sedemikian dan dalam menganalisa wacana tersebut di Malaysia. Teori-teori pendidikan juga dirujuk untuk membincangkan secara sistematik pengunaan sumber semiotik samada secara individu atau bersama dalam membentuk makna interpersonal melalui peranan guru dan hubungan antara guru dan pelajar. Kajian ini mencadangkan satu kerangka yang menyeluruh untuk menganalisa 'immediacy' guru, satu bentuk realisasi makna interpersonal. Data diperolehi dari empat orang guru yang mengajar CSL di empat buah sekolah di Selangor, Malaysia dan 63 orang pelajar yang menghadiri kursus CSL tahap 4 di sekolah-sekolah tersebut melalui kaedah pemerhatian, rakaman proses pengajaran di kelas-kelas dan temubual dengan guru-guru dan pelajar-pelajar.

Kajian ini bukan saja memberi data empirikal yang tidak didapati dalam kajian yang dijalankan sebelum ini di Malaysia dalam mengenalpasti sumber-sumber yang digunakan

dalam pengajaran bahasa kedua tetapi juga membincangkan pengunaan bersama sumber bahasa dan bukan bahasa dalam wacana bilik darjah untuk membentuk makna. Demikian juga, kajian ini menengahkan kepentingan waktu dan ruang dalam memberi perbincangan yang lebih mendalam tentang sumber-sumber semiotik yang dikenalpasti. Dapatan kajian juga mendapati bahwa guru-guru CSL sedikit sebanyak dapat bertutur dalam beberapa bahasa agar mereka dapat menukar kod diantara bahasa Cina, Melayu dan Inggeris, sensitif terhadap norma-norma budaya pelbagai kaum di dalam kelas CSL, menggunakan perkataan 'guru' untuk merujuk kepada mereka sendiri.

Menilai pelajar secara positif melalui penggunaan sumber 'judgement' dan mereka juga kreatif dalam perundingan pelbagai sumber pada setiap tahap pengajaran mereka, serta berupaya untuk menengahkan dan membelakangkan sumber-sumber di mana yang relevan. Strategi-strategi melalui perlaksanakan pelbagai peranan guru dikenalpasti untuk merealisasikan 'immediacy' guru adalah saperti mengingati nama pelajar, menukar kod untuk memudahkan pembelajaran pelajar, sering tersenyum dan mengadakan kontak mata dengan pelajar-pelajar. Tingkah laku guru yang sedemikian memberi impak yang positif terhadap pengajaran dan pembelajaran dimana ianya dapat mengurangkan kebimbangan dalam pembelajaran, meningkatkan motivasi dan minat dalam pembelajaran, membina keyakinan pelajar, memupuk tingkah laku baik dan membentuk disiplin dikalangan pelajar-pelajar. Ini seterusnya mewujudkan hubungan rapat dan yang bermakna antara guru dan pelajar yang dapat membentuk suasana pembelajaran yang kondusif untuk pengajaran dan pembelajaran. Dapatan kajian ini memberi manfaat bukan saja kepada guru-guru CSL malah guru-guru dari disiplin lain juga serta pembentuk-pembentuk program pengajaran dan pengkaji dalam bidang wacana multimodal.

Keywords: Chinese as a second language (CSL); Interpersonal meaning; Teacher immediacy; Multimodal discourse analysis; Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL)

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 3

Theoretical Framework

CHAPTER 5

Semiotic Resources Realised in Chinese as a Second Language Classrooms

CHAPTER 6

Semiotic Resources Used to Construct Interpersonal Meaning in Chinese as a Second Language Classroom

CHAPTER 8

The Impact of Interpersonal Meaning on Classroom Teaching and Learning

CHAPTER 9

Conclusions and Suggestions

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BCSK   *Bahasa Cina Sekolah Kebangsaan*

CNKI   China National Knowledge Infrastructure

CSL   Chinese as a Second Language

MDA   Multimodal Discourse Analysis

PPT   PowerPoint

Q&A   Question and answer session

SK   *Sekolah Kebangsaan*

SFL   Systemic Functional Linguistics

ZPD   Zone of Proximal Development

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Malaysia, a multiethnic country, provides for the teaching of several languages in primary and secondary schools throughout the country. These languages are Bahasa Melayu or Malay, the national language, English, Chinese and Tamil. There are two types of schools in Malaysia based on their medium of instruction namely the national and national-type schools. Nevertheless, the syllabus is similar in both types of schools but is taught in different languages whereby the national language, Malay, is the medium in national schools and Chinese or Tamil in national-type schools. The main aim of this policy is to integrate the various ethnic groups in the country through the common syllabus. The present study focuses on the teaching of the Chinese as a second language (CSL) specifically in national primary schools to non-native speakers, who belong to different ethnic groups, namely, Malay, Chinese, Indian and other minorities whose mother tongue is not Mandarin. Apart from the Chinese Language taught in national primary schools (*Sekolah Kebangsaan*, SK), Elementary Chinese, there are a few types of CSL courses taught in Malaysia. For instance, the Chinese language taught in secondary schools as well as in MARA Junior Science Colleges and Chinese as a second language course taught in many private and government-funded universities at the tertiary level. The enrolment of Malaysian students in CSL courses at all levels is on the rise. This trend could be attributed to the rapid development of the Chinese economy over the past 30 years. It is therefore hardly surprising that interest in learning Chinese is growing, as many Malaysians are beginning to appreciate the economic value that comes with mastery of the language. The

emergence of China as an economic powerhouse overtaking Japan to become the world's second largest economy and as one of the important trading partners of many countries has motivated even more people around the world whose mother tongue is not Mandarin to study Mandarin Chinese. This is also the case in Malaysia (Sin Chew Daily, 2/1/2011), where the language is now taught as a subject within the school curriculum. Another contributing factor to the rise of enrolment in Chinese as a second language classrooms is the unveiling of the national Education Blueprint in 2013 where it encourages all students to learn a third language. This has great impact on the teaching of languages like Chinese and Tamil and studies should be carried out to identify the impact on the teaching of these languages in the present school system in Malaysia.

The CSL course in this research refers to the Chinese Language taught in National Schools, or better known in Malay as *Bahasa Cina Sekolah Kebangsaan* (BCSK). The teaching of the BCSK course is aimed at enhancing the status of national schools (SK) as the premier choice of all Malaysian parents, especially Chinese parents who normally would enroll their children in Chinese national-type schools. It is hoped that with the inclusion of the BCSK course in national schools, parents who want their children to take up Chinese as an additional language will enroll their children in these schools. Unlike the Chinese course offered in the Chinese National Type Schools, which is designed as a first language course for the native speakers, the BCSK course is designed as a second language course for non-native speakers. BCSK was first implemented in 150 selected participating schools in 2007. The number of national schools offering BCSK increased to 350 in 2009. According to statistics revealed at the end of June 2008 (Sin Chew Daily, 1/7/2010), a total of 10,854 students in SK had registered for the BCSK course. Among them, 6664 (61.4%) were Malays or Bumiputeras, 1834 (16.9%) were Chinese and 2356 (21.7%) were Indians. The

objective of the BCSK course is to enable students to acquire basic communication skills in Chinese, as the course expects students to use the language skills learned from the BCSK course to communicate and interact with native speakers effectively (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2006, p.1) and thus enhance integration with the various races in the country.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study uses the Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) approach to explore how CSL teachers construct interpersonal meanings in Chinese as a second language classrooms through the employment of various semiotic resources which include verbal and nonverbal representations. Multimodal discourse analysis is the analysis of the different semiotic modes in a text or communicative event for meaning making. According to Hodge and Kress (1988, p. vii), "meaning resides so strongly and pervasively in other systems of meaning, in a multiplicity of visual, aural, behavioral and other codes, that a concentration on words alone is not enough". Kress (2000, p. 337) also points out, "It is now impossible to make sense of texts, even of their linguistic parts alone, without having a clear idea of what these other features might be contributing to the meaning of a text."

Application of MDA began in the mid-1990s. The earliest research in this area was by O' Toole (1994) who studied the display of three-dimensional objects. Other similar studies in three-dimensional objects included those conducted by Alias (2004), O'Toole (2004) and Pang (2004). This analytical approach has also been extended to study representations and meaning making in media communication and education. Most of the research in mass media analysed texts for advertising purposes (Chen, 2012; Cheong, 2004; Fauziah, 2010; Han, 2012; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2006; Li, 2012; Lu, 2012; Lü, 2012; Tang, 2012; Wang, 2010; Wang, 2012; Xu, 2010; Zhou, 2012). Research has also examined story books

(Lim, 2007) and magazines (Bowcher, 2007; Royce & Bowcher, 2007), and investigated hypertext (Kok, 2004; Lemke, 2002; Royce, 1998; Sang, 2011; van Leeuwen, 2005b). Other studies in mass media analysed data from films, videos and movies (Baldry, 2004; Iedema, 2001; Luo, 2010; Ma, 2012; O' Halloran, 2004; Yuan, 2010). Studies in educational settings have focused on two domains: teaching materials (Chen, 2009; Cui, 2012; Guo, 2004; Koulaidis & Dimopoulos, 2005; Lemke, 1998, 2002; O'Halloran, 2005; Tay, 2007; Unsworth, 2001; 2006a; 2006b, 2007) and classroom discourse (Chen, Guo, Freebody & Hedberg, 2005; Deng, 2014；Hood, 2011; Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn & Tsatsarelis, 2001; Kress et al., 2005; Li，2014; Lim, 2011; New London Group, 1996; O'Halloran, 2000, 2005; Qian, 2012; Royce, 2002, 2007b; Unsworth, 2001; Wu, 2010; Yan, 2008; Zhang & Wang, 2010; Zhang, 2011).

Most of the research which employed MDA to explore meaning making via the co-deployment of various modes in printed material specifically focused on texts for advertising purposes. Some research has examined classroom discourse, mostly in science and English language classrooms, but research has not investigated meaning making in Chinese as a second language classrooms despite the large number of learners studying Chinese as a second language. Therefore, classroom discourse focusing on the construction and negotiation of meaning in these classrooms remains unexplored.

Research into classroom discourse has emerged as a significant field of study since Sinclair and Coutlthard (1975) developed the widely-adopted Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) analysis model (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 442). Most previous research on classroom discourse investigated English language use in classrooms (Cazden, 1988, 2001; Chaudron,

1988; Christie, 2002). Furthermore, many of these earlier studies only focused on the textual/verbal medium, i.e., either the spoken language or the written text. To bridge the gap, the present research therefore adopted the MDA approach to analyse not only the verbal but also the nonverbal semiotic resources employed by CSL teachers to construct interpersonal meaning via classroom discourse. The focus on CSL classroom is also necessary as research is still lacking in the discourse of these classrooms as much attention has been paid on English as a second language (ESL) classrooms.

The notion of interpersonal meaning proposed by Halliday (1978), adopted by this study, is associated with the speaker's negotiation of power (intrusion into an exchange of values, influence others), role enactment (doing something, context of situation), and establishing relationship (attitude, judgement), which is stated as follows:

> *The interpersonal component represents the speaker's meaning potential as an intruder. It is the participating function of language, language as doing something. This is the component through which the speaker intrudes himself into the context of situation, both expressing his own attitudes and judgements and seeking to influence the attitudes and behavior of others. It expresses the role relationships associated with the situation, including those that are defined by language itself, of questioner-respondent, informer-doubter and the like. These constitute the interpersonal meaning of language. (p. 112)*

In the social communication of power negotiation, role enactment and relationship establishment, as explained by Halliday (1978) the interpersonal meaning speakers construct is mainly indicated by the way they engage in a communicative exchange, and express their attitudes and judgements on the aspects of exchange, and the way they try to influence the attitudes and behaviour of others in the communication. The forms and outcomes of the interpersonal meaning construction are also relevant to classroom communication.

Barnes (1974, p. 1) points out that many of the speech functions in classroom are interpersonal in nature. This is stated as follows (cited in Cazden, 2001, p. 2):

Speech unites the cognitive and the social. The actual (as opposed to the intended) curriculum consists in the meanings enacted or realized by a particular teacher and class. In order to learn, students must use what they already know so as to give meaning to what the teacher presents to them. Speech makes available to reflection the processes by which they relate new knowledge to old. But this possibility depends on the social relationships, the communication system, which the teacher set up.

This statement highlights the importance of rhetorical (the system of contact) and social aspects (participant's power and role relations) of communication set up by the teacher for cognitive development. Considering the dearth of research into these domains, it is therefore necessary to investigate the social relationships and communication system set up by the teacher via classroom discourse as these aspects of interpersonal meaning have impacts on classroom teaching and learning, in particular, the cognitive development of students. Informed by Halliday's (1978) and Barne's (1974) views, the interpersonal meaning explored in this research therefore focuses on how teachers employ their spoken language and body language to negotiate power, to enact various social roles, and to establish solidarity relationship with their students in classrooms. It determines how teachers serve as institutional agents in mentoring students and imparting knowledge, developing skills and attitudes. In other words, interpersonal meaning constructed via classroom discourse can effect changes in behaviour (knowledge, skills, and attitudes); hence, student learning is defined as change of behaviour.

Research into teacher immediacy has long verified that a teacher's verbal and nonverbal behaviours have an impact on students' liking of the subject and hence their achievement in the subject (Richmond, 2002a). The teacher's warmth, gentleness, attentiveness and

affability constitute teacher immediacy behaviour. Other immediacy behaviours include showing empathy, understanding, sensitivity to the needs of students, respect for students and giving equal and fair treatment (Gorham, 1988; Richmond, 2002a). On the importance of immediacy behaviour, Richmond and McCroskey (2000, p. 86) remarked:

> *Several studies have been conducted looking at immediacy behaviors of teachers during instructional communication with their students. These studies have found immediacy behaviors to be associated with more positive affect as well as increased cognitive learning and more positive student evaluations of teachers.*

The statements made by Richmond and McCroskey (2000) show that an "immediate" teacher in the classroom helps to create a harmonious relationship with students; and this positive effect helps to increase cognitive learning and generate positive emotions.

To understand the state of solidarity in the teacher-student relationship, a feasible way is to examine how well teachers convey verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours. Richmond et al., (2008, p. 207) explain,

> *Solidarity is the perception of closeness derived from similarity in sentiments, behavior, and symbols of that closeness. As immediacy increases [closeness] between persons, so does solidarity; as solidarity increases, so does immediacy. We are much more likely to develop a solid relationship with an individual who uses immediate cues with us than someone who uses nonimmediate cues.*

The above statement asserts the use of immediacy cues helps to increase solidarity, and in turn, "as we become closer [develop a solid relationship] to another person, immediacy tends to increase" (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 207). In short, increase of immediacy helps increase the solidarity and vice versa. The present research strongly believes that, when conducting research into the construction of interpersonal meaning in classroom discourse, the teacher's immediate and nonimmediate verbal and nonverbal behaviours must be

observed, as they have the interpersonal value and can provide insight into teaching effectiveness.

For the past decades, teacher immediacy research was mainly conducted in classrooms at the tertiary level via quantitative approaches (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Christophel, 1990; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Estepp, 2012; Furlich, 2007; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006; Richmond et al., 1987; Saechou, 2005; Toland, 2011). The findings from these studies were mostly inferred from students' self-reports in questionnaires. The present research, however, explores teacher immediacy in primary CSL classrooms in Malaysia via both qualitative and quantitative approaches, through descriptive statistics, classroom observations and interviews rather than self-reports in questionnaires as carried out by previous studies, to elicit data for analysis. This study hopes that by adopting a qualitative approach, it will further enhance previous findings and to find out if there would be any differences in the findings when the context is teaching Chinese as second language as opposed to teaching English as a second language.

There are two reasons for the investigation into the construction of interpersonal meaning via multisemiotic resources. First, research which explores the construction of interpersonal meaning in classroom discourse is scant. Second, the dynamic social aspect of classroom interpersonal communication in multimodal contexts is very rich in interpersonal meaning making. It is imperative to study the deployment of various non-linguistic semiotic codes such as facial expressions, gaze, gestures and proxemics, and the use of linguistic modes in making interpersonal meanings. Hood (2011) states, "there is an urgent need for more research into the ways in which interpersonal epilinguistic body language functions in

relation to teaching and learning in face-to-face classrooms" (p. 48). This study is answering the call for such research to be carried and in fact, this study goes one step further by analysing how the nonverbal resources interact with the verbal resources in realising interpersonal meaning. Such study has yet to gain momentum in Malaysia and elsewhere especially in countries that offer Chinese as a second language.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This research investigates the use of multisemiotic resources by CSL teachers to construct interpersonal meaning in classrooms. Three research objectives relating to this goal are stated as follows:

1. To identify the semiotic resources realised in Chinese as a second language classrooms;

2. To study the ways in which linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources are used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms;

3. To study how interpersonal meaning impacts the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language.

1.4 Research Questions

To meet the objectives of the study, four research questions were formulated, and they are presented as follows:

1. What are the semiotic resources realised in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second Language?

2. How are the semiotic resources used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms?

3. How is teacher immediacy, a core aspect of interpersonal meaning, constructed in

Chinese as a second language classrooms?

4. What is the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed on classroom

teaching and learning?

1.5   Theoretical Frameworks

The theoretical framework underpinning the present study is based on three schools of thought. First is the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1970, 1973, 1975,1978, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, 2004; Hood, 2011; Jewitt, 2009; Kress et al., 2001, 2005; Lim, 2011; Martin 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; Martinec, 2001), second is Multimodal Interactional Analysis of Norris (2004), and lastly based on the theory of immediacy (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Gorham, 1988; Mehrabian, 1969, 1971; Mottet and Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008).

In undertaking the research, the present study analyses, interprets and explains the interpersonal meaning of teacher talk through turn-taking and amount of talk, person system, mood system, and appraisal theory of SFL. It will then investigates the interpersonal meaning mediated through teacher's action (body language), drawing on the studies of nonverbal representation that have examined facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics. Gesture analysis is based on the analytical approaches proposed by Hood (2011), Lim (2011), and McNeill (1992). In addition, the study uses Martinec's (2001) affect system, modality system, and engagement system to analyse teachers' facial expressions, postures, and proxemics. Next, the study will analyse the co-deployment of multisemiotic resources to identify how these resources support each other in teaching and this analysis draws on the multimodal analysis approaches introduced by Kress et al. (2001,

2005) and Norris's (2004) Multimodal Interactional Analysis to transcribe and analyse the meaning negotiation in classroom communication, in order to determine the semiotic resources realised in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language, and investigate ways in which the linguistic mode (teacher talk) is co-deployed with the actional mode (teacher's action) in teaching. Finally, the study uses the theory of immediacy from the school of communication (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Gorham, 1988; Mehrabian, 1969, 1971; Mottet and Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008) to explain and interpret teachers' verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours and how these behaviour impact teaching and learning in CSL classroom in Malaysia were discussed based on the educational theories and concepts.

1.6   Conceptual Framework

Meaning is "something that one wishes to convey, especially by language" (Soukhanov, 1992, p. 1116). Thus, a function of language is to convey meaning. From the perspective of function as "the action for which one is particularly fitted or employed" (Soukhanov, 1992, p. 735), Halliday asserts that a clause reveals three functions simultaneously: "clause as message, clause as exchange, and clause as representation" (Halliday, 1994, p. 37). In functional terms, a clause has the ideational function, interpersonal function, and textual function, which Halliday refers to as 'metafunction' of language (Halliday, 1975, p. 56). They are the cognitive, social and compositional aspects of language use.   Regarding interpersonal metafunction, Halliday (1970) argues that,

*[interpersonal metafunction] serves to establish and maintain **social relations**: for the expression of **social roles**, which include the **communication roles** created by language itself – for example the roles of questioner and respondent, which we take on by asking or answering a question; and also for getting things done, by means of the interaction between one person and another.*

(Halliday, 1970, p. 143, bold added)

For the present research, based on Halliday's (1994) interpersonal metafunction, the construction of interpersonal meaning refers to the use of verbal and nonverbal resources in communicating, interacting, and representing the participant's roles and social relations in a specific context.

Halliday (1973) notes that the linguistic resources used for construction of interpersonal meaning are the Mood and Modality systems. The choice of mood tells people how the speaker intrudes into speech; and the modality system can reflect the attitudes (judgement and prediction) of a speaker towards people and material addressed, as to show approve or disapprove, as well as intimacy or distance:

> *'interpersonal' …embodies all use of language to express social and personal relation, including all forms of the speaker's intrusion into the speech situation and the speech act……the interpersonal elements is represented by mood and modality: the selection by the speaker of a particular role in the speech situation, and his determination of the choice of roles for the addressee (mood), and the expression of his judgments and prediction (modality) …… specific uses of language of socio-personal kind…… We use language to approve and disapprove; to express belief, opinion, doubt; to include in the social group, or exclude from it; to ask and answer; to express personal feeling; to achieve intimacy; to greet, chat up, take leave of; in all these and many other ways.*
>
> *(Halliday, 1973, p. 41)*

Halliday (1979, pp. 66-67) also maintains that construction of interpersonal meaning is cumulative, and drawing on semiotic resources for realising meaning is typically prosodic. Interpersonal meaning construction is best studied through the meaning making action as a whole. Halliday (1979) argues:

> *Interpersonal meanings cannot easily be expressed as configurations of discrete elements... The essence of the meaning potential of this part of the semantic system is that most of the options are associated with the act of meaning as a whole... this interpersonal meaning ...is strung throughout the clause as a continuous motif or colouring... the effect is cumulative... we shall refer to this type of realisation as 'prosodic', since the meaning is distributed like a prosody throughout a continuous stretch of discourse...*
>
> *(Halliday, 1979, pp. 66-67)*

The present research investigates the construction of interpersonal meaning in CSL classroom discourse where teacher and student relationship and teacher's roles will be discussed to examine the impact of interpersonal meaning in teaching and learning a second language. With regard to the roles of a teacher, Hargreaves (1972) has identified five principal instructional roles for teachers (pp.143-144).

- Information giver - Directing learning and lecturing

- Evaluator - Evaluating academic and other behavior

- Motivator - Using rewards to stimulate conformist activity

- Disciplinarian - Adhering to rules and administering punishment

- Value-bearer – Transmitting society's dominant values

The five roles can be defined according to the following actions: instructing, facilitating, evaluating, motivating, managing discipline and instilling values. This study will define teacher's roles based on the five roles listed.

Martin (1992) proposes that showing approval, disapproval, enthusiasm and abhorrence, applauding and criticizing are expressions of affect, and including or excluding someone from social groups reflects the attitude of a speaker in social contact maintenance. The

expression of personal feelings and the intimacy behaviour is, to a large extent, related to the social status of a person and the event encountered. Martin explains the factors of status, contact and affect and suggests that appraising the speaker's attitude comes from the interplay of these factors:

> *Status refers here to the relative position of interlocutors in a culture's social hierarchy while contact refers to their degree of institutional involvement with each other...Affect... refers to as the "degree of emotional charge" in the relationship between participants.*
> *(Martin, 1992, p. 525)*

This notion has become one of the foundation blocks of the appraisal framework developed by Martin and White (2005).

The construction of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms in the present study relates to the teacher and student relationship established by both the teacher and students. Viewed from the perspectives of the teacher, some indicators of an intimate relationship are kindness, empathy, attentiveness, care, approachability, and so on, and these qualities are traits of teacher immediacy. Teacher immediacy has been found as an important quality of a teacher in teaching effectiveness as it helps to promote positive affect and relationships. The behaviours indicating teacher immediacy have been identified by the communication scholars (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Gorham, 1988; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al. 2008). Renaud (2010) draws attention to the importance of teacher immediacy in interpersonal values:

> *Appropriate levels of nonverbal and verbal teacher immediacy in the classroom can help gain and retain student attention, motivation levels, increase likeability, and approachability of teachers, and lead to more learning of subject matter. (p. 12)*

Based on the discussion above, a conceptual framework of the present study is presented as in Figure 1.1.
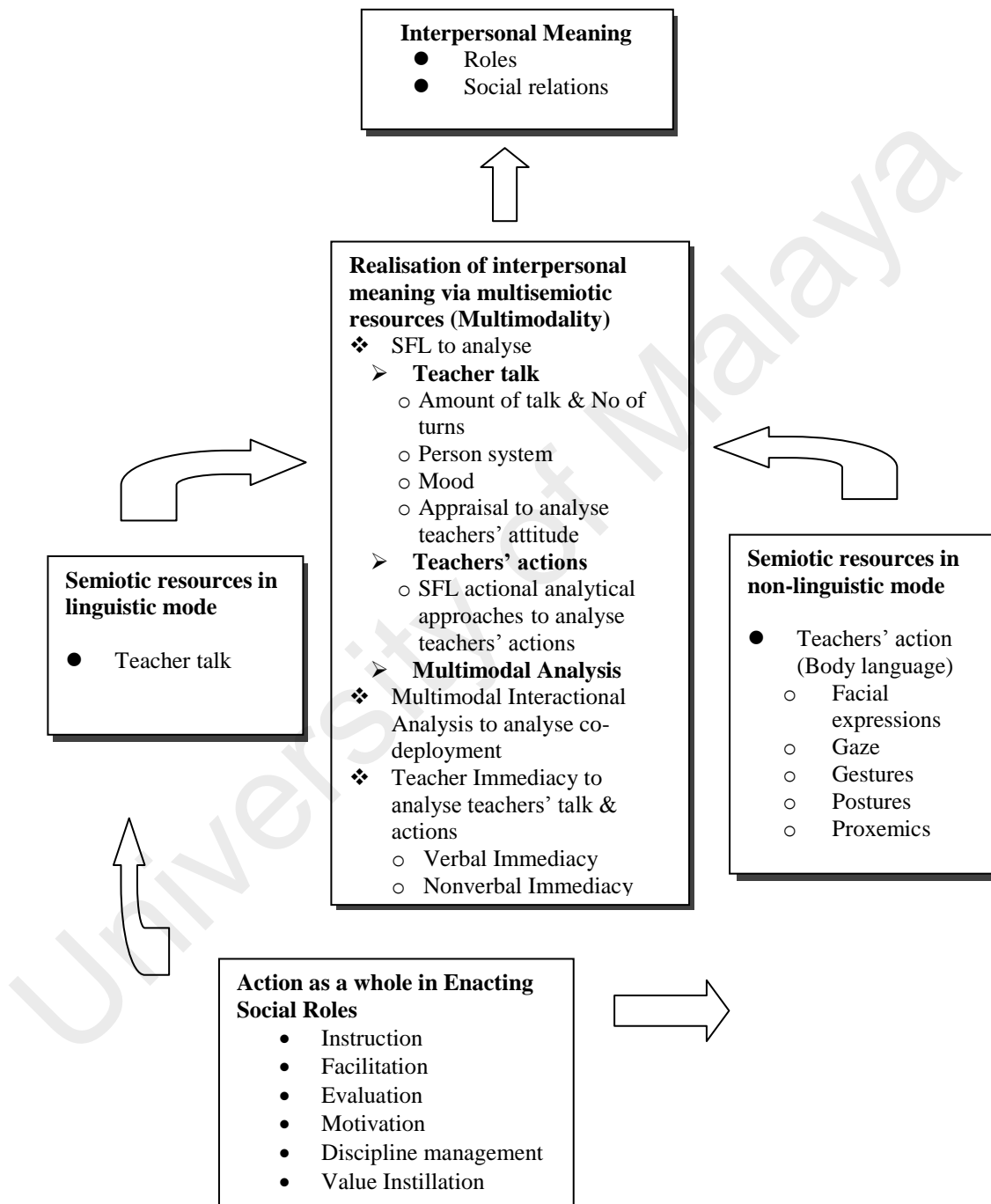
Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework for Constructing Interpersonal Meaning in CSL Classrooms

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study is aimed at obtaining insight into ways in which language teachers employ multisemiotic resources to construct interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms. Cazden (2001, p. 3) states that the classroom setting and social activity are important in shaping the language of curriculum, language of control, and language of personal identity. She further points out that one of the tripartite language functions is "the establishment and maintenance of social relationship" (p. 3). As the interpersonal way of actions is one of the basic and crucial components of language use in classroom discourse, it is therefore important to understand how CSL teachers construct interpersonal meaning through multimodal approaches. By documenting the discourse moves and analysing the motives that utilize identifiable multisemiotic codes, it is hoped that the way interpersonal meaning emerges as the result of the interaction and integration of various semiotic resources and a speaker's personal identity can be interpreted. Students now are exposed to various technologies due to the digital era and as such they are used to ways of making and construing meanings in multimodal fashion. Teachers, who must deal with the new communication style of the young generation, need to have a good understanding of how meanings can be constructed and interpreted multimodally. Equipped with such knowledge, educators will be able to devise strategic discourse moves to facilitate students' learning.

The multimodal discourse analysis approach has been widely applied to study meanings in various fields as discussed in the Section 1.1 & 1.2. However, there is still little investigation into classroom multimodal discourse, especially in Chinese language classrooms. The literature review found that the number of multimodal discourse analysis research carried out in Malaysia is still scarce. Among them, Attar (2014) analysed the multimodal elements in Iranian English textbooks, Noor Dalina (2011) did a multimodal

analysis of a female athlete in a Malaysian English language daily, Fauziah (2010) carried out a Systemic-Functional multimodal analysis on Malaysian business brochures, and Tay (2007) investigated two English language learners who developed literacy practices using English multimodal texts. Few studies have been conducted on classroom interpersonal communication (Mohd Safiee et al., 2008; Nor Shafrin, Fadzilah & Rahimi, 2009) and no research has been carried out thus far in Malaysia which has examined CSL classrooms. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a need to conduct an investigation into multimodal discourse in CSL in Malaysia, to achieve a better understanding of the construction of interpersonal meaning between teachers and students from various racial backgrounds.

It is hoped that the findings of this study can contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the phenomenon of multimodal discourse and the teacher-student interpersonal relationship in CSL primary school classrooms in Malaysia, from four perspectives. Firstly, the data constitute multimodal classroom discourse, comprising verbal and nonverbal behaviours. The study of the functions and patterns of nonverbal behaviours (facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, proxemics) in CSL classroom communication is still absent in the local context. Secondly, the research is one of the pioneer studies in Malaysia applying Martin's Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005) to analyze interpersonal meaning that emerges from CSL classroom multimodal discourse. It is hoped that the findings in this study will enrich the application of SFL and Appraisal theory in classroom discourse analysis. Thirdly, the study of SK's CSL classroom communication is a relatively new area, which has not captured local researchers' close attention. Lastly, few studies have examined interpersonal relationships in classrooms by integrating theories from several schools of thought. The present study analyses and discusses interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms by applying

multimodal discourse analysis theories, SFL theories, theory of immediacy from the field of communication, and educational theories. This is a new attempt in researching interpersonal relationship in local language classrooms. It is also hoped that the findings of this study will enable CSL teachers to reflect on their own practices when interacting with their students in the classroom, and inspire them to construct a more meaningful interpersonal relationship to improve the CSL language teaching and learning. Furthermore, immediacy behaviours identified in CSL classrooms can be adopted by teachers teaching other languages or even other subjects in the primary schools.

The understanding of the multimodality practices and processes during CSL instruction in the classroom will therefore benefit teachers, teacher training students, curriculum developers, and also linguists. This study may provide insights into the use of different meaning-making resources to generate effective multimodal classroom teaching and learning. The findings of this study relating to the role of teacher immediacy in the construction of a meaningful teacher-student relationship, and its impact on classroom teaching and learning can be taken as a reference or guidance for novice teachers. Moreover, the notion of teacher immediacy via verbal and nonverbal behaviours could be included in the teacher training curriculum in order to produce effective teachers.

1.8   Limitations of the Present Study

This study has several limitations. First, due to time constraints and the limited scope of the present research, the MDA approach employed in this study only focused on the teacher's spoken language (verbal behaviour) and body language (nonverbal behaviour). The MDA of images and written presentation as was done in the analysis of films, advertising materials and textbooks was not carried out. In addition, the textual analysis focuses on the

analysis of attitude while graduation and engagement were not carried out.

Next, although classroom discourse is co-constructed by teacher and students, the current research focused much more on teachers and not on students, in the analysis of interpersonal meaning making. This bias is attributed to two facts: (i) the teacher plays a more important role than students in classroom communication and social relationship (Barnes, 1974, cited in Cazden, 2001, p. 2). This reality is clearly reflected in the classroom discourse corpus, where teachers dominate the classroom conversation and the students are generally playing a secondary role. (ii) Only one video recording device was used and it was mainly used to record teacher verbal and nonverbal behaviours and how the whole class responded to the teacher. The video camera was not used to record individual student's verbal and nonverbal behaviours. Third, due to the technical limitations of non-high resolution recording device and lack of professional skills in video recording, some shortcomings were found: (a) some teachers' facial expressions could not be clearly seen due to the distance between the video camera and the image, or the lighting of the classroom left much to be desired. That made the analysis of teacher expressions difficult at times. (b) The angle of video recording at times could not cope with the quick movement of the teacher, and some defining moments were missed. In these instances, the researcher needed to rely only on audio-recording data.

Lastly, data was obtained from only four teachers and four schools in the state of Selangor and thus is not representative of the entire primary school population which offers CSL classes in Malaysia.

1.9   The Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters in total. The first four chapters contextualizes the research as these chapters provide the background, review related literature, describe theoretical frameworks and methodological approaches of the study. The next four chapters are analytical chapters that present and discuss the findings of the study. The following will briefly describe the various chapters in the thesis.

The first chapter is the introductory chapter with nine sections: background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, theoretical frameworks, significance of the study, limitations of the study and the organisation of the thesis.

The second chapter focuses on the literature review related to this study. It contains the review related to classroom discourse, research on the teaching and learning of Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) in Malaysia, teacher immediacy, some basic tenets of systemic functional linguistics, including previous studies on interpersonal meaning, and research into multimodal discourse analysis.

The third chapter provides the theoretical foundation. It describes theories and basic concepts used in analysing the realisation of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms through teacher talk and the teachers' body language. To analyse the realisation of interpersonal meaning theorised in SFL, the person system, mood choices, and appraisal theory were employed to analyse teacher talk. Some other analytical concepts from SFL and School of Communication were used to analyze the teacher's body language, which includes facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and proxemics. Concepts regarding

mode, semiotic resources and different approaches to multimodality were also discussed. Chapter Three concludes with a discussion of the theories and tools used for the analysis of teacher immediacy.

The fourth chapter describes the research design, the participants, methods and data collection procedure, pilot study, approach and data analysis, ethical issues and confidentiality, reliability and validity of the study.

The fifth chapter is the analysis of data to answer the first research question. It describes the semiotic resources realised in Chinese as a Second Language Classroom (CSL). The sources of data for this section came mainly from classroom video recording and the checklist used by the researcher, teachers, and students. Lastly, data triangulation to identify the semiotic resources used in CSL classroom was also discussed.

Semiotic resources used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a Second Language classrooms is presented in Chapter 6. The findings are presented in three sections: the realisation of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms through teacher talk; the realisation of interpersonal meaning through teacher's body language; and the co-deployment of linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources in constructing interpersonal meaning.

Chapter 7 contains the data analysis on teacher immediacy in Chinese as a Second Language Classrooms. The discussions relate to the construction of interpersonal meaning through teachers' verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours. Teacher's non-immediacy behaviours evident in this study are also discussed.

Chapter 8 reports the impact of interpersonal meaning on classroom teaching and learning based on the data from the video recording and interview data. The discussion starts with a report on teacher-student relationships in the four CSL classes and the impact on teaching and learning, followed by the realisation of teacher immediacy in enhancing teaching and learning. It ends with a discussion of examples on teacher non-immediacy behaviours that inhibit classroom teaching and learning.

Finally, Chapter 9 summarises the major research findings and discusses the implications and provides directions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The first sections of Chapter Two will discuss literature relating to classroom discourse, in particular, teacher talk. Teacher talk consitutes the main verbal resources in interpersonal communication. In traditional face-to-face teaching, the construction of interpersonal meaning via teacher talk has two main streams. One, teacher talk is a way of doing tasks assigned by the institution and society to perform a teacher's collective roles; and the other relates to the teacher and students' construction of social relationships (Halliday, 1975, p. 143; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, p. 511). The latter is mainly the negotiation initiated by the teacher to help the students enjoy learning, to get the students to like the teacher as well as the subject matter. These acts are in fact the actualization of teacher immediacy. Hence, literature pertaining to the realisation of teacher immediacy behaviour will also be reviewed. Finally, as the current research also applies the Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) approach to analyse the research data, previous research on the application of MDA in meaning making relevant to classroom discourse and teaching materials will also be discussed.

2.2 Classroom Discourse

As the mode of delivery of interpersonal and ideational messages, teacher talk is a major mode of classroom discourse. Body language, such as nodding, making eye contact, gesturing and body movements, are equally important modes used to mediate and negotiate interpersonal meanings in classrooms. Classroom discourse is filled with the exchange of thoughts, feelings and ideas between the teacher and students. These exchanges are driven

by the respective roles played by the teacher and the learners. As a result, interpersonal meaning in classroom functions as "exchange" and "role enactment" constructed by classroom participants during the lesson.

2.2.1   Teacher talk

Why is talk important in classroom? Fisher, Frey and Rothenberg (2008, p. 1) argue that,

> *Language, in other words, is how we think. It's how we process information and remember. It's our operating system. Vygotsky (1962) suggested that thinking develops into words in a number of phases, moving from imaging to inner speech to speech. Tracing this idea backward, speech-talk is the representation of thinking. As such, it seems reasonable to suggest that classrooms should be filled with talk, given that we want them filled with thinking.*

In education, giving enough room for students to think and respond to talk in the classroom is important for cognitive development. The thought and feelings can be known and understood by others via verbal and nonverbal expressions, and talking is the most prominent tool.

For student-centered classrooms, one important role of the teacher from the interpersonal perspective is to serve as a motivator and learning facilitator. It is grounded on constructivism, namely Bruner and his associates' notion of scaffolding and the Vygotskian Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Wood, Brunner and Ross (1976, p. 90) define scaffolding as follows: "Those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence". This idea is closely related to Vygotsky's notion of ZPD. The ZPD has been defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as

24

determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Both notions of scaffolding and ZPD prompt the teacher to evaluate the state of the students' potential before they offer suitable help to enable students to learn. After the evaluation, teaching plans and teaching strategies are specifically designed to fit the learning needs of the students. When enacting the role of facilitator or learning motivator, the teacher takes the interpersonal elements into consideration, and adopts the best approaches to meet learning needs. Thus, the teaching acts and strategies are rich in interpersonal meaning, bringing to light the student's learning needs and potential.

To realise the teaching plan, teachers usually organise their teaching acts by giving instructions, asking questions, providing useful feedback, controlling students' turn-taking in a learning activity, disciplining the students to maintain the classroom order, when necessary. To carry out these acts, teacher talk is important as Nunan (1991, p. 189) points out:

> *Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans.*

Allright and Bailey also share a similar view. They claim that teacher talk is generally used to "convey information to learners and it is also one of the primary means of controlling learner behavior" (Allright & Bailey, 1991, p. 139). The issue of controlling is essentially interpersonal. In her seminal book, Cazden (1988) highlights the speaking right of a teacher in classroom:

> *In typical classrooms, the most important asymmetry in the rights and obligations of teacher and students is over control of the right to speak. To describe the difference in the bluntest terms, teachers have the right to speak at any time and to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt any speaker; they can speak to a student anywhere in the room and in any volume or tone of voice.*   *(Cazden, 1988, p. 54)*

In short, from the perspective of turn-taking as well as the content, talk in typical classroom is dominated by the teacher.

Classroom discourse in terms of controlling has been well-researched (Chaudron, 1988; McCarthy, 1991; Seliger & Long, 1984; Sinclair & Courthard, 1975). The present research, therefore, concentrates on teacher talk which enacts teaching roles beyond the act of control, such as teaching roles in performing the task of facilitation, motivation and evaluation, which gear towards supporting students' learning. Specifically, this research focuses on verbal incidents where teachers engage their students in learning and their effort of creating a meaningful and harmonious relationship with students. As the approach to the analysis is multimodal, other than verbal resources, this research is designed to examine how nonverbal resources are co-deployed with the verbal resources to achieve the goals of teaching as the teachers enact roles assigned by the teaching profession, or by society. The following section discusses various roles commonly assumed by teachers.

2.2.2   Teachers' Roles

Roles relate to the tasks one functions in conversational and social relationships. Therefore, teachers' roles should be examined through all kinds of things done by teachers with students and colleagues in the classroom, school and community, which are informed by their jobs. Under the interpersonal perspective, this study examines teachers' attitudes

while performing their tasks. Specifically, the study investigates teachers' verbal and nonverbal behaviours in classrooms. A teacher's discoursal behaviour observed in the classroom also reveals the affective roles as well as the personality traits of that teacher.

Hargreaves (1972) asserts that many writers have devised sets of teacher sub-roles that are relevant to classroom interaction. He suggests five principal instructional roles/ sub-roles for teachers and claims that these instructional roles refer to basic teaching tasks for which a teacher is responsible.   The five instructional roles are information giver, motivator, evaluator, disciplinarian, and value-bearer (pp. 143-144). A brief description of the five roles of teacher is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Five Principal Instructional Roles of the Teacher in the Classroom Interaction (Hargreaves, 1972)

Five Principal Instructional Roles	Realisation
Instructor / Information giver	Directing learning and lecturing
Motivator	Using rewarding to stimulate conformist activity.
Evaluator/ Classifier	Evaluating academic and other behavior.
Disciplinarian	Adhering to rules and administering punishment.
Value-bearer	Transmitting society's dominant values; helping the student to discover things for himself.

In a study on perception, Onderdonk (1995) identified 35 roles a teacher assumes in the 21st century, as a professional and a social agent. These roles are divided into two categories, which are 'Teacher's role as' and 'Teacher's role in'. Some of the main roles listed in the 'Teacher's role as' category are: facilitator of learning, subject matter expert, academic role model and disciplinarian, while some of the primary roles listed in the 'Teacher's role in' category include motivating students to learn, fostering intellectual curiosity, enhancing students' self-esteem, and preparing students to accept responsibility for decision making. The teacher's roles as a professional and a social agent are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Teacher's Role as a Professional and a Social Agent

	Teacher's role as		Teacher's role in
1	guide or facilitator of learning	1	motivating students to learn
2	subject matter expert	2	fostering intellectual curiosity
3	an academic role model	3	enhancing student self-esteem
4	disciplinarian	4	preparing students to accept responsibility for decision making
5	mentor	5	encouraging students to develop judgement
6	a professional exercising professional judgement	6	fostering independence in students
7	an innovator or experimenter to improve education	7	preparing students to meet the unexpected
8	a moral role model	8	encouraging students to recognize the legitimacy of diverse responses
9	personal counselor to students	9	promoting patriotism and citizenship
10	a curriculum developer	10	moral education
11	leader in the school	11	celebrating errors in the learning process
12	interpreter of the information explosion		
13	a friend		
14	a transmitter of culture		
	8 roles perceived as less important		**2 roles perceived as less important**
15	a referee	12	non-instructional duties (hall monitor, clerk, security guard)
16	a student	13	students' spiritual development
17	a parent educator		
18	educational policy maker at school or district level		
19	a community leader		
20	social worker		
21	parent surrogate		
22	provider of child care		

Out of these 35 roles, 25 roles were perceived by the school teachers and administrators as important, and 10 of them were perceived as less important. The ranking of perception was based on the preference of items made by the respondents. Each of the roles can be into further defined to include details on tasks as well as the intellectual and emotional involvement of the teacher devoted to the tasks. Such definitions are grounded on teaching professionalism or individual quality perspective.

The present study examines the ways in which teachers employ verbal and nonverbal resources to construct interpersonal meanings while performing certain roles that are possibly listed in Table 2.1 and Table 2.2. These roles, on the interpersonal level, are most

probably embedded in the teacher's "act of meaning as a whole" (Halliday, 1979, p. 67) in guiding, facilitating, motivating, fostering, enhancing, controlling, encouraging, mentoring, preparing, evaluating and accounting for students' participation in learning. As quoted earlier, Halliday argues that "interpersonal meanings cannot easily be expressed as configurations of discrete elements... the essence of the meaning potential of this part of the semantic system is that most of the options are associated with the act of meaning as a whole" (Halliday, 1979, p. 67). This means to analyze interpersonal meaning embedded in classroom discourse, the researcher needs to identify the teacher's "act of meaning as a whole". Therefore, the analytical approach in the present study seeks to identify what tasks are carried out by the teacher in classroom teaching, what teaching moves (guiding, facilitating, motivating, etc.) are being used by teacher to attain the objectives of those tasks (will be discussed in Chapter 8), and what interpersonal meanings (roles, relationship, attitude, teacher immediacy) are being constructed via classroom discourse, in particular, how verbal and nonverbal resources are co-deployed multimodally in realising the interpersonal meanings as a whole (see Chapter 6).

2.3 Research on the Teaching and Learning of Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) in Malaysia

Much research has been conducted on the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language in Malaysia in the past decades. Most focused on studying second language acquisition. Wong (2006) studied the acquisition of listening skills among standard three students in national primary schools, Chow (2005) investigated the mastery of lexis in Chinese essay writing among Non-Chinese students, and Ang (2007, 2008) conducted two surveys to obtain students' perceptions of the learning of Mandarin as a foreign language in Universiti Putra Malaysia. Other than that, studies have also examined learning difficulties

faced by non-native speakers of Chinese using the contrastive analysis and error analysis approaches. For instance, contrastive and error analysis studies on syntax (Ang et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2009; Lau & Ng, 2011; Lee, 2007; Ooi, 1988; Saw, 1997), interrogatives (Chia, 1999; Low et al., 2005), noun phrases (Soh, 1996), number phrases (Yong, 2013), morphology (Tan, 2005), adjectives (Chan, 2006), adverbs (Ching, 2008), particles (Chan, 2013; Tan, 2009), prepositions (Chai, 2007), conjunctions (Chan, 2006), measure words (Teo, 2003), and pronunciation (Lee, Lau & Mok, 2005; Goh, 2007; Lau & Mok, 2007; Mok & Lau, 2009; Siang, 2003; Wan Mohammad Iskandar, 2008), have been conducted. Some of the studies uncovered the difficulties of learning CSL faced by the non-native learners (Tong, 1993; Wong, 2007, 2011) and some studies investigated strategies used by the instructor to promote the acquisition of CSL writing and reading skills. These strategies include making use of music in teaching (Neo, Heng & Moniza, 2009), effective teaching of Chinese characters (Cheun & Kuek, 2005), use of the dictionary in learning Chinese (Cheun et al., 2009), teaching sentence structures via word sequence diagrams (Hoe, 2005; Hoe & Kuek, 2004; Hoe, Tan & Tan, 2011; Hoe & Mah, 2011) and introducing the principle of '六书 (Liu Shu)' (Hoe, 2008) for the mastery of Chinese characters; and developing web-based instruction (Hoe, Tan & Lim, 2010; Lim & Ong, 2011a, 2011b; Pang, 2011; Siew, 2012).

Other than studying the issues on second language acquisition, quite a number of the CSL studies evaluated CSL programmes in terms of the suitability of the course syllabus, teaching materials, and learning activities (Chew, Neo & Heng, 2011; Heng, Neo & Teh, 2009; Hoe, 2014; Lam & Hoe, 2013; Neo, Heng & Teh, 2009, 2010; Neo, Heng & Teoh, 2011; Teh et al., 2013, Teh, 2015). Other areas of research into CSL included attempts to

understand students' learning attitudes and needs (Cheun, Kuek & Chuah, 2003; Goh & Ng, 2004; Low, 2012; Neo, Heng & Teh, 2011; Teh, Heng & Neo, 2010); CSL learning strategies (Chng, 2009; Siang, 2015), CSL learning motivation (Tan & Ooi, 2006); and only very few examined the teacher-student classroom relationship (Heng, Fauziah & Neo, 2015), language use (Neo, Heng & Moniza, 2008), classroom multimodal discourse (Heng, Neo & Fauziah, 2014), and attributes of an effective CSL teacher (Hoe, 2013).

From the literature review, it was found that the research on CSL in Malaysia from the perspective of classroom discourse analysis and interpersonal meaning negotiation is still lacking. As a result, the present study was designed to study the construction of interpersonal meaning (interactants' roles, relationship, attitudes) by teachers and students via classroom discourse; and to determine what linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources were used to construct interpersonal meanings in CSL classrooms. The theoretical approach that the present study adopted with respect to interpersonal meaning is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The following section presents some basic tenets of SFL, especially the grammatical resources theorized by SFL to realise interpersonal meaning.

2.4 Basic Tenets of Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) was founded by Michael Halliday (1973, 1975, 1978, 1994) and was further extended by Martin (1992) and Matthiessen (1995). There are some core concepts in SFL which are key to the realisation of interpersonal meaning. The sections below discuss these core concepts.

2.4. 1 Language as Social Semiotic

According to SFL, language is used as one of the social semiotic "resources" for making meaning (Halliday, 1978, p. 192). Halliday argues that language evolves as a resource to actualize meaning in a meaningful text that is relevant to the context (Halliday, 1978, p. 109). Language development, individually and communally, is a process of human interaction grounded in a particular social environment (Halliday, 1975, pp. 120-144). The 'environment' is referred to as "social as well as physical, and a state of well-being, which depends on harmony with the environment, demands harmony of both kinds" (Halliday, 1978, p. 8). Thus, interpretation of meaning conveyed in a message as a semiotic structure of the environment must be grounded in a particular or social context. According to Halliday (1975, p. 143), while language develops as an interactive process,

> *Meaning is at the same time both a component of social action and a symbolic representation of the structure of social action. The semiotic structure of the environment – the ongoing social activity, the roles and the statuses, and the interactional channels –both determines the meanings exchanged and is created by and formed out of them.*

In Halliday's notion of registers (Halliday, 1978, p. 110, pp. 142-145), the semiotic structure of a social context (situation type) can be manifested as a complex of three features: field (the ongoing social activity), tenor (the role relationships involved), and mode (the symbolic or rhetorical channel).

2.4.2 Language as System

System is "an arrangement of options in simultaneous and hierarchical relationship" (Halliday, 1969, reprinted in Halliday (edited by Kress), 1976, p. 3). Halliday asserts that language evolves as system of "meaning potential" (Halliday, 1978, p. 39), and the system of semantic, textual and situational knowledge in making meaning stretches from words to

clauses to texts to registers to genre and then to ideology (Halliday, 1978, p. 145). For the present research, only the notion of texts and registers will be briefly reviewed as these two concepts relate to the objectives of this study.

Text is an outcome of spoken and written activity by language. It is highly variable in size and nature, from a sign, a clause to a group, and can take a few seconds to hours (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 218). Thus, a public sign is a text, a warning notice is a text, an advertisement is a text, a news report is a text, a casual conversation over a dinner table is a text, and for the present research, classroom discourse yielded from a language lesson is also viewed as a text.

Halliday (1978) defines register as a language variety according to its use (p. 110). It typifies a given context as a communication network by a set of semiotic choices in response to three parameters of register, namely, field, tenor and mode. Within the communication network of register, "there will be sharing of experience, expression of social solidarity, decision-making and planning,…, forms of verbal control, transmission of orders and the like" (Halliday, 1978, p. 230). Based on such notions, a register is "what you are speaking (at the time) determined by what you are doing (nature of social activity being engaged in), and expressing diversity of **social process** (social division of labour)" (Halliday, 1978, p. 35, bold font added). It is "the configuration of semantic resources that members of a culture **typically** associate with a **situation type**. It is the selection of meaning that constitutes the variety to which a text belongs." (Halliday, 1978, p. 111, bold added)

Regarding the relationship between texts and registers, SFL has the following view:

> *Individual **texts** typically instantiate (i.e. are **recognizable** as examples of) particular **registers**, which are distinguishable by **specific patterns** of interrelated choices, which themselves make differential use of the resources of the system.*
>
> *(Thompson & Hunston, 2007, p. 7, bold font added)*

In other words, texts (instances) are recurrent configurations of linguistic choices corresponding to recurrent registers (context of situation, e.g. school lessons, cooking instructions) (Thompson & Hunston, 2007, p. 7).

2.4.3   Language as a Functional System

Halliday stresses that, "Language… is a potential: it is what the speaker can do. What a person can do in the linguistic sense, that is what he can do as speaker/hearer, is equivalent to what he 'can mean'" (Halliday, 1978, p. 26). According to Halliday's (1973, p. 110) theory, language is not about words, but is about meaning. As is formulated by Halliday, a clause, an analytical unit of SFL and as a semantic complex, can convey the experiential, logical, interpersonal and textual meanings simultaneously (Halliday, 1978, p. 187; Halliday, 1994, Ch. 3-5). The first two of these are closely related, more so than other pairs, and can be combined under the heading of 'ideational' (Halliday, 1978, p. 112). The interpersonal component represents the speaker's meaning potential as an intruder. It is the participatory function of language, language as doing something (p. 112). The ideational function represents the speaker's meaning potential as an observer. It is the content function of language, language as 'about something' (p. 112). The textual component represents the speaker's text-forming potential; it is that which makes language relevant (pp. 112-113). The ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings are glossed in SFL as metafunctions as the simultaneous realisation of these three strands of meaning extend across any pattern of

language use (Christie, 2002, p. 11). Halliday (1994, p. xiii) argues that, all uses of language are organized around ideational and interpersonal meanings, which manifest "the two very general purposes which underlie all uses of language: (i) to understand the environment (ideational), and (ii) to act on the others in it (interpersonal)." The third aspect in this semantic complex is textual meaning, which is intrinsic to the language system and "breathes relevance into" (Halliday 1994, p. xiii) the other two metafunctions. Eggins and Slade's summary (1997) of the three metafunctions are shown in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3: Types of Meanings in the Systemic Model

Types of meaning	Gloss/ definition
ideational	meanings about the world, representation of reality (e.g. topics, subject matter)
interpersonal	meanings about roles and relationships (e.g. status, intimacy, contact, sharedness between interactants)
textual	meanings about the message (e.g. foregrounding/salience; types of cohesion)

(Reproduced from Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 49).

In short, the SFL models language as purposeful behaviour and interprets language as a resource for making meanings. Thus, it "can be glossed as a functional-semantic theory" (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 48). The present study focuses on the construction of interpersonal meaning in classrooms. Thus, the following section will introduce and discuss in detail the notion of interpersonal meaning in SFL.

2.4.3.1 Interpersonal Metafunction

Halliday claims that Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) "provides a basis for explaining the nature of the language system, since the system itself reflects the functions that it has evolved to serve" (Halliday, 1973, p. 66). As "language is the means whereby people

interact" (Halliday, 1978, p. 10), "a functional theory is a theory about the social process involved" (Halliday, 1978, p. 18) and "about meanings" (Halliday, 1973, p. 110). Halliday describes the grammar of a language as a network of choices. "The speaker of a language, like a person engaging in any kind of culturally determined behavior, can be regarded as carrying out, simultaneously and successively, a number of distinct choices" (Halliday, 1969, reprinted in Halliday (edited by Kress), 1976, p. 3). In the language use, the culturally determined behaviour of a people engaging in any kind of social process 'to act on others' (Halliday, 1994, p. xiii), verbally and nonverbally, can be regarded as performing the interpersonal metafunction. Halliday (1970) defines the interpersonal metafunction of language as establishing and maintaining social relations. Social relations are expressed by one's social roles. Examples of such roles are "questioner and respondent, which we take on by asking or answering questions and for getting things done". It is "the communication roles created by language itself" (Halliday, 1970, p. 143). The speech acts are the means of the interaction between interactants. Social relations also concern "the variation in formality [in speech acts]… and the degree of emotional charge in it" (Halliday, 1978, p. 33).

Halliday (1973, p. 41) identifies some interactive speech acts that realise interpersonal meanings in the communicative exchange such as expressing personal feelings, beliefs, opinions, doubts; including or excluding somebody for taking part; taking leave from a speech situation; approving and disapproving of something; achieving intimacy; greeting and chatting up. He argues the grammatical resources that instantiate interpersonal elements are mood and modality. Mood indicates the "forms of speaker's intrusion into the speech situation and speech act". Modality reveals the attitude of the speakers towards the addressee, things and events through the speaker's expression of judgement and prediction

upon them (Halliday, 1973, p. 41). How mood realises the communicative roles of interactants through their formulation of clauses as exchange for making an offer, a command, statement, and question, will be discussed in Chapter Three (Section 3.2.3). How the speaker uses modality for making judgements and predictions, however, will not be discussed in detail here, as modality analysis was not used in this study. Instead, Martin and colleagues' (Martin 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005) Appraisal theory was used to analyze teachers' attitudes towards the students (addressees), things and events via teacher talk and body language. According to Martin and Rose (2003), APPRAISAL is "a system of interpersonal meaning", where "[w]e use the resources of APPRAISAL for negotiating our social relationships, by telling our listeners or readers how we feel about things and people" (p. 22).

Appraisal theory is the extension of Systemic Functional Linguistics particularly for studying interpersonal meaning negotiation. Appraisal theory is used to evaluate the interpersonal relationship negotiation along the dimensions of status, contact and affect. Affect is the core element in attitudinal assessment (Martin and White, 2005, p. 45). According to Martin, "status refers here to the relative position of interlocutors in a culture's social hierarchy while contact refers to their degree of institutional involvement with each other...Affect… refers to as the 'degree of emotional charge' in the relationship between participants." (Martin, 1992, p. 525) The use of the word 'hierarchy' and the phrases 'degree of institutional involvement' and 'degree of emotional charge' suggest that evolutional activity concerns the meaning potential of a rank or range of values assignment, and many of them are relevant to and fit Halliday's scales of 'probability', 'usuality', 'obligation' and 'inclination' for modal analysis (Halliday, 1994). As the modal analysis

using Halliday's notion of Modality can be covered by Martin and his associates' Appraisal theory, the present research therefore uses Martin and his associates' Appraisal theory instead of Halliday's notion of Modality as an alternative for modal analysis. A detailed discussion of Appraisal theory will be presented in Chapter Three Section 3.2.4.

According to Christie (2002), focusing on classroom interaction, besides mood choices and modality, other interpersonal resources likes the person system too has significance in constructing interpersonal meanings (p. 12). According to Eggins (2004, pp. 184-185), the possession of turn-taking and the duration of talk can reveal the power and status of a speaker. Examining the power and status of the interactants is of importance for a study on interpersonal meaning construction. Thus, in this study, the interpersonal resources in teacher talk was analysed based on the choice of turn-taking, amount of talk, person system, mood, and the appraisal resources used by the teachers in classroom interaction.

2.4.3.2 Study of Interpersonal Meaning Construction

Halliday's (1973. 1978, 1985, 1994) social semiotic theory of language (Systemic Functional Linguistics) has become a fundamental theory employed by many researchers to study interpersonal meaning construction or negotiation. His theory foregrounds interaction, via the lexicogrammar (interpersonal semantics) of mood, and modality. Many studies of interpersonal meaning construction, inspired by Halliday's view of interpersonal metafunction, have investigated how interpersonal meaning is realised via the system of mood, modality and subject personal pronouns (Araghi & Shayegh, 2011; Ji, 2009; Jin & Lu, 2013; Rahma, 2012; Takahira, 2014; Ye, 2010; Yuliati, 2012; Yuyun, 2010).

Some earlier influential studies of this kind focused on interlocutors' negotiation of position in ongoing dialogic exchanges of information and goods and services (e.g. Berry, 1981; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Martin, 1992b). Hasan (1996) has developed a set of semantics designed for the analysis of interpersonal meaning of adult-child interactions at home and school. Other than focusing on the 'inter' dimension of interpersonal meaning, other studies examined a more 'personal' aspect of appraisal resources for analysing the interlocutor's values designation on figures, things and events (Hood & Forey, 2008; Lee, 2008; Li, 2011; Liu, 2010; Liu, 2013; Wan, 2009; Wang, 2008; Wang, 2011). The values designation (attitudinal analysis) was analysed along the systems of Affect, Engagement and Graduation of Appraisal framework developed by Martin and his colleagues (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). Christie's (2000), Eggins's (2000), Coffin's (1997), Fuller's (1998), Martin and Veel's (1998), MacKen-Horarik's (2003), Martinec's (2001), Rothery and Stenglin's (1997, 2000), and White's (1997) systematic accounts of attitude on various genres (social processes) are some pioneering works utilising the Appraisal theory for attitudinal analysis. The various genres being investigated across the workplace and school include narratives (MacKen-Horarik, 2003), literature (Rothery & Stenglin, 2000), science (Fuller, 1998; Martin & Veel, 1998), history (Coffin, 1997), news stories (White, 1997), everyday talk (Eggin, 2000), classroom interaction (Christie, 2000; Rothery & Stenglin, 1997) and nonverbal representation (Martinec, 2001). They focus on prosodic realisation of intersubjective and evaluative meaning.

Some arguments forwarded by Eggins (2000) are grounded on the patterns in mood choice, speech function, exchange structure, and the expression of attitude in her conversational study, providing useful insights for the present research, particularly, to understand the

establishment of solidarity, power, role relations and expression of personal attitude between interactants. They are as follows:

(a) A low frequency of contact and a low affective involvement in conversation may indicate that the interactants are not close, and may even be strangers (p. 135). This suggests that the close relationship between interactants can be examined through a high frequency of contact and a high affective involvement in conversation (p. 142).

(b) One role carrying a higher status or is hierarchically superior to the other role is typically involved in conversation when interactants with different roles (teacher/ student, buyer/ seller, doctor/ patient, inquirer/ informer, client/ provider, etc.) take on their social roles to achieve a specific, shared goal or a successful negotiation (pp. 135-136).

(c) Texts of pragmatic interaction have discernible staging or generic structure. It means the stages through which the interactants talk in order to achieve their goals are marked down and the speech functions are labeled in the transcription text of classroom discourse. These same stages, in much the same order, will be found in most of the other transcription texts of classroom discourse while the teacher attains similar goals. "This suggests that participants have ritualized, or habitualized, the interaction, analogizing from other similar interactions in the culture." (p. 137)

(d) When interacting with strangers or at least with people we do not know well, we usually tend to limit the amount of personal attitude we express. We act 'institutionally', which generally means we act in a restrained, non-attitudinal way. However, with people we are affectively involved with, we are more relaxed when sharing or swapping opinions, disputing, and using words and phrases which are attitudinally loaded (p. 144).

This suggests that, in the CSL classrooms of the present research, as teacher and students meet each other quite frequently, it is expected that the expressions of personal attitude, principally from the teacher, are commonly found.

The study of interpersonal meaning construction is also investigated from the perspective of multimodal discourse analysis which has elements of the Halliday's interpersonal component (semantic) of Mood, Modality and Martin and his associates' Appraisal Theory (Chen, 2009; Hood, 2011; Hood & Forey, 2005; Lemke, 1998). Some of the studies mentioned in this section are related to the field of education. Araghi and Shayegh (2011), Hood (2011), Ji (2009), Li (2008), Li (2011), Liu (2009), Rahma (2012), Wang (2008), Wang (2011), Yi (2010), and Yuliati (2012) studied the interpersonal meanings in classroom discourse; while Chen (2009), Lemke (1998) and Takahira (2014) investigated the interpersonal meaning mediated in teaching materials (textbooks). Many of the above studies were conducted in China. The Chinese research findings will be discussed briefly in the section below.

2.4.3.3 The Research on Classroom Interpersonal Meaning Construction Conducted in China

The present study focuses on interpersonal meaning construction in CSL classrooms. The literature review showed that none of the research done within the Malaysian context studied the construction of interpersonal meanings in CSL classroom discourse. However, a search in the databases of Chinese universities revealed that eight studies done at the master's level had studied interpersonal meaning construction by teachers. However, the studies conducted by An (2006), Ji (2009), Li (2008), Li (2011), Liu (2009), Wang (2008),

Wang (2011), and Yi (2010) had focused on interactional discourse in English classrooms and none in Chinese as second language classrooms, as carried out by this study.

An (2006), Li (2008) and Ji (2009) used Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) to examine interpersonal meaning negotiation via teacher talk. They investigated how interpersonal meaning is realised via the system of mood, modality and subject personal pronouns. An (2006) examined teacher talk in terms of the interaction patterns between teacher and students, and teacher's feedback. He claims that teacher talk plays a key role to position the learners to take part in learning. Li (2008) also used SFG but to analyse conversations in classrooms and concludes that the teacher can create more opportunities for students to participate in classroom learning via monitoring and reflecting on teaching approaches. Similarly, Ji (2009) claims that teachers tend to motivate the learners to participate in classroom conversations more effectively, however, in terms of questioning where it is found that the WH-interrogatives outnumbered the yes/no interrogatives in teacher talk. Ji also argues that the pattern of modality use and the teachers' use of personal pronouns indicated that the teachers pursued the stance of equal footing. This study will also analyse personal pronouns but in CSL classrooms and hope to further enrich findings of previous research.

More recently, Wang (2008), Liu (2009), Yi (2010), Li (2011) and Wang (2011) had begun to resort to Appraisal theory to examine teacher's classroom pedagogical, evaluation and managerial practices. Wang (2008) found that teachers who had adopted positive evaluation rather than negative evaluation helped to establish a harmonious interpersonal relationship and promote EFL language teaching and learning. Liu (2009), in addition, reveals that many roles were enacted via teacher talk to promote teaching and learning. Among them

include the speech acts of to control or emphasize what and how students should do in class; to reduce the level of anxiety in students; to enhance a student self-confidence; to arouse students' interest in the topic being discussed; to shorten the distance between teacher and students; to give feedback about how well a student had performed, and the like. Teacher's roles were also investigated by Yi (2010) in terms of how attitudinal resources used in teacher talk and found that of the total attitudinal resources, Affect resources were the least used as, they accounted for only 16.7%, and appreciation resources represented the most frequently used resources, making up 52.8% of the total. The other resources were those of judgement, representing 30.3%. The author concluded that teacher's predominant role was that of an instructor. This study would also investigate the use of attitudinal resources and would compare the findings with those from previous research. Li (2011) investigates the functions played by appraisal resources in classroom interpersonal meaning negotiation. The author claims that despite the availability of abundant appraisal resources in teacher talk for evaluation, the distribution of the sub-systems of appraisal, i.e., attitude, engagement and graduation was found to be unbalanced. Attitude resources accounted for about 50% of the overall appraisal resources. With regards to attitudinal resources used by English teachers of Wang's study (2011) to promote active learning, it was found that English teachers preferred to employ more judgement resources, as they comprised 76.24% of the total attitudinal resources used. They were mainly used for judging students' performance. From the engagement perspective, the use of dialogic expansion resources was 56.42% while contractive resources made up 43.58%.

At the doctoral level, the researcher found six doctoral theses on the topic of interpersonal meaning negotiation. They were the works of Li (2002), Chang (2004), Zhang (2006), Chen (2009), Yang (2009) and Yuan (2009). However, none of these researches has

examined classroom discourse. Li (2002) investigated the discourse of autobiography; Chang (2004) examined English idioms obtained from written and spoken texts actually used in the communication; Zhang (2006) and Yuan (2009) studied research articles, Chen (2009) studied the co-deployment of linguistic and visual semiotic resources in multimodal textbooks, and Yang (2009) analysed business negotiation.

The above discussion shows that research using a combination of SFL, appraisal theory, and multimodal analysis approaches for classroom discourse analysis is still needed, for further insights, especially in CSL classrooms in Malaysia, since research into the area is still lacking. Moreover, exploration of the interpersonal meaning construction that leads to determining how harmonious classroom teaching and learning atmosphere can be established is much needed. Mood, modality, subject personal pronouns and evaluative resources as well as the teacher's nonverbal immediacy behaviours that have been used by the CSL teachers in classroom discourse for enhancing harmonious interpersonal relationship is therefore worth studying.

2.5   Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Multimodality is "the diverse ways in which a number of distinct semiotic resource systems are both co-deployed and co-contextualised in the making of a text-specific meaning" (Baldry & Thibault, 2005, p. 21). Semiotic resources are "the actions and artifacts we use to communicate, whether they are produced physiologically (e.g., vocal messages, facial expression, gestures) or by means of technologies (e.g., pen, ink, paper, computer hardware and software, fabrics, scissors, sewing machine)" (Van Leeuwen, 2005a, p. 3). Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) is a framework to analyse the interplay of various semiotic resources in making meaning, on one hand; and to trace the multiple sensory channels in

receiving the meaningful messages, on the other hand. The sensory channels include visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory and gustatory. MDA involves construing diversified cultural, linguistic and non-linguistic features. It is an approach to comprehend representation and communication to be more than about language. It provides concepts and methods to study the interaction between the embodying of meaning and construing context via multiple modes of representation and communication. Particularly, it is analysing a text in which words, typography (the features of font, bold, italic, subscript, etc.), topography (the features of layout, indent, insert, etc.), sound, pictures, body languages, space, and other semiotic resources are woven together to make meaning (Kress, 2000, p. 337). The aim of multimodal analysis is to integrate and correlate the representational, interactive and textual meanings in a unified text or communicative event created collectively by different semiotic resources (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 19).

2.5.1 Application of Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) to Studying Meaning Making in Classroom and Online Teaching and Learning

The ways of communication between people have changed drastically after the infusion of new media technology in classrooms through the use of verbal resources like written and spoken language concomitantly with nonverbal resources such as images, eye contact, gestures, postures and proxemics. As a result, the ways of making meaning are more often nowadays constructed and construed multimodally across different sensory modalities through sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch. Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) note, "[W]ithin a given social-cultural domain, the 'same' meanings can often be expressed in different semiotic modes" (p. 1), and "the multimodal resources … are available in a culture … to make meanings in any and every sign, at every level, and in any mode… Multimodal texts … making meaning in multiple articulations" (p. 4). Norris (2004, p. 2)

also observes that "[a]ll movements, all noises, and all material objects carry interactional meanings as soon as they are perceived by a person". Nørgaard (2009) concludes that "the aim of the work done within the field of multimodality is hence to develop a systematic analytical methodology and descriptive apparatus that accommodates the interplay of different semiotic modes and recognises the multimodal complexity of all meaning-making" (p. 142). Application of multimodal discourse analysis to studying meaning-making practices (acts, texts and artifacts) communicated in classroom and online teaching and learning has gained much scholarly attention in recent years (Chen, 2009; Guo, 2004; Guichon & McLornan, 2008; Jones, 2006; Koulaidis & Dimopoulos, 2005; Kress et al., 2001; Lemke, 1998; O'Halloran, 2000，2004，2005; The New London Group, 1996; Unsworth, 2001, 2007; Veel, 1998; Vorvilas et al., 2010; Walsh, 2006; Yan, 2008). Among them, some researchers studied teaching and learning materials like textbooks, teaching aids, printed and electronic texts (Chen, 2009; Guo, 2004; Guichon & McLornan, 2008; Jones, 2006; Koulaidis & Dimopoulos, 2005; Lemke, 1998; Royce, 2002; Unsworth, 2001, 2007; Vorvilas, Karalis & Ravanis, 2010; Walsh, 2006); others studied classroom discourse, where Chen, Guo, Freebody and Hedberg (2005), Kress, et al. (2001), Lemke (2000), and Yan (2008) studied science classrooms; O'Halloran (2000, 2004, 2005) studied mathematics classrooms; Bourne and Jewitt (2003), Kress et al. (2001, 2005), Unsworth (2001), Yandell, (2008), and Zhang and Wang (2010) investigated discourse in English classrooms. Some important work regarding the application of MDA to study meaning-making practices in classroom teaching and learning are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

O'Halloran (1999, 2000, 2005) gave a detailed analysis of the functional roles played by language, images and mathematical symbolism in mathematical discourse and how these semiotic resources are actually combined in discourse. The purpose of her study was to understand the difficulties inherent in mathematics teaching and learning. Unsworth (2001) examined how both written texts and images were used in learning materials for Australian primary and junior secondary school science in paper-based and electronic formats. Lemke (2000) outlines the multiliteracy competence that students need to develop to integrate and coordinate the specialized verbal, visual, and mathematical literacies. His research was conducted through close observation on a student's multiliteracy practices in an advanced chemistry class and in an advanced physics class that involved analysing classroom videotapes, overhead transparencies, textbook selections, teacher handouts, and student notes. Kress et al. (2001) examined how science teachers in Britain presented subject matter and tried to shape their students' understanding through linguistic, visual, and actional modes of communication. They argue that the multimodal approach to the science classroom practice offers a way of reconsidering the role of language in the changing reality of contemporary literacy due to the infusion of multimedia and electronic technology in the classroom. They claim that meaning resides in the combined effects of the orchestration of modes by the producer and by the reproducer, and emerges from the interweaving between and across modes, such as "what is said, what is shown, the posture adopted, the movements made, and the position of the speaker and the audience relative to each other in the interaction" (Kress et al., 2001, p. 14). Chen et al. (2005) draw on the work of Jewitt and Kress (2003) to document the use of multimodalities in lower secondary Science and History classroom activities in Singapore. Yan (2008) investigated the interrelationship between linguistic and visual modes co-deployed in Secondary 4 biology class in Hong Kong.

Several studies were conducted in English classrooms. The researchers of The London Group (1996) (Courtney Cazden, James Gee, Gunther Kress, Allan Luke and others) pioneered the use of the multimodal approach to study multiliteracies and multimodality in English language teaching. Bourne and Jewitt (2003) examined how the interpretation of a literary text was constructed through social interaction. Data were gathered from English classrooms of a multi-ethnic urban secondary school. The multimodal approach was used to understand the social interaction around texts and the result showed that higher-order literacy skills could be achieved and constructed by means of the configuration of talk and writing with a range of other representational modes, such as eye contact, movement, gesture, and posture. More than a decade ago, Guo (2004) studied the multimodality in biology textbooks to help non-native university learners of English cope with English for Special Purposes (ESP) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Kress, et al. (2005) also studied the ways participants looked at English in the classroom. A multimodal approach was deployed to find out the best or the most appropriate way of looking at English, so that a full understanding of its reality could be obtained. The meanings investigated included the perception of ability, construction of identity and the intensity of engagement made from non-verbal cues of teachers, wall displays, furniture arrangement in the English classroom, and so on. Zhang and Wang (2010) investigated ways in which the different modes of discourse cooperated and coordinated with each other to achieve the teaching objectives in college English classrooms. The study found that oral language was the main mode of discourse in classroom teaching, and other modes mainly complemented and highlighted it.

Hood (2011) identified ways of effective pedagogic practice where teachers embodied meaning-making, in which body language collaborated with spoken language to understand how the integrated or rich meanings of both kinds in teacher's discourse helped to shift

students' attention to particular kinds of information, to manage processes of student interaction and engagement, and interpretation of content taught. The objective of the research was to contribute to social semiotic theorizing of the meaning potential of body language, specifically, its use in classroom pedagogic practice. Lim (2011) investigated the pedagogic discourse of General Paper, a subject in a Junior College in Singapore. Two lessons were video recorded and transcribed and the Systemic Multimodal Discourse Analysis approach was adopted to analyze the data. The use of space through the positioning and movement of the two teachers, gestures, and the semiotic resources of language were examined in relation to the pedagogy that the teachers realised.

Taken as a whole, the MDA research for the past two decades revealed that SFL was the main theory underpinning MDA research. The MDA research of classroom pedagogical practices showed that significant pedagogic work was realised through a range of modes. Very few studies had documented the complex ways in which images, gestures, gaze or eye contact, facial expressions, postures, writing and speech interacted in the classroom communications. There is a dearth of research into interpersonal meaning construction through classroom discourse, particularly, the CSL classroom. As meaning negotiation is always interpreted culturally and contextually, it is crucial to study the negotiation of interpersonal meaning in diverse cultural sites. Malaysia by itself is a melting pot of various dominant civilizations, such as Western, Malay, Arabic, Chinese and Indian. Malaysia also has very rich cultural practices as there are many ethnic groups living together harmoniously, learning from and influencing each other. It is therefore necessary to conduct research to investigate how interpersonal meaning is constructed multimodally in the Malaysian context, and more specifically, in CSL classrooms.

2.5.2 Research on Constructing Interpersonal Meaning Multimodally in CSL Classrooms

Research into the application of MDA to CSL classroom discourse is still scant in various parts of the world. As discussed in Chapter One of this thesis, most of the MDA analysis has been applied to texts such as textbooks, advertisement and brochures (Chen, 2012; Cheong, 2004; Cui, 2012; Fauziah, 2010; Guo, 2004; Han, 2012; Iedema, 2001; Kok, 2004; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2006; Lemke, 2002; Li, 2012; Lu, 2012; Luo, 2010; Lü, 2012; Ma, 2012; O' Halloran, 2004; Royce, 1998; Sang, 2011; Tang, 2012; Tay, 2007; Unsworth, 2006; van Leeuwen, 2005; Wang, 2010; Wang, 2012; Xu, 2010; Yan, 2010; Yuan, 2010; Zhang, 2012; Zhou, 2012). In terms of classroom discourse, the review of literature showed that the MDA technique was mainly used in analysing English, Mathematics and Science classrooms. Even in China, much of the MDA research focused on meaning-making practices in English classes (Li, 2013; Liu, 2011; Liu, 2012; Wu, 2010; Qian, 2012; Xia, 2014; Xu, 2010; Zhang, 2011; Zhang & Wang, 2010).

In the Malaysian context, little research has employed the multimodal approach. Tay (2007) investigated two English language learners who developed literacy practices using English multimodal texts, Fauziah (2010) carried out a Systemic-Functional multimodal analysis on Malaysian business brochures, while Noor Dalina (2011) did a multimodal analysis on a female athlete in a Malaysian English language daily. Attar (2014) analysed the multimodal elements in Iranian English textbooks, and Kumaran (2015) did a critical discourse analysis of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in Malaysian CSR reports. The text of CSR reports was analysed by using Systemic-Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis (SF-MDA) to understand how language features construed, enacted and organized meanings about CSR.

None of the above text-based research investigated interpersonal meaning construction in classroom discourse.

Generally, the research on the construction of interpersonal meaning multimodally in discourse is lacking in Malaysia. Based on a recent search of dissertation databases of Malaysian universities, only three studies had been done, examining meaning making in terms of the interpersonal perspective, but none of them investigated classroom discourse and used the multimodal discourse analysis approach. Ho (2004) investigated the interpersonal interactive patterns in lower-secondary mathematics text, where she studied the aspect of mood system grounded in systemic functional school of thought in the texts. Wong (2009) examined the aspect of help-seeking and help-providing texts. Her analysis also used the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics to examine mood and modality in the texts. Tan (2010) studied the interpersonal metaphor in computer science texts. To fill the research gap, the present study investigates how interpersonal meaning is constructed multimodally in CSL classrooms in the Malaysian context.

2.6   Teacher Immediacy

This section will firstly introduce the concept of 'Immediacy' and 'Teacher Immediacy' (Section 6.2.1), followed by a review of research relating to teacher immediacy (Section 2.6.2). Section 2.6.3 will then introduce some research of teacher immediacy conducted in Asia. Lastly, the impact of teacher immediacy on student learning will be discussed in Section 2.6.4.

2.6.1 The Concept of 'Immediacy' and 'Teacher Immediacy'

This section will introduce the concept of "immediacy' and "teacher immediacy". Immediacy is defined as "the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between people" (Andersen, 1978, p. 7; Richmond, 2002a, p. 68). According to Mehrabian, "immediacy also refers to communication behaviours that enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another" (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 203). Mehrabian asserted that "people are drawn toward persons or things they like and avoid things they do not prefer" (1971, p. 1). Hence, "liking encourages greater immediacy and immediacy produces more liking" (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 77).

Teacher immediacy is a core aspect of interpersonal meaning constructed in classrooms. Regarding the interpersonal ways of language use, Halliday states that:

> *We use language to approve and disapprove; to express belief, opinion,*
> *doubt; to include in the social group, or exclude from it; to ask and answer;*
> *to express personal feeling; to achieve intimacy; to greet, chat up, take leave*
> *of; in all these and many other ways.*　　　　　　*(Halliday, 1973, p. 41)*

Thus, achieving intimacy in human interaction is seen as a speech act that realises interpersonal meaning. Intimacy is a state of closeness of social contact between people while one enacts particular social and communicative roles. According to Collins and Feeney (2004), intimacy refers to "social interactions in which one partner expresses self-relevant feelings and information and, as a result of the other partner's responsiveness and positive regard, the individual comes to feel understood, validated, and cared for" (p. 163). Intimacy interactions often involve verbal self-disclosure and physical forms of intimacy such as touching and hugging, to communicate acceptance and caring (Collins & Feeney, 2004, p. 163). In social science studies, intimacy is sometimes referred to as affinity and immediacy (Bell & Daly, 1984; Conville, 1975; Frymier, 1994, p. 134; Gorham, 1988;

McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976). Affinity is defined as "a positive attitude toward another person … another person has affinity for you if that person perceives you as credible, attractive, similar to her or himself, or perceives that you have legitimate power over her or him" (McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976, p. 231). The term used by this study to refer to the state of intimacy between teacher and students, is "teacher immediacy", as used by Andersen (1978, 1979); Gorham (1988); Richmond (2002a); and Richmond, et al. (2008) in their studies. "Teacher immediacy", therefore, refers to the teacher's behaviours driven by the force of affinity seeking that could reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between teacher and students. It occurs in verbal and nonverbal communication. A more thorough review on teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours will be presented in the following Chapter Three (see Section 3.5).

2.6.2   The Research Relating to Teacher Immediacy

Derived from the Mehrabain's Social-psychology principle (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 1), teacher immediacy can be measured by the degree of students' like or dislike, evaluating positively or negatively, and highly preference for or no preference for the teacher's appearance, beliefs, attitude, personality, knowledge of subject matter, teaching clarity, teaching approaches, classroom management, and ways of addressing students' learning needs. Research in this area was mainly carried out via the quantitative approach through participants' self-report (Andersen, 1979, Andersen, Andersen & Jensen, 1979; Allen, Witt, & Wheeless, 2006; Chesebro, 2003; Christophel, 1990; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Gorham et al., 1989; Hsu, Watson, Lin & Ho, 2007; Kelly, 2012; McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976; McCroskey, Richmond, Sallinen, Fayer & Barraclough, 1995; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Ni & Aust, 2008; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006; Richmond, Gorham & McCroskey, 1987; Richmond, McCroskey & Johnson, 2003; Richmond, Lane

& McCroskey, 2006; Wang, 2009; Zhang, 2005; Zhang & Oetzel, 2006). Research on teacher immediacy has identified teacher talk that displays humour, mutual respect, tolerance, fairness, concern and encouragement; and nonverbal communication variables such as teacher's facial expressions, postures, eye contact, gestures, body movements, proximity, tactile behaviour, and vocal behaviour as critical factors to promote teacher immediacy.

The research relating to teacher immediacy in the classroom was triggered by the research of McCroskey and Wheeless (1976) in the United States of America. McCroskey and Wheeless (1976, pp. 21-22, pp. 230-260) studied the approaches that people might adopt in communication to seek affinity with others in social interaction, and provide seven strategies for affinity seeking: "control physical appearance, increase positive self-disclosure, stress areas of positive similarity, provide positive reinforcement, express cooperation, comply with the other person's wishes, and fulfill the other person's needs". Clearly, the seven strategies are derived from their notion of affinity expressed as "a positive attitude toward another person … another person has affinity for you if that person perceives you as credible, attractive, similar to her or himself, or perceives that you have legitimate power over her or him" (McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976, p. 231).

Inspired by McCroskey and Wheeless' (1976) study on people seeking affinity in social interaction, Andersen (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Andersen et al., 1979) studied the ways a teacher might try to get pupils to like her/him and develop a measurement scale encompassing 28 items. It is called "Behavioural Indicants of Immediacy" (BII) scale for instructional context (refer to Figure 3.4 in Chapter 3). This seminal research represents a pioneering study in teacher immediacy and has two contributions. Firstly, "she presented

the basic theoretical explanation for the impact of immediacy in instruction…; [secondly], she developed an observational methodology for measuring immediacy levels of teachers" (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992, p. 102).

Again, following the work of McCroskey and Wheeless (1976) in identifying ways in communication to develop affinity with others, Bell and Daly (1984) went far beyond than their predecessors, and proposed 25 typologies of affinity-seeking techniques. They include both verbal and nonverbal approaches. For each of the typology, they provide a brief description. Here are two examples, of which Example 1 describes a nonverbal approach and Example 2 describes a verbal approach to attain immediacy:

Example 1:

Nonverbal Immediacy: The teacher attempting to get a student to like him/her signals interest and liking through various nonverbal cues. For example, the teacher frequently makes eye contact, smile, frequent head nods, stands or sits close to the student, leans toward the student, and directs much gaze toward the student. All of the above indicate the teacher is very much interested in the student and what he/she has to say.

Example 2:

Openness: The teacher attempting to get a student to like him/her is open. He/she discloses information about his/her background, interests, and views. He/she may even disclose very personal information about his/her insecurities, weaknesses, and fears to make the student feel very special and trusted (e.g. "just between you and me").

Most teacher immediacy studies have been conducted in the United States of America since 1970s. Only a few studies were conducted in other countries such as China (Myers, Zhong & Guan, 1998; Yu, 2009; Wen, 2013; Zhang, 2005), Taiwan (Hsu, 2005, 2010; Hsu, Watson, Lin & Ho, 2007), Japan (Nanette, 1998;   Özmen, 2011), Thailand (Avecilla & Vergara, 2014), and Iran (Ketabdar, Yazdani & Yarahmadi, 2014). Furthermore, many of the teacher immediacy studies are targeted at the classrooms of tertiary level (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Christophel,+66 1990; Christensen & Menzel, 1998; Estepp, 2012; Furlich, 2007; Galindo, 2012; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Hoyer, 2011; Hsu et al., 2007; Renaud, 2010; Saechou, 2005; Sallinen & Barraclough, 1996; Sydow, 2008; Titsworth, 1999; Toland, 2011, Velez & Cano, 2008). Few targeted the classrooms at secondary and high school levels (Kelley, 1988; Littlejohn, 2012; Tabasco, 2007; Singletary, 2013), and very few, if not none at all, were targeted at the primary level. In the new millennium, when online learning has become a popular mode of education, the research on teacher immediacy has spread into this new setting of distance education (Allen & Laumakis, 2009; Baker, 2008; Bozkaya & Aydin, 2007; Bohnstedt, 2011; Jennings, 2013; Khan, 2007; Khoo, 2010; Ni & Aust, 2008; Zapf, 2008; Witt, 2000).

The following reviews four studies on teacher immediacy conducted within the Asian region. They focused on the development of measuring scales for teacher immediacy; investigating teachers' nonverbal immediacy behaviours in relation to students' willingness to speak English in class, examining teacher verbal immediacy in relation to the sense of classroom community (instructor-learner close relationship) in online classes, and identifying which parts of pedagogic discourse in foreign language teacher's immediacy is initiated and the effect of teacher's discursive immediacy on classroom teaching.

2.6.3   The Research of Teacher Immediacy Conducted within the Asia Region

A decade ago, Zhang and Oetzel (2006) constructed and validated a "teacher immediacy scale from a Chinese cultural perspective". It also explored the overall relationship between student's cognitive and affective learning and teacher immediacy through research conducted in college classrooms of China. They measured Chinese teachers' immediacy through 15 items categorized into three types of immediacy. Their immediacy scales were itemized as strategic moves geared towards good teaching professional conducts:

1. Instructional Immediacy: teacher is committed to teaching, teacher is well-prepared in teaching, teacher is passionate about teaching, teacher answers questions honestly, and teacher is patient in teaching.

2. Relational Immediacy: teacher understands students, teacher treats student fairly and equally, teacher respects students, teacher does not hurt students' self-respect, teacher encourages students, teacher provides timely response to students' concerns.

3. Personal Immediacy: teacher has good morality, teacher sets a good example for others, teacher is approachable, and teacher conducts him/herself well.

Factor analysis and correlation with measures of teacher clarity and classroom communication were used to confirm and validate the Chinese Teacher Immediacy Scale.

Hsu et al. (2007) investigated the relationship between teachers' nonverbal immediacy behaviours and students' willingness to speak English in class. A sample of 235 Taiwanese students were invited to respond to instruments designed to measure the frequency of teachers' nonverbal immediacy behaviours in relation to students' willingness to speak English in class. Pearson correlation and multiple regression analyses were used for quantitative analysis. The results indicated that students' willingness to talk were correlated positively and significantly with teachers' nonverbal immediacy behaviours; and relaxed

57

body position, touching, gestures, and looking at the board or notes, were four nonverbal teacher immediacy behaviours identified as significant predictors of students' willingness to talk.

Ni and Aust (2008) employed a quantitative approach to examine the sense of classroom community and teacher verbal immediacy in online classes. Their study confirms the importance of both sense of classroom community and teacher verbal immediacy in online courses. They argue that even for online learning, the key element that connects course content, learners, and teachers in a meaningful way is the pedagogy, not the technology. As such, online teaching should rather be viewed as a form of pedagogy; it should not simply be considered as a delivery system, and thus the sense of classroom and teacher verbal immediacy in online courses is important. The verbal immediacy behaviour in Ni and Aust's (2008) study is defined as text-based computer-mediated communication behaviours contributing to psychological closeness between teacher and student. "[U]sing personal examples, using humour, providing and inviting feedback, and addressing and being addressed by students by name" (Ni & Aust, 2008, p. 481), are some teacher verbal immediacy behaviour examples included in their scale.

More recently, Wen (2013) conducted teacher immediacy research in China to identify in which parts of pedagogic discourse in foreign language (FL) teacher's immediacy initiated and the effect of teacher's discursive immediacy on classroom teaching. Halliday's SFL theory, Martin's appraisal theory, and Bernstein's two-part dichotomy of pedagogic discourse (i.e., regulative and instructional discourse) were used to construct the core features and formative causes of FL teachers' discursive immediacy. The author argues that construction of teacher's discursive immediacy is accumulative. Some features of teacher's

discursive immediacy are expressing care, sensitivity to students' needs in learning, willingness to rephrase the instructional content, and encouraging students to take part in learning.

Clearly, most of the teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy research has relied on self-report data via survey instruments. To fill the research gap, the present research investigates how teacher immediacy is used to establish a teacher-student classroom harmonious relationship, which is taken by the researcher as a key aspect of interpersonal meaning construction in CSL classrooms at the primary level, via direct observation approach. The qualitative research approach employed in this study is in response to Renaud's following appeal:

> *A great deal of research on immediacy is conducted by collecting student perceptions of teacher performance. A number of effective survey instruments have been developed and validated because of research over the years. Researchers should move toward direct observation of teachers in the classroom to record details of actual incidents of teacher behaviors over time. Specific examples can be recorded in "real time" without relying on student memory of the last class or the next class scenarios.*
>
> *(Renaud, 2010, p. 12)*

2.6.4 The Impact of Teacher Immediacy on Student Learning

Research into teacher immediacy has long verified that the teacher's verbal and nonverbal behaviours perceived by the learner as immediate and nonimmediate influence the students' liking of the subject and hence their achievement in the subject (Richmond, 2002a). The argument made by Richmond (2000) shows that the teacher enacting as an immediate teacher in classroom helps to create a harmonious relationship with students, and the positive effect helps to increase affective and cognitive learning. Often, the objectives of teacher immediacy studies are to investigate the influence of teachers' verbal and nonverbal

behaviours on effective teaching, to improve students' cognitive and affective learning, to foster language learning and willingness to communicate in English (as a second language) in traditional classrooms. For instance, highly immediate teachers have been reported to be associated with increases in student motivation to study (Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Christophel, 1990; Richmond, 1990), affective learning (Allen, Witt & Wheeless, 2006; Andersen, 1979; Richmond et al., 1987; Pogue & AhYun, 2006), and cognitive learning (Gorham, 1988; Kelley & Gorham, 1988; Richmond et al., 1987); and nonverbal immediacy behaviours can influence students' perceptions of teachers and result in positive instructional outcomes (McCroskey, Valencic & Richmond, 2004).

According to Richmond, McCroskey and Hickson (2008，pp. 275-276), increased teacher immediacy can result in the following outcomes:

- Increased liking, affiliation, and positive affect on the part of the student.

- Increased student affect for the subject matter.

- Increased students' cognitive learning.

- Increased students' motivation.

- Increased student-teacher communication and interaction.

- Reduced status differential between student and teacher.

- Reduced student resistance to instructor' attempts to influence or modify behavior.

- The teacher being perceived as a more competent communicator, one who listens and cares.

- The teacher being able to reduce or alleviate student anxiety about the classroom situation.

Richmond, McCroskey and Hickson (2008，pp. 275-276) claim that many of these outcomes are the direct result of research conducted by Richmond and her associates. Some implications can be inferred from the above findings. The following are implications inferred by Richmond, McCroskey and Hickson (2008，pp. 275-276) in response to the above results:

- Immediate teachers are liked far more than nonimmediate teachers.

- Immediate teachers seem to have more reverent, respect, or liking power; hence students tend to comply with or conform to the wishes of the more immediate teachers. Nonimmediate teachers have more difficulty getting students to comply with or conform to their wishes.

- A more immediate teacher is perceived as a more caring, sensitive teacher, hence the student feels less apprehensive about the overall instructional environment.

- Nonimmediate teachers are usually perceived as ineffective, if not incompetent communicators.

- Students who become motivated to learn the subject matter because of the teacher's immediate behaviors will do well in the content and continue to learn long after the teacher who motivated them is out of the picture.

- Students with immediate teachers attend more to the subject matter, concentrate more on the subject, retain more of the content, and when challenged can correctly recall more of the subject matter than students with nonimmediate teachers.

- Students might be more willing to ask clarifying questions about the content without fear of the teacher.

The above results and implications suggest that there are significant advantages to be gained from teacher immediacy in the classroom.

2.7   Summary

As can be seen in this chapter, the study of interpersonal meaning multimodally is not common in Malaysia, particularly, in the context of classroom discourse. In China, however, some multimodal analysis studies have been carried out to investigate the meaning making in English classrooms. Based on the search from the titles theses in China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), as far as studies on interpersonal meaning construction is concerned, none examined the Chinese as a second language classroom. CNKI is an electronic platform created to integrate significant Chinese knowledge-based information resources.   It is the largest source of China-based information resources in the world, reflecting the latest developments in Chinese politics, economics, humanity and social science, science and technology. Moreover, many past studies on interpersonal meaning derived data from only one mode. For multimodal approaches, there is very scant research investigating spoken discourse and body language as most studies are about the written text. In addition, the nonverbal research on body language in the past work mostly is quantitative in nature. The functions of the nonverbal behaviour of the research participants in the research were largely inferred from the self-report method rather than classroom observation method, raising concerns over validity. Furthermore, to date, none of the classroom interpersonal meaning negotiation research probed into its relationships with teacher immediacy. This study asserts that incorporating elements of teacher immediacy will add value to classroom interpersonal relationships studies. A harmonious classroom environment is crucial for teaching and learning. Based on the above reality, a more thorough and qualitative way of studying interpersonal meaning construction is therefore necessary in order to obtain insights into the positive and negative roles enacted by the teachers, and the influence of the teacher's attitude and immediacy, the key elements

making up a good interpersonal relationship between the teacher and the students in the classroom.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical foundation for the analytical tools used in this study. This study was conducted using the multimodal discourse analysis approach to explore how CSL teachers construct interpersonal meanings in Chinese as a second language classrooms through the use of multisemiotic resources, which included teachers' verbal and nonverbal representations. This research draws on theories developed by the School of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as the base for the analytical framework. It includes Halliday's theory of Interpersonal Metafunction (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1970, 1973, 1978, 1979, 1985, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004); Martin and colleagues' appraisal theory (Martin, 1992; Martin and Rose, 2003; Martin and White, 2005) and multimodal discourse analysis approaches (Kress et. al, 2001，2005; Hood, 2011; Martinec, 2001). In addition, the analytical framework integrates other schools of thought, namely Norris's (2004) Multimodal Interactional Analysis, and Immediacy Theory from the School of Communication on ways of establishing teacher immediacy (Andersen, 1978, 1979；Gorham, 1988；Mehrabian, 1969，1971; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008).

The following discussion begins by introducing the realisation of interpersonal meaning through teacher talk (Turn-taking, the amount of talk, Person system, Mood, and Appraisal) and the teacher's body language (facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and proxemics). They are discussed under Section 3.2. The multimodal discourse analysis concepts (mode, semiotic resources) and approaches (Social Semiotic Multimodal Analysis

64

and Interactional Multimodal Analysis) will also be discussed in Section 3.3. Lastly, Section 3.4 discusses the notion of teacher immediacy (teacher verbal immediacy and nonverbal immediacy behaviours).

3.2   The Realisation of Interpersonal Meaning in Teacher Talk

From the previous discussion in Chapter Two, the realisation of interpersonal meaning via the semiotic resources of language includes the use of personal pronouns, mood choice, and appraisals in teacher talk. The theories related to these elements will be discussed in Section 3.2.2, 3.2.3 and 3.2.4. According to Eggins (2004) and Eggins and Slade (1997), manipulation of turn-taking (determined by the participant's role, power and status), amount of talk, the duration of talk, and the content allowed for talk, also serve as other semiotic resources of language mediating interpersonal meaning. Eggin's and associates' argument will be introduced in the Section 3.2.1 as follows.

3.2.1   The Realisation of Interpersonal Meaning through Turn-taking, Amount of Talk, Duration of Talk, and Content of Talk

Eggin (2004) argues that the analysis of turn-taking can reveal the power and relationship of participants in conversation, particularly through the realisation of the tenor dimensions of classroom register, which is also relevant to the present study. Eggin (2004) states that one very simple way in which an analysis of turn-taking can reveal dimensions of tenor which refers to the participant's role relationship, variation in formality, the degree of emotional charge (Halliday, 1978, p. 33), "is to simply consider who is doing the talking in a situation. The most striking indication of power is in who gets to be speaker in an exchange, and for how long" (Eggin, 2004, p. 184). A second area of turn-taking analysis is seen by looking at what speakers do when they get the speaker's role. For example, who

gives? who demands? and what are these reciprocal rights (p. 185)? This is relevant to the people and the content allowed by the participants to talk.

According to Eggins and Slade (1997), the interpretation of interpersonal meanings of conversation involves looking at what kinds of role relations are established through talk, what attitudes interactants express to and about each other, and how they negotiate in taking turns, etc. (p. 49). Eggins and Slade (1997, pp. 53-54) explain that the employment of semiotic resources in negotiating interpersonal meaning operates within and across turns relevant to how participants a) select their mood to indicate communicative and social roles "which represent and enact the social identities of participants" (roles); b) formulate their choices of "attitudinal and expressive meanings in talk" that "indicate functional equality of roles" or "act out of status differences" (status); and c) "choose to act on each other through their choice of speech functions (e.g. speech acts)", and choice of "to sustain or terminate conversational exchanges", that is, turn-taking (power).

3.2.2 The Person System in Conveying Interpersonal Meaning

Person system is about ways of addressing people. It helps to establish social relations and reference (Halliday, 1978, p. 144). Halliday (1994) categorizes the English pronoun system as "the first person pronouns, the second person pronouns and the third person pronouns" (p. 141) and points out that pronoun system, both as pronoun (I, you, she, he) and as possessive (my, your, her, his), plays an important part in realising interpersonal meaning of language. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) further explain that, "interpersonal meanings are embodied in the person system, both as pronouns (person as Thing, e.g. she, you) and as possessive determiners (person as Deitic, e.g. her, your)." (p. 328) They explain that, in "the basic referential category of Person as Deitic, 'I' was 'the one speaking'; 'you', 'the

one(s) spoken to'; he, she, it, they were the third party, 'the other(s) in the situation' "(p. 551). Christie (2002, p. 16) points out that, "[t]he interpersonal resources available in English with which teachers and students negotiate and maintain relationships are rich and varied, including … [t]he person system …. Teachers classically use the first person plural when building solidarity with their students in some enterprise to be undertaken". The first person plural stated here is referred to as "we".

The Chinese pronoun system is the same as that of the English, which also has three classifications, the first person pronouns as "我 (I)，我们 (we)", second person pronouns as "你 (you)，您(polite form of you)，你们 (plural you)", third person pronouns as "他 (he)，她 (she)，它 (It)，他们 [(They) referring to men]，她们 [(They) referring to ladies]". Hudson (1996, pp. 120-127) holds the view that the social power and solidarity of the interactants can be revealed through the selection of pronoun system, which is obviously embodied in the Chinese pronoun system. For instance, use of "nin" or "ni" indicates different social power and solidarity of the speaker and the hearer. The former is a respectful address whereas the latter is a normal address (Xiandai Hanyu Guifan Cidian, 2004, p. 957). The present research examines how the personal pronouns are used in the negotiation of social relations and the expression of personal attitudes and feelings. As the objective of this study is to investigate the construction of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms, only first person and second person pronouns used in teacher talk were examined. Third personal pronouns are not relevant to the aims of this study.

Generally speaking, both English and Chinese pronoun systems are regarded effective to fulfill interpersonal meaning of language. How person system contributes to the realisation

of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms will be discussed, based on the theoretical frameworks of Halliday, and other scholars' categories of the person system (e.g., Christie, 2002, p. 16), and study of roles the person system plays in human communication.

3.2.3   Mood Choices in Conveying Interpersonal Meaning

Halliday (1985, 1994) proposes an analytical framework to investigate interpersonal meaning conveyed by the speaker and addressee from the perspective of one getting into a communicative exchange. Halliday takes the clause as the unit of analysis. A clause is viewed as the outcome of a communicative exchange of speaking or writing. In interactive events of speaking and writing, the speaker or writer "adopts for himself a particular speech role, and in so doing assigns to the listener a complementary role which he wishes him to adopt in his turn" (Halliday, 1994, p. 68). For instance, in offering a service, "a speaker is taking on the role of" service provider and "requiring the listener to take on the role of consumer of the service being supplied. While analysing a clause, he identifies two fundamental roles of a speaker from the dimension of exchange: (i) giving and (ii) demanding, and the two fundamental commodities of exchange relevant to these two fundamental roles are (a) goods-&-services and (b) information, as can be seen from the four examples of clause shown in Table 3.1 to explain his analysis.

Table 3.1: Giving or Demanding, Goods-&-Service

Commodity exchanged ➔ Role in exchange ↓	(a) goods-&-services	(b) information
(i) giving	'offer' Would you like this teapot?	'statement' He's giving her the teapot.
(ii) demanding	'commanding' Give me that teapot!	'question' What is he giving her?

(Adopted from Halliday, 1985/1994, p. 69)

Halliday (1994) claims that when taken together, the four items in the two variables of exchange "define the four primary speech functions of OFFER, COMMAND, STATEMENT and QUESTION" (p. 69). 'Offer' is the initiation of 'give goods-&-services', 'command' is the initiation of 'demand goods-&-services', 'statement' is the initiation of 'give information', and 'question' is the initiation of 'demand information'. In turn, these speech functions "are matched by a set of desired responses" (p. 69). Halliday proposes four clauses as the respective desired responses and explains them as: "accepting an offer", "carrying out a command", "acknowledging a statement" and "answering a question" (Halliday, 1994, pp. 69-70). Halliday has also identified four discretionary alternatives to these four expected responses as "rejecting an offer", "refuse to carry out a command", "contradicting the statement", and "decline to answer the question". He again proposes four sample clauses for these alternatives to indicate the language action. They are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Expected response and discretionary alternative		
Speaker	Listener (becoming Speaker in his turn)	
	Expected response	Discretionary alternative
Would you like this teapot? (Offer)	Yes, I would.	No, I wouldn't.
Give me that teapot! (Command)	All right, I will.	No, I won't.
He's giving her the teapot. (Statement)	Oh, is he? Yes, he is.	No, he isn't.
What is he giving her? (Question)	A teapot.	I don't know; shan't tell you.
(Adapt from Halliday, 1994, p. 69)		

From Tables 3.1 and 3.2, Halliday's notion of clause as exchange is, "giving implies receiving and demanding implies giving in response" (Halliday, 1994, p. 68). The semantic functions associated with the exchange of information and goods-and-services are named by Halliday as proposition and proposal respectively (Halliday, 1994, pp. 70-71). For proposition, the verbal form of questions and statements is by "itself is the commodity that is being exchanged" (p. 70). Halliday cautions that, different from proposition, the

exchange commodity (expected response) for a proposal may not necessary be verbal as what is being demanded may refer to an object (e.g. "pass the salt") or an action (e.g., "kiss me"), unlike information which "has no existence except in the form of language" (p. 70). Exchange of information is a means as well as an end. In contrast, the exchange of goods and service can just be completed by a strictly nonverbal approach (e.g. the salt has been passed without any verbal response), and "language is sometimes brought in to help the process along" (Halliday, 1994, p. 69) (e.g., the verbal response "here you are" was accompanying by the action of passing the salt).

The three clauses "He is giving her the teapot", "He is giving her the teapot, isn't he?", and "Is he giving her the teapot?" share a common proposition: "He" + "give" + "her" + "teapot". However, functionally, they are different. The speaker used a "statement" to inform what he knew, and used a question to seek information to clarify a doubt. To understand the meaning of utterances in interactive events is more than grasping the meaning of propositions. It is necessary to understand the communicative functions as well, in the basic speech roles carried in them and the more diverse interpersonal meanings conveyed (affirm, deny, doubt, contradict, temper, regret, etc.).

The verbal and nonverbal communicative functions conveyed via propositions or proposals identified by Halliday in terms of particular speech acts for example - affirm, deny, doubt, contradict, insist on, accept with reservation, qualify, temper, regret, accept the offer, reject the offer, obey the command, and reject the command - have interpersonal meanings. The communicative functions are certainly relevant to the communicative behaviour observed in classroom teaching and learning in the present study.

In SFL, the clause as exchange in conveying interpersonal meaning is organized in terms of two components: mood and residue. The elements in mood structure are subject and finite. The elements in residue structure are predicator, complement and adjunct. Mood is conveyed through the selection of declarative, interrogative, imperative mood forms. Declaratives and interrogatives are normally associated with the relationship of subject and finite (determined by which element is preceded by which element). The subject forms the nominal group while the finite belongs to the verb group. For example, in a declarative clause, the finite is preceded by the subject to indicate that the clause is giving information (Subject^Finite: He is giving her the teapot). In an interrogative, the subject is preceded by the finite to indicate the clause is requesting information (Finite^Subject: Is he giving her the teapot?). The symbol '^' in Subject^Finite is used in SFG to indicate 'followed by' (Halliday, 1985, p. 54). The finite makes the negotiation about the validity of a proposition that rests on the subject possible (Thompson, 1996, p. 45). Thompson argues that "much of the interactive work of the clause is performed by the subject and finite (Thompson, 1996, p. 50).

Mood choices analysis in this study focused on teachers' speech roles (giving or demanding) and speech functions (statement, questions, command, and offer). The analysis of sentence structure was not the focus of this analysis. Thompson (1996) notes that "statements are most naturally expressed by declarative clauses; questions by interrogative clauses; and commands by imperative clauses…, offers are the odd ones out, since they are not associated with specific mood choice (though they are strongly associated with modality)" (p. 40). Eggins and Slade (1997) too indicate that "declarative clauses are typically used to initiate conversational exchanges by putting forward information for negotiation" (p. 85);

interrogatives are "used to initiate an exchange by requesting information from others" (p. 85); and imperatives often function to make commands.

3.2.4 Martin and White's Appraisal Theory on Attitude

According to Martin and White (2005, p. 1), the appraisal theory is "working within the SFL paradigm of M. A. K. Halliday and his colleagues", and "it is one of three major discourse semantic resources construing interpersonal meaning" (p. 34). Figure 3.1 shows an overview of appraisal resources. There are three sub-systems in appraisal theory: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation (p. 42). Martin and White (2005) explain, "Attitude is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgements of behaviour and evaluation of things". However, "Engagement deals with sourcing attitudes and play of voices around opinions in discourse" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). The two options of engagement of 'voice' into a field of evaluation are heterogloss and monogloss in the dialogic communication context. It shows the readiness and willingness of the speaker in sharing his/her value position by allowing others to intrude into a dialogic context (Martin & White, 2005, pp. 92-93). Martin and White (2005, p. 35) assert that, "Graduation attends to grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories blurred". The sub-system for Graduation is 'Force' and 'Focus'. The present research however, focuses on analysing the attitudinal resources used in teacher talk to construct interpersonal meaning and in delivering the content. Therefore, the following discussion, reviews the notion of attitudinal resources only, as engagement, and gradational resources are not the concern of this study.
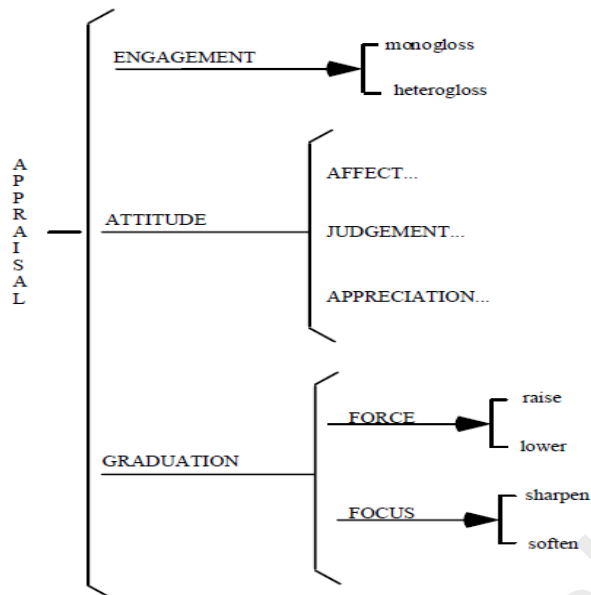
Figure 3.1: An Overview of Appraisal Resources
(Reproduced from Martin & White, 2005, p. 38)

Attitude, as a system of meaning, is concerned with the mapping of feelings. It covers three regions: emotion, ethics and aesthetics. Among these three regions, emotion is concerned with the reaction to behaviours, texts, processes, and phenomena, while ethics is concerned with the evaluation to behaviours, and aesthetics is concerned with the evaluation of texts, processes and phenomena. Emotion seems to cover events and things in the other two regions because emotion is "at the heart of these regions since it is the expressive resource we are born with and embody physiologically from almost the moment of birth" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 42).

ethics/ morality (rules and regulations)

feeling institutionalized as proposals
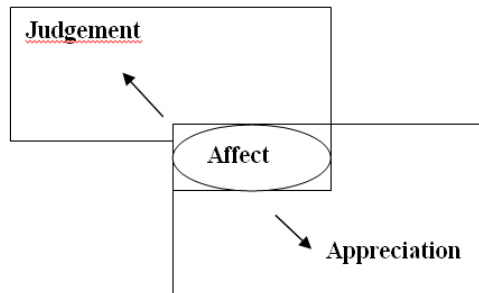
feeling institutionalized as propositions

aesthetics/ value (criteria and assessment)

Figure 3.2: Judgement and Appreciation as Institutionalized Affect
(Reproduced from Martin & White, 2005, p. 45)

Martin and White refer to the emotive, ethical and aesthetic dimensions of meaning as Affect, Judgement and Appreciation, while the notions of Judgement and Appreciation are considered as institutionalized Affect. Figure 3.2 illustrates the relationship between Affect, Judgement and Appreciation, where Affect is situated at the centre, and Judgement and Appreciation on the two sides of Affect. To explain Figure 3.2, Martin and White (2005, pp. 42-45) state:

> *Affect is concerned with registering positive and negative feelings: do we feel happy or sad, confident or anxious, interested or bored? ....Judgement deals with attitudes towards behaviour, which we admire or criticize, praise or condemn.... Appreciation involves evaluations of semiotic and natural phenomena, according to the ways in which they are valued or not in a given field.....Judgement and appreciation is ...institutionalized feelings...judgement reworks feelings in the realm of proposals about behaviour – how we should behave or not; some of these proposals get formalized as rules and regulations administrated by church and state. Appreciation...reworks feelings as propositions about the values of things – which they are worth or not; some of these valuations get formalized in systems of awards.*

The following section discusses the notions of the three sub-systems of Attitude: Affect, Judgement and Appreciation.

3.2.4.1 Affect

According to Martin and White (2005, p. 49), "Affect can be classified into three major sets having to do with un/happiness, in/security and dis/satisfaction" respectively. "The un/happiness variable covers emotions concerned with 'affairs of the heart'" – misery, antipathy, happiness, affection; "the in/security variable covers emotions concerned with ecosocial well-being" – disquiet, surprise, confident, trust; and "the dis/satisfaction variable covers emotions concerned with telos (the pursuit of goals) - ennui, displeasure, interest, pleasure" (See them in Tables 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5).

Table 3.3: Affect-un/happiness (Martin & Whites, 2005, p. 49)		
UN/HAPPINESS	Surge (of behaviour)	Disposition
unhappiness		
misery	whimper	down [low]
[mood: 'in me']	cry	sad [median]
	wail	miserable [high]
antipathy	rubbish	dislike
[directed feeling: 'at you']	abuse	hate
	revile	abhor
happiness	chuckle	cheerful
cheer	laugh	buoyant
	rejoice	jubilant
affection	shake hands	be fond of
	hug	love
	embrace	adore

Table 3.4: Affect - in/security (Martin & White, 2005, p. 50)		
IN/SECURITY	Surge (of behaviour)	Disposition
insecurity		
disquiet	restless	uneasy
	twitching	anxious
	shaking	freaked out
surprise	start	startled
	cry out	jolted
	faint	staggered
security		
confidence	declare	together
	assert	confident
	proclaim	assured
trust	delegate	comfortable with
	commit	confident in/about
	entrust	trusting

DIS/SATISFACTION	Surge (of behaviour)	Disposition
dissatisfaction		
ennui	fidget	flat
	yawn	state
	tune out	jaded
displeasure	caution	cross, bored with
	scold	angry, sick of
	castigate	furious, fed up with
satisfaction		
interest	attentive	involved
	busy	absorbed
	industrious	engrossed
pleasure	pat on the back	satisfied, impressed
	compliment	pleased, charmed
	reward	chuffed, thrilled

Table 3.5: Affect - dis/satisfaction (Martin & White, 2005, p. 51)

3.2.4.2 Judgement

Judgement is the ethical dimension of attitudinal meaning. Martin and White (2005) categorise judgement into two major groups: social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem judges on human behaviour and personality from the aspects of normality, capacity and tenacity. Normality is concerned with how unusual someone is. Capacity deals with how capable people are, while tenacity involves how resolute a person is. On the other hand, social sanction judges human behaviour and personality from the aspects of veracity and propriety. Veracity refers to how truthful someone is, and Propriety is about how ethical people are. The functions of social esteem and social sanction in social processes of institutionalization, alignment, and solidarity are elaborated as follows (Martin & White, 2005, p. 52):

> *Social esteem tends to be policed in the oral culture, through chat, gossip, jokes and stories of various kinds – with humour often having a critical role to play…Sharing value in this area is critical to the formation of social networks (family, friends, colleagues, etc.). Social sanction on the other hand is more often codified in writing, as edicts, decrees, rules, regulations and laws about how to behave as surveilled by church and state – with penalties and punishments as levers against those not complying with the code. Sharing values in this area underpins civic duty and religious observances.*

The realisation of social esteem and social sanction is illustrated in Table 3.6 and Table 3.7.

Table 3.6: Judgement - Social Esteem (reproduced from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53)

SOCIAL ESTEEM	Positive [admire]	Negative [criticize]
Normality 'how special?'	lucky, fortunate, charmed...; normal, natural, familiar...; cool, stable, predictable...; in, fashionable, avant garde...; celebrated, unsung...	unlucky, hapless, star-crossed...; odd, peculiar, eccentric...; erratic, unpredictable...; dated, daggy, retrograde...; obscure, also-ran...
Capacity 'how capable?'	powerful, vigorous, robust...; sound, healthy, fit...; adult, mature, experienced...; witty, humorous, droll...; insightful, clever, gifted...; balanced, together, sane...; sensible, expert, shrewd...; competent, accomplished...; successful, productive...	mild, weak, whimpy...; unsound, sick, crippled...; immature, childish, helpless...; dull, dreary, grave...; slow, stupid, thick...; flaky, neurotic, insane...; naive, inexpert, foolish...; illiterate, uneducated, ignorant...; incompetent, unaccomplished...; unsuccessful, unproductive...
Tenacity 'how dependable?'	plucky, brave, heroic...; cautious, wary, patient...; careful, thorough, meticulous...; tireless, persevering, resolute...; reliable, dependable...; faithful, loyal, constant...; flexible, adaptable, accommodating...	timid, cowardly, gutless...; rash, impatient, impetuous...; hasty, capricious, reckless...; weak, distracted, despondent...; unreliable, undependable...; unfaithful, disloyal, inconstant...; stubborn, obstinate, willful...

Table 3.7: Judgement - Social Sanction (reproduced from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53)

SOCIAL SANCTION 'moral'	Positive [praise]	Negative [condemn]
Veracity [truth] 'how honest?'	truthful, honest, credible...; frank, candid, direct...; discrete, tactful...	dishonest, deceitful, lying...; deceptive, manipulative, devious...; blunt, blabbermouth...
Propriety [ethics] 'how far beyond reproach?'	good, moral, ethical...; law abiding, fair, just,,.; sensitive, kind, caring...; unassuming, modest, humble...; polite, respectful, reverent...; altruistic, generous, charitable...	bad, immoral, evil...; corrupt, unfair, unjust...; insensitive, mean, cruel...; vain, snobby, arrogant...; rude, discourteous, irreverent...; selfish, greedy, avaricious...

3.2.4.3 *Appreciation*

Appreciation is the aesthetic dimension of attitudinal meaning. It is the "meanings construing our evaluation of 'thing', especially things we make and performances we give, but it also includes natural phenomena – what such things are worth" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 56). Our 'reaction' to things and phenomena, the 'composition' of them, and their 'value', are three aspects of appreciation on things and phenomena. 'Reaction' is asking about "Do they catch our attention? Do they please us?" 'Composition' is asking about "Do they balance? Are they complex?" 'Value' is asking about "Were they worthwhile?" (how innovative? authentic? timely?). Illustrative realisations of appreciation are presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Types of Appreciation (reproduced from Martin & White, 2005, p. 56)		
	Positive	Negative
Reaction Impact: 'did it grab me?'	arresting, captivating, engaging…; fascinating, exciting, moving…; lively, dramatic, intense…; remarkable, notable, sensational…	dull, boring, tedious…; dry, ascetic, uninviting…; flat, predictable, monotonous…; unremarkable, pedestrian…
Reaction Quality: 'did I like it?'	okay, fine, good…; lovely, beautiful, splendid…; appealing, enchanting, welcome…	Bad, yuk, nasty…; plain, ugly, grotesque…; repulsive, revolting, off-putting…
Composition Balance: 'did it hang together?'	balanced, harmonious, unified, symmetrical, proportioned…; consistent, considered, logical…; shapely, curvaceous, willowly…	unbalanced, discordant, irregular, uneven, flawed…; contradictory, disorganised…; shapeless, amorphous, distorted…
Composition Complexity: 'was it hard to follow?'	simple, pure, elegant…; lucid, clear, precise…; intricate, rich, detailed, precise…	ornate, extravagant, byzantine…; arcane, unclear, woolly…; plain, monolithic, simplistic…
Valuation 'was it worthwhile?'	penetrating, profound, deep…; innovative, original, creative…; timely, long awaited, landmark…; inimitable, exceptional, unique…; authentic, real, genuine…; valuable, priceless, worthwhile…; appropriate, helpful, effective…	shallow, reductive, insignificant…; derivative, conventional, prosaic…; dated, overdue, untimely…; dime-a-dozen, everyday, common; fake, bogus, glitzy…; worthless, shoddy, pricey…; ineffective, useless, write-off…

Martin and White's (2005) appraisal theory shows that we can analyse speakers/ writers' stance, their construction of identity, their alignment with the listeners/ addressees, their value position towards materials they talk about and addressees they deal with, and their willingness to dialogism, according to the parameters of attitude (affect, judgement, appreciation), engagement (disclaim, proclaim, entertain, attribute) and graduation (force, focus). As the main purpose of this study was to determine teachers' attitude towards students' behaviour and learning performance, the analysis only focused on attitudinal resources evident in teacher talk.

3.3 The Realisation of Interpersonal Meaning via the Teacher's Body Language

The realisation of interpersonal meaning via the teacher's body language in this study focused on the teacher's facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics. The teacher's facial expression, posture and proxemics were analysed based on Martinec's (2001) interpersonal resources when presenting action, which include affect, modality and engagement. The analysis of gaze followed Harrigan's (2008) concept, and the Systemic Functional Approach (Lim, 2011; Hood, 2011) and McNeill's (1992) model were deployed to analyse various gestures used in the classrooms. Detailed discussions of each analysis are given below.

3.3.1 Facial Expression Analysis

Facial expression data in this study were analysed based on the system of affect introduced by Martinec (2001, pp. 126-130). It is a system of meaning mediated by a combination of the movements of head, eyes and mouth. Martinec maintains that "affect deals with display of emotions, which predominantly occur in the face" (Martinec, 2001, p. 126). Examples of facial expressions include expressions of seven emotions: "happiness, surprise, fear,

sadness, anger, disgust and interest" (Ekman, 1994). Ekman and Friesen (1969) call this cluster of emotions as primary affects (p. 71). Those affects are called primary because they are universals and familiar to most people, in that "their facial displays were recognized by all the subjects that they were shown to, regardless of their cultural background" (Martinec, 2001, p. 126). The present research decided that only those facial expressions closely related to the lesson contents and research objectives would be studied, namely anger, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise.

Martinec's (2001) system of affect categorises primary affects into two broad groups based on the 'dimension of realization' via movements of head, eyes and mouth. They are named action-based and value-based affects. Action-based affects are "realized by the dimensions of open-closed and forward-backward… [whereas] … [v]alue-based affects are to do with the up-and-down dimension" (Martinec, 2001, pp. 126-127). Martinec (2001) claims that, generally, action-based affects involve greater movement than value-based affects as they frequently involve shoulders, hands and arms and even whole body movements (p. 126).

According to Martinec (2001), the open-closed dimension most often considers the mouth and the eyes, and the forward-backward dimension has to do with head movements, and the up-and-down dimension most often involve the muscle movement at the corners of the mouth and eyes. Focusing on the combination of head, eyes and mouth movements, Martinec further categorizes action-based affects into two types of affects, namely: active and reactive affects. "Reactive affects are realized by an open mouth and eyes, and a head movement backwards", "Active affects are realized by a closed mouth and a head movement forward" (pp. 127-128). An example of reactive affect is fear, and an example of active affect is anger. Similarly, Martinec also differentiates two types of value-based

affects, namely: positive and negative affects. "Positive affects are realized by the corners of the mouth and eyes moving upwards….", "Negative affects are realized by the corners of the mouth and eyes moving downwards" (p. 128). An example of positive affect is happiness, and an example of negative affect is sadness. A description of Martinec (2001, pp. 126-130) system of Affects is summarized in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Martinec's (2001) System of Affects and Its Realisation			
Affects	Emotion	Images	Realization
Active affects	Anger		• mouth close and • head movement forward
Reactive affects	Fear		• mouth open and • head movement backward
Positive affects	Happiness		• The corners of the mouth and eyes moving up
Negative affects	Sadness		• The corners of the mouth and eyes are moving downwards

3.3.2 Gaze Analysis

Gaze is the movement and direction of the eyes in visual interaction (Harrigan, 2008, p. 137), which can be examined through the ways of making eye contact, looking, glancing,

and giving visual attention. Eye contact is defined as two people gazing at each other's eyes. Looking, glancing and gazing are generally referred to as the action of a direct gaze to another person's face. Actional and temporal variables used to measure gaze include the frequency of looking at the subjects and the total duration of looking. In the present study, frequency is defined as the number of times that teacher looks at a student/ students. Total duration is the time taken (in seconds) the teacher looks at the students.

3.3.3   Gesture Analysis

This study combines gesture analysis methods developed by the Systemic Functional Approach (Lim, 2011; Hood, 2011) and McNeill's (1992) model to analyse various gestures used in the classrooms. Lim (2011, pp. 158-159) defines Communicative Gesture as an action, which communicates meanings; whereas, Performative Gesture is a movement performed practically to execute a task. Examples of Performative Gesture include picking up a pen, writing on the whiteboard, distributing notes. Examples of Communicative Gesture include the thumb-up gesture (to praise), positing the index finger in front of mouth (to keep quiet), the sign for OK (signal to show agreement). The objective of this study was to determine how teachers used their spoken language and body language in constructing interpersonal meaning, therefore, only the teacher's communicative gestures were analysed.

The communicative gestures of each teacher were analysed based on McNeill's (1992) and Hood's (2011) classifications. McNeill (1992) categorizes the communicative gestures into four groups, namely, Iconics, Metaphorics, Deitics and Beats. He defines Iconics as a gesture that "refers to a concrete event, object, or action that also refers to speech at the same time" (p. 77). Metaphorics are similar to iconics; however, they represent abstract ideas as opposed to actions or concrete objects. Deictics are movements with regard to

pointing. A person may be pointing to a concrete object, or that the reference may be an abstract idea. Beats are gestures that indicate rhythm and emphasis.

According to Hood (2011, pp. 46-47), from the perspective of engagement in appraisal theory, gestures can be used to engage students in classroom teaching and learning activities. The use of a supine-hand (palm-up) gesture means "inviting student voices into the discussion"; and the use of a prone-hand (palm-down) gesture means to "close down space for other voices", meaning students are not allowed to talk or to contribute to a discussion. They are categorized as "Heteroglossic expansion" and "Heteroglossic Contraction" respectively.

3.3.4   Posture Analysis

Posture is body positioning and direction. The teacher's posture will be analysed based on Martinec's (2001) modality system and the theory of immediacy (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). According to Martinec (2001, pp. 123-124), "Modality is an interpersonal system which exists both in action and language. In language it regards the speaker's tentativeness or assuredness as to the content of what is being expressed in an utterance. Modality in action is similar to modality in language; in that it has to do with how tentative or assured a person is about performing an act and with his/her willingness or unwillingness to carry it out".

Based on Martinec's (2001, p. 124) Modality system, "tentativeness is realized by muscle tension and assuredness by muscle relaxation. Willingness is realized by holding the body at a forward angle, and unwillingness is realized by holding the body at a backward angle". The interpersonal meaning mediated in Martinec's (2001) modality system is similar to the

nonverbal immediate behaviour introduced by the immediacy experts. According to Richmond, et al. (2002a, 2008), teacher immediacy refers to teacher's behaviour that could "reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between teacher and students". Teacher immediacy can be linked to the teacher's body direction and position. Body and head directly facing the students are perceived as immediate moves. A teacher with a relaxed body position and leans toward the students when talking to the class is also considered as showing immediate behaviours. Other than this, open-body positions are also considered as immediate behaviours by Leathers (1992, p. 87). In contrast, the action of folding both arms together across the chest is a non-immediate behaviour. It is "an attempt to put a barrier between the person and someone or something they don't like" (p. 93). According to Pease (2006), a crossed arm on the chest "is universal and is decoded with the same defensive or negative meaning almost everywhere" (p. 93).

3.3.5   Proxemics Analysis

Proximity is the use of space to position 'intimacy' with the others in social interaction. The distance being positioned between people carries interpersonal meaning. Data on proximity is analysed based on Martinec's (2001) engagement system. According to Martinec (2001, p. 118), engagement in presenting action that concerns social relations between interactants are realized by the distance and angle of their bodies. The variables of distance and angle form a system where both of them function simultaneously. Martinec's (2001) engagement system was developed based on Hall's (1959, 1966) concepts. Hall was primarily interested in how space creates and realises social relations. It involves the physical distance of interactants and how significant those spatial meaning are to them. Then the issue becomes the distance of interactants' bodies and its social significance. As

cited in Martinec (2001), Hall's (1966) interpersonal distance is categorized in the table below:

Table 3.10: Interpersonal Distances Categories of Hall (1966)

Distance	≤6 inches	≤ 18 inches	≤2.5 feet	≤4 feet	≤7 feet	≤12 feet	≤25 feet	>25 feet
Interpersonal Distances	Close intimate	Far intimate	Close personal	Far personal	Close social	Far social	Close public	Far public

Table 3.10 divides proximity as social distance into 8 categories, namely, Close intimate (≤ 6 inches), Far intimate (> 6 inches, ≤ 18 inches), Close personal (> 1.5 feet, ≤ 2.5 feet), Far personal (> 2.5 feet, ≤ 4 feet), Close social (> 4 feet, ≤ 7 feet), Far social (> 7 feet, ≤ 12 feet), Close public (> 12 feet, ≤ 25 feet), and Far public (> 25 feet). In brief, close intimate distance covers about a palm's distance between the interactants. It "is the distance of comforting, protecting and love making". "Far intimate distance is the distance where hands can reach and grasp extremities". "Communication at this distance is normally at low voice or whisper level, and is more likely to be regarded as feeling rather than intellectual concepts". Close personal distance is the distance in which one can hold or grasp another person up to 2.5 feet". "According to Hall, it is the distance at which a husband can share with his wife with impunity but not with another woman". Far personal distance is a distance "where two people can touch fingers if they extend both arms", "in which subjects of personal interest and involvement can be discussed". Close social distance is a distance where "nobody touches or expects to touch another person unless there is some special effort". It is the distance "for negotiating impersonal business and it is used by people who work together". Far social distance is a distance from 7 feet up to 12 feet, and "it can be used to insulate or screen people from having to talk to each other". At this distance, "business and social discourse has a more formal character". Close public distance is a distance "where an alert subject can take evasive or defensive action if threatened". Far

public distance "is the distance which is automatically set around important public figures" (cited in Martinec, 2001, pp. 118-119).

Clearly, Hall's social distance system is defined based on the variable of distance and ignores the variable of angle of the body. By introducing the variable of angle of body, Martinec (2001) advances his Engagement system, as shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Engagement Categories as a Cross-classification of Distance and Angle (Reproduced from Martinec, 2001, p. 120)

Distance Angle	6 inches	18 inches	2.5 feet	4 feet	7 feet	12 feet
front	Close intimate	Far intimate	Close personal	Far personal	Close social	Far social
side	Close personal	Far personal	Close social	Far social	Public/dis.	Public/dis.
back	Far personal	Close social	Far social	Public/ disengagement	Public/dis.	Public/dis.

The labels of the categories of engagement in terms of 'close intimate', 'far intimate', 'close personal', 'far personal', 'close social', 'far social' advanced by Hall (1966) were used in Martinec's engagement system. The labels of 'public' and 'disengagement' in Martinec's engagement system correspond to Hall's ideas of 'close public' and 'far public'. Table 3.11 displays the categories of engagement as a cross-classification of the categories of distance and angle. Instead of just relying on the sole factor of distance, Martinec uses the interplay of two factors, namely, the distance and the angle of body, to reinterpret social distance. When Table 3.10 and Table 3.11 are compared, it is observed that the first row of Martinec's (2001) 'front angle' engagement system corresponds to six of Hall's (1966) original labels: Close intimate, Far intimate, Close personal, Far personal, Close social, and Far social. When the 'original' social distance and the 'side angle' body position interplay, it reduces the sense of intimacy between the interactants as the initial departure point in the

second row of Martinec's begins with Close personal, followed by Far personal, Close social, Far social, and Public/ Disengagement, which is a further jump of two distances compared to the first row of Martinec's (2001). Then, when the social distance and the 'back angle' body position interplay, it decreases the sense of intimacy even further, by a jump of one distance as compared to the second row of Martinec's (2001) table.

3.4   Multimodal Discourse Analysis

According to Jewitt (2009, p. 14), "[m]ultimodality describes approaches that understand communication and representation to be more than about language, and which attend to the full range of communicational forms people use – image, gesture, gaze, posture, and so on – and the relationships between them". The following section introduces the theoretical assumptions that underpin multimodality, two core concepts for multimodal analysis: semiotic resources and mode, followed by the social semiotic multimodal approach and multimodal interactional analysis.

3.4.1 Theoretical Assumptions That Underpin Multimodality

Jewitt (2009, pp. 14-16) outlines four interconnected theoretical assumptions which underpin multimodality:

(i) "Representation and communication always draw on a multiplicity of modes, all of which have the potential to contribute equally to meaning". However, language is widely taken to be the most significant mode of communication.

(ii) "Each mode in a multimodal ensemble is understood as realizing different communicative work". All modes have been shaped through their cultural, historical and social uses to realize social functions.

(iii) "People orchestrate meaning through their selection and configuration of modes". "The meanings in any mode are always interwoven with the meanings made with those of all other modes co-present and co-operating in the communicative events". The interaction between modes is itself a part of the production of meaning. Thus the interaction between modes is significant for meaning making.

(iv) The meanings of signs "are shaped by the norms and rules operating at the moment of sign-making, influenced by the motivations and interests of a sign-maker in a specific social context".

These assumptions imply that the kinds of semiotic resources deployed in constructing meaning in CSL classrooms need to be identified, and investigated to determine how teacher talk and teacher's body language work together in constructing interpersonal meaning in classroom interactions.

3.4.2 Semiotic Resources and Mode

Semiotic resources can be generally referred to as "actions, materials and artifacts we use for communicative purposes" (van Leeuwen, 2005a, p. 285). For instance, O'Halloran (2009) views language, mathematical symbolism and images as semiotic resources. The mode is referred to as semiotic modes (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001, p. 20). Mode is the culturally shaped resources for making meaning (Jewitt, 2009, p. 21; Kress et al., 2005, p. 2). In order for something to 'be a mode', the general principle is that, "there needs to be a shared cultural sense of a set of resources and how these can be organized to realize meaning" (Jewitt, 2009, p. 22). In a specific context (time and place), "modes are shaped by daily social interaction of people" (Jewitt, 2009. p. 21). In other words, modes are a fusion of organizing principles and semiotic resources, shaped by culture for making meaning and

"come to display regularities through the ways in which people use them" (Jewitt, 2009, p. 21). Multimodality refers to several modes (or semiotic resources) which are "in use" at the same time such as language, image, gesture, gaze, posture, layout, and so on in human communication (Jewitt, 2009, p. 14; Kress et al., 2005, p. 2).

3.4.3   Different Approaches to Multimodality

Multimodal research has great potential "to describe semiotic resources for meaning-making and inter-semiotic relations" (Jewitt, 2009, p. 16). According to Jewitt (2009, pp. 29-35), there are three different approaches to multimodal research, namely, social semiotic multimodal analysis (SSMA), multimodal discourse analysis (MDA), and multimodal interactional analysis (MIA). SSMA is said to be associated with the work of Halliday (1978), Hodge and Kress (1988), Jewitt (2009), Kress (2003, 2009), Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996, 2001), Kress et al. (2001, 2005), and Van Leeuwen (2005); MDA is associated with the work of Baldry (2004), Baldry and Thibault (2008), Halliday (1985), O'Halloran (2004, 2005) and O'Toole (1994); and MIA is associated with work of Goffman (1974, 1981), Gumperz and Tannen (1979), Norris (2004), Norris and Jones (2005), Scollon (2001), Scollon and Scollon (2003). After a comparative study of the three approaches, Jewitt concluded that:

> *The semiotic system is the primary problem space and focus for O'Halloran's multimodal discourse analysis; and for Kress and Van Leeuwen and social semiotic approaches, the rules, regularities and patterns that lie in modal systems of representation and communication in use are key. However, for Norris and multimodal interactional analysis, the focus is on 'the rules and regularities that come about while social actors use system of representation.*
>
> *(Jewitt, 2009, p. 34)*

3.4.3.1 Social Semiotic Multimodal Analysis

Haliday's theories of social semiotics (Halliday, 1978; Hodge & Kress, 1988; Van Leeuwen, 2005) and systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) "provided the initial starting point for social semiotic multimodal analysis (Kress & van Leeuween, 2001; Van Leeuween, 2005)" (cited in Jewitt, 2009, p. 29). From the perspective of language as social semiotics, Halliday (1978, p. 192) "argued that the grammar of a language is not a code, not a set of rules for producing correct sentences, but a "resource for making meanings" (cited in van Leeuween, 2005, p. 3). This school of thought regards the semiotic events or products created via the semiotic modes other than or co-deployed with language, such as photograph, poster, advertisement, film, music, body movement and three-dimensional material objects in space, as multifunctional in meanings. That is, these semiotic events or products also convey ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001; O'Halloran, 2000, 2005; O'Toole, 1994, 2004; Lim, 2011; Unsworth, 2006a). For example, Kress and van Leeuween's (2001) 'Reading Images' demonstrates how ideational, interpersonal, and textual meaning are realised visually, through concepts such as composition, modality and framing. On Kress and van Leeuween's (2001) seminal work in relation to interpersonal meaning visual configuration, Jewitt states, "They offered a framework to describe the semiotic resources of images and analyse how these resources can be configured to design interpersonal meaning, to present the world in specific ways, and to realize coherence" (Jewitt, 2009, p. 29). Jewett also points out the use of social semiotic multimodal analysis in meaning making research in the following way:

A primary focus of social semiotic multimodal analysis is on mapping how modal resources are used by people in a given community/social context, in other words sign-making as social process. The emphasis is on the sign-maker and their situated use of modal resources. This foregrounds the question of what choices people make (from the resources available to them) and the non-arbitrary and motivated character of the relationship between language and social context. There is therefore a strong emphasis on the notion of context within social semiotic multimodal analysis. The context shapes the resources available for meaning-making and how these are selected and designed.   *(Jewitt, 2009, p. 30)*

Jewitt (2009) focuses attention on the social context and social process responsible for the employment of semiotic resources in meaning making. In other words, the study of situated meaning making concerns who assigns the signs to whom, for what purpose, in what ways and under what circumstances the available resources are selected and designed in making such signs.

3.4.3.2 Multimodal Interactional Analysis

Multimodal interactional analysis is a tool of multimodal discourse analysis. Multimodal interactional analysis is mainly grounded in the theory of mediated discourse and nexus analysis developed by Scollon (1998, 2001), Scollon and Scollon (2003) and Norris (2004). Norris (2004, p. 10) points out:

Multimodal interactional analysis grew out of interactional sociolinguistics, mediated discourse and nexus analysis, and multimodality in combination with the technology of video cameras and computers. I take from interactional sociolinguistics its focus on real-time interaction and language in use, from mediated discourse and nexus analysis their emphasis on mediated action, and from multimodality its highlighting of the importance of taking into account other semiotics such as music, color, and gesture.

According to Norris (2004, p. 2), each mode is a semiotic system, and verbal mode does not always play the dominant role in human interaction. The process of the use of each mode in enacting an interactional role is observable, and the action pertaining to that interaction role

can be bracketed by stages such as the opening, the progressing and the closing. It can be described separately.

The unit of analysis in multimodal interactional analysis is action. This school of thought has the notion that "each action is mediated" (Norris, 2004, p. 11) and interaction is through the collaborative use of various modes: words, distance, head movements, hand movements, gestures, posture, layout, print, music and so on. "All movements, noise, and material objects carry interactional meaning when they are perceived by an individual" (Norris, 2004, p. 9).

The multimodal interaction analysis uses the "modal density foreground-background continuum" as the analytical framework. Norris briefly explains the meaning of modal density (Norris, 2004, p. 79) and other relevant concepts: Higher-level and Lower-level action (Norris, 2004, p. 11) as follows:

- "Modal density: Can be achieved either through modal intensity or modal complexity (or both)".

- Modal intensity: The more intensity or weight that a mode carries, the higher the modal density.

- Modal complexity: The more intricately intertwined the principle modes are, the higher the modal density.

- Weight of a mode: The weight of a mode can be determined by the higher-level action.

- "Higher-level action: Bracketed by an opening/ closing and made up of a multiplicity of chained lower-level actions".

- "Lower-level action: The smallest interactional meaning unit".

Norris (2004) states that when we explore the proxemics behaviour that may happen in sequence or simultaneously, "often, we find several higher-level actions embedded in another, and/ or overarching higher-level action" (p. 11). An example of this phenomenon given by Norris (2004, p. 21) is as follows:

> *Anna constructs the higher-level action of ironing (made up of many chains of lower-level actions such as taking a piece of clothing, placing it on the ironing board, flattening it with her hand, pressing it with the iron, folding it, and placing it on a pile of folded clothes); and the higher-level action of watching TV (again, made up of many chains of lower-level actions like lifting her head, focusing her gaze on the TV, etc.), while she is simultaneously co-constructing (with the interviewer) the higher-level action of being interviewed.*

Thus, an action is made up of several lower-level actions. Norris (2004, p. 97) also provides the meaning of 'foreground-background continuum' as follows:

- Foreground: The higher-level action that a participant highly attends to and/ or highly reacts to, and/ or highly acts upon, is in the foreground of their attention/ awareness.

- Mid-ground: The higher-level action that a participant attends to in some degree and/or reacts to in some degree, and/or acts upon in some degree, is in the mid-ground of their attention/ awareness.

- Background: The higher-level action that a participant is only decreasingly aware of, dis-attends, and/or does not react to, and/or does not act upon, is in the background of their attention/ awareness.

- Foreground-background continuum: The continuum highlights that interaction is fluid: demonstrating that the three stages are not fixed entities at which participants in interaction perform higher-level actions.

During the process of multimodal interactional analysis, the human interaction is regarded as an interactional event, made up of a series of higher-level actions. A higher-level action is "made up of a multiplicity of chained lower-level actions" (Norris, 2004, p. 11). As human interaction is a continuum, the main task of analysis is to explore interactional behaviour with a purpose, such as for the sake of completing a certain assignment or carrying some duty, then checking on the proxemics behaviour next to it, either in sequence or may happen simultaneously, followed by an examination of the content and interplay of modes used in the chained-action in performing such behaviour as a whole, and interpreting the negotiating of meanings of these "multiplicity of chained lower-level actions". The entire interactional event has identifiable stages. Each stage has its own multimodal collaborative "foregrounded higher-level action", and other coming higher-level action of the identical interactional event is transformed from the formal foregrounded action. This formal foregrounded action remains in the awareness or attention of the social actor, but had been back-grounded or mid-grounded. This analytical framework stresses the foreground-background continuum basis, that is, action as mediated discourse.

The present study used the multimodal discourse analysis approach and the conception of mode advanced by Jewitt (2009, p. 21), to explore how CSL teachers constructed interpersonal meanings in Chinese as a second language classrooms through the employment of teacher talk and teachers' body language. Furthermore, the social semiotic multimodal and the multimodal interactional analysis approaches associated with the work

of Kress et al. (2001, 2005) and Norris (2004) were employed for data transcription and analysis.

3.5   The Analysis of Teacher Immediacy

According to Mottet and Richmond (1998, p. 26), "Immediacy was conceptualized by Mehrabian (1971) as behaviours that communicate approachability and closeness between interactants". Mehrabian, who introduced the term "immediacy", outlines some verbal and nonverbal approaches that can be used to enhance the feeling of closeness between interlocutors; or which can be used to reduce physical and psychological distance between interlocutors. For example, Mehrabian proposed the "approach/ avoid" action to regulate the state of immediacy:

> *The immediacy in behaviour comes across in a number of abbreviated forms of approach or avoidance. An abbreviated approach can be expressed by attentive observation or mutual gaze. In response to a remark that appeals to us, we may "approach" by asking questions or leaning forward. In response to discussion we find uninteresting or objectionable, we may "avoid" by remaining silent and leaning back, further away from the speaker.*   *(Mehrabian, 1971, p. 2)*

Mehrabian points out that audience's interest in the speaker can be measured by whether they are looking at the speaker or not while he/she talks. The example given by Mehrabian in the above argument does in fact involve some nonverbal cues: projection of gaze, leaning forward and backward. However, remaining silent and asking questions to show objection or interest, are the verbal actions that the audience make to signal the interest in communication.

In fact, many studies were inspired by Mehrabian's work to identify, explore and examine teachers' specific verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours. The following section

reviews the verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy behaviours that had been identified, explored and examined by various studies to explain those verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours in social communication.

3.5.1 Verbal Immediacy Behaviour

Mehrabian (1966, p. 28) defined verbal immediacy as the "degree of directness and intensity of interaction between communicator and referent in a communicator's linguistic message" (cited in Motte & Richmond, 1998, p. 26). In fact, many verbal examples have been discussed by Mehrabian (1971) to show how to read "meaning within language" that carries the message of speaker's attitude and appraisal. He discussed this aspect in detail under the title of "A language within language" (pp. 89-110). According to Mehrabian, "an immediate linguistic message might include a statement where the demonstrative pronoun reflects distance-near rather than distance-far (distance in place). "These people need help" is an example of the former and "those people need help" is an example of the latter" (cited in Mottet & Richmond, 1998, p. 26). Likewise, the use of demonstrative verb tense (distance in time), present tense is more immediate than past tense. For example, the first statement "I am showing Liz my collection of etchings"; is more immediate than "I have been showing Liz my collection of etchings".

In addition, Mehrabian (1971) provided some examples of language use where the "meaning potential" was determined by the attitude of speaker as an outcome of her/his judgement on her/his role relation with the subject. They carry the implicative level of acceptance and feeling of the speaker towards the subject. The following three statements show increasing degrees of John's acceptance of what his girlfriend did. In describing what his girlfriend did, John could say,

> *"**Mike** was dancing with her," "**She** was dancing with Mike," or "**They** were dancing together."*

<div align="right">

(Mehrabian, 1971, p. 89)

</div>

Following Mehrabian's immediacy (1971) concept, the first statement implies that John's girlfriend really was not participating much, possibly because she does not like Mike. The second statement implies that Mike does not like John's girlfriend. The last statement shows no reservation about his girlfriend dancing with this particular person. This shows John's acceptance of what his girlfriend did (p. 101).

Another example of Mehrabian (1971, p. 97) touches on how people demonstrate the degree of their involvement (responsibility) by using the modality "would" or without:

> *As he brings his date back home, a young man says, "I would like to see you again;" instead of the less conditional "I want to see you again." In this case, he probably uses the less immediate conditional form because he does not want to seem too forward with a girl he has taken out for the first time or lays himself on the line to be rejected. In other words, he has trouble expressing his enthusiasm about the girl, not because he does not like her, but because there are social sanctions against it or because of the possibility of being turned down.*

Obviously, Mehrabian has shown that the spoken language can be used to convey immediacy in different ways. Mehrabian's examples reveal that the stylistic differences of the sentences selected to express a certain idea can be used to infer (1) feelings toward the thing being described, (2) feelings toward the listener, or (3) feelings about the act of saying certain things to a certain listener (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 90). However, Mehrabian did not provide the analytical framework to guide the analysis of the speakers' attitude and their appraisal of the situation based on the language use. An analytical framework was later developed, by interpersonal communication experts such as Gorham (1988), Mottet and Richmond (1998), and Richmond et al. (2008).

The present study employs classroom observation method to examine teacher immediacy behaviour to document the kinds of verbal and nonverbal behaviours used by the teacher to transmit the intention of reducing physical and psychological distance, and to promote a harmonious relationship between the teacher and students. Teacher immediacy behaviours were analysed based on two immediacy analytical frameworks, namely verbal and nonverbal measures of immediacy. The verbal immediacy framework was constructed by compiling the indicators of immediacy behaviour in Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale, Mottet and Richmond's (1998) Approach/Avoidance Verbal Strategies, and Verbal Approach Strategy of Richmond et al. (2008). Thus, the following sections will introduce verbal measures of immediacy used as analytical tools in this study.

3.5.1.1 Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale

Gorham (1988) adopted Mehrabian's immediacy concept of "approach-avoid" and developed Richmond, Gorham and McCroskey's (1987) study by proposing a 17-item verbal immediacy behaviour measuring scale. Her research showed that the teacher's humour, and praise, encouraging students to talk and participate in group discussion are strongly related to students' self-reports on their cognitive and affective learning. Listed in Figure 3.3 below are the 17 items of Gorham's (1988) scale which provides examples of immediate and nonimmediate behaviour of teachers.

Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale

1. Uses personal examples or talks about experiences she/he has had outside of class.

2. Asks questions or encourages students to talk.

3. Gets into discussions based on something a student brings up even when this doesn't seem to be part of his/her lecture plan.

4. Uses humour in class.

5. Addresses students by name.

6. Addresses me by name.

7. Gets into conversations with individual students before or after class.

8. Has initiated conversations with me before, after or outside of class.

9. Refers to class as ''our'' class or what ''we'' are doing.

10. Calls on students to answer questions even if they have not indicated that they want to talk. *

11. Asks how students feel about an assignment, due date or discussion topic.

12. Invites students to telephone or meet with him/her outside of class if they have questions or want to discuss something.

13. Asks questions that have specific, correct answers. *

14. Asks questions that solicit viewpoints or opinions.

15. Praises students' work, actions or comments.

16. Will have discussions about things unrelated to class with individual students or with the class as a whole.

17. Is addressed by his/her first name by the students.

_____

* Presumed to be nonimmediate. Item scoring reflected for analysis.

Figure 3.3: Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale
(reproduced from Gorham & Zakahi, 1990, p. 358)

The scale on teacher verbal immediacy behaviour developed by Gorham (1988) was summarized by Furlich and Dwyer (2007, p. 58) as follows:

Some verbal immediacy behaviors exhibited by teachers include: using personal examples, humor, engaging in conversations with students before, after, or outside of class, encouraging students to talk, referring to the class as "we," or "our," asking for students' input, teachers' self-disclosure, addressing students by name, praising students' work, addressing instructors by their first name, and being available for students outside of class if they have any questions.

3.5.1.2 Mottet and Richmond's (1998) Approach/Avoidance Verbal Strategies

Robinson and Richmond (1995, p. 81) criticized Gorham's scale-generation process as it casts serious doubt on the face validity of the scale. They maintain that Gorham's items serve more like verbal behaviours that indicate teacher effectiveness rather than teacher immediacy, hence do not serve as valid constructs of verbal practice that realises Mehrabian's notion of immediacy. The authors further suggested that the scale not be used until a stronger case for its validity could be obtained. Mottet and Richmond (1998, p. 26) hold that, "a reconceptualization of the verbal immediacy construct and its measurement is needed". Hence, they designed a study "to examine inductively the verbal immediacy construct from a relational perspective. How do people approach and avoid relationship formation?" (p. 28). A typology of approach/avoidance verbal strategies was yielded based on the data provided by the respondents (see Table 3.12). According to Mottet and Richmond (1998), these verbal strategies and messages "were not examples of verbal immediacy. Instead, this typology reflects approach and avoidance verbal "strategies" and not text-based verbal messages that people use to approach and avoid relationship formation" (p. 29). The detailed information regarding the approach/avoidance verbal strategies can be seen in Table 3.12.

	Approach Category	Verbal Strategies/Messages
1.	Personal Recognition	Use direct references and personal recognition when communicating by remembering something from a prior conversation and referring to it, by remembering something unique about him/her, or by saying such things as "I wish you could have been there…" and "I thought about you when…"
2.	Humor	Use humor by joking and kidding around and giving him/her a hard time. Use of inside jokes.
3.	Ritualistic	Use ritualistic statements such as "Hey, what's up?" "Hi, how are you doing?" "I'll call and talk to you soon." and "Hope to see you soon." "Take care."
4.	Closeness/Inclusiveness	Use communication that includes him or her by talking about things we have in common or talking about things we have done together or by saying such things as "Do you want to go with us?"; and "We should go out sometime." Dominant use of "we" and "us" pronouns throughout the conversation.
5.	Self-Disclosure	Use self-disclosure statements such as telling him/her something I would not tell others, revealing personal stories about my life, and telling him/her my thoughts, worries, and problems.
6.	Character	Use statements that address his or her character by saying such things as "I trust you," "I respect you," "You're dependable," "What do you think?" and "How do you feel about…?"
7.	Willingness to Communicate	Use communication in a way that reveals that I am willing to communicate and that I want to continue communicating by saying such things as "I will call you tonight," and "When will I hear from you again?"
8.	Language Appropriateness	Use language that he or she understands--language that does not sound superior, over his/her head, or language that is not condescending or "talking down" to him/her. Use of more informal conversational language.
9.	Honesty	Use communication that is honest by saying such things in a "straight forward manner" or by telling the truth when he/she asks me a question.
10.	Complimentary	Use praise, complimentary, and encouraging statements such as "You look nice today," "You have a good sense of humor," "I have a lot of fun with you," and "You do good work, keep it up."
11.	Responsiveness	Use responsive statements such as "I understand how you feel," "Go on, please continue," "Tell me more"; and "I want to listen."
12.	Caring/Appreciation	Express caring and appreciation by saying such things as "I'm here for you," "I care about you," "I'm glad we're friends," and "I value our friendship."

	Avoidance Category	Verbal Strategies/Messages
1.	Nonpersonal Recognition	Use references that fail to recognize person by not using his/her name/nickname, by mispronouncing his/her name/nickname, or by referring to him/her as "you."
2.	Abrupt	Use abrupt communication by interrupting or changing the subject, and by answering his/her questions with simple, short, and curt "yes/ no" answers.
3.	Task	Use only task-oriented communication by keeping all communication "strictly business" and never engaging in "small talk" "let's skip the small talk and get right to business."
4.	Distant/Exclusive	Use exclusionary communication by discussing things he/she can't relate to and things he/she finds uninteresting; by using slang, jargon, that he/she doesn't understand; or by talking about people that he/she hasn't met or places he/she hasn't visited.
5.	Offensive	Use offensive communication by making ugly jokes and derogatory comments about his/her ethnicity/religion/race/sex. Use inappropriate profanity.
6.	Condescension	Use condescending communication by saying such things as "You don't know what you're talking about," "Your ideas are stupid," "Why are you acting like that?" "You wouldn't understand," "You boys," and "You girls."
7.	Unresponsive	Use communication that is unresponsive by saying such things as "I don't have time now," "I'm tired," "Can you call me back," and "Another time, okay?"

Table 3.12; Verbal Approach/ Avoidance Categories and Strategies/ Messages (Reproduced from Mottet & Richmond, 1998, pp. 30-31)

3.5.1.3 Verbal Approach Strategy of Richmond et al. (2008)

According to Richmond et al. (2008), there are two strategies for the verbal approach strategy: 'approach to immediacy' versus 'avoid from perceived as non-immediacy'. The use of the 'verbal approach strategy' is said to be more powerful than the 'verbal avoidance strategy' (p. 191). Richmond et al. (2008) suggest that verbal immediacy can be achieved simply by showing concern about people's talking or appear to be noticeable as interested in people's talking. It is expressed as follows:

> *One of the most important ways to increase immediacy in a relationship is to send verbal messages that encourage the other person to communicate. Such comments as "I see what you mean," "Tell me more," "Please continue," "That is a good idea," "This is a team effort," and "Let's talk more about this" create increased immediacy.*
>
> *(Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191)*

They also identified some principles of making verbal immediate messages such as showing openness, friendship, empathy, and inclusiveness; and asserting they are powerful tools in increasing the feeling of immediacy:

> *Verbal immediate messages are effective messages that show openness, friendship, or empathy with the other person. Such simple things as the use of the pronouns "we or us" rather than "you" or "you and I" can increase the feeling of immediacy.*
>
> *(Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191)*

3.5.2 Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviours

Teacher nonverbal immediacy behaviours refer to those nonverbal behaviours that reduce or diminish psychological and/or physical distance between students and teachers (Andersen, 1979). The immediacy rubric used in analyzing teacher's nonverbal behaviours in this study was adopted from several instruments developed by immediacy experts from

the schools of communication. They are Andersen (1979); McCroskey et al. (1995); Mehrabian (1969, 1971); Richmond (2002a); Richmond et al. (2008); and Richmond, Gorham and McCroskey (1987). The discussion below introduces these immediacy measures.

Andersen (1979) studied the ways a teacher might try to get pupils to like her/him and developed a measurement scale contained in 28 items. It is called "Behavioural Indicants of Immediacy" (BII) scale for the instructional context. The scale is presented in Figure 3.4. Andersen's Behavioral Indicants of Immediacy (BII) measure mainly examines nonverbal behaviour. It is a 15-item behavioural indicants of immediacy scale. The survey was completed by students with respect to the teacher nonverbal behaviour of their class. However, the items used in the scale of BII were criticized as "low-inference" (Richmond, et al., 1987; Gorham, 1988). Later, Richmond, et al. (1987) developed 14 "high-inference" items to measure teacher nonverbal immediacy and nonimmediacy behaviours (refer to Figure 3.5). The scale was modified from the Behavioral Indicants of Immediacy Scale of Andersen (1979).

BEHAVIOURAL INDICANTS OF IMMEDIACY (BII) SCALE, INSTRUCTIONAL CONTEXT

Please mark these scales to indicate how you perceive your instructor in the teaching role. Please mark the following statements to indicate whether you: (7) strongly agree; (6) agree; (5) moderately agree; (4) are undecided; (3) moderately disagree; (2) disagree; or (1) strongly disagree. Please record the number of your response in the space provided beside each statement.

There is no correct answer. Simply record your perceptions. Some of the questions may seem similar, but this is necessary.

_____* 1. This instructor engages in more eye contact with me when teaching than most other instructors.

_____2. Students discuss less in this class than most other classes.

_____*3. This instructor has a more tense body position while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*4. This instructor gestures more while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*5. This instructor gestures in less movement while teaching than most other instructors.

_____6. This instructor sits in a student desk less than most other instructors when teaching.

_____7. This instructor touches students less than most other instructors when teaching.

_____*8. This instructor has a more relaxed body position while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*9. This instructor directs his/her body position more toward students while teaching than most other instructors.

_____10. This instructor stands in front of the classroom less than most other instructors while teaching.

_____* 11. This instructor smiles more during class than most other instructors.

_____12. This instructor dresses more informally than most other instructors while teaching.

_____*13. This instructor engages in less eye contact with me when teaching than most other instructors,

_____14. This instructor spends less time with students before and after class than most instructors.

_____15. This instructor touches students more than most other instructors when teaching.

_____16. Students discuss more in this class than in most other classes.

_____* 17. This instructor is more vocally expressive while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*18. This instructor is more distant from students while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*19. This instructor directs his/her body position less toward students while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*20. This instructor gestures less while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*21. This instructor engages in more movement while teaching than most other instructors.

_____22. This instructor sits in a student desk more often than most other instructors while teaching.

_____23. This instructor dresses more informally most other instructors while teaching.

_____24. This instructor stands in front of the class more than most other instructors while teaching.

_____*25. This instructor is less vocally expressive while teaching than most other instructors.

_____*26. This instructor smiles less during class than most other instructors.

_____27. This instructor is less distant from students than most other instructors while teaching.

_____28. This instructor spends more time with students before and after class than most other instructors.

* These items constitute the **15-item** behavioural indicants of immediacy scale. To obtain an immediacy score, use this formula:

1. Total the subject's response for the following scale items: 1, 4, 8, 9, 11, 17, and 21. Call this X.

2. Total the subject's response for the following scale items: 3, 5, 13, 18, 19, 20, 25, and 26. Call this Y.

3. Immediacy score = X — Y +56.

Figure 3.4: Andersen's (1979) "Behavioural Indicants of Immediacy" (BII) Scale (reproduced from Andersen & Andersen, 2005, pp. 121-122)

Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviour Items (Richmond, et al., 1987).

*1. Sits behind desk when teaching.

2. Gestures when talking to the class.

*3. Uses monotone/dull voice when talking to class.

4. Looks at the class when talking.

5. Smiles at the class as a whole, not just individual students.

*6. Has a very tense body position when talking to the class.

7. Touches students in the class.

8. Moves around the classroom when teaching.

*9. Sits on a desk or in a chair when teaching.

*10. Looks at board or notes when talking to the class.

*11. Stands behind podium or desk when teaching.

12. Has a very relaxed body position when talking to the class.

13. Smiles at individual students in the class.

14. Uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.

_____

*   Presumed to be nonimmediate.

Figure 3.5 : Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Instrument / Nonverbal Immediacy Measure (NIM) (Richmond, et al., 1987)

This 14-item Nonverbal Immediacy Measure (NIM) (Richmond, et al., 1987) was further reduced to ten items in the Revised Nonverbal Immediacy Measure (RNIM) to test their validity across cultures (McCroskey et al., 1995). The ten items are as in Figure 3.6.

McCroskey et al., 1995 --RNIM
1. Gestures when talking to the class.
2. Uses monotone/dull voice when talking to class.*
3. Looks at the class when talking.
4. Smiles at the class when talking.
5. Has a very tense body position when talking to the class.*
6. Moves around the classroom when teaching.
7. Looks at board or notes when talking to the class.*
8. Has a very relaxed body position when talking to the class.
9. **Smiles at individual students in the class.
10. Uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.
* Items should be reflected prior to scoring.
**Recommended replacement for #9 in future use: "Frowns at the class while talking."

Figure 3.6: McCroskey et al. (1995) -- Revised Nonverbal Immediacy Measure (RNIM)

Both NIM and RNIM are very often used in later teacher immediacy research and consistently rated as reliable and valid in United States classrooms (McCroskey et al., 1995; McCroskey, Fayer, et al., 1996; McCroskey, Sallinen et al., 1996; Neuliep, 1997; Sander & Wiseman, 1990; Zhang, 2005). These behaviours were adopted where relevant in this study to determine whether they are also valid in Malaysian CSL classrooms. Regarding the use of nonverbal behaviour in enhancing teacher immediacy, based on a stream of research findings, Richmond (2002a) concludes that:

> *The primary function of teachers' nonverbal behavior in the classroom is to improve affect or liking for the subject matter, teacher, and class, and to increase the desire to learn more about the subject matter. In conclusion, teachers who use nonverbal immediacy behaviours with students have students who simply put learn more (sic), both about the content and atmosphere of the classroom environment (p. 80).*

In the same article, on one hand, she outlines some nonverbal immediate and nonimmediate behaviours in classroom practice (pp. 71-74). The immediate and nonimmediate behaviours discussed by Richmond (2002a) is summaried in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Some Nonverbal Immediate and Nonimmediate Behaviours Outlined by Richmond (2002a)		
Nonverbal behaviour	**Immediate**	**Nonimmediate**
Eye contact	Making eye contact with students when talking to them.	Less or avoid eye contact: perceived as uninterested in the student/students.
Gesture (include hand, arm and body movements)	Gesture: The teacher's delivery style should be animated and dynamic, and gesturing is one method of achieving this. Keep moving around and act	Less gesture: perceived as boring and unanimated
Posture	Open posture: Instructors who have an open body position communicate to their students that they are receptive and immediate.	Close posture: perceived as nonimmediate and unreceptive.
Facial expression	• Pleasing facial expression: show that they are interested not only in the subject matter, but also in their students. • Smiling: Smiling has long been associated with liking, affiliation, and immediacy.	• Dull facial expression: perceived by the students as uninterested in them and the subject matter. • Frowns a lot or does not smile much
Proxemic	--	The teacher who stands behind the desk or podium and rarely approaches students or allows them to approach her or him is perceived by students as unfriendly, unreceptive, unapproachable, and nonimmediate.

The verbal teacher immediacy behaviours outlined by Gorham (1988), Mottet and Richmond (1998), and Richmond et al. (2008) helped the present study to develop a verbal immediacy framework (see Section 4.7.3.8 in Chapter 4) for identifying the verbal immediacy and nonimmediacy classroom behaviours. This is to provide a more comprehensive framework for use in the analysis. The researcher also found that the items measured and ideas developed by the scholars in communication (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Mehrabian, 1971; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond, et al., 2008) in measuring teacher nonverbal immediacy have instructive value for the present study. They serve as guidance

for the classroom observation undertaken by this study to check and understand teacher's nonverbal immediacy behaviours.

3.6   Summary

This chapter outlines the theoretical frameworks adopted by the thesis in analysing classroom discourse. Eclectic approaches were adopted to investigate the construction of interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms. The theoretical frameworks underpinning the present study are based on three schools of thought: Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL), Multimodal Interactional Analysis, and the theory of immediacy.

Basically, the interpersonal meaning of teacher talk was analysed, explained and interpreted through turn-taking, amount of talk, Person system, Mood system, and Appraisal theory of SFL (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Halliday, 1970; 1973; 1975; 1978; 1985/1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, 2004; Martin & White, 2005). The interpersonal meaning of the teacher's action (body language) was investigated based on the studies of nonverbal representation focusing on facial expression, gaze, gestures, posture and proxemics. Gesture analysis is based on the analytical approaches forwarded by Hood (2011), Lim (2011), and McNeill (1992). In addition, Martinec's (2001) affect system, modality system and engagement system were used to analyse teachers' facial expressions, posture, and proxemics. Regarding the analysis of the co-deployment of multisemiotics resources in teaching, the social semiotic multimodality approach introduced by Kress et al. (2001, 2005), and multimodal interactional analysis developed by Norris (2004) were used to analyse the meaning negotiation in classroom communication. Lastly, the theory of immediacy from the school of communication (Andersen, 1979; Gorham, 1988; Mehrabian, 1969, 1971; Richmond et al., 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008) was used to

explain and interpret teachers' verbal and nonverbal immediacy. Figure 3.7 presents the theoretical frameworks employed in this study.

Verbal Analysis	Nonverbal Analysis	Multimodal Discourse Analysis	Teacher Immediacy Analysis
Amount of talk , turn-taking: Eggins & Slade (1997), Eggins (2004); Person System, Mood System: Halliday (1978, 1985/1994), Halliday & Matthiessen (1999, 2004); Appraisal Analysis: Martin & White (2005).	Facial expressions: Martinec's (2001)- affect system; Gaze: Harrigan (2008, p.137); Gestures: Hood (2011), Lim (2011), and McNeill (1992); Postures: Martinec (2001) - modality system; Proxemics: Martinec (2001) - engagement system.	Kress et al. (2001, 2005): Social Semiotic Multimodality; Norris (2004): Multimodal Interactional Analysis.	Andersen (1978, 1979); Gorham (1988); Mehrabian (1969, 1971); Mottet and Richmond (1998); Richmond (2002a); Richmond et al. (2008).

Figure 3.7: The Theoretical Frameworks of This Study

109

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the research design, participants, instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis methods involved, in order to seek answers to the research questions. It also includes a discussion of the execution of a pilot test. The ethical and confidentiality, reliability and validity issues of the study are also discussed in this chapter.

4.2   Research Design

Interpersonal meaning is viewed by the present research as meaning pertaining to roles enacted by speakers and social relations among the interactants. In a CSL classroom, the interactants are the teacher and his or her students. Therefore, this study examines how teachers and students construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms. In addition to the concern over the teacher's integrative use of the linguistic and non-linguistic modes to construct interpersonal meaning of the teacher's enactment of social roles, the present research also identifies verbal and nonverbal behaviours used by teachers to establish a harmonious teacher-student relationship. The present research also investigates how teachers show verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours to promote classroom solidarity. Immediacy refers to physical and psychological closeness perceived by people (McCroskey et al., 1986, p. 150), and it is a factor in promoting a harmonious relationship in human social interaction. The issue of teacher immediacy is thus of value in studying teachers' roles and social relations in classrooms.

This study is quantitative and qualitative in nature. Descriptive statistics in terms of frequency counts and percentages were used to obtain patterns of occurrences. This information is to ascertain patterns in the data. Qualitative approaches in addition will obtain insight into ways in which CSL teachers employ multisemiotic resources to construct interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms. With regards to frameworks, eclectic approaches were adopted to investigate the classroom pedagogical and managerial discourse. Ideas were borrowed and adapted from various schools of thought: First is the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1970, 1973, 1975, 1978, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, 2004; Hood, 2011; Kress et al., 2001, 2005; Lim, 2011; Martin 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; Martinec, 2001). Second is Multimodal Interactional Analysis of Norris (2004), and lastly the theory of immediacy (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Gorham, 1988; Mehrabian, 1969, 1971; Mottet and Richmond, 1998; Richmond et al., 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008).

Four Chinese as a second language (CSL) lessons taught by four different teachers from four national primary schools in the state of Selangor in Malaysia were observed. To investigate the use of various semiotic resources (modes) in CSL classroom discourse to construct interpersonal meaning, the researcher employed classroom observations to identify what kinds of meaning-making semiotic resources were being deployed. The multisemiotic resources were categorized into two groups, namely, linguistic and non-linguistic modes. The linguistic mode included semiotic codes of teachers' talk in the classrooms, whereas the non-linguistic mode included semiotic codes of teacher's action which focused on the teachers' body language, namely facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics.

Videotaping and audio taping were used to record classroom activities and language used. The researcher employed the observation method because this method enabled the researcher to personally witness and listen to the use of linguistic and non-linguistic modes in the classroom meaning negotiation process. Interviews with the teachers and students were also conducted to understand and further explore the usual practices of teachers in utilising various semiotic resources for meaning making and the reasons the teachers employed various semiotic resources in their CSL classroom interactions. To obtain data on students' perception of the use of multisemiotic resources by their teachers in constructing interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms, students were interviewed and asked to answer the questionnaires given to them immediately after the lesson was observed. These findings were used to triangulate data collected from classroom observations and interviews with the teachers.

4.3   Participants

Participants in this study were four CSL teachers from four schools in Selangor and 63 students who attended the Level 4 CSL course in the schools. Selangor was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, the national primary schools in the state of Selangor use the same CSL course syllabus (Bahagian Pembangunan Kurikulum, 2008) as that of other national primary schools in Malaysia. Schools in Selangor can serve as the purposive sample of this study. Secondly, the targeted sample is located near to the researcher's home and work place, thus it was convenient for the researcher to make arrangements with the participants for classroom observations and interviews. The Level 4 classes were chosen because students in these classes had already had 4 years of learning experience in the target language, and it was therefore expected that they would be able to communicate ideas in

Mandarin effectively at the basic level. The details of the participants in this study are shown in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2.

Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 provide details on the teachers and students who participated in the study.

Table 4.1: Profile of Teacher Participants

No.	Class	Age	Gender	Teaching experience
1	Class A	30	Female	5 years
2	Class B	32	Female	5 years
3	Class C	30	Female	3 years
4	Class D	33	Female	5 years

This study labeled the CSL classes as Class A, Class B, Class C and Class D respectively and the teachers who taught the respective classes were labeled accordingly as Teacher A, Teacher B, Teacher C and Teacher D. All the teachers were female, and were between 30 and 33 years old. They had acquired between three and five years of teaching experience at the time their classes were observed.

Table 4.2: Profile of the Student Participants

Class	Race				Gender		Total
	C	My	I	O	M	F	
A	23	0	2	0	0	25 (100%)	25
B	9	6	4	1	7 (35.0%)	13 (65.0%)	20
C	0	1	4	0	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	5
D	9	0	3	1	2 (15.4%)	11 (84.6%)	13
Total	41	7	13	2	10 (15.87)	53 (84.13)	63 (100)

Notes: F = female; M = Male; C = Chinese; My = Malay; I = Indian; O = others

Table 4.2 provides details on the students who participated in the study. The total number of students from the four CSL classes was 63 (10 male and 53 female students). Class A

consisted of 25 (100%) female students. The majority of the students in this class were Chinese (23 Chinese, 2 Indian). Class B consisted of 20 students from various races (9 Chinese, 6 Malay, 4 Indian students and 1 student belonging to another ethnic group). Class C consisted of 5 students (1 Malay and 4 Indian). Lastly, there were 13 students in Class D (9 Chinese, 3 Indian, and 1 belonging to another ethnic group).

The researcher interviewed 24 students who had been selected by the teachers as participants for the interview, and all four teachers were interviewed. The details of the interview participants are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Details of the Interview Participants

No.	Class	Teacher	Students and their labels
1	Class A	Teacher A	S1-S6
2	Class B	Teacher B	S7-S12
3	Class C	Teacher C	S13-S17
4	Class D	Teacher D	S18-S23

Each teacher was asked to identify 6 students of different abilities from her CSL class to participate in the interview. Therefore, 2 students who obtained good grades, 2 students who obtained average grades and 2 students who obtained low grades were chosen from each class. This sampling selection method was used to avoid data collection bias and to ensure the validity of the data. By using this selection method, the student interviewees can be viewed as representative of different target language competency groups. All students who had been identified were interviewed, with the exception of one student from Class C who was absent. The total number of student interviewees was 23. Students who had taken part in the interview were labeled as S1 to S23 in consecutive order.

4.4 Methods of Data Collection

This study employed mainly classroom observations and interviews to collect data. By virtue of the fact that not all students were interviewed, for triangulation, the researcher developed a survey instrument (questionnaire) for all students to answer. The following describes in detail the various data collection methods of the study.

4.4.1 Classroom Observations

The researcher first applied for approval from the Ministry of Education Malaysia to conduct research in the four national primary schools. Those four schools had been identified by the researcher based on the fact that the CSL course was offered in these schools, and there were Level 4 CSL classes. After the approval was granted, the researcher approached the four CSL teachers to get their consent to participate in the research. All the teachers agreed to participate, and gave permission for their lessons to be observed and recorded. Suitable times for classroom observations of all the four teachers were arranged. Each teacher was observed once for about one hour. For the sake of comparison, all the teachers were requested by the researcher to teach the same topic during the classroom observations. The topic was "Mulan", a female warrior who joined the army to fight for the country in her father's place. It is a Chinese legend, extolling the virtues and bravery of Mulan who disguised herself as a man and fought in combat for 12 years. She has become an iconic character in Chinese culture.

Video recording was the primary data collection method in this study. This method was used because it allows for the different modes used in the classrooms for teaching and learning to be recorded. By replaying and reviewing carefully the recording several times, all interactions and hence all modes of communication could be identified and checked

repeatedly to improve the comprehensiveness and accuracy of data transcription. As this study examined teachers' use of multimodal teaching approaches to enact their multi-faceted roles in each class to construct the interpersonal relationship with students, the video camera was used to focus primarily on the activities of each teacher. The entire lesson of each teacher was recorded. Each recording took about 30 to 40 minutes. In total, four lessons were recorded. The total recoding time for the four classes was about 2 hours 30 minutes.

During the classroom observation, the researcher and a research assistant set up the video camera equipment (Sony Handycam Model DCR-SR45) at the back of the classroom, and placed an audio recorder (Sony IC Recorder Model ICD-P620) on the teacher's desk. The lesson was audio and video-taped, and photographs of some of the teaching moments were taken by the research assistant and the researcher, especially when teaching aids and materials were presented by the teachers. Field notes were also taken by the researcher during classroom observations. Field notes were made to complement classroom video recording to document information that could not be captured by video recording at the same time, for example, the number of students, ethnicity, type of the classroom (AV room, library, normal classroom), handouts distributed by teachers. Field notes also noted the classroom layout, including the spatial arrangement of classroom furniture, the set-up of the audio-visual equipment, and seating arrangement. To ease the work of making field notes, a checklist was designed by the researcher to be used during classroom observations (see Appendix A). The field notes, audio and video recordings made it possible to document the authentic classroom environment and interactions in the classroom as a whole.

4.4.2   Interviews with Teachers and Students

After the classroom observation was completed for each lesson, two interview sessions were conducted with two different groups, the teachers and the students. The interviews were semi-structured, to enable in-depth discussion of issues that emerged from the responses of the interviewees. Additional questions were posed based on the responses. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

The four teachers who participated in this study were interviewed by the researcher to elicit the reasons for their co-deployment of various semiotic resources in their CSL classrooms. The teachers were asked to explain why they used certain teaching moves and language, particularly regarding the meaning the teachers intended to construct by integrating various semiotic resources at a particular teaching moment (see Appendix B). Before the interview, the teachers completed a checklist regarding the semiotic resources they used in their CSL classrooms. The detailed format and list of the semiotic resources in the checklist can be seen in Appendix C. In the checklist, the teachers were asked to identify the semiotic resources they used in their classroom discourse.

For the interview with students, 23 students identified by the teachers were interviewed. During the student interview sessions, the selected students were asked to provide more details about the semiotic resources deployed and co-deployed by their teachers in class while teaching, and also to state their feelings about their teachers' teaching practices. After the discussion of 'what' semiotic resources were being used, students were asked to explain 'how' their teacher carried out their teaching tasks via the selected modes. The students were also required to explain why the semiotic resources were used in particular ways by the teacher in teaching (see Appendix D).

4.4.3 Questionnaires for Students

A survey form was distributed to all the students immediately after the lesson ended. Students from each class were asked to answer questions in the survey form regarding modes of communication utilised by teacher in that particular lesson (Part A) as well as during other CSL lessons (Part B and Part C). The communication modes were categorised into two groups: verbal and nonverbal. The information in Part A was used to compare information gathered in Part B and Part C to determine the usual teaching practices of the teacher in class in utilising different kinds of communication mode.

The questionnaires were written in Malay, the first language of the students participating in this study. The questions in the survey consisted of perception questions where the Likert scales such as "Tidak pernah/never, Jarang-jarang/seldom, kadang kala/sometimes, kerap/often, and sangat kerap/very often" were used. It consisted of four sections. The first section asked for each student's demographic profile. The next section consisted of three parts which asked for information on the teacher's teaching practices, named as Part A, Part B and Part C. Questions in Part A asked about the verbal and nonverbal modes of communication utilised by the teacher in the lesson observed. Questions in Part B asked about the verbal mode teacher used in other CSL lessons. Questions in Part C asked about the ways teachers used nonverbal modes in other CSL lessons (see Appendix E).

The main aim of the questionnaire was to counter check information obtained from classroom observation data, the teacher interview data, and the student interview data. It was for the purpose of triangulation to ensure reliability of research data.

4.5   Procedure of Data Collection

Data from the classroom observations, interviews and survey were collected during the second semester of year 2012, from 20 Sept 2012 to 31 Oct 2012, after receiving approval from Malaysia's Ministry of Education (Appendix F). Table 4.4 shows the schedule of the field work for the four CSL classes. Before data were collected from the selected schools, permission from the headmasters to conduct this study was obtained by presenting the approval letters from Malaysia's Ministry of Education and Selangor State Education Department (Appendix G).   Then only was the researcher allowed to discuss with the potential participating teachers to get their consent for participating in the research.   The potential participants were briefed about the objectives of this study, the amount of time taken for the classroom observations and interviews. After the consent was obtained, the timetable for classroom observations and interviews was arranged.

Table 4.4: Field Work Timetable of the Study

Date	Class Observation Time	Class	Sequence of Data Collection	
			Procedure	Participant
20 Sept 2012	1.10-2.10pm	Class A	1a. Video recording of classes	1a. Research assistant
19 Oct 2012	9.30-10.30am	Class B	1b. Fill in field note form & checklist	1b. Researcher
22 Oct 2012	12.20-1.20pm	Class C	2a. Answer questionnaires 2b. Interviews	2. Students
31 Oct 2012	11.30 – 12.30pm	Class D	3a. Respond to checklist 3b. Interviews	3. Teachers

The data collection was carried out on 20 September 2012 in Class A, on 19 October 2012 Class B, on 22 Oct 2012 Class C, and finally 31 Oct 2012 from Class D. A research assistant did all the video recording and took photographs of some teaching moves of the teachers. The assistant was briefed on what teaching moves would be relevant for the study. Each lesson lasted one hour. Immediately after the classroom observation, the students were requested to answer the questionnaire regarding the semiotic resources used by their

teacher in the lesson observed as well as in other lessons. They were also required to provide some demographic information. The researcher explained every item in the questionnaire to ensure the students understood the meaning of each item. For instance, "use of space" referred to the teacher's movements in the class. On the same day, interviews with the teacher and the students were conducted separately and audio recorded. The time taken for each interview varied from 20 minutes to 45 minutes. The information provided by the teachers and students in the interviews provided the data for answering Research Questions 2, 3 and 4 in this study.

As the teachers were teaching the Chinese language, interviews were conducted in Chinese, as it was considered the best way to obtain information from them. Interview questions were asked based on the interview protocol, which was written in Chinese and English. However, interviews with the students were carried out in several languages. The researcher used Chinese to interview students who could speak Chinese fluently. With other students who used code-switching in the interviews, the researcher too resorted to the strategy of code-switching, using English, Malay, and Chinese to elicit as much information as possible.

4.6   Pilot Study

One Level 4 CSL class was chosen for the pilot study. The chosen class had similar characteristics as the research samples, which are: (i) they use the same CSL course syllabus as that of other national primary schools in Malaysia; and (ii) students are non-native speakers of Mandarin from various races. The pilot test was conducted on 30 August 2012, three weeks before the start of the field work of this research. The teaching and learning of CSL was observed. During the observation, field notes were taken while the

lesson was videotaped and audio recorded. Photos of the teacher's actions were taken. The teacher was interviewed after the classroom observation. Before the interview started, the teacher was asked to provide responses to the semiotic checklist given to her. The interview method employed in this section was semi-structured. Besides asking questions stated in the interview protocol, some additional questions based on the teacher's responses were also asked.

Data collected from the pilot study via classroom observation and interview were transcribed and analyzed based on the analysis method discussed in this chapter. Based on the pilot study, the research design, data collection procedure and data analysis method proposed were found to be suitable. However, some weaknesses were found. The measures to improve the weaknesses were suggested and reported as follows:

- It was found that some students did not understand some of the survey questions and as such, they did not answer them properly. Therefore, there was a need to explain the survey questions to the students to help them understand them in order to provide the appropriate and valid responses.

- From previous experience, to encourage the primary school students to answer the survey questions, a small token would be given to them. Motivated by this, the young participants usually approached the given task with more enthusiasm. The researcher gave tokens to the teachers so that they could pass the tokens to the participants. However, based on the teacher's response carrying out this task would mean the teacher was assigned extra task. So, for the subsequent classroom observation and survey, the teachers could choose either to give their students the tokens themselves or let the researcher undertake the task.

- The researcher realised that male and female students preferred different tokens, making it necessary to bring more tokens to class and allow the students to choose their tokens.

- It was also found that some information needed for answering Research Question 3 and Research Question 4 were missing in the interview protocol. Two more questions were added into the teachers' interview protocol to increase the number of questions from 12 to 14. These two questions are listed below:

Question 13.	师生关系对华语学习有什么影响？
	How does the teacher-student relationship affect the learning of Chinese
Question 14.	在师训学院受训时你们是否有学如何运用口头语言或身体语言教学？
	Were you trained to use verbal language and body language in teaching at the teacher training college?
	如有，是用在哪一方面？
	If so, in what respects?

4.7 Approach and Analysis

The nature of modes in meaning making can be vastly different. As such, different transcription and analytical approaches suggested by experts in the fields were adopted. The analytical framework for analysing CSL classroom multimodal discourse is shown in Table 4.5 (refer to p. 126).

4.7.1 Analysis of Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms from Checklist Data

The realisation of semiotic resources in each CSL classroom was identified by three parties, namely the researcher, the teachers and the students. To get a detailed picture of the use of multisemiotic resources in teaching, the analysis regarding the use of semiotic resources viewed from the perspective of the researcher was based on the semiotic resources checklist completed by the researcher. The analysis on the use of semiotic resources, viewed from the perspective of the teachers and students was based on the information obtained from the checklists completed by the teacher and the students from each class. The types of semiotic modes used were identified and the frequency of their usage was also calculated. Classroom video recording was used to counter check the data recorded by the researcher.

Table 4.5: CSL Classroom Multimodal Discourse Analytical Framework

Research Question	Theoretical Concept			Sources of Data
1. What are the semiotic resources realised in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second Language?	1. Social Semiotic Multimodal Analysis: Kress et al. (2001); 2. Multimodal Interactional Analysis: Norris (2004)			1. Classroom video recording data; 2. Checklists completed by the researcher; teachers; and students
2. How are the semiotic resources used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms?	**Mode**	**Modality**	**Transcription & Analysis approach/theory:**	1. Linguistic resources (Teacher talk) - Classroom videotaping & audio recording 2. Non-linguistic resources (Teacher action) - Classroom video recording data, field notes & photographs 3. Interview data
	Verbal	Teacher Talk	SFL (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1978, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, 2004; Martin & White, 2005)	
	Nonverbal	Facial Expressions	Martinec's (2001, pp.126-130): System of Affect.	
		Gaze	Harrigan (2008, p.137)	
		Gestures	1. McNeill (1992); 2. Systemic Functional Approach to gesture: Hood (2011); Lim (2011)	
		Posture	Martinec's (2001): Modality system	
		Proxemics	Martinec (2001): Engagement system	
	Multimodal Co-deployment		1. SF-MDA (Kress at al., 2001, pp.33-37; Kress at al., 2005); 2. Multimodal Interactional Analysis (Norris, 2004, pp. 65-66)	
3. How is teacher immediacy, a core aspect of interpersonal meaning, constructed in Chinese as a second language classrooms?	1. **Communication theories** : • Mehrabian's Social-psychological principle (1969, 1971); • Richmond (2002a); • Richmond et al. (2008); • Andersen (1978, 1979); • Gorham(1988); • Mottet and Richmond (1998).			1. Classroom observation (videotaping/audio recording/ field notes/ photos). 2. Interview with teachers and students.
4. What is the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed on classroom teaching and learning?	**Educational theories/concepts:** • Bear (2010); • Eggen & Kauchak (2004); • Gagne (1984); • Moore (2007); • Ormrod, 2006; • Schunk, 2004; • Woolfolk and Margetts (2013).			1. Classroom observation (videotaping) 2. Interview with teachers and students.

4.7.2 Analysis of Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms from Video Recording Data

The analysis of resources used in CSL classrooms was also carried out based on the video recording data. The process of transcribing the video data involved viewing the tapes several times: firstly images only, than sound only, and finally both sound and images were transcribed. Semiotic resources used in each teaching stage were reported in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Sample of Multimodal Transcription of Video Data

Stage	Teaching & Learning Activity	Time (Duration)	Semiotic mode		
			Speech/writing	**Visual**	**Action**
Beginning (lesson Initiation)	Set induction	1.29-5.42 (4m13s)	• Teacher talk	• Teaching aids ~multimedia video clips	• Teacher's body language ~facial expressions ~gestures ~postures ~gaze
Main (lesson in progress)	The story of 'Mulan'	5.43-33.17 (27m44s)	• Teacher talk • Chinese words on flashcards and whiteboard	• Teaching aids ~Images/pictures on whiteboard ~object (paper)	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze ~gestures
	Reading the vocabulary	33.18-34.50 (1m32s)	• Teacher talk ~Teacher leading the students in reading aloud the new vocabulary • Teaching aids ~ Chinese words on flashcards and whiteboard	• Teaching aids ~Images on whiteboard	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze
Closing (lesson closure)	Reading & writing exercise	34.51-40.00 (5m9s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~text in handouts ~text on PPT	--	• Teacher's body language ~gesture: point to the text on PPT and handout ~proxemics: go near students

Notes: m= minute; s= seconds

Christie (2002) categorized a lesson into three stages. She explains that the three stages of a Curriculum Macrogenre are the Curriculum Genre of Initiation or Orientation, Negotiation or Collaboration and Closure. In this study, the teaching lesson was also divided into three stages, namely, the beginning stage (Lesson Initiation), the main stage (Lesson in Progress) and the closing stage (Lesson Closure) (refer Table 4.6). At the beginning stage, teachers usually start with the discourse of greetings and checking students' attendance. At this stage, teachers normally carry out activities that motivate students to engage in learning. In educational terms, it is called set induction. Its purpose is to introduce new teaching materials or a learning experience or revise the previous lesson. The main stage is where the teacher's main instructional activities are carried out. In this stage, the domain of teacher's discourse includes discourse of teaching the lesson content and this involves various language skills like speaking, reading, writing, and listening. The closing stage normally is when the teacher summarises the lesson of the day. The discourse domain in this stage includes the discourse on the summary of the lesson and assigning homework.

The details of the teaching activities, semiotic resources used in teaching and the allocation of teaching times for all relevant activities are shown in Table 4.6. These semiotic resources were mediated in various media, such as teacher's spoken language, teacher's actions, CD-ROM, PPT, printed materials, and so on. The transcription of multimodal semiotic resources realised in CSL classroom from video recording data was analysed based on the multimodal transcription of video data introduced by Kress et al (2001, pp. 33-37). This theoretical perspective of teaching and learning as multimodal processes demanded a transcription process which took account of how actional, visual and linguistic resources worked together to make meaning (Kress et al., 2001, p. 33). In addition, Norris' (2004) interactional multimodal analysis approach was also used in analysing the video data.

The multimodal transcription of video data of each class was carried out in several stages. First, the entire video recording was viewed to capture an initial overall picture to understand the teaching and learning process and the use of multisemiotic resources. Second, the teaching and learning process was divided into three stages, namely the beginning stage, main stage, and closing stage. Third, the video recording data were viewed for the second time to determine what activities had been carried out by the teachers in each of the stages, and the time taken for those activities. The activities and time were recorded. At the same time, in each teaching and learning activity, the semiotic resources co-deployed in meaning making were identified. They were recorded in the respective spaces in Table 4.6. The details of teacher talk and the detailed description of the teacher's body language are not provided in this table, but it will be discussed under Section 4.7.3. The results of the simple transcription of multisemiotic resources deployed in classroom can be seen in Table 4.6. The data obtained from the video data transcription were used to answer the first research question.

4.7.3   Multimodal Transcription of Video Data

Multimodal analysis requires multimodal data, and a video camera is one of the best tools to record audio and the visual aspects of real-time interaction. Immediately after the field work, the video recording was transferred to a computer and several copies of the data were saved for the retrieval of data in the event of data loss or corruption. The video data were labeled according to the school's name, that is School A, School B, School C and School D. The video data were transcribed according to the multimodal video transcription method used by Kress et al. (2001, pp. 33-37) and Norris (2004, pp. 65-66). These two methods share a common approach. First, they analyze meaning making of all single modes. Then, based on a particular activity, they analyze the meaning making of combined modes. Later,

they merge the results from the analysis of all factors (speech, acts, and artifacts) to get the overall picture. Hence, the interplay of multi modes will be seen. In other words, a multimodal approach of analysis will be accomplished.

According to Norris (2004, p. 65), transcribing video data is a complicated undertaking. It always involves multiple methodological steps. She holds that, the challenging task of multimodal transcription is to translate the visual and audio aspects into some textual format. She believes that some detail of a communication mode is better represented in an image form rather than in word description. For instance, to describe a posture of a teacher, the textual description may occupy a large space and is thus not economical. However, if represented by a photo or video clip, the rich interactional meaning signaled by the posture can be seen and understood. In order to provide a clearer 'picture' of the real-time action in detail, often, a picture is needed, as a picture is worth more than thousand words.

Table 4.7: Sample Transcription on Teacher's Talk and Action

Time	Teacher talk	Image	Remarks
011818	我要给你们看几个图画。 I would like to show you some pictures.		

In this analysis, the computer software Cyberlink Powerdirector 10 was used to capture the teacher's gestures, facial expressions, postures, and use of space from the video recording. As a result, in the transcription, whenever necessary, the image from the data was put side by side to analyse the relevant teacher talk as shown in Table 4.7.

4.7.3.1 Analysis of Teacher Talk

Spoken language was the communication mode transcribed first, for two reasons: first, spoken language has a high information value; and second, due to our educational training which places great importance on the mode of language, we are generally more inclined to consciously make sense of what a speaker is saying than to notice what a speaker is expressing in other modes (Norris, 2004, p. 66).

Teacher talk represents a dominant portion of spoken language gathered from classroom discourse. Other textual elements are student talk and spoken language from the Power Point Presentations or video clips. Student talk usually consists of students' responses in addressing all kinds of tasks assigned by the teacher. Such tasks include answering questions, giving examples, reading aloud, constructing sentences, explaining vocabulary, performing specific movements, completing short exercises verbally, and so forth. In the transcript, T represents teacher talk, while S and SS represent student talk, where S indicates only one student producing the utterance, and SS indicates that at least two students were producing the utterance at the same time, in situations when a few students or the whole class together answered the question posed to them. The sign '#' means new turn taking, and words appearing in the brackets ( ) are the researcher's notes. Besides this, instances of code-switching were transcribed verbatim according to the actual usage of the codes.

Teacher talk and student talk were transcribed verbatim according to the actual sequence of the teacher-students interaction in the class as recorded. Both teacher talk and student talk in classroom were transcribed mainly based on the audio data recorded from classroom observations. Audio data were saved in audio files. After the transcription, the transcripts

were counter checked with the video recording data to ensure that all important information was included. The researcher decided to transcribe the audio data from the audio files because she had the software to control the speed of the speech when the files were replayed. By using this software, the speech could be replayed at a much slower pace. A sample of classroom spoken language transcription is shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Sample of Classroom Spoken Language Transcription

Turn		Spoken Language
A: #1	T	课本有带来是吗？[Have you brought your textbook?]
#2	SS	有。（学生一起答）[Yes. (in unison)]
#3	T	我们学到第几课？[Which lessons have we covered?]
#4	SS	第七课。（一些学生答）[Lesson Seven (some students answer)]
#5	T	Há, 我们学到第几课？[Ha, Which lesson have we covered?]
→	S	（没人答）(No response)
#5	T	第几课？不知道，忘记了？[Which lesson? Don't know? Forgotten?]
#6	SS	十七。（一些学生答）[Seventeen. (Responses from some students)]
#7	T	十七。那今天我们要学第几课？[Seventeen. Then which lesson are we going to learn today?]
#8	S	第十八。[Lesson Eighteen.]
#9	T	第十八。我不要。[Eighteen. I don't want]
#10	S	十九。[Nineteen.]

Notes: A= Teacher A; # = turn, T= teacher; S= one student; SS= more than one student

Halliday's SFL model (1978, 1985, and 1994) was used to analyse interpersonal meaning constructed in teacher talk. Interpersonal meaning is meaning pertaining to roles and social relationships among the interactants. Linguistically, the analysis focused on examining the system of person and mood used by the speakers (refer Section 3.2.1 & 3.2.2 in Chapter 3). Martin's appraisal theory was also used to analyse speaker's attitude (refer Section 3.2.4 in Chapter 3). The procedures for analyzing appraisal in conversation introduced by Eggins and Slade (1997) were also adopted in this study for analyzing appraisal resources in teacher talk. The four steps are: identifying appraisal items; classifying appraisal items; summarizing appraisal choices; and interpretation of the appraisal items (pp. 137-138). All

of the data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, which included frequency and percentage. In addition, Mehrabian's (1969, 1971) Social-Psychological Principle; Gorham (1988), Mottet and Richmond (1998) and Richmond et al.'s (2008) criteria of immediate communication were used to uncover the ways teachers constructed teacher immediacy through their own verbal and nonverbal behaviours. The teacher verbal immediacy analysis was discussed under Section 3.5.1 in Chapter 3.

4.7.3.2 Facial Expression Analysis

Facial expression data in this study were analysed based on Martinec's (2001) System of Affect. It is a system of meaning mediated by a combination of head, eyes and mouth movements. Martinec asserts that "affect deals with display of emotions, which predominantly occur in the face" (Martinec, 2001, p. 126). The present research decided that only those primary facial expressions closely related to the lesson content and research objectives would be studied, namely anger, happiness, sadness, fear, and surprise (refer to Section 3.3.1 in Chapter 3). The analysis on smiling (happiness) and frowning (anger or sadness) was done in detail in terms of the percentage (%) of their duration of occurrence in contrast to total teaching and learning time. In addition, some facial expressions used in teaching will also be discussed with samples.

4.7.3.3 Gaze Analysis

Gaze in this study adopted the definition and analysis method introduced by Harrigan (2008). Thus, teacher's gaze refers to the ways teacher making eye contact, looking, glancing, and giving visual attention while teaching (refer to Section 3.3.2 in Chapter 3). In the present study, the gaze analysis examined the teacher's frequency of looking and its total duration of looking at the students or other directions. The number of times and the

time taken (in seconds) by the teacher in looking at the students were recorded and counted. The findings will be presented in a table form.

4.7.3.4 Gesture Analysis

The researcher combined gesture analysis methods developed by the Systemic Functional Approach (Lim, 2011; Hood, 2011) and McNeill's (1992) model to analyse various gestures used in the classrooms (refer Section 3.3.3 in Chapter 3). First, the researcher classified the teacher's gestures into two major groups, namely, Performative Gestures and Communicative Gestures. After the gestures were classified into two categories, only the Communicative Gestures were analysed, as the teacher's communicative gestures were interpersonal meaning oriented. For the purpose of investigating how gestures accompanying the teacher's spoken language make meaning, McNeill's (1992) gesture taxonomy was used to classify teacher's gestures. The analysis used Hood's ideas on how gesture functions to engage students in learning and to intensify a message or action, as those teaching moves mediated interpersonal meaning.

Computer software Cyberlink Powerdirector 10 was used to capture the photographs of the teacher's gestures. These still images of gestures were categorized following the categorization methods introduced by Lim (2011), McNeill (1992) and Hood (2011). After the gestures were categorized, the frequency and percentage of each type of gestures were counted, and the data were presented in tables. Some of these photographs will also be included in the discussion of research findings. These images provide a better picture of the types and ways in which the teachers used these gestures in constructing interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms.

4.7.3.5 Posture Analysis

The teachers' postures were analysed according to Martinec's (2001) modality system and the theory of immediacy (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). Posture is body positioning and direction. In this study, the posture data were categorized according to the way teacher positioned the direction of her body and her body positioning, such as showing a very tense body/relaxed body position; using open (limb apart)/ closed (arm closed) posture and leaning forward/ backwards while talking to students (refer Section 3.3.4). The duration of each direction realised was calculated. For discussion and reporting purposes, pictures of teachers' postures will be provided with the statistics.

4.7.3.6 Proxemics Analysis

Proxemics is about the use of space and it is concerned with intimacy. It involves distance and position (front, side, back) of one's body during social interaction. Proxemics is closely related to the field of interaction and types of activity taking place in the social interaction. Thus, the analysis of proxemics in CSL classrooms will focus on several aspects, namely teachers' instructional activities, the classroom layout, teacher's movement in class, and the proximity between teacher and students. Data with regard to proximity were analysed using Martinec's (2001) engagement system (refer to Section 3.3.5. in Chapter 3).

Teachers' instructional activities in class normally include whole group instruction, small group instruction/consultation, classroom supervision, and lesson preparation. Whole group instruction refers to the time when a teacher presents a lesson to the whole class with little differentiation in either content or assessment of any student's ability. Small group instruction typically refers to a teacher working with a small group of students on a

specific learning objective.   Classroom supervision refers to a teacher's classroom management in monitoring student behaviour and work during group activities or individual work.   As the use of space by the teacher in interaction with students is also related to the pedagogical purpose, proxemics can also be examined through the teacher's instructional activities categorized as "Whole group instruction", "Individual/ small group consultation", "Classroom supervision" and "Lesson preparation". The allocation of time for each type of instructional activities was recorded and will be presented as percentages.

The engagement system shown in Table 3.11 in Chapter Three served as guidelines of analysis for proxemics (the use of space by the teacher while teaching). The social relations between interactants in class are categorised based on the subtle scales listed in Table 3.11. In transcribing data of proximity, the positioning and movement of the teachers shown in video recording was observed. The teachers' location, distance and angle were examined and recorded accordingly to reflect the teacher's actual movement in the classroom. A snapshot via the computer software of every complete move was taken. Besides, the exact time in the video clip when the movement was performed was recorded. These still images were then transferred to a document file. They were placed in order, according to the pace of moves (Norris, 2004, p. 68).

The total duration of teacher's positioning at each location in the class was counted. After the analysis, the social relations between interactants and a sketch of teacher's positioning and movement for each class were drawn. A proxemics analysis sample is shown in Figure 4.1. From the figure, the way teacher used the space in class could be seen directly.

White board		CD Player TV

A   993s (42.13%)

B   165s (7.00%)

Teacher's table

C   788s (33.43%)

D   348s (14.76%)

armchairs

E   2s (0.93%)

F   22s (0.93%)

G   19s (0.81%)

Remarks	
Total Teaching & learning Time = 2357s	
A	7'<x≤12' from the nearest student/students
B	4'<x≤7' from the nearest student/stu ents
C	4'<x≤7' from the nearest student/students
D	2.5'<x≤4' from the nearest student/students
E	0.5'<x≤1.5' from the nearest student/students
F	0.5'<x≤1.5' from the nearest student/students
G	2.5'<x≤4' from the nearest student/students
Note: 2.5'<x≤4' means the distance varie from 2.5 feet to 4 feet.	

Figure 4.1: A Proxemics Analysis Sample

4.7.3.7 Analysis of the Co-deployment of Multisemiotic Resources in Constructing Interpersonal Meaning

Interpersonal meaning is the meaning of the roles enacted by the participants in communication and the social relations between participants. The roles enacted by the participants in communication were determined by the communicative tasks performed by the participants. For example, some usual communicative tasks relating to social roles

135

played by a teacher in classroom teaching as an instructor, learning facilitator, evaluator, motivator, disciplinarian and value-bearer, are shaped by the communicative tasks of instruction, guidance, evaluation, motivation, classroom management and value inculcation carried by a teacher. When a teacher is enacting her multi-facet social roles, it is very natural for the teacher to co-deploy verbal and body language to perform the tasks that realise the roles. Therefore, when the verbal behaviour is accompanied by the nonverbal behaviour (body language) concomitantly in classroom interaction that makes sense for pedagogical, managerial and communicative purposes, teachers in fact employ multimodal approaches in making meaning. To analyse the interpersonal meaning construction via instances of the teacher's resorting to multisemiotic resources to realise several teacher social roles and performing immediacy behaviours, theories of SFL, appraisal and immediacy were used. When necessary, in the discussion session, some educational and psychology theories were used to justify the analysis and argument. The use of a combination of theories from various schools of thought enriched the research theoretical frameworks of this study. This can be considered as one of the strengths of the study. By using this theoretical framework in analysis, a comprehensive evaluation of interpersonal meaning construction could be accomplished. The co-deployment of teacher talk and teacher's nonverbal expressions in constructing interpersonal meaning will be discussed under Section 6.4 in Chapter 6.

4.7.3.8 Analysis of Teacher Immediacy

This research was interested in studying moves and approaches related to 'teacher immediacy'. They were considered as good teacher behaviour and teaching approaches as teacher immediacy helps make the students "like" the teacher and the subject. This "like" is value-oriented and has interpersonal meaning. The present research explored the

concerns of the teacher for their students via teacher's use of verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviour, and the communicative tasks, which were planned and performed by the teacher to promote teacher immediacy. Specifically, the analysis examined how multisemiotic resources were deployed in realising those tasks. As has been argued, any study of interpersonal meaning needs to examine the communicative tasks that express concern and goodwill.

The analysis began with the identification of teacher immediacy moves and approaches. Those moves and approaches were selected as episodes of short events. The unit of analysis is a stanza. Each stanza is a group of lines about one important event, happening, or state of affairs at one time and place, or it focuses on a specific character, theme, image, topic, or perspective (Gee, 1999, p. 109).

Teacher immediacy behaviours were analysed based on two immediacy frameworks shown in Table 4.9 and Table 4.10. The verbal immediacy framework in Table 4.9 was constructed by compiling the indicators of immediacy behaviour in Gorham's (1988) Verbal Immediacy Behaviour Measuring Scale, Mottet and Richmond's (1998) Approach/Avoidance Verbal Strategies, and Verbal Approach Strategy of Richmond et al. (2008); while the nonverbal behaviour framework was adapted from several instruments developed by immediacy experts from the schools of communication. They are Andersen (1979); Andersen et al. (1979); McCroskey et al. (1995); Mehrabian (1969, 1971); Richmond (2002a); Richmond et al. (2008); and Richmond, Gorham and McCroskey (1987).

Table 4.9: Teacher Verbal Immediacy Framework

No.	Immediacy	Nonimmediacy
1.	Teacher understands students. Uses direct references and personal recognition when communicating by remembering the student's names and addresses the student by name.	Uses references that fail to recognize the student by not using her or his name or nickname, by mispronouncing her or his name or nickname, or by referring to her or him as "you."
2.	The teacher engages in behaviours that lead the student to perceive the relationship as being closer and more established than it has actually been. For example, she/he uses nicknames of the students, talks about ''we'', rather than "I" or "you, refers to class as ''our'' class or what ''we'' are doing. They also discuss any prior activities that included both of them.	Uses exclusionary communication by discussing things he or she can't relate to or finds uninteresting; by using slang, tech-talk, or shoptalk that he or she doesn't understand; or by talking about people that he or she hasn't met or places he or she hasn't visited.
3.	Teacher treats student fairly and equally	Uses assertive, dominant behaviour
4.	Teacher respects students, uses language he or she understands, language that does not sound superior, over her or his head, and is not condescending or "talking down" to her or him.	Uses hurtful, harmful, or condescending teasing and joking, such as making fun of his or her clothing, weight, or general appearance.
5	Teacher has empathy, does not hurt students' self-respect	Uses condescending communication by saying such things as "You don't know what you're talking about"; "Your ideas are stupid"; "Why are you acting like that?"; "You wouldn't understand".
6.	Teacher encourages students, uses praise, complimentary, and encouraging statements	Criticizes or points out faults in students' work, actions or comments
7.	Teacher is caring	Teacher is not caring
8.	Teacher is gentle	Teacher is aggressive and rude
9.	Teacher is friendly, use humor in class	Teacher is serious, seldom uses humor in class
10.	Teacher uses communication in a way that reveals he/she is willing to communicate and that he/she wants to continue communicating. Teacher uses responsive statements such as "please continue"; "Tell me more"	Uses communication that is unresponsive by saying such things as "I don't have time now; I'm tired"; or by answering questions with simple, short yes/ no answers.
11.	Teacher encourages students to talk by asking questions and reinforcing the students for talking.	Teacher controls the interaction in class most of the time, students are not encouraged to get involved.
12.	Teacher uses self-disclosive statements, the teacher discloses information about his/her background, interests, and views.	Uses only task-oriented communication by keeping all communication strictly business and never engaging in small talk or self-disclosive communication.
13.	Teacher is sensitive to the needs of students (e.g. the use of code switching by teacher in translating, explaining, repeating, and rephrasing messages)	Teacher never considers student needs.

Table 4.10: Teacher Nonverbal Immediacy Framework

No.	Immediacy	Nonimmediacy
1.	Gaze: • Engages in more eye contact with students when teaching	Gaze: • Less or avoids eye contact
2.	Facial expressions: • Smiles at the class when talking • Has pleasing facial expressions	Facial expressions: • Frowns at the class while talking. • Dull facial expressions
3	Gesture: • Has more gestures more while teaching	Gesture: • fewer gestures
4.	Posture: • Open posture: has an open body position while communicating with their students • Has a relaxed body position when talking to the class. • Leans toward the students	Posture: • Closed posture: Teachers fold in or keep a closed body position. • Has a very tense body position when talking to the class • Leans back, further away from the student/speaker
5.	Proxemics: • Moves around the classroom when teaching. • The teacher stands or sits close to the student	Proxemics: • Stands behind the desk or podium and rarely approaches students or allows them to approach her or him • Sits on a desk or in a chair when teaching.
6.	Vocal behaviour: • Uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.	Vocal behaviour: • Uses monotone/ a dull voice when talking to the class. • sounds weak, bored, angry, disgusted, or uninterested
7.	Touching : • Touches student's shoulder while praising him/her.	Touching : Never touches students

The framework provided is a rather comprehensive one as it encompasses the various indicators of both verbal and nonverbal immediate behaviours. This is another contribution of this study to research as the framework can be used in other future research.

4.8   Ethical Issues and Confidentiality

For the purpose of addressing ethical as well as confidentiality issues, a meeting was held with all teachers to explain the purpose and the qualitative nature of the study and the value of their support. A letter of invitation was presented to these teachers to obtain their consent to participate in this study. In this letter, the teachers were informed that their classroom teaching process would be videotaped and audio taped, and subsequently they would be interviewed. The participants were also informed by the researcher that the recordings and written work collected as part of this study would be used only for research or educational purposes. Participants signed a consent form indicating that they agreed to participate in this research after they had understood the objectives and the nature of the research (see Appendix H). To ensure the confidentiality of every participating individual's data, each participant was identified by a participant identification code known only to the researcher. Four participants in this study were coded as Teacher A, Teacher B, Teacher C and Teacher D. In addition, consent from students to participate in this study was also obtained verbally in each class before the classroom video recording and interview started.

4.9   Reliability and Validity of the Study

The internal validity (the extent to which research findings are congruent with reality) and reliability (consistency of findings) of qualitative research can be enhanced by various strategies. The strategies include member validation or member checks and triangulation. According to Creswell (2008, p. 266), triangulation strengthens reliability as well as internal validity. Therefore, as discussed earlier the researcher adopted triangulation and member checks to validate the data of this study.

Triangulation or convergent validation refers to the process of corroborating evidence from different individuals, types of data, or methods of data collection in the description and thematic analysis of qualitative research (Creswell, 2008, p. 266). In this study, data gathered from classroom observations, the survey, and interviews were used to triangulate the findings obtained from the analysis of video data. This information was used to identify the semiotic resources used in realizing classroom multimodal discourse. Boeije (2010) holds that member validation allows "qualitative researchers the accessibility to verify their findings with the participants" (p. 177). Therefore, the interview transcripts were sent to the teachers interviewed to check for the accuracy of the content.

The language used in interviewing the teachers was Chinese, as the teachers were Chinese language teachers. For the non-native CSL learners, the languages used to interview them were either Malay or English, or both. These two languages were familiar to the students. Malay is the mother tongue of some of the student interviewees. Participants from each school were fluent in the language of the interview, and thus they had no difficulty in using the respective languages to elaborate their viewpoints. The use of familiar languages during the interviews would help enhance the validity and reliability of the interview data. The Chinese language teacher talk and interview data cited in this report was translated into English. To ensure the translation was accurate and reliable, a language expert proficient in Chinese, English and Malay language was asked to read the transcripts to ensure that the translation was accurate.

According to Van Leeuwen & Jewitt (2001, p. 21), 'reliability' refers to the degree of consistency shown by one or more coders in classifying content according to the defined values on specific variables. Reliability can be demonstrated by assessing the correlation

between judgements of the same sample of relevant items made by different coders ('inter-coder reliability') or by one coder on different occasions ('intra-coder reliability'). To achieve high levels of reliability, the researcher who is the first coder, with the help of a second coder, coded the verbal and nonverbal data of the study. In the training, the second coder was informed of the definition and value of each variable (code) and trained to identify each variable and value based on the definition and value given. The inter-coder consistency of the coders was found to be above 90%. According to van Leeuween and Jewitt (2001, p. 23), the inter-coder consistency for binary or tripartite classifications would need to be close to 100 per cent to be reliable. Therefore, based on this, this coder was considered competent and his coding was reliable.

4.10   Summary

The multimodal data transcription and analysis methods were discussed in detail in Section 4.7. For the general classroom interaction, the multimodal transcription methods introduced by Kress et al. (2001, pp. 33-37) and Norris (2004, pp. 58-78) were employed to transcribe the video data into written text and images. Computer software Cyberlink Powerdirector 10 was used to capture the photographs of teachers' gestures, facial expressions, postures and proxemics. The photographs then served as the data in image form. They were compared with the written text transcriptions according to their occurrence as multimodal meaning making resources.

The researcher holds that the effect of interpersonal meaning is cumulative (Halliday, 1979, p. 66) and that any analysis needs to start with the individual modes before the analysis of the combination of modes to interpret interpersonal meaning. By doing so, a better insight into each force of verbal and nonverbal behaviour and the trait of modes in negotiating

meaning could be obtained. As has been argued by Halliday (1979), most of the linguistic options (mood, modality, appraisals) "are associated with the act of meaning as a whole" (p. 67), hence, for the exploration of interpersonal meaning making, the unit of analysis in this study is a stanza, which is related to the social and communicative roles enacted by the participants, specifically, focusing on the teachers. The roles of the teacher enacted are also closely related to the task the teacher is performing, or the moves used by the teacher to accomplish pedagogical or managerial purposes. Social relationship is another important aspect of interpersonal meaning and teacher immediacy has been identified as an important factor for classroom social relationships. Therefore, the study explores how teachers construct teacher immediacy to establish solidarity with students and to promote a classroom harmonious environment in enhancing teaching and learning.

CHAPTER 5

SEMIOTIC RESOURCES REALISED IN
CHINESE AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

5.1   Introduction

This chapter identifies the various semiotic resources realised in Chinese as Second Language (CSL) classrooms. It, therefore, answers the first research question of the study. It begins with findings based on classroom observations by the researcher. The researcher's field notes and classroom video recording data (Section 5.2) were also analysed, followed by the analysis on the responses from the "Checklist" given to three parties: the researcher (Section 5.3.1), the teachers (Section 5.3.2), and the students (Section 5.3.3) to identify the resources used in the classrooms. The feedback given by all parties in response to the "Checklist" was counterchecked with the field notes and data from the video recording of classroom observations to gain a thorough insight of the resources. Conclusions were drawn from the summary of the findings.

5.2. Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Data from Classroom Video Recording

This section describes the semiotic resources used in CSL classes based on classroom video recorded data. Semiotic resources used in the four CSL classrooms are shown in Table 5.1 to Table 5.4. The details of the semiotic resources realised at each stage of the lesson in Class A are shown in Table 5.1. The realisation of semiotic resources in classes B, C and D are shown in Table 5.2, Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 respectively. The researcher divided the teaching and learning process in each class into three stages, namely, the beginning stage (Lesson Initiation), the main stage (Lesson in Progress) and the closing stage (Lesson Closure). The transcriptions of multisemiotic resources realised in CSL classrooms from

video recording data were analysed based on the multimodal transcription introduced by

Kress et al (2001, pp. 33-37) and Norris' (2004) interactional multimodal analysis approach

(refer to Section 4.7.2 in Chapter 4).

Table 5.1: Semiotic Resources Realised in Class A

Stage	Teaching & Learning Activity	Time* (Duration)	Semiotic mode		
			Speech/writing	Visual	Action
Beginning (lesson Initiation)	Set induction	1.29-5.42 (4m13s)	• Teacher talk	• Teaching aids ~multimedia video clips	• Teacher's body language ~facial expressions ~gestures ~postures ~gaze
Main (lesson in progress)	The story of 'Mulan'	5.43-33.17 (27m44s)	• Teacher talk • Chinese words on flashcards and whiteboard	• Teaching aids ~Images/pictures on whiteboard ~object (paper)	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze ~gestures
	Reading the vocabulary	33.18-34.50 (1m32s)	• Teacher talk ~Teacher leading the students to read the new vocabulary aloud • Teaching aids ~ Chinese words on flashcards and whiteboard	• Teaching aids ~Images on whiteboard	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze
Closing (lesson closure)	Reading & writing exercise	34.51-40.00 (5m9s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~text in handouts ~text on PPT slides	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures: point to the text on PPT slides and handouts ~proxemics: go near students

*Notes: m= minute; s= seconds

145

Table 5.1 shows that Teacher A used various semiotic resources in teaching. The data in the table show that the semiotic resources employed by Teacher A in meaning making involved the linguistic, visual, and actional modes. The linguistic modes included teacher talk; recorded storytelling; and written text on flashcards, whiteboard, and PowerPoint (PPT) slides. Images, the visual modes appeared in various media: video clips, pictures, and handouts. Actional modes refer to the teacher's body language. In class A, the teacher's body language was realised through teacher's facial expressions, gaze, gestures, and postures. The use of proxemics was not evident in the beginning and main teaching stage in this classroom, as this teacher had positioned herself in front of the class at Areas A and B for 99% of her teaching time (refer to Figure 6.6 in Chapter 6). She only went close to the students to check on their work at the closing stage.

The table also shows that various semiotic resources were used simultaneously in every activity at each stage. At the beginning stage, Teacher A showed the video clips of "Mulan", the topic of the lesson for the day to introduce Mulan, a heroine in ancient China to the students. At the main stage, Teacher A delivered the lesson content verbally and nonverbally through body language and use of flashcards and images in the teaching aids. As such, her teaching approach was multimodal (Kress et al., 2001; Jewitt, 2009). In addition, Teacher A used her gestures and facial expressions to explain the content of the lesson or to point to the images or written text either on PPT slides or the whiteboard. At each stage of the teaching, the interplay between resources in the linguistic, visual, and actional modes was evident and that only of these modalities could be foregrounded. At the beginning stage, the visual mode in terms of video clips was foregrounded; the Mulan movie was the main semiotic resource at that moment. While explaining the content of the lesson to the students, teacher talk was co-deployed with the teacher's body language and

146

teaching aids to realise meaning. Teacher talk was the main semiotic resource at this main stage. Body language and a variety of teaching aids only played a supporting role. But when conducting the reading practice activity, flashcards and words on the whiteboard, representing the linguistic mode, became the main semiotic resources and as such the students relied more on these teaching aids for reading practice rather than on other resources. Teacher A ended the lesson by assigning homework (linguistic mode) to the students.

Table 5.2 shows the semiotic resources employed in Class B. At the beginning stage, several famous cartoon characters produced by Disneyland were displayed via an ipad for the students to identify the character, Mulan, which the students could easily do so. Teacher talk and the cartoon images shown on the ipad were the main meaning making modes of this teaching stage. At the main stage, the teaching activities in Class B were storytelling, a question and answer session (Q&A), and language activities. Exercises for students to arrange images and construct sentences verbally were the two language activities carried out. As shown in Table 5.2, during the main stage, instructional activities in Class B were multimodal. The teacher employed several semiotic modes in making meaning. Like Teacher A, Teacher B also employed the multimodal approach to introduce the story of Mulan. Besides spoken language, teacher's facial expressions, gestures, postures, and proxemics were co-deployed with images displayed on the ipad, whiteboard, and flashcards in teaching. The facial expressions of Teacher B were very rich, and used as meaning making resources accompanying her explanation of new words at the main stage. This will be further discussed in Section 6.3.1. The lesson ended with a summary of the story of Mulan and the teacher assigning homework. At this stage, the linguistic mode was

foregrounded, where teacher talk and written text in the handouts represented the main semiotic modes.

Table 5.2: Semiotic Resources Realised in Class B

Stage	Teaching & Learning Activity	Time* (Duration)	Semiotic mode		
			Speech/writing	Visual	Action
Beginning (lesson Initiation)	Set induction	01.00-03.28 (2m28s)	• Teacher talk	• Teaching aids ~images on ipad	• Teacher's body language ~facial expressions ~gestures ~gaze
Main (lesson in progress)	Lesson content: Storytelling	03.29-15.33 (12m4s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~Flashcard (1 only)	• Teaching aids ~Images on whiteboard	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~gestures ~postures ~gaze ~proxemics
	Question & Answer (Q&A) about "Mulan"	15.34-23.30 (7m56s)	Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~written text on whiteboard	• Teaching aids ~Images	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~gestures ~postures ~gaze
	Arranging images exercise & discussion	23.31-33.00 (9m29s)	• Teacher talk	• Teaching aids ~Images on whiteboard ~images on handouts	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~proxemics
	Construct sentences exercise (oral)	33.01-38.20 (5m19s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~written text on whiteboard	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~ facial expressions ~proxemics
Closing (lesson closure)	Summary & assigning homework	38.21-43.53 (5m32s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~ printed worksheet	• Teaching aids ~Images on whiteboard	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~ facial expressions ~proxemics

*Notes: m= minute; s= seconds

148

The semiotic resources used by Teacher C in teaching are shown in Table 5.3. Teacher C started her lesson by introducing the story of Mulan as lesson initiation. The modalities co-deployed at this stage included teacher talk and the teacher's body language. A number of teaching and learning activities were conducted at the main stage. They were storytelling, Q&A sessions, reading practice, a written exercise, language games, matching the Chinese characters with images and Hanyu Pinyin (the official phonetic system for transcribing the Mandarin pronunciation of Chinese characters using the modified Latin alphabet in China), and group activities. The teacher ended her lesson by assigning homework to the students.

Table 5.3: Semiotic Resources Realised in Class C

Stage	Teaching & Learning Activity	Time* (Duration)	Semiotic mode		
			Speech/writing	Visual	Action
Beginning (lesson Initiation)	Set induction	0.11-1.00 (49s)	• Teacher talk	--	• Teacher's body language ~ Gestures
Main (lesson in progress)	Lesson content: "Mulan" storytelling	1.01-05.39 (4m38s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~Written text	• Teaching aids ~ Images on PPT slides	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze ~gesture
	Questions & Answers (Q&A) based on the story	05.40 - 07.51 (2m11s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~ Written text and	•Teaching aids ~ Images on PPTslides	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~postures ~gaze ~ gestures • Teacher led students in applauding to praise student who had answered correctly

Table 5.3: (Cont.)

Stage	Teaching & Learning Activity	Time* (Duration)	Semiotic mode		
			Speech/writing	Visual	Action
Main (lesson in progress)	Reading practice	07.52-13.38 (5m46s)	• Teacher talk • Teacher took the lead in reading PPT slides aloud • Teaching aids ~written text	• Teaching aids ~written text and images on PPT slides •	• Teacher's body language ~ gestures to teach intonation ~gaze
	Written exercise	13.39-17.49 (4m10s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~handouts	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~proxemics
	Language activity: Matching	17.50-24.27 (6m37s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~flashcards ~chart	•Teaching aids ~images	• Teacher's body language ~facial expressions ~gestures ~Applause to praise student/students ~gaze
	Language activity: Group	24.28-30.46 (6m18s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~flashcards	--	• Teacher's body language ~proxemics ~gaze ~gestures
Closing (lesson closure)	Issuing homework	30.47-31.06 (19s)	Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~printed worksheets	--	• Teacher's body language ~proxemics

*Notes: m= minute; s= seconds

Classroom teaching activities of Teacher C were quite similar to those of Teacher A and Teacher B. Like the other two classes, Class C also began by introducing the story of Mulan through the multimodal approach. Besides teacher talk, the teacher's body language and teaching aids like PPT slides, flashcards, and images were co-deployed in teaching. During the question and answer (Q&A) session, teacher talk was foregrounded by Teacher C

150

posing a question. Then, teacher talk was backgrounded as she looked around the class to identify students whom she had called upon to respond to the question posed. The students who had been called upon to answer the questions then tried to give their answers. Once a question was answered correctly, other students were instructed to give a round of applause to their friends who had successfully answered the question. Teacher C also took the lead in applauding the student. Thus, applauding as a modality for affirming students' good performance was foregrounded at the end of the Q&A session. When conducting a reading practice, a written exercise and a language activity, teacher talk was backgrounded, when teaching materials were foregrounded as a meaning making modality in these activities. For instance, during the reading practice, teacher and students focused on the Chinese characters on the whiteboard. In the written exercise activity, handouts were foregrounded as teacher talk was used merely to explain how to complete the exercises. The teaching aids like images in PowerPoint and flashcards were co-deployed with teacher talk in conducting the language activities. In addition, proxemics, the use of space by Teacher C in conducting group activities was also evident. She moved from one group of students to another to facilitate students in completing group learning activities.

Table 5.4 indicates that Teacher D started the lesson by giving instructions to the class. She informed the students that the topic of the day was about Mulan. She advised them to listen to a recorded story carefully as she would ask questions about the story later. At the main stage, Teacher D played the audio recording of Mulan and at the same time the written text of the story was displayed on an LCD screen. While listening to the story，students could also read the words on the screen. This is a multimodal teaching approach as it requires learners to use their auditory and visual sensory simultaneously. After listening to the story,

Teacher D distributed handouts and led the oral reading of the text in the handouts. This was followed by the teacher's explanation of new vocabulary and content of the text. The final activity was a vocabulary exercise. Students answered questions verbally, based on the written text on the whiteboard. The lesson ended when Teacher D summarized the lesson of the day and assigned homework.

Table 5.4: Semiotic Resources Realised in Class D

Stage	T&L Activity	Time* (Duration)	Multimodality Elements		
			Speech/writing	Visual	Action
Beginning (lesson Initiation)	Set induction	00.01-01.25 (1m24s)	• Teacher talk	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze
Main (lesson in progress)	Lesson content: The story of "Mulan"	01.26-07.10 (5m44s)	• Teacher talk • Recorded sound (reading the text on PPT slides) • Teaching aids ~Written text on PPT slides	--	• Teacher's body language ~ facial expressions ~gestures ~postures ~gaze ~proxemics
	"Mulan" text reading & explanation	07.11-16.17 (9m6s)	• Teacher talk • Teacher took the lead in reading the text on handouts aloud • Teaching aids ~ written text on handouts	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~facial expressions

	Vocabulary exercise	16.18-22.40 (6m22s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~ written text on handouts	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~facial expressions ~proxemics
Main (lesson in progress)	Vocabulary teaching & Q&A	22.41-24.20 (1m39s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~written text on whiteboard	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~facial expressions
Closing (lesson closure)	Summary & Issuing on homework	24.21 -28.00 (3m39s)	• Teacher talk • Teaching aids ~Photostated worksheet	--	• Teacher's body language ~gestures ~gaze ~facial expressions ~proxemics

*Notes: m= minute; s= seconds

The analysis showed that the teaching approach used by Teacher D was also multimodal. Teacher talk, an audio recorded story of Mulan, textual elements on the whiteboard, handouts, PPT slides and the teacher's body language, especially facial expressions, gaze, and gestures were co-deployed by the teacher to achieve her teaching objectives. The use of space (proxemics) in teaching was not so obvious, because Teacher D's movement in class was very limited. The visual mode such as use of images was not evident from the data analysed. In summary, the teaching and learning activities carried out in Class D only involved linguistic modes (teacher talk and written text) and actional modes (teacher's body language). Teacher D did not use images in teaching.

A summary of the semiotic resources used in the four CSL classes, based on the video data is shown in Table 5.5. The data showed that multimodal teaching approaches were

deployed at every stage in each class. Besides teacher talk, teachers also employed their body language and several kinds of teaching aids in teaching. At each stage, the interplay between resources in the linguistic, visual, and actional modes was evident. It revealed that certain type of modality would be foregrounded by the teacher in making meaning depending on the type of instructional activity carried out. The findings are consistent with those of Kress et al. (2001, 2005), that classroom teaching is multimodal; language is not the only main mode in meaning making in the classroom. Kress et al. (2001, p. 178) assert that, "language whether as speech or as writing, is only ever a partial means for carrying meaning", other semiotic modes also play an important role in conveying meaning in classroom communication.

Table 5.5: Summary of Semiotic Resources Deployed in Classroom Discourse: Data from
Classroom Video Recording (5.1)

Teaching & Learning Process	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Beginning stage	Activity: Set induction Visual mode foregrounded – Video clips: story of Mulan	Activity: Set induction Main mode: teacher talk & cartoon images	Activity: Introducing the story of Mulan Main mode: teacher talk, teacher's actions & images and written text on PPT slides	Activity: Giving instructions to the class. Main mode: Teacher talk
Main stage	Activity: -Storytelling (Teacher talk foregrounded) -Reading vocabulary (Written text on whiteboard & flashcards foregrounded) Semiotic resources used: The co-deployment of teacher talk, teacher's action & teaching aids in teaching	Activity: -Storytelling (Multimodal approach) -Question and Answer session (Teacher talk foregrounded) - Language activities: arranging images (Images foregrounded) & constructing sentences verbally (Teacher talk foregrounded) The facial expressions of Teacher B were very rich and co-deployed with explanations of new words.	Activity: -Storytelling (Multimodal approach) -Q & A session (teacher talk was fore-grounded), - Reading practice (Chinese characters on the whiteboard), -Written exercise (handouts were fore-grounded), -Language game (Matching the Chinese characters with images, and Hanyu Pinyin) The images and flash cards were co-deployed -Group activity. (Teaching materials were foregrounded)	Activity: -Storytelling (Multimodal approach: audio recording of Mulan & written text on PPT slides). - Text reading & explanations (Handout, teacher talk & teacher's action were co-deployed) - Vocabulary exercise (handouts were fore-grounded) -Vocabulary teaching & Q&A (Teacher talk foregrounded)
Closing stage	Activity: Reading exercises (main mode- written text on PPTslides) Assigning homework (main mode – teacher talk)	Activity: -Summary of the story of Mulan (Co-deployment of teacher talk, teacher's action and images) -Assigning homework (teacher talk & written text in handouts were foregrounded)	Activity: -assigning homework (teacher talk & handouts)	Activity: Summary (Teacher talk) & assigning homework (Photostated worksheets)

5.3   Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Data from the Checklist

The following sections discuss the analysis regarding the use of semiotic resources in CSL classrooms from the perspective of the researcher, teachers and students. This analysis examined data from the checklist answered by these three parties.

5.3.1   Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Data from Researcher's Feedback

This section summarizes the semiotic resources used in all the classes based on the researcher's feedback. In identifying semiotic resources deployed in CSL classrooms, the researcher recorded data from her observations of the classrooms using a checklist. The data were then validated with classroom video recording data. The realisation of semiotic resources in the four CSL classrooms based on the checklist is shown in Table 5.6. The linguistic resources refer to the textual elements (spoken and written) evident in teacher talk, textbook, whiteboard, handouts, charts, flashcards, and computer-aided teaching devices (PPT slides , CD-ROM, and the Internet). Meanwhile, the non-linguistic elements refer to the use of real objects (fruits, utensils), images (pictures, photo, animation, diagrams and icons), recorded sound (music), and the teachers' body language (facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, proxemics/use of space, and touch).

As shown in Table 5.6, the two main modes within the linguistic resources used in CSL classrooms were teacher talk and written texts. Written texts employed refer to the handwritten and printed words that appeared in several different teaching aids such as on the whiteboard, textbook, handouts, charts, and flashcards.

156

Table 5.6: Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Researcher's Data

Semiotic Resources				Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Modes	**Realisation**						
Linguistic	Teacher talk		Chinese language only	/			
			Chinese language + Others		/	/	/
	W R I T T E N . T E X T	Whiteboard	Chinese language only	/	/		/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Textbook	Chinese language only	/			
			Chinese language + Others				
		Handouts	Chinese language only	/	/	/	/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Charts	Chinese language only			/	
			Chinese language + Others				
		Flashcards	Chinese language only	/		/	
			Chinese language + Others				
	Aural Recorder and Computer-aided devices (PPT slides, CD-ROM, the Internet)	Spoken	Chinese language only				/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Written	Chinese language only			/	/
			Chinese language + Others				
Non Linguistic	Teachers' body language		Gestures	/	/	/	/
			Facial Expressions	/	/	/	/
			Postures	/	/	/	/
			Gaze	/	/	/	/
			Use of space	/	/	/	/
			Touch				
	Real objects (e.g., fruits, utensils, colour pens)		*Visual* (Shape+Colour)				
			Tactile (Touch)				
			Olfactory (Smell)				
			Gustatory (Taste)				
	Images (e.g., 3-D models, pictures, photos, animation, diagrams, icons)		3-D Models				
			Whiteboard	/	/		
			Textbook				
			Handouts	/	/	/	
			Charts			/	
			Flashcards		/	/	
			Computer-aided devices	/	/	/	
	Recorded sound (**music**)		Aural Recorder				
			Computer-aided devices (PPT, CD-ROM, the Internet)	/			
			Total	**14**	**12**	**14**	**10**

Notes: Others = Malay and/or English

As expected, teacher talk was evident in all classes, as shown in Table 5.6. In comparing the types of media that mediated the written linguistic resources used by the teachers, Teachers A, C and D used written texts on four types of media respectively, while Teacher

157

B used only two, namely written texts on the whiteboard and handouts. With regard to the kinds of spoken language used in teaching, only Teacher A used mostly Chinese in teaching (99.21%). The other three teachers used two or three languages in conducting their lessons. Besides Chinese, they used English and Malay language to explain the content of the lesson. However, the written texts found in the whiteboard, textbook, handouts, charts, flashcards, and PPT slides were all in Chinese characters. Some of the texts were accompanied by Chinese Pinyin (alphabetical representations, e.g., "Zhēngbīng" for 征兵).

The non-linguistic resources used in making meaning in CSL classrooms as shown in Table 5.6 include the teacher's body language, images and recorded sound (music). The elements regarding teachers' body language is further categorised into facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, proxemics, and touch. Touch has been regarded as an approach to building a close relationship between interactants (Richmond, 2002a, p. 74). The above data show that none of the teacher used touch as a resource to foster a close relationship with their students. This could be due to the local culture or the teacher's habit. In the Malaysian context, generally, when interacting with older students of the opposite sex, teachers would be careful about "touching" their students especially in interaction between female teachers and the male students. This is to avoid unnecessary misunderstanding of their actions.

Similarly, none of the teachers used real objects and 3-D models in teaching. This may be due to the topic taught, which did not require the use of any real objects or 3-D models. The lesson was about a story of a young brave girl in ancient China called "Mulan". Many of

the images related to the story were displayed on the whiteboard, handouts, PPT slides, or video clips, and therefore there was no need for objects to be used. The same observations were made in Classes A, B, and C. In addition, Teacher D did not use any images in teaching, while other teachers did as shown in Table 5.6. It is also found that most of the teachers did not use the textbook to teach; instead, they used the multimodal approach, with the aid of notes and images on the whiteboard, charts, flashcards, PPT slides, video clips, recorded sound, and body language to enliven their teaching. Among the four teachers, Teacher A and Teacher C used the highest number of semiotic resources (14 types) (see Table 5.6), followed by Teacher B (12 types) and Teacher D, (10 types). The large number of semiotic resources used by Teacher A and Teacher C may be due to the fact that their classrooms were equipped with computer-assisted teaching equipment, facilitating the use of more types of teaching aids such as PPT slides and video clips in their teaching to highlight important information to the students.

5.3.2 Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Data from Teachers' Feedback

This section reports the semiotic resources realised in CSL classrooms based on teachers' feedback. Teachers in the four classes were asked to complete the "Checklist" regarding the semiotic resources used by them in their classes. Their responses are recorded in Table 5.7 showing that two or more semiotic resources were usually co-deployed by the teachers.

Table 5.7: Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Teachers' Feedback

Semiotic Resources				Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Modes	**Realisation**						
Linguistic	Teacher talk		Chinese language only	/			
			Chinese language + Others		/	/	/
	W R I T T E N T E X T	Whiteboard	Chinese language only	/	/		/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Textbook	Chinese language only				
			Chinese language + Others				
		Handouts	Chinese language only	/	/	/	/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Charts	Chinese language only			/	
			Chinese language + Others				
		Flashcards	Chinese language only	/	/	/	
			Chinese language + Others				
	Aural Recorder and Computer-aided devices (PPT slides, CD-ROM, the Internet)	Spoken	Chinese language only			/	/
			Chinese language + Others				
		Written	Chinese language only		/	/	
			Chinese language + Others				
Non-Linguistic	Teacher's action		Gestures	/	/	/	/
			Facial Expressions		/	/	/
			Postures	/	/	/	/
			Gaze	/	/	/	/
			Use of space	/	/	/	/
			Touch				
	Real objects (e.g., fruits, utensils, colour pens)		*Visual* (Shape+Colour)	/			
			Tactile (Touch)				
			Olfactory (Smell)				
			Gustatory (Taste)				
	Images (e.g., 3-D models, pictures, photos, animation, diagrams,icons)		3-D Model				
			Whiteboard	/	/		
			Textbook				
			Handouts	/	/	/	
			Charts			/	
			Flashcards	/	/	/	
			Computer-aided devices	/	/	/	
	Recorded sound (**music**)		Aural Recorder				
			Computer-aided devices (PPT, CD-ROM, the Internet)				
			Total	**13**	**14**	**15**	**9**

Notes: Others = Malay and/or English

Besides teacher talk, the teachers reported that they also used body language and teaching aids in their teaching. Regarding the teacher talk in class, Teacher A said that she only used the target language in teaching, whereas, the other three teachers reported in the interview

that they used more than one language - Chinese, Malay and English. Regarding the written texts used in the teaching materials, all teachers indicated that texts in all types of teaching aids were written in Chinese characters. All teachers said that they used their body language in teaching, which included facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and use of space (proxemics). Except for Teacher D, Teachers A, B, and C claimed that they used many images while teaching. The topic taught by the teachers was about a story of "Mulan" and therefore they searched for the images of Mulan from various sources like videos, cartoons and storybooks to be used in the lesson. Teacher B even drew the image of Mulan. All of them asserted that images about Mulan could attract young students' attention and interest, and they believed the use of images helped to enliven their storytelling of Mulan.

5.3.3 Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Data from Students' Feedback

This section discusses the information regarding the semiotic resources realised in CSL classroom discourse obtained from the students' responses to items in the questionnaire (see Table 5.8). All students from Class B, Class C and Class D indicated that their teachers used Chinese and other languages while teaching. While 44% of the students in Class A indicated that their teacher spoke only in the Chinese language, the other 56% of them indicated that besides Chinese, their teacher also used other languages during the lesson. Most of the respondents from each class confirmed that the written texts used on the whiteboard, flashcards, and handouts were written in Chinese characters.

Table 5.8: Semiotic Resources Realised in CSL Classrooms: Students' Feedback

Semiotic Resources				Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Modes	**Realisation**						
Linguistic	Teacher talk		Chinese language only	11 (44%)	0	0	0
			Chinese language + Others	14 (56%)	100%	5(100%)	100%
	W R I T T E N . T E X T	Whiteboard	Chinese language only	24 (96%)	16(80%)	2(40%)	10(77%)
			Chinese language + Others	1 (4%)	4(20%)	0	3(23%)
		Textbook	Chinese language only	0	18(90%)	2(40%)	0
			Chinese language + Others	0	1(5%)	0	0
		Handouts	Chinese language only	25(100%)	19(95%)	5(100%)	11(85%)
			Chinese language + Others	0	1(5%)	0	1(8%)
		Charts	Chinese language only	0	1(5%)	5(100%)	1(8%)
			Chinese language + Others	0	2(10%)	0	0
		Flashcards	Chinese language only	23(92%)	18(90%)	4(80%)	0
			Chinese language + Others	1 (4%)	1(5%)	1(20%)	0
	Aural Recorder and Computer-aided devices (PPT, CD-ROM, the Internet)	Spoken	Chinese language only	4 (16%)	0	0	12(92%)
			Chinese language + Others	0	4(20%)	1(20%)	1(8%)
		Written	Chinese language only	2 (8%)	0	4(80%)	100%
			Chinese language + Others	0	3(15%)	1(20%)	0
Non Linguistic	Teacher's action		Gestures	100%	100%	4(80%)	100%
			Facial Expressions	100%	100%	4(80%)	11(85%)
			Postures	100%	15(75%)	5(100%)	12(92%)
			Gaze	100%	19(95%)	5(100%)	12(92%)
			Use of space	100%	100%	5(100%)	0
			Touch	1 (4%)	0	0	0
	Real objects (e.g., fruits, utensils, colour pens)		*Visual* (Shape+Colour)	0	0	0	0
			Tactile (Touch)	0	0	0	0
			Olfactory (Smell)	0	0	0	0
			Gustatory (Taste)	0	0	0	0
	Images (e.g., 3-D models, pictures, photos, animation, diagrams, icons)		3-D Models	1 (4%)	3(15%)	0	0
			Whiteboard	22(88%)	100%	5(100%)	0
			Textbook	4 (16%)	11(55%)	0	1(8%)
			Handouts	1 (4%)	18(90%)	5(100%)	1(7%)
			Charts	0	2(10%)	5(100%)	0
			Flashcards	5 (20%)	17(85%)	2(40%)	0
			Computer-aided devices	23(92%)	16(80%)	5(100%)	0
	Recorded sound (**music**)		Aural Recorder	2 (8%)	1(5%)	0	2(15%)
			Computer-aided devices (PPT, CD-ROM, the Internet)	0	0	0	0

Notes: Others = Malay and/or English

Regarding their teachers' actions in class, most of the students were aware of their teachers'

use of body language in teaching. The majority (more than 75%) agreed that their teachers

used facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures, and made use of space (proxemics) in teaching. An interesting finding is that no student from Class D ticked the item "use of space" in the checklist. This answer may indicate that Teacher D had limited movements in the class. The video recording data for Teacher D showed that most of the time she stood at one place while teaching. Thus, this shows that the students of Class D were quite observant regarding their teacher's "use of space". For touch, only one of the students from Class A indicated their teacher did use "touch" while teaching, while students from other classes did not. In other words, the four CSL teachers did not use tactile behaviour to interact with students.

The feedback from students regarding the use of semiotic resources in class showed that the use of images in teaching in each class was different. The feedback from the students in Class A, Class B and Class C confirmed that their teacher used many images in teaching. Those images were either pasted on the whiteboard, or displayed on PPT slides, or printed in the handouts. Feedback from students in Class D indicated that Teacher D did not use images in teaching. All the students from Class D indicated that their teacher used recorded sound in teaching.

5.4   Summary

From the findings shown in the tables (Tables 5.1 to Table 5.8), it can be concluded that the feedback gathered from the researcher, teachers and students in the "Checklist" corresponded with the data obtained from the classroom video recording. To ascertain the reliability of the data in answering Research Question One, Table 5.6, Table 5.7 and Table 5.8 were further restructured into Table 5.9, 5.10, 5.11 and 5.12 (refer Appendix I) to examine the consistency of the three types of feedback in response to every item in the

163

checklist given. The percentages of agreement regarding the semiotic resources used in CSL classrooms in teaching and learning between the teachers and researcher, and between students and the researcher were quite satisfactory. It was found that the results from the researcher and teachers' feedback were very consistent and hence reliable. The percentages of agreement of responses for Classes A, B, C and D were 76.5%, 86.7%, 87.5% and 90.9% respectively, while the percentages of agreement of responses between students and researcher for Classes A, B, C and D were 75.0%, 81.3%, 81.3% and 81.8%. Thus, overall the level of reliability of the data in answering Question One was acceptable as suggested by Rust and Cooil (1994, p. 9), a reliability level of 0.7 is adequate for early or exploratory work in qualitative research. These results also showed that the teachers and students were aware of the use of various semiotic resources in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language.

Based on the data from the classroom video recording and the responses from the "Checklist" by the teachers, students and the researcher, it could be concluded that the multimodal approach were used by the four teachers in introducing the story of "Mulan". Many semiotic resources were deployed or co-deployed simultaneously to make meaning in class. Besides teacher talk, teachers also used their body language and various types of teaching aids to enhance teaching and learning. This finding is consistent with findings of previous research on classroom discourse (Chen et al., 2005; Kress et al., 2001, 2005; Lim, 2011; O'Halloran，2005; Zhang & Wang, 2010). The findings revealed that language was only one of the semiotic modes used in meaning making, as other semiotic modes like visual modes and actional modes also played an important role in constructing meaning in classroom discourse. Data in Table 5.1-5.4 showed that teacher talk and teachers' body

language include teachers' facial expressions, gaze, gestures, and postures were co-deployed to make meaning for most of the time in the four classes. Therefore, it could be concluded that the co-deployment of teacher talk and teachers' body language was the main modalities in CSL classrooms, while "touching" (tactile behaviour) and real object were used the least.

CHAPTER 6

SEMIOTIC RESOURCES USED TO CONSTRUCT INTERPERSONAL MEANING IN CHINESE AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

6.1   Introduction

In the classroom context, interpersonal meaning construction refers to the communication act that the teacher and students use to establish, negotiate, and represent their roles and identities related to the teacher-student relationship. As the present research adopts the multimodal discourse analysis approach, the realisation of interpersonal meaning through various semiotic modes is discussed. It starts with the discussion on teacher talk (linguistic resources), followed by the discussion on the teacher's body language (non-linguistic resources) realised in classroom. Lastly, the construction of interpersonal meaning through the co-deployment of linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources is discussed.

6.2   The Realisation of Interpersonal Meaning in CSL Classrooms through Teacher Talk

This section explores how CSL teachers negotiated power and solidarity relations with the students in classrooms through teacher talk in the classes observed. In classroom discourse study, power is concerned with the equality and inequality of the opportunity to talk, while solidarity is concerned with the intimate relationship realised in talking. Power and solidarity relations between teacher and students were studied in the present research via teacher talk and teacher's nonverbal behaviours.

Teacher talk refers to the utterances made by the teacher in classroom instruction. The power of discourse in teacher talk was studied in terms of turn-taking of participants and

the amount of teacher talk compared to the students. On the other hand, as solidarity may be realised through the choice of codes and verbal attitudinal resources, solidarity was examined by investigating the teacher's attitudes towards students and her teaching. Attitudinal resources include the type and number of personal pronoun, types of mood, the choice of codes, and the choices of lexis and rhetoric being used for appraisal of people and things. Therefore, findings on the distribution of turn-taking, amount of talk between the teacher and students, interpersonal meaning expressed in the personal pronouns of teacher talk, mood choice and attitudinal resources in teacher talk will be discussed in the following sections.

6.2.1 The Distribution of Turn-taking and Amount of Talk between Teachers and Students

Eggin (2004) argues that the analysis of turn-taking can reveal the power and relationship of participants in conversation, particularly through the realisation of the tenor dimensions of classroom register. In a traditional face-to-face classroom, a teacher normally controls the classroom activities using his/her power granted by his or her institutional roles as an adviser, an information giver, a disciplinarian, a counselor, a motivator and the like. This offers many opportunities and topics for a teacher to talk about. However, in modern student-centered teaching approaches inspired by constructivism, teachers are advised to talk less and create more opportunities for students to talk. Therefore, there is a negotiation of power to talk. Power relations in teacher and student talk, thus, can be studied from teacher-student turn-taking and the length of talk, where the ratio of the length of teacher and student talk in their classroom interaction may be used as an indicator. More teacher talk, in comparison to student talk in the classroom shows the more the power the teacher has (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Eggins, 2004). Statistics in Table 6.1 show that the teachers in

the study were slightly dominant in the classroom talk in terms of turn-taking. The ratio of turn-taking between the teacher and students in each class was 201: 179 (53%: 47%) in Class A, 161: 144 (53%: 47%) in Class B, 137: 121 (53%: 47%) in Class C, and 141: 116 (55%: 45%) in Class D.

Table 6.1: Turn-taking and the Amount of Talk between Teacher and Students

Teacher	Number of Turn-taking (%)			Number of Words (%)		
	Teacher	Students	Total	Teacher	Students	Total
A	201 (53%)	179 (47%)	380 (100%)	7060 (90.07%)	778 (9.93%)	7838 (100%)
B	161 (53%)	144 (47%)	305 (100%)	4837 (87.93%)	664 (12.07%)	5501 (100%)
C	137 (53%)	121 (47%)	258 (100%)	1706 (80.21%)	421 (19.79%)	2127 (100%)
D	141 (55%)	116 (45%)	257 (100%)	1444 (83.81%)	279 (16.19%)	1723 (100%)

Although the difference in terms of turn-taking between the teachers and students in the four classroom was small (6% -10%), the fact is that the difference between the amount of teacher talk and students talk was very great. As shown in Table 6.1, the amount of teacher talk in classroom discourse in each class was over 80%. When arranged in descending order, the percentages were 90.07% (Teacher A), 87.3% (Teacher B), 83.81% (Teacher D), and 80.21% (Teacher C). The distribution of turn-taking and teacher-student talk indicated that teachers held absolute discourse power in the class. Teachers generally exercise control over the turn-taking in classroom interactions and also in the discussion of topics, which is expected, as teachers need to present the content, to facilitate student learning, and to manage classroom discipline, whereas students in the CSL classrooms are comparatively passive in classroom interactions while following the instructions and guidance of their teachers. The findings indicated that teacher-student power relationships in the four classes were unequal, where the teachers were more dominant than the students in terms of amount of teacher talk in the classes observed even though enough terms were given to students for

talk. After a lengthy review of second language classroom research, Nunan (2005, p. 228) found that the ratio of teacher talk to student talk in classroom varied from two-thirds (67%) to over 80% of class time (Legarreta, 1977; Tsui, 1985, cited in Nunan, 2005), where teachers persistently dominated classroom discourse despite a growing recognition of the importance of student output for acquisition and learning. The present study obtained similar findings, indicating that the teacher is the most powerful person in class. Nevertheless, there is evidence to show that students in the CSL classroom are given many terms or opportunity to talk in class. This is indeed encouraging.

6.2.2   Interpersonal Meaning Expressed in the Personal Pronouns of Teacher Talk

Person system is about ways of addressing people. Interpersonal meaning can also be realised through the use of personal pronouns in teacher talk in order to establish solidarity between teacher and students. According to Halliday (1978, p.144), person system helps to establish social relations and reference. Table 6.2 shows the distribution of personal pronouns in teacher talk in each class.

Table 6.2: Distribution of Personal Pronouns in Teacher Talk in Each Class

Pronoun	Class	Class A Frequencies (%)	Class B Frequencies (%)	Class C Frequencies (%)	Class D Frequencies (%)
First Person	我们 (We)	9 (13.64%)	10 (14.29%)	12 (30.77%)	2 (18.18%)
	我 (I)	27	27	0	3
	"老师" (Teacher)	0	2	12	0
Second Person	你 (you)	10	11	2	1
	你们 (plural you)	20	20	13	5
Total		66 (100%)	70 (100%)	39 (100%)	11 (100%)

It can be clearly seen that the number and percentage of personal pronouns used in each classroom were different. Teacher B used the personal pronouns most frequently (70

times), followed by Teacher A (66 times) and Teacher C (39 times). Teacher D seldom used personal pronouns in her teaching (11 times). She only used first person pronouns on five occasions: "我们" (we) twice, "I" once, and "me" twice in the entire lesson. Besides, second person pronouns used were "你" (once) and "你们" (plural you), which were used five times. Among the four teachers, only teacher D employed the English personal pronouns in teaching.

In this study, First Person pronouns used included "我，我们和老师" (I, we, teacher). "Teacher" was used in place of "I" in the classrooms. Second Person pronouns used were "你" (singular form of 'you')、"你们" (plural form of 'you'), Third person pronouns are not discussed in this study because third person pronouns found in this corpus which included "她 (she), 他们 (they), 她的 (hers) 爸爸(father)" were used to refer to the characters in the teaching materials. This study focuses on how teachers construct relationship with students via their spoken language and body language; therefore, only the usage of first and second person pronouns in teacher talk is discussed in detail in this chapter.

The first person pronoun "我们" (we) refers to both the teacher and the students in class. All the four teachers used this pronoun in their classroom discourse. Among the four teachers, Teacher C used it the most (12 times), followed by Teacher B (10 times) and Teacher A (9 times). Teacher D used it the least, as she used the pronoun only twice. Statistics in Table 6.2 show that the first person pronoun "我们" (we) as used by Teacher C (30.77%) accounted for the largest percentage among the four teachers. Although Teacher D used the first person pronoun "我们" (we) only twice, it accounted for 18.18% of the

total personal pronouns used by this teacher. The percentage of "我们" (we) as used by

Teacher B was 14.29%, and Teacher A was 13.64%. When the teacher used "我们" (we)

in class, it included students in the discussion. As pointed out by Christie (2002, p. 16),

"teachers classically use the first person plural when building solidarity with their students

in some enterprise to be undertaken". Again, according to the Mehrabian notion of reading

"meaning within language" (1971, pp. 89-110), the demonstrative pronouns reflect

inclusiveness ("we" rather than "you"), distance-near ("these" rather than "those") and verb

tense (present tense rather than past tense) to convey the linguistic message of immediacy.

Thus, using the pronoun "我们" (we) conveys an increased sense of togetherness and

solidarity. The implication is that students would feel they are not loners in learning as their

teachers are with them. The utterances in Table 6.3 show how teachers used "我们" to

establish and maintain solidarity with students.

Table 6.3: Samples of the Use of Personal Pronoun "我们" (We)

Turn/ speaker	Samples of speech
#3A	**我们**学到第几课？ [Which chapter **have we** covered ?]
#357A	…**我们**要造句子。… […**we** wanted to construct sentences.]
#25B	…好，来今天**我们**就来看这一个故事… [Good, come, **we** have a look at this story today…]
#39B	…**我们**有学过… […**we** have learned…]
#199B	…**我们**先选一个字来造句… […**we** begin by choosing a word to form a sentence…]
#22C	…**我们**一起读"孝顺"。 […Let'**s** read the word "孝顺" (filial piety) together.]
#24C	**我们**看回去，花木兰怎样孝顺父母？… [**We** review the story, how did Mulan show filial piety to her parents?]
#178C	**…**等一下我们要有做练习。**…** [**we will do some exercises later …**]
#1D	今天我们要听木兰的故事 **OK？** [**Today, we're going to listen to the story of Mulan, Ok?]**
#237D	木兰有什么值得我们学习的地方？**…** [**What can we learn from Mulan?]**

On the other hand, the first person pronoun "我" (I), and the second person pronoun "你" (you) or "你们" (plural you) have the effect of excluding. When the teacher used "我" or "你" or "你们", it means the topic of discussion is only relevant to the teacher or student/students, and it does not include both parties. Therefore，once teachers use "我" (I) or "你 or 你们" (you) in classroom communication, the sense of solidarity is decreased, and the psychological distance between students and their teacher then increases. According to Christie (2002, p. 16), "teachers use the first person singular as part of indicating their expectations of students, and teachers use the second person when overtly directing students' behavior". Christie's finding (2002, p. 16) on the use of "I" and "you" by teachers as indicating expectations of students and as overtly directing students' behaviour is also applicable to the classes observed, as can be seen in Table 6.4 and Table 6.5.

Table 6.4 shows some examples of the use of "我" (I) in Class A and Class B. Both Teachers A and B used the first person pronoun "我" 27 times respectively; however, Teacher C did not use "我" throughout the lesson. Instead of using "我", Teacher D used the English first person pronouns "I" once and "me" twice to refer to herself (see Table 6.2). The examples showed that teachers used "我" when they wanted to express their feelings (#9A), to convey messages or their view points (#18A, #91A, #250A, #23B, #91B,) or to command, order the students to do something such as answering questions and taking part in classroom activities (#25A, #277A, #159B, #168B, #172B, #177B, #199B). The use of "我" in teaching was usually accompanied by the use of second person pronouns "你" (you) or "你们" (plural you) (see #24A, #277A, #23B, #91B, #159B).

These sentences with only "I" or "you" are considered as less intimate as compared to the use of "我们" (we).

Table 6.4: Samples of the Use of Personal Pronoun "我" (I, me)

#9A	我不要。 [**I** don't want]
#18A	我会问。我知道谁没有专心的。 [**I**'ll ask. **I** know who is not paying attention.]
#24A	我不知道你们有没有看过 há. [**I** don't know if you have seen it before, ha.]
#25A	谁可以告诉我？ [Who can tell **me**?]
#91A	我知道她没有哥哥。我知道她有弟弟。 [I know that she didn't have an elder brother. I know she had a younger brother.]
#250A	这个故事刚才我讲了，还记得我讲什么？ [**I** have just told you the story. Do you remember what **I**'ve said?]
#277A	你不会讲，你做那个动作给我看也可以。 [If you don't know how to express it in words, you can show **me** the action.]
#23B	今天呢我要跟你们讲一个故事。 [Today, **I** want to tell you a story.]
#91B	我刚才告诉你们。 [**I**'ve just told you.]
#159B	等一下我要你们写出这是第一个。 [Later, **I**'d like you to write this as the first.]
#168B	谁可以告诉我这一个故事叫什么题目？ [Who can tell **me** the title of the story?]
#172B	我给你们做一个练习。。。我要你们根据刚才我贴的那些图画。。。 [**I**'m giving you an exercise. **I** want you to do according to the pictures **I've** posted…]
#177B	我要你们把题目写上来。 [**I** want you to write the title.]
#199B	我要呢你们用两个字来造句。 [**I** want you to use two words to construct a sentence.]

The examples in Table 6.5 are examples of the use of personal pronouns "你" (singular form of you) or "你们" (plural form of you). Many of the examples shown are imperative sentences (#33A, #159B, #28C, and #212D). The teachers either ordered the students to answer questions or to carry out instructions. The use of the imperative mood in classroom communication showed that the teacher was more powerful and had higher status in class. Hence, less solidarity is conveyed with the frequent use of "你 or 你们" (you) in classroom communication, when compared to the use of "我们" (we).

Table 6.5: Examples of the Use of Personal Pronouns "你" or "你们" (You, plural you)

#33A	...**你**看她的那个图片啊! **你**看，**你**看她的影片。...
	[...(You) Look at her picture. Look, look at her video...]
#143A	...如果**你**是女生，**你**要让人家不知道你是女生，**你**要怎样装扮才行？
	[...If <u>you</u> were a girl and <u>you</u> did not wish others to know your identity, how would <u>you</u> disguise yourself?]
#83B	**你**知道她是女孩子, **你**会尊敬她吗？...
	[If <u>you</u> knew that she was a girl, would <u>you</u> respect her?...]
#159B	等一下我要**你们**写出这是第一个。
	[Later, I would like <u>you</u> to write this as the first one...]
#20C	...**你们**听的那个故事有什么**你**可以学习的？来，谁会答？
	[Are there any moral values which <u>you</u> have learnt from the story? Who can answer my question?]
#28C	...接下来，是要**你们**读一读。...
	[Next, I would like <u>you</u> to read...]
#212D	...欣茹 (学生名字)，**你**可以坐下。
	[Hsin Ru, <u>you</u> may sit]

In the classroom context, the vocative "老师" (teacher) was used by the teacher to refer to herself in place of "I", and replaced the teacher's first person pronoun. In Malaysian culture, the status of a teacher is higher than that of the students. Teacher is highly respected and power is given to the teacher due to the respect given by the society (Tengku Kassim, 2012, pp. 22-23). Such respectful of teachers is also found in the present research.

A teacher who refers to herself as "老师" implies that the relationship between her and the students is unequal. It indirectly informs the students that the status of a teacher is higher than that of the students. The students therefore must respect their teacher. The difference in status also indicates that there is some social distance between the teacher and students. Regarding the use of "老师" in place of "I" in the classrooms, Table 6.2 shows that Teacher C used "老师" (teacher) ten times. Besides Teacher C, Teacher B also used "老师" (teacher) twice. Table 6.6 shows the pattern of the use of the word "老师" (teacher) in the utterances of Teacher B and Teacher C.

Table 6.6: Examples of the Use of Personal Pronoun "老师" (Teacher)

Turn/ speaker	Samples of speech
#19B	OK 来，今天呢**老师**要跟你们讲的这个故事叫做木兰，Mulan. Mulan 华语叫做木兰。 [OK, come, <u>Teacher</u> is going to tell you a story called 木兰, Mulan. Mulan in Chinese it is read as 木兰.]
#87B	看这里，**老师**站在这里。这个故事的名字叫做木兰_"木兰从军"。 [Look here, <u>Teacher</u> is standing here. The title of this story is "Mulan joins the army."]
#1 C	同学们，今天**老师**跟你们讲一个故事，好不好？好就大家鼓掌。 [Class, let <u>Teacher</u> tell you a story today. Would you like that? If you do, then let's give a big hand.],
#19C	。。。**老师**的故事讲完了。 [<u>Teacher</u> has finished telling the story.]
#20C	。。。好，拍拍掌。**老师**要问一个问题。。。 [Well, let's applaud. <u>Teacher</u> wants to ask a question…]
#178C	来，现在**老师**要你们练习读。**老师**派这个纸给你们。你们记那个字怎样读，还有它的意思要熟记。OK。 哦，等一下我们要有做练习。会写就直接写。来,**老师**给你们两分钟。记啊，两分钟。 [Come on. Now <u>Teacher</u> wants you to practise reading. <u>Teacher</u> is distributing this paper to you. You need to remember how to read the word and what it means, OK. Oh, later, we'll do the exercises. Write the word if you know how to write it. Come, <u>Teacher</u> is giving you two minutes. Remember, two minutes.]
#210C	豪杰。现在**老师**要你们选，选它的意思放进去 ha. 。。。 [Haojie. Now <u>Teacher</u> wants you to select, choose its meaning and put it in, ha]
#246C	好，现在最后一个，**老师**做哦。 [Well, now the last one, let <u>Teacher</u> do it, oh.]
#256C	好，现在**老师**要你们分组活动。你们排出来。 [Well, now <u>Teacher</u> wants you to do a group activity. You need to arrange it.]
#257C	现在**老师**给你们这个纸，这边是词，这边是图，这边是汉语拼音。你们将它连起来，好不好？ [Now <u>Teacher</u> is giving you this paper. The words are on this side. The hanyu pinyin is there. You'll link them up, won't you?]

According to Halliday (1978, p. 64), the patterns of mood, modality, person and key (represented by the system of intonation) are all part of the interpersonal component. He also argues that "interpersonal meanings cannot easily be expressed as configurations of discrete elements... the essence of the meaning potential of this part of the semantic system is that most of the options are associated with the act of meaning as a whole" (Halliday, 1979, p. 67). Therefore, to analyze interpersonal meaning embedded in teacher talk, the researcher needed to identify the teacher's "act of meaning as a whole". As revealed in the usage of "老师" shown in Table 6.6, the use of persuasion (Come, come on, Look here, Let's give a big hand) and stylistic choices such as discourse markers (ah, ha, oh, OK, well)

helped to decrease the level of formality of the lesson and to reduce the distance between interlocutors; and hence, students might feel the interaction as more casual and intimate (cf., according to Joos, 1967, p. 11, there are 5 levels of formality in language stylistic usage: Frozen, Formal, Consultative, Casual, and Intimate; see also Halliday et al., 1964, pp. 92-93, 'style of discourse'). Furthermore, when the choice of consultative mood was taken into account (Let Teacher do it, would you like that? Won't you?). The way Teacher C interacted with her students could create a sense of closeness between her and the students despite her calling herself "老师". Teacher C confirmed this in the interview. She revealed that she liked to use "老师" in place of "I" in the classroom. In the interview, she said that she felt closer to students when she used "老师" as compared to "I". Thus, the use of "老师" in place of "I" by Teacher C when communicating with students did not imply that she wanted to maintain an interpersonal distance from the students. In fact, her use of "老师" was embedded in a friendly tone, and helped to create a sense of intimacy between the teacher and her students. The teacher-student relationship was seen to be very close but respectful, as illustrated by a Chinese proverb, "一日为师，终身为父"，which means 'Even if someone is your teacher for only a day, you should regard him as your father for the rest of your life'. This cultural feature makes the Chinese language class different from other language classes. The status of a teacher is higher than a student's. Students are not allowed to call their teachers by their first names. Unlike in western cultures, calling a teacher by his/her first name is acceptable and considered as an immediate behaviour (Gorham, 1988) which would establish solidarity between teacher and students.

This finding suggests that though the level of power and solidarity between teacher and students may be indirectly reflected via the use of pronoun, use of other meaning making

resources such as the intonation of the utterances, loose sentence structure (discourse markers or modal particles: OK, oh, ha), consultative mood, vernacular speech (code-switching) and even the speaker's body language, should also be taken into account to gain a better insight into the real situation, to understand how interpersonal meaning is established.

6.2.3 Mood Choice in Teacher talk

Halliday (1973, 1985, 1994) notes the choice of mood tells people how the speaker intrudes into speech. Mood choices analysis in this study focused on teachers' speech roles (giving or demanding) and speech functions (statement, questions, command, and offer). Table 6.7 shows some samples of Declaratives, Interrogatives and Imperatives yielded from the present research data.

Table 6.7: Samples of Declaratives, Imperatives and Interrogatives

Mood type	Turn/Speaker	Samples of speech
Declaratives	#33 A	她叫 Mulan。(She's known as Mulan.)
	#19 B	Mulan 华语叫做木兰。(Mulan, in Mandarin is 木兰.)
	#5 C	战争就是这个国家跟这个国家打仗. (War is a situation when a country is fighting with this country (sic.).)
	#3 D	她是一个女孩。(She's a girl.)
Interrogatives	#62 A	谁有看过？(Who has seen it?)
	#23 B	什么是打战？(What is a war?)
	#7 C	国家是什么？(What is a country?)
	#3 D	OK 谁是木兰？(OK, Who is Mulan?)
Imperatives	#18 A	课本关起来。(Close the text book.)
	#4 B	你告诉我那是什么图画.(Tell me what the picture is.)
	#20 C	好，拍拍掌。(Good, clap)
	#1D	Listen properly.

According to Thompson (1996, p. 40), "Declarative clauses, Interrogative clauses and Imperative clauses are the three main choices in the mood system of the clause". In the classroom context, a declarative statement provides information, and it is often used for

imparting knowledge and values, while the Interrogative mood is used for asking questions and negotiation. The act of asking questions is for finding out whether the students have understood what has been taught or whether they have mastered the skills taught. Another purpose of asking questions is to engage students in classroom teaching activities. By answering questions, students have the chance to express their views or to share their experiences. Questioning is a good teaching approach for students' cognitive and affective development. The imperative mood is used for classroom management, giving instructions and giving orders. Imperative statements are generally used to command the students to do or not to do something.

Table 6.8 shows the use of mood in teacher talk in the four classrooms. From the table, it can be seen that Teacher A used many declaratives and interrogatives. Both clauses accounted for nearly half of the statements made. Interrogatives made up 47.42% of the Teacher A's talk and 46.37%, declaratives. Only 6.21% of the teacher talk could be categorized as imperatives. The pattern of distribution of mood types in teacher talk for Class B and Class D was similar to that observed in Class A. The percentages for interrogatives, declaratives and imperatives were 49.75%, 44.11% and 6.14% respectively for Class B, and 43.26%, 49.64% and 7.1% for Class D. The types of mood used by the Teacher C was different. Teacher C's talk was divided into interrogatives (29.9%), declaratives (34.31%) and imperatives (35.79%). Compared to teachers A, B, D, Teacher C used the three types of mood types quite evenly. The data showed that besides giving information to the students, the teachers also engaged students in discussions to elicit their ideas.

Table 6.8: Distribution of Mood Types in Teacher Talk

Mood type	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Declaratives	396 (46.37%)	266 (44.11%)	70 (34.31%)	70 (49.64%)
Imperatives	53 (6.21%)	37 (6.14%)	73 (35.79%)	10 (7.1%)
Interrogatives	405 (47.42%)	300 (49.75%)	61 (29.9%)	61 (43.26%)
Total	854 (100%)	603 (100%)	204 (100%)	141 (100%)

The data in Table 6.8 shows that the percentage of imperatives used by Teacher C was the highest among the four teachers. Generally, use of more imperatives by a teacher suggests that the teacher is more dominant and more autocratic than others. However, the student interview data revealed that this teacher was very friendly and likeable. Some examples of the imperatives used by Teacher C are shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Samples of Imperative Mood Used by Teacher C

Clause	Teacher talk
CC2	好就大家鼓掌。（Good，let's applaud）
CC73	我们一起读"孝顺"。(We read "孝顺" (filial piety) together)
CC74	我们看回去。(Let's review)
CC85	你看。(You see)
CC89	要爱国家 ho。([we] must love the country)
CC90	接下来，是要你们读一读。(next, [I] want you to read)
CC95	再来一次。(once more)
CC98	Meminta askar, 记得 ha. (*Meminta askar* [recruit soldier], remember, ha)
CC105	好，给 他一个掌声。(well, give him a round of applause)
CC120	大声一点。(louder)
CC125	OK 看这个。(OK, look at this)
CC133	要记得啊。(must remember)
CC134	一面读一面记啊。(Read and Remember)
CC145	来，现在老师要你们练习读。(Come, now Teacher wants you to practice reading)
CC155	快点。(Hurry)
CC157	现在你们看这边，看前面。(now look here, look at the front)
CC169	接下来，我们看牺牲。(Next, let's look at the word 牺牲[sacrifice])
CC174	给明慧一个掌声(give 明慧 a round of applause)
CC190	错。哦，不用紧，我们来试。(Wrong. Oh, it doesn't matter. Let's try)

The imperative clauses of Teacher C shown in Table 6.9 also indicated that although Teacher C used many imperatives, she sounded friendly. Most of the imperative clauses were used to invite students to participate in classroom activities. Teacher C also invited students to give a round of applause to their friends who had performed well in class. The intonation of her speech was gentle, sometimes accompanied by the use of the inclusive personal pronoun "我们" (we) and the use of discourse markers like "ho", "ha", "OK", "啊" also reduced the social distance between Teacher C and her students. She also did not reprimand the students during the entire lesson.

Table 6.10 provides data that show the roles of the teacher as an information provider and as an information seeker. The ratio of giving information and demanding information for Class A was 46.49%: 53.51%; Class B, 44.78%: 55.22%; Class C, 34.8%: 65.2%; and Class D, 51.77%: 48.23% respectively. This showed that the exchange of information in all the classrooms was bidirectional and not strongly skewed to one side. Besides imparting knowledge by making statements (Declaratives mood), the teachers also sought information from the students by asking questions (Interrogatives) or to command them to take part in classroom activities by ordering or requesting (Imperatives).

Table 6.10: Distribution of Language Functions in Teacher Talk

Speech Function / Teacher	Giving		Demanding		Total Clause
	Statement	Offer	Question	Command	
	No. of clause (%)	No. of clause (%)	No. of clause (%)	No. of clause (%)	No. of clause (%)
Teacher A	365 (42.74)	32 (3.75)	404 (47.31)	53 (6.28)	854 (100%)
	397 (**46.49**)		457 (**53.51**)		
Teacher B	223 (36.98)	47 (7.80)	296 (49.09)	37 (6.13)	603 (100%)
	270 (**44.78**)		333 (**55.22**)		
Teacher C	45 (22.06)	26 (12.74)	60 (29.41)	73 (35.79)	204 (100%)
	71 (**34.80**)		**133 (65.20)**		
Teacher D	43 (30.50)	30 (21.27)	58 (41.13)	10 (7.10)	141 (100%)
	73 (**51.77**)		68 (**48.23**)		

Generally speaking, the communication in the four classes comprised two-way interactions. In all four classrooms, the students were also involved actively in the process of power and solidarity negotiation in class. The distribution of mood types in teacher talk showed that the teaching and learning process was interactive. Besides delivering the content, the teachers also involved students in discussions and learning activities. Inviting students to give their opinions and share their experiences helped to create a more democratic and more conducive learning atmosphere.

6.2.4   Appraisal in Teacher Talk

This study explored how the interpersonal meaning was realised through the choices of attitudinal resources in teacher talk. The appraisal of attitude in a classroom basically involves two targets, a) the interactants and b) the people, things and events narrated in the teaching materials.   This section examines how the teachers in the study used attitudinal resources to express their feelings, criticize people and assess events and things. It discusses the ways teacher instilled moral, aesthetic and affective values in students.

There are three kinds of attitude subsystems, namely affect (people's feelings), judgement (people's character) and appreciation (the value of things) (Martin & White, 2005, p. 42). The subsystem of affect is taken as the core of the whole system of attitude. This system is used to explain the emotional reactions of language users in response to behaviour, text/process, and phenomena (Martin & White, 2005, p. 43). Judging character (Judgement) entails explaining the moral judgement made by the language users against certain behaviours, for instance, whether they are ethical, reliable, obeying the law, breaking the code of conduct or otherwise, whereas appreciating things is the speaker's feeling institutionalized as propositions along the value axis of criteria and assessment. The appreciation system is used mainly for the aesthetic aspect of things such as the product, existing being, and abstract sort of things, and for assessing about the composition, reaction and valuation (Martin and White, 2005, p. 45).

As agreed by the teachers during the pre-observation meeting, the lesson taught by the four CSL teachers during the observation would be 《木兰从军》 (Mulan joins the army). The attitudinal appraisal for people along the system of affect (feeling) and judgement (characters) therefore was targeted at a) interactants: the teacher herself, and the students; and b) the main actors that appeared in the text: Mulan, Mulan's father, Mulan's brother, Mulan's friends and the king. Since the system of appreciation appraised things and events, the analysis would include the reaction of students to exercises to be completed, questions to be answered, and their opinions about the battlefield.

The affect system has four typologies: un/happiness, in/security, dis/satisfaction, dis/inclination. The judgement system is subdivided into social esteem and social sanction.

Social esteem includes normality, capacity and tenacity while social sanction includes veracity and propriety. The appreciation system has three sets of variables: reaction, composition and valuation. The appraisal resources of these three systems (affect, judgement, and appreciation) can be realised by various lexical parts of speech, such as verbs of emotions, adjectives, adverbs, lexical metaphor, and rhetoric. Table 6.11 shows some samples of lexis or rhetoric that indicate Happiness (+HAP & -HAP) Security (+SEC & -SEC), Satisfaction (+SAT & -SAT), Dis/inclination (+DES & -DES); quality of Normality (+NOR & -NOR), Tenacity (+TEN & -TEN), Capacity (+CAP & -CAP); Propriety (+PROP & -PROP); Veracity (+VER & -VER); impact of Reaction (+REC & -REC) and Valuation (+VAL & -VAL).

Table 6.11: Coding Samples of Attitudinal Resources in Teacher Talk

Values		Turn/ Speaker	Sample of speech
A F F E C T	+/- HAP	#196A	…她这么**爱(+HAP)**她的爸爸，她想要什么？她想要什么？[... She **loves (+ HAP**) her father so much. What does she want? What does she want?
		#172B	她**喜欢(+HAP)**骑马，有没有？接下来，有人来叫她爸爸去打仗，有没有？然后花木兰很**伤心**(-HAP) [She **enjoys (+ HAP**) riding, doesn't she? Next, someone orders her father to go to war, Then Mulan feels very **sad (-HAP**)]
	+/- SEC	#281A	…她因为**有信心 (+SEC)**，她觉得我**应该可以 (+SEC)**，因为我**会射箭**。我**会骑马**，所以我**可以**(+SEC)代替我爸爸去。… [Because she is **confident (+ SEC**), she feels that I **should be able** to do it (+ **SEC**), because I am **skillful** at archery. I can ride a horse, so I **can (+SEC**) replace my dad.]
		#121B	木兰的爸爸这么老了. 又生病，去打战，怎么样？可能**随时会死掉**(-SEC), 有没有？ [Mulan's father is so old, and sick, if he goes to battle, what do you think? He will **die in no time (-SEC**), won't he?]
	+/- SAT	#180B	全部都**对,** 啊。很**好啊**(+SAT) 。 All **correct**, ah . Ah, very **good (+SAT**)
		#196A	举手，站起来大大声讲。**谁讲的刚才？举手先。站起来讲**。**(-SAT)** Put your hand up [ellipsis: before you are allowed to talk], and stand up and speak up. **Who was talking just now? Put the hand up first, then stand up and speak**. **(-SAT**)
	+/- DES	#23B	今天呢我**要(+DES)**跟你们讲一个故事。 [Today what I **want (+ DES**) to tell you a story]
		#58B	爸爸**不肯(-DES)，不要(-DES)**。爸爸讲你是女孩子，不可以去打战。 [Dad **refuses (-DES**), **and says no (-DES**). Dad says, "You are a girl, you can't go to war"]

J U D G E M E N T	+/- NOR	#24A	我不知道你们有没有看过 há 可能你**有看过(+NOR)**，可能你**没有看过(-NOR)**。可能你看过的你不知道 那个是什么。 [I do not know if you have not seen it, Oh, you **may have seen** it (**+NOR**), you **may not have seen** it (**-NOR**). Maybe you've seen it but you do not know what it is.]
		#374A	像有些关键词，我们刚才有学的，对吗？啊，你知道的(+CAP)。刚才我们**有看的(+NOR)**。 [Like some keywords, we have just learned, right? Ah, you know (+CAP). Just now we **saw** them (**+NOR**) …]
	+/- TEN	#241D	哈，她很**勇敢(+TEN)**，木兰很**勇敢(+TEN)**。 [Ha, she is very **brave** (**+ TEN**), Mulan is very **brave** (**+ TEN**).]
		#194A	…她又**不敢 (-TEN)** 跟人家一起洗澡。她又**不敢(-TEN)** 跟人家一起睡。… [... She does **not dare** (**-TEN**) to bathe with others. She does **not dare** (**-TEN**) she does not sleep together with others. ...]
	+/- CAP	#25 B	Há? 女孩子. **对(+CAP)**，女孩子。 [Há? Girl. **Right (+CAP)**, is a girl.]
		#102 A	因为你**还小(-CAP)**。 [because you are **still young (-CAP)**.]
A P P R E C I A T I O N	+/- PROP	#27B	…木兰呢是一个很**孝顺 (+PROP)** 的女孩子。… [Mulan is a very **filial** (**+ PROP**) girl.]
		#28C	…所以我们也要像花木兰一样**孝顺**爸爸妈妈 **(+PROP)** ，要**爱国家** ho **(+PROP)** 。 [... So we must be like Mulan, be filial to her parents (+ PROP), to **love** our country ho (+ PROP).]
	+/- VER	#192A	因为她骗，**欺骗(-VER)**对吗？但是她这个欺骗是因为了帮 _ ？ [Because she has lied, **deceived (-VER)** right? But the deception is for _ ?]
		#289A	…其实里面写的是爸爸的名字。是她**冒充**爸爸**(-VER)**，代替爸爸去打战。… [... In fact, what is written inside is her father's name. It is she who **poses** as her father (**-VER**), replaces her father and go to war. ...]
	+/- REAC	#212A	…然后她换上女孩子的衣服。她出来过后，很**漂亮(+REAC)**。漂亮吗？… [... And then she changes into clothes a girl wears. After that, she comes out, looks very **pretty** (+ **REAC**). Doesn't she look beautiful? ...]
		#60B - #66B	#60B: 跟其他的人一起去打战。OK 辛苦吗？ [Go to war with other people. Ok, is it hard?] #61S: 辛苦 (+CAP). [It is hard (+CAP)]（Students agree that Mulan is **able to withstand** the hard life of war） #62B: 好玩吗？ [is it fun?] #63S：不好玩。 [No] #65 & #66 Omitted #66B: **不好玩。一点都不好玩 (-REAC)** 。 [**Not fun. Not at all (-REAC)**]
	+/- VAL	#313A	这个生字你要看一下，因为等一下我们有一个活动卷，你要句子重组。没有很难，你都可以做的。OK **你都可以做的**。**(+VAL)** [Look at this vocabulary. Later, we will have a learning activity. You must do it. You have to restructure the sentences. It is not difficult. You can do the entire task. Ok. **You can do the entire task (+VAL)**]

The following discussion focuses on the distribution of attitudinal resources in teacher talk in the data and the way the attitudinal resources were used by the teachers to appraise students.

6.2.4.1 The Distribution of Attitudinal Resources in Teacher Talk

Table 6.12 to Table 6.15 show the attitudinal resources used by the four teachers in appraising people and things in their respective classes.

Table 6.12: Attitude Resources in Class A's Teacher Talk

Attitude resources	Appraised	Characters in the Teaching Materials					Interactants in Classroom			Things/ Event/ Phenomena	Total Instances
		M	MF	MB	MFR	K	S	T	T&S		
Affect	+HAP	1			1						2
	-HAP				2						2
	+SAT						5				5
	-SAT						4				4
	+SEC	2									2
	-SEC	3			1						3
	+DES	10						1			11
	-DES	1					5		1		7
	TOTAL	**17**	**0**	**0**	**4**	**0**	**14**	**1**	**1**		**37(35.6%)**
Judgement	+NOR						1	1	1		3
	-NOR						1	1			2
	+CAP	8					6				14
	-CAP		8			2	16				26
	+TEN	10					2				12
	-TEN	2	1				2				5
	+VER										0
	-VER	2									2
	+PROP	1									1
	-PROP										0
	TOTAL	**23**	**9**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**28**	**2**	**1**		**65(62.5%)**
Appreciation	+REAC	1									1
	-REAC										0
	+COM										0
	-COM										0
	+VAL									1	1
	-VAL										1
	TOTAL	**1**								**1**	**2(1.9%)**
TOTAL		**41**	**9**	**1**	**3**	**2**	**42**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**104**
		56(53.8%)					47(45.2%)			1(1%)	104(100%)

Notes: M= Mulan; MF= Mulan's father; MFR= Mulan's friends; MB= Mulan's brother; K= the king;
S= student; T= teacher; HAP= happiness; SAT= satisfaction; SEC= security; DES= desire; NOR= normality;
CAP= capacity; TEN= tenacity; PROP= propriety; REAC= reaction; COM= composition; VAL= valuation.

Table 6.12 shows Teacher A used a total of 104 attitude resources. Among them, 56 instances (53.8%) consisted of the evaluation of characters in the teaching materials, the remaining 47 instances (45.2%) centred on the evaluation of interactants in the classroom, and 1 instance (1%) on an exercise given by the teacher. Among the three subsystems of appraisal, the judgement resource accounted for 65 instances (62.5%). Affect resources accounted for 37 instances (35.6%), while the appreciation resources accounted for the least, only two instances (1.9%).

Table 6.13: Attitude Resources in Class B's Teacher Talk

Attitude resources	Appraised	Teaching Materials			Interactants in Class		Things/ Event/ Phenomena	Total Instances
		Mulan	MF	MB	Students	Teacher		
Affect	+HAP	2						2
	-HAP	4						4
	+SAT	4			3			7
	-SAT				1			1
	+SEC							0
	-SEC	1	2					3
	+DES		2			4		6
	-DES		3					3
	TOTAL	**11**	**7**	**0**	**4**	**4**		**26(28%)**
Judgement	+NOR				1			1
	-NOR							0
	+CAP	19			6			25
	-CAP	1	13	2	3			19
	+TEN	9			1			10
	-TEN				1			1
	+VER							0
	-VER							0
	+PROP	10						10
	-PROP							0
	TOTAL	**39**	**13**	**2**	**12**	**0**		**66(71%)**
Appreciation	+REAC							0
	-REAC						1	1
	+COM							0
	-COM							0
	+VAL							0
	-VAL							0
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**		**0**	**1**	**1(1%)**
Total		50	20	2	16	4	1	93
		72(77.4%)			20(21.5%)		1(1.1%)	93(100%)

Table 6.13 shows that teacher B employed 93 attitudinal instances. Among them, 72 instances (77.4%) represented the appraisal for the figures in the teaching materials, and the remaining 20 instances (21.5%) had to do with the appraisal of the students and the teacher herself. On the type of attitudinal resources employed, 26 instances (28%) comprised evaluation on affect, and 66 instances (71%) represented evaluation on judgement. There was only one instance of the use of appreciation resource.

Table 6.14: Attitude Resources in Class C's Teacher Talk

Attitude resources	Appraised	Teaching Materials			Interactants in class		Things/ Event/ Phenomena	Total Instances
		MULAN	MF	MB	Students	Teacher		
Affect	+HAP							0
	-HAP							0
	+SAT				9			9
	-SAT							0
	+SEC							0
	-SEC							0
	+DES							0
	-DES							0
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	9	**0**		**9 (32.1%)**
Judgement	+NOR							0
	-NOR							0
	+CAP	2			5			7
	-CAP		2		1			3
	+TEN	3						3
	-TEN							0
	+VER							0
	-VER							0
	+PROP	6						6
	-PROP							**0**
	TOTAL	**11**	**2**	**0**	6	**0**		**19 (67.9%)**
Appreciation	+REAC							0
	-REAC							0
	+COM							0
	-COM							0
	+VAL							0
	-VAL							0
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**		**0**
Total		11	2	0	15	0		28
		13(46.4%)			15(53.6%)		0	28 (100%)

Table 6.15: Attitude Resources in Class D's Teacher Talk

Attitude resources	Appraised	Teaching Materials				Interactants in class		Things/ Event/ Phenomena	Total Instances
		MULAN	MF	MFR	MB	Students	Teacher		
Affect	+HAP	2							2
	-HAP								0
	+SAT					11			11
	-SAT								0
	+SEC								0
	-SEC			1					1
	+DES								0
	-DES								0
	TOTAL	**2**	**0**	**1**		**11**	**0**		**14(37.8%)**
Judgement	+NOR								0
	-NOR								0
	+CAP					1			1
	-CAP		7		5				12
	+TEN	5							5
	-TEN								0
	+VER								0
	-VER								0
	+PROP	5							5
	-PROP								
	TOTAL	**10**	**7**		**5**	**1**	**0**		**23(62.2%)**
Appreciation	+REAC								0
	-REAC								0
	+COM								0
	-COM								0
	+VAL								0
	-VAL								0
	TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Total		12	7	1	5	12	0	0	37
		25 (67.6%)				12(32.4%)		0	37(100%)

Table 6.14 and Table 6.15 show the use of attitudinal resources of Teacher C (28 instances) and Teacher D (37 instances). Not many cases of the use of attitudinal resources by Teacher C and D were found. These two teachers only utilised the resources of affect and judgement, and none of them belonged to the appreciation resource. The judgement resources used by Teacher C and D totaled 19 instances (67.9%) and 23 instances (62.2%) respectively, whereas the affect resources accounted for the rest of 9 instances (32.1%) and 14 instances (37.8%) respectively. The distribution of attitudinal resources in Class C was quite similar

to that observed in Class A, where the percentage of resources used to appraise people and things in the teaching material and the interactants in class was also about half (50%) of the total attitudinal resources used. However, the ratio of attitudinal resources for appraising the characters in the teaching material and the interactants for Class D was about 68%: 32%. This distribution was similar to the distribution of Class B (77%: 23%). Teachers of these two classes used more attitudinal resources to appraise the characters in the teaching material as compared to the interactants in class.

Table 6.16: Distribution of Positive and Negative Attitudinal Resources in Each Class						
Attitude Resources	**Features**	**Teacher A**	**Teacher B**	**Teacher C**	**Teacher D**	**Total Instances**
Affect	Positive	20	15	9	13	57
	Negative	17	11	0	1	29
Total		37	26	9	14	86/262 (**32.8%**)
Judgement	Positive	30	46	16	11	103
	Negative	35	20	3	12	70
Total		65	66	19	23	173/262 (**66.0%**)
Appreciation	Positive	2	0	0	0	2
	Negative	0	1	0	0	1
Total		2	1	0	0	3/262 (**1.2%**)
Positive attitude resources		52 (50%)	61 (65.6%)	25 (89.3%)	24 (64.9%)	162/262
Negative attitude resources		52 (50%)	32 (34.4%)	3 (10.7%)	13 (35.1%)	100/262
Total		104(100%)	93(100%)	28(100%)	37(100%)	262/262 (100%)

Table 6.16 summarizes two dimensions of attitudinal resources used in the classroom discourse. The first dimension was the distribution of affect, judgement and appreciation resources utilized by the four teachers; and the second dimension was the distribution of positive and negative values assigned by the four teachers in the appraisal activity. The first dimension revealed that the ratio of the use of three attitudinal resources of affect: judgement: appreciation by the four teachers was 32.8%: 66.0%: 1.2%. For the second dimension of value designation, the positive appraisals assigned by all the four teachers, generally exceeded the negative appraisals. Overall, the ratio of positive to negative values

being assigned was 1.62: 1. That is, the positive values being assigned were 1.62 times of the negative values.

For the first dimension of utilizing the affect, judgement and appreciation resources in classroom appraisal activity by the four teachers, the judgement resources (66.0%) outnumbered the other two resources, where the appreciation resources (1.2%) were the least. As can be seen from Table 6.12 to Table 6.15, the designation of appraisal resources are analysed and put into three categories of 'Characters in the Teaching Materials', 'Interactants in Classroom', and 'Things/ Event/ Phenomena'. It can be seen that for all the four tables, the four teachers utilised more judgement resources than affect and appreciation resources, where the utilisation of appreciation resources were found to be the least. This was due to the content of teaching material for the day which was a lesson on the legendary Chinese heroine Mulan. As the content of the lesson focused more about people than things, the teachers' discourse therefore mainly foregrounded judgement, specifically; as many cases centred on judging the characters of the main figures in the teaching material - Mulan, Mulan's father, Mulan's brother, Mulan's friends and the king.

This finding indicates that the use of appraisal resources when an evaluation activity takes place is influenced by what target is being appraised. As all the four teachers taught the same topic of Mulan, the distribution of the use of affect, judgement, and appreciation among the four teachers was quite similar. Studies of other classroom discourse also revealed the fact that appraisal values being designated were influenced by the target of evaluation, for example, in the studies done by Wang (2011) (Chapter Two, Section 2.4.3.3) and Hommerberg (2011). In her doctoral study on "Persuasiveness of discourse of Wine: The rhetoric of Robert Parker", Hommerberg (2011, p. 62) said that the appreciation

resources in her analysis of appraisals in wine discourse outnumbered the affect resource (showed very low number of occurrence) was influenced by the fact that her target of appraisal was a thing (wine) rather than people (human behaviour).

For the second dimension of values designation, an example of a positive appraisal of "A great heroine" is as follows. "A great heroine", or better known in Chinese as "女中豪杰" (Super heroine among women), was the key concept elaborated by all teachers. Teachers spent much of their teaching time and used many semiotic resources to convey this image. It is the integration of many good humanistic qualities that include bravery, filial piety, willingness to sacrifice herself for her sick elderly father, by joining the army, and giving her all to defend the country she loved. All four teachers used a passionate tone of voice in praising the great qualities of Mulan, to instill good values (bravery, filial piety, love for family and country) in students. All the teachers made use of this opportunity to enact their role as value-bearers.

Some samples of positive judgement resources used to appraise Mulan are shown in Table 6.17. In these samples, the teachers used many positive judgement resources namely Tenacity (#125A, #79B, #10C, #257D) and Propriety (#214A, #27B, #10C, #254D, #257D) to appraise Mulan. The positive capacity resources were also used to affirm that Mulan had the ability to join the army. The choice of lexis (shown in bold in Table 6.17) shows that the teachers tried to instill positive values in students and advised their students to acquire positive values from Mulan as she is a role model for bravery, filial piety and patriotism.

Table 6.17: Samples of Positive Judgement Resources Used to Appraise Mulan

Turn/ Speaker	Sample of speech
#125A	…OK 所以她就**牺牲**自己(**+TEN**)。… [OK. So, she **sacrificed** herself (**+TEN**)]
#214A	所以他们很**佩服**她(**+PROP**)。 [So, they **admired** her (+PROP)]
#27B	木兰呢是一个很**孝顺** (**+PROP**) 的女孩子。 [Mulan was a very **filial** (**+PROP**) girl.]
#79B	很**本领** (**+CAP**). 她的武功，她的功夫很**好** (**+CAP**)，对不对？可是他们全部人都称赞她很**勇敢**(**+TEN**)，很本领(**+CAP**)，很厉害(**+CAP**)。只是他们知道木兰其实是什么啊？木兰其实是什么啊？ [**Very capable** (+ CAP). Her martial arts skills, kung fu were excellent (**+ CAP**), right? But (sic.) all of them praised her for her bravery (**+ TEN**) her capabilities (**+ CAP**), very **good** (**+ CAP**). But did they know what Mulan was? Ah. What was she? Ah.]
#10C	木兰是个**孝顺**的孩子(**+PROP**),所以她**牺牲**自己(**+TEN**)。牺牲就是她付出代价。… [Mulan was a **filial** child (**+PROP**), so she **sacrificed** herself (**+TEN**). Sacrifice, that's the price she paid. ...]
17C	…将士们才发现花木兰是一个 _ 女子。大家都称赞她是**女中豪杰**(**+TEN**)。豪杰就是很有才能超强的人。… [... The soldiers then only found out Mulan was a __ woman. Everyone praised her as the **great heroine** (**+ TEN**). 豪杰 (outstanding heroine) is a person who is very talented and extraordinary.]
#254D	Ya, (**+SAT**) she was **a very caring person** (**+PROP**), 她**爱** she **loved** her father (**+HAP**) 她的父亲。
#257D	木兰很**勇敢** brave (**+TEN**). 木兰**爱国**(**+PROP**)。还有一个，木兰**爱护** (**+PROP**) 她的家人。 [Mulan was extremely **brave** (**+TEN**). Mulan was **patriotic** (**+ PROP**). Besides, Mulan **cared** about (**+ PROP**) her family.]

6.2.4.2 Attitudinal Resources Used by the Teachers to Appraise Students

Data in Table 6.18 represent a subset from the data of Table 6.16, which only examines attitudinal resources used by the teacher to appraise students. They are based on the evaluation of all teachers on their respective students' behaviour and performance in class. The evaluation of students' performance and behaviour is related to the establishment of classroom solidarity relationship. The data in Table 6.18 show that Teacher A's appraisal of the students' abilities and learning behaviour was quite negative. She used a total of 28 (67%) negative attitudinal resources to evaluate her students' behaviour and performance in class. There were 9 negative affect and 19 negative judgement resources used by Teacher A.

The negative resources were double those of the positives. Teacher B's appraisal of the students was just the opposite. 69% of her attitudinal resources were positive. The ratio of positive and negative affect resources was (3: 1) and judgement (8: 4) resources leaned towards the positive pole. Teacher C (93%) and Teacher D (100%) mainly assigned positive assessment values to their students' performance.

Table 6.18: Distribution of Attitudinal Resources Used to Appraise Students

Attitude Resources	Features	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Affect Resources	Positive	5	3	9	11
	Negative	9	1	0	0
	Total	14	4	9	11
Judgement Resources	Positive	9	8	5	1
	Negative	19	4	1	0
	Total	28	12	6	1
Appreciation Resources	Positive	0	0	0	0
	Negative	0	0	0	0
	Total	0	0	0	0
Positive attitude resources		14 (**33.33%**)	11 (**68.75%**)	14 (**93.33%**)	12 (**100%**)
Negative attitude resources		28 (**66.67%**)	5 (**31.25%**)	1 (**6.67%**)	0
Total attitude resources		42 (100%)	16 (100%)	15 (100%)	12 (100%)

To conclude, except for Teacher A who used more negative values of affect and judgement resources, more positive values of affect and judgement resources were employed by the other three teachers. It was found that the positive values of the affect resource were used for affirmation and encouragement, and the negative values of affect resource were mainly used to express the teachers' dissatisfaction with students' performance.

Table 6.19 provides some examples of the positive values of affect resources assigned by the four CSL teachers on students' behaviour and performance.

Table 6.19: Samples of Affect Resources Used to Appraise Students

Turn/ Speaker	Sample of speech
#35A	知道站起来讲。**对错都没有关系的(+SAT)。** [Stand up and answer if you know (the answer), it doesn't matter if your answers are **right or wrong (+SAT)**]
#196A	你讲得**对啊 (+CAP & +SA**T)？举手，站起来大大声讲。 [You have answered it **correctly**, ah (**+ CAP & + SAT**)? Put your hand up, and stand up and speak up.]
#75 B	*Puji* ，**对了**(+CAP)。*Puji* **称赞他** *puji dia* (+SAT). 称赞她勇敢. [*Puji* (praised), **Right** (+ CAP). *Puji* **praise her** *puji dia* (praised him) (+ SAT). Commend her on her bravery.]
#180 B	**全部都对啊**(+CAP)。**很好啊**(+SAT)。 [**All are correct** (+CAP). **Very good**, ah (+SAT)]
#189C	**给** Trabinah **一个掌声**(+SAT)。 [**give** Trabinah **a round of applause** (+SAT)]
#198C	来，**给**明慧**一个掌声**(+SAT)。 [Come, **give** 明慧 **a big hand**(+SAT)]
#9D	**OK (+SAT)** 她没有哥哥。然后？ [**OK (+SAT)** She didn't have a brother. So?]
#11D	**Ya (+SAT)** 她的弟弟还小(-CAP)。然后她的爸爸怎样？ [**Ya (+ SAT)** her brother was still young (-CAP). Then what happened to her father ?]

The examples in Table 6.19 show that the teachers were satisfied with the answers given by the students, as seen in the words "对错都没有关系的 (it doesn't matter if your answers are **right or wrong**)" (#35A), "对啊(correct)" (#196A), "很好啊 (very good) " (#180 B), "OK" (#9D)，"Ya (yes)" (#11D), and "给一个掌声(Let's give a round of applause)" (#189C, #198C) .

Among the four teachers, Teacher A was not satisfied with her students' performance at the initial stage of the lesson. Although she did assign 9 positive judgement and 5 positive affect resources to show satisfaction for her student's performance (see Table 6.18), she also sometimes used negative comments to express her dissatisfaction. Her dissatisfaction came from the slow pace of students' participation in the lesson. The students' passive attitude in responding to her was regarded as abnormal to Teacher A, and this made her unhappy. Some of her negative appraisal moments are shown in the example below:

Example 1   (#194A)

她要什么？她要什么？há? 讲话大声一点（重音）。她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？(-SAT) 今天这样安静，平时就很吵 (-NOR) (-SAT)。

[(#194A) What does she want? What does she want? há? Speak up (Stress ↑). What does she want? What does she want? What does she want? What does she want? (-SAT) Very quiet today, usually very noisy (-NOR) (-SAT).]

(Intention: The teacher expresses dissatisfaction, by asking the same question six times. The teacher is fed up with her students' response. She is unhappy with the abnormally passive behaviour of the students.)

In Example 1 (#194A), the question, "What does she want" was initially asked twice. A response was yielded, but was unclear and inaudible. This caused the teacher to lose her patience and she asked the same question four times in a raised voice. Then, the teacher complained, "Very quiet today, usually very noisy". In the Malaysian context, "being quiet" usually is taken as being submissive and thus seen as positive, whereas "noisy" is viewed as being less disciplined and disobedient and negative. However, for appraisal analysis, the co-text, the context of situation and the culture in which the communicative activity takes place must be taken into consideration (Martin and Rose, 2003, pp. 81-82). A person's attitude and evaluation standard are not only influenced by the usual value and culture of the society, but are also influenced by the intention embedded in language use. The meaning of words being used may not be compatible with its normal meaning, but may need to be interpreted differently, as the reference of values may have been changed from the pragmatic aspect. At the present instance, the meaning of "quiet" is interpreted as "unresponsive/ passive" whereas "noisy" is referred to as "responsive/ active". Being noisy is therefore a positive reaction in the context. Overall, Example 1 indicates the dissatisfaction (-SAT) of the teacher regarding the response of the students in answering the question posed. In this case, the students' reaction of "being quiet" and not responding well

was assigned as a negative reaction because this "passive" behaviour had not been expected, as usually this group of "noisy" students would be taking the opportunity to answer questions (as was revealed during the personal interview with the teacher). Perhaps, the presence of strangers (the researcher and her assistant) in the classroom triggered some anxiety or disquiet among the students. The following examples show more evidence of dissatisfaction of Teacher A over her students' performance.

Example 2　　(#196A)

举手，站起来大大声**讲**。谁讲的刚才？**举手先。站起来讲**。(-SAT)

[(#196A) **Put your hand up**, stand up and speak up. Who was talking just now? **Put the hand up** first, then stand up and speak up. (-SAT)]
(Intention: To show dissatisfaction over her students' manner of answering a question)

Example 3　　(#364A)

念得零零乱乱 (-CAP) 的。(-SAT)

[(#364A) Recite in a **disorderly manner** (-CAP). (-SAT)]
(Intention: Express dissatisfaction over student's reading).

In Example 2, the repetition of imperative mood "Put your hand up", serves as a reminder for doing things right. It is considered as unruly for a student to answer a question posed by the teacher without getting permission and waiting for her/his turn to speak. Raising hand indicates a student's willingness to answer the question and therefore seeks permission to respond. These actions indirectly instill value of discipline among students. Example 3 shows a negative comment about a student's reading ability.

When the positive and negative values assigned by Teacher A to the students' learning behaviour and responses were examined together, it was clear that Teacher A did not praise

her students freely. She came across as impatient, but overall, she was a responsible teacher, as seen throughout the lesson. A very valuable teaching strategy was observed when she was heard reassuring the students by saying: "You can do it!" and "No harm trying!" The reassuring words helped to motivate students to learn. In fact, this kind of persuasive strategy was also used by Teacher B and Teacher C, as can be seen in the following utterances:

Teacher B   (#199B)

。。。好，**没关系**(+SAT)。现在呢, 我**要**呢, **你们**用两个字**来造句**。。。
[(#199B)… **Well**, **it does not matter** (+ SAT). Now, I **want all of you** to use two words **to make a sentence**]
(Intention: Quickly switches attention to another activity to avoid embarrassing students who were unable to answer correctly)

Teacher C   (#228C)
。。。**错**(-CAP) 。哦，**不用紧**(+SAT) 。我们**来试**。谁**会**啊？
[(#228C) …**Wrong** (-CAP). Oh, **it is alright** (+SAT). **Come**, let's **try**. Who **knows**?]
(Intention: Made a mistake? It is okay, let's try again)

A factor that causes students to be reluctant to answer questions a teacher poses is that students are afraid of making mistakes and feeling embarrassed, or even worse than that, being laughed at by their peers or scolded by the teacher for their mistakes. Therefore, one good approach used by the teachers to encourage students to take part in the class is to reassure them that there is "No harm trying" (#256A), or "It doesn't matter" (#199B) or "It is alright to make mistakes" (#228C, #35A), or to give them confidence by saying "You can do it" (#313A). The data showed that teachers utilised this persuasive strategy to encourage students to participate. This is construed as sharing with the student her openness to accept mistakes made by the students in answering the question being posed. This

approach not only comforts the students who are going to try to answer the questions but it also enhances teacher-student solidarity.

The above findings suggest that the appraisal resource is a double-edged sword that can be used to promote or hinder classroom learning. A teacher must be sensitive to the effects of assigning positive and negative values to evaluate the participants, topics of discussion and teaching materials being used in classroom discourse. Nevertheless, appraisal resources are very valuable resources that should be capitalized to shape students' good character by instilling in them the positive values in their lives.

6.3   The Realisation of Interpersonal Meaning through Teacher's Body Language

The communication between teacher and students in class does not only rely on verbal language alone, in fact body language also plays a very important role. Apart from using verbal language to explain the content, teachers often deliberately or unintentionally use their body language to aid teaching, and to establish and maintain interaction and interpersonal relationships with their students. Teacher's body language includes teacher's facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics. The interpersonal meaning conveyed by the teacher's body language sometimes is even richer than teacher talk. Teacher's facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics not only can affect teaching but also will have impacts on the teacher-student relationship. The following sections discuss the interpersonal meaning negotiated via teacher's body language.

6.3.1 Facial Expressions

The data on facial expressions in this study were analysed based on the system of affect introduced by Martinec (2001). Meaning mediated through facial expressions in this study

was closely related to the expression of anger, happiness, sadness, fear, and surprise. The data on smiling (happiness) and frowning facial expressions (anger or sadness) were analysed in terms of the percentage (%) of their duration of occurrence in contrast to total teaching and learning time. In addition, some facial expressions used in teaching will also be discussed by referring to specific examples.

Table 6.20: Total time on Smiling and Frowning in the Classroom While Teaching

Teacher / Time	Teacher A Duration (%)	Teacher B Duration (%)	Teacher C Duration (%)	Teacher D Duration (%)
Total T&L time in seconds	2003s	2462s	1866s	1492s
Smiling time (Positive expression)	180s (8.99%)	230s (9.34%)	62s (3.32%)	166s (11.13%)
Frowning time (Negative expression)	4s (0.2%)	93s (3.78%)	0s (0)	1s (0.07%)

Smiling in communication helps promote a harmonious relationship between interactants. Video recording data showed that Teachers A, B and D smiled for almost 10% of their lesson time, but the smiling moments of Teacher C only took up less than 3.5% of her teaching time. For the occurrence of frowning, Teacher A frowned for about 4 seconds (0.2%) and Teacher B frowned for about 4% of her teaching time (refer to Table 6.20), while Teacher C did not have instances of frowning. From the classroom observation data, the researcher noticed that at the beginning of the lesson, the students of Class A seemed a little scared. Due to this, they failed to respond promptly to the questions posed by their teacher. At that particular moment, the teacher looked a little unhappy as the slow response was not characteristic of the students in the class; she frowned for about 4 seconds. However, later, when the students were behaving normally, showing normal behaviour (i.e., normal-paced response) in answering teacher's question, Teacher A reacted in a friendly manner.

199

The statistics in Table 6.20 showed that Teacher D smiled for about 11.13% of her total teaching time. This teacher only frowned once for about one second when one student gave a wrong answer to her question. Teacher D showed surprise when introducing the word "惊讶" (surprise). She widened her eyes, raised her eyebrows, and moved her two open hands in a rotating motion. She did this action twice continuously for about 5 seconds. Overall, she did not show many kinds of facial expressions while teaching.

Teacher C seldom smiled in class while teaching. Her facial expressions were also not as varied as those of Teacher B and Teacher A. However, the interview data given by the students revealed that Teacher C always smiled while teaching (S13, S14, S15 and S16). Students also revealed that this teacher always used her facial expressions as a teaching device in delivering the content. The following are some students' comments:

S13: Sometime if the dialogue is angry, then the teacher shows an angry face. Sometime if the dialogue is happy, she shows a happy face. If the dialogue is sad, she shows a sad face.

S15: Kadang-kadang bila dia cakap 'jatuh' dalam bahasa Cina, *跌倒*, lepas itu laoshi buat muka macam "aduh! sakit".
[Sometimes after saying 'fall down' in Chinese *跌倒*, the teacher makes a face to convey "Wow! It hurts" .]

Among the four teachers, Teacher B displayed the richest facial expressions when teaching. She always varied her facial expressions according to the meaning of the words or content she had just introduced. Teacher B frowned for about 4% of her teaching time. Teacher B frowned not because she was angry with students, but employed this facial expression to help the students grasp the meaning of new words related to human emotions. Other than teaching the word "担忧" (worrying), she also taught the word "伤心" (sad). Her facial

expression of "sadness" accompanying her gesture of putting her palm across her chest helped students to understand the Chinese word "伤心" (sad) easily. Therefore, students interviewed said that they enjoyed learning as well as observing their teacher's rich facial expressions.

The students in the classes observed were non-native speakers of Chinese, and as such they had a small repertoire of Chinese vocabulary. By utilising facial expressions, the teacher could help the students to grasp the meaning of the words or phrases. The data suggest that facial expression is a valuable resource to be utilised as an effective teaching aid. It also acts as a strategy to attract students' attention in learning. Student interview data also confirmed that they were happy with their teachers' facial expressions in teaching. Therefore, teachers should be equipped with the ability to employ appropriate facial expressions while teaching, in order to enhance teaching and construct a harmonious relationship with students.

6.3.2 Gaze

Gaze relates to eye contact. Establishing eye contact in interaction is an indicator of honesty, respect for, attentiveness to and interest in the people we meet as well as the topic being talked about (Malandro, Barker & Barker, 1989, p.134; Miller, 2005, p. 29; Richmond, 2002a, pp. 72-73). Therefore, it is crucial for teachers to establish eye contact with students in classroom communication to foster a close relationship. The classroom video recording data showed that Teacher A and Teacher B looked directly at their students for about 70% of the time. Teacher D looked at the students 59.19% of the time and Teacher C looked at the students for only 33.07% of the time (refer to Table 6.21). In terms

of frequency, Teacher C recorded the highest number (112 times). This showed that Teacher C looked at the students frequently, though the gaze was short. Besides looking at the students, sometimes teachers also looked at other directions. Teachers looked at the whiteboard, PPT slides or the movie on the LCD screen or computer screen, the textbook and other teaching materials like handouts, flashcards, and images.

Table 6.21: Teacher's Gaze in CSL Classrooms

Teacher Gaze Direction	Teacher A Duration (%)	Teacher B Duration (%)	Teacher C Duration (%)	Teacher D Duration (%)
Total Time/Total Count of Times Looking Directly at Students (Duration/Frequency)	23.66 minutes (71.72%) / 110 times	29.78 minutes (72.55%) / 94 times	9.98 minutes (33.07%) / 112 times	14.72 minutes (59.19%) / 98 times
Total Time Looking at Other Directions	9.33 minutes (28.28%)	11.27 minutes (27.45%)	20.20 minutes (66.93%)	10.15 minutes (40.81%)
Total T&L Duration	32.99 minutes (100%)	41.05 minutes (100%)	30.18 minutes (100%)	24.87 minutes (100%)

The video recording data showed that teachers looked at all of their students. From time to time, teachers exerted authority over students, by staring at students who had misbehaved, or students who had not been paying attention, students who were making noise, or students who were disturbing other students. All the students interviewed also revealed that their teachers looked at all students. However, they were aware that their teachers had more eye contact with less able students as well as the naughty students. Teachers A, B, C and the majority of the students confirmed that the gaze strategy was a regular nonverbal action used by the teachers for classroom management. They disclosed that students, who were stared at, were made aware of their misbehavior and promptly behaved well after being stared at.

When students were interviewed on how they felt about the frequent eye contact with the teachers, the students said that they liked the frequent eye contact with their teachers. According to them, it showed that the teacher cared about them and showed interest in them. During the teacher interview, Teacher B revealed that most students liked to have eye contact with teacher; however, students who were not performing well in the subject and who did not concentrate in class tended to avoid the teacher's gaze. This reaction shows that the students try to distance themselves from being reprimanded by their teachers (Neill & Caswell, 1993, p. 11).

Eye contact is a core factor in constructing close teacher-student relationships. The data showed that the teachers engaged in more eye contact with students when teaching and majority of the students liked to have eye contact with their teachers. From the time spent and the way teachers established eye contact with students, a conclusion can be drawn. The four teachers strived to help all students learn, and were concerned about their students, regardless of their ability. The employment of frequent eye contact, friendly and supportive gaze in teaching may create a harmonious learning atmosphere in the classroom; thus teachers should make use of their gaze effectively in enhancing teaching and constructing close relationships with their students.

6.3.3   Gestures

The term, 'gestures' in this study refers to the hand and arm movements. Gestures can be categorized into two main categories known as performative gestures and communicative gestures (Lim, 2011, p. 157). A communicative gesture is defined as an action which communicates meanings; whereas, a performative gesture is defined as a movement performed practically to execute a task, such as arranging things, taking attendance, setting

up equipment, scratching one's hand to ease an itch, and so on. The statistics in Table 6.22 show that more than 85% of the gestures used by Teacher A, B and C could be categorized as communicative gestures, while Teacher D's communicative gestures made up only 69.33%.

Table 6.22: Teacher's Gestures Used in Each Class

Teacher \ Types of Gesture	Teacher A Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher B Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher C Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher D Frequency of occurrence (%)
Performative Gesture	10 (12.5%)	26 (14.61%)	15 (13.64%)	23 (30.67%)
Communicative Gesture	70 (87.5%)	152 (85.39%)	95 (86.36%)	52 (69.33%)
TOTAL	80 (100%)	178 (100%)	110 (100%)	75 (100%)

As performative gestures are less interactional and communicative, this study analyzed only communicative gestures to identify how teachers used gestures to construct interpersonal meaning and the reasons why teachers used such gestures to communicate with students in class.

The communicative gestures of each teacher were analysed based on McNeill's (1992) and Hood's (2011) classifications. McNeill (1992) categorizes communicative gestures into four groups, namely, iconics, metaphorics, deitics and beats. He defines iconics as gestures that refer to concrete events, objects, or actions that also refer to speech at the same time (p. 77). Metaphorics are similar to iconics; however, they represent abstract ideas as opposed to actions or concrete objects. Deitics are movements that relate to pointing. A person may be pointing to a concrete object, or that the reference may be an abstract idea. Beats are gestures that indicate rhythm and emphasis.

Table 6.23 shows that iconic, metaphoric and deitic gestures used by the teachers varied within the range of 25% to 40%. Sometimes teachers also combined iconic, metaphoric, or deitic gestures with beats to emphasize the points they were making. Among the four teachers, Teacher A made the most number of gestures and Teacher D had the least, with 152 gestures and 52 gestures respectively. Teacher B had 70 gestures and Teacher C had 95 gestures.

Table 6.23: Form of Gestures Used by Each Teacher in Classroom Communication

Gesture Form	Teacher A Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher B Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher C Frequency of occurrence (%)	Teacher D Frequency of occurrence (%)
Iconic (I)	21 (30%)	41 (26.97%)	36 (37.89%)	14 (26.92%)
Metaphoric (M)	18 (25.71%)	55 (36.18%)	21 (22.11%)	18 (34.62%)
Deitic (D)	28 (40%)	44 (28.95%)	33 (34.74%)	13 (25%)
Beat (B)	0	2 (1.32%)	2 (2.11%)	0
I+B	0	1 (0.66%)	1 (1.05%)	0
M+B	2 (2.86%)	8 (5.26%)	2 (2.11%)	6 (11.54%)
D+B	1 (1.43%)	1 (0.66%)	0	1 (1.92%)
Total	70 (100%)	152 (100%)	95 (100%)	52 (100%)

The iconic and metaphoric gestures were used to teach the meaning of some of the Chinese words. Examples of iconic gestures include teachers showing the action of shooting an arrow (射箭) and riding a horse (骑马) when teaching the two compound words (Pictures 1&2 in Figure 6.1). Both Teacher B and Teacher D performed these gestures, and their actions were quite similar. Teachers also used their fingers to show numbers while talking about quantities like 1, 2, 3, and 4 (Pictures 3&4).

1 骑马(riding a horse)	**2** 射箭(Shooting an arrow)
3 一年？ 一天？ (**A** year? **A** day?)	**4** 2 (**two**)
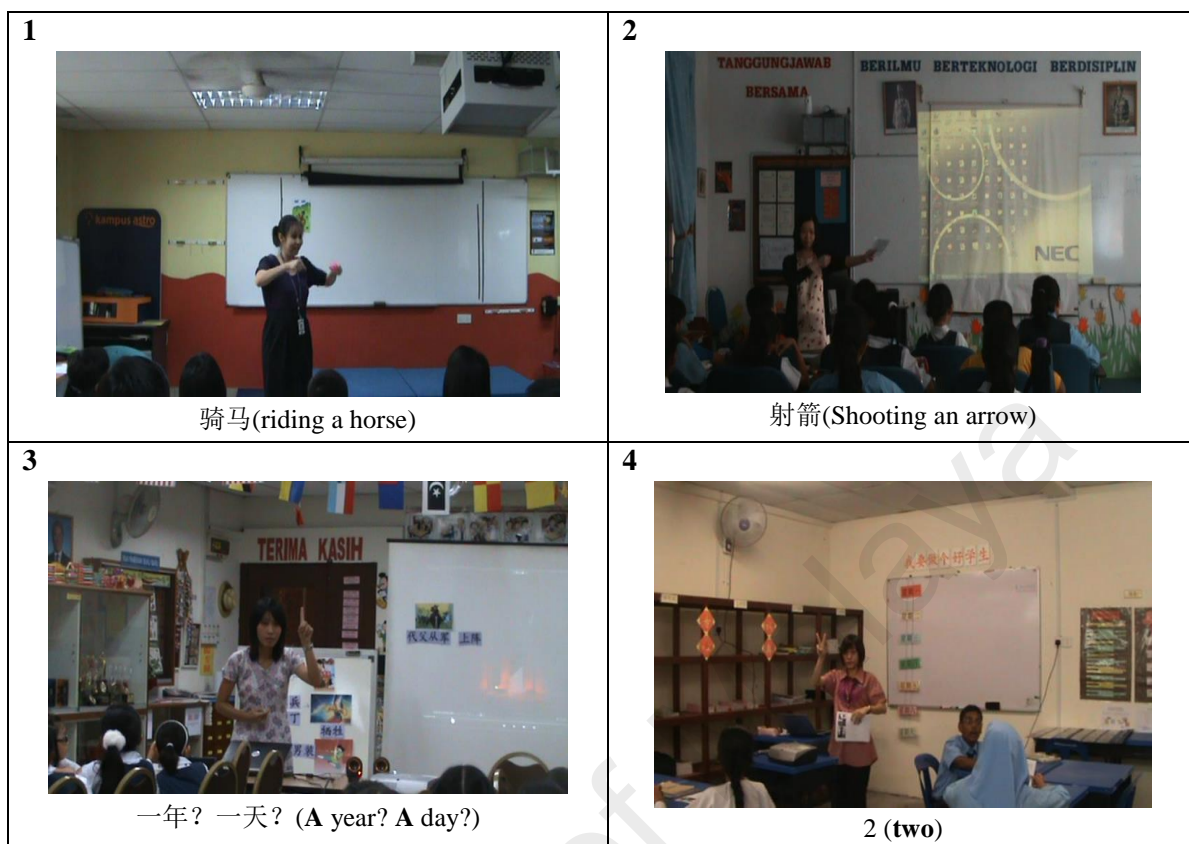
Figure 6.1: Samples of Iconic Gestures

Teachers also used metaphoric gestures to teach some abstract concepts like the meaning of Chinese words "老"（old），"小"(young)，"强壮"(strong) ，and " 想"(think). Some metaphoric gestures are shown in Figure 6.2.

| 1 爸爸很**老**了 (Father is very **old**) | 2 弟弟很**小** (Brother is very **young**) |
| 3 "壮丁"是**强壮**的男生 ("Young man" is a **strong** man) | 4 木兰**想** (Mulan **thinks**) |
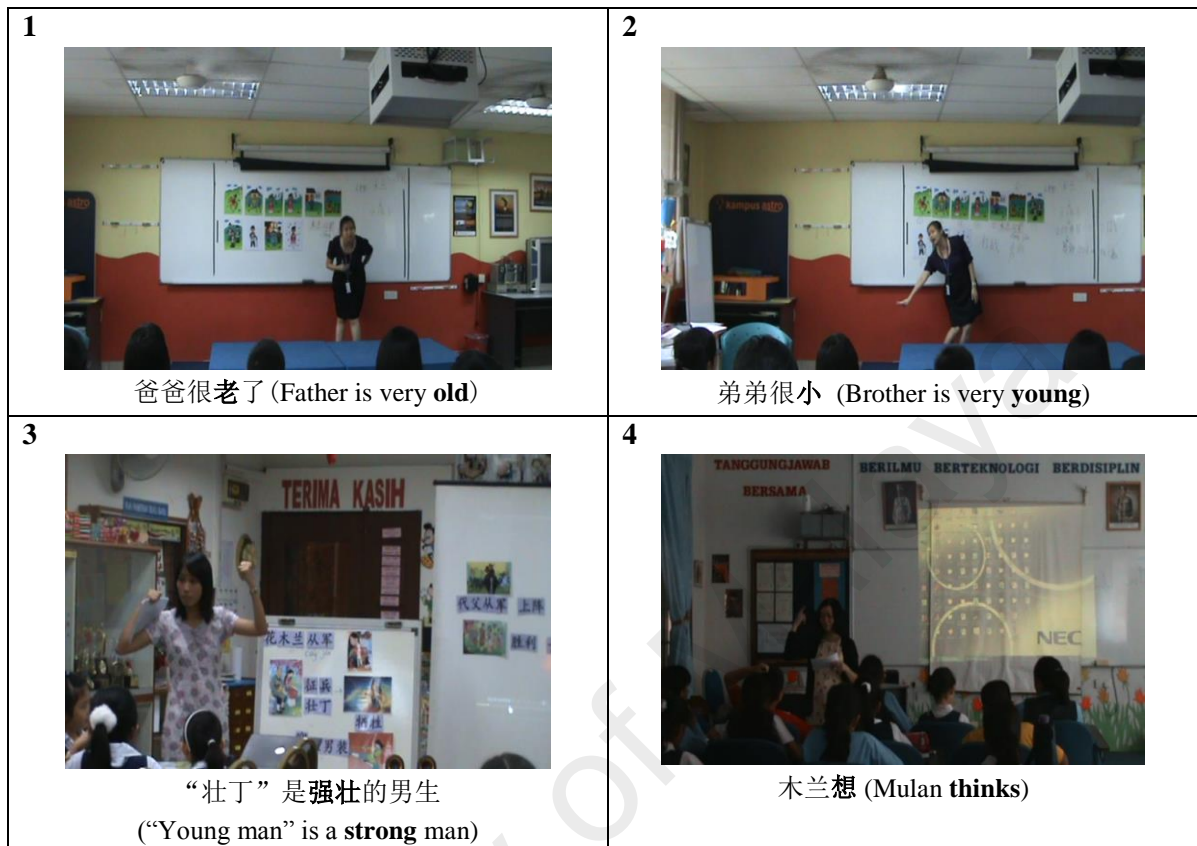
Figure 6.2: Samples of Metaphoric Gestures

The following is a discussion on the use of "heteroglossic expansion" and "heteroglossic contraction" gestures (refer to Section 3.3.3 in Chapter 3) in teaching. In this study, it was observed that the teachers always used palm-up gestures or known as "heteroglossic expansion" gestures identified by Hood (2011) to involve students in classroom discussions. Teachers either invited students to answer their questions or invited students to give opinions on certain issues by putting one hand palm-up or both hands palms-up (Pictures 1, 2, 3, 4 in Figure 6.3). In contrast, the teacher also sometimes used palm-down gestures or known as "heteroglossic contraction" gestures to stop students from saying or doing something (Pictures 5&6). Consequently, for classroom discourse, other than resorting to inviting students to participate and prohibiting students from taking turns in classroom

communication, the palm-up and palm-down were the teachers' main nonverbal resources to realise the interpersonal meaning of doing solidarity (to invite) and power (to stop). The samples of "heteroglossic expansion" and "heteroglossic contraction" gestures are shown in Figure 6.3.

1 Heteroglossic Expansion Gesture	**2** Heteroglossic Expansion Gesture
他们住的国家如果不安定的话，家里还可以好好的吗？[If the country in which they live is not peaceful, do you think their family life can be peaceful?]	爸爸怎样？(What did her father do?)
3 Heteroglossic Expansion Gesture	**4** Heteroglossic Expansion Gesture
Nadiah, 可以吗？(Nadiah, Is it possible?) >	当兵, 马来文叫什么意思？("当兵"(conscription),what does this mean in Malay?)
5 Heteroglossic Contraction Gesture	**6** Heteroglossic Contraction Gesture
你们**等一下**不用紧(It is all right for you to wait for a while) < stop students from saying>	好, 没关系(Well, it does not matter) <stop discussing, change topic>

Figure 6.3: Samples of Heteroglossic Expansion and Contraction Gestures

To conclude, the results showed that teachers' gestures also played an important role in constructing interpersonal meaning in classroom teaching. The use of gestures by the four teachers in the CSL classrooms was mainly for assisting the students to grasp the content. By looking at teachers' gestures while listening to their teachers' explanations, the students could understand the content better. Moreover, the teachers also used their gestures to invite students to engage in classroom discussion or to stop them from continuing a discussion.

6.3.4   Postures

The term, 'postures' refers to body positioning and direction. Thus, teacher's postures in this study will be analysed based on the direction of the teacher's body and body positioning while teaching. Body positioning analysis followed Martinec's (2001) Modality system (refer to Section 3.3.4 in Chapter 3). According to Martinec (2001, p. 124), modality in action has to do with how tentative or assured a person is about performing an act and with his/her willingness or unwillingness to carry it out. He held that, "tentativeness is realized by muscle tension and assuredness by muscle relaxation. Willingness is realized by holding the body at a forward angle, and unwillingness is realized by holding the body at a backward angle". Table 6.24 shows the teacher's postures in each class in terms of direction. The classroom observation data and student interview data revealed that both Teachers A and B spent most of their teaching time facing all the students. Teacher A and B faced their students for more than 70% of their teaching time; while Teacher C spent 66.93% of the time, and Teacher D spent 59.19% of the time.

Table 6.24: Teacher's Posture in Each Class

Body Direction	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Facing students	23.61 minutes (70.73%)	30.30 minutes (73.85%)	20.20 minutes (66.93%)	14.72 minutes (59.19%)
Facing other directions (side or back)	9.77minutes (29.27%)	10.73 minutes (26.15%)	9.98 minutes (33.07%)	10.15 minutes (40.81%)
Total Duration	33.38 minutes (100%)	41.03 minutes (100%)	30.18 minutes (100%)	24.87 minutes (100%)

The video recording data showed that most of the time, Teachers A, B and C had an open body position while communicating with their students. The teachers also adopted a relaxed body position when talking to the class. They often spread out their hands in a gentle manner to gesture while explaining content to enhance the students' understanding. When explaining, the teachers often leaned forward to face the students. The direct body and head orientation, open posture and leaning forward posture highlighted their enthusiasm in teaching (Martinec, 2001, p. 124). Unlike the three teachers, Teacher D sometimes adopted a very tense body position, folding both arms together across her chest while talking to her students (refer to Figure 6.4). According to Pease and Pease (2006, p. 93), the crossed arms on one's chest posture is decoded with the same defensive or negative meaning almost everywhere. Therefore, teachers should avoid showing this posture while teaching. The construction of interpersonal meaning via teacher's posture will be further discussed in Section 7.3.4 in Chapter Seven.
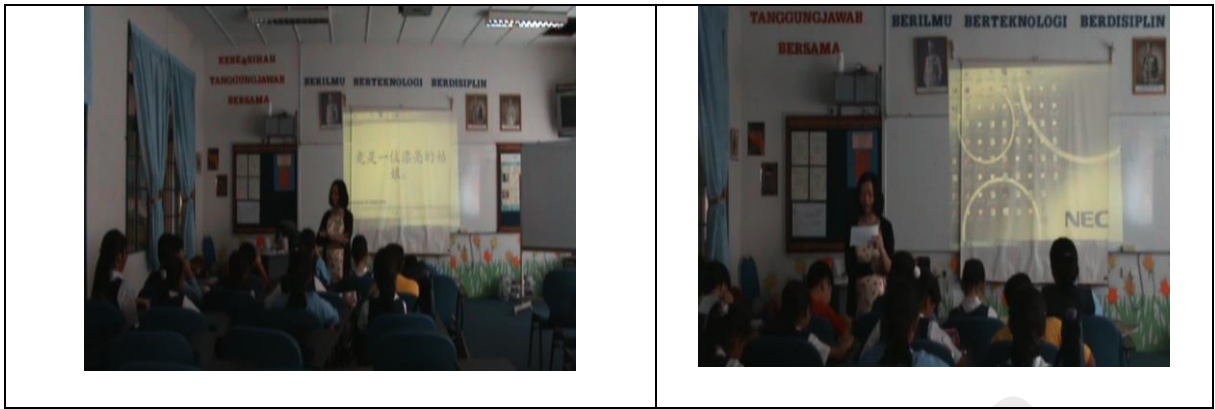
Figure 6.4: Samples of "close posture"

6.3.5 Proxemics

Proxemics relate to the use of space and it is concerned with the degree of engagement in social relations between interactants (Martinec, 2001). Proxemics is also closely related to the field of interaction and types of activity taking place in a social interaction. For example, the setting of a classroom and the types of instructional activities carried out would impact the proximity and social relations between interactants in class. Thus, the analysis of proxemics in this study focuses on teachers' instructional activities, the classroom layout and teacher's movements in class and the proximity between teachers and students. Data on proximity were analysed based on Martinec's (2001) Engagement System (refer to Section 4.7.3.6 in Chapter 4). The results are discussed as follows.

6.3.5.1 Teachers' Instructional Activities in Each Class

Table 6.25 shows the teachers' instructional activities in each class. The main instructional activity in the four classes was whole group instruction (refer to Section 4.7.3.6 in Chapter 4). Teachers A, B, and D spent over 90% of their teaching time on whole group instruction. Compared with the other three classes, the teaching activities of Class C were more varied. In addition to whole group instruction (62.57%), classroom supervision (3.86%) and lesson

preparation (6.56%), Table 6.25 shows that group activities were also significant in Class C.

Group activities took up 27.01% of the total teaching time, and this

Table 6.25: Teacher's Instructional Activities in Each Class

Types of Instructional Activity	Teacher A Duration (%)	Teacher B Duration (%)	Teacher C Duration (%)	Teacher D Duration (%)
Whole Group Instruction	1966s (98.15%)	2130s (90.37%)	1135s (62.57%)	1479s (99.13%)
Individual/ Small Group Consultation	13s (0.65%)	0	490s (27.01%)	0
Classroom Supervision	0	40s (1.7%)	70s (3.86%)	0
Lesson Preparation	24s (1.20%)	187s (7.93%)	119s (6.56%)	13s (0.87%)
TOTAL	2003s (100%)	2357s (100%)	1814s (100%)	1492s (100%)
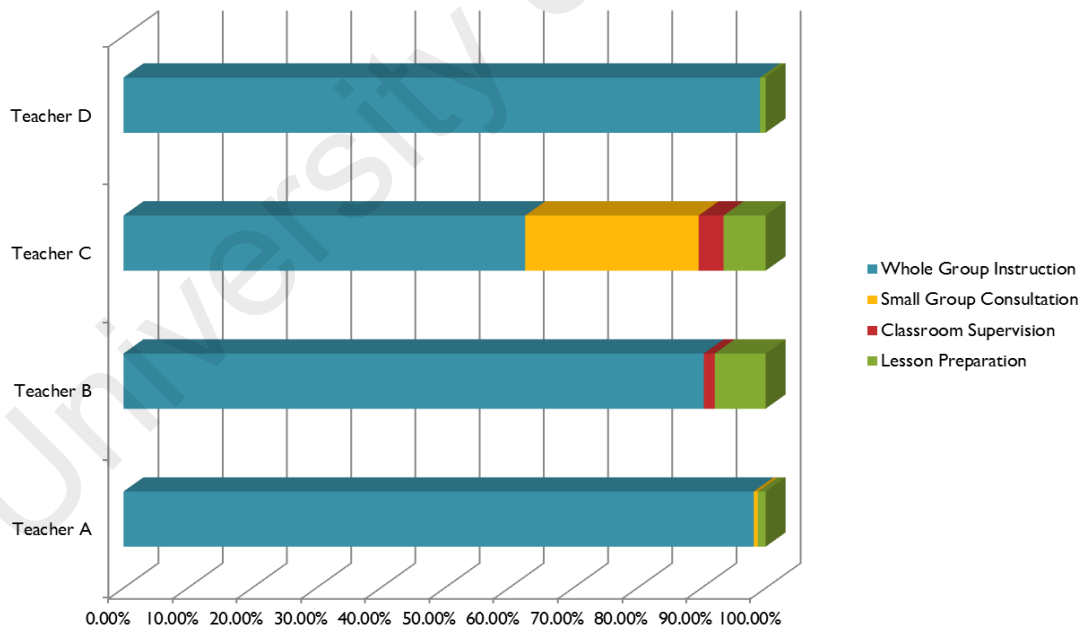
Figure 6.5: Teacher's Instructional Activities in Each Class

can be considered as being fairly long. Teacher D conducted the least number of classroom activities. Table 6.25 reveals that the whole group instruction was predominant (99.13%), with the rest of the time spent on lesson preparation (0.87%). Teacher D did not give any personal consultation or supervision to any student during the lesson observed. The detailed data on the instructional activities in each class can be seen in Table 6.25 and Figure 6.5.

The proximity between teacher and students was related to teachers' instructional activities. The data showed that when a teacher was giving whole group instruction, the distance between the teacher and the students was less intimate as compared to when the teacher was giving small group consultation, probably because the teacher was standing relatively far away from the students. Small group instruction or consultation allowed the teachers to work more closely with each student. This was evident in Class C, where the teacher spent over 27% of her teaching time with smaller groups while conducting group activities in class (refer to Figure 6.8). When a teacher was supervising the students, the distance of her body and her position was also more intimate as compared to when the teacher was preparing the lesson teaching materials for the next stage of the lesson (lesson preparation) at the teacher's table. Therefore, the proximity between teacher and students was affected by the type of instructional activities in class. It was observed that the nearer the teacher was to the students; the more intimate the teacher was towards the students, validating earlier observations (Andersen & Andersen, 2005, p. 114).

6.3.5.2 Classroom Arrangement and Teachers' Movement in Class

According to Kress et al. (2005), the classroom arrangement can be seen as "an expression of the teacher's preferred spatial and social relations with the students. This spatial relation

is a sign made by the teacher to express his sense of the social relation, of the pedagogic relationship with the students, as well as his sense of how the students might work with each other and with him" (p. 24). The arrangement of the tables and students' seating of the four classes was noted during the data collection period. Except for Class C where tables and chairs were arranged in clusters (Figure 6.8), Classrooms B and D had a rather traditional setting where chairs and tables were arranged in rows. Classes of B, C and D were located in the school multimedia rooms, while Class A was in the school library. There were three long tables in Class A. The two longer tables T_2 &T_3 shown in Figure 6.6 were of equal length and were put in parallel position, a large space separating them from each other. A shorter table T_1 was perpendicular to the two longer tables. T_1 was parallel to the whiteboard and it was nearer to the whiteboard than the other two tables. The students were seated along the two sides of T_2 & T_3 facing the space in the middle of the class. Class B (Figure 6.7) and Class D (Figure 6.9) had similar layouts. Students were seated in rows and filled up the front to the rear of the classroom, parallel to the whiteboard.

Kress et al. (2005, p. 26) assert that the movement of the teacher in the classroom has meaning. According to them, the meaning is produced in the interaction of three factors: the teacher's movement, the meaning of the space in which the teacher moves (at the front, in between the desks), and the movement of the students. This study focused on the movement of the teachers. The classroom layout and teacher's movement in Class A is shown in Figure 6.6. The classroom arrangement would have impact on the teacher's movement in class. The moving space for Teacher A between the whiteboard and the three long tables was not spacious. It only allowed an easy access for one person and as such the teacher's movement was particularly restricted in the place denoted as [….....] shown in Figure 6.6 (99% of lesson time).

Whiteboard	Screen

Ⓑ [………………….. 593 s (29.6%)……………………..]   4 feet ↕

Ⓐ [………………1397 s (69.75%)………………………………]

Teacher's Table

| **Laptop** | TABLE 1 (T_1) | **LCD** |

T
A
B
L
E

2

(T_2)

Empty space

T
A
B
L
E

3

(T_3)

Remarks	
Total Teaching & learning Time = 200 s	
Area	Distance from the nearest student/students (x)
Ⓐ	2.5'< x ≤ 4' (the distance lies between 2.5 feet to 4 feet)
Ⓑ	4'< x ≤ 7' (the distan e lies between 4 feet to 7 feet)
Note: Teacher go round in class 13 seconds (0.65% of her teaching time)	

Description: 3 long tables, students sat along two sides of Table 2 and Table 3, a small whiteboard 60cm x 90cm and a small screen 60cm x 90 cm were put in front of the classroom. A laptop and a LCD projector were put on Table 1.

Figure 6.6: Classroom Layout & Teacher's Movement in Class A

Within this area, she sometimes moved to the whiteboard to write or put up pictures on it. As such, this did not promote a sense of physical closeness between the teacher and students who sat at the back and the sides of the room. Although she did move around the

class while monitoring the students doing class work at the end of the lesson, it was merely about 1% of her lesson time.

	White board	CD Player TV
	Ⓐ […..….971s (41.2%)………] **(Podium)**	

Ⓑ […187s (7.93%)……………..]

Teacher's table

Ⓒ [………………..788s (33.43%)……………………..………]

Ⓓ [……………………………348s (14.76%)…………………………………………..….]

← - - - - - - - - - - - - -	arm chairs	- - - - - - - - - - - - - →

Ⓔ [………………… ……………….22s (0.93%)……………………………………]

← - - - - - - - - - - - - -	arm chairs	- - - - - - - - - - - - - →

Ⓕ [……………………………..22s (0.93%)…………………………… …………..]

← - - - - - - - - - - - - -	arm chairs	- - - - - - - - - - - - - →

Ⓖ [……………………19s (0.81%)…………………………………………..]

Remarks		
Total Te ching & learning ime = 2357s		
Area	Distance fro the nearest student/students (x)	
Ⓐ	7'< x ≤ 12' (distance lies between 7 to 12 feet)	
Ⓑ	4'< x ≤ 7' (dist nce lies between 4 to 7 feet)	
Ⓒ	4'< x ≤ 7' (distance lies between 4 to 7 feet)	
Ⓓ	2.5'< x ≤ 4' (distance lies between 2.5 to 7 feet)	
Ⓔ	6"< x ≤ 18" (distance lies between 6 i ch to 18 inch)	
Ⓕ	6"< x ≤ 18" (distance lies between 6 inch to 18 inch)	
Ⓖ	2.5'< x ≤ 4' (distance lies between 2.5 to 7 feet)	

Description: A long whiteboard 400cm x 90cm and a platform of 15cm high were put in front, a video player and a television were put at the corner. Student armchairs were put in 3 rows. A teacher's table was put at a corner in between the student armchairs and the platform.

Figure 6.7: Classroom Layout & Teacher's Movement in Class B

With regard to Class B, the space between the whiteboard and the first row of students' seats was quite spacious in contrast to that in Class A. Teacher B used 7.93% of her lesson time at the teacher's table (Area B in Figure 6.7) where she prepared for teaching, taking out the pictures and putting adhesive material behind the pictures; she referred to her textbook and arranged flashcards. When delivering her whole group instruction, Teacher B stood at the podium in front of the whiteboard (Area A in Figure 6.7) for about 41.2% of her teaching time. She was standing at the podium to write on the board, to paste pictures she had drawn on the board, to lead the students in reading, and to connect the new content to the students' previous learning experience. This area was about 7 to 12 feet away from the first row of students' seats in class. For the remaining of her teaching time, she spent about 33.43% of the time standing at Area C and 14.76% at Area D. When explaining the new content, she normally stood at Area C. When she wanted to involve students in discussion, she moved to the area in front of the students' first row seats in Area D. She spent the rest of the time, moving between Area E, F, and G to distribute handouts and to supervise students (about 2.67% of her teaching time). Her walking route is denoted as [….....] in Figure 6. 7.

Figure 6.8 shows the classroom arrangement and teacher's movement of Class C. The layout of Class C was different from the layout of the other three classes. Chairs and tables in Class C were grouped together where three pairs of table and chairs formed a group. Altogether there were three groups of chairs and tables. The number of students for this class was small. There were only five students on the day of the researcher's visit.
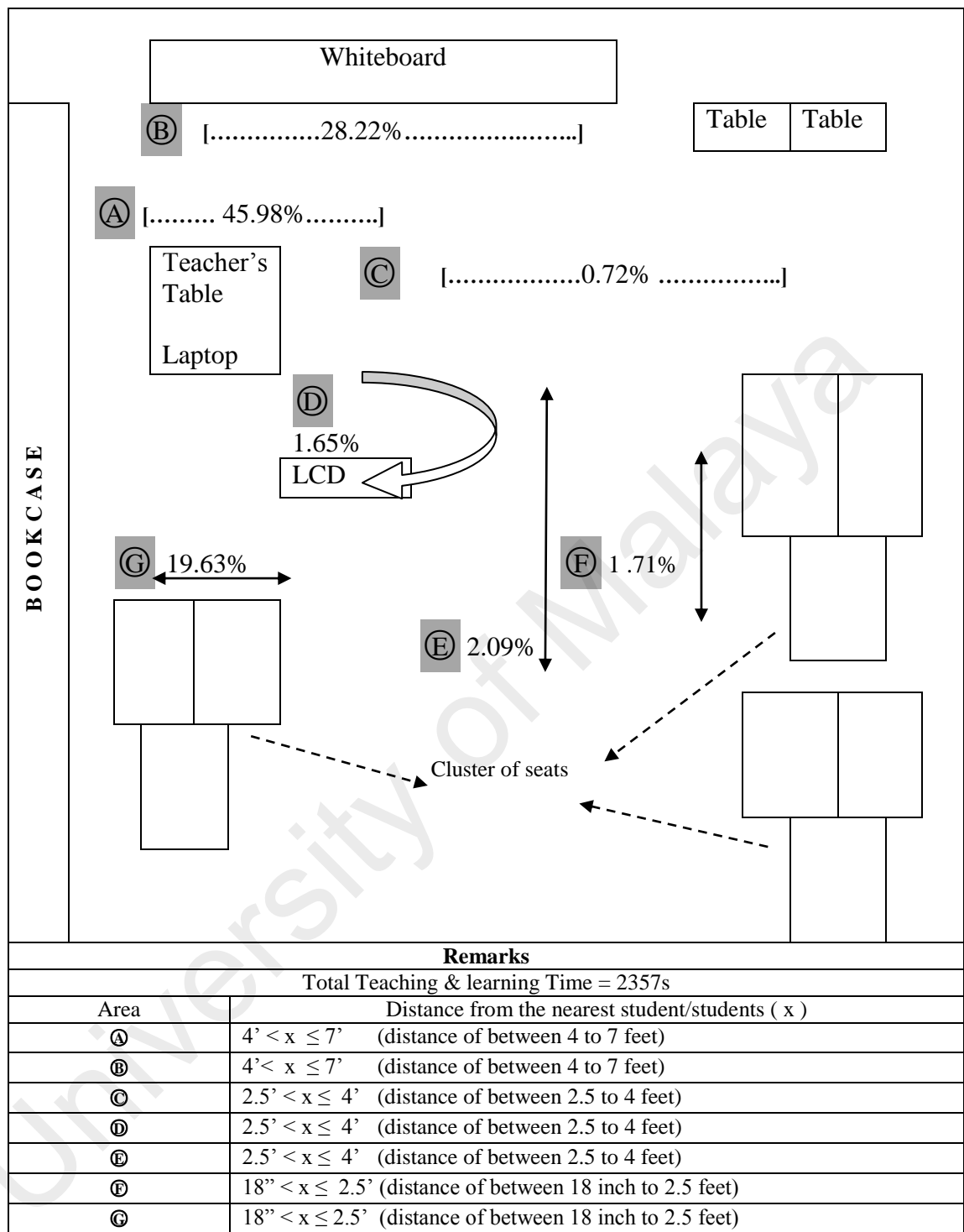
Figure 6.8: Classroom Layout & Teacher's Movement in Class C

The data in Figure 6.8 showed that Teacher C moved around the class while teaching. She

spent about 75% of her teaching time standing in front of the class. For the remaining of the

time, she approached the students to supervise their learning, and to give personal attention.

Teacher C was the only teacher who spent more time (27% of her teaching time) on small group consultation (refer to Table 6.25) while conducting group activities. The proximity between Teacher C and her students was very close.

As seen in Table 6.25, during the lesson, other than spending some time on lesson preparation activities, Teacher D only conducted whole group instruction and did not give any personal attention to the students. The whole group instruction accounted for 1479 seconds, representing 99.13% of her total lesson time. Figure 6.9 shows the movement of Teacher D in the classroom. The data showed that Teacher D was mainly standing in front of the classroom while teaching. She spent 7.1% of her teaching time standing near her desk (Area A in Figure 6.9) and within this area, she prepared teaching materials and sometimes she stood there and taught. Another 2.5% of her teaching time was spent standing in front the whiteboard (Area B) to teach. She also used the whiteboard to write some words when she taught the students to read the words. For the rest of the time (79% of the time), Teacher D stood near the students sitting in the first row (Area C). For the remaining 11.4%, she moved back and forth along the passageway situated at both sides of the classroom, indicated as Areas D and E. This was usually when students were listening to the audio recording. It was observed that Teacher D was standing near to the students who sat in the front row of the class roughly 90% of the teaching time while conducting the whole group instruction. She was physically far away from the students who sat at the back of the class.

| LCD screen | White board |

Ⓐ […… (7.1%) …….]   Ⓑ [……..... (2.5%)…..……]

Teacher' table

Ⓓ (10.3%)

Ⓒ [……………………… (79%)…………………………………..]

Ⓔ (1.1%)

| | | | | arm chairs | | | | | |
| arm chairs |
| | | | | arm chairs | | | | | |

| | | | | arm chairs | | | | | |

| | | | | arm chairs | | | | | |

Remarks		
Total Teaching & learning Time = 2357s		
Area	Distance from the nearest student/students (x)	
Ⓐ	4 < x ≤ 7'	(distance of between 4 to 7 feet)
Ⓑ	4'< x ≤7'	(distance of between 4 to 7 feet)
Ⓒ	2.5' < x ≤ 4'	(distance of between 2.5 to 4 feet)
Ⓓ	18" < x ≤2.5'	(distance of between 18 inch to 2.5 feet)
Ⓔ	18" < x ≤ 2. 5'	(distance of between 18 inch to 2.5 feet)

Figure 6.9: Classroom Layout & Teacher 's Movement in Class D

6.3.5.3 The Proximity between Teacher and Students in Each Class

Martinec's (2001) engagement system was used to analyse the use of space by the four teachers while teaching. According to Martinec (2001, p. 118), "Engagement in presenting action concerns social relations between interactants, which are realized by the distance and angle of their bodies". The positioning and movement of the teacher in class while teaching were categorized based on the scales listed in Table 3.11 in Chapter 3. Table 6.26 shows teachers' proxemics in each class.

Table 6.26: Teacher's Proxemics in Class

Categories of Engagement	Teacher A Duration (%)	Teacher B Duration (%)	Teacher C Duration (%)	Teacher D Duration (%)
Close Intimate (CI)	0	0	0	0
Far Intimate (FI)	0	0	0	0
Close Personal (CP)	0	99s (4.20%)	29s (1.60%)	0
Far Personal (FP)	1346s (67.2%)	130s (5.52%)	487s (26.85%)	1186s (79.49%)
Close Social (CS)	164s (8.18%)	925s (39.24%)	92s (5.07%)	168s (11.26%)
Far Social (FS)	40s (2.00%)	891s (37.80%)	335s (18.47%)	0
Public/ Disengagement (P)	453s (22.62%)	312S (13.24%)	871s (48.01%)	138s (9.25%)
Total Time (%)	2003s (100%)	2357s (100%)	1814s (100%)	1492s (100%)

The proxemics were measured by the degree of engagement between teacher and students in teaching, namely, close intimate, far intimate, close personal, far personal, close social, far social and public. They are indicated in the first column in Table 6.26. The data showed that the engagement for Teacher A in class was 67.2% of Far Personal (FP), 8.18% of Close Social (CS), 2.00% of Far Social (FS), and 22.62% of Public or Disengagement (P). There was no evidence of Intimate (CI & FI) and Close Personal (CP) engagement. The data showed that the proximity between Teacher A and her students in this class was very close, which was not more than 4 feet from the first row of students' seating (refer to Area

A & B in Figure 6.6). However, as revealed in Figure 6.6, almost 99% of the teaching time of Teacher A was mainly standing and moving in Area A and B, it thus did not promote any sense of physical closeness between the teacher and students who sat at the side and at the back of the classroom for almost the entire duration of the lesson.

The data of the proximity between Teacher B and her students during instructional activities were as follows: Close Personal (4.20%), Far Personal (5.52%), Close Social (39.24%), Far Social (37.80%), and Public (13.24%) (refer to Table 6.26). There was no evidence of intimate engagement between Teacher B and the students. To conclude, the proximity between Teacher B and her students was reasonable, as she engaged with her students for about 77% of her teaching time.

For Teacher C, the Close Personal engagement accounted for 1.60%, Far Personal for 26.85%, Close Social for 5.07%, Far Social for 18.47%, and Public for 48.01%. In other words, 28% of Teacher C's teaching time related to personal engagement, 24% social engagement, and 48% public or disengagement. Although Area A and B in Figure 6.8 was not far from the first row students, the video recording data revealed that several times, Teacher C faced sideways while teaching rather than facing the students directly. This can be seen as evidence of reduced proximity between students and Teacher C. As compared to the analysis in Section 6.3.5.2, the proximity between Teacher C and her students in this analysis was not as close as the results in Section 6.3.5.2, analysed mainly based on one dimension, namely the body distance only. Although Teacher C liked to look sideways during teaching and reduced the sense of intimacy, she was very close to students during the group activities when she moved around to monitor the activities. The details of other standing positions of Teacher C in class can be seen in Figure 6.8.

The proxemics data of Teacher D in Table 6.26 show that Far Personal engagement was evident in 79.49% of the teaching time, 11.26% for Close Social and 9.25% for Public engagement. The high score of 79.49% of Far Personal engagement was due to the fact that Teacher D's teaching time was concentrated on Area C, which was very near to the first row of students (refer to Figure 6.9). Therefore, the sense of intimacy between teacher and students could only be enjoyed by the first row students. For other students in the class, the sense of intimacy was not much different of that with public engagement if the teacher did not have eye contact with students.

To conclude, the data indicated that teacher's use of space or proxemics in class influenced the physical and psychological closeness between teacher and students. The proximity between teacher and students was also shaped by the type of instructional activity conducted in class. As evident in this study, the proximity between teacher and students was less intimate in whole group instruction as compared to small group instruction or consultation (see Table 6.27). While giving personal consultation, the proximity between the Teacher C and her students was in the personal zone. The student interview data also showed that many students enjoyed having close interaction with their teachers. According to Andersen and Andersen (2005, p.114), "closer distances can be both an indication and a cause of closer interpersonal relationships". Therefore, teachers should vary their instructional activities and move around the class while teaching to ensure they have close social relations with the students.

Engagement / Instruction Activities	CI Duration (%)	FI Duration (%)	CP Duration (%)	FP Duration (%)	CS Duration (%)	FS Duration (%)	P Duration (%)	TOTAL Duration (%)
Whole class instruction				35s (1.93%)	38s (2.09%)	299s (16.48%)	763s (42.06%)	1135s (62.57%)
Individual/ small group consultation			29s (1.60%)	420s (23.15%)	41s (2.26%)			490s (27.01%)
Classroom supervision				32s (1.77%)	7s (0.39%)	31s (1.71%)		70s (3.86%)
Lesson preparation					6s (0.33%)	5s (0.28%)	108s (5.95%)	119s (6.56%)

Table 6.27: Teacher's Instructional Activities and Use of Space in Class C

6.4 The Co-deployment of Linguistic and Non-linguistic Semiotic Resources in Constructing Interpersonal Meaning

One of the elements in interpersonal meaning relates to interactants' roles. In the CSL classrooms, teachers enacted many roles in their teaching namely as instructors, facilitators, evaluators, motivators, disciplinarians and managers. The following sections examine teachers' nonverbal expressions in terms of their co-deployment with verbal expressions in their roles as instructors, facilitators, evaluators, motivators and classroom managers in the course of constructing interpersonal meaning.

6.4.1. The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Nonverbal Behaviours: Teacher as an Instructor

CSL students are introductory level learners of the Chinese language. Chinese is not their mother tongue, but is a second or foreign language. As such they do not have basic knowledge of the target language. Although they have been studying Chinese for more than three years, they know few Chinese characters. In order to help the students gain a better understanding, and to master what has been taught by the teachers; besides explaining in words, the teachers also use their body language to enhance their teaching.

1	2
"骑马" (Horse riding) [The teacher holds her two fists and moves them up and down to demonstrate the act of horse riding]	"射箭" (Archery) [The teacher holds her two fists, pulls them forward to demonstrate the act of shooting an arrow]
3	4
"把头发绑上来" (Tie her hair up) [The teacher holds her hair up and acts as if she is tying up her hair.]	"称赞" (To praise) [The teacher gives the thumbs up to praise]
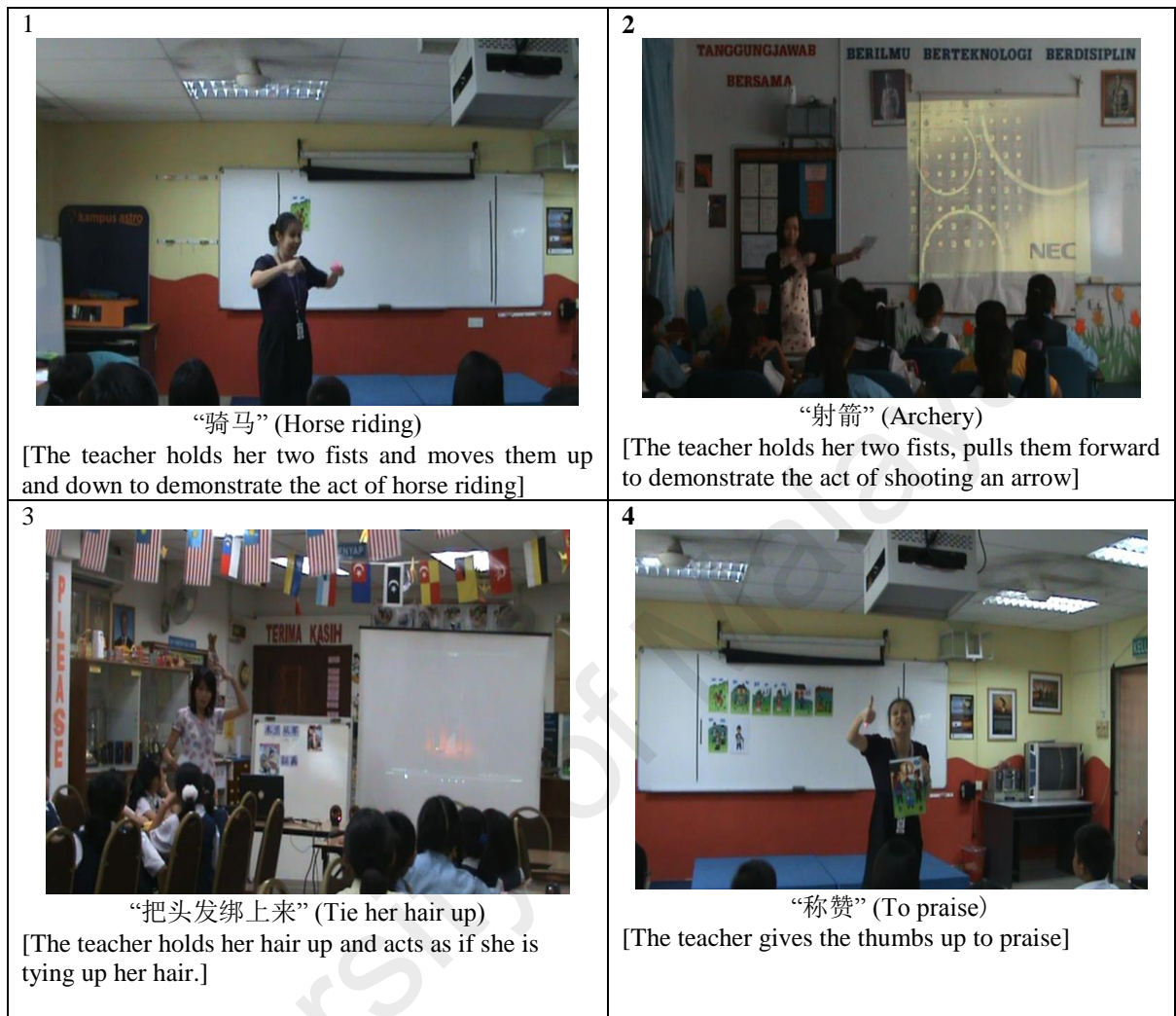
Figure 6.10:   Examples of the Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Iconic Gestures

The recorded classroom data showed that, while introducing new words, teachers often used gestures to help students understand their teaching. Some examples of the co-deployment of teacher talk and gestures in teaching are shown in Figure 6.10 and Figure 6.11. Pictures shown in Figure 6.10 were the iconic gestures used by the teachers to teach new words. An iconic gesture refers to a concrete event, object, or action that also refers to in speech at the same time (McNeill, 1992, p. 77). The gestures represented the meaning of "riding a horse 骑马" (Picture 1), "shooting an arrow 射箭" (Picture 2), "tie her hair up 把

头发绑上来" (Picture 3), and "praise 称赞" (Picture 4). The explanation of each gesture is provided below the pictures.

Figure 6.11 shows several examples of the co-deployment of teacher talk and the metaphoric gestures about abstract ideas. When introducing abstract words, teachers also employed gestures to aid in their expression of ideas. For instance, Teacher C used both hands to show a symbolic heart shape " ♥ " to mean "爱" (love) (Picture 1). When introducing the word "想" (think), Teacher D raised her index finger on her right hand and put it close to the edge of her temple and made a few circles to indicate "think" (Picture 2). When Teacher B mentioned that Mulan's brother was very young "很小", she used a palm-down action to mean a "little boy" (Picture 3). To introduce the word "老" (old), she bent her back and acted as an elderly person to enable students to understand the meaning of "老" (Picture 4). The gestures and body movements used to convey the meanings mentioned can be seen in Figure 6.11. The metaphoric gestures shown in the following pictures could be understood by most of the Malaysians, as these are commonly used in the Malaysian context. The examples given show that the teachers used iconic (e.g., riding a horse, shooting an arrow, tying her hair up, praise) and metaphoric (e.g., 'young' boy, 'old' people, 'love') gestures to represent meanings of the lexical items taught in classes.

| 1 口说"爱" (Say 'love') [The teacher is using a symbolic heart shape" ♥ " to mean "love"] | 2 "什么是想？" (What is think?) [Teacher is using her index finger to make circular movements near her temple a few times] |
| "弟弟也**很小**" (Brother is very young) [a palm-down action to indicate a "little boy"] | "爸爸**很老了**"(Father was very old) [The teacher bends her back and acts as an elderly person to show the meaning of "old"] |
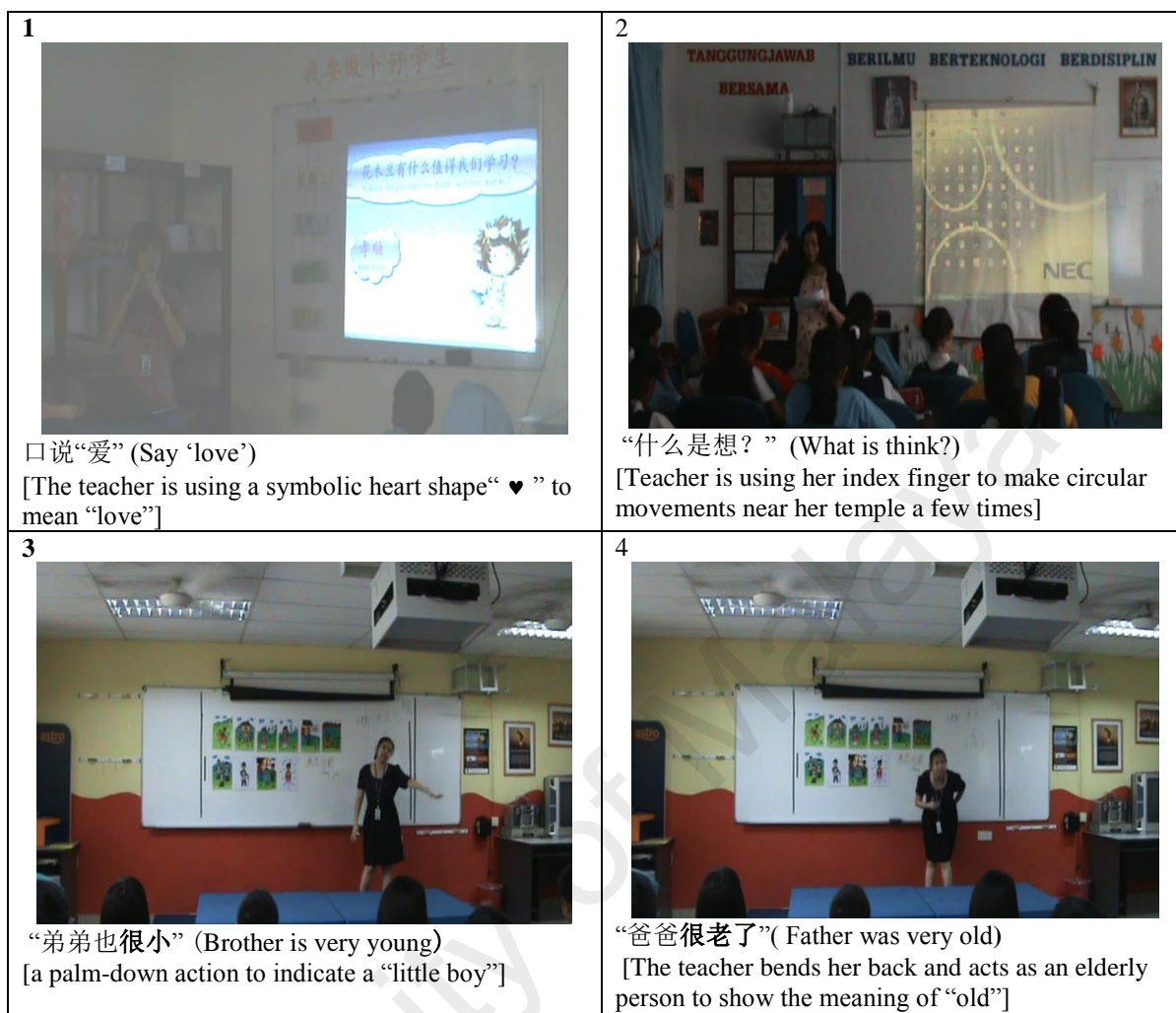
Figure 6.11:   Examples of the Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Metaphoric Gestures

To attract students' attention, and to highlight the content, the teacher's instruction was usually accompanied by the use of deitic gestures (Figure 6.12). A deitic gesture uses the palm or index finger to point to the object (pictures or words) or people described. During the reading practice, teachers pointed to the relevant characters on the PPT slides or the whiteboard to teach students to read. Deitic gestures are frequently used to teach students in reading words and sentences. It helps students to focus on the learning target and to maintain the momentum of learning in the class.

1 你看她的那个图片啊，你看，你看她的影片。 (You see her (Mulan) in the movie, look, look at, her.) [The teacher is using her index finger to point to a movie on the LCD screen]	2 这个"木兰从军"的人物是谁？ (Who is this figure in the story of 'Mulan Joins the Army'?) [The teacher is using her index finger to point to an image pasted on the whiteboard]
3 看前面。那边是词，这边是图。征兵放在这边。 (Look here. The words are on that side, the pictures are on this side. Put the words, "Zhengbing" here) [The teacher is pointing to the card with the phrase, "Zhengbing"]	4 志伟，什么是兵？ (Zhiwei, what is soldier?) [When calling the student's name, the teacher points to the student]

Figure 6.12: Examples of the Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Deitic Gestures

Apart from the co-deployment of teacher talk and gestures, teachers sometimes also used their facial expressions to convey meaning and ideas in classroom instruction. The combination of semiotic modes helped students to understand and master the content of the lesson. Teacher B was very expressive and used a lot of facial expressions in teaching, and her facial expressions often changed according to the content of her talk. Figure 6.13 shows some examples of the co-deployment of teacher talk, gestures and facial expressions in teaching. For example, when Teacher B spoke of Mulan joining the army, she said

"Mulan's father refused to let Mulan join the army, to go to war", and then she raised her hand and said, "爸爸讲不要 (Father said, 'don't')". At that particular time, the teacher also put on a sad face. She frowned and shook her hand a few times to express that Mulan's father's disapproval (Picture 1). As Teacher B said, "War is very dangerous, 可能会随时死掉" (Death can come at any time), she showed a sad face, and stretched her index finger, bent it to form a hook-like shape (Picture 2) to convey the idea of "death".

1 刚开始的时候木兰的爸爸**不肯**给她去打战。爸爸讲**不要**。(At the beginning, Mulan's father refused to let Mulan to join the army to go to war. Father said, "don't").	2 可能会随时**死掉**。(could die at any time) [The teacher puts on a sad face and showed a hook-shape index finger to convey the idea of death]
3 很厉害/很本领/功夫很好 ("very powerful", "very good") [The teacher gives a thumbs-up and shows a smiling face]	4 更加尊敬她，敬佩她。(More respect her, admire her) ([The teacher puts her palm on the forehead to show the sign of respect]

Figure 6.13: Examples of the Co-deployment of Teacher Talk, Gestures and Facial Expressions

These actions expressed Mulan's father's concern. The combination of several modalities employed by the teacher to express emotions was to enhance the students' enjoyment and understanding of the vocabulary and story. When evaluating Mulan's heroic deeds, Teacher B used multimodal expressions. She praised Mulan's fighting prowess (Kung fu), as "very good" and "very powerful", and said the soldiers all respected her and admired her. While saying this, besides using the thumbs-up gesture (means good and powerful) (Picture 3), the teacher put her open palm at the edge of her forehead to demonstrate respect (Picture 4), Teacher B also smiled to convey positive appraisal (Figure 6.13, Pictures 3&4). The body language expressed by Teacher B to praise Mulan's noble character was intended to inspire students to learn from this great heroine and to look up to her as a role model.

6.4.2   The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Nonverbal Behaviours: Teacher as a Facilitator

Another nonverbal approach to promote intimacy between interactants is proxemics, i.e., the use of space to create the sense of closeness. This approach is commonly seen when a teacher acts as a facilitator. During a group activity, the teacher would walk around the class and offer to facilitate student's learning when needed. To facilitate learning, it was observed that the teacher approached students to provide guidance and information, or check on the progress of group activities.

Teacher C liked to conduct group learning activities. The video recording data showed that the relationship between this teacher and the students was close. She often approached students to facilitate the completion of tasks assigned. Pictures in Figure 6.13 show the teacher facilitating students in completing group learning activities. The close physical distance between teacher and students, and the gentle ways of Teacher C, helped to create

the sense of intimacy between the teacher and her students. During the interview with the students, the researcher was told that they liked the teacher to spend time with them as they could sense the close relationship between them and the teacher.

1. Group activity 1	2. Group activity 2

Figure 6.14: The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Proxemics in Facilitation

6.4.3 The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Nonverbal Behaviours: Teacher as an Evaluator

It was observed that when teaching, teachers posed questions to attract students' attention, to enhance their thinking skills and to check their understanding of the lesson taught. The data showed that many of the questions posed were to evaluate the students' understanding of the content. When asking questions or assessing student's answers, the teacher's verbal expressions were accompanied by nonverbal expressions.

1	2
Naniah, 可以吗？（Naniah, can you? ） [The teacher uses the palm-up gesture to invite students to participate in activities.]	志伟, 什么是兵？(Zhiwei, what is soldier?) [The teacher uses the palm -up gesture to invite students to answer a question.]
3	4
站起来, 试一试。(Stand up and try) [The teacher raises her palm, with four fingers close together to invite students to 'stand up and give it a try' to answer a question. At this moment, the teacher looks expectantly while waiting for the students' response]	你又知道她爸爸病？（How do you know the father is ill?) [The teacher leans back and pulls away to create a distance between herself and students and looks at the students with a facial expression that shows she does not agree with a student's answer]

Figure 6.15: The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Body Language in the Role as an Evaluator

For example, teachers would call out a student's name to get him/her to respond to a question and at the same time, they would use the palm-up gesture to invite other students to participate (Pictures 1 & 2 in Figure 6.15). Once the teacher had identified a student to respond, she would look expectantly at the student to show that she was looking forward to the student's response (Picture 3).

Sometimes when the teacher disagreed with the student's answer, she would indicate through her body language. This can be seen in a short dialogue between Teacher A and her students in a question and answer session, as shown in the example below:

63 T : 她代替她爸爸去打战，对吗？为什么她代替她爸爸去打战？
[She took her father's place to go to war, right? Why did she replace her father to go to war?]

64 SS : 因为她爸爸病了.
[Because her father was sick.]

65 T : 因为她爸爸病啊？**你又知道她爸爸病**？她爸爸老了, 是吗？
[Because her father was sick ah? **How do you know her father was ill**? Her father was old, wasn't he?]

In this case, when the teacher asked students why Mulan went to war in her father's place, students answered that it was because of her father's illness. Although Teacher A disagreed with the answer given by the students, she did not express her disagreement verbally. As shown in Figure 6.15 (Picture 4), Teacher A leaned back and pulled away to create a distance between her and students and looked at the students. She then suggested an alternative answer by posing a tag question "Her father was old, wasn't he". The use of body language instead of verbal discourse in this case was intended to avoid embarrassing criticism. Thus, students' face was not threatened.

6.4.4 The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Nonverbal Behaviours: Teacher as a Motivator

A common nonverbal expression to show appreciation for a successful attempt is to applaud. A loud applause for a student's good attempt is regarded as positive support. It can motivate and enhance good behaviour. The data showed that Teacher C always praised students' attempts verbally and nonverbally. The nonverbal form of motivation she used the

most was asking the class to give a particular student a round of applause whenever the student had given a correct answer. She would also smile when doing so (refer to Figure 6.16). The multimodal encouragement would motivate students to learn and promote solidarity relations between interactants in the classroom.

| 1	2
Teacher demonstrates how to complete a task.	对。给 Daniah 一个掌声 (Right. Give Daniah a round of applause) [The teacher praises Daniah for matching the pictures correctly and then asks the class to give Daniah a round of applause]
3	4
对。给 Trabinah 一个掌声 (Give Trabinah a round of applause) [The teacher asks the class to give Trabinah a round of applause]	…(praised in silence) [Teacher praises a students' attempt at reading by a student by giving a thumbs-up]

Figure 6.16: The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Body Language to Praise Students

6.4.5 The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Nonverbal Behaviours: Teacher as a Manager

Classroom management relates to maintaining classroom order and managing students' discipline. It includes turn-taking allocation by the teacher to allow students to participate in the classroom. The teacher usually sets certain rules for students to follow in classroom interaction. For example, students in Class A and Class B in this study had to raise their hands before asking questions or answering questions. Students were only allowed to talk with the permission of their teacher (Pictures 1 & 2 in Figure 6.17). Picture 3 shows Teacher A stopping students from telling their friends the answer in class by putting her index finger on her mouth and saying, "If you have seen (the movie), then you (action), just keep quiet". When answering questions in the exercise given by their teacher, the students were also required to write down their names on the answer sheets (Picture 4). Some examples of nonverbal expressions co-deployed in the teacher's classroom management style are given in Figure 6.17. The co-deployment of teacher talk and body language in classroom management indicated the use of power by the teachers to maintain classroom discipline.

| 1	2
谁可以猜？告诉我。(Who can guess? Tell me.) [The teacher raises her hand to invite students to answer an open question. It also serves as reminder to students to raise their hands if they want to answer question.]	谁可以告诉我？(Who can tell me?) [Teacher raises her hand to invite students to answer an open question. It also serves as reminder to students to raise their hands if they want to answer questions.]

3	4
如果你看过了，那你就 (动作), 心里面知道就好。 (If you have seen (the movie), then you (action), just keep quiet.) [Teacher A stops students from telling their friends the answer in class by putting her index finger on her lips.]	写上名字。(Write down your name.) [Teacher instructs the students to write down their name on the answer sheets by pointing to a column in the handout.]

Figure 6.17: The Co-deployment of Teacher Talk and Body Language in Classroom Management

To summarize, findings from Section 6.4 showed that nonverbal and verbal communications were complementary constituents of classroom discourse. Kirch (1979, p. 423) points out that knowledge of nonverbal communication should be used by foreign language teachers to help students reach a fuller stage of acquisition. The present research findings indicate that CSL teachers are capable of using nonverbal cues to help students to comprehend messages. The findings also showed that nonverbal behaviours were used to attract attention, to mark units, in which utterances were produced, providing additional context, and to activate and recall words, thoughts and ideas. These functions of nonverbal communication in foreign language teaching and learning had been highlighted by Allen (1999, pp. 470-471).

6.5   Conclusion

The examples discussed above have shown that the instructional approaches used in the classrooms are multimodal. In order to help the students to understand the content, besides

teacher talk, teachers often used their body language to enhance teaching. From the interpersonal perspective, the data showed that teacher talk (linguistic resources) had been used by teachers to negotiate power and solidarity relations with the students in the classroom, where the control in turn-taking, the amount of talk, choice of mood, the teacher's appraisal of student's performance were used as indicators to examine the power negotiation and solidarity in relationship establishment. Teacher talk also revealed the ways teachers represented their power and status as teachers via their enactment of their roles as instructors, facilitators, motivators, disciplinarians, evaluators, value-bearers, and managers.

Data also showed that body language was used frequently to aid verbal expressions in teaching and was mostly co-deployed with verbal expressions. It can be concluded that on some occasions, body language may be used as the only semiotic resource in making meaning, when a teacher stared at a misbehaving student to discourage bad behaviour in class. Students welcomed the co-deployment of teacher's body language and speech in teaching. They believed it would enliven the classroom learning atmosphere and thus enhance student learning. Teachers' positive affect and judgement verbal resources to manage students' behaviour and evaluate performance were also well received by the students. They enjoyed receiving praise and encouragement, getting the teacher's attention, via eye contact with them. They liked teachers to be being physically close to them. Students' liking of their teachers can promote a harmonious teacher-students relationship. The following chapter will discuss how the verbal and nonverbal behaviour in CSL classroom helps to establish teacher immediacy.

CHAPTER 7

TEACHER IMMEDIACY IN CHINESE AS A SECOND
LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

7.1   Introduction

Interpersonal meaning is constructed mainly through roles and relationships. The main aims

of this study are to explore how interpersonal meanings are constructed in CSL classrooms

and how the interpersonal meaning impacts the teaching and learning of Chinese as a

second language. The findings of how semiotic resources were used to construct

interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms have been reported in Chapter 6. These findings

were discussed in terms of verbal and nonverbal (linguistic and non-linguistic) resources

used in making such meanings. This chapter will focus on how teacher immediacy, a core

aspect of interpersonal meaning, is constructed in CSL classrooms. The discussion focuses

on the interpersonal relationships established by teacher via teacher's immediacy/non-

immediacy behaviours.

The discussion in this chapter is based on the Social-psychological Principle advanced by

Mehrabian (1969, 1971). Mehrabian (1971) characterizes immediacy as a set of behaviours

that reduce distance, enhance closeness, increase sensory stimulations, and reflect liking

and affect (pp. 1-4) between communicators. Immediacy is also defined as the degree of

perceived physical or psychological closeness between people (Andersen, 1978, p. 7;

Richmond, 2002a, p. 68; Richmond, et al., 2008, p. 190). Mehrabian's Social-psychological

Principle is grounded in approach-avoidance theory that suggests, "People are drawn

toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move

away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer" (Mehrabian, 1971, p.

1). Richmond et al. (2008, p. 191) call this idea the "Principle of Immediate

Communication". The social-psychological force depicted by Mehrabian (1971) is also known as the force of affinity seeking (Gorham et al., 1989). Affinity is "a positive attitude toward another person … another person has affinity for you if that person perceives you as credible, attractive, similar to her or himself, or perceives that you have legitimate power over her or him" (McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976, p. 231). Thus, teacher immediacy refers to teacher's behaviours driven by the force of affinity seeking that could reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between teacher and students. It occurs in both verbal and nonverbal communication.

7.2   The Realization of Teacher Verbal Immediacy through Teacher Talk

Verbal immediacy is the use of language that increases intimacy between interactants (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191). Teachers' verbal immediacy behaviours in this study were analysed based on the Teacher Verbal Immediacy Framework shown in Table 4.9 in Chapter 4. Teachers' verbal immediacy is realised through teacher talk that displays humour, mutual respect, tolerance, fairness, concern, encouragement, openness, friendship, and empathy with the addressee. Conversely, non-immediacy behaviours are conveyed through hurtful, harmful, or condescending language, criticisms or fault-finding actions or comments. They are also seen in the behavior of serious teachers who seldom use humour in class, and in teachers who control the interaction in class most of the time, and in teachers who do not encourage students to get involved (Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, et al., 2008).

Some of the verbal immediacy behaviours like addressing students by their names, using praise, engaging students in conversation and learning as observed from the classes in this study will be discussed in the following sections.

7.2.1   Addressing Students by Their Names

Communication theorists maintain that it is important to "use direct references and personal recognition when communicating" (Gorham, 1988; Mottet & Richmond, 1998). The classroom video data of this study showed that the teachers used direct references when communicating with students by addressing the students by their names. During the interviews, all the teachers stated that they recognised every student and knew all of their names. Teachers called out students' names when they wanted students to answer questions, to pay attention to the lesson, or to behave appropriately. Students interviewed also confirmed that their teachers knew every student's name in class. According to them, their teachers always called out students' names when giving back their exercise books, instructing them to answer questions, or to stop them from misbehaving. Students felt happy when teacher knew their names, because it showed that their teacher knew and cared about them. Teachers' effort in recognising every student and remembering every name was a teaching strategy used to build rapport with students and also to draw students' attention to learning.

7.2.2   The Use of Address Term "We" to Establish Close Relationship

The use of pronouns and vocatives symbolizes the affect involvement of the speakers' to indicate inclusive reference. In communication, the use of more inclusive reference words such as "we" or "us" instead of "I" or "you" helps to build rapport between the speakers, and hence enhances the intimacy and solidarity between them (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191). For example, in the classroom when sharing experiences, the teacher can use the first person pronoun "we" rather than the first person singular "I" or second person "you". The teacher can also refer to the class as "our" class. When talking about things they have done

together, the teacher may say, "What **we** are doing" to include her students and herself as a member of the group.

In the Chinese language, the first person pronoun "我们" (we) refers to both teacher and students in the class. All the four teachers used this pronoun in their classroom discourse. Teachers C, B and A used "我们" (we) 12 times, 10 times, and 9 times respectively (see Table 6.2 in Chapter 6). Teacher D used the pronoun only twice. When the teacher used "我们" (we) in class, this meant she was including the students in the discussions or activities. This action led the students to perceive the teacher-student relationship as being closer and increased the sense of belonging. Students would also perceive this verbal behaviour as "immediate" (Gorham, 1988; Mehrabian, 1971; Mottet & Richmond, 1998). As such, teachers who use "我们" (we) more frequently in their teaching are considered more immediate compared to teachers who use "你、你们" (you) more often, as use of the second person refers to a student or the students. If the teacher uses the plural first person pronoun deliberately when interacting with the students, the students are more likely to feel closer to the teacher, which will facilitate teaching (Richmond, 2002a).

Table 7.1 shows some examples of "我们" (we) and "你 or 你们" (you) used by the teachers in teaching. When using "我们", the teacher was actually including the students in the topic of the discussion or the activities. Teachers' verbal messages reminded the students that they were not alone in the process of learning but were always accompanied by their teachers in learning, as can be seen in the examples of Turn 7 and Turn 313 in Class A (#7A & #313A), Turn 47 in Class B (#47B), and Turn 228 in Class C (#228C). Thus, a sense of belonging and togetherness was generated.

Table 7.1：Examples of the Use of Personal Pronoun "我们"

#7A	那今天**我们**要学第几课？
	[Which chapter are <u>we</u> learning today?]
#313A	…OK 等一下**我们**再看一次那个 video。…
	[Okay. Later <u>we</u> shall watch the video once more…]
#47B	…**我们**读过…
	[…<u>We</u> have read that…]
#233B	…莫莉莎，**我们班**上的一个同学…
	[…Melissa, one of <u>our</u> classmates…]
#28C	…**我们**也要像花木兰一样孝顺爸爸妈妈，要爱国家 ho。…刚才**我们**有学了几个新字。…
	[…<u>We</u> should be filial to our parents and be patriotic, just like Hua Mulan…Just now, <u>we</u> learnt a few words…]
#228C	错。哦，不用紧，**我们**来试。谁会啊？
	[Incorrect. But it is okay. <u>We</u>'ll try again. Who knows the answer?]
#237D	木兰有什么值得**我们**学习的地方？…
	[Are there any traits in Hua Mulan worth emulating?...]

7.2.3 The Use of Code-switching: use language that students can understand

The target language taught and used in the classes observed was Chinese. However, most of the learners were not native speakers. Therefore, the teachers sometimes resorted to using a familiar language or languages during lessons. Code-switching, therefore, was frequently observed in the classes. A common practice of code-switching found in the classroom was that of teachers replacing the Chinese words, phrases, or sentences with those in English or Malay. Among the four teachers, Teacher D used code-switching most frequently; followed by Teacher B and Teacher C. Teacher A code-switched the least, as she only resorted to using two Malay words and three English words. 99.21% of her verbal discourse was in Chinese, probably because most of the students in Class A were Chinese (92%). Out of 25 students in the class, only two of them were Indian.

During the interviews, the teachers revealed that code-switching was used because of the low level of Chinese language proficiency among the learners. The teachers were afraid that these young learners were unable to understand the Chinese words well and code-

switching was deliberately used to facilitate learning. This move indicates that the teachers did care about the learning difficulties faced by their students. When students were interviewed and asked how they felt about their teachers code-switching in classes, most of them welcomed the approach as they said that it would be difficult for them to follow their lessons if the teacher used only the target language to deliver and explain the content. If the use of code-switching contributes to effective teaching, then this strategy is considered as an immediacy construct of the instructional discourse, where students can acquire the knowledge at a more 'immediate' pace with less hindrance. The use of code-switching in teaching is thus, considered as immediate behaviour as the teacher is said to be sensitive to the needs of students. According to Mottet and Richmond (1998), teachers, who are caring, and who use language that students can understand in teaching, are reducing the psychological distance between the teacher and students (p. 30). However, CSL teachers should not over-use the code-switching approach in teaching Chinese as a second language as students might rely too much on the teacher's translation or explanations in their mother tongue or first language. Furthermore, this method could be a stumbling block to mastering the target language.

7.2.4 The Use of Praise and Encouragement

Gorham (1988) considers praising students for good work done, or actions as 'immediate'. Praises from the teachers for the students were heard during the classroom observations and from the interview recording. Examples of teachers' verbal encouragement include: 好 (good), 很好 (very good), 对了 (right), 全部都对了 (all correct), 很厉害 (excellent), 进步了很多 (you have improved a lot), and sometimes in English: "good", "very good",

"congratulations", "well-done". Apart from English, Malay was also used. Students from Class C revealed that their teacher also praised them by saying "tahniah" (congratulations).

The video data showed that among the four teachers, Teacher C praised students most frequently. However, Teacher A did not praise her students. Throughout the lesson observed, she only used "对啊" (correct), and "也可以啊" (also possible) once, to confirm that students' answers were correct and acceptable. Nevertheless, these are forms of encouragement, an immediate element. As compared to Teacher A, Teacher B praised students more. She was heard saying, "全部都对啊, 很好啊" (all correct, very good), and "好" (good) to praise students. Like Teacher A, Teacher D seldom praised students. The video data showed that there were times when students performed well in answering the teacher's questions; but the teacher did not praise the students. In this lesson, she said "对了" (correct) once to confirm that the student had answered correctly. At other times, she only said "Ya" or "Ok" to indicate that she agreed with the students' answers or views. Since praising, giving compliments and encouraging statements represent immediate behaviours, teachers should praise and encourage students to engage them actively in learning.

The question and answer session below shows how Teacher C co-deployed her verbal and nonverbal behaviour when praising her students.

Example: A Question and Answer Session of Teacher C	
#50	T: 什么意思啊？ 马来语是什么意思？ [What is the meaning? What is the meaning in Malay?]
#51	S: *Mengorbankan*. [Sacrifice]
#52	T: 啊 *Mengorbankan*。好，给 B 一个掌声。 [Ha sacrifice. Good, give B a round of applause]
#53	S: 一二，一二三，一二三四，一二。（同学们边数码边鼓掌） [One two, one two three, one two three four, one two. (Students counting while clapping).]
#54	T: 哈，很好。 [Ha, very good.]

In the question and answer session, students had to answer questions posed by Teacher C. When a student answered the question correctly, she praised the student by saying "好" (good) and smiled, and asked other students to clap, to encourage the student who had performed well. She then led the class in giving a round of applause, to show appreciation for the student's work or effort. She did this seven times in the class. Overall, students responded very enthusiastically to her, and the classroom atmosphere appeared to favour learning.

7.2.5 Engaging Students in Conversation and Learning

The data showed that learners were meaningfully engaged in learning activities provided by the teachers, particularly through questions posed by the teachers. The interrogative mood was used when asking questions. When a teacher asked a question, at least one student would be asked to answer the question. This was the teacher's way of engaging students in learning. Richmond et al. (2008, p. 191) state, "One of the most important ways to increase immediacy in a relationship is to send verbal messages that encourage the other person to communicate". Gorham's (1998) Verbal Immediacy Behaviors Scale also states that when

"the instructor asks questions or encourages students to respond", the behaviour is also considered immediate.

The imperative mood can also be used to engage students in classroom conversation. It was observed that the imperative mood was used when the teacher asked students to share their experiences with classmates or to exchange views in discussions. Therefore, the frequent use of the interrogative mood and imperative mood could engage students in learning and conversation. This is evident from the video data, where it was found that teachers often posed questions to everyone in class or to a particular group of students to engage them in learning. As can be seen from Table 6.8, in Chapter 6, Teacher A and Teacher B used the interrogative mood very often, recording 47.42% and 49.75% respectively. It was observed that Teacher D used a little less (43.26%), and Teacher C used the least (29.9%). The figures for the interrogative mood and imperative mood as seen in Table 6.8 suggest that the use of questioning and answering approach was a common strategy to engage students. By asking questions, the teacher can also better determine whether students have understood the content of the lessons, whether students are able to cope with the pace of teaching, and whether students have paid enough attention. The frequent use of interrogatives and imperatives helps encourage students to get actively involved in classroom activities. Thus, the data indicate that besides imparting knowledge, the teachers often seek information or opinions from students by involving them in classroom activities. Thus, even though CSL classes are focused on teaching the Chinese language where language activities like vocabulary learning and sentence construction are expected, discussions are also prevalent. Primarily, this is to encourage use of the target language but incidentally this also helps to promote closer relationship (Brown, 1994).

The examples given below show how teachers engaged students in classroom discussions using the interrogative mood. In Example 1 Teacher B used "Wh" questions, like "how", "what" to elicit answers from students and to draw the students into the learning experience (#25B, #75B, #180B). It was also evident that the teacher was encouraging the student to think deeper when she probed further using questions like "what else, then, what…".

Example 1: Teacher B encourages student to develop her thinking via questioning			
Class B	#25	:	。。。然后呢, 怎么样？木兰怎么样？ [……And **then**, **what happened**? **How** did Mulan do?]
	#75	:	称赞她勇敢. 还称赞她什么？称赞她什么东西？还称赞她什么？ [**Praised** her for her bravery. **What else**? **What** other qualities? **Why was** she **praised**?]
	#180	:	第一个，木兰喜欢骑马. 然后**怎么样**呢？第二**怎么样**? [First, Mulan enjoyed riding. **Then**, **what** about her other hobby? **How** about the second one?]

Probing is also evident in Example 2, after the student had provided the correct answer in English, Teacher D confirmed that the answer was correct ("OK") and rephrased the answer in the target language. Teacher D then posed another question to the particular student by asking "然后 (and then)？".

Example 2: Teacher D encourages a student to elaborate her answers via questioning			
Class D	#8 S #9 T	: :	She got no brother (sic). (Student answered in English) OK**.** 她没有哥哥。**然后**？ [OK. She did not have an elder brother. **Then**?]
	#10 S	:	她的弟弟还小. [Her younger brother was still very young.]
	#11 T	:	**Ya**. 她的弟弟还小。**然后**她的爸爸怎样？ [**Ya**. Her younger brother was still young. And **then**, what about her father?]

The examples given revealed that the teachers were persistent in getting students to talk, and to continue communicating with the students. The verbal elements in the examples are similar to Richmond et al. (2008) "responsive statements" in the typology of approach/avoidance verbal strategies, such as "Go on, please continue," and "Tell me more, I want to listen." (pp. 30-31).

Some of the examples of the imperative mood used by the teachers are shown in Table 7.2. Turn 25 in Class A (#25A) shows Teacher A instructing her students to stand up and answer the question asked, and in #313A shows Teacher A asking her students to look at the vocabulary once more, to complete an exercise later. Other examples in the table also show how the teachers involved their students in the classroom teaching and learning. Therefore, the more frequently the interrogative mood and imperative mood are used, the more likely will students be engaged in learning and conversation. Asking questions as well as initiating conversations with students, and encouraging students' to express opinions or viewpoints are defined as teacher verbal immediacy (Gorham, 1988, Mottet & Richmond, 1998, Richmond et al., 2008).

Table 7.2: Samples of Imperative Mood Used by the Teachers

#25A	…你再听一次 há. 站起来，大大声讲。
	[…Listen to it once more. Stand up and speak up.]
#313A	…这个生字你要看一下，因为等一下我们有一个活动卷，你要做。你要句子重组。没有很难，你都可以做的。…
	[Look at these new words again, because we'll have an activity. You need to do it. You have to rearrange the words to form sentences. It wouldn't be too difficult. You can do it…]
#4B	今天呢，在我还没有开始之前，我要给你们看几个图画。…你告诉我那是什么图画。
	[Before I start today, I'd like you to look at some pictures. Tell me what these pictures are about…]
#243B	还有呢？Raniah 试一试。站起来试一试。
	[Anymore? Raniah try. Stand up and try to answer.]
#182C	现在你们看这边，看前面。
	[Now look here, look here]
#256C	现在老师要你们分组活动。你们排出来。
	[Now I would like you to divide yourselves into groups. Arrange the images]
#224D	… Please underline the word.
#239D	OK stand up, 站起来跟老师说。[OK stand up, tell Teacher the answer.]

As discussed above, engaging students in classroom communication by asking questions and inviting them to take part in classroom activities are immediate behaviours. However, the video data showed that teachers used the interrogative mood and imperative mood to get students to answer questions or to give their opinions even though the students did not indicate that they wanted to talk. This was observed in the four classrooms. According to Gorham (1988), assigning students to do something without students' consent is non-immediate behaviour. But in Malaysia, students are generally passive in class, and most of them answer questions only if they are asked to do so by their teachers. Therefore, teachers have to identify students to get them to be involved in the teaching and learning activities. Getting students to do something without their consent is usually acceptable in Malaysian classrooms.

7.2.6 The Use of Humour

Humour means "the ability to find things funny, the way in which people see that some things are funny, or the quality of being funny" (Cambridge Dictionaries Online). This definition therefore, indicates that one way of studying humour is to examine how teachers make students laugh when listening to their jokes. The classroom observations revealed that students did not laugh much as teachers made very few jokes when their lessons were recorded. When the students were asked whether their teachers cracked jokes in class, they said that sometimes they do make jokes and that they enjoyed such humour in class. The teacher interview data from Table 7.3 also revealed that sometimes the teachers did use humour in class. Teacher B was aware that she was sometimes serious in class and that her students were easily bored, especially when the topic discussed was a boring one. She said that when students were already tired after a long day in class, she would try to crack jokes.

Table 7.3: Teacher Interview Data on the Use of Humour in Class

Class A	Researcher: 你在上课的时候会跟他们说说笑话吗？
	[Researcher: Do you crack jokes in class while teaching?]
	T：会。[I do.]
Class B	Researcher: 你在上课的时候会跟他们说说笑话吗？
	[Researcher: Do you crack jokes in class while teaching?]
	T： 会会。有时他们会觉得你比较严肃或很闷，你这样他会比较放一点，没有这么大压力，他们不会觉得 tension 罗。有啦，但是不能每一次。因为这样他就以为他可以爬上你的头。要适可而止，看情况罗。我会看情况罗，有时他们太累啊，有时那一课课文太闷啊，我就会一点。
	[T: Yes, I do. Some times they feel I am too serious or boring. If I crack jokes, they feel more relaxed and not so stressed (tension). Yes, some times I do make jokes, but I cannot do it every time. Because if you do so, they will get out of control. It depends on the situation. Sometimes they are too tired or the topic of the day is too boring, then I crack some jokes.]
Class C	Researcher: 你在上课的时候会跟他们说说笑话吗？
	[Researcher: Do you crack jokes in class while teaching?]
	T：如果有空档。他们是从别一间课室过来。如果特地跟他们讲笑话，他们也听不懂 （笑）。都听不懂啊。
	[T: If there is free time. They come from another classroom. If I crack jokes on purpose, they cannot understand (teacher laughs). They can't understand it at all.]
Class D	Researcher: 你在上课的时候会跟他们说说笑话吗？
	[Researcher: Do you crack jokes in class while teaching?]
	T： 比较少啦。
	[T: Seldom.]

In general, the conclusion that can be drawn based on the observation and interview data is that the four CSL teachers in this study did not use humour much. However, the students interviewed loved jokes from their teachers and they enjoyed the class when teacher used humour. The use of humour in the classroom has been classified as an important factor in teacher immediacy (Gorham, 1988; Mottet & Richmond, 1998). Therefore, CSL teachers should consider using more jokes in teaching. McNeely (2015) assert, "laughter has the power to fuel engagement and help students learn". She is convinced that when teachers share a laugh or a smile with students, they help students to feel more comfortable and open to learning. Furthermore, using humour brings enthusiasm, positive feelings, and optimism to the classroom.

7.2.7　The Use of Self-disclosure

Gorham (1988) defines "telling personal stories" and "relaying self-disclosure" as teacher immediacy behaviour. This study showed that there was no evidence of self-disclosure in the four classes' video data. However, during the interview with Teacher A, she revealed that sometimes she did tell her students some personal stories. She revealed that her CSL lessons began after morning school and that during the 20-minute lunch break, when she entered the class early; she used the time to chat with students who were having lunch. She said that her students liked to tell her their stories, for example, what they had done the day earlier and she enjoyed listening to her students. Apart from telling her stories, students enquired about her activities, as they wanted to know her better. She agreed that exchanging information about their lives could create psychological closeness.

7.2.8　The Use of Fair Treatment

The four teachers were aware of the need to be fair to all students. The data of the study showed that they had posed questions to all students regardless of their ability, gender or ethnic background. Generally speaking, the teaching approach adopted by the four teachers was quite interactive. The communication in the four classes was found to be two-way in nature. Inviting students to give their opinions and sharing their experiences helped to create a more democratic and more conducive learning environment. Teachers' immediate negotiation style may cause students to like the teacher. Through the classroom interactions – the way they asked students questions, the teachers were seen to be fair, and they showed that they cared for all their students. According to Mottet and Richmond (1998), expressing concern is a verbal approach strategy in communication; "it is the verbal communication that causes us to feel "close" to another person" (p. 28). The use of fair treatment was also

251

evident in the way the teachers used their gaze and proxemics in class while teaching. The details regarding this element will be discussed in Section 7.3.1 and 7.3.6.

7.3 The Realization of Teacher Nonverbal Immediacy via Teacher's Body Language

Speech is usually accompanied by nonverbal behaviours like facial expressions (smiling and frowning), gaze (eye contact), gestures (hand and arm movements), postures, personal touch (tactile), body movements and physical proximity (Edwards & Edwards, 2001; McCroskey & McVetta, 1978). They are used to promote feelings of arousal, liking, pleasure, and dominance (Richmond et al., 1987). They can also signal 'immediate' meaning. Therefore, the nonverbal communication relevant to teacher immediacy includes smiling frequently, making eye contact, gesturing while teaching, showing pleasing facial expressions, touching, exhibiting postures that exude a likeable presence, and moving around the room while teaching (Andersen, 1978，1979; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). The following section will discuss the realization of teacher immediacy through nonverbal communication in CSL classrooms. The analysis was based on the Teacher Nonverbal Immediacy Framework shown in Table 4.10 in Chapter 4.

7.3.1 The Use of Gaze

An immediate teacher engages in more eye contact with students than a less immediate teacher who has less or avoids eye contact with students (Andersen, 1978，1979; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). The statistics in Table 6.21 (in chapter 6) show that Teacher A and Teacher B spent approximately 70% of the total teaching time looking directly at their students while Teacher D spent 59.19% of the teaching time establishing eye contact，and Teacher C had the least eye contact with her students, as it was observed

that she spent only 33.07% of the time. Although Teacher C had the least eye contact, she looked at the students most frequently (112 times) as compared to other teachers. According to Richmond (2002a), the teacher who rarely looks at a student when talking, suggests that he or she is not interested in that student (p. 70). However, in the case of Teacher C, having less eye contact with her students does not mean that she was not interested in her students or does not care for them as she actually frequently looked at them. In fact the interview with her revealed that she was naturally shy as she did not even make much eye contact with the researcher. The considerably less eye contact with her students could be attributed to her disposition. Nevertheless, even though she spent the least amount of time looking at them, she compensated by making eye contact most frequently.

In comparing the time that the teachers spent with students, students from each class disclosed that their teachers looked at all students. However, the teachers had more eye contact with students who misbehaved in class and who underperformed in the subject. The majority of the students said that they were happy if teachers established frequent eye contact with them as they regarded it as a sign that the teachers cared for them. This nonverbal behaviour shows that the teachers were caring and were being fair to all students regardless of their achievement in class.

7.3.2 The Use of Facial Expressions

According to Richmond (2002a), the teacher who smiles and has positive facial affect is perceived as more immediate and likeable than the teacher who frowns a lot or does not smile much. Likewise, "the teacher who has a dull, boring facial expression when talking is also perceived by the students as uninterested in them and the subject matter" (p. 72). The data showed that Teachers A, B and D smiled for almost 10% of the duration of their lessons, but Teacher C smiled less than 3.5% of her teaching time (refer Table 6.20 in

253

Chapter 6), which indicated that Teacher C seldom smiled in class while teaching. Nevertheless, it was observed that she did not frown or lose her temper in class. Thus, it is not possible to conclude that teacher C was less immediate based merely on the duration of smiling in class. Other factors like the spoken language she used and other nonverbal behaviours like her movements and proximity to the students in class need to be taken into consideration. Moreover, the interview data given by students revealed that Teacher C always smiled while teaching. Students also revealed that they liked her, and that she always used her facial expressions in delivering the content (refer to Section 6.3.1 in Chapter 6), and considered her friendly.

Teacher B frowned about 4% of her teaching time. The researcher found that Teacher B frowned not because she was angry with the students, but she was in fact using the facial expression to illustrate Mulan's emotional state in the story that is when Mulan was very worried about the fate of her aged father if he was forced to join the army to defend the country. Among the four teachers, Teacher B was the most expressive, as can be seen from her many facial expressions. Some of her facial expressions in teaching were discussed in Section 6.3.1 in Chapter 6.

The video recording data showed that teachers smiled to express satisfaction and praise the students for their good responses, giving correct answers, and for completing assigned tasks. The students interviewed informed the researcher that a teacher was popular if she frequently smiled, as this was an indication that the teacher was approachable. A teacher's smile also meant that she was satisfied with her students' performance. Students also felt encouraged to put in more effort. According to the students, this was something students

usually looked forward to in class, and made them like the teacher. Therefore, smiling contributes to a good teacher-student relationship.

Interviews with the students also revealed that student behaviour could influence their teachers' nonverbal behaviour. According to them, a teacher would look serious if students did not pay attention to the teacher or disobeyed the teacher's instruction, for example, if they did not complete their homework. The video data showed evidence of this in Class A. When the students failed to respond promptly to the questions posed by their teacher, the teacher looked a little unhappy as the teacher was not satisfied with students' performance. Frowning and showing dissatisfaction are perceived as non-immediate behaviours. According to Richmond et al. (2008), "People who have a positive facial affect and make greater eye contact are perceived as more immediate than people who have negative facial affect and make little eye contact". So, to increase immediacy, teachers should avoid negative facial affect such as frowning, showing a dull, boring facial expression when teaching, or showing sadness, anger, and disgust.

7.3.3 The Use of Gestures

Richmond (2002a) asserts that when teaching in class, "teacher's delivery style should be animated and dynamic. Animated gestures in teaching are immediate behaviours. According to her, the animated and dynamic teacher can keep the class interested in the subject for longer periods of time" (p. 72).

Gestures in this study refer to hand and arm movements. The classroom observations showed that gestures were used by the four teachers throughout their lessons and when communicating with their students. Among the four teachers, Teacher A gestured the most

(152) and Teacher D, the least (52). Teacher B had 70 gestures and Teacher C, 95 gestures. All the students interviewed confirmed that their teachers used gestures while teaching and that their teachers either used one hand or both hands to gesture. Gestures are effective attention-getting devices, to draw students' attention. It was observed that the teachers would point to the written words and images on the whiteboard or LCD screen; sometimes the teachers moved their fingers, palms, and arms to visually elaborate a situation and ideas accompanied by their verbal expressions on things to be emphasized. Other than using gestures to help in clarifying situations and ideas, teachers also used gestures to explain meaning. The use of animated gestures while teaching is considered an immediate behavior as it shows the teacher is enthusiastic in teaching. The students interviewed felt that gestures by teachers were needed and important, as not only did they help in their learning but also to lighten up the lesson, making the classes more enjoyable (see student interview data in Table 7.4). Some examples of the teachers' use of gestures in teaching are discussed in Chapter Six, and Chapter Eight will explore the use of gestures in greater detail.

Table 7.4: Student Interview Data on the Use of Gestures in Class

Class A	R：为什么老师要指向黑板？他指黑板上的什么东西？
	  (Does your teacher point to what is written on the white board?)
	S1：字。
	   (words)
	R：字。如果没有指你们不能够读吗？
	(Words.If without pointing to the words can you read?)
	S1：会。我们读错了他会要我们从新读过。
	(Can. If we read the words wrongly she will want us to read it again.)
	R：老师指对你们学习有帮助吗？
	  (Does your teacher's gestures help in your learning?
	S1：有。
	   (Yes.)
	--- 	
	R: Does your teacher point to what is written on the white board?
	S3: …
	R: When does she point to the white board? For what purpose?
	S3: Draw people's attention to the words written on the whiteboard.

Class D	R: Why does your teacher point to the words on whiteboard? S19: So that we can understand what is required for the activity. R: If your teacher didn't point to the word on the whiteboard, what will happen? S19: They all [the students] wouldn't concentrate. They will be confused.

7.3.4 The Use of Postures

With regard to postures, the video recording data, and interview data showed that during teaching, the four teachers faced their students most of the time. Teacher A and Teacher B faced their students the most while teaching (more than 70% of the time). Teacher C faced her students 66.93% of the time, and Teacher D 59.19% of the time (refer to Table 6.24 in Chapter 6).

After watching the video recording repeatedly, it was found that most of the time, Teachers A, B, and C adopted an "open posture" in teaching. An open posture refers to a movement when teachers spread out their hands in a gentle manner (Pease & Pease, 2006) while explaining the content. The video data also showed that Teacher A and Teacher B often leaned towards the students while teaching. Directing one's body posture toward students,

adopting open body positions, and leaning forward are immediate behaviours (Andersen 1978, 1979; Andersen & Andersen, 2005; Mehrabian, 1971; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). According to Richmond (2002a), adopting an open posture and leaning forward show that the teachers are willing to communicate with the students. They are receptive and immediate. However, teachers who fold in or keep a closed body position (closed posture) are perceived as nonimmediate and unreceptive (Richmond, 2002a, p. 72). Among the four teachers, Teacher D frequently used the closed posture while teaching in class. She folded her arms across her chest while teaching. Although this non-immediate posture was not employed throughout the lesson, it was reported that it happened quite frequently, and it appeared as if she was distancing herself from others. Richmond et al. (2008) assert that, this type of posture can close out another person and shut off communication (p. 61). As such, teachers should avoid the closed posture while teaching.

7.3.5   The Use of Touching

Richmond (2002a) asserts that touch is a form of communication that can be very useful in establishing and maintaining an effective teacher-student relationship. Touch can be used by the instructor to praise a student for a job well-done. It can be used by the teacher to substitute for the verbal reprimand or control without ever saying a word (p. 74). Richmond and colleagues (Richmond et al., 2008) also believe that it is appropriate and acceptable to touch students on the hand, forearm, shoulder, and the middle to upper back. They hold that, touch behaviour in these areas that denotes warmth, caring and concern for the other person generally increases immediacy and communication (p. 202).

The video data showed that none of the teachers touched their students in class. However during the interview session, Teacher A said that she normally patted the shoulder of a

student who did not pay attention to her teaching. Teacher B revealed that she did something similar as a sign of encouragement, and patting was usually accompanied by praise from the teacher regarding the student's good behaviour such as "唔，做得很好" (Eh, well done). In the interview, students of both classes acknowledged that both teachers did use touch as described above as a strategy to get their attention and to encourage them. Students of Class C also disclosed that sometimes their teacher patted them on their shoulders to show encouragement, especially when they performed well in classroom activities (refer to Table 7.5). All of them felt happy when their teacher touched them on their shoulders. This finding confirmed Miller's (2005) point of view that "patting a student on the arm, shoulder or back to congratulate him or her on a job well done is a much used and usually, a favorably accepted form of praise". However, most of the students interviewed from Class D said that Teacher D never touched them. It has been found that the appropriate use of touch in teaching will foster a closer teacher-students relationship (Richmond, 2002a). Therefore Teacher D should consider using some appropriate tactile behaviour to build rapport with her students.

Table 7.5: Student Interview Data on the Use of Touch in Class

Class A	R: Does your teacher touch your body? S3: shoulders. R: Why does your teacher touch your shoulder? S3: Mostly when talking or beating. R: (She scold or what) Why does she scold? S3: To give warning. ……. R: When you do something good like answer correctly, or get good results, does your teacher touch your shoulder? S3: Pat.
Class C	R: Does your teacher touch other students' body, like *tepuk-tepuk*? S13: Ya, sometimes. If we do something good, teacher will be happy. Sometimes teacher will do. R: How do you feel when teacher *tepuk-tepuk* like this? S13: Sometimes teacher likes to massage. R: Massage? You like it? S13: Ya. R: How do you feel? S13: Happy. If we do something good, teacher will be nice to us.

7.3.6 The Use of Proxemics

As mentioned in the Introduction to this chapter, teacher immediacy refers to teacher's behaviours that could reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between teacher and students. The proximity or interpersonal distance between the teacher and students in classroom interaction will influence teacher-student relationships. According to Andersen and Andersen (2005, p. 114), "Immediacy can be signaled through several proxemic or spatial channels. Most primary is interpersonal distance (i.e. proxemics). Closer distance can be both an indication and a cause of closer interpersonal relationships". When the teacher moves around the classroom while teaching, the movement is considered as immediacy behaviour. The teacher who sits or stands behind the desk or podium and rarely approaches students or allows them to approach her or him is perceived by students as unfriendly, unreceptive, unapproachable, and non-immediate. This does not help improve student-teacher relationships (Richmond, 2002a, p. 74).

Proxemics is defined as the study of how individuals use space to communicate (Leathers, 1992, p. 95). Hansford (1988, p. 124) defines the term proxemics as "the study of personal space and distance during human interaction". This study examined how the use of space affected and reflected the relationships between and among individuals in CSL classrooms. The classroom video recording analysis in Section 6.3.5 showed that, Teacher A and Teacher D were only physically close to students sitting in the first row in their classes. Both teachers spent most of their teaching time standing near the first-row students in front of the class. Teacher A spent 99% of her teaching time (refer to Figure 6.6) and Teacher D spent 79% of her time (refer to Figure 6.9 in Chapter 6) doing that. They seldom moved around the class while teaching. The use of space of these two teachers did not promote a

sense of physical closeness between the teacher and students who sat at the back of the classroom. However, during the interview with the students, the students denied that their teachers were unfriendly, unreceptive, and unapproachable. They said that after assigning them exercises; their teachers usually moved around to ensure students were doing work. According to them, their teachers would stop to check on underperforming students more frequently than with the other students.

With regard to the use of space in Class B, it was observed that Teacher B spent 90% of the time standing in front of the class (refer to Figure 6.7 in Chapter 6). She stood in a few areas in front of the class to conduct whole group instruction. Although she spent most of her time teaching in front of the class, unlike teachers A and D, Teacher B occasionally approached certain students to ask them questions. During the interview, she clarified that those students were either not paying attention or were underperforming in their studies and she wanted to build rapport with these students. She explained that she was aware of the importance of proximity to build classroom rapport. Teacher B also moved around the class monitoring students, checking on class work given by her.

Among the four teachers, Teacher C moved around the classroom most frequently while teaching. She spent about 74% of her time in front of the class to deliver the content (refer to Figure 6.8 in Chapter 6). For the rest of the time, she moved around to check on her students' work and to give personal or small group instruction during group activities. Although Teacher C was far from students who sat at the back of the class, while conducting the whole class instruction in front of the classroom, in fact she was very close to students during the group activity. Student interview data also showed that the teacher was close to them, and she was clearly a much-loved teacher.

From the interview data, the researcher came to know that the teachers decided on their students' seating arrangements based on their achievement and their behaviour (See in Table 7.6). A less able student was paired with a more able one based on their results in the subject (Class A & B) while a talkative student was paired with a less talkative one (Class A). Teacher C made low achieving students sit in front and able students sit at the back of the class. The teachers felt that these seating arrangements helped to create a more harmonious and conducive environment for teaching and learning. This action taken by the teachers showed that the teachers were concerned about the students' learning. The teachers felt the sitting arrangement would allow more able students to facilitate the less able students' mastery of a particular skill or help in the language to be learned. In addition, the talkative and less attentive students would be influenced by the more attentive peers to pay attention in class. Teacher C revealed that by making the weaker students sit near to her made it easier for her to help them learn. The interview data from the students confirmed that these seating arrangements were effective. Students' seating arrangements showed that the four teachers cared for their students. Such actions are also considered as immediacy behaviours (Andersen, 1979).

Table 7.6: Student Interview Data on Student Seating Arrangement in Class

Class A	R: 谁安排你们的桌位？ (Who arranged your seating position?) S1：老师安排的。 （Teacher arranged it.） R：怎样安排？是好的跟好的，还是差的跟好的？ (How did your teacher arrange the seating positions? More able students sit together, or more able student sit with less able student?) S1：好的跟差的。好的跟好的会讲话。 (More able student sit with less able student. If more able student sit together , they will talk a lot.) R：好的跟差的。为什么这样子的？ More able student sit with less able student. Why do you think your teacher arranged your classroom sitting position in such a way?) S1：因为好的跟好的是好朋友，有时会讲话。不是好朋友老师就准。因为好朋友跟好朋友会讲话。 (More able student sit together will talk a lot, teacher doesn't like us to sit close to our friends because we will talk a lot.)

Table 7.6: (Cont.)	
Class B	R: Bagaimana cikgu susun kamu punya tempat duduk?
	(How did your teacher arrange your sitting positions in class?)
	S9: Susun ikut orang pandai dan orang tak pandai.
	(More able students are seated with less able student.)
	R: Bagus ke macam ini susun?
	(Is it good to arrange the sitting position in such a way in your classroom?)
	S9: Bagus. Sebab kalau tak tahu boleh tanya orang tepi.
	(Good. Because if do not understand, I can ask the person sitting next to us.)
	R: Mereka sudi ajar tak?
	(Are they willing to teach?)
	S9: Sudi.
	(They are willing to teach.)

7.4 Non-immediacy Verbal Behaviours

The following examples show the non-immediacy verbal behaviours of the teachers evident in the data. According to Richmond et al. (2008), a teacher who uses condescending communication by saying things such as "You don't know what you're talking about", "Your ideas are stupid", "Why are you acting like that?", "You wouldn't understand", and the like, is considered non-immediacy. Table 7.7 provides samples of non-immediacy verbal behaviours from the data.

In Turn 194 of Class A (refer Table 7.7), Teacher A repeated her command several times. She was waiting for the students to respond to the question she had asked, but the students did not respond even after she had waited for slightly more than a minute, as they were still searching for the answer. The repetition of the command made by Teacher A suggests impatience. Lack of tolerance or patience is a non-immediacy behaviour (Richmond et al., 2008). Many similar incidents, as that seen in Turn 194, were found in Class A. The most typical one was Turn 164 when Teacher A showed her impatience by repeating the question nine times.

Table 7.7: Samples of Non-immediacy Verbal Behaviour

Turn	Teacher		Teacher Talk
#25	A	:	谁可以告诉我？站起来，大大声的跟人家讲这是什么？**没有人敢啊。**Há ,谁敢讲？举手啊（教师举起手）！**没有人敢啊！**E-Ann, E-Ann 没有看过，对吗？ [Who can tell me? Stand up; Speak up, tell the class loudly what this is about? **No one dares**? Ha, who dares to speak? Raise your hand (the teacher raises her hand)! **No one dares**! E-Ann, E-Ann, none of you have seen it? Have you?]
#62	A	:	**不懂 hó?不懂 hó**（重音）？ [**Don't know? Don't know?** (stress with high-pitched voice)]
#164	A	:	就是说她代替他的爸爸。她爸爸没有去，她去。她"代父"，"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？你不知道啊？父亲, 什么是父亲？ [It means that she was taking her father's place. Her father did not go, she went instead. She was replacing her father ("代父"). What do you know about the meaning of "父" (father)? (Then **the teacher repeated the same question 9 times** and still no answer was given). What? **Don't you know what "父亲" (father) means?** What is "父亲"?]
#194	A	:	她要什么？她要什么？há?讲话大声一点。她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？今天这样安静，平时就很吵。她要什么？谁可以跟我讲？谁可以很勇敢地站起来讲？没有人讲啊？谁可以勇敢讲？站起来大大声讲（老师提高声量）。 [**What does she want? What does she want?** há? Talks loudly (Stress ↑). **What does she want? What does she want? What does she want? What does she want?** So quiet, today, usually very noisy. **What does she want?** Who can tell me? Stand up; be brave, say to the class what this is about? **No one dares**? Ha, who dares to speak? Stand up and speak up! (**The teacher repeated the same question 7 times)**]
#248 #249	Student B	: :	来发不勇敢。 [Lai Fatt is not brave.] 来发，他讲你不勇敢。 [Lai Fatt, **he said that you are not brave**.]

In Turn 25 of Class A, Teacher A commented negatively in response to students' lack of response. The reasons for this lack of response could be: (a) The students didn't know the answer, (b) they were not willing to answer, or (c) they dared not answer. However, the teacher should have refrained from making negative comments on students' behaviour, especially when these comments were not accompanied by constructive suggestions. This is an example of a non-immediacy behaviour. Another example of a non-immediacy behaviour is in Turn 62 of Class A when Teacher A used a high pitched tone to repeatedly ask students to answer her question. This expression of annoyance is a paralanguage signal evident of non-immediacy behaviour and should be avoided.

In Turn 249 of Class B, in response to the teacher's instruction, to construct a sentence using the word "勇敢" (brave), a student formed the sentence "来发不勇敢。(Lai Fatt is not brave)". In this case, Lai Fatt is the name of another student in the class. Teacher B immediately drew attention to the student named Lai Fatt (Lai Fatt is not brave). This was meant as a joke on the teacher's part. However, according to Richmond et al. (2008), a teacher using hurtful, harmful, or condescending teasing and joking, such as making fun of a student's clothing, weight, or general appearance is a non-immediacy move. In this case, the joke made by Teacher B was demotivating as it may cause uneasiness among the students, especially the student concerned.

The above instances show that, teachers need to be sensitive when making remarks and jokes on students, as well as when speaking, using an appropriate tone, as these behaviours might cause the student to dislike the teacher and the subject if the students were to consider them as non-immediacy. It is likely to happen because the student might "lose face" in the situations mentioned. The situation in Turn 25 of Class A was quite common in Class A. In order to save time, the teacher did not wait for students' answers after asking questions and kept urging the students to give their answers promptly. The video data showed that this situation happened several times in class A (refer turn #164 and #194 in Table 7.7). In fact, repeatedly reminding students will yield a negative effect as it interferes with the student's thinking. Moreover, it will cause the student to become more nervous. Thinking under pressure is challenging. This is why many students become tongue-tied and fail to express themselves when a teacher keeps asking them for an answer.

7.5   Non-immediacy Nonverbal Behaviours

Sometimes teachers point to their student with the index finger instead of using the palm-up gesture when prompting the student to answer or give his/her opinion. Using the index finger to point, as shown in Figure 7.1 is considered as impolite in the Malaysian context and should be avoided. Teachers should be sensitive, and avoid using inappropriate gestures in their teaching. Hence, such non-verbal behaviour is non-immediacy. For the Malays, the polite way of pointing to someone is by using the thumb which is also a sign of respect. Teachers should use this gesture as it is considered as immediacy.

1 我可以讲**你**是壮丁吗？
   (Can I say you are a strong man?)

2 说你的爸爸 (talk about your father)

3 来, 德伟（Come, Dewei）

4 你的爸爸？（Your father?）
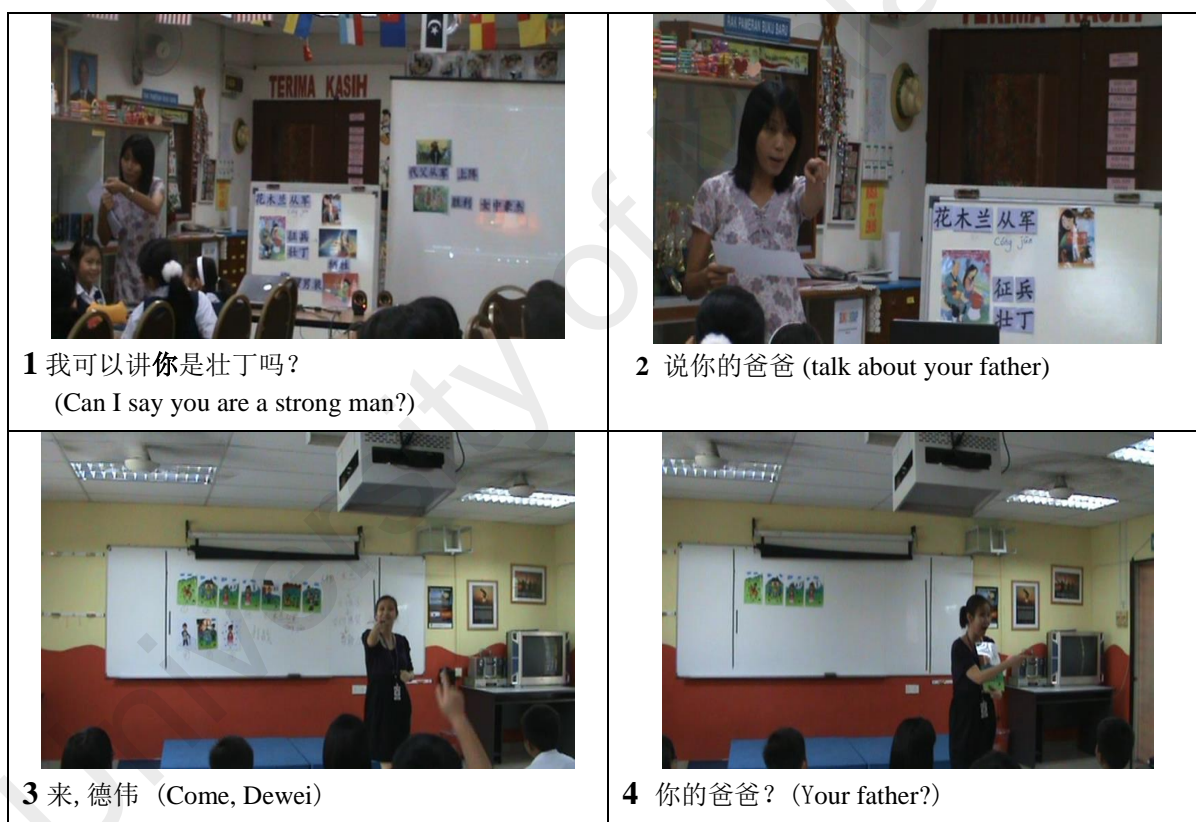
Figure 7.1: Sample of Negative Gestures

7.6   Conclusion

The research findings show that teacher immediacy realised in CSL classrooms are similar to the teacher verbal immediacy (Table 4.9) and nonverbal immediacy frameworks (Table

4.10) in Chapter 4. The teachers in this study remembered their students' names and called them by their names, made use of code-switching between instructional language and learner's familiar language(s) to emphasize clarity and address students' learning needs, indicate closeness among classroom participants by using appropriate address terms that signal inclusiveness [e.g., "我们" (we) vs. "我" (I) or "你/你们" (you)], and frequently praised students' effort. Teachers were willing to engage students in conversation and learning, treated student fairly and equally, and showed concern and care. These were evident from the way teachers arranged their students' seats, the way teachers moved in class, and the way teachers gazed at the students and posed questions while teaching. Besides being concerned about the good students, the four teachers also paid attention to underperforming and less able learners. All these communication approaches are associated with teacher immediacy. However, there were also some non-immediacy behaviours evident in the data, such as teachers use condescending communication, giving negative feedback, threatening a student's face, criticizes or points out faults in students' work or actions. Based on the analysis and discussion above, although there were some non-immediacy behaviours evident in the four classes, it can be concluded that the four teachers are "immediate" teachers. Teacher's immediacy behaviours help to establish good rapport with students and hence create a harmonious classroom learning environment in class. During the interview, the teachers revealed that their relationship with students was close. However, the four teachers believed that in order to control students' discipline; the teacher-student relationship should not be too close either.

The verbal and nonverbal immediacy skills can impel student to like their teacher and hence like the subject matter. With better rapport in the classroom, teachers and students

have a happier and more harmonious classroom experience. A harmonious relationship between teacher and students is a core factor in determining the success of classroom teaching and learning (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992, p. 118). It can also enhance classroom productivity (Richmond, 2002b，p. 65). Therefore, teacher immediacy as presented in the many different modes by CSL teachers can be adopted in classroom teaching to create a harmonious teaching and learning environment. The discussion ends with a quotation from the immediacy specialists (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 277):

> *Immediacy does not mean to "let the student do whatever he or she wants." It means to "be approachable." Immediate teachers can still be firm and set standards.*

CHAPTER 8

THE IMPACT OF INTERPERSONAL MEANING ON CLASSROOM TEACHING AND LEARNING

8.1   Introduction

The discussion in Chapters 6 and 7 indicated that the interpersonal values exchanged in CSL classrooms by means of teacher talk and teacher's body language are primarily for the realisation of teacher's authority (power), the enactment of teacher's roles (as instructor, facilitator, evaluator, motivator, disciplinarian, and value-bearer) and the construct of teacher-student solidarity (via teacher's verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviours). Based on Halliday's notion of metafunction (Halliday, 1994), Hood (2011) argues that "interpersonal meaning refers to the ways in which we exchange values with each other and construct relationships of power and of solidarity" (p. 33). Interpersonal solidarity is "the degree of psychological closeness people perceive between themselves" (Nussbaum & Scott, 1980, p. 554). Data yielded from the present research showed that the teacher's behaviours - control in turn-taking, the amount of talk, choice of mood; appraisal on student's performance and behaviours, excellent memory of student names, deliberate use of the mother tongue in CSL classrooms and appropriate address terms that signal inclusiveness, frequent praise for students' effort, willingness to engage students in conversation and learning, fair and equal treatment of students and display of concern and care for students - were indicators to examine the negotiation of power and establishment of solidarity. Clearly, most of the efforts contributing to good interpersonal values (care, concern, fair, etc.) and relationships (close, intimacy, harmonious, etc.) are initiated by teachers. As the core function of classroom discourse is for the realisation of teaching and learning, the present chapter discusses the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed

in classroom on teaching and learning. The following discussion examines the impact of teachers' enactment of multiple roles，teacher-student relationships and attitudes and judgement on classroom teaching and learning. Related educational theories are also discussed to examine the effect of the teacher's behaviour on students' learning.

8.2   The Impact of the Enactment of Teacher's Roles on Students' Learning

A teacher plays multiple roles in classroom interaction - as an instructor, facilitator, evaluator, motivator, disciplinarian and value-bearer (Hargreaves, 1972, pp. 143-144; see also Chapter 1, Section 1.6 and Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2 of the present thesis). These multiple roles of a teacher in classroom interaction can be seen through the instantiation of various speech acts in teacher talk. The statistics in Table 6.1 of Chapter 6 showed that in terms of turn-taking, the ratio of teachers' turn to students' turn varied from 53% : 47% (3 cases) to 55%: 45% (1 case), confirming that, in terms of turn-taking, the teacher was only slightly dominant in classroom talk, as the difference was not more than 10%. These classroom turn-taking statistics suggest that classroom interaction is active. Brown (2001, p. 159) highlights the importance of language classroom interaction: "Through interaction, students can increase their language stores as they listen to or read authentic linguistic materials, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, students can use all they possess of the language - all they have learned or casually absorbed in real-life exchange. Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language." The following sections discuss the effects of CSL teachers' enactment of multiple roles via classroom interaction on students' learning.

8.2.1 The Teacher as an Instructor

Instruction is the activities that impart knowledge or skill (Vocabulary.com Dictionary). A teacher who is assuming her role as an instructor draws on her authority to plan and organize the content and sequence of a lesson (stages), to regulate the pace of teaching (exchange of turn-taking and duration of talk), as well as to determine who will be invited to participate in learning (participant involvement). The instructor is the centre of teaching and learning in class. Thus, when the teacher assumes the role of instructor in teacher-centred instruction, the teacher is an effective model of the target language and an important source of information on the topic of the lesson for students. The data in Chapter 5 of the present research show how teachers organized lessons in stages and co-deployed various semiotic resources in making meanings. The four tables from Tables 5.1 to Table 5.4 showed the teaching sequence, content, and duration of classes taught by the four CSL teachers to achieve their lesson objectives. Thus, the teachers are seen as enacting their roles as instructors to enhance teaching.

The instructors' co-deployment of verbal and nonverbal resources to convey and explain meanings in classroom has been analysed in Section 6.4.1 of the present thesis. As discussed in Section 6.4.1, teachers often used gestures, facial expressions, body movements, and images displayed in video clips, PPT slides and charts, to help students to understand new words being introduced, such as "骑马" (Riding a horse), "射箭" (Shooting an arrow), "称赞" (To praise), "爱" (love), and "想" (think); or to capture the meaning of some phrases and clauses, such as "把头发绑上来" (Tie her hair up), "弟弟也很小" (Brother was very young), "爸爸很老了" (Father was very old), "可能会随时死掉" (could die any time), "刚开始的时候木兰的爸爸不肯给她去打战。爸爸讲不要。"

(At the beginning, Mulan's father refused to let Mulan joined the army to go to war. Father said, "Don't"); or to focus students' attention on figures, things, and the sequence of actions, for example, "你看她的那个图片啊，你看，你看她的影片。" (Look at the picture of (Mulan), look, watch the movie), "这个"木兰从军"的人物是谁？" (Who is this character in the story of 'Mulan Joins the Army'?), "看前面。那边是词，这边是图。征兵放在这边。" (Look. Right in front is a word; the picture is at the side. Put the words "Zhengbing" here). The teachers linked the language structure (words, writing, reading, phrase, clause, instructional message) to the meaning the structure conveys for students to construct elements in the target language. The analysis in Section 6.4.1 identified the ways in which verbal and nonverbal semiotic resources were used by teachers to play their role as the instructor: giving information, organising teaching materials for students to construct meaning, instructing students to conduct language activities, and so on.

Gesturing is a common nonverbal semiotic resource employed in classroom instruction. It can also be used to teach Chinese pronunciation and intonation in reading. The research data found that Teacher C used a set of specific gestures as "mode of stimulus" to generate the correct reading response. Chinese is a tonal language. A common challenging task for a CSL teacher is the need to repeatedly remind the students to pay attention to the intonation symbols in order to read words using the correct tone. Much effort is required to demonstrate the correct reading. The Chinese *Pinyin* (pronunciation) has four tones and the written symbols for the four tones are " ˉ " to represent first tone, " / " to represent second tone, " ∨ " to represent third tone and " \ " to represent fourth tone (e.g., 妈 mā (mom), 麻 má (hemp), 马 mǎ (horse), mà 骂(scold). There are also other particular elements for students to master in Chinese pronunciation: '送气音 aspirated sound' (p, t, k) and '不送气

音 unaspirated sound' (b, d, g). The classroom observation data showed that while teaching the students to read a new Chinese character, Teacher C often demonstrated the tones by swinging her hand in the air to indicate the symbols of " ¯ ", " / ", " ∨ " and " \ ". Students remembered the intonation of the words by associating them with the teacher's gestures. To indicate the reading of 'aspirated sound', she placed her right hand with the palm up near to her mouth and blew onto her palm. In the interview session with the students, the researcher was told that the use of such gestures in teaching students to read Chinese characters was a common strategy used by Teacher C in teaching the language. Students felt that this teaching approach could help them acquire the Chinese pronunciation and intonation. Figure 8.1 shows how Teacher C reinforced this reading practice.

豪杰 （比调号）
Háojié(Show the reading tone)

不肯，肯（比送气音的手势动作）
Bù kěn，kěn（showing aspirated symbol）
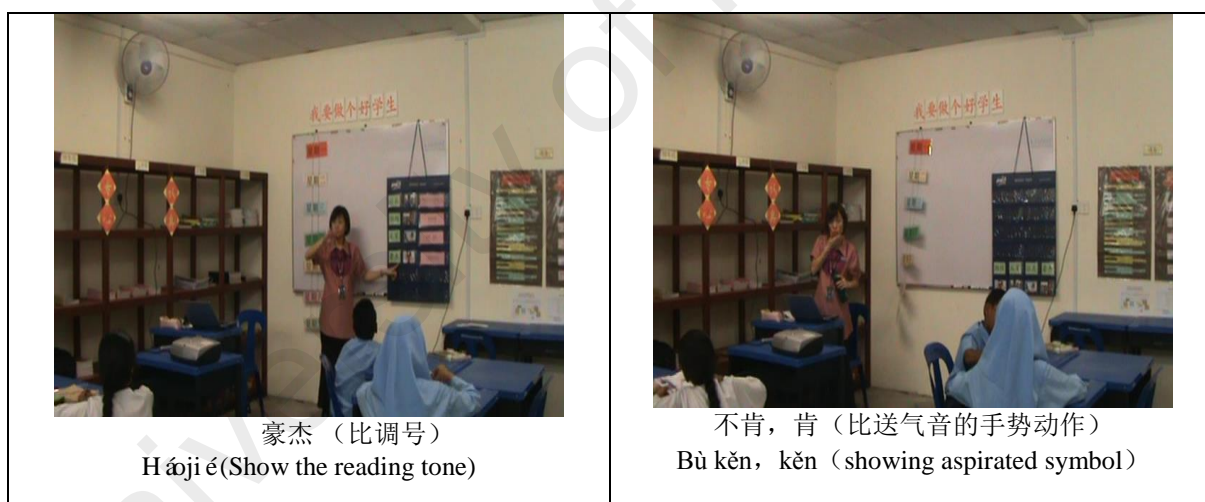
Figure 8.1: Teacher C Leading the Reading Practice by Using Gestures

As an instructor, the teacher serves as a role model "for a vast range of behaviours, from pronouncing words, to reacting to the seizure of a student with epilepsy, to being enthusiastic about learning" (Woolfolk & Margretts, 2013, p. 320). Modeling helps students to imitate the behaviour illustrated to them. For instance, students imitated the correct way to pronounce the Chinese words taught by the teachers. The following

examples in Table 8.1 come from Class C. The instructional moves of Teacher C are revealed by the following utterances, "I want you to read", "Come", "read together", and "Once again".

Table 8.1: Examples of Reading Practice Extracted from Class C

#28	T	:	…接下来，是要你们读一读。刚才我们有学了几个新字。来，这个怎样读？ [Next, I want you to read. We have learned some new words. Come, how do you read this?]
#29	SS	:	征兵（读的不准）。 ["征兵", (Students read the word but the pronunciation is not accurate)]
#30	T	:	来一起读。"征兵"（老师引导 正确的读音）。 [Come, read together. "征兵 Zhengbing"（Teacher teaches the correct pronunciation.]
#31	SS	:	征兵（学生模仿老师的读音） ["征兵" (Students read the phrase by imitating the teacher's reading).]
#32	T	:	它的意思是征集有条件的公民服兵役。 [It means 'enlist qualified citizens for military service']
#33	SS	:	征集有条件的公民服兵役. ["征集有条件的公民服兵役" (Students repeat after the teacher).]
#34	T	:	再来一次。 [Once again.]
#35	SS	:	征集有条件的公民服兵役 ["征集有条件的公民服兵役" (Students repeat the sentence.)]

The teaching strategy was used to teach students to pronounce some Chinese words correctly through imitation and practice. It was clear that the teacher subscribed to the belief that "Practice makes perfect". Such a strategy would enhance the learning of the language.

8.2.2 Teacher as a Facilitator

Facilitation is the act of making learning easy or easier. It is the process of lowering the threshold for acquiring knowledge or skills (Soukhanov, 1992, p. 683). As a facilitator, the teacher tries to alleviate students' anxiety in learning, providing resources and comprehensible input, offering necessary help to students to complete a learning task, and

modifying the level of difficulty for a particular task. The common strategies used by a teacher in the role of a facilitator are rephrasing, repetition, code-switching, resorting to other modes of representation (mode-switching), and making suggestions about how students may proceed in an activity. They are mostly verbal strategies.

To rephrase an idea or question is to express it in an alternative way, so that it is clearer and comprehensible to the hearer. The teacher can rephrase a statement by changing the detail, or the perspective of its original way of representation. The following examples in Table 8.2 illustrate Teacher C's use of rephrasing.

Table 8.2: Examples of Rephrasing Statements of Teacher C

(#7C-#9C):	T：。。。'征兵' 就是'召集有条件的公民去服兵役。'马来文就是 'minta _ ?' [...'conscription' is 'getting qualified citizens to do military service.' To put it in Malay is 'minta _ ?' (call for....)] S：...（没有人回答） [(nobody answers)] T: '*Minta askar*.'(Teacher code switches to Malay) [Conscription of qualified citizens for military service.]
(#16C-#18C):	T：'女装'是什么意思? [What does '女装' (woman's dress) mean?] S：... (没有人回答) [(nobody answers)] T：啊，刚才是'男装'，这是'女装'。(老师指向两张挂图) [Ah, that is a man's dress, this is a woman's dress] (Teacher points to figures in two charts)]

The interactions in #7C-#9C show that Teacher C was teaching two new words '征兵' (conscription). She first explained the meaning of '征兵' in Chinese: '召集有条件的公民去服兵役' (conscription of qualified citizens for military service). After that she invited participants from the class, to complete the sentence "马来文就是 minta _?" (To put it in Malay, it is '*minta .....?*' (getting .....?). However, no student was able to give the answer requested. Later, Teacher C provided the answer in Malay "*minta askar"* (a compulsory

conscription of qualified citizens for military service). For the interactions in #16C-#18C, the teacher posed the question: "'女装'是什么意思？" (What does a "woman's dress" mean?), again, students did not give the answer solicited, Teacher C then provided the antonym of '女装' (woman's dress), that is, '男装' man's dress), and pointed to two figures of Mulan in two charts, one dressed as a soldier and another, dressed as a woman. The explanations showed the employment of the verbal resources of code-switching and use of an antonym, and the use of nonverbal resources, seen in the pictures of Mulan's dressing. By providing explanations in various modes, the teacher is facilitating learning.

In CSL classrooms, students may feel anxious about not being able to give prompt responses to the teacher's questioning, or be fluent enough to express their ideas and feelings in the target language. The classroom observations showed that students were allowed to code-switch when responding to the teacher. Students may resort to code-switching because of limited knowledge of Chinese vocabulary to be able to respond fully in the target language. As non-native speakers, students are allowed to use words in their first languages - Malay or English - to replace Chinese words. Use of code-switching can help them to reduce their level of anxiety when articulating their responses. Anxiety is "a feeling of uneasiness and apprehension about an event because you're not sure what its outcome will be" (Ormrod, 2006, p. 378). In other words, it is the state of worrying about something and thus results in stress. This feeling of uneasiness and tension can be an inhibiting factor in learning.

Section 7.2.3 in Chapter 7 has shown the analysis on teachers' code-switching. From the teacher's interview data, code-switching was revealed as a teaching strategy to facilitate students' learning. For instance, Teacher B said:

> 虽然我们根据课程，可以的话我们是要用全华语，但是我是觉得如果是全华语的话，我的 *objektif* 我的目标不能达标。我用一些国语，我的目标能达标不是更好吗？我是这样想，所以我还是坚持用一些其他的语言来讲解。这样我们会更快达标。
>
> *(The syllabus states that we should teach in only Chinese. But my opinion is if I teach the lesson completely in the target language, I'll not achieve my objectives. I use some Malay to achieve my objectives, isn't that better? This is my view, so I'll continue to adopt the code-switching method in teaching. By doing so, it's easier to achieve the objectives.)*

The attainment of teaching objectives refers to students' ability to understand the content. Clearly, Teacher B had a positive attitude towards using code-switching in teaching. Teacher C and Teacher D's attitudes were similar, as evident from the interviews with the teachers. The three teachers revealed that without using Malay or English, the weaker students could not understand the teaching. They felt that the code-switching method was needed when necessary. Generally, teachers started their lesson with the target language, Chinese, then occasionally, when needed, code-switched from Chinese to Malay or English to explain some of the teaching content, such as new Chinese words or sentences. Often, that involved direct translation from Chinese into the students' first language. Some students interviewed from each class disclosed that the use of code-switching in teaching CSL was very important to facilitate learning, and they saw it as their teacher's way of being understanding of their needs.

Besides using code-switching to facilitate student learning, "mode-switching" is also another alternative to facilitate student learning. An example of mode-switching is the use of semiotic resources other than the linguistic mode (for example, an actional mode) to

allow students' understanding of words instead of only using the verbal mode to explain, for example, a new word. Mode-switching offers the students the opportunity to achieve success, and to promote the establishment of self-efficacy in students. For instance, knowing that the students lacked Chinese vocabulary at the elementary level, Teacher A understood that some students were unable to explain meaning in Chinese for the words "射箭(shooting an arrow)" and "骑马 (riding a horse)". Hence, in order to facilitate acquisition, she asked the students to show their understanding of the two words by demonstrating the relevant actions. Changing from the verbal mode to the actional mode to demonstrate understanding was evident in the following excerpts.

#277A T : 什么是射箭？你不会讲，你做那个动作给我看也可以。
[What is "射箭 (shooting an arrow)"？If you can't say it, you can show me that particular action.]

#278A S : （学生们做动作）
S [(Students demonstrate the action)]

#279A T : 啊，骑马呢？骑马？
[Ah, then how about '骑马 riding a horse'？'骑马'？]

#280A S : （学生们做动作）
S [(Students demonstrate the action)]

Therefore, the use of multilingual (code-switching) and multimodal (mode-switching) resources in teaching and learning has the advantage of making meaning in various forms. CSL teachers should use these resources to facilitate student learning. As a good learning facilitator, the teacher knows best, the learning needs of his or her students. Thus, the teacher's code-switching and mode-switching strategies help to reduce learning anxiety in students, and to lower the level of difficulty in the task. In using these strategies, the teacher was able to foster learning and help less able students to succeed.

Similarly, to facilitate the students' learning, the teacher can also take up the role of prompter. According to Harmer (2001, p. 57), a prompter encourages students to participate in a conversation so that they can proceed with learning. Participating in the CSL conversation offers students the opportunity to practise the target language verbally. The common approach is to provide suggestions on how they may proceed in a conversation or an activity. For instance, when students are at lost for words, confused about what to do next or have lost the thread of what is going on, the teacher can give hints, cues or suggestions to the students to guide them to go forward. However, while providing facilitation, the teacher should be helping students only when necessary. An example was seen when Teacher A used the approach of "giving hints and completing sentences" to help the students fill in the sentences in the given activity with suitable words, phrases, or clauses. This approach encouraged students to use different forms of the target language to respond in words, phrases, and clauses, helping students to "exploit the elasticity of language" (Brown, 2001, p. 159). When using this approach, the teacher sometimes needed to wait for less able students to respond. Table 8.3 displays the ten stimuli presented by the teachers of this study for students to provide input to complete the conversation. In the stimuli, the teachers will provide the initial part of the conversation and students are to complete the sentences in a few words.

A supportive teaching style such as facilitating learning helps students to complete a rather easy task can foster students' interest, enjoyment, engagement and performance in class. However, the success of utilizing such teaching styles is grounded on the teacher's accurate appraisal of her students' potential.

Table 8.3: Examples of Student-Teacher Collaboration to Complete Sentences

1.	…因为她很怕人家知道她是 _ ?
	[... Because she was very afraid that people know…?]
2.	…但是她这个欺骗是因为了帮 _ ?
	[... But such a deception was made because she wanted to help _?]
3.	…她要 _ ?
	[...She wanted to _?]
4.	…哇，他们讲 "哇。。。原来跟我们一起打战了十二年的男孩子是 _ ? ".
	[…Wa, they said, "Wa, the man who was fighting with us for the past 12 years was_?".]
5.	…她代替他的爸爸去 _ ?
	[... She took her father's place to go to _?]
6.	…她就去好好洗澡，然后换上她的 _ ?
	[... She took a bath, then put on her _?]
7.	…她必须 _ ?
	[…She must be _?]
8.	…因为她很 _ ?
	[...... Because she was very _?]
9.	…就是这么多女生当中的 _ ?
	[… _ among girls…?]
10.	… "女中豪杰" 是什么？在女生当中最 _ ?
	[... "A heroine among girls" What does it mean? Among the girls, she was the most _?]

8.2.3 Teacher as an Evaluator

A teacher assuming her role as an evaluator assesses her students' responses and how well students are performing. It involves judging student's academic and behavioural qualities from the ways students present their ideas and actions. Evaluation is also seen through the feedback given to students. The strategies used in evaluation encompass giving prompt correction, asking questions, assigning values for students' responses, and suggesting feasible ways of doing things right or making things look better.

The following examples in Table 8.4 are excerpts from Class B, which show instances when Teacher B assessed a student's sentence construction ability.

Table 8.4: Examples of Teacher B Assessing a Student's Ability to Construct Sentences

(#205B-#206B):	T: 谁可以试一试用"打战"来造句? 来，德韦。
	[Who would like to try to make a sentence with the word "to go to war"? Come, Dewei.]
	S: 木兰的爸爸不可以去打战。
	[Mulan's father was unable to go to war]
(#207B-#210B omitted)	
(#211B-#213B):	T: 来，Siti（学生名）。
	[Come, Siti (student's name)]
	S: 木兰代表爸爸去打战。
	[Mulan went to war, as a representative for her father]
	T: 木兰**代替**爸爸去打战。'代替'，不是'代表'。
	[Mulan went to war, as a substitute for her father 'substitute', not 'representative'.]

In a second language classroom, students are usually asked to make sentences to demonstrate their understanding of particular words. The excerpts above show Teacher B checking on her student's understanding of the word "打战" (to go to war) through a sentence-making activity. Interaction #211B-#213B illustrates the way in which the teacher promptly corrected her student's mistake in sentence making. Teacher B corrected the student's mistake by pointing out that the word '代表' (representative) was incorrect, and replaced it with '代替' (substitute), the correct word to be used.

One reason for asking questions in class is to determine whether the students can cope with the pace of teaching, understand what has been taught, or whether students have mastered the skills taught. Posing questions, judging students' responses, and giving feedback are typical activities carried out by the teacher assuming the role of evaluator. By responding to the teacher's question or request, students have the chance to express their viewpoints, to share their experiences, and to express affect. The examples in Table 8.5 show teachers getting students to give opinions and examples, and Table 8.6 shows students expressing their thoughts on the issue being discussed. The data were extracted from Class A.

Table 8.5: Getting Students to Give Opinions

#77A	T	:	…为什么木兰要去从军？ [Why did Mulan join the army?]
#78A	S	:	代替她的爸爸。 [To replace her father.]
#79A	T	:	Há? [Ha?]
#80A	SS	:	代替她的爸爸。 [To replace her father.]
#81A	T	:	代替她的爸爸。为什么代替她的爸爸？ [To replace her father. Why did she need to replace her father?]
#82A	SS	:	因为她的爸爸老了。 [Because her father was old.]
#83A	T	:	因为她的爸爸懒惰？ [Because her father was lazy?]
#84A	SS	:	老了。老了。 [Old. Old]
#85A	T	:	…为什么木兰她要去？为什么她不叫别人去？木兰有朋友吗？ [Why did she want to go? Why didn't she ask someone else to go? Did Mulan have any friends?]
#86A	SS	:	没有。 [No.]
#87A	T	:	你怎么知道她没有朋友？ [How do you know she did not have any friends?]
→	S	:	（学生笑） (Students laugh)
#87A	T	:	你怎么知道她没有朋友？他有弟弟吗？ [How do you know she did not have any friends? Did she have a younger brother?]
#88A	SS	:	没有。 [No.]
#89A	T	:	没有啊？没有啊？ [No? No?]
#90A	SS	:	有。 [She had.]

Table 8.6: Getting Students to Express Their Thoughts on the Issue being Discussed

#202A	T	:	胜利了过后，…然后当回到家呢，她就怎样？她已经不当兵啦，她要做男人吗？ [After a victory, what did she do after returning home? She was no longer a soldier. Did she still need to dress like a man?]
#203A	SS	:	不要。 [No.]
#204A	T	:	那他回家第一件事情做什么？ [Then, what was the first thing she did after coming back home?]
#205A	S	:	作女生。 [Be a girl.]
#206A	T	:	作女生。（同学笑）。她要 _ ？ [Be a girl (Students laugh). She wanted to__?]

#207A	SS	:	抱她爸爸妈妈。 [Give her father and mother a big hug.]
#208A	T	:	抱她爸爸妈妈。还有呢？还有呢？还有呢？他十二年没有穿过女生的衣服 ye. [Give her father and mother a big hug. What else? What else? What else? She hadn't dressed like a girl for the past twelve years, ye.]
#209A	S	:	换衣服。 [Changed.]
#210A	T	:	换衣服。换什么衣服？ [Changed. What clothes did she change into?]
#211A	SS	:	女孩子的衣服。 [A girl's clothes.]

Clearly, the stretch of the above classroom discussion between teacher and students helped to promote students' cognitive and affective development as students were engaged in critical thinking. The teacher had sometimes given the wrong answers deliberately (#83, #88) to verify whether students were still following what was going on. Verifying responses is a common approach used in evaluation.

During a question-and-answer (Q & A) session, the teacher normally evaluates students' responses promptly and poses new questions to keep the discussion going. It was observed that Malaysian students seemed very passive, and reluctant to take the initiative to give prompt responses. Many of the instances of interaction in Classrooms A, B, C and D indicated that students were reluctant to answer questions posed by the teacher. The research found that many of the teachers' questions generated no response in the classes observed, Classrooms A (17 times), B (20 times), C (3 times) and D (14 times). In order to keep the momentum going, teachers had to repeat the question (# 5A, # 164A, # 194A, # 39B, # 212D), to get students to respond. At times, the approach was effective but at times, it failed to get the students to respond. To fill the silence, teachers often had to answer their own questions (#65A, #69A, #164A, #25B, #7C, #16C, #3D, #11D, #256D), or they used

the imperative mood to ask particular students to answer questions (#25A, #172A, #205B-#206B, #211B-#213B, #243B, #186C, 195C, #210C, #235C, #207D-#209D, #212D). Table 8.7 and Table 8.8 show relevant examples from Classes B and D.

Table 8.7: Examples of Teacher-student Interaction During Q&A Session in Class B

(#25B-#27B):	T：Há? 女孩子. 对，女孩子。然后呢, 怎么样？木兰怎么样？ [Há? A woman. Right, a woman. And then, how? How did Mulan do?] S：（学生不会答） [(No answer from students)] T：忘记了。她扮成男孩子。*Menyamar*, 她扮成男孩子. [Forgot. She dressed like a man. Crossdressed. She dressed liked a man.]
(#39B-#43B):	T：然后呢，这个木兰去想办法。他想到了一个办法。什么办法？ [And then, Mulan thought of a way. She had a brainwave. What was it?] S：（学生不会答） [(No answer from students)] T: 什么办法？ [What idea?] S：（学生不会答） [(No answer from students)] T: 什么办法？ [What idea?]
(#87B-#89B):	T: 这个故事的名字 *tajuk* 叫做木兰什么？ [The name of this story *tajuk (title)* is Mulan, what? S：（没人答） [(No response from students)] T: 看这里，老师站在这里。这个故事的名字叫做木兰＿"木兰从军"（读的慢，重音）。 [Look here, Teacher is standing here. The name of this story is Mulan..."Mulan Congjun" (Mulan joins the army) (teacher reads slowly, accented.)]
(#243B):	T：木兰在打战时很勇敢。对不对？还有呢？Raniah 试一试。站起来试一试。 [Mulan fought bravely in the war, right? Is there anything else? Raniah, try to answer. Stand up and try to answer.

Table 8.8: Examples of Teacher-student Interaction During Q&A Session in Class D

(#3D-#5D):	T：OK 谁是木兰？The answer is…谁是木兰？XX (学生名字), 谁是木兰？ [OK, who was Mulan? The answer is …, who was Mulan? XX(student's name), who was Mulan?] S：(没有人回答) [(No answer)] T：她是一个女孩。 [She was a girl]
(#11D -#13D):	T：Ya 她的弟弟还小。然后她的爸爸怎样？ [Ya, her brother was still young. Then how about her father?] S：(没有人回答) [(No answer)] T：Ha，她的 爸爸老了。 [Ha, her father was old.]
(#207D-#209D):	T：佩茹(学生名字)，什么是骑马射箭？ [Peiru (student's name), what is 骑马射箭(riding and shooting an arrow)] S：Ride then shoot (Student respond in English) T：OK. Ride then shoot. XX (学生名字)， what's the meaning 告诉？XX (学生名字)，什么是告诉？ [OK, then shoot. XX(student's name), What's the meaning of 告诉 (inform)？XX(student's name), what does 告诉 (inform) mean？]
(#212D-#214D):	T：XX (学生名字), 什么是代父从军？什么是代父从军？ [XX(student's name), what is 代父从军 (replaced father to go to war)? what is 代父从军 S：(没学生会答) [(No response)] T：What's the meaning of 父？ [What's the meaning of 父 (father)?]
(#256D-#258D):	T：木兰爱，爱什么？爱什么？ [Mulan loved, loved what? Loved what?] S：(没有人说话) [(no response)] T：爱国。Loved the country. [爱国 (patriotic). Loved the country.]

In some cultures forcing students to respond may be taken as being authoritative and thus lack immediacy. However, "forcing" students to answer questions is common and acceptable in the Malaysian contexts. The teacher who orders students to respond to the question posed is not considered authoritarian, as the "order" is also viewed as an "invitation". Teachers who draw on their authority (power) to get as many students as possible to engage in classroom activities are viewed as teachers who are providing opportunities for more students to get involved in learning. These teachers are seen as using

a "student-centred" approach to teaching. In using this approach, it is important for the teacher to ensure the Q & A session are well organised and questions posed are those that promote critical thinking to enhance learning.

8.2.4 Teacher as a Motivator

According to Moore (2007), there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is what learners bring to the learning environment, which is, their internal attributes - attitudes, values, needs, and personality factors while extrinsic motivation originates outside the individual and is concerned with external, environmental factors that help shape students' behaviours (p. 265). Therefore, a teacher assuming her role as a motivator articulates visions that help to awaken students' learning need or gives students rewards that lead to response strengthening, helping to shape students' personal qualities which are admired by the public. The common strategies to motivate students to learn include those that trigger students' curiosity, those that inform the students the worth and benefits of mastery of something, those that help them to discover the fun and values of knowing something, those that encourage and assist the students to actualize their potential that might be admired by others and society at large, and the like.

The first step to triggering students' curiosity is to attract their attention. Attention is "the process of selecting some environmental input for further information processing" (Schunk, 2004, p. 479). This is important for learning. Students have to focus on teacher talk or the learning activity as instructed by the teacher to acquire information for their formation of concepts, perception, judgement, and imagination. Gagne (1984, p. 246) suggests that gaining the attention of the student is the first step in successful instruction. Hence, a

qualified teacher must first be able to gain the students' attention. The data in the present study showed that CSL teachers employed several strategies to attract students' attention. The resources used by teachers to attract attention were either verbal, nonverbal, or the co-deployment of the two. The following are two examples of the use of the verbal and nonverbal resources to attract students' attention.

A) Calling a student's name to attract the student's attention: During the interview with the teachers and students, the researcher was told that teachers recognized every student and knew all their names. Teachers always called out students' names when they wanted students to pay attention or answer questions, or to behave appropriately in class.

B) The use of deitic gestures: A deitic gesture refers to the use of the index finger or palm to point to an object. This form of nonverbal communication is usually the first step in introducing something new, for example, when the teacher points to a new word, or to highlight something, or when the teacher points to a figure in a picture or in a movie that the class is discussing. The statistics in Table 6.23 (in Chapter 6) show that the four teachers used a lot of deitic gestures in their teaching. The frequency and percentage of the gestures used by each teacher for Class A, B, C and D were 28(40%), 44(29%), 33(35%) and 13(25%) respectively. The students from Class A and Class D who were interviewed revealed that their teacher always pointed to the new words on the whiteboard while teaching and they believe this gesture was used to draw students' attention to what the teacher was teaching. Samples of deitic gestures used by the teachers are shown in Figure 8.2.

| 这个我们叫战场，打战的地方 (**This** is what we call battlefield, a place of war) | 这个木兰从军的人物是谁？ (Who is **this character** in the military?) |

Figure 8.2: Samples of Deitic Gestures

Another example of motivation to encourage students to enhance or at least to maintain their good academic and behavioural qualities is to praise the students for their excellent participation and good behaviour in class. The praise can be realized in verbal and nonverbal forms. The verbal praise includes the use of compliments and encouraging statements such as "很厉害" (excellent), "好" (good), "全部都对啊, 很好啊。"(All correct, very good), "进步了很多" (you have improved a lot), and sometimes in English: "good", "very good", "congratulations", "well-done" or in Malay "tahniah" (congratulations). A teacher's praise is an effective tool to motivate students in learning. It allows the teacher to selectively encourage different aspects of student production or output. For example, the teacher may use praise to commend students for their efforts, accuracy, or to boost the student's performance. The nonverbal praise includes showing a "thumbs-up" gesture, smiling at students or giving encouraging look; or giving the students a round of applause, incentives and rewards. Rewards include symbolic tokens like grades, marks and titles; and materials like icons, money and presents. Applauding is a popular extrinsic motivation used by teacher to motivate students to learn.

Students learn from the society that receiving applause from the floor is taken as an appreciation of one's good performance or ideas. As such, giving the student a round of applause not only satisfies students' psychological need for recognition, but it also helps them to develop the drive for success in future attempts. Students who have performed well and received recognition from their teachers and friends develop interest in the subject and the teacher. For instance, Teacher C frequently showed appreciation for students' good performance by applauding. When a student performed well in the class activities, sometimes Teacher C led the class to give a round of applause to encourage the student or sometimes Teacher C asked the students to applaud their friends. Besides applauding, Teacher C also used the "thumbs-up" gesture to compliment her students' good performance. "Applauding" and giving the "thumbs-up" gesture are semiotic resources employed to show appreciation for the students' good performance. Three examples of Teacher C showing appreciation through applauding are given in Table 8.9. In #52C, Teacher C asked students to applaud their friend; in #185C, Teacher C led the class in applauding and in Figure 8.3, Teacher C asked the students to applaud their peer, Marina, for a good attempt.

Table 8.9: Examples of Teacher C Leading Students in Giving A Round of Applause for a Student

#52C	T	:	啊 *Mengorbankan*。好，给 B一个掌声. (学生鼓掌) [Ah, *Mengorbankan* (Sacrifice). Good, give B a round of applause. (Students clapping hands]
#185C	T	:	对。给Nadiah一个掌声（老师领先鼓掌, 学生跟着鼓掌） [Right, Give Nadiah a round of applause (Teacher led the clapping of hands, other students followed)]

来给 Marina 一个掌声

［Come, give Marina a round of applause］

Figure 8.3: Giving a Round of Applause as an Extrinsic Motivation

Woolfolk and Margetts (2013, p. 354) hold that providing incentives and rewards through presents, marks, stars, stickers, and other reinforcements for learning is an attempt to motivate students by extrinsic means. In the interview, the students of Class B revealed that apart from the verbal praise given by their teacher; they really liked the stickers given by the teacher. Sometimes Teacher B also drew stars in their exercise books as a sign of praise. Students Class C disclosed that Teacher C also drew stars or stamped "well-done" on their exercise books or gave small presents to students. For students from school A, in addition to verbal praise, a student said that she liked the teacher patting her shoulder when saying 'you are right'. The students of high ability from Class A and D disclosed that they had received presents from their teacher as a token of encouragement. Various forms of reinforcement would certainly have an impact as they act as motivators for learning.

8.2.5 Teacher as a disciplinarian

Students are obliged to follow the many rules and regulations set by the school and teachers. Students are punished if they do not obey these rules and regulation. A teacher assuming her role as a disciplinarian uses the rules and regulations to manage the class, keep order,

and ensure students' security. Sometimes, the teacher needs to mete out punishment to students who have violated school regulations. Generally, while assuming the role of disciplinarian, the teacher must first inform students of rules and regulations, the need to do what is right, and what action or punishment will be taken against students who are found to have disobeyed the rules and regulations. The punishment is intended to instill and strengthen students' discipline by ensuring that they adhere to rules and regulations. The data in the present study showed that teachers were also disciplinarians in their classrooms. The following example shows that students were taught to respect the teacher's power in controlling students' turn-taking when participating in the learning activities set up by the teacher. It is well known to Malaysian students that teachers have the authority to control turn-taking in class and decide which student would be allowed to assume the turn to talk or do things. This authority puts the teacher in control of the classroom conversation and learning activities. It was clear that the students in the classes observed had been taught to raise their hands to attract the teacher's attention and to let the teacher decide who would be allowed to participate in a conversation or learning activity. The following conversations in Class A exemplify this fact (Table 8.10).

Table 8.10: Students were Requested to Raise Their Hands Before Talking

#18 A	T	:	OK 如果我们要说话，我们先什么？ 先什么？ 先什么？ [OK, if we want to talk, what should we do first? What first? What first?]
#19A	SS	:	举手 [Raise our hands]
#20 A	T	:	先什么？ [What first?]
#21A	SS	:	举手 [Raise our hands]
#22 A	T	:	要说话先举手。 [Whoever wants to say something should raise her/ his hand first]

Sometimes, the teacher raised her hand to remind the students to raise their hands before answering her question. Figure 8.4 illustrates this practice.

| 谁可以猜？ 告诉我 | 谁可以告诉我？ |
| [Who can guess? Tell me.] | [Who can tell me?] |
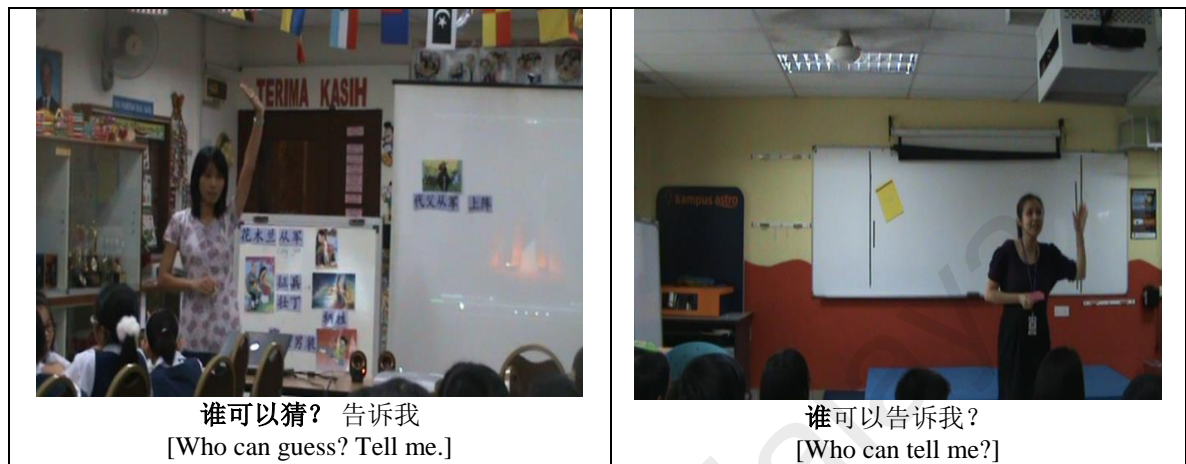
Figure 8.4: Teachers Reminding Students to Raise Their Hands Before Answering Questions

Students making unnecessary noise can affect the teaching and hence are made to stop doing so. To control student discipline in class, Teacher A placed her index finger on her mouth for a moment and then pointed her index finger to the ceiling, holding it for a while (Figure 8.5). It was a symbolic action to order students to keep quiet. Teacher A told the researcher during the interview that school teachers were used to employing this gesture to control students. She said when students were noisy, she only needed to stand in front of the students, place her index finger on her mouth and hold that gesture for a moment and then raise her hand, to indicate to the students to keep quiet. She said that everybody in her school knew the meaning of this gesture.

(噤声动作)
(Showing 'be quiet' sign)
Figure 8.5: Teacher A Showing a "Be Quiet" Sign

Classroom discipline is important to learning. Malaysian students who are not paying attention to the teacher's teaching are disruptive, and they may be punished by the teacher. The research data showed teachers used the nonverbal resources listed below to indicate to particular students that she was aware that they were not paying attention.

A. Staring at students to get students' attention: According to Moore (2007, p. 176), direct eye contact or a stare can also be used to change behaviour. He holds that a stare used in conjunction with silence can be quite useful in getting the attention of misbehaving or inattentive students. During the interview, teachers revealed that sometimes they stared at students who were not paying attention or who were noisy in class. For example, during a class, it was observed that once, Teacher A stopped talking abruptly and stared at a particular student who had misbehaved in order to gain the student's attention. Other students looked at the direction of teacher's gaze to look at the particular student. The signal sent by the teacher through the gaze can generate a powerful warning. Data from the interviews with teachers and students confirmed that the 'staring' strategy was a regular nonverbal action used by the teachers for classroom management. Students identified by

the gaze will realize their wrongdoing and then promptly behave themselves. This type of gazing is a non-immediate behaviour, but it helps teachers to control classroom discipline.

B. Pausing to attract students' attention: Silence is meaningful in human interaction, particularly in attracting attention. A pause is a sudden stop of a flow of talking or action. A pause can trigger people's curiosity, and thus forcing people to pay attention to the speaker to find out what has happened. By pausing, the speaker attracts the attention of others and can use the opportunity to make a request or prohibit others from doing something. The discussion in subsection A (in page 293) indicated the pause was used to attract students' attention, that is, when Teacher A suddenly stopped talking and stared at a particular student who had misbehaved, causing the student to turn his attention to the teacher's teaching. Therefore, even though disciplinarians can be considered as non-immediate individuals, keeping order in class actually provides a conducive environment for learning to take place.

8.2.6 Teacher as a Value-bearer

As a value-bearer, a teacher shapes students' character, teaching them to be self-disciplined. Students are taught to obey rules, which are essential for personal development and social interaction, and helping students stay on track and do what is right in the eyes of society. These behaviours are continuously shaped by informal and formal education and regulated by social norms and regulations. When students possess the ability to control and motivate themselves to stay on track and do what is right, the students are said to have self-discipline. According to Bear (2010), "self-discipline is seen in socially and morally responsible behavior that is motivated primarily by intrinsic factors, not solely by the anticipation of external rewards or fear of punishment". He also claims that "self-discipline promotes

positive relations with others and a positive school climate, fosters academic achievement, and promotes self-worth and emotional well-being" (Bear, 2010, S4H18). Therefore, for shaping good behaviour, teachers need to remind the students what to do and what not to do from time to time. Besides imparting knowledge, teachers should focus on developing self discipline in students. As can be seen from the examples in Section 8.2.5, the CSL teachers tried very hard to develop this trait in the students.

A teacher assuming her role as value-bearer attempts to develop good values and attitudes in students and helps her students to discover themselves. Attitude is "a relatively enduring evaluative reaction to other individuals, situations or objects, which may be positive or negative (Dorland's Medical Dictionary for Health Consumers, 2007). Hence, attitudes can be seen from one's disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards things like ideas, objects, persons, and situations. Attitudes are closely related to one's opinions and beliefs, and they can also be shaped by exposure to values that serve as guiding principles for performing some behaviour. For instance, politeness principles inform the practice of showing respect for teachers or elderly persons, showing gratitude after getting help from others, and so forth. To help young children to develop positive attitudes, for example, being grateful, patriotic and responsible, the teacher should assume the role of value-bearer in classroom. The following example in Table 8.11 shows how Teacher C tried to instill love for one's parents and country through the story of Mulan. The teacher informed the students that Mulan was a very filial and patriotic girl who had made sacrifices for her father and fought for her country for twelve years. By drawing attention to these traits, the teacher wanted students to emulate Mulan's values and positive traits of loving her parents and country. This attempt made by Teacher C was captured in the excerpt shown in Table 8.11. This provides an indirect impact on learning as developing

good values like being disciplined and being respectful of teacher can enhance positive

attitude towards learning.

Table 8.11: How Teacher C Instilled Good Values in Students through the Story of Mulan

#20C	T:	花木兰有什么值得我们学习？……来，谁会答？ [What can we learn from Mulan?.......come, who can answer?]
#21C	S:	*Menghormati ibu bapa* [*Menghormati ibu bapa* (Respect our parents)]
#22C	T:	*Menghormati ibu bapa* 华语叫什么？华语叫 _孝顺。我们一起读"孝顺"。 [What we do we say "*Menghormati ibu bapa*" in Chinese? The Chinese say, "**孝顺 (filial piety)**". Let's say, "孝顺".]
#23C	SS:	孝顺 [孝顺 (Students read all together)]
#24C	T:	……花木兰怎样孝顺父母？她牺牲自己，穿上男装。然后 _ 她代父从军，所以说她很孝顺。还有吗？还有什么？还有什么值得我们学习的？ [……How did Mulan show filial piety to her parents? She made sacrifices, by wearing the men's clothing. Then, she went to war as a substitute for her father. So she was very filial. Anymore? Anymore? What else can we learn from her?]
#25C	S:	*Sayang negara.* [*Sayang negara* (Love our country)]
#26C	T:	**爱国家**. 好，一起读"爱国家"。 [**Love our country**. Good. Let's say altogether "爱国家".]
#27C	SS:	爱国家 [爱国家 (Students read together)]
#28C	T:	你看，花木兰怎样爱国家？他为国家从军十二年是不是非常爱国的 ho？所以**我们也要像花木兰一样孝顺爸爸妈妈，要爱国家** ho。… [You see, how Mulan loved her country? She joined the military to fight for her country for 12 years. She was very patriotic, wasn't she? So, **we should be like Mulan, we must love our parents, and love our country.**]

It can be seen from the interaction that teachers not only brought their knowledge and skills

to the classroom but they also attempted to instill good values in their students.

8.3   Teacher-students' Relationship and Its Impact on Teaching and Learning: Data from Interviews

The interview data from the interviews with the teacher and students from each class were

examined for insights into the ways in which the teacher-student relationship was

established and perceived. During the interview, Teacher A disclosed that her relationship

with the students in her CSL class was good. However, out of the six students who were

interviewed, two students replied that they enjoyed a good relationship with their teacher, another three students said that their relationship with the teacher was "average", and one student revealed that she did not feel close to the teacher. It was clear to the researcher that both parties perceived the relationship differently. Interview data from Class A also showed that both the teacher and the students were aware that it was important to have a close teacher-student relationship as it would affect the teaching and learning in class. Teacher A further added that a good teacher-student relationship would encourage the students to consult the teacher if they had any questions, and heed the teacher's advice.

For Class B, only 50% of the students interviewed revealed that their relationship with Teacher B was close. Teacher B said that she was close to only a few students who were good in the subject. The less able students were not close to her，and they were afraid of her. Teacher B also said that students who were not doing well in the subject normally did not like the subject matter. They attended the class and left the class immediately after class ended. Both teacher and students of class B agreed that a close relationship was important for students to have a positive attitude towards the target language. According to them, a close relationship could improve students' learning and motivate students to learn the language. They also said that students who were close to the teacher had the courage to ask the teacher if they had problems in learning.

Teacher C told the researcher that her relationship with her students was quite good. All the students interviewed (S13, S14, S15, S16 and S17) also agreed that they enjoyed a very close relationship with the teacher. The teacher and students disclosed that a good teacher–student relationship would positively impact the teaching and learning of the subject matter.

All the students interviewed loved learning Chinese. They said that they liked the teacher and her teaching was good. If students could not understand the lesson, the teacher would explain in Malay and she would not easily get angry. Teacher C shared her experience and explained that, in order to establish good interpersonal relationship with students, she employed the following strategies for building rapport with students: (1) praise/encourage students' good work; (2) when punishing students, explain to them why they were punished; (3) pay attention to students; and (4) remember students' names.   Teacher C said by doing these, students were happy as they believed that their teacher cared for them, and in return, they would respect the teacher.

The students interviewed from class D (S18, S19 and S20) said that they enjoyed a close relationship with their CSL teacher.   They also explained that a good teacher-student relationship would motivate students to learn better, and they would pay more attention and enjoy the learning process. Teacher D's views on the impact of a close teacher-student relationship on teaching and learning were very different from those of other teachers and students. She believed that the teacher-students relationship had no influence on students' motivation to learn the Chinese language. In order to maintain control of the class, she asserted that the teacher-student relationship should not be too close.

From the discussion above, the following conclusion can be drawn. Firstly, overall, the teacher-student relationship in the four CSL class was good. Secondly, except for Teacher D, all the other three teachers and all the students interviewed were aware of the importance of a close teacher-student relationship on classroom teaching and learning. They agreed that the close relationship would give a positive impact on teaching and learning. These findings are in line with the results of Martin's (2010) study. Martin (2010) found that the

298

teacher-student relationship had a great impact on students' motivation, engagement, behaviour and emotion in the academic context. The results of the study suggest that "high quality teacher-student relationships are associated with greater self-belief, valuing of school, learning focus, study management, persistence, class participation, enjoyment of school, positive academic intentions, personal excellence striving" (pp.184-185). The following section will discuss how the teacher-student relationship and teachers' attitude influenced the teaching and learning in CSL classrooms, as can be seen from the research data.

8.4 The Impact of Teacher-student Relationship on Teaching and Learning: Data from Classroom Video Recording

During classroom interaction, a teacher drawing on her institutional authority to do something often intentionally and unintentionally exerts her power on students, and the reaction of students to teacher's exertion of power can impact solidarity between the teacher and students. Demonstration of teacher's power and establishment of solidarity, verbally and nonverbally, occurs in many ways in classroom interaction. When teachers perform their multiple roles as instructor, facilitator, evaluator, motivator, disciplinarian, and value-bearer, they employ two nonverbal resources, the temporal organisation (the use of time parameters) and the proxemics (the use of space), to establish solidarity between the teacher and students. Interpersonal interaction is regulated in the context of space and time. The time parameters include the frequency, duration and sequence of the presentation of verbal and nonverbal acts (Bolotova, 2012, p. 289). This temporal organisation of the structure of classroom interaction (the frequency, sequence and duration of utterances, facial expressions, gestures, postures, physical proximity between each interactant) conveys interpersonal meaning, for instance, not paying attention, getting the right amount of

encouragement, sufficient care, and the like. How these interpersonal meanings were negotiated was discussed in Chapters 6 and 7. The interpersonal meaning of the teacher's role enactment and solidarity establishment has impacts on teaching and learning, as can be seen from the discussion that follows.

8.4.1 The Realisation of Teacher's Power through the Use of Time Parameters and Their Impact on Teaching and Learning

From the dimension of turn-taking, Section 8.2 has shown that the exchange of turn-taking very frequently happened between the teacher and students in all classes. The percentage of turn-taking between the teacher and students in each class was not much different, which was not more than 10%. This figure suggests that classroom interaction was active. However, it does not mean students had equal opportunity to talk. In fact, the teacher is the most powerful person in the class. The duration and amount of talk for the teacher was much longer compared to that of the students. From the dimension of the amount of talk, the data showed that teacher talk occupied 80-90% of total classroom talk (refer Table 6.1 in Section 6.2.1), suggesting that the teaching was "teacher-centred" rather than "student-centred". The present research defines "student-centredness" as the duration of time for the students to learn in a group or for students to participate in designed learning activities, "teacher-centredness" teaching focuses on teacher talk, with little participation from students. Table 8.12 shows the distribution of time in the classes observed.

Table 8.12：The Distribution of Teacher/Student-Centred Teaching and Learning Time

Teacher	Teacher-centered: Total Time in minutes and percentages	Student-centered Total Time in minutes and percentages	Total Teaching Time in minutes and percentages
A	26.89 (80%)	6.5 (20%)	33.39 (100%)
B	25.05 (61%)	16.0 (39%)	41.05 (100%)
C	11.0 (36%)	19.18 (64%)	30.18 (100%)
D	16.87 (68%)	8 (32%)	24.87 (100%)

Like space, time is also viewed as a nonverbal resource. It is also important to explore the use of time to negotiate meaning (Bolotova, 2012, p. 289). It was found that only Teacher C had allocated sufficient time for students to participate in group activities and designed learning activities, but the other three teachers of A, B and D spent most of their teaching time on teaching activities clearly dominated by them and students' participation was limited. Regarding the amount of talk, a reason for less student talk could be attributed to the students' inability to express their ideas in the target language. Based on teachers' experience, when students have difficulty speaking in Chinese, they talk less. In the classes observed, the practice of teacher-centred instruction (from the dimension of amount of talk) in CSL teaching could be deliberate, to keep the lesson going. The learners of CSL are non-native speakers of Chinese without any previous knowledge of the target language. There is a need for teachers in these classrooms to talk more, in order to deliver the content, and to teach students the language skills. Therefore, teacher-centred instruction adopted by the teachers was acceptable.

8.4.2 The Realisation of Teacher's Power through the Use of Space and Its Impact on Teaching and Learning

Besides talk and allocation of time, the power of the teacher can also be manifested through the teacher's authority over space utilisation, namely, the teacher's movements and the arrangement of the furniture in the class. According to Kress et al. (2005), the classroom layout can be seen as "an expression of the teacher's preferred spatial and social relations with the students." Classroom layout includes classroom furniture and seating arrangement. Findings on classroom furniture, the teacher's classroom movements and student seating arrangement have been discussed at length, in Section 6.3.5.2 in Chapter 6 and Section 7.3.6 in Chapter 7 respectively. The present section will discuss the impact of the use of space on classroom teaching and learning.

Teachers not only control the right to speak, but also the right of movement in classrooms. Cazden (1988, p. 54) asserts that "teachers have the right to speak at any time and to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt any speaker; they can speak to a student anywhere in the room and in any volume or tone of voice." This observation applies to classroom movement. Teachers enjoy the right to move around the room and stop moving at any time. They decide when to approach students and to stay away, and they have the right to order students to move to specific locations, including the teacher's desk. Experience tells students that the teacher's desk is the teacher's territory, and students do not invade this space. In contrast to the teacher's control over the use of space, students do not enjoy the right to move and approach anybody freely. During the duration of a lesson, students must be seated at a place determined by the teacher and no movement is allowed. Students also are prohibited from approaching other students without the teacher's permission. The teacher's complete authority over the use of space in class helps to keep

classroom discipline, and this form of classroom management enables her to accomplish the teaching objectives.

Personal space, first introduced by Hall (1966), concerns interpersonal distance between people. Its alignment is determined by distance - whether the communicator is perceived as being close or distant. From the classroom observations, as facilitator, on a number of occasions, Teacher C approached students to offer the necessary help. This move of approaching students to offer help can promote rapport between the teacher and her students. As held by Andersen and Andersen (2005, p. 114), "distance can be both an indication and a cause of closer interpersonal relationships". It does not mean every time after assigning work to students, the teacher needs to move around to get close to students to facilitate learning. However, when the teacher does so, it will foster closer ties between the teacher and the students over time. Proxemics is a powerful nonverbal resource for enhancing interpersonal closeness between interactants if used wisely. Teachers should make the most of this resource to promote classroom solidarity.

8.4.3 The Impact of Teacher's Attitude and Judgement on Classroom Teaching and Learning

Teachers' evaluation of and judgement on student learning and performance produce both positive and negative results. The positive and negative feedback on students certainly will affect the establishment of classroom solidarity and motivation for learning. To promote rapport, the teacher needs to be impartial when giving feedback, and show sensitivity and support. Feedback is "[i]nformation learners receive about the accuracy or appropriateness of their responses and work….Feedback allows learners to assess the accuracy of their background, knowledge, and it gives them information about the validity of their

303

knowledge construction" (Eggen & Kauchak, 2004, p. 476). Feedback is part and parcel of evaluation and appraisal, made by the teacher on students' potential and performance. Practice with feedback allows students "to form associations, recognize cues automatically, and combine small steps into larger condition~action rules or productions" (Woolfolk & Margetts, 2013, p. 274). Positive feedback can motivate students to engage in learning and making efforts. An example of positive feedback is teacher talk that makes students want to try harder. Negative feedback like criticism is considered as non-immediate verbal behviour which would inhibit learning. Feedback can also be used as a tool to motivate or demotivate the students. Therefore, the effectiveness of a teacher can be seen through the kind and choice of feedback she gives to her students. The following subsections discuss how various forms of teachers' positive and negative feedback affect teaching and learning.

8.4.3.1 The Impact of Positive Feedback on Teaching and Learning

Examples given in Table 8.13 below constitute classroom discourse extracted from Class A. They include feedback given by Teacher A, based on her appraisal of her student's potentials. All selected feedback is marked as positive feedback. It provides students with emotional support to make them see that they can be successful at the task.

Table 8.13: Teacher A Demonstrating Her Faith in Students

#35A	…知道站起来讲。**对错都没有关系的**。… [Who **knows**? Stand up and **answer** if you know it. **It does not matter whether it is right or wrong**…]
#256A	站起来大大声跟大家讲，起来讲。**什么都好**。 [Stand up and speak up, get up and talk. **Anything is fine**]
#313A	。。。这个**生字**你要看一下，因为等一下我们有一个**活动卷**，你要做。你要**句子重组**。**没有很难，你都可以做的**。 [You need to pay attention to this **vocabulary** because later we'll have a **learning activity**, which you'll need to do. You'll have to **re-structure the sentences**. It is **not difficult. You can do it**.]
#314A	**你都可以做的**。OK **你都可以做的**。。。 [**You can do all of them**. OK, **You can do all of them**.]

Feedback #35A shows the teacher encouraging and reassuring students, while #256A shows the teacher reassuring students that all answers were acceptable. Feedback #313A shows the teacher drawing attention to vocabulary needed for a task, and the teacher reassuring them that the task was manageable. Feedback #314A again shows the teacher repeatedly reassuring the students that they could do the task, and indirectly allaying their fears, and building their confidence. The four examples were the positive feedback given in the classes observed. Reassuring students "you can do all of them" encourages students to continue trying and not to give up (Moore, 2007, p. 212). Belief in "I can do it" can enhance a student's self-confidence. When the student's self-confidence is enhanced, it is likely that the student will like the subject and the teacher, and the learning outcomes will be achieved.

8.4.3.2 Using Indication of Support for Student's Response to Enhance Student's Self-efficacy

Indication of support for a student's response is also a kind of positive feedback. Affirmation of student's response can be indicated by using words like "good", "right", "you are right", "it can be accepted", and so on. It can also be shown by the nonverbal action of nodding or showing the thumbs-up sign. The following shows the moments Teacher A indicates her affirmation with the students' correct responses (refer to Table 8.14).

Table 8.14: Examples of Teacher's Affirmation of Student's Responses

#100 T	:	为什么你不可以去打战？
		[Why can't you fight in the war?]
#101 S	:	因为我们还小.
		[Because we are young]
#102 T	:	因为你还小。**对啊**。
		[Because you are young. **Right**]
#103 S	:	女孩子.
		[We are girls]
#104 T	:	因为女孩子。**也可以啊**。
		[Because you are girls. **That's also acceptable**]

In these examples, the teacher used the words "right" and "That is also acceptable" to indicate student's responses were correct and acceptable. Clearly her actions were aimed at encouraging the students. Figure 8.6 below shows a nonverbal way of acknowledging a student's good performance. Teacher C did not say anything, but gave a thumbs-up, after the students had responded, and the students concerned smiled after receiving the affirmation. The sign was a nonverbal action to praise students. Students respond to positive feedback from their teacher by liking the teacher and enjoying the class.

Figure 8.6: Teacher showing the "Thumbs-up" Sign

8.4.3.3 The Impact of Negative Feedback

Positive feedback is motivating while negative feedback may trigger negative affect among students and dampen students' enthusiasm for learning. Some examples of negative feedback data extracted from the discourse of Class A are shown in Table 8.15 below.

Table 8.15: Samples of Non-immediate Verbal Behaviour

Turn	Teacher		Teacher Talk
#5	A	:	第几课？不知道？忘记了？ [What chapter? Don't know? Forgot?]
#25	A	:	谁可以告诉我？站起来，大大声的跟人家讲这是什么？**没有人敢啊**。Há ,谁敢讲？举手啊（教师举起手）！**没有人敢啊**！E-Ann, E-Ann 没有看过，对吗？ [Who can tell me? Stand up; say to the class what this is about? **No one dares**? Ha, who is brave enough to speak? Raise your hand (The teacher raised her hand)! **No one dares**! E-Ann, E-Ann, none of you have seen it? Have you?]
#45	A	:	不会读啊？会读吗？ [Ah, Can't read? Can you?]
#62	A	:	**不懂 hó?不懂 hó** （重音）？ [**Don't know ? Don't know?** (stressed in a high-pitched voice)]

Turn 5 (#5A) shows Teacher A blaming the students for not being able to answer her question, #45A shows Teacher A being unhappy with the student's reading performance. In Turn 25 of Class A, Teacher A commented negatively on students' lack of response. The lack of response could be attributed to several reasons: (a) The students didn't know the answer, (b) They were not willing to answer, or (c) They dared not answer. However, the teacher should have avoided making negative comments on her students' behaviour, especially when the comments were not accompanied by constructive suggestions. Another example of a non-immediate behaviour is in Turn 62 of Class A, when Teacher A used a high-pitched voice to repeatedly ask students to answer her question. This expression of annoyance is a paralanguage signal, indicative of a non-immediate behaviour and should be avoided.

Interpersonally, such feedback passes negative judgement on students' performance. As educators, teachers should bear in mind that laughing at students or showing disbelief, or predicting failure, can trigger students' negative emotions. Students' self-confidence may be shattered by these insensitive remarks, which in turn may result in students developing a dislike for the subject and the teacher.

8.4.3.4 The Impact of Teacher's Non-Immediate Verbal Behaviours on Teacher/student Solidarity and Student Learning

Table 8.16 shows some non-immediate verbal samples extracted from Class A and Class B. They were criticisms, irritation and impatience expressed by Teacher A and B. In Turn 18 of Class A, Teacher A repeated her command several times. She was waiting for the students to respond to the question she had asked, but students failed to respond even when she had waited for slightly more than a minute, as they were still searching for the answer. The repetition of the command made by Teacher A drew attention to her impatience. Lack of tolerance or patience is a non-immediate behaviour (Richmond et al., 2008).

Table 8.16: Samples of Non-immediate Verbal Behaviour

Turn	Teacher		Teacher Talk
#18	A	:	课本关起来。课本关起来。课本关起来。不要碰。关起来。关起来。课本的皮都关起来，不要碰 ha. 还有没有朋友还在打开课本的？有没有朋友还在打开课本的？ [**Close the text book. Close the text book. Close the text book. Don't touch it. Close it. Close it. Close the cover of the book too. Don't touch** ha. Are your friends' books still open? Are your friends' books still open?]
#164	A	:	就是说她代替他的爸爸。她爸爸没有去，她去。她"代父"，"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？"父"是什么意思？你不知道啊？父亲, 什么是父亲？ [It means that she would replace her father. Her father did not go. She went instead. She was replacing her father（"代父"）. What is the meaning of "父" (father)? (Then **the teacher repeated the same question 9 times** and still no answer was given). What? **Don't you know what "父亲" (father) means?** What is "父亲"?]

#194	A		她要什么？她要什么？**há?** 讲话大声一点。她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？她要什么？今天这样安静，平时就很吵。她要什么？谁可以跟我讲？谁可以很勇敢地站起来讲？没有人讲啊？谁可以勇敢讲？站起来大大声讲（老师提高声量）。 [**What does she want? What does she want? há?** Speak up (Stress ↑). **What does she want? What does she want? What does she want? What does she want?** Today she's very quiet, usually very noisy. **What does she want?** Who can tell me? Stand up; say to the class what this thing is about? **No one dares**? Ha, who dares to speak? Stand up and speak loudly! (**The teacher repeated the same question 7 times**)]
#336-#338	A	:	什么是"上征"？ [What is"上征"？]
	Student A	:	En, En… En, En 。"上征"是 _ 上去战场打战。 [En, En,"上征" is go to the battlefield and fight.]
#248-#249	Student B	:	来发不勇敢。 [Lai Fatt is not brave.]
		:	来发，**他讲你不勇敢。** [Lai Fatt, **he said that you are not brave**.]

Many similar incidents as seen in turn #18A were found in Class A. The most typical ones were Turn 164 and Turn 194 when the teacher showed her impatience by repeating the question "**父是什么意思?**" (What's the meaning of 'father'?) nine times, and the question "她要什么？" (What does she want?) seven times. Despite this, no response was obtained from the students as the teacher's displeasure might have discouraged the students from answering her question. These turns show that it is crucial to avoid non-immediate behaviours in negotiating meaning in communication.

In Turn #336 - #338, Teacher A asked a student what the word "上征" meant. However, the student was unable to answer and instead responded with "En, En…". Teacher A then imitated what the student had said "En, En". Later she provided the meaning of the word "上征", which means "go to the battlefield to fight". The teacher's imitation of the

student's response may have embarrassed the student, and threatened the student's face. Therefore, teachers should avoid this behaviour in interpersonal communication.

In Turn 249 of Class B, in response to the teacher's instruction of constructing a sentence using the word "勇敢" (brave), a student made the sentence "来发不勇敢。(Lai Fatt is not brave)". In this case, Lai Fatt was the name of another student in the class. Teacher B immediately told the student named Lai Fatt about the sentence (Lai Fatt is not brave). This was meant as a joke. However, according to Richmond et al. (2008), this constitutes non-immediate beheviour (use of hurtful, harmful, or condescending remarks, teasing and joking, making fun of student's clothing, weight, or general appearance). In this case, the joke made by Teacher B was not encouraging as it caused uneasiness among the students, especially the student concerned.

The above instances have shown ways in which teachers were insensitive to students' emotional well-being. Teachers who make insensitive remarks and jokes on students, as well as speak in an appropriate pitch may cause the student to dislike the teacher and the subject, if the students were to take them as non-immediacy. It is likely to happen because the student might "lose face" in the situations mentioned. The situation in Turn 18 of Class A was quite a common scene in Class A. Possibly to save time, the teacher rarely waited for the answers after asking questions and kept urging the students to give their answers promptly. The video data showed that this situation happened several times in class A (refer Turns #18, #25, #164, and #194 in Tables 8.15 & 8.16). In fact, this will yield a negative effect, because on one hand, by doing so, it interferes with the student's thinking, and on the other hand, it will cause the student to become more nervous. Thinking under pressure is

not an easy task. This is why many students become tongue-tied and fail to express themselves when the teacher keeps pressing for an answer.

Tables 8.15 and 8.16 above show the non-immediate verbal behaviours of the teachers observed. These instances have already been discussed in the previous chapter. They are cited once again here to discuss the negative impact of these moves on students' learning. According to Richmond et al. (2008), a teacher who uses condescending communication by saying things such as "You don't know what you're talking about"; "Your ideas are stupid"; "Why are you acting like that?"; "You wouldn't understand" ; and the like, is considered non-immediate. Non-immediate verbal behaviour uses negative feedback and criticizes students' poor performance and produce negative impacts on teacher/student solidarity and student learning (Mehrabian, 1971; Richmond, 2002a).

8.4.3.5 The Impact of Teachers' Nonverbal Non-immediate Behaviours on Teaching and Learning

Sometimes teachers point to their student with the index finger instead of using the palm-up gesture when they call on the student to answer or give his/her opinion. The examples of the index finger pointing gestures shown in Figure 8.7 are considered as impolite in the Malaysian context and should be avoided. Teachers should show sensitivity when using appropriate gestures in teaching. Pointing to students with the index finger may cause uneasiness among students. Hence, such nonverbal behaviour is non-immediate. For the Malays, the polite way of pointing to someone is by using the thumb which is also a sign of respect. Teachers should be using this type of gesture in teaching as it is considered as "immediate".

Figure 8.7: Examples of Negative Gestures

8.5   Conclusion

Many teaching instances that occurred in the classes observed indicate that the deployment and co-deployment of various semiotic resources in constructing interpersonal meaning can enhance teaching and learning. The data showed that as instructors, facilitators, motivators, evaluators, disciplinarians and value-bearers, the CSL teachers knew their students very well. They not only knew students' names, they were also aware of the students' strengths and weaknesses, and could accommodate their teaching approaches to achieve the teaching goals. For instance, as CSL teachers, they were discouraged by the school policy of disallowing the use of the students' mother tongue to teach the target language, but they still occasionally employed code-switching to ensure students understood the content. By using code-switching, they understood that students could learn better. This is a sign of the

teachers' concern for their students. Besides the use of code-switching, they also knew how to alleviate the students' anxiety in performing a particular task, to manage the classes, to engage students to learn via questioning strategies, give students appropriate feedback, affirm student's good performance, show appreciation for students' attempts by praising them, lead in giving students a round of applause, and treat students fairly. Teachers also used nonverbal resources to establish rapport with students. These resources include having frequent eye-contact, smiling, giving a pat on the student's shoulder, showing the thumbs-up to praise students, giving students presents, motivating students and the like. It was apparent that the students enjoyed the attention from their teachers. According to Woolfolk and Margetts (2013), such forms of appreciation, attention and rewards not only promote immediacy between teacher and students but also encourage learning. However, there were still some cases of verbal behaviour of teachers that may dampen the enthusiasm for learning, and hence should be avoided, such as giving negative feedback, threatening a student's face, showing impatience and irritation in negotiating meaning.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1   Introduction

This study explores how teachers construct interpersonal meanings through multimodal elements like teacher talk and teachers' body language in Chinese as a second language classrooms. The three research objectives that guided the study are: (1) To identify the semiotic resources realised in Chinese as a second language classrooms; (2) To study the ways in which the linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources are used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms; and (3) To study how the interpersonal meaning constructed impact the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language. The theoretical framework underpinning the present study is based on three schools of thought; first is the Systemic-Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1978, 1994), second is Multimodal Interactional Analysis (Norris, 2004), and lastly is the theory of immediacy (Mehrabian, 1969, 1971). This chapter brings together the major findings of the study reported in the previous chapters, and discusses the implications of the work in terms of its theoretical as well as pedagogic contributions. The chapter ends by providing directions for further research.

9.2   Summary of the Research Findings

In response to the research objectives set out in the first chapter of the thesis, this chapter summarises the key research findings discussed in the previous chapters. The following research questions are restated here for ease of reference.

314

1. What are the semiotic resources realised in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language?

2. How are the semiotic resources used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms?

3. How is teacher immediacy, a core aspect of interpersonal meaning, constructed in Chinese as a second language classrooms?

4. What is the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed on classroom teaching and learning?

The following discussion summarises the findings, and provides answers to each of the research questions of the study.

9.2.1 What are the semiotic resources realised in the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language?

This section summarises the answers to the first research question. Answers to this question were derived through analysis of data collected from several sources: classroom video recording data, field notes and the responses to the "Checklist" from three parties: the researcher, the teachers, and the students. The feedback given by all parties in response to the "Checklist" was counterchecked against the field notes and data from the video recording of classroom observations. Overall, the level of reliability of the data for answering research question one was acceptable (refer to Section 5.4 in Chapter 5).

By comparing the feedback gathered from the perspectives of the researcher, teachers and students on the semiotic resources used in CSL classrooms, interesting findings were obtained. The following discusses the views of these three groups of respondents, starting with the discussion on the use of linguistic semiotic resources which is then followed by the discussion on the use of non-linguistic resources. Linguistic semiotic resources include teacher talk, written text and recorded speech, while non-linguistic semiotic resources include teachers' body language and images.

One of the elements evident in the data is the amount of Chinese, the target language, used in all classes. Data show that Teacher A used Chinese in 99.21% of her talk in class and both the researcher and Teacher A agreed that the lesson of the day was almost totally conducted in Chinese. However, students' responses (56% of the students from Class A) indicated that besides Chinese, their teacher also spoke in other languages during the lesson on that day. This discrepancy could be attributed to the students were not paying attention to the teacher's teaching, or basing their answers on their classroom usual practice on other days where the teacher also used other languages in class while teaching. As compared to Teacher A, teachers of the other three classes resorted to code-switching more often while teaching. This finding was confirmed by all three parties - the researcher, teachers and students - on languages used in teacher talk in the three classes. It can therefore be concluded that, except for Class A, code-switching was a common practice in CSL classrooms (see Table 5.6 to Table 5.8 in Chapter 5). This finding is consistent with the findings of Ernie's (2011) and Neo's (2011) studies investigating code-switching in Malaysian classrooms. Ernie (2011) found that code-switching between the target language, English and Malay, the students' first language is evident in an ESL classroom in a secondary school while Neo (2011) who conducted the study in mathematics classrooms of

primary schools reported that even though English is the medium of instruction in the classrooms, Malay is often used to teach the subject. Therefore, code-switching between English and Malay, is found to be used by teachers in Malaysia regardless of the level of education or the subject matter taught.

In multi-racial country like Malaysia, teachers in CSL classes need to know several languages in order to be able to code-switch between the different languages spoken by their students. Apart from being able to speak in the target language, Chinese, CSL teachers need to have communicative ability of Malay, the national language, and English. Therefore, CSL teachers in Malaysia need to be multilingual and this capability they acquire can be considered unique within the second language teaching and learning context.

Regarding the use of written text, data also revealed that the written text displayed on the whiteboard, handouts and flashcards used only Chinese characters. Moreover, use of written forms of other languages (e.g., Malay, English) was not seen in the four classes even though code-switching between these languages was evident in the classes. Generally speaking, it can be concluded that the written text used in teaching came in the form of Chinese characters and that teachers are mindful to only use Chinese when teaching the written form.

Recorded speech was not a popular modality among teachers, when teaching "Mulan". The classroom observation data showed that only Teacher D used the audio recording of Mulan in teaching. The recorded story, which was entirely in Chinese, was played to the students at the beginning of the lesson. It is noteworthy that probably due to the use of recorded speech as a teaching tool; teacher talk in Class D was the least among the four teachers.

Teacher D used only 1444 words in her teacher talk as compared to the other three teachers whose teacher talk varies from 1706 words (Teacher C) to 7060 words (Teacher A) (refer to Table 6.1 in Chapter 6)

With regards to the teachers' body language, one of the non-linguistic resources used in the classes (data in Table 5.1-5.4), the study analysed teachers' body language in terms of teachers' facial expressions, gaze, gestures, and postures and these were found to be co-deployed with teacher talk to make meaning for most of the time in the four classes. Therefore, it could be concluded that the co-deployment of teacher talk and teachers' body language was the main modality in CSL classrooms, while "touching" (a form of body language) and real object (e.g., fruits, utensils, colour pens) were used the least. The data revealed that none of the teachers used touch as a resource to foster a close relationship with their students. In the Malaysian context, generally, when interacting with older students of the opposite gender, teachers tend to be careful "touching" their students. When female teachers interact with upper primary level students (students between the age of 9-12 years), they avoid touching the male students. This practice helps to explain why female teachers of this study did not touch the students (boys and girls) to avoid unnecessary misunderstanding. Similar phenomenon is seen in the schools in the United States where the noncontact philosophy is also adopted such that students get less touch from their teachers as they get older (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 268). Therefore, it can be said that teachers of CSL classes in Malaysia are sensitive to what is accepted as norms in the various cultures of the country. This is important as to enhance solidarity with their students such that learning can take place.

Findings also show that none of the teachers in this study used real objects and 3-D models in teaching. This may be due to the topic taught, which did not require the use of any real objects or 3-D models. The lesson was about a story of a young brave girl in ancient China called "Mulan". Teachers A, B, and C used many images related to Mulan's story in teaching, but Teacher D was an exception as she did not used any images at all. The images used in the three classes (A, B and C) were displayed on both printed (whiteboard, handouts, charts) and electronic media (i-pad, PPT slides and video clips) thus showing teachers' creativity in using resources to enhance teaching and learning. This result supports findings of Chen et al (2005). Chen et al. (2005) study how teachers use a variety of modalities to teach lower secondary Science and History subjects in Singapore. Their study showed that multiple modalities were used by the teachers in delivering their lessons and the way in which these multimodalities are presented is dependent on individual teachers' treatment and the classes to which these lessons are delivered.

In conclusion, the findings to answer the first research question revealed that teaching in CSL classrooms was multimodal in practice as teachers resorted to linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources to construct meaning in classroom. Multimodal resources are also evident in studies carried out by Kress et al. (2005) and Zhang and Wang (2010) though their data was obtained from English classroom discourse. Therefore, it can be said that it does not matter what the target language is to be taught but strategies used to teach the languages are universal in nature.

Linguistic semiotic resources of this study included spoken languages of teachers, the recorded story of Mulan, and written languages evident in teaching aids. With regards to teachers' spoken language, apart from Chinese, Malay and English are also used as teachers

code-switched to cater to the needs of their students who are of various races. This implied that teachers teaching CSL in Malaysia have to be multilingual in order to be able to enhance teaching and learning. In terms of the non-linguistic semiotic resources evident in the classes observed, it is found that the teacher's body language and images that appeared in various media: video clips, the whiteboard, handouts, and PPT slides, are used in the classrooms. It is imperative to draw attention to the fact that in keeping with cultural norms, teachers of this study do not used 'touch' to develop relationship with their students in order to enhance learning. In a multiracial country like Malaysia, teachers need not only have to be able to speak the languages of their students but also need to observe the various cultural aspects of the various races in order to develop and maintain harmonious relationship with their students. It is such relationship that lays the foundation for learning to take place.

Grounded on the fact that various multimodal resources are used in the CSL classes, the second research question sought to understand how these multimodal resources were deployed and co-deployed by the CSL teachers to construct interpersonal meaning in classrooms. The mere identification and listing of the types of multimodal resources deployed in classrooms in making meaning (shown in Table 5.1 to 5.4) has limitations. It does not reveal the effects of the utilization of two important nonverbal resources: the time parameters and the space, in negotiating interaction meaning. The use of time parameters (frequency, sequence, duration of performing something, see Bolotova, 2012) and space (proxemics) has rich interactional meaning and should be explored with regards to these resources as it is not sufficient knowing only the duration of lesson, or even stages of lesson and the location of the events to discuss meaning. The utilization of time parameters and space in negotiating interactional meaning has yet to attract enough attention from

researchers. This study explored these elements to enrich findings. The discussion is found in Sections 9.2.2, 9.2.3 and 9.2.4.

9.2.2 How are the semiotic resources used to construct interpersonal meaning in Chinese as a second language classrooms?

Interpersonal meaning, in this study, refers to the meaning derived from the teachers' various roles in negotiating and establishing power, status and relationships with their students. The roles refer to teachers' institutional roles as instructors, facilitators, evaluators, motivators, disciplinarians and value-bearers and the kind of relationship refers to the solidarity or conflict state created by teachers and students. Power and solidarity relations, elements of interpersonal meaning, between teacher and students of this study are realised via the use of verbal communication, and nonverbal interaction. To answer the second research question investigating how semiotic resources are used by teachers to construct interpersonal meaning, the researcher first examined the use of teacher talk (verbal communication), followed by the use of the teacher's body language (nonverbal interaction). Conclusions on how the verbal and nonverbal semiotic resources are co-deployed to make meaning were then drawn. Additionally, this study examines the use of the time parameters and space, two elements neglected in studies pertaining to classroom discourse. Time parameters refer to the duration, frequency and sequence of the instantiation of verbal and nonverbal events. As it is challenging to get a very accurate figure for the duration of talk of a person, the present study used the percentage of the number of words used by each teacher to estimate the duration of teacher talk of each teacher observed. Space parameters refer to classroom layout, the trace of movement and the adjustment of personal physical distance between interactants.

In order to understand the power of the teacher in the classroom, the amount of teacher talk and the number of turn-taking between teacher and students in classroom discourse were investigated. The data showed that on average, the teachers had their turns 640 times, and students 560 times that is 8:7 in terms of ratio, or 53.33%: 46.67%. Therefore, it is evident that there was a high number of turns for the students, indicating that student involvement was frequent in the classroom. Frequent interaction between teacher and students is encouraging as it helps to develop relationship between them. However, this does not mean that students had a dominant share in generating the total classroom discourse. Students in fact contributed to only a small share of the total classroom discourse as the length of utterances generated in each turn was much shorter than the teacher's. In terms of the actual number of words being said (cf., it is used to estimate the duration of talk of the people concerned) by the teacher and students, it was clear that the teachers talked the most. Teachers uttered 15047 words in total, compared to 2142 words spoken by the students. The ratio was 7: 1 (or 87.5%: 12.5%). This finding indicates that teacher-students power relationships in the four classes are unequal, where teachers are found to be more dominant than their students. Teacher talk dominates classroom communication even though students talk as frequently as their teacher in the classrooms. The empirical evidence provided by the study is consistent with Cazden's (1988), Eggins' (2004, p. 184), and Aman and Mustaffa's (2009, p. 24) findings where these studies found that talk in typical classrooms is dominated by the teacher. Nevertheless, what is more important is the amount of interaction that helps to establish interpersonal relations between teachers and students in CSL classrooms.

Dominance of teacher talk in classrooms is attributed to the many pedagogical and managerial tasks that need to be carried out by teachers in a lesson, as instructors,

facilitators, evaluators, motivators, disciplinarians, and value-bearers of their classes. Teachers often need to use speech to perform the pedagogical and managerial tasks to play multiple institutional roles, and more often than not, some of these roles are evident in a single turn of talk. The example below shows Teacher A as instructor, evaluator and motivator in a turn:

| #313A: | 这个生字你要看一下，因为等一下我们有一个活动卷，你要做。你要句子重组。没有很难，你都可以做的。OK 你都可以做的。 |
| | Look at this vocabulary (**instructor**), because later we have a learning activity, which you must complete (**instructor**). You have to restructure the sentences (**instructor**). It is not difficult (**evaluator**). You can do the entire task (**motivator**). Ok. You can do the entire task (**motivator**)] |

The example above could perhaps explain why teacher talk tends to be long, and why more words are used by the teachers.

In addition to the observation on turn-taking and the number of words being said in the classroom, the use of the personal pronouns in addressing students and others by the teachers was also examined as element used to realise interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms. The frequency of teachers using the first and second person pronouns are as follows: Teacher A: 66 times, Teacher B: 70 times, Teacher C: 39 times, and Teacher D: 3 times (refer to Table 6.2 in Chapter 6). The first person pronoun refers to "I, we and Teacher (to refer to herself)", the second person pronoun refers to "you, you (plural)". The statistics below show the ratio between the use of the first and the second person pronouns by each teacher. The ratio for Teacher A was 54.55%: 45.46% (36: 30), Teacher B was

55.71%: 44.29% (39: 31), Teacher C was 61.54%: 38.46% (24: 15), Teacher D was 75%: 25% (2: 1). Therefore, the all teachers used first person pronoun more frequently than the second person pronouns.

In human interaction, the choices of vocatives and personal pronouns can reflect the formality of the setting, and the closeness of the participants. For instance, from the aspect of sense of closeness, the use of the first person pronoun "we" instead of the second person pronoun "you (plural)" to refer to students, the address form "we" has the implication that 'teacher works with you' and "can increase the feeling of immediacy" (Richmond et al., 2008, p. 191). The use of "we" has the effect of enhancing the feeling of closeness between the teacher and students, as the psychological distance caused by the use of "we" is shorter than the use of "you (plural)" (Mottet and Richmond, 1998, pp. 30-31). Teacher A used 'we' 9 times, Teacher B, 10 times, Teacher C, 12 times, Teacher D, 2 times. The teacher interview data revealed that some teachers were aware that the use of 'we' fosters the feeling of togetherness, and helps to promote the sense of intimacy between participants. The frequent use of 'we' by the four teachers in the above data has confirmed that some teachers used "we" deliberately to enhance solidarity and closeness with their students. As pointed out by Christie (2002, p. 16), "teachers classically use the first person plural when building solidarity with their students in some enterprise to be undertaken". Thus, using the pronoun "我们 (we)" conveys an increased sense of togetherness and solidarity.

What is unique in these classes is that 'teacher' referring to the teacher herself such as in "现在老师要你们练习读。(Now **teacher** wants you to practise reading.)", and "看这里，老师站在这里。(Look here, **teacher** is standing here.)" is used in teacher talk. This is

typical in the Malaysian CSL classroom context when "I" and "teacher" are used interchangeably in teacher talk. Though it is a common phenomenon in Malaysia, no research has been done on this particular issue in Malaysia. Further research should be carried out to study this matter.

This study also investigated the choices teacher made in using the mood system in classrooms to convey interpersonal meaning. According to Thompson (1996, p. 40), "Declarative clauses, Interrogative clauses and Imperative clauses are the three main choices in the mood system of the clause". Halliday (1994, pp. 68-88) asserts that the expression of these three moods can be identified from their grammatical configurations. For instance, the sequence in arranging the interpersonal components of 'Subject^Finite' and 'Finite^Subject' determines whether the clause is a Declarative or an Interrogative. However, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 113) point out that such matching of grammatical configuration and the choices of mood is quite rare in other languages, including Chinese. As the corpus of this study is Chinese, the analysis then identified the mood of clauses by referring to the function of expressions rather than the mood structure of the clauses. By indicating the number of clauses teachers had made in the classroom in the sequence of percentage of Declarative clauses, percentage of Interrogative clauses, percentage of Imperative clauses, the data showed that the figures for Teacher A were 46.27%: 47.42%: 6.21% (854), Teacher B, 44.11%: 49.75%: 6.14% (603), Teacher C, 34.31%: 29.9%: 35.79% (204), and Teacher D, 49.64%: 43.26%: 7.1% (141). When the total use of mood for the four classes was calculated, the results were 44.5%: 45.9%: 9.6% (1802). These figures suggest that for every 10 sentences uttered in the four classes, approximately, 1 sentence was imperative, 4.5 sentences were interrogative, and 4.5 sentences were declarative.

The data thus showed that the use of both declarative mood and interrogative mood was very frequent (44.5%: 45.9% respectively). The remaining 9.6% refers to the use of imperative mood, suggesting that teachers seldom used the imperative mood to command or prohibit students to do or not to do some things in the classes observed. The declarative mood and interrogative mood were shown to be dominant in the classroom discourse examined. These moods were mainly used for imparting knowledge, cultivating values in students, negotiating teaching and learning needs, and checking on the learning progress of students. Interpersonally, the distribution of mood types in teacher talk shows that the teaching and learning process was interactive. Besides delivering the content, the teachers also involved students in discussions and learning activities. When the findings with regards to the dominant mood used in teacher's talk is compared with two Indonesian studies reported by Rahma (2012) and Yulati (2012), the present study indicates that Malaysian CSL teachers used much more interrogative mood to engage students in classroom learning.

In the present study, the content of teacher talk also included the appraisal made by the teachers on students' performance and behaviours, and characters and events that appeared in teaching materials. The appraisal theory developed by Martin and associates (Martin, 1992, Martin and Rose, 2003, Martin and White, 2005) was used to examine how teachers used language for appraising. There are three categories of appraisal, namely, attitude, engagement, and graduation. The present research only examined the ways in which attitudinal resources in teacher talk were used to construct interpersonal meaning in CSL classrooms particularly in establishing solidarity with the students and in delivering the content. Thus, engagement and graduation were not analysed.

When the designation of value in teacher talk was examined, it was found that the lexical choices of affect resources were assigned for evaluation of human emotion; judgement resources were assigned for evaluation of human quality and social events; and appreciation resources were assigned for evaluation of things and natural heritages. The following data show findings of the teachers' appraisals in terms of ratio of three attitudinal resources used (affect: judgement: appreciation) and the total number of appraisals made by the individual teacher is indicated within parentheses: for Teacher A, the percentages are 35.6%: 62.5%: 1.9% (104 appraisals), Teacher B, 28%: 71%: 1% (93 appraisals), Teacher C, 32.1%: 67.9%: 0% (28 appraisals), and Teacher D, 37.8%: 62.2%: 0 % (37 appraisals). When appraisal practices in all the classes were combined and counted, affect resources made up 32.8%; judgement resources, 66.1%; and appreciation resources, 1.1% (total of 262 appraisals). Clearly, judgement resources were the most frequently used appraisal resources, followed by affect, and the least used was appreciation. Data from Teacher C and D showed no designation of appreciation value in their talk. It is argued that this finding could be influenced by the teaching material of the day, as it was about a heroic character, "Mulan". Since much of the evaluation centred on Mulan's self-sacrificial quality, of being able to sacrifice herself for her family and the nation she loved, appreciation resources (mainly are used to evaluate things) was therefore found to be the least used appraisal resource, whereas affect and judgement were more frequently used. Wang (2011) also found abundant use of appraisal resources in teacher talk in the data gathered from a university English classroom. The ratio of percentage of affect: percentage of judgement: percentage of appreciation (Total number of appraisals) in her study was 23.76%: 76.24%: 0% (526 appraisals). This result is close to the findings of the present study. Wang (2011) reported that judgement resources were mainly used to appraisal student's responses and performance, similar to the findings of the present study. Therefore,

regardless of the language used in the classrooms, be it Chinese or English; appraise resources mainly centered on responses and performance of students. This is encouraging as appraising students' responses positively help to develop healthy relationship with students.

The attitudinal resources can be assigned as positive and negative. The following presents empirical evidence of the positive and negative attitudinal resources used in the four teachers' classroom discourse. They are represented in the form of percentage of positive value assignment: percentage of negative value assignment (Total number of appraisals). For Teacher A, it is 50%: 50% (104 appraisals), Teacher B, 65.6%: 34.4% (93 appraisals), Teacher C, 89.3%: 10.7% (28 appraisals), and Teacher D, 64.9%: 35.1% (37 appraisals). The ratio can be summarized as 61.8%: 38.2% (262 appraisals). It can be concluded that teachers tend to use more positive values than the negative in appraising students' performance and attitudes, as well as the characters and events in the teaching materials. Appraisal instances that promote student learning or hinder student learning will be discussed in Section 9.2.4.

The teacher's body language is the non-linguistic semiotic resource analysed in the study to examine how interpersonal meaning is constructed in CSL classes. The elements analysed include gestures, gaze, facial expressions, postures, and the use of space (proxemics) and the discussion of each of the elements is provided in the following paragraphs. It must be noted that the use of these nonverbal behaviours complements verbal behaviour when the teacher enacted the roles of instructor, facilitator, motivator, controller, evaluator, value-bearer and so on. Hence, most of the instantiation of nonverbal behaviour described below was in fact co-deployed with verbal behaviour of teacher talk to realise and highlight the

multiple roles played by a teacher. Therefore, their functions are mostly interactional, hence, interpersonal (as students learn how to act and respond to those gestures).

With regards to gestures, the data proved that "heteroglossic expansion" and "heteroglossic contraction" gestures proposed by Hood (2011) are evident in Malaysian CSL classrooms. In this study, it was observed that the teachers always used palm-up and palm-down gestures to involve or stop students from taking part in classroom discussions. Similar findings were also found in the two classrooms teaching General Paper observed by Lim (2011), where teachers were seen to have used a palm-up gesture when they asked questions and invited responses from the students. They also used the palm-down gestures to contract negotiation space and convey a sense of firmness and resoluteness. This study observed the presence of two other gestures to invite a particular student to respond. The first is the teacher stretching one hand, with the palm-up position, that is lifting the palm upward in the air to indicate, "You, please stand up and answer my question". The second gesture is when the teacher used her index finger to point to a student. It is to ask the student concerned to answer (refer to Figure 6.12). However, this index finger pointing action is considered as rude and impolite in Malaysia. In sum, it can be said that teachers of CSL classes used varied forms of gestures to interact with students in the form of inviting them to participate in classroom learning. However, teachers should be sensitive, and avoid using inappropriate gestures in their teaching as this would affect relations with their students.

To play the role of instructor and facilitator, the teachers observed also used iconic, metaphoric, deitic and beat gestures (McNeil, 1992). For example, the teachers made use of iconic gestures to help students learn. One involved showing the action of "riding a horse"

and "shooting with a bow and arrow". She raised one and two fingers when she said "a year? a day?" and "two" (Figure 6.1). Teachers also made use of some common metaphoric gestures to convey abstract meanings. She used a 'palm facing downwards' action to indicate the height of a boy when she said "the brother is young"; and bent her body by leaning forwards, showing the action of a hand holding a stick and another hand holding her back to mean "old"; linking the ends of her index fingers and the thumbs of both hands to form the shape of a heart ♥ when she said, "love", and bent her forefinger to show a hook-like shape when she said, "dead" (Figure 6.2). To attract students' attention, and to highlight the teaching content, the teacher's verbal instruction was usually accompanied by the use of deitic gestures (Figure 6.12).

As controller of turn-taking, or leader of a new topic of discussion, the teacher stopped a student from talking by holding up one palm with her fingers apart, with the palm facing the audience, to indicate a "stop" gesture: "Please stop!" (Figure 6.3). The teacher used the gesture to instruct the students not to continue talking. As evaluator or referee, the teacher makes a "Like" gesture to mean "great" (Figure 6.13), after her students had successfully identified a noble quality of Mulan, or whenever her students had done well in their attempts. As value-bearer, she showed the class how she showed respect for Mulan by folding up her fingers and placing the folded palm on the forehead to make a "salute" gesture (Figure 6.13). Thus, in enacting the various roles, teachers make use of gestures as well as textual elements to enhance learning and to develop interpersonal relationship with their students.

Regarding the use of gaze, teachers observed used it when they were playing the roles of motivators and disciplinarians. As motivator, the teacher must first attract her students'

attention to learn. Attracting attention can be done through eye contact. On average, research data from the present study showed that teachers spent 60.3% of their time in the classes (78.14 minutes from 129.49 minutes) looking at every student and maintaining "eye contact". As disciplinarian, the teacher needs to correct her students' misbehaviour, such as not paying attention. A strategy commonly used by the teachers in the present study was staring – giving misbehaving students a cold, serious look to stop them from misbehaving. Studies on classroom nonverbal communication (Mohd Safee et al., 2008; Nor Shafrin et al., 2009) in Malaysia particularly with regards to the eye contact merely analysed the presence and absence of eye contact without examining its frequency of occurrence or direction and duration of eye contact as carried out by the present study. Findings from the present study agree with findings from studies done in the Western context (McCroskey & Richmond, 1992; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002) which maintain that the use of nonverbal behaviour such as eye contact to control students' misbehaviour like not paying attention or disturbing their peers serves as a more effective communicative tool than verbal communication for improving student-teacher relationships. It avoids the use of scolding and by doing so, it not only helps to save the face of the particular students, such practice also does not interfere with other students' moods of learning. Thus, it enhances not only learning but the use of such form of eye contact also helps to maintain positive relations with their students.

Data from the present study showed that the teachers also used facial expressions in teaching and building rapport with students. For example, it was observed that when the teacher taught the Chinese word *"担忧"* (worrying), the teacher put her palm on her chest and frowned to express the emotion of worry; and when teacher introduced the word "*惊*

讶" (surprise), the teacher widened her eyes, raised her eye brows, and rotated her open hands to indicate a state of surprise. In addition, the teachers often smiled to establish rapport with their students.

In the classes observed, the four teachers faced their students, establishing frequent eye contact for about 60% to 70% of the lesson time. Adoption of different postures can promote solidarity between teacher and students, particularly through deliberate use of gesture, for example, displaying an "open" posture by keeping her hands open while teaching and when asking questions. However, if the teacher adopts a "closed" posture by folding both her hands on her chest (Figure 6.4), students will not find her approachable, and the gesture will make the teacher seem impersonal and distant (Pease and Pease, 2006, p. 93). Therefore, teachers should avoid this posture while teaching. Both types of postures were found in the present research data. To date, there is still not many studies investigating the use of gestures and postures in Malaysian classroom and its effect on teaching and learning, therefore, research of this kind needs further investigation.

Regarding proxemics, the teachers in the present study were seen standing close to the students to give guidance and facilitate teaching while conducting group activities. Their actions could indicate that the teachers cared about their students. Their actions also help foster solidarity between the students and their teachers, especially when the students see that their teacher is making the effort to help them. On the other hand, if the teacher confines herself to a fixed area near her table or computer, and rarely approaches her students, the teacher may be considered "less immediate", and less approachable. The present study also found that the use of space (proxemics) was also affected by the

classroom layout and the teaching activity of the day. For instance, one of the CSL lessons in this study (Class A) was conducted in the school library, where the arrangement of chairs, tables and cabinets was relatively fixed. As a result, the fixed layout limited the teacher's movements. There were also instances where a teacher relied heavily on the computer to deliver the teaching content that she spent more time standing next to the computer than moving close to the students. It was also found that teacher movement was also influenced by the lesson plan. A group activity would provide the opportunity for the teacher to move around to guide or assist the students to accomplish the given tasks. This was observed in Class C. During the group activity, the teacher moved close to students who were doing the activities. This took up 27% of her lesson. Therefore, movements of the teachers in this study are dependent upon the class layout, computer usage and class activity. This observation is consistent with Lim's (2011) study of the use of space in classrooms of two teachers. The findings showed that one of the teachers spends most of the time in the Authoritative Spaces in front of the classroom, whereas another teacher spends significant time in all the various spaces in the classroom. The study also found that the use of traditional and technological teaching resources to some extent, constrains the position and movement of the teacher in class. Teachers, therefore, should be aware of the impact of proxemics in establishing interpersonal relations with their students.

As has been explained, in meaning making, the teacher's body language usually plays a supportive role in teacher talk, helping to enrich and enhance spoken discourse. For a more detailed discussion of the instantiation of meaning making via the co-deployment of semiotic modes, please refer to Section 6.4 in Chapter Six.

The previous Section 9.2.1 discussed the "what", whereas this section (Section 9.2.2) discusses the "how" with regards to the use of resources in the classes. In the investigation of the use of resources, unlike in previous studies, the present study not only examined the ways in which the resources were used but also took into consideration the purposes of the time parameters (of "for how long?", "how frequent?", and "what was the sequence of events that occurred?") in the negotiation of interpersonal meanings (see Table 6.1, 6.2, 6.8, 6.10, 6.12, 6.13, 6.14, 6.15, 6.16, 6.18, 6.20, 6.21, 6.22, 6.23, 6.24); The occurrence was also cross referenced with the space factor (of "how the classroom layout looked like?" and "how interpersonal distance was adjusted between interactants?" - see Table 6.25, 6.26, 6.27; Figure 6.6, 6.7, 6.8, 6.9). An example of the sequence of occurrence was shown in Figure 8.5. It indicates that to control student discipline in class, the teacher firstly stared at the student who made noise, secondly she placed her index finger at her mouth, thirdly, she kept quiet for a moment, and finally, she raised her index finger towards the ceiling holding it for a while. The sequence of the whole action created the meaning of "I am the disciplinarian, now, I am not happy with your behaviour, and you, please well behave and keep quiet." Controlling students' discipline in class through teachers' body language is preferable as compared to using verbal resources as this method avoids threatening students' "face" in front of their friends. Nor Shafrin et al. (2009) confirmed that, a teacher who shouts at students to stop them from making noise in class would interrupt classroom communication. This action not only stops students from asking questions in class, it also inhibits participation and as such there is a tendency for students to become passive learners.

To conclude, the findings obtained to answer the second research question revealed that the teacher is the most powerful person in the class, as she controlled the turn-taking in classroom discourse and dominated classroom discourse. Nevertheless, teachers of this

study adopted verbal and nonverbal strategies to construct interpersonal meaning in their classes in order to establish, maintain and enhance teacher-student relationship. The table below provides a summary of important findings with regards to verbal and nonverbal behaviours manifested by the four teachers in the negotiation of interpersonal meaning.

Table 9.1: Realisation of Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviours in Constructing Interpersonal Meaning

Observation/ Interview Data	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D
Amount of talk	90.07%	87.93%	80.21%	83.81%
Use of "我们"(we)	9 (13.64%)	10 (14.29%)	12 (30.77%)	2 (18.18%)
Interrogative mood	47.42%	49.75%	29.9%	43.26%
Imperative mood	53 (6.21%)	37 (6.14%)	73 (35.79%)	10 (7.1%)
Positive Appraisal resources of students	14 (33.33%)	11 (68.75%)	14 (93.33%)	12 (100%)
The Use of Praise and Encouragement	Teacher A did not praise students	As compared to Teacher A, Teacher B praised students more	Teacher C praised students most frequently.	Teacher D also seldom praised students.
Addressing Students by Their Names	Excellent memory	Excellent memory	Excellent memory	Excellent memory
The Use of Humour in teaching	not much	not much	not much	not much
Smiling time (Positive expression)	180s (8.99%)	230s (9.34%)	62s (3.42%)	166s (11.13%)
Total Time/Total Count of Times Looking Directly at Students (Duration/Frequency)	23.66 minutes (70.74%) / 110 times	29.78 minutes (72.55%) / 94 times	9.98 minutes (33.07%) / 112 times	14.72 minutes (59.19%) / 98 times
The number of gestures used in teaching	70 (100%)	152 (100%)	95 (100%)	52 (100%)
Facing students	23.61 minutes (70.73%)	30.30 minutes (73.85%)	20.20 minutes (66.93%)	14.72 minutes (59.19%)
Body posture	more open posture & leaned forward & relaxed body position	more open posture & leaned forward & relaxed body position	more open posture & relaxed body position	more close posture & sometimes had a very tense body position

335

Table 9.1: (Cont.)				
Touch: The video data showed that none of the teachers touched their students in class. But the interview data revealed that they occasionally did.	use touch (pat on student's shoulder) as a sign of to remind and as well as to encourage.	used touch (pat on student's shoulder) as a sign of to remind and as well as to encourage.	showed encouragement	Teacher D did not touch students
Proxemics	Teacher A spent most of her teaching time (99%) standing near students sitting in the first row in front of the class. She seldom moved around the class while teaching.	Teacher B also spent most of her teaching time positioning herself in front of the class (more than 90% of the time). But she occasionally approached certain students to ask them questions.	Teacher C moved around the classroom most frequently while teaching. She spent about 26% of her time moving around to check on students' work and to teach individuals or small groups	Teacher D spent most of her teaching time (79%) standing near students sitting in the first row in front of the class. She seldom moved around the class while teaching.
Perceived Teacher-student relationship (entirely relied on interview data)	Teacher: Good. Students: Out of the six students were interviewed, two said the relationships was good , three said "average", and one said "not close"	Teacher: Close to only a few students who were good in the subject. The less able students were not close to her. Student: 50% said that they are close to the teacher.	Teacher: Good. Student: All the students interviewed said that they had a very close relationship with the teacher.	Teacher: Good. Student: 50% said that they felt close to the teacher.

The next section discusses the manifestation of teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviour in establishing solidarity. Teacher immediacy is a core factor for enhancing teacher-student solidarity. The study analysed how it was realised in the CSL classes observed, and the ways it helped to promote a harmonious teacher-students relationship to enhance teaching and learning.

9.2.3 How is teacher immediacy, a core aspect of interpersonal meaning constructed in Chinese as a second language classrooms?

Immediacy is the degree of perceived physical or psychological closeness between people (Andersen, 1978, p. 7; Richmond, 2002a, p. 68). In establishing the harmonious relationship between teachers and students, teachers need to use effective verbal and nonverbal resources to increase the perception of immediacy, that is, the feeling of closeness to teachers. Mehrabian's Social-psychological Principle states: "People are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer" (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 1). The social-psychological force depicted by Mehrabian (1971) is also known as the force of affinity seeking (Bell & Daly, 1984; Frymier & Wanzer, 2006; Gorham, Kelly & McCroskey, 1989). Affinity is "a positive attitude toward another person … another person has affinity for you if that person perceives you as credible, attractive, similar to her or himself, or perceives that you have legitimate power over her or him" (McCroskey & Wheeless, 1976, p. 231). Thus, affinity seeking is defined as "the active social-communicative process by which individuals attempt to get others to like and feel positive toward them (Bell & Daly, 1984, p. 91). Teacher immediacy refers to the teacher's behaviour, driven by the force of affinity seeking that could reduce the physical and psychological distance in the interaction between the teacher and students in verbal and nonverbal communication.

One of the objectives of the study is to obtain insights into how CSL teachers realised teacher immediacy through multimodal elements like teacher talk and teacher's body language. It is one of the first studies in Malaysia to investigate teacher immediacy in terms of multimodal realisations. The realisation of teacher immediacy was through

approaches used by the teachers to enhance classroom solidarity and bring positive effects to the teaching and learning of Chinese as a second language (CSL).

In brief, the research findings showed that, overall, teachers were concerned about their students and cared for them. This was evident from several verbal and nonverbal semiotic resources used to establish teacher immediacy. The study identified seven verbal strategies used by the teachers, namely: they remembered their students' names and called them by their names; they code-switched between the instructional language and students' familiar language(s) to meet students' learning needs; they used the pronoun "we" to signal ownership and inclusiveness (instead of I or you); they frequently praised students' effort; they were willing to engage students in conversation regarding personal matters; they promote learning via discussion and questioning; and they treated students fairly. Nonverbally, teachers also showed concern and care through establishing frequent eye contact with students when teaching, setting up students' seating arrangement to enhance student learning, and using animated gestures while teaching. These verbal and nonverbal communication approaches adopted by the teachers are evidence of teacher immediacy (Andersen, 1979; Richmond et al., 1987; Gorham, 1988; McCroskey et al., 1995; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al., 2008). The following paragraphs will discuss the approaches identified.

Remembering students' names is an immediate strategy and all four teachers in the study remembered the names of all their students. They know their students very well and could describe each student's temperament and habits, suggesting that the teachers enjoyed a close relationship with their students. In fact, the interview data also revealed that the students were happy that their teachers remembered their names, making them trust the

338

teachers. The present study found that trust is an important factor in the establishment of a close student-teacher relationship.

Teachers of this study had conversations with students before class. It was clear from the interviews with the students that they enjoyed casual conversations with their teacher, during the lunch break before lessons began. Students enjoyed telling their teacher about the activities they did after school. They trusted their teacher that they were willing to disclose personal information with the teacher. Students were also very interested in their teacher's personal life. Sharing personal information is seen as an intimacy move (Gorham, 1988), and this act can help foster a closer relationship between the teacher and her students.

Teachers treated students fairly: The data of the study showed that the teachers had posed questions to all students regardless of their ability, gender or ethnic background. The use of fair treatment was also evident in the way the teachers used their gaze in class while teaching. Students from each class disclosed that their teachers looked at all students and that the teachers even had more eye contact with students who misbehaved in class and who underperformed in the subject. The majority of the students said that they were happy if teachers established frequent eye contact with them as they regarded it as a sign that the teachers cared for them. This nonverbal behaviour shows that the teachers were caring and were being fair to all students regardless of their achievement in class. This is unlike the findings in Wan Zah et al.'s (2009) study on perceptions of students with regards to their teachers in terms of their treatment of students, their teaching approaches and their expectations of their students, where high achievers have more positive perception towards their teachers, as compared to the low and extremely low achievers. Nevertheless, students

in the CSL classrooms observed agreed that their teachers treat all their students fairly and as such these teachers can be considered as immediate teachers.

Teachers were also found to be generous with praise, another realisation of teacher immediacy. Classroom observations showed that teachers often assessed the progress of students by asking the students questions and instructing them to complete learning tasks and those who had performed well were praised for their efforts. Examples of verbal praises included *"对了"* (Yes), *"好"* (good), *"很好啊"* (Very good), *"很厉害"* (excellent), *"进步了很多"* (you have improved a lot), and in nonverbal terms, giving the thumbs-up gesture, patting the student's shoulder and smiling. Sometimes teachers also led the class in giving their classmate who had just performed well a round of applause as a form of encouragement.

Teachers of CSL classes were also professional. Zhang and Oetzel (2006) constructed and validated a teacher immediacy scale from a Chinese cultural perspective. According to them, teachers who are committed to teaching, well-prepared, patient, passionate about teaching; and teachers who answer questions honestly, are considered as immediate. The data showed that generally the four teachers were committed and well-prepared for their lessons. The student interviewees said that in delivering the content, the pace of their teachers' utterances was appropriate, neither too slow nor too fast. The explanation of content was rich and easy to understand. Besides teacher talk and body language, the teachers also employed various types of teaching aids in teaching, such as using pictures, flashcards, recorded story, video clips, and PPT slides. In addition, the teachers were also passionate about teaching. When the teachers wanted to highlight the heroic qualities of

Mulan, the verbal description of teachers was accompanied by body language comprising gestures, facial expressions and actions. The data also showed that the teachers were also patient in teaching. When asking questions, many teachers kept encouraging students to answer questions. They reassured students that making mistakes was acceptable. They also rephrased questions in the student's mother tongue, or allowed students to indicate their understanding of Chinese words by showing the relevant actions. Teacher who are regarded as professionals, or have instructional immediacy (as defined by Zhang and Oetzel, 2006) are respected and loved by students. It is an important quality as students would perceive the teacher as credible and attractive. Students are more willing to trust and cooperate with their knowledgeable and competent teachers, and such strong trust and collaboration can benefit both the teacher and students.

Teachers were good role models. Zhang and Oetzel (2006) categorise the following teacher characteristics as elements of "personal immediacy": good morality, setting a good example for others, being approachable, and conducting oneself well. Data from the classroom observation and video recording showed that the teachers were punctual for their classes. They were generous and polite, and concerned about their students as realized via their verbal and nonverbal behaviours. While teaching, they established frequent eye contact with students and showed amiable smiles and relaxed postures. They also used a friendly tone while teaching. These qualities can add value to teacher immediacy, as they make students feel comfortable and want to approach the teacher. Unfortunately, the teachers did not use humour during the classes observed. Humour has been identified as a crucial element to create harmonious relationships and bring about effective teaching and learning (McNeely, 2015). Interview data with the students revealed that the teachers sometimes

used humour to make the learning atmosphere more lively and relaxed, but this strategy was not evident on the days the classes were observed.

In this study, it was seen that most of the time, the teachers' verbal and nonverbal behaviours were friendly and polite, evidence of teacher immediacy. However, there were some instances of non-immediate behaviours in the CSL classrooms, for example, the use of index finger to point to the student, as seen in Classes A, B, and D. In the Malaysian context, specifically among the Malays using the index finger to point at someone is considered rude and should be avoided. The appropriate way to point to a person is by using the thumb. Since many of the students in the classes were Malays, teachers should be aware of this taboo. Another example of non-immediate behaviour was seen in Class A. During the classroom observation, Teacher A showed her impatience by asking several questions repeatedly, and this action caused students to be rather hesitant to respond. Fortunately, the uncomfortable moments did not last long. When the students were used to the observers in the classroom, students went back to their normal pace of responding to their teacher's questions.

In conclusion, teachers who remember the names of all their students tend to be popular among their students. Therefore, a direct approach to being an immediate teacher is by remembering students' names, and addressing them by name. However, this requires effort on the teacher's part. Through interviews and classroom observations, it can also be said that teacher immediacy can be fostered in the Malaysian CSL context by showing sincere concern and treating students fairly, spending time to get into conversation with students before or after class; showing willingness to share personal information, being generous with praise, smiling, establishing frequent eye contact, and working hard to strengthen the

professionalism and being good role models. These findings validated the immediacy

behaviours identified by immediacy experts (Andersen, 1978, 1979; Gorham, 1988;

Mehrabian, 1969, 1971; Mottet & Richmond, 1998; Richmond, 2002a; Richmond et al.,

2008). Thus, it can be said that these immediacy behaviours are universal, which are not

only evident in Western classrooms but also found to be prevalent in Malaysian CSL

classrooms and accepted as immediate behaviours. As this study is one of the first to

examine teacher immediacy strategies in Malaysian classrooms in terms of multimodal

realisations, the findings will add to existing literature on teacher immediacy research.

Teacher immediacy helps narrow the psychological distance between teachers and students,

and develops the sense of closeness to and trust in the teacher, which in turn will encourage

students to work together with teachers for more effective teaching and learning.

9.2.4　What is the impact of the interpersonal meaning constructed on classroom teaching and learning?

The impact of interpersonal meaning constructed in CSL classrooms can be seen through

the enactment of teachers' roles, teacher-student relationship management and expression

of attitudes and judgement on classroom teaching and learning. Data obtained from the

interviews with the teachers and students showed that the teacher-student relationship in the

four CSL classes was good as the vast majority of the teachers (75%) and student (82.6%)

interviewees revealed that they had a comfortable relationship in class. They were also

aware of the importance of maintaining a good teacher-student relationship in teaching and

learning as the close relationship could give positive effects on teaching and learning. The

following section will discuss the impact of the construction of interpersonal meaning on

classroom teaching and learning through the use of these various semiotic resources in

realising the teacher's multiple roles, as instructor, facilitator, motivator, evaluator, disciplinarian and value-bearer.

It was observed that in their role as instructor, the teachers frequently used pictures and gestures in their teaching. For instance, to explain the meaning of '射箭 (shooting with a bow and an arrow)' and '骑马 (riding a horse)', teachers pointed to pictures on a whiteboard to show the actions of shooting with an arrow and riding a horse. Some teachers also used gestures and body movements. Teacher C also used the movements of her palm to show the signs of the four Chinese intonations: " - , /, ∨, \" to guide the students in reading Chinese words. From the educational perspective, these actions helped students to associate words with images, words with action, and intonations with the gestures. According to Woolfolk and Margetts (2013, p. 221), these linkages promote long-term memory for learning certain content. Thus, making association as done by the teachers of this study is a useful approach to help students in learning, specifically when the learning of new experience can be associated with students' existing experience. Teachers' awareness of students' needs would help in establishing good relationship with their students and thus enhance learning.

With regards to their role as facilitators, teachers used code-switching, mode switching to reduce the cognitive demands of a challenging task. The use of code-switching refers to instances when the teacher resorted to using the student's mother tongue and first language to facilitate the learning of Chinese. Teachers used Malay or English to translate and explain the meaning of Chinese words and learning tasks, to help the students understand the content. The use of mode switching refers to the use of modes other than the spoken

language to respond to teachers' questions. For instance, if they were unable to give the meaning for the Chinese words: '射箭 (shooting with an arrow)' and '骑马 (riding a horse)' in the target language, they were allowed to show the action of shooting an arrow and riding a horse. In addition, the strategy of reducing the difficulty level of a given task refers to the hints given by the teacher, or the teacher's restatement of the question/s when students had failed to complete a given task, to help students complete the task. Clearly, these three strategies were attempts made by the teacher to reduce learning anxiety in student to facilitate learning. This feeling of uneasiness and tension can inhibit learning; and recognizing this, teachers of this study make the effort to minimize stress in task completion. These strategies not only help to eliminate or reduce anxiety but they help make learning enjoyable and meaningful and further develop good relationship between the interactants in the classrooms.

As motivators, teachers of this study were seen using verbal and nonverbal reinforcement to motivate students to learn, and to praise students for doing tasks well. Teachers praised students verbally with motivating words and expressions like 'good', 'very good', 'excellent' and 'well done'. They also used nonverbal rewards, for example, giving star awards (☆☆☆) and stamped images on exercise books, showed the thumbs up gesture, patted students on their shoulders, gave students a round of applause, and sometimes led students in applauding their friends. These semiotic resources were used to compliment good performance and behaviour. Rewards and praises are reinforcement agents that help to motivate students and this in turn enhances good teacher-student relationship. Students will more likely to repeat and strengthen the behaviour in order to receive the rewards or praises again. This finding supports Schunk's (2004, p. 486) notion of reinforcement

which is "any stimulus or event that leads to response strengthening". Thus, teachers of this study have shown their ability to reward good performance which not only helps to motivate their students in their efforts to enhance learning but also establish solidarity with their students.

In their role as evaluators of learning tasks, teachers used positive feedback by providing students with emotional support, seen through encouraging words like "You can do it" (+CAP), "You can do all of them" (+CAP); or by providing a relatively 'safe' environment: "Try, it doesn't matter if the answer is wrong" (+SAT), or "Wrong (-CAP). Oh, it is alright (+SAT). Come, let us try. Who knows?" Such practices develop confidence in the students. The 'reassurance' (+CAP & +SAT) from the teachers encourage students to engage in classroom learning activities.   According to Woolfolk and Margetts (2013), positive feedback can arouse interest in learning. Similarly, this is another strategy to motivate students in their learning.

As disciplinarians, the teachers were observed to use several strategies to control the classroom discipline and to correct misbehaviour. For instance, to control student discipline in class, Teacher A placed her index finger at her mouth for a moment and then raised her index finger towards the ceiling, holding it for a while (refer to Figure 8.5 in Chapter 8). According to the teacher, it is a symbolic gesture to instruct students to keep quiet. In the schools observed, this is an accepted gesture as school teachers usually employ this nonverbal gesture to control students. Another strategy to instill discipline is that students were trained to raise their hands to seek permission from the teacher to participate in a learning activity like responding to questions posed. Teachers sometimes also used 'staring' and 'silence (pause)' strategy to establish discipline in class. The discussion in Section

8.2.5 has indicated that Teacher A paused or stopped abruptly during teaching to attract students' attention. The 'pause' was evident when Teacher A suddenly stopped talking and stared at a particular student who had misbehaved and as a result of that action the student turned his attention to the teacher's teaching. The teachers interviewed disclosed that this strategy was effective in attracting students' attention. This finding is in line with Moore's view (2007), that a stare used in conjunction with silence can be quite useful in gaining the attention of misbehaving or inattentive students (p. 176). Evidently, teachers of the CSL classes have resorted to similar strategy to create a harmonious learning experience for the students.

Teachers are also found to be value-bearers, instilling good values in students. Teachers highlighted the good qualities of Mulan, by drawing attention to specific interesting examples in the story that show filial piety (+ PRO), patriotism (+ PRO), love of family (+ HAP), bravery (+ TEN), skillful soldier (+ CAP), resilience and toughness (+ TEN), committed (+ TEN) self-sacrificial (+ TEN). Mulan's admirable qualities were highlighted by the teacher in a passionate tone of voice to draw students' attention, this form of appraisal may help to persuade students to emulate the good qualities of Mulan as these qualities are recognized and sought after by society. The students were taught to admire Mulan and look up to her as a role model. This approach is used to shape students' character, teaching them among others to be self-disciplined (detail discussions refer to Section 8.2.6 in Chapter 8). The impact of instilling good values in students help to develop interpersonal relations which in turn make teachers' task in teaching easier as students' discipline is already in place.

As a summary, many teaching instances that occurred in the classrooms indicate that the deployment and co-deployment of various semiotic resources in constructing interpersonal meaning can enhance teaching and learning. Teachers in the study used verbal and nonverbal forms of praise in motivating students. They also offered encouragement and positive feedback to engage students in classroom learning activities. In addition, it was clear that various effective teaching strategies were also used to attract students' attention, such as the use of animated gestures and rich facial expressions in delivering the content. To reduce learning anxiety in students, teachers used code-switching to help the students understand the content. Even though school regulations require CSL teachers to teach in the target language, the teachers in the study code-switched at times to reach out to the students and make learning easier for the students. Besides focusing on students' cognitive learning, teachers instilled in the students the values of patriotism, filial piety, and love for family through the story of Mulan. All the teaching moves discussed above were identified as immediacy behaviours (Gorham, 1988; Richmond et al., 2008). The teachers showing enthusiasm in teaching, concern about student learning, understanding students' needs, treating students fairly, and being friendly to students. The study also proved that teacher immediacy is highly associated with student learning motivation (Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Christophel, 1990; Richmond, 1990), and affective learning (Allen, Witt & Wheeless, 2006; Andersen, 1979; Richmond et al., 1987; Pogue & AhYun, 2006).

Although these immediacy behaviours were observed in the CSL classes, there were also cases of non-immediate behaviour in the data that would have negative effects on learning. For example, Teacher A's appraisal of students' abilities and learning behaviour was quite negative. She used a total of 28 (67%) negative attitudinal resources to evaluate students' behaviour and performance in class. There were 9 negative affect and 19 negative

judgement resources (refer to Table 6.18), seen in the following utterances: "Recite disorderly (-CAP) (-SAT)", "Who was talking just now? Put your hands up first, then stand up and speak. (-SAT)", "Today you're so quiet (referring to the lack of response), you're usually very noisy (-NOR) (-SAT)", and so on. Teacher A clearly lacked patience, and impatiently asked the same question repeatedly few times. For example, she was heard asking, "What does she want?", seven times in an unfriendly tone. The speech act indicates that she was irritated by the lack of prompt answers from the students. Teacher A's impatience and irritation can reduce students' interest in learning. With the exception of Teacher A's some negative instances in appraising students' abilities and learning behaviour, generally it can be concluded that the CSL teachers in the four classes were 'immediate' teachers who displayed more positive behaviours. Their strategies on establishing immediate behaviour could be adopted by teachers in other disciplines as they are found to have great impact on teaching and learning. The study concluded that interpersonal meaning constructed through immediate behaviours of the teachers in CSL classrooms promotes long-term memory, reduces learning anxiety, creates enjoyable and meaningful learning, develop student's confidence and help to instill good behaviour among students.

9.3   Contributions and Implications

The most important contribution of this study is the integration of theories from various schools of thought to analyse and examine the interpersonal meaning constructed in CSL classrooms. Besides the theories of SFL, teacher immediacy, multimodal discourse analysis, educational theories were also employed to systematically analyse how various semiotic resources were deployed and co-deployed when teachers enact multiple roles and in doing so, construct interpersonal teacher–student relationships in CSL classrooms. One of the

main objectives of the present study was to study the enactment of the multiple roles of the teacher and the establishment of teacher-students relationships through an integrated research framework put together by this study. The present research drew attention to the multiple roles assumed by teachers in CSL classrooms as instructors, facilitators, motivators, evaluators, disciplinarians, and value-bearers. The four CSL teachers enacted the role as instructor most frequently as they spent most of their time in delivering the content through whole class instruction. The realisation of power, status and relationships was accomplished through teaching and learning tasks planned by the teachers. As teaching and learning tasks realised through speech are accompanied by body movements in classroom discourse, various theories were adopted to conduct the classroom multimodal discourse analysis. As the eclectic analysis approach has never been attempted to study interpersonal relationships in Malaysian CSL classrooms, the present study has broken new ground in the research into teacher immediacy behaviours.

In relation to researching on immediacy, this study proposes a teacher immediacy framework, which brings together key findings from immediacy studies and relevant literature on teacher immediacy. Thus, it is considered to be a comprehensive theoretical to be used in the analysis of teacher immediacy based on qualitative data, such as video-recording data.

With regards to analytical approach adopted by this study, the present study is one of a very small number of empirical studies that also used the qualitative research method to investigate teacher immediacy, and it represents the first in Malaysia. The approach allows descriptive statistics to provide patterns of occurrences which is then supplemented with discussions to exemplify, explain and provide support for the phenomena. Similarly, the

350

present study is one of the first studies to examine classroom discourse in Malaysia using Martin's appraisal theory and multimodal discourse analysis to analyse the appraisal practices of teachers in teaching CSL. Furthermore, the research setting of the national school Chinese (BCSK) classroom is a relatively neglected area of analysis despite the increasing enrolment of students in CSL classrooms in Malaysia.

The utilization of time parameter (frequency, sequence, duration of performing something, see Bolotova, 2012) and space (proxemics) has rich interactional meaning and should be explored in research on negotiation of meaning for these elements have yet to attract enough attention from researchers. Therefore, the present research has also focused on the effects of the utilization of the two important nonverbal resources: time and space, in negotiating interactional meaning to further enrich findings of the study.

The study has also described the positive impact of interpersonal meaning on teaching and learning where this information could encourage teachers to adopt the various strategies to realise interpersonal relations which in turn could bring encouraging effect on their teaching and student's learning in their classes.

The current study has two main implications. This study has documented and provided empirical evidence on the various semiotic resources used in teaching CSL. The evidence validates findings from previous studies which were preoccupied with description of resources. This study, in fact, provides both quantitative and qualitative data for analysis. Subsequently, the study discusses the effects of teachers' appraisal practices on the shaping of good student behaviour, and the ways in which teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy wins the affinity and trust of students and the impact on the creation of a harmonious

learning environment. The findings of the present study can serve as valuable guidelines for teachers to enhance their effectiveness in teaching. This study has also documented immediacy practices in Malaysia, and drawn attention to the values and practices of the local society. For instance, touching is immediacy behaviour in the west, but this body language is rarely seen in Malaysia CSL classrooms. Teachers generally do not touch students to avoid unnecessary misunderstanding and criticisms. Malaysians also avoid pointing to people by using the index finger. This gesture is taboo, specifically in the Malay society. It is a rude and disrespectful gesture and should be avoided. The use of the lexical item 'teacher' when teacher addresses herself is also prevalent in the data studied which is believed not common in teacher talk in the western context. Information of this kind is useful for the contrastive study of immediacy behaviour.

9.4   Suggestions for Future Research

In terms of data, future research should include more schools and participants such that it can be representative of the schools that offer CSL classes in Malaysia. Similarly, classes that offer the teaching of languages other than Chinese as a second language can be considered as data for study and perhaps a comparative study can be carried out to examine findings from the different second language classes offered in schools. Another suggestion is to elicit data from higher institutions of learning in Malaysia which offer CSL classes in order to examine the construction of interpersonal meaning among older students.

With regards to methodology, future research could also study the graduation and engagement systems of the appraisal framework in analyzing second language classroom discourse apart from just examining attitudinal resources as carried out by this study which will further enrich findings.

9.5   Conclusion

The interpersonal meaning constructed in CSL classrooms is rich. It can be examined from many perspectives. For instance, the power and status of classroom participants; the intimacy relationship between the teacher and her students; the appraisal practices of teachers on students' performance as well as the appraisal of characters and events found in the teaching material are instances of interpersonal meanings revealed via classroom discourse. In addition, the communicative and social roles of teachers realised through the accomplishment of various teaching tasks planned by the teacher for achieving lesson objectives are also important aspects of interpersonal meaning construction.

To construct interpersonal meaning, teachers employ linguistic and non-linguistic semiotic resources. The present research analysed teachers' construction of interpersonal meaning through teacher talk and body language, such as facial expressions, gaze, gestures, postures and proxemics in teaching. These meaning making resources can be deployed solely or simultaneously. The study has shown that the appraisal resources used by teachers to evaluate students' performance and behaviour in the classroom discourse are a double edged sword that can be used to promote or hinder classroom learning. Positive appraisal and immediacy resources are very valuable resources that should be capitalized to cultivate positive values in students. However, negative appraisal and non-immediacy behaviours should be avoided as they have negative impacts on student learning and the teacher-student relationship.

It is hoped that the present study has illuminated research through its findings and that educators in Malaysia, specifically, can gain insights regarding interpersonal meaning to further enhance teaching and learning of not only CSL but also other languages. This is

timely as the Education Ministry of Malaysia in its Education Blueprint has called for the learning of more languages in line with the country's aspiration to become a developed nation by the year 2020.

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Heng, B. C., Fauziah T. & Cecilia Cheong Y.M. (2017). Constructing Interpersonal Meaning via Teacher Talk in Chinese as a Second Language Classroom: An Appraisal Analysis (accepted for publication, Moden Language Journal, University of Malaya, Vol. 27)

Heng, B. C., Cecilia Cheong Y.M. & Fauziah T. The Impact of Teacher Immediacy on the Teaching and Learning of Chinese as a Second Language (accepted for publication, Jurnal Kurikulum dan Pengajaran Asia Pasifik (JUKU), University of Malaya, October Issue）

Heng, B. C., Cecilia Cheong Y.M. & Fauziah T. The Study of Instructional Proxemics and Its Impact on Classroom Teaching and Learning. Paper submitted to International Journal of Language Studies (IJLS)

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