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Discourse Social Theories and their Potential Relevance in Language Teaching:
Exploring the Place of Discourse in Algerian Secondary Education

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I dedicate this work to:

memory of my mother who has always been the symbol of will in my life. This work would not have been possible without her immense love, support and advice.

memory of my teacher Prof. Neddar Belabbes during Master's and Doctoral studies who has never stopped advising and supporting me.

May Allah have Mercy on them all!

my husband who has always been there for me to encourage, support and provide me with all that I needed to face all the research difficulties.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my family members; brothers, sisters, nephews and nieces.

Abstract

This descriptive study aims to help improve the quality of interaction in the teaching of English in third-year secondary school classes in Algeria. More specifically, it investigates the place of English spoken discourse at Ali Chachou and Bouzar Essaidi's secondary schools (Chlef, Algeria). In other words, our focus is on the reasons behind learners' difficulties in expressing themselves correctly in English. To conduct this research study, six teachers with six classes, with more than 200 students in three different streams, foreign languages, literary and scientific, were observed. Data were collected using three research tools a survey questionnaire, a classroom observation, and a textbook evaluation, then were analysed, taking stock from teachers' views on EFL teaching in the questionnaire and the amount of teacher's talk, the types of classroom discourse structure and the teacher's questioning. The lessons were recorded in audio to obtain valid information. Based on data analysis, the findings showed that most of the talk in all classroom aspects is almost initiated by the teacher who intervenes in both the discourse structure IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) and the display questions. The EFL teacher's control over classroom talk patterns limits learners' critical reflection and decreases their opportunities to take part in classroom interaction. On the basis of the present findings, some pedagogical guidelines are suggested for secondary school teachers to overcome the weaknesses among EFL learners' outcomes in order to improve their discourse patterns development.

Keywords: English spoken discourse, EFL teacher's control, classroom discourse, learners' critical reflection, EFL learners' outcomes

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List of Abbreviations

BEM	Middle School Diploma
CA	Conversational Analysis
CBA	Competency-Based Approach
CEFRL	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CO	Classroom Observation
DA	Discourse Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
Etc	Et cetera
FL	Foreign Language
FL1	First Foreign Language
FL2	Second Foreign Language
GTM	The Grammar Translation Method
Ibid	In the same source
ICT	Information and Computing Technology
IDs	Individual Differences
IRF	Initiation Response and Feedback
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language/Foreign language
MA	Master of Arts
NNS	Non-native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
S, P, C, A	Subject, Predicator, Complement, Adjunct
SFG	Systemic Functional Grammar
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
S-R	Stimulus-Response
STT	Students Talking Time
TRP	Transition-Relevance Place
TTT	Teacher Talking Time
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nation
USA	United States of America
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

List of Acronyms

BAC	Baccalaureate; High School Diploma
e.g.	Example
Ibid	In the same source (referring to a previously cited work)
mid-	Middle

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1. The Statement of the Problem

Communication means interaction that takes place when interlocutors communicate their ideas and understandings using meaningful, correct and fluent language. The ability to communicate leads to proficiency in speaking and this is achieved through pragmatic mediation that depends on how people communicate but not how linguistic expressions communicate. Now, researchers in second language acquisition take into consideration all aspects of genuine conversation in different situations in order to provide the educational field with methods and strategies appropriate to today's generation needs.

The new educational reforms to teaching English came out with approaches and methods that play a crucial role in shaping learners' communicative competence using the target language. They also reveal the new roles of both the teacher and the learner. The teacher is no longer the only supplier of knowledge, s/he is rather considered as a co-learner who shares knowledge with learners in that s/he participates and guides at the same time his learners. The learner on the other hand is no more the passive group member who keeps memorizing the information that the teacher releases in the different classes. Rather, s/he is the active element who depends on his pre-existing knowledge about the world in the classroom to build new knowledge. The learner within the new approach participates in group interactions where he negotiates meaning, learns new knowledge and uses it later in new situations out of the learning settings.

The principle of the new approach to language teaching encourages the learner to develop autonomy in learning in that s/he will be able to be responsible. Cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, and affective factors are conducted in favour of the learner to enable him to construct new knowledge based on real-life experiences then re-invest it later in his learning. This new way of looking at the teaching of language that the new reform came with is now set as an objective in the Algerian Educational system to be realised within the implementation of the competency-based approach to teaching English as a foreign language in both middle and secondary schools.

The Algerian secondary school teacher is considered as the most important member of the educational body. He is found responsible of deciding about the methods and strategies he should use in each teaching situation. In this study, observation shows that

many teachers follow the way they were taught. In addition, the national ministry of education puts forward certain discipline to evaluate learners during trimesters.

Since each individual learner's situation is a case in itself even in the same classroom, the teacher face a difficult task to decide about the whole class concerning which methodology that fits their needs, s/he needs to have the opportunity to choose which procedure he sees appropriate to the specific class. Perhaps, because of the reasons that prevent the evaluation of each individual learner, the classroom is still a teacher-centred setting where teaching and learning are under the control of the teacher. This may clearly be the reason why students fail to understand or produce a piece of discourse in the target language even after even six years (four in middle school and two in secondary school) of learning English.

Despite the efforts the Ministry of National Education is spending to support the EFL teaching through compulsory and voluntary training about the current new pedagogical approach, still the learning situation presents a poor performance of the target language in its settings. Researchers suggest that the only way to uncover the paralysis within learners' poor outcome in language use is to observe teachers in the classroom (Alexander, 2008).

Interaction is an important element that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) today together with the current methodology implemented through the Competency Based Approach (CBA) take into consideration. Allwright, D. and Bailey, K.M. (1991) agree on that. They state that interaction serves foreign language learners' performance. CLT programme is based on real-life situation that requires communication that enables learners to interact with each other in the target language.

Littelwood (1981) in the same line sees that it is the job of teachers to create an environment where learners get involved in authentic communication, real-life activities that support the oral performance of the target language. The CBA also calls for such way of dealing with classroom language. This methodology of teaching supports the authentic communication where learners' should be involved in real-life situations to interact using the target language. This can be realized through pair and team work. Activities whose objective is to communicate social events, feelings, exchange personal ideas, and negotiate meanings orally in the target language do not

only make learners more active but also make their learning meaningful and exciting to them.

2. The Purpose of the Study

English is taught as a compulsory subject in Algerian schools in general and secondary schools in particular and is given considerable time separately according to the different streams. English, as presented in the Algerian curricula (2006) by the Algerian Ministry of National Education, is the medium of instruction and interaction with pupils in the FL classroom. It is also supposed to be a means of communication outside the classroom since it is already learnt and used. However, how it is taught to pupils who are supposed to reach a considerable level of proficiency at the level of both receptive and productive skills at the end of, let us say, each course level, is the main objective of this research.

As other countries that teach English as a foreign language, Algeria witnesses and adopts in its curriculum the new approaches as well as new methodologies and strategies to teaching English. However, what is happening in the classroom between the teacher and learners does not demonstrate this. Some teachers claim that the teaching of English should focus on knowledge of language; rules of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation whereas using the mother tongue (Arabic in this case) would, not only, prevent learners from producing correct language but also lessen their possibilities to using the foreign language outside the classroom.

Other teachers, on the other hand state that the fact of allowing the use of learners' L1 avoids time consuming and may motivate learners to get involved in the lesson. In addition, it enables them to learn equivalent vocabulary accordingly. For them, learning an FL is not a matter of putting stretches of sentences together for grammatical purposes; knowledge of the language is not an end by itself but a means to an end; its importance lies in structuring ideas and producing a coherent spoken and written L2 discourse.

Such differences in the teaching methodologies have no doubt an impact on learners' language production. They may make learners passive not knowing what for or how they learn a FL. The aim of the present research is to shed light on the teaching methodology applied in the classroom to teach the foreign through analysing the type of discourse and questions the teacher uses as well as the frequency and amount of teacher/learner talk.

3. Research Questions

This study set out to investigate the nature of teacher-student interaction in secondary EFL classrooms in order to shed light on the underlying pedagogical approaches currently in use and to understand the contextual issues that shape such patterns of interaction. The study was designed to explore the following research questions:

1) What types of discourse do Algerian secondary school EFL teachers currently use in their classes?

2) Does learners' performance reveal a real classroom interaction?

3) To what extent is the teaching/learning process supported by teaching materials relevant to the context so as to apply the communicative approaches to teaching English?

3.1. Hypotheses

Our assumption was put forward through the following hypotheses:

H1): We suggest the dominance of the IRF discourse structure and the supremacy of display questions which prevent the learner from getting involved in longer discussions.

H2): We hypothesise that students' classroom participation does not contribute to their learning of the target language because it does not reflect real communication patterns. We also hypothesise that students' interests are directed towards written examinations at the expense of classroom performances.

H3) We assume that the absence of authentic language classrooms lies in the current teaching materials represented in the third year students' textbook and the teachers' methodology that lacks innovation. We also assume that the absence of regular pedagogical training and classroom observations by experts makes it difficult the change in the teaching methodology.

4. Research Settings

The study was conducted at two secondary schools Ali Chachou high school in the center of the Wilaya of Chlef and Bouzar Essaidi Mohamed secondary school in Oued Fodda, a small town in Chlef province. The researcher finds it beneficial to give a brief

view about these educational institutions including points such as location, educational status, and the BAC results for the last years.

Ali Chachou high school is situated in the center of Chlef city for a long time. It is a point of collaboration and coordination for teachers, administrators, inspectors, and sports national clubs from all the Algerian regions. It is an important setting for the collection of BAC, BEM examinations' papers and correction as well. Concerning BAC results, Ali Chachou School has been classified, many times, the first at the level of the Wilaya with an average of 18 and 17/20 in the scientific stream.

Bouzar Essaidi Mohamed high school is also an ancient educational institution in terms of location. It is situated in the East 22 km from Chlef province. It has long been equipped with high tech machines for technical streams that made it famous at the level of North Africa during the 80's. It has recently changed into an institution of different streams in addition to the previous ones such as scientific, literal, economic, and foreign languages. As to its educational ranking in the wilaya, Bouzar Essaidi has been almost always classified among the poorest. The school members, especially, learners are supervised and monitored by the direct responsibility of the headmaster under a strict school regulation. For both institutions, there is an encouragement by the mentors for the learning of English considering that it is both an institutional and a world language.

5. Data Collection and Procedures

Part of the investigation in this study is carried out through an opening questionnaire for teachers used to obtain as much as possible information about teachers' personal views of pedagogy and teaching a foreign language. The other part of the investigation, which is the main part, is carried out using another type of data collection procedure which is classroom observation. This one is also the means through which we verify our research hypotheses, and try to answer our research questions.

In any classroom observation we have two strategies of observation: *structured* and *unstructured* observation. According to Cohen et al (cited in Donryei, 2001,) structured observation means going into the classroom with a specific focus. Structured observation involves the recording of events of predefined types occurring at particular points in time. It usually produces quantitative data about the frequency occurrence of different classroom events or activities. Furthermore, structured observation is easy to be described for its limited goal but difficult to be well covered without engaging in the

process. In other words, it involves placing an observer in a social setting to observe all activities designed for observation. This type of observation may easily miss the insights that could be provided by the participants themselves (Allwright & Bailey 1991). It may also disrupt the learners' attention.

Unstructured observation, however, is less clear than the first category. The observer needs to observe first what is taking place before deciding on its significance for the research. In contrast to structured observation, unstructured observation does not require the observer to participate in the classroom what gives him more opportunities to cover all that is happening without disturbing the whole class participants. Thus, the current study uses an unstructured observation because the structured observation would have given us a very limited view of classroom behaviours (ibid).

In order to take a full account of classroom interaction with the participants, we acted as a passive observer. This role has no interaction role with the participants during data collection procedure. Being an observer as a participant using audio-recording are useful techniques to be almost unnoticeable as possible in order to minimize the effect on the data collected.

To obtain authentic data collection for all the observed classes, teachers were informed that the researcher will audio-record the different sessions in order to obtain valid information when analysing data. There was no instruction to the teachers on using particular methods or even particular types of questions.Then, the audio-recorded data was listened to by the researcher several times. After the regular observation, all the discourses of the teachers and their students were transcribed and calculated according to the three aspects: the amount of *teacher talk*, the types of *discourse structure*, and the uses of *teachers' questions*.

Next, all the items (of audio-recording of each class) concerning the above three aspects were counted to get the means and average percentages of the items for each class. The means and average percentages of the items of the six classes were finally calculated and analyzed. The final stage was analyzing the data of both research tools in order to find reasonable answers to the research questions.

6. Research Instruments

To meet the purpose of the study, audio-recording and classroom observation were the major instruments for the present study. The questionnaire was the first to be dealt with before the researcher got access to the classroom observation. For the observation, the six English classes were audio-recorded and then transcribed for analysis. In order to keep the potential of the classroom natural environment, the researcher attended the six classes, observing the classroom teaching and learning processes without any interference in the teacher's methodology or objectives. She just observed the classroom activities and took notes to facilitate data analysis.

7. Description of the Study

This study aims to examine third year English classes at Ali Chachou and Bouzar Essaidi secondary schools in Chlef in order to identify the types of discourse the teacher uses to cover the classroom events and activities. This examination is an attempt to uncover weaknesses and problems causing pupils' language shortcomings in terms.

The present study will be divided into six chapters. The first chapter entitled: 'Overview of Discourse Theory' will be about defining discourse. It includes role and implication in language teaching. The second chapter: 'Discourse and Learning Theories' will review Theories of learning. It will focus on well-known theories that support the view of discourse as an approach to language teaching.

The third chapter: 'Classroom Discourse and Language Teaching/Learning' is an account of classroom discourse and language teaching/learning. It shows how specific new educational reforms contribute to enhance language teaching. Chapter four: 'Educational Factors Influencing ELT Discourse Development' will tackle educational factors influencing individual discourse construction as it will present important consideration contributing in an advanced FL learner.

The two last chapters represent the empirical part of the study. Chapter five will focus on Research Design and Methodology where the three tools of research in this study are presented and described, while chapter six will include the Discussion of the Results.

Introduction

Until recently most linguistic study has been based upon the principle that the sentence is the basic unit of expression. However, there is a growing interest and acceptance of the analysis of discourse as basic to understanding the use of language as opposed to the more traditional sentence-based grammars. Traditional education used a grammar-based approach with literary texts for comprehension and production leaving aside all other language realities such as language use and communication while discourse theory states that all the relevant text around a message should be considered to understand language clearly and universally, instead of viewing it as a separate sentence (Molly Chandy 2012).

Applied linguists having taken from discourse theorists, found it relevant to analyze language at the discourse level in order to prepare learners to use the second/foreign language not to be examined and tested only but most importantly, to be able to participate in conversations inside and outside the class. This cannot be achieved unless the target language is taught for communicative purposes. This requires teachers to involve learners in the appropriate context where they realize a real communication. This chapter will present the theory of discourse discussing the preferences that led scholars to shift their interest from sentence-based analysis to discourse analysis.

1. What is Discourse?

Linguistics defines discourse as a unit of language longer than a single sentence. Since in reality most utterances and texts are more than a sentence, the surrounding text of the sentence gives it a deeper meaning. Subsequently, it gives validity and depth of meaning to a discourse (Molly chandy 2012) and uncovers the real human linguistic behaviour. Van Dijk (1989) claims that grammar is relative. For him, sentences are not simply grammatical or ungrammatical per se; they often occur as elements in a sentence, and their grammaticalness may depend on the structures of surrounding sentences. At the phonological level, the assignment of stress and intonation patterns depends on information distribution, topic-comment structures, contrast, etc. between subsequent sentences. At the syntactic level, it has appeared that sentences may be incomplete or semi-grammatical, given parallel syntactic structures in previous sentences. Moreover, the use of articles and demonstratives, tenses, modalities, etc. can be generalized from composite (compound & complex) sentences to sequences of sentences.

1.1. Discourse as a Text

A text is any piece of language, spoken or written, of whatever length, which forms a unified whole. Widdowson (2007, p: 4) defines text as an actual use of language, as distinct from a sentence which is an abstract unit of linguistic analysis. He adds 'We identify a piece of language as a text as soon as we recognize that it has been produced for a communicative purpose. A speaker/reader of a language can easily distinguish between a text and a collection of sentences because texts have texture, that is, the quality of functioning as a unit. Here we can refer to texts within educational textbooks. These texts are written in the way they are, according to a theme to be studied and analysed through classes.

In the textbooks of secondary education, grammar is represented through a context where students can grasp the grammatical functions of sentences and words as well (see chapter five). Students read, interpret then use the background knowledge to comprehend the different details of the text. Actually, this is not enough to get to the meaning behind the text because, in reality, words and sentences of a particular text do not only depend on knowledge that they carry but also depend on the writer/reader expectations about sentence relations (the context) and discourse structures.

For a text to have texture, it must include ties that bind it together. These ties are called cohesive ties, given that cohesion is expressed partly through grammar and partly through vocabulary, there are different types of cohesive ties, such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, discourse markers and lexical cohesion. These ties produce cohesion.

Texts without ties	Texts with ties
You will not be arrested, you prove your innocence.	You will not be arrested *unless* you prove your innocence.
The government will eradicate corruption, it acts now.	The government will eradicate corruption, *as long as* it acts now.
This pupil is intelligent. This pupil works hard.	This pupil is intelligent. *He* always works hard.

Cohesion refers to the relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as a text (Halliday & Hasan 1976:4). There is cohesion when the interpretation of an element in the text is dependent on that of another (e.g. clauses in complex sentences),

that is, "cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it" (Halliday & Hasan 1976).

'If I'm elected to office, I'm going to improve the standard of life in our town.'

The *if-clause* in this sentence is dependent and the reader cannot grasp its meaning unless it is joined with the second clause that follows by which it gives the text meaning. However, by itself, cohesion would not be sufficient to enable us to make sense of what we read. Second/foreign language learners do not present many benefits behind this activity. They may refer to what they have already understood from the texts in discussing comprehension questions, but not those of grammar. Similarly, in the grammar session, learners do not refer to the information in the texts (as they are normally directed to) in order to understand grammar points because, in the comprehension activity, they deal with the text (reading/listening script) as an activity by itself. It is quite easy to create a highly cohesive text which has a lot of connections between the sentences, but which remains difficult to interpret even with the help of the teachers who do the most deal of the activity.

For instance, in the third year class textbook *The New Prospect*, the grammar points are mostly related to texts the learner reads. After reading a text, interpreting its different comprehension activities, the learner is supposed to have understood the semantic relations that exist among the units of the text in hand, that is, part of the picture is there, and it needs only the grammatical understanding to complete the full picture. However, at the end of the session, almost all the class did not grasp the grammar point they have been explained and illustrated. Even with practice, students do not do well in exams; only 2% of the class get the key to the grammar activity.

Richards, Platt and Platt 1993 define *coherence* as the relationships which link the meanings of sentences in a discourse (cited in Fernando Trujillo Sáez y José Luis Ortega Martín). While cohesion is the formal links that exist between sentences in discourse, coherence is the quality of being *unified*, *meaningful*, and *purposive* (Cook, 1989). The key to the concept of coherence is not something which exists in language, but something which exists in language users. It is people who make sense of what they read and hear. They try to arrive at an interpretation which goes with their experience of the way the world is.

Indeed, our ability to make sense of what we read is probably only a small part of that general ability. We have to make sense of what we perceive or experience in the world. By doing so, we would necessarily be involved in a process of filling in a lot of gaps which exist in the text. We would have to create meaningful connections which are not actually expressed by the words and sentences. In reality, we are continually taking part in conversational interactions where a great deal of what is meant is not actually present in what is said. It is the context that we share as participants that enable us to implicitly anticipate each other's intentions. For instance:

She: Let's go to the cinema tonight!
He: I don't feel good.
She: O.K.

It is meant to show how language is an idealized form which is meant to show language functions, how it works. An instance of language as a text is the conventional form of grammar that we have always been introduced to since we started uttering words. A sentence is an instance of language as a text. It is not meaningful but (like Halliday calls) *meaning potential* because it is removed from its elements. When we say a sentence is meaningless, it is a meaning potential. We don't look at it from a discourse point of view but as a model of language. It is a sentence unsaid that has no contextual elements. It is here to explain how language is used, how language functions as a system of systems. A sentence is meaningless unless it is said in a context. Only when it is pronounced and used within a context that it ceases to be a meaning potential. It is not a sentence but an utterance.

1.2. Discourse and Context

Different linguists seek to define context from different points of view in order to answer questions encountered in their own fields, and to support their own ideas and theories. For instance, H. G. Widdowson, focusing on meaning, defines it as 'those aspects of the circumstance of actual language use which are taken as relevant to meaning.' 'in other words, he detailed, context is a schematic construct... the achievement of pragmatic meaning is a matter of matching up the linguistic elements of the code with the schematic elements of the context.' (2000). Guy Cook when studying the relationship between discourse and literature, he also took into consideration 'context'. For him, context is the knowledge of the world implying a narrow and a broad

sense of the concept. In the narrow sense, it refers to the factors outside the text in hand. In the broad sense, it refers to those factors and to (knowledge of) other parts of the text being used, sometimes referred to as "co-text'." (Guy Cook, 1999). George Yule (2000), in his study of reference and inference also considered 'context'. He claims that 'Context is the physical environment in which a word is used.' All of the definitions above share an important point that implies that context is the environment, factors, and circumstances in which a discourse occurs.

Context has been defined and considered with by many scholars in the study of language; each of them tackles it from various dimensions. However, what is the common point here is that language cannot be studied without taking into consideration the context as they identify it through different types which will be defined as follows.

1.2.1. Linguistic Context

Linguistic context refers to the context within the discourse, that is, the relationship between the words, phrases, sentences and even paragraphs. Linguistic context can be explored from three aspects: deictic, co-text, and collocation. In a language event, the participants must know where they are in space and time, and these features relate directly to the deictic context, by which we refer to word or expressions like the time expressions *now* or *then* that depend on the context it is used in, and the person expressions 'I, you, etc.' Deictic expressions help to establish deictic roles which derive from the fact that in normal language behavior the speaker addresses his utterance to another person and may refer to himself, to a certain place, or to a time.

Recently, some linguists started taking into consideration the previous discourse co-ordinate. Levis (2005) introduces this co-ordinate to take account of the previously mentioned sentences. It is the case that any sentence other than the first in a fragment of discourse, will have the whole of its interpretation forcibly constrained by the preceding text, not just those phrases which obviously and specifically refer to the preceding text.

In 1934, Porzig argued for the recognition of the importance of syntagmatic relations, between, e.g., bite and teeth, bark and dog, blond and hair, which Firth (1950) called collocation. Collocation is not simply a matter of association of ideas. Although milk is white, we should not often say white milk, while the expression white paint is common enough. Perhaps that what leads to misunderstandings among language learners,

especially, when they do not well interpret the text being studied; the words 'address' would have been understood as the location where someone lives, if they had not been exposed to Martin Luther king address which is a public speech.

1.2.2. Situational Context

Situational context, or context of situation, refers to the environment, time and place, etc. in which the discourse occurs, and also the relationship between the participants. This theory is traditionally approached through the concept of register, which helps to clarify the interrelationship of language with context by handling it under three basic headings: field, tenor, and mode.

Field of discourse refers to the ongoing activity. We may say field is the linguistic reflection of the purposive role of language user in the situation in which a text has occurred. *Tenor* refers to the kind of social relationship enacted in or by the discourse. The notion of tenor, therefore, highlights the way in which linguistic choices are affected not just by the topic or subject of communication but also by the kind of social relationship within which communication is taking place. *Mode* is the linguistic reflection of the relationship the language user has to medium of transmission. The principal distinction within mode is between those channels of communication that entail immediate contact and those that allow for deferred contact between participants. The following is an example of an analysis of a speech delivered by the Egyptian president Hosni Mubarak. The researcher has already worked on this during MA classes adopting Halliday's three headings: field, mode, and tenor within the systemic Functional Gramar (SFG) approach:

> 'I talk to you during critical times that are testing Egypt and its people which could sweep them into the unknown. The country is passing through difficult times and tough experiences which began with noble youths and citizens who practise their rights to peaceful demonstrations and protests, expressing their concerns and aspirations but they were quickly exploited by those who sought to spread chaos and violence, confrontation and to violate the constitutional legitimacy and to attack it.'

(Hosni Mubarak's 1 February 2011 speech to the Egyptian protesters)

With regard to *Field,* as mentioned above, the topic being tackled is a speech delivered by the Egyptian president H. Bubarak, in *Tahrir Square*, to the protesters

against his government. This important speech is characterized by a calm argumentative tone and logical persuasion; "*The country is passing through difficult times and tough experiences*", mentioning the most important point in his speech right in the beginning which is "*citizens*" and their rights in "*demonstrations and protests*". He also shows friendly feeling and understanding towards the protesters "noble youths and citizens who practise their rights". This shows that the president is consistent in delivering his speech in that the central theme of the speech is respected.

The subject of the speech is in the spoken *mode*. This is clearly shown in his words "I talk to you…" The choice of words indicates relax, stable, and calm tone reflecting the content of the speech which intends to draw attention and to emphasize the serious nature of the subject matter. The speaker is being formal delivering his speech as a president. Although the speaker uses the subjects "I" and "you" to address the population, it seems as if he is addressing either a hearer hearing to a radio or a reader reading newspaper for instance. This is understood from the continuous speech which is connected through a unique subject and from his words "who practise their *rights….those* who sought …"

Considering tenor, we have two parts as participants in this speech the president H. Mubarak and the citizens. The use of the subjects "I" and "you" in the beginning of the speech conveys that those are the two participants but the continuous speech above, "the country... and to attack it", reveals that the hearer (or the reader) is absent for as many sociolinguists state that any conversation requires a speaker/hearer interaction through a negotiation of meaning. It means that the speech here is a one-way direction which contrasts the "*I* and *you*" above. The speaker thus, is in a situation of imposing his opinion whether the public of citizens has something to say or not.

To recapitulate, the president being the deliverer of the above speech opens by appreciating and respecting those protesters for their rights of *expressing their concerns and aspirations*. But, this is explicitly hidden through his pretence not to show his real intention which is warning them: "…but they were quickly exploited…" this explains his intention that those noble youths are wrong in their opposition and deal with those who exploit them and that they should change their mind. Therefore, the three headings that Halliday points out (field, mode, and tenor) are being respected somehow from the first reading of the speech, but, digging deeper throughout the piece of discourse, one may

discover several intentions. Thus, a good analysis of any discourse requires a careful attention taking into account, in the case of the speech above, the background of the country (the political situation at that time), the personality of the speaker (the period of his mandatory) the reaction of population...etc. All these are elements that one shouldn't neglect when analyzing a piece of discourse whether written or spoken regardless the approach being adopted.

1.2.3. Cultural Context

Cultural context refers to the culture, customs and background of epoch in language communities in which the speakers participate. Language is a social phenomenon, and it is closely related to the social structure and value system of society. Therefore, language cannot avoid being influenced by all these factors like social role, social status, sex and age, etc.

1.2.4. The Role of Context

As was mentioned above, the context of use plays a very important role in discourse analysis. A general view of the role of context is as follows.

Eliminating Ambiguity

Ambiguity refers to a word, phrase, sentence or group of sentences with more than one possible interpretation or meaning. There are two kinds of ambiguities: lexical ambiguity and structural ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity is mostly caused by homonymy and polysemy. For example, these four words 'so, sew, and sow' are all pronounced the same [so], but they are different in meaning from each other. Let's also have a look at the following sentence:

1) They passed the port at midnight.
2) He likes her cooking.
3) Do they move?

Sentence 1) is lexically ambiguous. However, it would normally be clear in a given context which can indicate the meaning of the word "port", meaning either harbor or a kind of fortified wine. Sentence 2) is structurally ambiguous in that one should share the context that implies either that the man likes her wife when she is cooking or he finds her cooking delicious. Such mistakes may be committed by FL learners when they are not aware of discourse structure in the target language for the reason that they simply use

their pre-existing knowledge in their mother tongue as a reference to solve the linguistic situation being involves in.

Indicating Referents

To avoid repetition, we usually use such words like *I, you, he, this, that,* etc. to replace some noun phrases, or words like do, can, should, etc. to replace verb phrases, or then, there, etc. to replace adverbial phrase of time and place. Therefore, context is of great importance in understanding the referents of such words. Consider the following dialogue:

- Do you think she will do?
- I don't know. She might.
- I suppose s she can't, but perhaps she ought to.
-I think she might regret before doing so.
-I don't think she might.

Without context, we can hardly guess what the speakers are talking about since there are too many auxiliary verbs and modal verbs such as *will, might, have, can't*, etc. used in the dialogue. In fact, these auxiliary and modal verbs replace the verb phrase, 'leave home'. From this typical example, we can see the important role of context.

Detecting Conversational Implicature

The term conversational implicature is used by Grice to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says and it is deduced on the basis of the conversational meaning of words together with the context, under the guidance of the Cooperative Principle and its four maxims, i.e., Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner.

Table1: **Conversational Maxims (Grice 1975, p. 45)**

Quantity	Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange). Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
Quality	Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
Relation	Be relevant
Manner	Be perspicuous. Avoid obscurity of expression. Avoid ambiguity. Be brief. (Avoid unnecessary prolixity). Be orderly.

Grice also found that when people communicate with each other, they do not always adhere to the four maxims. The violation of a maxim may result in the speaker conveying, in addition to the literal meaning of his utterance, an additional meaning, which is conversational implicature. Let us look at the following example:

Mother: the phone is ringing!
Daughter: I'm having a bath.
Mother: It is ok, I will do then.

Superficially, the daughter's answer has nothing to do with the mother's. She violates the maxim of relevance. Actually, we must assume that the daughter is taking into account the Cooperative Principle and means something more than the literal meaning. The additional meaning, namely, conversational implicature, is that she has just started her bath and she can't reply to phone.

Once the analysis of intended meaning goes beyond the literal meaning of an utterance, a vast number of issues have to be considered. In discourse analysis, conversational implicature is pragmatic and is partially derived from the conversational or literal meaning of an utterance, produced in a specific context, which is shared by the speaker and the hearer, and depends on their recognition of the Cooperative Principle and its maxims. Now let us see another example.

(The boss of a restaurant gives two pennies to a temporary worker who does washing for him.)

Wife Boss: Here is your pay, boy!
Work: I have worked for nine hours.

In this conversational fragment, we can find that the second utterance is the same as the previous example, namely, they have the same literal meaning. Besides, they both seem to be irrelevant to the utterance of the first speaker and we can also assume that the maxim of relevance is deliberately violated. Then can we conclude that the two utterances have the same conversational implicature? No. It is unreasonable for the worker to tell his boss that he is too tired to work for him, when his boss gives him the pay that does not match his nine-hour hard work.

The real conversational implicature of his utterance is that the boss should have given him more since he had worked such a long time. We must pay attention to the

changed context: the relationship of two speakers has changed from wife-husband to boss-worker; the status has changed from equal to superior-inferior; and the pre-linguistic context has changed from words for a request of doing housework to that for an action of giving pay. The conversational implicature is changed as the context changes. The perception of a conversational implicature cannot let aside the specific context where the discourse occurs.

The importance of context for communication urges us to accept that, if our objective in teaching a foreign language is to create a competent at communicating, we should present models of language as contextualized as possible or we are trying to create an unauthentic communication where we prevent learners from getting familiar with and experiencing contextual indexes such as dialect, social relationship between the participants, or social function/definition of the communicative situation, which both learners and we realize in our everyday social events Josep Maria Cots (1996, p:81). The best way to contextualize language is to get learners involved in real-life situations to get them encountered with real instances of language use where the full potential of language can be appreciated by looking at its social effects (ibid 81).

2. Discourse and Language Study

As mentioned earlier, language has always been studied taking into consideration the principle that the sentence is the basic unit of expression. Now, linguistics involves two approaches in the study of language, namely, discourse analysis and pragmatics. Both approaches serve the description of language as it is used and as it is given to a specific recipient. We will see some examples where language cannot be interpreted unless a particular context is shared with the speech community. Let us reflect on the famous example "*We are not amused*" used in Cutting J. (2002, A: A.1.1)

If we analyse the sentence from a grammatical point of view, we can say that: '*We*' is the noun phrase subject and refers to a 1st person plural pronoun. '*Are*' is the main verb agreeing with 'we'. '*Not*' is a negative marker. '*Amused*' is an adjectival complement. In fact, by doing this, we are dealing with *syntax*. Syntax is the way that words are linked to each other. This process does not take into account the world outside. It includes grammar, and does not consider the 'who' 'whom', 'when', 'where' and 'why'.

With the same language sample: "*We are not amused*", if we look at the meaning of the words separately, we will consider that '*We*' indicates the speaker. '*Are*' identifies a state rather than action. '*Amused*' has a sense of distraction. Here, we are dealing with 'semantics', the study of what the words mean by themselves as codified in the dictionary, that is to say, out of their context. Semanticists would not consider here the background features of the utterance.

Conversely, 'pragmatics' and 'discourse analysis' are approaches to studying language in relation to the contextual background features. They take into account all the circumstances that an utterance was said in. As in our example, they would take into account that: the speaker, Queen Victoria was in a state of depression caused by the death of her husband Albert. Her courtiers knew this and her response was to a joke which they had just made. Analysts would infer that the Queen's intention was to stop her courtiers make her laugh and lift her out of depression and that her utterance is a reminder that she has to be respected as Queen.

As far as language teaching is concerned, language cannot be dealt with out of the context it is performed in especially when learners are non-native of language. Let us now, take an example from the classroom. The following is a question among others taken from a textbook in an a*s you read* rubric to be answered by pupils after they have already read the text:

Teacher: which body of the UN is responsible to settle dispute?
Pupils: The Security Council

The pupils could answer the question because they first have the basic tool (the script) and second because the question itself carries a key word (*body*). For the question given, the teacher depended on two contexts the syntactic and the semantic referring to the word 'body' in the question.

Nevertheless, if the pupils were given the question above without referring to any text, they, no doubt would not know the answer. Without information about the elements in the question (UN, body, settle, dispute, etc.), pupils cannot deliver any information. In contrast, by referring to the text in the textbook, they can directly mention the sentence.

If we observe the content of the textbook, particularly in the 'Reading and Writing' rubric, we find that the way the questions are included considers the learner's

cognitive capacity. That is why, purposefully, the referential question includes a key word (*body*) that signals the answer in the text and. Thus, these types of activities are intended for learners for many reasons chief among them: to enable pupils to use the background knowledge available for language analysis and to avoid time consumption too.

Both syntax and semantic serve in studying language however, they leave out important elements that give meaning to what is said by speakers. Syntax does not take into consideration the world outside whereas semantic does not consider the background features of the utterance. Thus, in order to study language, more information and details need to be studied. Pragmatics and discourse analysis are approaches to studying language in relation to the contextual background features. Not like semantics and syntax, pragmatics and discourse analysis will take into account all the circumstances that an utterance was said in so as to the study language. Both pragmatics and discourse analysis study *'context', 'Discourse'* and *'function'* (Yule, 1996).

3. Discourse and Discourse Analysis

Discourse has been the object of many field of research in the humanities and social sciences, that is inspired by their research in the field such as sociolinguistics, anthropology, social psychology, education, cognitive psychology, and translation studies and many other fields of research which have tackled it with regards to their own assumptions. Thus discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Discourse analysis has emerged as a field of discourse research, responding to the interdisciplinary requirement claimed by the complexity of the subject matter. It provides a heterogeneous epistemological framework for the investigation of the discourse as a signifying system.

In these terms, discourse analysis becomes a viable qualitative method in communication research. Following a period when structuralist theories dominated the search for the meaning of communication, discourse analysis emerged as an interdisciplinary space in which the epistemological paradigms of pragmatics (the new rhetoric, the theory of enunciation, the theory of speech acts) and of sociology (ethnomethodology, ethnography of communication, analysis of conversation, sociolinguistics) cohabit. In her book, *Approaches to Discourse*, Deborah Schiffrin

presents six approaches that she considers to be dominant in discourse analysis in order to study 'the use of language for social, expressive and referential purposes': the theory of speech acts, pragmatics, ethnomethodology, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication and variational sociolinguistics

The interdisciplinary character of the field is thus updated in theories and concepts that intend to articulate the language with social, psychological and cultural factors in order to produce and decipher its meaning. Despite its diverse nature, from this perspective, the discourse analysis finds its unity and consistency in the existence of certain common points of the disciplines that contribute to its constitution, namely:

- Conceptualization of discourse as a collective construction
- Intervention of social and cultural norms, which determines roles and relationships of the participants, as well as the content of the messages
- Social and interactive character of language
- Dynamics of enunciation

Linguistic research on discourse orients the interest towards detecting regularities through which coherence of phrases is achieved within. Zellig Harris's (1952), established the term *discourse analysis* to refer to research on the discourse, addresses the question of discursive contiguity on a formal plane, highlighting two issues relevant to what will later become discourse analysis. The first refers to overcoming the perspective limited to the study of the sentence, and the second concerns the correlation between culture (understood as non-linguistic behaviour) and language/linguistic behaviour. For Harris, the connection between sentences is the result of the situation in which they have been articulated, which would lead to the conclusion that similar situations produce similarities of discourses.

Zellig Harris (1952) posed the question: how do we tell whether a sequence of sentences is a text, that is, the sentences relate to one another and collectively form some larger whole as opposed to just a random collection of unrelated bits? For Harris the answer to this question would make clear what kind of structure exists 'above the sentence'. Texts would have this structure, whereas random collections of sentences would not. Harris' theory has been compromised, in the opinion of Segre, by ignoring the signified and the intention of the speaker, a fact that generates the acknowledgement of the necessity that, in the analysis, one should relate to the semantic aspects of the discourse.

Similarly, Crystal (1992) states that discourse analysis is the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc. It investigates how the choices of articles, pronouns, and tenses affect the structures of the discourse. It also clarify the relationship between utterances in a discourse and how speakers make the moves to introduce a new topic, change the topic, or insert a higher role relationship to the other participants. The analysis of spoken discourse as the nature of text implies is sometimes called conversional analysis (CA) whereas the study of written discourse for some linguists is text linguistics.

American discourse analysis has been dominated by work within the ethnomethodological tradition, which emphasises the research method of close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings. It examines types of speech event such as storytelling, greeting rituals and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings (e.g. Gumperz and Hymes (1972) cited in McCarthy (1991)). What is often called conversation analysis within the American tradition can also be included under the general heading of discourse analysis. McCarthy (1991, p:6) claims that in conversational analysis, the emphasis is not upon building structural models but on the close observation of the behaviour of participants in talk and on patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data. In this study, the American discourse analysis will be the model through which the empirical study will be built. On the other hand, the British discourse analysis was deeply influenced by M. A. K. Halliday's functional approach to language (e.g. Halliday 1973). Halliday is among the founding fathers of the functional direction of language is M.A.C Halliday, the leader of the Systemic Functional Grammar which shows much attention to discourse rather than to the sentence. Halliday's Systemics looks at how language acts upon and is constrained by the social context in which it functions. This idea will be discussed in this chapter within Halliday's perspective on language.

Discourse analysis is both an old and a new discipline. Historically, it refers to the period when it was the study of language, public speech and literature, more than 2000 years ago. However, here, we will be interested in outlining modern discourse analysis that was located in the mid-1960s when the humanities and the social sciences witnessed a remarkable shift with the birth of several new but mutually related 'interdisciplines' such as semiotics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics as well as the study of discourse that made language beyond the sentence a subject of interest in their studies.

3.1. Implication in Language Teaching

One of the goals of second language teaching is to expose learners to different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. However, even with the most communicative approaches, the second language classroom is limited in its ability to develop learners' communicative competence in the target language. This is due to the restricted number of contact hours with the language; minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers; and limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the classroom. Given the limited time available for students to practice the target language, teachers found responsible of making available opportunities for student participation.

One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the second/foreign language classroom is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2001; McCarthy & Carter, 1994). By exploring natural language use in authentic environments, learners gain a greater appreciation and understanding of the discourse patterns associated with a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation across settings and contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends, opening and closings of answering machine messages, or other aspects of speech events.

Language learners face the monumental task of acquiring not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and interactional competence for communicative purposes. They need opportunities to investigate the systematicity of language at all linguistic levels, especially at the highest level (1996 Joseph Maria Cots). Without knowledge of and experience with the discourse and sociocultural patterns of the target language, second language learners are likely to rely on the strategies and expectations acquired as part of their first language development, which may be inappropriate for the second language setting and may lead to communication difficulties and misunderstandings.

The relevance of discourse analysis to second/foreign language teaching and learning provides examples of how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use both in and out of the classroom, and how students can learn language

through exposure to different types of discourse. In short, teachers can use discourse analysis not only as a research method for investigating their own teaching practices but also as a tool for studying interactions among language learners. Learners can benefit from using discourse analysis to explore what language is and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts. Thus discourse analysis can help to create a second language learning environment that more accurately reflects how language is used and encourages learners toward their goal of proficiency in another language.

The study of language has witnessed a lot of changes and welcomed new trends. Many of these trends appeared to revolutionize the traditional view of language. The new perspective came with the idea that language should be dealt with in terms of its function rather than its structure. The functional direction is a tendency which views meaning, from the context it appears in since it is the context that gives utterances their meaning. It looks at language from a pragmatic view that aims at revealing the real human behaviour. This view helps to identify the meaning of the text. For the functionalist view of language, a word is identified by the context it appears in but not the dictionary that presents it in different meanings.

4. Discourse and the Pragmatic Theory

The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, language study cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs (Brown & Yule, 1983:1). Meaning has always been a challenge for linguists. Charles Morris (1938) divided meaning into Semantic; the study of meaning as encoded in language when I say *beautiful*, it means *beautiful* as it is shown in the dictionary, and Pragmatic which is the study of meaning which focuses on the use of language in a particular situation; it aims to explain how factors outside language contribute to both literal meaning (semantics) and non-literal meaning (pragmatic) which speakers communicate using language.

The 60s, the work of the linguistic philosophers Austin (1962) 'How to Do Things with Words', Searle (1969) 'speech acts' and Grice (1975) 'conversational maxims' were influential in the study of language as social action as they spot light on language use as a subject of interest extending the traditional focus on syntax and semantics with a pragmatic component, considering the illocutive functions of language in terms of speech

acts, implicatures and other context-based aspects of language use. This new dimension added a pragmatic orientation to the already existed theoretical components of language. Today, pragmatics has become a discipline that comprehends numerous studies about language use beyond grammar (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Pragmatics is considered one of the approaches to discourse analysis. In language, pragmatics and discourse are closely connected. It encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behaviour in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology. Unlike semantics, which examines meaning that is conventional or 'coded' in a given language, pragmatics studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge (e.g., grammar, lexicon, etc.) of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the utterance, any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred purpose of the speaker, and other factors. In this respect, pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent vagueness, since meaning relies on the manner, place, time, etc. of an utterance. Discourse on the other hand is the method, either written or verbal, by which an idea is communicated in an orderly, understandable way.

How do human beings interpret what is meant from what is said and why do people not just speak directly and say what they mean are issues that should be explored looking at the theories of conversational principles and speech acts, ideas which, as their names suggest, were developed with spoken language in mind, but are as applicable to written discourse as to spoken. Speech Act Theory plays a significant role in linguistics since it highlights the difference exists between form and meaning of a linguistic choice emphasising linguistic functions. It is concerned with the speaker's purposes and goals. Speech Act Theory (SAT) describes what utterances are intended to do such as *promise, apologize* and *threaten*. Its importance today can be potential in the foreign language classroom to develop learners' pragmatic and communicative competence.

To sum up, discourse structures cannot fully be understood at the usual grammatical levels of morpho-phonology, syntax and semantics alone. In addition, it should be borne in mind that sentences when uttered in specific social situations may count as speech acts: assertions, promises, threats, etc. For each speech act we may formulate a number of conditions which define its appropriateness with respect to a given pragmatic context.

This context is defined in abstract cognitive and social terms: knowledge, beliefs, preferences, wants, roles, and social relations between speaker and hearer.

4.1. Speech Act Theory and Language Teaching

The predominance of grammatical competence from 1930 to 1970 in foreign language teaching has been called into question in the past two decades. Historically, it was the Speech Act theorists Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) who drew syllabus designers' attention to the great importance of the illocutionary forces of utterances, which are more commonly known in language teaching as Language Functions. Speech Act Theory can be considered 'revolutionary' Stefan Rathert (2013) in conceptualising and studying language and foreign language teaching methodology due to the fact that it has enhanced insights in how language works when it is used by participants in interaction. According to Austin 1962, pragmatics is part of what we do with language. He deals with how human beings use language to give it meaning. When we speak, we don't just speak but we perform an action. He states that behind every speech act there is a performative verb (order, advise.etc).

The role of Speech Act Theory has been crucial in developing an approach that goes beyond the Chomskyan paradigm. By definition, speech acts perform an action, which means that an utterance has not only a locutionary meaning; the literal meaning, but also an illocutionary meaning, that is, the intended meaning, and a perlocutionary force, which implies the effect that is generated in the hearer of an utterance (Austin, 1962). So, the utterance, 'it is very cold here' may function as a request to close the window (the illocution) and might prompt the listener to give the speaker a warm clothe to wear (the perlocution). The example shows that the descriptive form of the utterance in fact serves a specific purpose (a request) in order to be linguistically polite: The act of requesting is performed through an indirect speech act. Following Austin, Searle (1969) classified speech acts into five categories:

- *Representatives*, where the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as affirm, believe, conclude, deny, and report.

- *Directives*, when the speaker tries to make the hearer do something, with such words as ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request.

- **_Commissives_**, where the speaker commits to an action, with verbs such as guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant.

- **_Expressives_**, where the speaker expresses an attitude to or about a state of affairs, using such verbs as apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome.

- **_Declarations_**, where the speaker alters the external status or condition of an object or situation, by making the utterance, for example: I now pronounce you man and wife, I sentence you to be hanged by the neck until you be dead, I name this ship....and so on.

Crucial for the understanding of speech acts is the notion of Felicity Conditions. Felicity conditions are given when a speech act is appropriate in a given situation. So, when a marriage registrar says, "I now pronounce you man and wife", there is felicity in the act due to the authority of the speaker, while "Stop talking" said by a student to his teacher lacks felicity because status is not respected. Furthermore, an utterance lacks sincerity if it is clear that the speech act, e.g. congratulating someone for failing the driving test for the third time, is not performed earnestly.

This brief summary of speech acts might have illustrated in how far the 'discovery' of speech acts indeed brought new insights in the nature of language in use. It led to the deeper understanding that language study should not only deal with linguistic form, but analyse how linguistic choice meets the demands of a specific context so that effective communication is realized. In other words: there are functions of language (such as ordering, requesting or apologizing) and each function is characterized through a specific linguistic feature.

After all, difficulties that are shown within language users and are revealed through the above discussion cannot be avoided unless language is dealt with and analysed at a larger level, that is, at a discourse level. It has become clear that second/foreign language learners should experience form with function to provide accuracy and fluency in the target language.

4.2. Speech Act Theory and the ELT Methodology

The abovementioned functions of language have proved relevant in foreign language methodology. It has been widely accepted that "illocutionary competence consists of the

ability to manipulate the functions of the language" (Brown, 2000, p. 223). Thus, functions in its specific linguistic forms have to be taught in the foreign language classroom, so that learners can both understand and produce functional language that is effective in terms of communication. Students have to learn that an utterance like "It's quite loud here, I can't concentrate" addressed to a teacher might be more suitable (in order to meet the demands of felicity conditions) than "Stop talking". "Second language learners needs to understand the purpose of communication, developing an awareness of what the purpose of a communication act is and how to achieve that purpose through linguistic form" (Brown, 2000, p. 223).

Although Speech Act theory has had a huge influence on linguistics and ELT methodology and its significance for communicative language teaching as a tool to generate appropriate linguistic choices cannot be ignored (Zhao & Throssell), "the teaching of functions and notions cannot replace the teaching of grammar" (Swan, 1985: 79). Nevertheless, this does not mean neglecting the functions of language but it remind us how important grammar is for language study. Thus, we, teachers, researchers, and language experts should deal with both meaning and form in the foreign language classroom. In addition, the CEFRL (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) (which almost every language textbook now refers to) considers pragmatic competences, which refer to "the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions, speech acts)" (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages not highlighted in the original), equivalent to linguistic and sociolinguistic competences in the acquisition of communicative language competence.

The communicative approach to language teaching, which emerged in the early 1970s and has even dominated most of the language education in the world, at least in perception, has made people realize the importance of focusing on the communicative characteristics of language use as an integral part of the language education program. It has become widely accepted in the field of language education that we teach language as communication and for communication. In other words, the goal of foreign language teaching is to be able to communicate using language and that the best way to teach language is through developing learners' discourse competence.

To conclude, language use is not a matter of a group of words in a sentence or a sequence of sentences within a text. They are even not some paragraphs in an article, a

book, etc. Language use is far to be limited and restricted to some micro or macro-structures. It is a means for its users who use it appropriately and inappropriately according to their intentions, needs, and objectives in the different contexts that they face. It is the interlocutors, who decide whether a word, a sentence, a text, etc. which can express their intentions. Thus, in order to study language taking into consideration all its properties with the context it is said in, we should refer to Pragmatics and Discourse analysis.

Pragmatics and Discourse analysis study language in relation to the contextual background features. They take into account all the circumstances that an utterance was surrounded by. They analyze parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, the socio-psychological factors influencing communication, as well as knowledge of the time and place in which the words are uttered or written (Yule, 1996). Both approaches focus on the meaning of words in interactions and how interlocutors communicate more information than the words they use. This is what the term 'speaker's meaning' means. The speaker's meaning is dependent on assumptions of knowledge shared by both 'speaker' and 'hearer'. The speaker constructs the linguistic message and intends or implies a meaning, the hearer interprets the message and infers the meaning (Brown and Yule 1983). The hearer interprets the message and infers the meaning (Brown and Yule, 1983; Thomas, 1995).

5. Halliday's Theory of Grammar

Halliday's approach to language was of a great influence in the British discourse analysis (1973). Besides his account 'cohesion', the grammatical expression of semantic coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), his framework emphasises the social functions of language and the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing. Halliday's Systemics looks at how language acts upon and is constrained by the social context in which it functions. The following section of the chapter will discuss in details Halliday's view of language study.

Halliday's first major work on the subject of grammar was "Categories of the theory of grammar"(1961). In this respect, he argued for four "fundamental categories" for the theory of grammar: *unit*, *structure*, *class*, and *system*. These categories, he argued, are "of the highest order of abstraction", but he defended them as those necessary to "make possible a coherent account of what grammar is and of its place in language" In the

category *unit*, Halliday proposed the notion of a *rank scale*. The units of grammar formed a "hierarchy", a scale from "largest" to "smallest" which he proposed as: "sentence", "clause", "group/phrase", "word" and "morpheme". The rank-based theory underscores an important principle firmly held by Halliday which requires every element to be considered at all ranks. This total accountability, therefore, resists an analysis of a reply such as in (2):

1) Did the team win?
2) Yes.

(2) is a sentence consisting of a single morpheme. Rather, it would be treated as a sentence consisting of a single clause which itself comprises a single group containing a single word and which, in turn, consists of a single morpheme (Butler 1985).

Halliday rejects a view of structure as "strings of classes, such as nominal group + verbal group + nominal group", among which there is just a kind of mechanical solidarity" describing it instead as "configurations of functions, where the solidarity is organic". Structure is "the category set up to account for likeness between events in successivity" Halliday (1961). It describes the patterns of syntagmatic relations at the grammatical level and captures the similarities between them. (3) and (4), for example, are structurally alike in that both comprise the four basic elements of clause structure, labelled as S (subject), P (predicator), C (complement), and A (adjunct):

3) [John]$_S$ [kicked]$_P$ [the cat]$_C$ [rather violently]$_A$
4) [My father]$_S$ [was]$_P$ [ill]$_C$ [yesterday]$_A$

As noted, the relation between structure and rank can be seen in how each element of clause structure permits only a certain group of items to operate in that position. The P element, for example, is that element which operates only in the verb group. The scale of delicacy, in comparison, refers to "the degree of detail in which a structure is specified" (Butler 1985), and where this is concerned, Halliday is careful to separate primary from secondary structures. The former contains the minimum number of elements necessary to account for the operation of a given unit. The elements of S, P, C, and A for the clause structure and their various combinations exemplify primary structures. Secondary structures are more delicate in differentiating units of the same rank. The S element, for example, can be treated at secondary delicacy as being either a full or empty subject.

The category of class is "that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above" (Halliday 1961). How this relates to Halliday's model can be seen in the P element of the clause structure -- for the group unit, there is a verbal class which has the potential for occurring in the P position. Class takes into account the "paradigmatic possibilities associated with particular elements of structure" Butler (1985). The paradigmatic possibilities themselves illustrate the scale of exponence. Using clause structure again, the items which represent (or expound) the S element are members of the nominal class of the group unit, such as The old man and Everyone in the room in (5) and (6) below. Exponence relations therefore "relate terms in systems, units, classes and structures and allow the analysis to achieve maximum generalization" (Butler 1985: 28).

5) The old man has spent fifty pounds during the last fortnight.
6) Everyone in the room would have made their excuses immediately.

Halliday claims that his notion of "system" has been always part of his theory from its origins. He sees that explanations of linguistic phenomena needed to be sought in relationships among systems rather than among structures, since these were essentially where speakers made their choices. Halliday's" systemic grammar" is a semiotic account of grammar, because of this orientation to choice. Every linguistic act involves choice, and choices are made on many scales. For instance, a major clause must display some structure that is the formal realization of a choice from the system of "voice", i.e. it must be either "middle" or "effective", where "effective" leads to the further choice of "operative" (otherwise known as 'active') or "receptive" (otherwise known as "passive").

Halliday's grammar is not just *systemic*, but *systemic functional*. He argues that the explanation of how language works "needed to be grounded in a functional analysis, since language had evolved in the process of carrying out certain critical functions as human beings interacted with their 'eco-social' environment". Halliday's early grammatical descriptions of English, called "Notes on Transitivity and Theme in English" 1967–68 include reference to "four components in the grammar of English representing four functions that the language as a communication system is required to carry out: *the experiential*, *the logical*, *the discoursal* and *the speech functional* or *interpersonal*". The "discoursal" function was renamed the "textual function". Halliday's notion of language functions, or "meta-functions", became part of his general linguistic theory.

In contrast with the structural approaches to language description, Halliday's theory places the functions of language as primary, as a "fundamental property of language itself" (Halliday & Hasan 1985). He seeks to understand what it is that language does and how it accomplishes it. More generally, his theory looks at how language acts upon and is constrained by the social context in which it functions. In this respect, Halliday argues for a deep connection between language and social structure. He adds, language does not only reflect social structure. For instance, he writes:

> '... if we say that linguistic structure "reflects" social structure, we are really assigning to language a role that is too passive ... Rather we should say that linguistic structure is the realization of social structure, actively symbolizing it in a process of mutual creativity. Because it stands as a metaphor for society, language has the property of not only transmitting the social order but also maintaining and potentially modifying it.

The functional study of language that M.A.K Halliday defends concerns more studying how language is used, that is, trying to find out what the specific purposes that language serves for us, and how the members of a language community, as important participants, achieve and react to these purposes through speaking, reading, writing and listening. Therefore, the linguistic knowledge is not enough for language users to decode each others' utterances, but it has to do with interpreting those utterances with regards to many elements including the participants' backgrounds. Moreover, at the semantic level, interpretations of sentences will in general depend on interpretations of surrounding sentence. Therefore, coherence of language comes not only from knowledge of language and its syntactic rules but by looking at factors outside language itself, that is, the context.

6. Communicative Competence and Discourse Development

Goals and aims are among the elements that constitute the curriculum and communicative competence is the main goal in language learning. Communicative competence is no doubt one of the terms most frequently used among both EFL (English as a foreign language) researchers, practitioners and the curriculum designers. However, in spite of its status in EFL discussions, its meaning is often given superficial treatment (Josep Maria Cots 1995).

The successful application of grammatical and pragmatic knowledge and skills in the language classroom was the result of adopting the notion of the communicative competence (Canale 1983). However, this did not prevent teachers from considering that the pragmatic information has usually been presented as a secondary component used for grammatical complexities. Josep M.C. (1996) claims that the communicative approach to language teaching has succeeded in making us aware of some factors, which were not taken into account previously, but it has failed to integrate those factors into a new way of looking at language in use.

Many discourse analysts put forward impertinent question as the way to a pertinent answer (Verschueren (1987: 38-39): What and how does language contribute to human survival on the level of the human race, smaller and larger communities, individuals and day-to-day situations? Josep M.C. (1996).

Language, according to Verschueren is to be considered as a means for the human being to adapt to psy-chological/cognitive, physical and socio-cultural circumstances (Josep M.C. 1996, p:78). Humans get benefits by adapting different circumstances according to their needs and objectives thanks to language and the grammatical choices is only one of the adaptation behaviour besides other choices like sign system, channel, code, style, speech event, discourse, speech act, propositional content, word and sound, etc. As a result of this new perspective of language, language and communication are placed in a wider framework and hence, they cannot be considered by themselves as a pedagogic end but a means to which language educators have to direct their aims in teaching language (Josep M.C. 1996, p:78).

In this respect, one can understand that language researchers and teachers are faced with the task of adopting and adapting what they see suitable for a whole language course regarding the learners' levels and needs.

The notion of communicative competence has been adopted by Chomsky who considered competence as the linguistic competence. Taking into account Chomsky's dichotomy of 'competence' and 'performance', 'Competence', according to Chomsky, is a set of organised knowledge which consists of several sub-competences, the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and lexical components (Chomsky, 1965). Chomsky thinks that "linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its

language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance" (Chomsky 1965: 3). For him, a speaker internalizes a set of rules about his language which enables him to understand and produce an unlimited number of sentences and recognize sentences that are ungrammatical and ambiguous. However, in the early 70s the anthropologist Dell Hymes (1972) introduced the concept of 'communicative competence' as a result of his ethnographic research on the relation of culture, society and language. It was in the late seventies of the previous century, at the beginning of the Communicative Approach, that this term began to captivate the profession.

These conceptions, however, called for a detailed discussion of what is really meant by communicative competence. Consequently, its notion has undergone a thorough evolution in the last decades and although there is no one model which would enjoy the unconditional approval by most prominent linguists, the widespread debate has indeed helped improve syllabus design procedures or language assessment approaches. These frameworks of communicative competence will be presented in the following discussion.

6.1. Hymes' Theory

The Chomskyan model of competence, in spite of its undeniable breakthrough value, has its apparent limitations. He specified language competence only with reference to grammatical features of language, that is, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. What seemed disadvantageous in such an approach was the failure to go beyond the grammatical level of competence and to identify the criteria which are used by language users to make their L2 production socially appropriate and discoursally organized. Hymes (1972), being the first linguist to coin the term of communicative competence challenged Chomsky's notion, asserting that "what to grammar is imperfect, or unaccounted for, maybe the artful accomplishment of a social act, or the patterned, spontaneous evidence of problem solving and conceptual thought" (Hymes 1986: 55). He then extended the notion of competence to be communicative competence. He approaches language from a social-cultural viewpoint. According to him, linguistic competence is only a part of communicative competence.

The emphasis that he put on the pragmalinguistic value of human speech set ground to the development of other frameworks of communicative competence. Hymes'

perspective of the communicative competence lies on that a learner's capacity to communicate in a foreign language does   not only imply knowing if a particular language structure is grammatically correct and possible, but also whether it is psychologically feasible (coined without any efforts), appropriate and actually said. Moreover, adopting each linguistic structure should consider these four types of knowledge because all of them are taken into account in a more or less conscious way by competent users of the language. These four types of knowledge constitute a whole, which Hymes defines as communicative competence (cited in J. M. Cots 1996, p: 80), and which could be defined as the capacity to perform verbally in a successful and acceptable way (ibid, 80).

6.2. Canale and Swain Framework

The idea of Hymes 1972 was taken by Canale and Swain (1980) in North America and Van Ek (1986) in Europe. They applied it to foreign language acquisition and turned it into a fundamental concept in the development of communicative language teaching. (Maria José Coperías Aguilar 1995) The aim of this communicative methodology was to acquire the necessary skills to communicate in socially and culturally appropriate ways, and, in the learning process, focus was placed on functions, role playing and real situations, among other aspects.

Canale and Swain, see communicative competence as "a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse" (Canale and Swain 1988: 73). The model by Canale (1983) posits that there are, at least, four components that make up communicative competence. Two of them, that is, *grammatical* competence and *discourse* competence, reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. The other two, that is *sociolinguistic* competence and *strategic* competence, reflect the functional aspects of communication.

Grammatical competence, probably the easiest to define and the least disputable one, includes lexis, morphology, sentence grammar, semantics, and phonology (Bachman 1990 b: 28). Discourse competence, added as an independent component next to sociolinguistic competence in the earlier model (Canale and Swain 1980), comprises rules of cohesion and coherence. Sociolinguistic competence is now viewed as involving the

mastery of the socio-cultural code of the language. Strategic competence is defined as "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (Canale and Swain 1980: 30).

Discourse competence can be defined as the ability to understand and produce coherent and cohesive texts in an oral or written form (Bachman 1990b: 29). Although Canale and Swain (1980) initially viewed discourse competence as part of sociolinguistic competence, which was believed to be composed of both socio-cultural rules of use and rules of discourse, Canale's (1983) revised definition of discourse competence views it as an element entirely independent from sociolinguistic competence, comprising "mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres" (Canale 1983: 9). Its distinction from sociolinguistic competence, however, generates some controversies.

It could be claimed that "the unity of text involves appropriateness and depends on contextual factors such as status of the participants, purpose of interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction" (Schachter 1990: 43). Discourse competence then could still interfere with the conception of sociolinguistic competence. After all, both components involve interaction in specific politeness modes and, therefore, will often call on the same communicative instruments.

Canale and Swain view of communicative competence seems to be similar to the framework developed by Bachman who defines communicative competence as language competence broken down into organizational competences including grammatical competence (vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology), textual competence (cohesion, textual relations, organization) and pragmatic competence including illocutionary competence (functional aspects of language), and sociolinguistic competence (differences in dialect or variety and in register, cultural references) (cited in Marcin Jaroszek 2008).

Strategic competence, which is an integrative part of communicative competence in Canale's model, functions in Bachman's model as an entirely separate element of communicative ability which utilizes the language user's knowledge of language, their knowledge of structures together with the context of communication:

Organizational Competence	**Grammatical Competence** (determines how individual utterances/sentences are organised)
Pragmatic Competence	**Discourse Competence** (determines how utterances/sentences are organised to form texts)
	Illocutionary Competence (determines how utterances/sentences are related to intentions of language users)
	Sociolinguistic Competence (determines how utterances/sentences are related to features of language use context)

Table: Areas of Language Competence (Brown and Gonzo 1994: 427)

The position of sociolinguistic competence exclusively within pragmatic competence seems controversial. In this respect, it may be borne in mind that it is not possible to specify each constitutive component of competence referring only to one group of communicative phenomena. Instead, it would be more appropriate to discuss the subcomponents of communicative competence. Discussing sociolinguistic competence as a component of just pragmatic competence is therefore disputable.

> **Discourse structures cannot fully be understood at the usual grammatical levels of morpho-phonology syntax and semantics alone; that is, coherence not only requires a meaning semantics (intensions), but also relevance semantics...**
>
> (Van Dijk 1983)

The introduction of the notion of communicative competence has been positive in the sense that communication is now conceived as a result of the successful application of not only grammatical but also pragmatic knowledge and skills (Canale 1983 cited in Josep Maria Cots 1995).

The above discussion has discussed the place of discourse competence in communicative competence as it has mentioned a number of views on discourse competence and its relation to other domains of communication. It implies that, no matter the model of discourse to be studied or analysed, the different discourse devices used by speakers and writers as well are crucial to the analysis of language use in specific contexts. In the following section of this chapter, discourse devices will be explained according to language users' and their discourse competence.

7. Discourse Devices

Interaction often involves the opening of conversation, the progress in the topic, its shift or rejection, and closing of communication. The competence of language users appears in such aspects of communication in that they, consciously or unconsciously follow different ways to present these events, and interactively manage the overall of the discourse. There are devices that help maintain the internal and external cohesion of shorter or longer stretches of speech. This section will discuss some of these devices that will however, represent only a narrow area of language use as realized in the English communication because discourse management support a vast area of linguistics that goes further than this discussion. The presented devices of discourse are of great importance in that they will be indirectly investigated in the empirical part of this study with more emphasis on the spoken communication.

In the interactive domain of discourse construction, the expression of meaning is achieved through collaborative discourse construction. When encountered with a communication breakdown, interlocutors negotiate meaning often turning to interactive discourse modification. In this respect, J. M. Cots (1996) claims:

> **The devices that speakers use in order to ensure understanding go from accommodating one's discourse to the discourse of the interlocutor (by choosing the same style, register, dialect or discourse routines) to deploying specific strategies such as adjusting the level of explicitness to the needs of the interlocutor, requesting clarification or supplying backchannel, use of paraphrase and metaphor (p: 82)**

7.1. Turn-Taking

Turn-taking and interaction are among the first communicative skills (Cook 1989) that individuals use when dealing with social groups in different domains of life. Conversations seem to be a social activity where, for the most part, two or more people take turns at speaking. Spontaneously, only one person speaks at a time and there tends to be an avoidance of silence between speaking turns as there is a careful consideration by participants to culture-specific rules preserving partners' rights not to abandon conversations. That's why these turn-taking procedures, such as entering or leaving a conversation, may be challenging for some non-native speakers, if their L2 politeness rules are not to be violated (Cook 1989: 57). If more than one participant tries to talk at

the same time, one of them usually stops. For the most part, participants wait until one speaker indicates that he or she has finished, usually by signalling the end of a particular point.

Speakers can mark their turns as complete in a number of ways: by asking a question, for example, or by pausing at the end of a completed syntactic structure like a phrase or a sentence. Other participants can indicate that they want to take the speaking turn, also in a number of ways. They can start nodding, having a look at their watches, making short sounds, usually repeated, while the speaker is talking, and often use facial expressions to signal that they have something to say.

Getting involved in such social conversations and speeches enable participants, regarding their backgrounds, to self-orientate towards what is happening, hence, using the suitable techniques and strategies is a way of negotiating meaning that may expand a conversation and increase its chances to be successful. However, interrupting partners either physically or verbally may end the conversation in a failure; furthermore, it can drive the whole group to more complex problems.

If that gets participants learn techniques of opening and ending conversations through topics, generations, cultures vary, what can foreign language learners do in a classroom where they are asked to participate in a conversation that is created from one particular topic, one grammatical feature or a certain language skill? Obviously, they draw a successful interaction with the teacher, especially that the latter's task is to teach and expect learners' feedback. Then, what if this foreign language learner is interrupted by the teacher correcting his/her every grammar or pronunciation mistake? This teacher, according to G. Cook (1989: 57) "not only violates a natural turn-taking process but also hinders the students' acquisition of those language features themselves."

Turn-taking is also a process of negotiation. As suggested by Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974), a turn can be taken at any point of the conversation, yet a smooth turn shift occurs at a transition-relevance place (TRP), when a speaker expects to yield their floor and the listener is ready to accept the new role. Violating the transition-relevance principle will disrupt the discourse through interruptions.

7.2. Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are considered to play a role in the organization and structuring of information in spoken or written texts. Despite the fact that discourse markers are not needed as constitutive elements of the syntactic structure, they have important functions of relating units of utterance and fitting them into a discourse context (cited in Aijmer 2002). All of us who have learned a second language or studied our own language are aware that language has rules. What are some of these rules? *Phonological rules*, how we put sounds together to make words: cat + s, dog +z. *Syntactic rules,* how we put words together to make sentences: 'The big dog quickly ate my breakfast', 'The dog big ate quickly my breakfast'. *Rules of Conversation*, we also have rules for putting sentences, whether they are written or spoken, together to make larger units of discourse. Here, *discourse* means any spoken or written language that has been produced in order to communicate.

In any language, there are rules for conversation that govern such things as how to interrupt a speaker, how to know when a speaker's turn is over, how to change a topic, what topic is appropriate, etc. In addition, speakers give us clues about when they are ending speaking, about when they are going to change a topic, or when they expect us to speak or not to speak. These clues are known as discourse markers. There are certain kinds of discourse markers, called logical connectors that give us information about how one part of spoken discourse relates to the next. It is important to know that all languages have conversational rules and discourse markers. However, these rules and discourse markers are different across languages. Knowing a language also means knowing the system of conversational rules and discourse markers.

7.3. Back-Channel Responses

Discourse management can also be supported with feedbacks; responses, both verbal and non-verbal, which the listener gives to the speaker to signal that their message is being attended to, known as back-channel responses. These mechanisms include vocalizations by the non-primary speaker such as *mm, ah-ha* and short words or phrases such as *yes, right, sure, tell me about it* etc. There are two recognizable features of back-channel responses: (1) they do not disturb the front channel, and (2) they are not used with the intention of taking over the floor of the primary speaker

(Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki & Tao 1996). Their functions are merely those of 'continuers' and 'assessments' (Goodwin 1986) to uphold front channel production and to "ensure the continuity of interaction by supporting the current's speakers turn (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 154). Consequently, although apparently contributing to discourse construction, back-channeling exhibits a low level of content.

Back-channel responses might also reflect the communication patters prevalent in a given speech community (Majer 2003: 313). Whether through semiotics or verbal communication, back-channeling realizes many culture-specific features of the language (Trappes-Lomax 2005: 156). Accordingly, although seems difficult to teach, this domain of communication should indeed be part of EFL syllabuses.

7.4. Grammatical Cohesion and Textual Nature of Language

Grammatical cohesion and textuality contains the use of references, ellipses, substitutions and conjunctions (McCarthy 1991: 35). The following example demonstrates the simple use of grammatical cohesive devices:

A: There are <u>twenty pupils</u> in the classroom.
<u>They</u> were doing their tasks.

The co-referentiality of *twenty pupils* and *they* is apparent. If left alone decontextualized, *them* has little semantic value and therefore has to implicitly encode the message referring to the explicit encoding *twenty pupils* (Halliday and Hasan 1989: 75). Reference then is the device of identifiability (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 550). Whether a presented element is identifiable or non-identifiable will require the listener to establish its co-referentiality to some other element. *Twenty pupils* are presented as a non-identifiable element, thus it requires the listener to establish a new element of meaning: *they*, which is presented as an identifiable element, as its identity can be recovered from the already presented element.

There are a number of referencing models in English discourse. Eggins (1994: 95) distinguishes three types of reference: (1) homophoric reference to culture-specific content, (2) exophoric reference to the information which can be retrieved from the immediacy of the situational context, and (3) endophoric reference to the information within the text (anaphora, cataphora and exophora). A somewhat simplified, however

more accessible model of reference is that classifying reference types as exophoric and endophoric reference.

In this model, Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 552) distinguish (1) anaphoric reference to the information already mentioned (backward referencing), (2) cataphoric reference to the information to be mentioned at a later point in text (forward referencing), both under one heading of endophoric reference (see Figure 5) and (3) exophoric reference to "assumed, shared worlds outside of the text" (McCarthy 1991: 35). The following chart by Cutting (2002: 10) illustrates this reference classification.
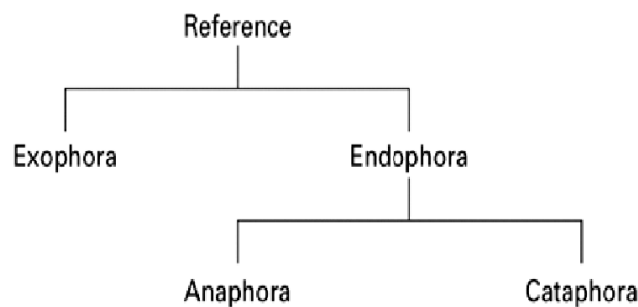
Figure2: Reference model Taken from Cutting (2002)

Through these types of reference, anaphoric one is the co-referentiality device predominantly used for cohesion purposes as it "provides a link with a preceding portion of the text" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 51). A reference type equally common in the English discourse, yet difficult for L2 learners to master, is exophora. Although exophoric reference "is not text internal" (McCarthy 1991: 35), it does contribute to the textuality of discourse. The use of cataphora is a more peripheral phenomenon in the English discourse since it has no equivalents in many languages.

As McCarthy (1991: 43) suggests, there are mainly three types of ellipsis in English: nominal, verbal and clausal. And like reference, ellipsis can be anaphoric, exophoric and cataphoric. Halliday and Hasan (1976) provide a further systemic classification of ellipsis as deictic, numerative, epithet, classifier, and qualifier.

7.5. **Vocabulary and Discourse**

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 572) provide a more elaborate model of lexical relations. It posits that lexical cohesion is realized under paradigmatic lexical sets in

repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and under syntagmatic collocations. In addition to the grammatical textuality described previously, cohesion also operates within the lexical zone of discourse construction and materializes in a number of lexical relations. Cutting (2002: 13), for example, specifies lexical cohesion as realized in (1) repetition, (2) the use of synonyms, (3) the use of superordinates and (4) the use of so-called general words, such as *things, stuff, place, woman, man*. This research however will not follow either of these models, and instead it will discuss lexical cohesion as materializing in two dimensions: (1) inter-actional cohesion realized through relexicalization, and (2) intra-actional cohesion realized through recurrence.

7.6. Conjunction

Conjunctions are cohesive devices that constitute discourse structure. However, compared to what roles reference or ellipsis play, conjunction is realized in another dimension. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 227) claim that "conjunctive relations are not tied to any particular sequence in the expression", which suggests that their role as cohesive devices is limited to their natural value in discourse (Halliday and Hasan 1989: 81). Yet, no matter what discoursal role is attributed to conjunction, it does contribute to the texture of spoken and written discourse. As noted by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 538), conjunction "provides the resources for marking logico-semantic rerelationships" of longer stretches of speech or longer spans of paragraphs.

Salkie (1995: 76) distinguishes four types of conjunction: (1) addition connectives (e.g. and), (2) opposition connectives (e.g. yet), (3) cause connectives (e.g. therefore), and (4) time connectives (e.g. then). Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify conjunctive cohesion as *additive*, *adversative*, *causal*, as well as the forth domain divided into *temporal*, and *continuative*. This, however as well as other conjunctive domains, such as Halliday's (2004: 541) elaboration, extension, and enhancement or internal/external conjunctive dimension exceed the frame of the study. What needs to be noted, however, is the fact that conjunctive devices at times may fulfil more than one discoursal role.

The cohesion of discourse can be achieved by various means, including the use of the devices discussed previously. It does not mean, however, that discourse deficient in these mechanisms will not be in any case coherent or cohesive. EFL learners often reuse strategies that they experience in their L1 discourse and thus often help enhance the

coherence and cohesion of their L2 discourse. However, despite the extent to which discourse is logical, it must be realized that coherence does not fully determine the clarity of communication. The shortage in natural discourse devices will result in the artificiality of language interaction, which possibly makes the task difficult for the other part of the communicative encounter to process the spoken output of their interlocutor.

7.7. Modality

The interest in the psychological side of language use has grown in the past decade by linguists and encouraged them to shift their attention to individual linguistic choices determined by the speakers' sociocultural background, in other words, the speaker's mood that can be expressed on the non-verbal level through semiotic communication, including facial expression and other gestures, and on the linguistic level through the use of modality devices, which are being discussed here.

Basically, modality can be defined as "the expression of the speaker's opinion about present possibility or obligation" or "attitude, obviously related to the source of the text, and explicit or implicit in the linguistic stance taken by the speaker/writer" (Fowler 1998: 85). Modality, however, is a more complex phenomenon that is determined by the speaker's culture, personality or temporary mood.

Although a shift of attention in the history of language study was highlighted in favour of discourse, there still exists the importance of grammatical structure in abstracting meaning of utterances. In this respect, Cook (1989) suggests that there are two approaches to language study*: sentence linguistics*: the study of how grammatical rules work and *discourse analysis*: language used to communicate which does not necessary requires sentence correctness. Both approaches have an invaluable contribution to make to the understanding of language, and both ultimately need each other; whereas communication cannot take place with just a combination of grammar and semantic rules, it cannot be successfully achieved without them.

Conclusion

This chapter has overviewed selected theories on the need for classroom language learning analysis based on discourse level and on discourse competence development with reference to both native language production (L1 conception of the world) and L2/FL learning. It also presented the main discourse devices that were also of value with

regard to the above discussion. The above discussion turns around one idea that, in the study of language, the most interesting question worth asking is how language is used by its users, rather than what constituents language includes. In other words, how it is that language users interpret what other language users intend to convey. It might be argued that the treatment of language in terms of sentences has been quite successful in revealing how language works, that within the sentence we can establish rules and constraints concerning what is and is not allowed. Yet, Cook (1989 p: 5) demonstrates that if we adopt such a perspective as temporary, and perhaps very fruitful, then, language has more to provide us with; communicating successfully with other people than being a list of isolated words to be included in a correct sentence.

In short, it is not a matter of stretching sentences one after the other in order to obtain interesting, relevant, and suitable thought, however, speakers use sometimes only one particular letter (like 'P' intending *parking*) but still, they succeed in communicating.

Introduction

The previous chapter has overviewed the theory of discourse that implies that language is not a matter of stretching sentences one after the other but is a means of communication through which people convey their thought and develop their individual ideas by means of language. In communication, as Widdowson (2007) states, people refer to the semantic content in their language to act upon within a shared context in order to create a discourse (p: 9). This chapter will serve as a support to this idea. It will discuss the view that language is a social construct that people produce in interacting with each other.

Human beings are social creatures that live within a society through which they know about the world around them. It has been proved that a child learns within the environment around him. However, there has always been a conflict among researchers about different factors behind children learning to eat, to play, to laugh, end even the way they speak. Ages ago, people used to think that we learn through stimulus-response and experience (Behaviourism). Yet, today, people speak more of our innate capacities to learn (Cognitivism).

Theories of learning were of greater help to set the framework for applied linguists in the idea that learning generally occurs through language. These theories have been later interpreted into classroom approaches and methods to teaching language by many educators and practitioners. It has been proved that language learning does not involve internalizing sets of learning, structures and forms; rather it is the fact that each individual learner brings his own knowledge to bear on the target language or task at hand as Bruner (1966) reveals it "…students would better learn and retain concepts they discover on their own instead of passively through rote learning and lectures." (p33).

Bruner rooted his pedagogy in Piagetian and Vigotskian principles and extended the work of Vygotsky by employing the concept of Scaffolding. Thus, the constructivist approaches consider learner-centred classrooms as a must for communicative language teaching/learning. This section of the study, will discuss the role of learning theories in language teaching in general and their contribution to discourse development in particular. It will be relevant to focus on social and cognitive theories of learning; their implication and relevance to the field of language teaching.

1. Skinner's Theory

Skinner was the influential psychologist who took the lead of neo-behaviourism from the thirties till the sixties. He claimed that Stimulus-Response (S-R) theory could be transferred to the study of human behaviour including speech (Skinner, 1957) with minor adjustments, reviving thus Locke's "tabula rasa"-based principle in learning theory, and rejecting the study of the mind; that is the unobservable.

Skinner's theory was greatly influenced by the work of psychologist Edward Thorndike, who had proposed what he called 'the law of effect' according to this principle, actions that are followed by desirable outcomes are more likely to be repeated while those followed by undesirable outcomes are less likely to be repeated Kendra Cherry 2020). For Skinner, the child would produce a combination of sounds that resemble a meaningful word, the parents reward it by a reinforcing smile, a kiss, or by producing the object referred to operant or instrumental conditioning (Saul McLeod, 192018, January, 21). Skinner renamed instrumental as *operant* because, it is more descriptive. For him, in this learning, one is *operating* on, and is influenced by, the environment.

Where classical conditioning illustrates learning, operant conditioning is often viewed as learning since it is the consequence that follows the response that influences whether the response is likely or unlikely to occur again. It is through operant conditioning that voluntary responses are learned. From the one utterance stage, the child moves to the two-word utterance, till he reaches the sentence/utterance stage. As the child acquires more syntactic and morphological habits, he proceeds by generalizations and substitutions through trial and error relying on his parents' secondary reinforcements or reinforcing himself. Deviant responses are not rewarded and are consequently subject to extinction.

This process of language acquisition helps at a great level learners to acquire an FL through organizing their speech from word level (vocabulary in texts, teacher's explanation, etc.) to sentence structure until a discourse level that enables them to communicate their individual ideas and exchange them among their peers. In this stage, a learner develops an awareness of his own ideas and thought compared to others.

1.1. Classroom Implication

Operant conditioning encourages positive reinforcement, which can be applied in the language classroom environment to get the good needed feedback from your learners. It is commonly known that discipline is a negative way to deal with learners. However, Skinner's Theory of Operant Conditioning sees discipline as a coin with two sides positive and negative and both sides are meant to reinforce and encourage good behaviour. Psychologists have observed that every action has a consequence, and if this is good, the person is more likely to do it again in the future. Nevertheless, if the consequence isn't so great, it is likely the individual will avoid doing it in a similar situation next time. It is through this process that we develop our behaviours and begin to understand what is appropriate and useful, and what is not.

Used in a variety of situations, operant conditioning has been found to be particularly effective in the classroom environment. One of the main ways of reinforcing behaviour is through praise, as the following example illustrates:

Learners are explained the grammar lesson then provided with examples as an illustration. In the end of the lesson, the teacher asks them to prepare similar examples for the next session. When they meet again, the teacher checks if they have done what he had asked them to do. Only two pupils participate where as the others do not. The teacher decides that those who have done their homework will have a plus (+) in the test. Next, the teacher discovers that the pupils who didn't do their homework prepare the coming lesson and bring examples for the previous grammar lesson. The fact of praising the learners with a plus (+), creates in them a self-satisfaction what motivates them and encourages them to emulate the good behaviour in the future, and so they are likely to behave well during the grammar lesson later.

On the other hand, the teacher can show the other pupils the type of behaviour s/he does not prefer and the one s/he expects her pupils to do. Through such a discipline, children will probably feel determined to impress their teacher. This would make beneficial those behaviours for both the learner and the teacher as well.

A similar situation have already happened with me was that I asked my pupils to write proverbs and idioms on the board for each class. In the beginning it was not welcomed by pupils; only two pupils bring proverbs and write them on the board each

time we meet. However once, I tried to thank the two pupils on bringing very interesting and educative proverbs and I even promised to grade their competence if they explain the proverb then translate it into their mother tongue (Arabic). I was surprised that the coming session two other pupils have prepared a proverb after translating it into Arabic and French. In addition, another student asked if he could bring riddles with keys. The fact of praising and value learners' behaviours enhanced the learning process for long and created a concurrence among learners who bring the most interesting proverb and can translate it in front of the class.

Rewards may be used occasionally for a similar effect, but shouldn't be overused, as it is important to prevent the child from developing a dependency. If they become too adjusted to getting marks, for example, they may later struggle to act in the same way without being presented with such a treat.

Also, by building operant conditioning techniques into lesson plans, it is easily possible to teach children useful skills - as well as good behaviours. By using symbols like smiley faces, 'Good Work' stamps, stickers, and even simple ticks when a child does something correctly, you are encouraging them to repeat such satisfying work again further down the line.

Although he was strongly criticized, skinner came with a new perspective in favour of today's second language acquisition (SLA) methodologies of a successful classroom discourse. For the behaviourists, language learning and its development is a matter of conditioning for it depends on imitation, practice and habituation which have proved its clear shortcomings. However, it cannot be denied that the learning process is for the most part a behaviouristic processing, a verbal behaviour. In language teaching area, behaviourism establishes the basic background of exercises, either oral or written in viewing language as stimulus and response. In addition, it has exerted a great impact by influencing many teaching methods on the area of language teaching, for example, Audio-lingual Method, Total Physical Response, and Silent Way embody the behaviourist view of language.

In short, behaviourist theory aims at discovering behavioural justifications for designing language teaching in certain ways, being the core of many language teaching and learning theories what makes it relevant with the objective of discourse approach to language teaching that investigates the real individual linguistic behaviour through the

particular contexts. Although Behaviourist had little interest understanding the formal properties of language or its underlying cognitive determinants, they had a great deal of interest in understanding how language could be used by one individual to influence the behaviour of another (Edward G. Carr 1985).

2. Piaget's Theory

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) is a Swiss biologist and psychologist; most of his theories have dealt with constructing a model of child development and learning. Piaget's theory relies on the idea that the developing child builds cognitive structures, in other words, mental "maps", schemes, or networked concepts for understanding and responding to physical experiences within his/her environment. Piaget further attested that a child's cognitive structure increases in sophistication with maturation, moving from a limited number of innate reflexes such as crying and sucking to highly complex mental activities. The theory identifies four developmental stages and the process by which children progress through them. The following table shows these stages:

Table1: Child's Four Developmental Stages (Piaget, 1976)

Stages	Name	Age	Characteristics
One	Sensorimotor Stage	Newly-born to Two years old	-constructs set of concepts about reality and how it works
Two	Preoperational stage	Between two and seven years old	-The child cannot conceptualize abstractly -the child needs concrete physical situations.
Three	Concrete operations stage	Between seven and eleven years old	-child starts to conceptualize -creates logical structures which give meaning to physical experiences. -Solves abstract problems like: arithmetic equations, with numbers not just with objects
Four	Formal operations stage	Between eleven and fifteen years old	-Child's cognitive structures are like those of an adult and include conceptual reasoning

Piaget, in his theory, claims various principles for building cognitive structures. During all development stages, the child experiences his environment using whatever

mental maps it has constructed so far. If the experience is a repeated one, s/he assimilates it into the child's cognitive structure in order to maintain mental balance. If the experience is different or new, the child loses equilibrium, and alters its cognitive structure to accommodate the new conditions. As such, the child builds on more enough cognitive structures to use later.

In his early research, Piaget sought a justification to the acquisition of logical and scientific thinking and he found weaknesses in both traditional philosophical answers of nativism (the categories of human nature are innate) and empiricism (the categories of human knowledge are directly shaped by experience). In spite of his recognition that innate factors and experience had a lot to do in the formation of logical and scientific knowledge, he proved that neither of them was sufficient to explain the nature of knowledge acquisition and altered, instead, constructivism. According to Piaget, human beings are able to extend biological programming to construct cognitive systems that interpret experiences with objects and other persons.

Constructivism has two related meanings in Piaget's theory. First, it refers to the refinement of existing cognitive systems over time. He named this aspect of constructivism development, 'a process of change different from maturation and from learning'. Second, it refers to the application of already formed cognitive systems that confer meaning in present circumstances. By the end of his career, Piaget articulated a model of constructivism that connects both senses of the term. That is to say, constructivism as meaning, making in a given context based on assimilation, accommodation, and constructivism as change in cognitive systems over time.

As part of their cognitive development, children also develop schemes, which are mental representations of people, objects, or principles. These schemes can be changed or altered through what Piaget called assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is information we already know. Accommodation involves adapting one's existing knowledge to what is perceived.

(Woolfolk, A., 2004).

2.1. Basic Principles

Peer learning groups are made up of individual learners. Each one within the group makes meaning, discovers problems and solves them within his individual

mind. So, teachers should pay close attention to the interactions occurring between learners within the group. Learners' cognitive systems are important to consider because they influence the ability both to work cooperatively in teams and to understand the curriculum content. Thus, it is the job of teachers to be aware of what their are learners able to do in collaborative work together dealing with the thematic feature they are experiencing within a project. .

2.2. Classroom Implications

A curriculum based on Piaget's principle emphasizes a learner-centred educational philosophy. The teaching methods which are familiar with lectures, demonstrations, audio-visual presentations, and programmed instruction do not fit in with Piaget's ideas on the acquisition of knowledge. Piaget espoused active discovery learning in school environments. For him, intelligence grows through the twin processes of assimilation and accommodation. Therefore, experiences should be planned to allow opportunities for integration and adjustment. It is an essential activity for children to discover, to control, to test, to question, and to seek answers for themselves. Instruction should be individualized as much as possible and learners should have opportunities to communicate with one another, to negotiate meaning, discussing issues and arguing then learn from them. This is the way learners get benefit from the teacher's instruction which will later be the basis to produce individual discourse.

Piaget saw teachers as facilitators of knowledge; they are there to guide and inspire the students. Learning is much more a meaningful and enjoyable activity if the child is allowed to experiment on his own rather than only listening to the lecture. The teacher should present learners with materials and situations that allow them to discover new learning. In active learning, the teacher must have confidence in the learner's ability to learn on his own. The basic principle of active methods can be expressed by Piaget 1972 as follows:

> **to understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery and such conditions must be complied with if in the future individuals are to be formed who are capable of production and creativity and not simply repetition** (p:20).

3. Vigotsky's Theory

Lev Vygotsky (1962), a Russian teacher and psychologist whose ideas have influenced the field of education as a whole and the field of educational psychology in particular, was the first to state that we learn through our interactions and communications with others. His ideas shaped by the process approaches came as a reaction against the dominant approaches led by the behaviourists in the 1960s and 1970s. These approaches in their study of language refer to linguistic forms and habit formation. They claim that language consists of parts, which should be learned and mastered separately and the learner's role is to receive and follow the teacher's instructions; the audio-lingual approach is an example.

However, process approaches came up with views emphasising the cognitive aspect of learning and acknowledged the contributions that the learner brings to the learning context. According to these approaches, students should be taught what Horrowtiz (1986) terms as 'systematic thinking skills (cited in M. C. Turuk 2008). As a result, planning, setting goals, drafting and generating ideas became part of teaching strategies in L2/FL classroom. They argue that such skills make students limited in their production rejecting anything they didn't experience before.

Furthermore, Students will develop a one-way thinking that will hinder their abilities to deal with tasks that require complex thinking (M. C. Turuk 2008) what creates a delay among learners that prevents the development of their abilities to develop multiple skills required for their success in their academic life (Spack, 1988 cited in M. C. Turuk 2008).

Vygotsky's framework in this respect is the examination of how social environments influence the learning process. According to him, as learners interact with peers, teachers or parents, they are able to progress beyond their present level of development to a higher one. His Sociocultural Theory (SCT) implies that learning is a complex interaction between biological and psychological development and social interaction. In other words, learning is a social activity that takes place through participating in cultural, linguistic and historical formed settings such as the family environment, group interaction like in schools, etc. The theory believes that true learning occurs when the learner actively transforms his world and does not merely conform to it (Donato, 1994 cited in Turuk 2008).

The SCT (Hall & Walsh, 2002) argues for the uniqueness of the social environment and regards the cultural settings as the primary factor in the development of higher forms of human mental activity such as intentional memory, reflective thought, and problem solving. The conceptual distance between what they can do on their own to and what they can do with assistance is called the zone of proximal development (ZPD) which Vygotsky (1981) describes as:

> **First, it appears in social zone between people as an inter-psychological category, and then on the psychological zone within the child as an intra-psychological category.**
>
> (Vygotsky, 1981)

3.1. Basic Concept in Vygotsky's Theory

3.1.1. The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

In the language learning context, input and output do not exist in their isolated kingdoms but within a dialectic unity, in which output gives information on the learners' ZPD (the Zone of Proximal Development) and sets the level of input, and input lays down the pathway for the further development of the learners ZPD. This one has been described by Vygotsky in Bozhovich (2009) as follows:

> **The zone of proximal development defines functions that have not matured yet, but are in a process of maturing, that will mature tomorrow, that are currently in an embryonic state; these functions could be called the buds of development, the flowers of development, rather than the fruits of development, that is, what is only just maturing**
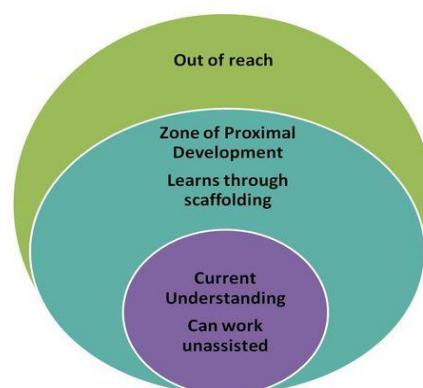
Fugure3: Vygotsky's ZPD circle (1896-1934)

As the circles shows, the ZPD defines those functions that have not yet developed but are in the process of development; functions that will be ready tomorrow but are actually in an embryonic state. These functions could be considered the 'buds' or 'flowers' of development rather than the 'fruits' of development (Roediger& Marsh, 2005). Vygotsky explained how a teacher or a more advanced peer might provide the explanation to enable a child to reach a higher level of achievement with support.

Developed by Vygotsky, the concept of the ZPD describes the area or gap between a learner's level of independent performance (what he/she can do alone) and his level of assisted performance (what s/he can do with support). That is to say, a learner's skills and understanding could emerge if the child engages in interactions with knowledgeable peers or in other supportive contexts in the ZPD.

In Vygotsky's theory, instruction is effective when it is aimed within the ZPD and not at the learner's current level of independent performance. To determine an individual's ZPD, the educator needs to know the current skill/developmental level and what skills/concepts will develop next. Interestingly, successful instruction within the ZPD enables the individual to independently function at the new level without assistance. Once this is accomplished, the educator can determine the new ZPD at which to focus instruction. The following image justifies more this explanation.
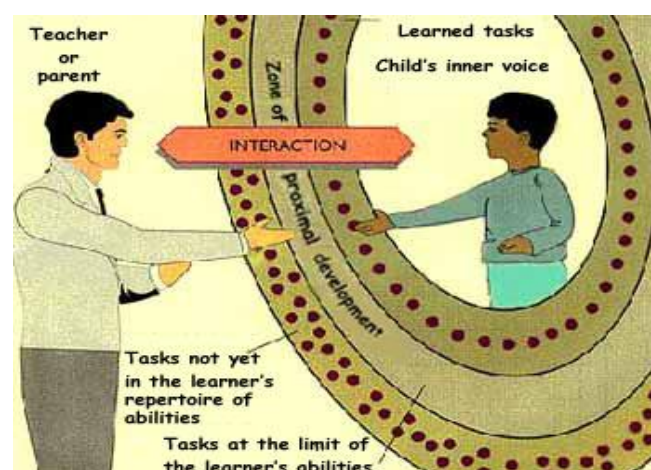
Figure: Interaction (Wikipedia)

3.1.1.1. Mediation

As in Feuertein's Theory, mediation is central to Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory. Mediation according to Vygotsky refers to the part played by other significant people in the learners' lives, people who enhance their implications of Socio-cultural Theory on second/ foreign language teaching/learning by selecting and shaping the learning experiences presented to them.

Vygotsky (1978 cited Wertsch 1985) claims that the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skills and knowledge. This involves helping the learner to move into and through the next layer of knowledge or understanding. Vygotsky also regards tools as mediators and one of the important tools is language. The use of language to help learners move into and through their ZPD is of great significance to sociocultural theory.
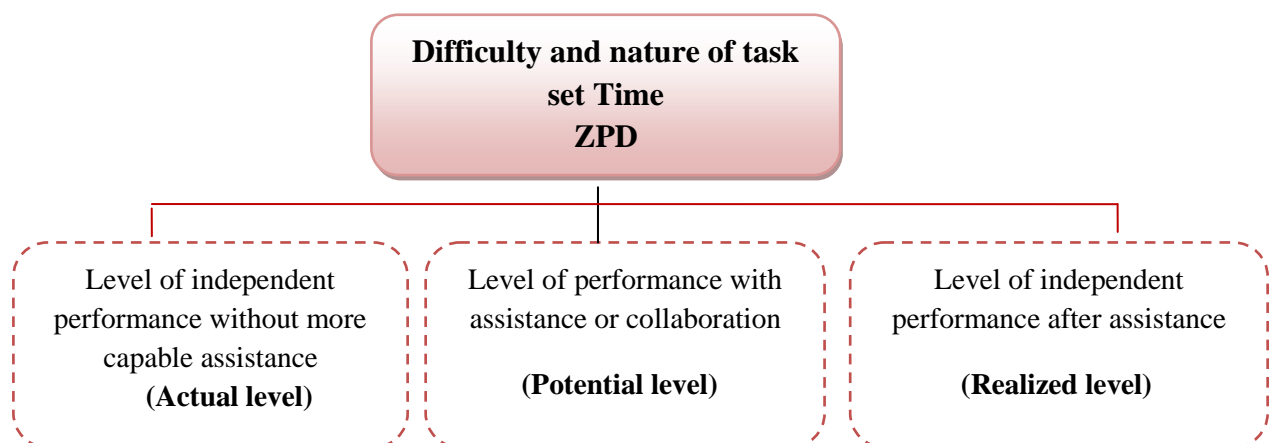
Figure 3: The Mediation of Learning in the Zone of Proximal Development

3.1.1.2. Scaffolding

The concept of scaffolding is related to Vygotsky's ZPD theory. According to Donato (1994) scaffolding is a concept that derives from cognitive psychology and L1 research. He states that scaffolding is best considered in a social interaction when well-informed participant (the teacher) can create suitable and motivating conditions for a novice to participate within. The good instructor is the one who can broaden skills to higher levels of competence (ibid). The concept of scaffolding has been introduced to foreign language learning contexts as well. For a long time, the focus was on teacher-learner interaction. However, recently attention has turned to processes of scaffolding in

learner-learner interactions. It is an instructional structure whereby the teacher models the desired learning strategy or task then gradually shifts responsibility to the students. According to McKenzie, (1999) scaffolding provides the following advantages:

- It provides clear directions for students
- It clarifies purpose of the task
- It keeps students on task
- It offers assessment to clarify expectations
- It points students to worthy sources
- It reduces uncertainty, surprise and disappointment
- It delivers efficiency
- It creates momentum

3.2.   Classroom Implications

In the past two decades, the teaching focus has shifted away from a traditional approach stressing particular language skills such as grammatical structures, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Current the focus has become more holistic, aiming at an overall communicative proficiency and learning content through language, defined as the ability to communicate in the target language about real-world topics. To enhance communicative competence, the practice of classroom interaction itself has to be communicative. Teaching has to be purposeful, interactive, and creative. Indeed, for foreign language learning, or any learning to be successful, the teacher has to be able to adapt instruction and guide complex interactions for a variety of learners. In recent years, there has been a growing understanding and acknowledgment of the contributions made by research on second/foreign language learning, in particular those studies that examine learner-teacher and learner-learner interaction patterns and their impact on language development.

One of the reasons to the growing popularity of peer learning in schools is a shift away from the traditional view of the teaching/learning process that focuses the transmission of knowledge from teacher to learner, in favour of constructivist approaches that stress discovery learning and view knowledge acquisition as a social activity. Collaborative work for instance is an important means of implementing constructivist educational approaches.

The reason is issued from the fundamental task that schools face in preparing learners for life after school, in the work place and in communities. Peer-learning activities are considered an important aspect of preparation for life after school ends. Learning how to work cooperatively is a valued educational activity derived from the larger cultural context in which schools exist. Another reason for the growing interest in peer learning is the wide introduction of technology in schools, especially computer networks. Peer learning activities make it possible for learners to work on projects that necessitate the sharing of library resources as well as technological resources such as the computer and the Internet.

3.3. Socio-cultural Theory

The application of Vygotsky's theory to second language acquisition helps L2 learners bring proficiency in a second language closer to the level of their first language. The application of this particular theory is helpful for several reasons: First, the theory takes into consideration the external as well as internal stages of human cognitive development. So, the theory provides the opportunity for the research of the social aspects of communication as well as mental functions of cognition.

Second, one of the main Vygotsky's concepts the zone of proximal development (ZPD) provides the explanations of the conditions (socio-cultural and cognitive) which are necessary for the processes of human learning. The conditions for the further learning consist of already existing knowledge, the social interaction with the more knowledgeable ones, and the transformation of the external processes into internal (cognitive) processes and functions.

All in all, Vygotsky, theory implies that learning takes place through the interactions of students with their peers, teachers, and other experts where teachers can create a learning environment that maximizes the learner's ability to interact with each other through discussion, collaboration, and feedback. 'Discussion-based classroom using Socratic dialogue where the instructor manages the discourse can lead each student to feel like their contributions are valued resulting in increased student motivation' (Lev Vygotsky 1962).

4. Piaget's and Vygotsky's Contributions

Constructivism implies that the learning process occurs through the combination of new information with the previously existing one and this is the common view shared by Piaget and Vygotsky. Both of the constructivist believe that the cognitive growth limitations are determined by societal influences. However, on the one hand, Piaget states that children learn through interacting with their surroundings and that learning takes place after development. On the other hand, Vygotsky claims that learning happens before development and that children learn because of history and symbolism (Slavin, 2003).

Vygotsky also believes that children value input from people around them and from others, but Piaget does not value the input by others. Another major element differentiates the two constructivists' views is that Piaget's theory has four clear stages (the sensorimotor, the preoperational, the concrete operational, the formal operational) where he claims that the greatest benefits of peer collaboration will be achieved when children have reached concrete operational stages. Whereas, Vygotsky believed that social interaction is important for children's development from birth, (ibid)

In conclusion, cognitive development plays a key role in learning and thinking methods of children. Both Piaget and Vygotsky offer some considerable insights into the possible ways children learn and by referring to these theories, it is possible to create a more favourable learning environment for each learner. Thus, both theories contribute to the understanding of how children learn.

5. Bruner's Theory

Influenced by Piaget's ideas, Gerome Bruner (1960) claims that when we learn we build up sentences. For him, learning is not only recording data, it is a matter of building structures and in order to build structures, we should link them to previous ones. The often unconscious nature of learning structures is perhaps best illustrated in learning one's native language (L1). Having grasped the subtle structure of sentence, the child very rapidly learns to generate many other sentences based on this model though different in the content from the original sentence learnt. In addition, having mastering the rules for transforming sentences, without altering their meaning in using *the passive form* for example, the learner then, is able to vary his sentences much more widely.

Yet, while young children are able to use the structural rules of English, they are certainly not able to say what the rules are (S. Krashen 1981). When a learner is able to build a sentence, he is able to learn and he seems enjoying the process of the linguistic production. However, he is not able to build a structure unless he is attracted and willing to do so; the same as today's learners of EFL; in their classes they seem more excited and motivated when are invited to participate in topics that they are interested in such as sport news without taking into consideration grammar or pronunciation errors.

For example, in the sentences 'Mohamed goes to school'. 'Do Mohamed go to school? 'We mention that the 1st sentence is correct and the 2nd sentence is not, why? As we have learnt that the mistake is that the rule says that whenever there is a 'she' or 'he' the verb takes an 's'. But in fact, the problem is that with singular, the verb takes 's' where as with the plural, the verb does not. In grammar, it is better to teach the grammatical rules through contexts then learners will infer rules by themselves. This alone facilitates for them to learn in other contexts by inferring (building structures). Learners' structures are already developed, and the instructor is to provide them with the real context.

5.1. Reasons to Develop Structures

The first object that learning may provide learners with is that it should serve in the future (any learning must be beneficial for any other learning in life). Learning should not just take us somewhere; it should allow us later to go further more easily. Learning is synchronic and diachronic as the following scheme shows:

```
1st year      2nd year     3rd year
  I-------------I-----------I-------------------------→
```
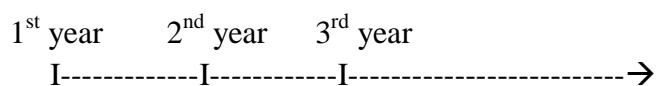
Figure 4**:** Synchronic and Diachronic representation for learning (MA lesson, personal summary 2010-12)

Those years are linked. A learner can learn at any time of life and then link them to each other to develop others through time. Psychologists refer to this phenomenon as a specific transfer of training. Perhaps, it should be called 'the extension of habits or associations' (Bruner 1960). Having learnt how to drive a car, we are better able later to

learn how to drive a truck. Learning in school undoubtedly creates skills of a kind that transfers to activities encountered later either at school or else.

The second way in which earlier learning tenders later performance more efficient is through what is called 'non-specific transfer' or more accurately 'the transfer of principles and attitudes' (ibid). For example, you buy an ipad though you don't know how it works, you try to use your previous knowledge of 'a lap top'. This cognitive process works in a way that first experience of learning leads to 2nd experience using what we have already learnt in similar situations.

In soul, it consists of learning initially not a skill but a general idea which then can be used as a basis for recognizing subsequent problems as special cases of the idea originally mastered. This type of transfer is at the heart of educational process. Thus, in order for a person to be able to recognize an idea to a new situation and to broaden his learning, s/he must clearly have in mind the general nature of the phenomenon with which s/he is dealing.

Eventually Bruner was strongly influenced by Vygotsky's writings and began to turn away from the intrapersonal focus he had had for learning, and started to adopt social and political views of learning. He argues that aspects of cognitive performance are facilitated by language. He stressed the importance of the social setting in the acquisition of language. His views are similar to those of Piaget, but he places more emphasis on the social influences on development. Bruner's theoretical framework is based on the theme that learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon existing knowledge. They continually structuring and restructuring their environment as active participants (Bruner 1960). He identified several important social devices including joint attention, mutual gaze, and turn-taking.

Opposing the view of the passive learner mechanically associating stimuli and responses, Bruner (1960) claims that people selectively perceive certain aspects of their environment, represent those perceptions internally, and then act on those internal representations. He believed that any subject could be taught at any stage of development in a way that fit the child's cognitive abilities.

5.2. Classroom Implication

- Instruction must be appropriate to the level of the learners. That is, the teacher has to be aware of the learners' learning modes (enactive, iconic, symbolic), learning styles so as to be able to plan and prepare appropriate teaching materials according to the difficulty that matches learners' level.

- The use of the teaching materials should be up-to-date; varying methods and strategies in using them.

- Enhance knowledge by building on pre-taught ideas to grasp the full formal concept; re-introducing vocabulary, grammar points, and other topics now and then in order to push the students to a deeper comprehension.

- Students should be involved in using their prior experiences and structures to learn new knowledge.

- Help students to categorize new information in order to able to see similarities and differences between items.

- Teachers show assistance to learners in building their knowledge; however, this assistance should reduce as long as it becomes unnecessary.

- Teachers should provide feedback that is directed towards intrinsic motivation. Grades and competition are not helpful in the learning process. Bruner states that learners must "experience success and failure not as reward and punishment, but as information"

From the discussion above, language learning researchers agreed on that the nature of language cannot be clearly understood out of context and there is a need to go beyond form.

6. Cognitive Knowledge and Discourse

It has lately been noticed that within many educational contexts syllabus designers have tried to design syllabuses in such a way to shift the learning responsibilities from teachers to learners. Considering the priority of the learners' needs; objectives such as raising learners' awareness, allowing them to take decisions, encouraging them to choose what to learn, fostering self- evaluation, developing meta-cognitive learning strategies, were basically put forward. Such an approach to language learning has

proved to be successful and 'beneficial for all pupils' in many contexts and with many educators and language researchers who have undertaken experimental studies with learners at different studying levels, emigrant learners and even adult learners studying a foreign language for specific purposes (Trebbi,1995 cited in Little et. Al, 2003:168).

Nevertheless, the learner who is supposed to develop cognitive, meta-cognitive, social and affective skills that will enable him/her take in charge his/her own learning and grow towards becoming an autonomous is found responsible of a difficult task which goes beyond his active role to more demanding ones such as: learning, discovering, constructing knowledge, reflecting on what has been learnt, monitoring his/her own progress, setting individual objectives, making his own plans to accomplish his objectives, collaborating with peers and negotiating meaning through classroom interaction, etc. However, to be accomplished, these tasks, should involve both ethe learner and the teacher together. The teacher plays the role of the facilitator helping the learner to implement their individual plans and methodologies. s/he also helps syllabus and textbook designers in finding ways how to introduce them as they design English language text-books, and over all language policy makers, by supplying means to make those objectives realizable.

Perhaps some of the most influential figures who have undertaken field research in this area are (Dam,1995; Little and Dam,1998; Little, Ridley and Ushioda, 2002; Littlewood,1999; Benson,1996).These researchers do almost all consider the learner as being in charge of his/her own learning. Thus, learners have to learn how to develop awareness of their own learning. According to Kelly:

> **'Teachers cannot distribute knowledge but only the raw material for knowledge construction[…]teachers can also provide good situations which foster social-interactive processes and provide individual learning space'(Cited in Little 2003:169)**

The choices we make about the order of the information in a discourse reveal our own assumptions about the world and about the people we are trying to communicate with. The truth of those assumptions gives unity to our discourse and success to our communication. Flavel (1971) was the first who brought the notion of meta-cognition and defines it as the way we use our cognitive capacities. For him, a child who understands

how a remote control of TV works would be able to use that of an air conditioner using his formerly-learnt knowledge to learn other things. Meta cognitive knowledge is described as the stored knowledge about one's own cognitive state, or about the nature of cognition in general. Meta-cognitive knowledge also refers to an understanding of how different factors may interact to influence our thinking. Meta-cognition is regarded as an important part of expertise since it enables problem-solving and strategy selection.

Hacker (1998) offered a more comprehensive definition of meta-cognition, to include the knowledge of one's own cognitive and affective processes and states as well as the ability to consciously and deliberately monitor and regulate those processes and states. Interestingly, learners' meta-cognitive capacities help them recognizing situations they are involved in categorizing them, and then decide what strategy to use to solve any problem and these actions are performed after plans and strategies, the learner structure in his mind which can be part of *schemata*, as Widdowson (2007) states:

> **The language we produce or receive in the process of communication does not unexpectedly come out of the blue. It is part of the continuity of our individual and social lives, and so always related to the context in our heads of what we know and believe. This context in the head is what was referred to as schematic structures of knowledge, when we realize discourse from the text (p: 27)**

Unlike behaviourism which seeks to explain the acquisition of only certain types of knowledge such as behaviours or attitudes, schema theory, based on its instructional strategies can be applied to any learning situation. It can explain how a great amount of different types of knowledge is learned and what strategies are used to do so. That's why, schema theory proved effective for educators and instructional designers.

6.1. Origins and Development of Schema Theory

In psychology and cognitive science, schema (plural schemata or schemas) describes an organized pattern of thought or behaviour that organizes categories of information and the relationships among them. In other words, a schema means a 'mental structure which derives from all the particular experiences we have had' (Nuttall 1982). The term schema was firstly put forward by Immanuel Kant (1781) as a technical word in psychology. Its emergence goes back to his assumption that the knowledge we acquire comes from a combination of experiences. This knowledge cannot be meaningful unless it

refers to a previous one. Kant thought that it would make sense only if the concept was connected with a person's background knowledge.

Widdowson (2007, p: 28) defines schema as a construct of familiar knowledge. He refers his view to the work of F. Bartlett (1932) who was interested in the psychological side of the theory. Bartlett first was working with the Gestalt emphasis on top-down (from generalities to details) approach to understand. He was interested in how human memory works. To confirm his claim, he made an experiment with a group of British students who were asked to read a North American Indian story called 'The War of the Ghosts' and then rewrite it from memory. What happened was that the new version was totally different from the original. The students changed the events so that they corresponded more closely with their own conventional and customary reality. That is to say, the discourse in the original text suited their pre-existing schematic expectations. (ibid)

Bartlett's pioneering ideas paved the way for considerable research demonstrating the role of prior knowledge on memory and encoding. However, schemas remained a relatively vague and ill-specified construct until the work of artificial intelligence pioneer Marvin Minsky (1975).

Schema theory appeared in the middle of 1970s, with its main representatives. They define it as a mental structure of preconceived ideas, a framework representing some aspect of the world, or a system of organizing and perceiving new information. Modern schema theory considers that a schema can mean: "(1) a mental picture of some area of experience; (2) a collection of organized and interrelated ideas, concepts and prior knowledge structures that are abstract representations of objects, events and relationship in the real world".

Van Dijk, (1981, p: 141) sees schematic knowledge as a high-level complex knowledge structures or framework which functions as 'ideational scaffolding' in the organization and interpretation of experience (Anderson, 1977 cited in Brown and Yule). Widdowson (1983) and Cook (1989) both emphasize the cognitive features of schema which allow us to relate received information to already known information that is related to the knowledge of the world, from everyday knowledge to very particular knowledge. Widdowson described it as "cognitive constructs which allow for the organization of information in long-term memory" while Cook defined the concept as "a mental representation of a typical instance". The key function of a schema is to provide a sum-

mary of our past experiences by abstracting out their important and stable components (Todd M. Gureckis and Robert L. Goldstone 2010).

For example, we might have a schema for a classroom that includes the fact that it typically contains a chalkboard and chairs. Schemas provide a framework for rapidly processing information in our environment. For example, each time we enter a classroom, we do not have to consider each element in the room individually (e.g., chair, table, chalkboard). Instead, our schemas "fill in" what we naturally expect to be present, helping to reduce cognitive load. Similarly, schemas also allow us to predict or infer unknown information in completely new situations (Todd M. Gureckis and Robert L. Goldstone 2010).

6.2. Key Concepts to Schema Theory

As in any field of enquiry within linguistics, various terms and concepts can characterize one subject of interest, the case of schema. Many books and articles were written about schema what led to the establishment of new and different terminologies among linguists such as *frame* and *script*. Like a number of later theorists for example (Rumelhart (1980), Minsky (1975) believed that the basic unit of knowledge representation should be a predicated structure that he called a *frame* (cited in Todd M. Gureckis and Robert L. Goldstone 2010). Frames are symbolic knowledge structures that contain fixed structural relationships among a number of attributes. For example: Former experiences of a football mach, provides us with a frame that enables us to predict what will happen when next attend such a game.

Being informed with an exam, for instance, pushes one to know, expect that s/he is not going to talk to friends, prevent herself from using documents, etc, and work alone. Brown and Yule (1983) assert that "a frame is characteristically a fixed representation of knowledge about the world. If our expectations are not always fulfilled, we should then modify our pre-existing frame to accommodate the experiences.

A *script* can be best understood as packages of knowledge that people have about particular kinds of situations that they have encountered frequently (Roger C. Schank 2010). There are culturally common scripts (everyone you know shares them) and there are individual scripts (only you know about them). When I narrate a story happened to me in a restaurant, I can leave out most of the details because I know that my listener can fill them in. I have an idea about your knowledge on that.

In contrast, if I were telling a story about a situation with which only I was familiar, I would have to explain what was happening in great detail (Roger C. Schank 2010).Without the background knowledge that *scripts* provides us with, the world, and especially language, is inconceivable and looks vague. When a small child fails to understand what was said to him or her, the problem behind is not necessary the lack of appropriate words but more the lack of appropriate scripts.

Scripts dominate our thinking for lives. They organize our memories, they drive our comprehension, and they cause learning to happen when they fail. They provide the background knowledge for understanding the world we live in. That understanding has little to do with words or vision. We don't know what we are seeing or what we are hearing if we are witnessing or hearing about something for which we are lacking a script. We may not know why we do what we do when we are in a script. When we are told on an airplane to turn off all electronic devices, we turn off the computer and the iPod, but not our watch or our pacemaker. We know the script, words don't matter all that much.

It may be, of course, that our background knowledge is organised and stored in some fixed schemata, together with some other, more flexible schematic structures. In whatever way they are represented, schemata seem to present the discourse analyst with one way accounting for discourse production and interpretation which does not take place from the beginning on each occasion. Like frames, scripts, they are a means of representing that background knowledge which we all use, and assume others can use too, when we produce and interpret discourse.

The problem we noted with frames and scripts are, however, also present for schematic representations. The selection and integration of schemata in the processing of a non-constructed piece of text such as the following, presents a significant management problem.

'It can be hard work going down, but luckily the facilities make it much easier going up. Keep them pointed upwards, and be careful when you exit so you don't stop things from moving. Be on the lookout for others who are having difficulty, and watch out for the edges!' (from Todd M. Gureckis and Robert L.Goldstone)

J. Bransford and M. K. Johnson (1972) showed how ambiguous passages similar to this one are at first difficult to interpret; however, when cues about the appropriate schema to

apply are provided and made available by educators, the information makes more sense and is easier to remember.

6.3. Evidence for Schemata

There are a number of pieces of evidence that the mind uses knowledge schemata in the interpretation of discourse. Among these pieces of evidence is the fact that in any discourse, written or spoken, the reader/listener understands and interprets a text and then predicts what comes without being already given them. The case of third year students and their interpretation of the BAC examinations (e.g.: languages exams). In trimestrial exams, learners prefer to be given texts to interprete because they do well in the comprehension and interpretation and this helps increasing their average in the current subject. Let us consider the following examples:

Example1: "1st published in 1989".

The writer doesn't need to add details because s/he expects that a reader will use his previous knowledge to interpret what is meant.

Example2: "last Saturday..........the referee was too strict".

Though the word "referee" is once used but the article 'the' identifies it. Our football schema consists of a 'referee' also it is always assumed that in any football match there's someone who takes charge of the game.

Example3: "Peter was so ill that he decided to see..................

We are able to predict the missing words bringing it from our 'illness schema'.
Using some grammar words (auxiliaries, determiners..) are also evidence:

Example4:
a) which apple do you want the green one or the red?
b) I want this one.

Avoiding details is a proof of using existing knowledge that occurs in context.

Example: "Did you enjoy the party? "Yes I did".
          'did' refers to the act of enjoying.

<div align="right">(my review from MA lectures 2010-12)</div>

Schema Theory is a powerful tool in discourse analysis as it can help to explain both high-level aspect of understanding such as coherence, and low-level linguistic

phenomenon such as article choice. Brown, G & Yule, G. (1983) state that schema can be seen as the organized background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse. For example, the sequence 'the taxi was late, the driver couldn't find our house' appears coherent and the use of the definite article 'the' is appropriate because 'taxi' schema specifies that taxies have drivers and pick people out from houses, however, the sequence 'the taxi was late, the sailor couldn't find our house' appears incoherent and its definite article 'the' is inappropriate, as taxies are not expected to be driven by sailors. In the binary conception of discourse as text and context, schema can be considered as context as it's a kind of knowledge derived from experience of the world.

6.4. Classroom Implications

In language learning, the role of schema especially in coherence was acknowledged by many scholars in the field of language study. Firth (1957) stated that 'schematic knowledge is a device for establishing communicative function in that it provides a speech factor framework for the specification of conditions attendant upon different communicative acts (cited in Widdowson 2007). He links the notion of situation with that of linguistic function and suggests that a study of the former intended as means of characterizing the latter' (Widdowson's 1973).

McCarthy (1991) claims that focusing on cohesive devices for reading purposes doesn't necessary lead to any better coherent interpretation of the text. Supporting the schema theory, he stated that it is the background knowledge of the topic that enables the reader to make sense of the text. For him, a good reader activates the necessary frameworks to support in the interpretation of the text being read.

Tannen (1979: 138) emphasised the influencing role of schema on our thinking cited in Brown and Yule 1983). Tannen (1980) claims that there is evidence that such expectations influence even what type of discourse we produce, for example, after watching a film (with no dialogue), a group of American subjects described in great detail the actual events of the film and what filming techniques had been employed (cited in Brown and Yule 1983). In contrast, a group of Greek subjects produced elaborated stories with additional events and detailed accounts of the movies and feelings of the characters in the film (ibid). Tannen, then, concluded that different cultural background can result in different schemata for the description of witnessed events.

Schemas play an important role in language and linguistic processing by helping to frame the semantic content of a situation. Even when linguistic input is vague, activation of the appropriate schema can aid in the comprehension and retention of linguistically communicated material (see the next section). In addition, schemas and scripts often help us to define and interpret the discourse associated with particular contexts. In the classroom example, certain aspect of the communication between a student and teacher are captured by the schema, including the facts that students should quietly raise their hand in order to get the teacher's attention and that the teacher will stand facing the class and may call upon the student (Todd M. Gureckis and Robert L. Goldstone 2010).

Furthermore, prior and shared knowledge for receptive skills, at the macro processing stage, involves the activation of schematic and contextual knowledge. Schematic knowledge is generally thought of as two types of prior knowledge (Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) : *content schemata*, that is, the background information on the topic and relevant socio-cultural knowledge which can help the students to predict and choose information, rule out different interpretations, accelerate their reading speed, develop their comprehension, and to some extent remedy their language defects, and *formal schemata* which refers to the structure and literary types of a text; knowledge of how discourse is organized with respect to different genres, topics, or purposes; contextual knowledge is the overall perception of the specific listening or reading situation (i.e. listeners observe who the participants are, what the setting is, what the topic and purpose are; readers consider the place where the text appeared, who wrote it, and for what purpose) cited in Elite Olshtain and Marianne Celce-Murcia, p: 716).

6.4.1. Reading

One of the most serious problems in education is that of reading, listening and comprehension of the various discourse materials used in the classroom. Whereas pupils in their pre-school years have acquired the ability to understand much of what is said to them, their first problems will arise with basic reading, and later they will be confronted with the comprehension and its associated tasks of increasingly more complex types of spoken or written discourse types.

A lot of research has been made by cognitive and behavioural scientists in order to explore the nature of reading; how readers get through textual information, seeking to

improve teaching it in the best way. Various methods and approaches were established such as bottom-up processing which focuses on developing the basic skill of matching sounds with the letters, syllables, and words written on a page, and top-down processing which emphasises the background knowledge a reader uses to comprehend a written text.

Most research on basic reading has focused on the processes of letter and word identification, their mutual interaction and the interaction with syntax and lexical sentential semantics. It has been shown, among other things, that reading does not merely involve elementary letter and word identification. Word identification and comprehension are processes intimately connected with syntactic and semantic knowledge and expectations.

It seems obvious, thus, to think that word and sentence comprehension are in turn dependent on knowledge and expectations about sentence relations and discourse structures. therefore, cognitive skills, for discourse comprehension, are already acquired, partially, in the preschool period" (Van Dijk, 1980) Therefore, teaching reading to learners doesn't need or require teaching them words or structures but teaching them meaning; meaningful texts and this requires selecting a text. Reading doesn't mean identifying sounds, grammatical structures and patterns "for personal, pragmatic and social constraints, additional, sometimes useless, structuring is possible" (Van Dijk 1980).

The complex sequence of actions and circumstances which make up eating in a restaurant, taking a bus, giving a dinner party, etc. are, thus, cognitively represented in our knowledge as frames or scripts. These allow us to effectively take part in, understand and control such stereotypical interaction sequences, also when represented in a story for instance. We may assume that opinions and other cognitive factors are organized in similar ways, such that attitudes are the complex, higher-order frames which organize opinions and actions concerning particular socially relevant issues. Learners/readers, then, are being taught thinking by which they are learning how to develop their abilities to analyse.

Reading is a constructive process which involves monitoring and self-questioning as well as control of cognitive processing. Reciprocal teaching is about making explicit the strategies and skills that competent readers use when they are reading. Le Fèvre (mentioned in psycholinguistics lectures 2011) and his colleagues have always argued that poor readers are often given inappropriate texts for their age and the reliance on simple

texts for poor readers does nothing to improve knowledge and use of meta-cognitive strategies. This has been an obvious effect on motivation.

Educators and teachers should select texts taking into consideration students' needs, preferences, individual differences learning styles, and cultural backgrounds to enable the learners to understand the message that involves the activation of existing schemata that later help in building new ones; in the case of Algeria, one cannot provide students from the south with texts that can be given to students in the north. This may be beneficial for them to vary the thematic knowledge however; it decreases their learning chances and delays the planned programme. The following *Reading* activities if applied in teaching the different reading phases are beneficial in the building of students' reading schemata:

Pre-reading: in order to get through an effective reading, at this stage, readers should have a purpose in mind and think of a plan on how to read the text in hand. By doing so, they find it easy to make some strategic decisions based on that purpose and the form of the text. This happens only through the supervision of the teacher who makes sure her students are discussing everything they know about the topic, writing down ideas, employing techniques such as prediction, inference, and store them for later use.

During reading: the task of the teacher at this stage is to guide and monitor the interaction between the reader and the text. For example, encourage them to take note of what they find important in the text such as key words, details and the general idea of the text. During the reading stage, readers also learn techniques and strategies about speed of reading, order of reading, and rereading. This also leads to a revision of the initial prediction of what to expect from the text. The reader also brings prior knowledge to bear on making inferences from the text and relate the information to what they really know until he gets to the message behind the authors ideas, i.e., the discourse of the text.

After reading: this stage is evaluative for both the teacher and the students. The students begin to evaluate the text in relation to their purpose and interest while the teacher evaluates them examining their understanding of the topic and adequacy of interpretation. Here, the teacher may ask students questions that allow knowing to what extent they could go beyond the text. This may require students to reflect on the text and may reread some sections.

Reading involves writing and speaking and by using his/her cognitive abilities, a learner develops both skills. Each reader has his own way of reading a text; some of them, for instance, sort out key words and key concepts to develop their own understanding and they can summarize or even re-write it.

6.4.2. Writing

Writing is a means of communicating our ideas through written language. Since writing addresses the native speaker of the language used, the writer should pay attention to readers. The linguistic usage should conform to the rules of written language and the writing should be familiar to the reader without cultural bias. The organization and development of the statement should follow the way how the native speaker uses (LIU Jing-tao 2012)

Writing is closely linked to reading for it provides us with models. However, writing also includes the difficult motor skills of being able to hold the pen to write in the appropriate direction. When writing, two elements should be considered grammar and the context in which the language is sequenced. So, children need to develop meta-linguistic knowledge, that is, knowledge of how language works. In other words, knowledge of sentence, structures, punctuation, spelling, and knowledge of different forms as well as taking into consideration that, environmental conditions are crucial for the development of sensory system, motor skill, language, etc.

The conditions needed for children to develop these faculties are present in normal social environment and not dependent on particular teaching and teaching materials or practice. Thus, rather, these faculties should be developed through involving learners in similar context of acquiring developed strategies to deal with complex situations other than the ones they have already experienced. This cannot be reached unless learners are involved in situation where a teacher-learner purposive interaction takes place through negotiating meaning.

Approaching language from a discourse point of view helps teachers develop learners' meta-cognitive capacities in that it enables them to distinguish between what is the core of the lesson and what are just details. It also gives possibility to store new information and reuse it again in other new situations. This is clearly spelled out in what Widdowson 1996 states:

When people make an indexical connection, they do so by linking features of the language with familiar features of their world, with what is established in their minds as a normal pattern of reality or schema. (p: 63)

This can be applied on spoken discourse; activating the schematic knowledge in learners requires an interaction that includes learners-teacher, learner-learner-teacher or learner-learner through a negotiation of meaning discussing a familiar topic from their everyday real-life, making both sides of the conversation meet at a particular point of understanding each other.

The relevance of schematic knowledge in a foreign language teaching/learning lies behind the teacher' role in activating it in learners' minds facilitating the input for them and leading them to produce individual discourses. The teachers' task, in this process, happens through inspiring learners' thinking, and then helping them make good use of their existing/prior knowledge to comprehend the new reading material preparing for comprehensive language production. Relying on only students' background knowledge of a particular topic is not enough (there may be students who do not experience much situations like other students do) thus, teachers should extend the students' background knowledge through exposing them to the different thematic events and continuously adjust, improve, adapt, and complement their schemata so as to develop their reading ability. Good readers, being exposed to such strategies in reading and analysing and then applying them all the time, will certainly, unintentionally, use them when writing bearing in mind that s/he is writing for readers.

Despite the current status of pre-reading activities, there might be restrictions to their use in ELT and they may not always work as intended. Cook (1994) stated that schemas can be restrictive even if they allow us to process communication. It has been proved that applications of schema theory do not always mean that comprehension has been improved, particularly where there is insufficient attention to the details of a given text, or where schema-interference increases due to the 'activation of dominant or negative schemata' (Stott 2001).

Also, there is evidence that the contextual and background information given may not always necessarily be adopted by the learners. However, there is little doubt that schema theory has positively influenced the teaching of reading and listening and that pre-

activities can help to improve a learner's comprehension in many situations. Therefore, it makes sense for teachers to use such activities but not be assumptive that what we expect is in fact reality. In other words, teachers should make sure that they check the usefulness of the activities used and pay close attention to possible schema-interference or non-activation. In essence, we must do the most possible in order to increase comprehension, and thus, maximise an overall performance.

6.4.3. Speaking

Schema Theory is significant to speaking skill too, that is, language input and language output of the language teaching. From the perspective of language input, the new information assimilation is a process in which learnt knowledge interacts with the new knowledge. When we have no schemata related to the new information, the assimilation or comprehension will be hindered, while with relevant schemata and without effective activation, the new information cannot be assimilated or comprehended as well. This is in accordance with the idea of the second language acquisition theory.

According to cognitive schemata, the psychological process of foreign language learning can be described as this: There are "extending activities" in memory networks *frames* in brains. The new information input will be interacting with the conjunction points in the networks *frames*. These conjunctions points and networks will be elaborately processed in the intended identification, analysis, and connection. New information will be added and enhanced continuously and the old schemata or networks finally develop into new schemata or knowledge networks (Anderson, 1995). When the new schemata or knowledge networks are deposited in long-term memory, the information input is grasped by students eventually.

From the perspective of language output, we know that speaking depends not only on vocal organs, but also on the accumulation of knowledge. The Schema Theory believes that knowledge deposited in brains is in forms of schemata. Varieties of new information received by brains are compiled into the networks. These include all kinds of schemata including a conception, a word spelling, pronunciation, a fact, a thing, and others. These schemata placed in memories are in different sizes and have connections with each other. Schemata can be divided into linguistic schemata which is knowledge of language, content schemata which is related to the background knowledge of the content area, and

formal schemata which is based on the background knowledge of the structure of any given text (Cook 1997).

Linguistic schemata refer to the language knowledge and the capabilities to use the language knowledge which includes pronunciation, grammar, syntax, and others. This reflects the close relationship between schema theory and communication competence. The relationship is that students can pick up languages and background information related to topics smoothly as long as they activate these schemata successfully.

Having a large amount of schemata and activating them successfully are the keys to improve oral competence of EFL students. Therefore, designing different types of class activities, the teacher can help activating their schemata. Students on their sides must dominate the stage of the oral communication in order to increase their communication chances in different situations to improve their speaking skills using the target language.

The reflections that the learner will do on his learning processes (meta-cognition) will contribute to insure the quality of his acquisitions and facilitate their reinvestment. The process of taking in hand his own learning relies on his cognitive and affective resources all along with the influence of the social and cultural interactions of his environment. This will lead to a new conception to foreign language teaching/learning: the program will be centred on the learner and on the construction of his knowledge so as to make him acquire a functional knowledge in English corresponding to his needs inside and outside the school.

Such treatments allow the learner to enjoyably listen, speak, read, write and reuse what he has learnt (what he knows) in new situations. This learning construction will not be done in a fragmented manner but in an integrated way and will be achieved through introducing the learner to important and complex situations.

Conclusion

This chapter has outlined learning theories and their influence on language learning in general and on discourse construction in foreign language learning in particular. It also outlined their beneficial implication in language teaching. Scholars in the field of psychology agree on that children learn through building structures and these structures are developed and enhanced thanks to parents and the world surrounding them. Thus, this

made clear some major insights about the cognitive processing of discourse as an important component in the basic theory of language teaching.

Theories of learning and language study have greatly influenced language teaching methodologies by offering explanations and interpretation for children's cognitive as well as social learning styles and abilities. Although their points of view differ according to their fields of interest, language researchers' view social and cognitive development in children, both offer educators good suggestions on how to teach certain material in a developmentally appropriate manner. In this chapter, theorists in learning argue in favour of taking into consideration the social environment where natural language occurs in early human beings mental development and value the role of discourse as an appropriate approach to teaching language in general and foreign language in particular. The question that poses here, do Algerian teachers' make use of learning theories in their language teaching? The answer of this question will be covered in this study but in specific areas in specific Algerian secondary schools, particularly in the empirical work where discourse is examined in language classrooms.

Introduction

The shift of attention from language form to language use was crucial in the history of English language teaching in Algeria. The Algerian government's policy of language learning (2005) made it clear for educators that the teaching of foreign languages has to be perceived within the objectives of 'providing the learners with the skills necessary to succeed in tomorrow's world' (2005a). That is to say, involving them in relationship with others, to learn to share and to cooperate, and exchange ideas and scientific, cultural and civilizational experiences that will allow them to identify themselves and to identify others through a process of constant reflection. This clearly implies that the objectives for FL learning and teaching are designed to attain the learners' communicative competence in order to cope with modernity and the linguistic community which uses correctly the foreign language. For the implementation of these objectives to language teaching, the Algerian curricular for national education required adopting the communicative language teaching approach together with the competency-based approach to support foreign language learning proficiency.

Algeria is among the countries which have always been interested in the teaching of English as a foreign language. Since its independence, Algeria included in its curricula the teaching of different foreign languages such as French, English, Spanish, Russian and German. Although French holds a special rank in many fields in Algeria because of the long period of the French colonization compared to English, the latter could achieve considerable rank among the new generation and became greatly noticeable.

English learning today is welcomed by all learners' social categories as it is being used not only in the learning public institutions or private schools but also on social media and outside by young people singing, talking to foreign friends, watching football matches and discussing matters. As syllabus designers focus on the learners' needs to achieve competency in the target language, this would reinforce the knowledge that they gain from the English they use inside the classroom.

As this study is concerned with exploring discourse in Algerian secondary schools, the researcher found it relevant for this *chapter* to, first, state the Algerian profile of languages in general then outline the history of English language in Algeria; as a status language, a foreign language, and end with drawing the policy by which it was integrated in schools, all to support the empirical work. Second, it will also be relevant discussing

the most known and applied methods and approaches to language teaching since language proficiency is built in the classroom under the assistance of the teacher and inspired by the syllabus content. It would also be relevant mentioning that the abbreviations: EFL, ESL, FL, and L2 all refer to English language teaching in Algeria.

1. ELT Situation in Algerian Secondary Education
1.1. Languages in Algeria

Algeria constitutes a diverse society with a linguistic plurality. In Algeria, the language used in administration and the media is Classical Arabic. Algerian Dialectal Arabic and Berber are spoken in everyday life and in informal situations. French is considered as a second language due to historical reasons. Though many laws and policies were followed to weaken the influence of the French language in favour of Classical Arabic through the policy of 'Arabisation' (Mostari H. A., 2003), this did not succeed in removing it from the lives and culture of the Algerians. However, the French language had a great impact on the Algerian use of Arabic (the mother tongue) and English (the second foreign language) in both educational and social lives.

Language policy is planned to support or prevent the use of language or a set of languages. It firmly decides how languages are used in public and official context and establish the rights of individuals to learn, use, and maintain languages. (Benghida, 2006) In Algeria, this policy is represented through 'Arabisation', a policy of monolingualism which claims Arabic as the official language of the country. 'The transformation of the Algerian man and the recovery of his identity' should be done by 'actively pursuing the program of arabization…" President Boumediene (1974) argued:

> **The issue of language education policies in Algeria is a sensitive issue embroiled in passionate politics and, as correctly assessed by Berger (2002: 8), it is ''the most severe problem of Algeria in its present and troubled state''. This situation sets Algeria apart from the rest of the Arab world and Africa and makes it a particularly instructive example for the fields of language policy and language-in-education planning.**
>
> **(Benrabah, 2007)**

Standard Arabic in its modern form (Modern Standard Arabic or Standard Arabic) is the only formal national language that is officially recognized by the state. It is used in

news reporting and media, most publications and formal contexts in general. As regard to classical form (Classical Arabic, the language of Quoran), it is used in religious and literary recitations. Those two forms of Arabic share the same vocabulary, syntax and morphology.

For historical reasons, French has a major position in society. It competes with Arabic in several domains, such as commerce, finance, science and technology. French also sustains a privileged position in education especially in the private sector. However, though used at different degrees by the whole majority, French is considered by the Constitution as a 'foreign language' (Morsly, 1996). At time, to escape Arabisation many parents (especially from the elite) enrolled their children in private French schools to ensure a bilingual education for them, but in February 2006, President Abdel Aziz Bouteflika has ordered 42 private French-language schools to be closed for 'linguistic deviation' (ibid 2006, p:37). Despite the established language policy, French continues to be regarded as necessary for social and professional success.

Algerian Arabophones (users of Arabic) constitute 72% of Algeria's people. Approximately 27.4% of the population is estimated to Berberophones, speaking one of the several varieties of Berber. This diversity in population reflects a diverse Algeria's linguistic profile that, with no doubt influences the language of education.

As surveyed in Benghida 2006, the greater number of the Algerian population is Arabophone who mainly speaks the Algerian colloquial Arabic (an Arabic variety called Derdja). The latter is the outcome of the phenomenon called 'code switching' which requires the use of Arabic and other languages (mainly French). This form of language mixing is linked with the country's colonial experience.

Algeria witnessed many conquests the Phoenicians, the Romans, the Vandals, the Byzantines, the Arabs, the Portuguese, the Spanish, the Turkish and finally the French since 1830. From a lexical point of view, French has the largest lexical influence; obviously, many French words are adapted to the Algerian Arabic: kusina (kitchen: 'cuisine'), miziriya (misery: 'misère'), etc. (ibid, p35). Algerians today use significant amounts of French in their daily conversations. As a matter of fact, many hesitate to identify the Algerian Arabic as a true Arabic variety because it contains so much French.

A recent research on a sample of 15 speakers having different characteristics (age, place of origin, place of residence, etc.), were requested to minimize their use of French. Nevertheless, an average of 16% of the word count in naturalistic speech proved to be French (Bergman, 2001). This phenomenon has currently its noticeable share in our Algerian school with all their levels; learners use French to complete the gaps in an English piece of writing.

English stands as a foreign language in Algeria. Algerian used to meet it only in the classroom. However, with the growth in technology and as a great number of families use the internet, young people among others now have friends around the world with whom they use English to chat and exchange ideas. They even became fans of footballers, artists of English speaking communities. Today, the teaching of English in Algeria is inspired by the national policy that sees its interests in being part of the global community although it is used by the government to diminish the influence of French in Algeria as (Miliani 2000: 13) claims:

> **In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the socio-cultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills-including economic, technological and educational ones.**

1.2. History of English as a Status Language in Algeria

By the end of the 1990s, Algeria became statistically the second largest French-speaking community in the world after France (Benrabah 2013). This happened in the midst of major social changes which influenced the language situation in the post-independence era. At time when the population rose from 10 million in 1962 to 25.6 million in 1990, to 30.5 million in 1998, and an estimated 38.9 million in July 2013 and by the increase number of population living in urban areas, literacy, as well, rose substantially from around 10% in 1962 to 52% in 1990, and 72.6% today, with the majority being proficient in institutional Arabic (ibid).

In this era, Algeria witnessed the end of the single-party system and gradually a political liberalization, a moderately diversified market economy and the expansion of telecommunications media took place. Arabization as a totalizing language policy failed

and, in the early 2000s, the authorities openly declared that it was time for bilingual education (Benrabah 2007b, 29 cited in Benrabah, 2014).

From the end of the 70s to the early 90s, French was taught as a subject and as the first mandatory foreign language, starting from the fourth grade in the primary cycle. English was the second foreign language, introduced in Middle School (eighth grade). Under the influence of the pro-Arabization lobby which comprised Islamists, conservatives and nationalists, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education introduced English in primary school as a competitor to French in September 1993. Thus, the pupils who accessed Grade Four (8–9 year olds) had to choose between French and English as the first mandatory foreign language (Benrabah 2007d, 194).

However, unexpectedly, the competition between the two European languages turned in favour of French. Between 1993 and 1997, out of two million school-children in Grade Four, the total number of those who chose English was insignificant; between 0.33% and 1.28% (Miliani 2000, c23; Queffélec et al. 2002, 38 cited in Benrabah, 2014). Despite these statistics, opinions among many families were in favour of introducing their children English in the primary level and many of those children today have a considerable level in English at the expense of French.

As far as foreign language teaching is concerned, French was re-instated as the first foreign language taught in the 3rd year of primary schools. English, however, was taken back from primary school level to be taught in the 1st year of middle schools. Table 1 provides a summary of these reforms.

Table 1: New structure for foreign language teaching in Algeria

	Primary (6 years-age6-11)	Middle (4years – age – 12-15)	Secondary (3 years – age -16-18)
French	Year 2 to year 6	Year 1 to year 4	Year 1 to year 3
English	Not taught	Year 1 to year 4	Year 1 to year 3

In order to improve the teaching of English, a new teacher training system has been developed to meet the demands and challenges of the new curriculum. In fact, this new system of teacher training has become more qualitatively-orientated than the old

system, the latter of which emphasised quantity over quality. The Ministry of Education (2006c) states the general philosophy of teacher training as follows:

> **Training is a continuous process for all educators at all levels, and its purpose is to allow the participants to gain professional knowledge and to enhance competence, culture and awareness about the mission that educators are set to accomplish. (p. 1)**

(Translated from Arabic)

1.3. Teaching English in Algerian Schools

In speaking about English teaching in schools, many approaches have been adopted by educationalists and psychologists. In Algeria, however, two approaches have been adopted since its inception. The first one being the Communicative Approach to language where curriculum designers agreed that language is first communication. However, this was not very practical considering difficulties of time and space.

Although the linguistic influence of advertising on people is undeniable, the culture and the thought of people influence advertising, Second or foreign language learners must not only be aware of this interdependence, but must be taught its nature in order to convince them of the essentiality of including culture in the study of a language which is not their own.

The second approach adapted from the first one was the competency-based approach (CBA), helping the learners acquire a communicative competence by centralizing on the learner as the target of the learning process. The focus, in this approach, was on the meaning conveyed by the context rather than the grammatical forms used in it. This approach has been an answer to the requirements of the 21st century which dictated certain measures to the teacher better considered in the United States as facilitators.

In order to improve and support the teaching of English in Algeria, all teachers for all school levels, primary, middle and secondary are now trained at the National School of Teachers (ENS) run in partnership with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Generally, candidates who hold the baccalaureate and who choose to become teachers enrol for a one-year foundation course before they are referred to their

specialist route according to the grades they obtain in the foundation course. Hence, there are those who study four years to become primary and middle school teachers (called PEF) and those who study five years to become secondary school teachers (called PES). Table 2 below provides a summary of the current training system for French and English language teachers:

Table2: Training for French and English language teachers in Algeria

Subject	Primary/Middle school teachers	Secondary teachers
French	Bac + 4 years	Bac + 5 years
English	Bac + 4 years	Bac + 5 years

The Ministry of Education has also run in-service courses (INSET) and seminars to meet the demands of the new curriculum (Le Soir d'Algérie, 2006). This involved the organisation of training days and seminars with inspectors and local officials from the different Directorates of Education. Continuous professional development (CPD) courses have also been organised to ensure that teachers gain appropriate qualifications. Recently, for instance, the Ministry of Education had made it compulsory for primary and middle school teachers to have a degree in their specialist areas by a set deadline. The degree courses are run in partnership with Algerian universities. The local directorates were instructed to plan and implement this policy.

Although efforts to support English teaching in Algerian schools are clearly apparent, reality in the field of education is different. As part of the education body and as a teacher of English at secondary school, the researcher claims that pedagogical days and seminars do not make sense with regard to teachers. Invitations to attend seminars by national inspectors are mostly addressed to either novice teachers or coordinators. What is really taking place, is pedagogical visits to novice teachers who are supposed to be nominated. Perhaps the enormous number of teachers that are being employed the whole year is the fact that makes the process of training difficult. Training teachers and support the teaching/ learning process are considered to be an important part of this field. It does not only boost education but it also contributes to the development of the country as it creates new intellectual generation that complies with modernity. Thus, it seems unavoidable exploring this field through serious research.

1.4.   Algerian National Policy for Secondary Education and Curriculum

As it is stated in English curricula (2006) by the Algerian Ministry of National Education, the teaching of English at high school is part of the national policy of foreign languages and within the general framework of the provisions of the Reform of the Educational System introduced in 2001 and fixing the missions and objectives of teaching and learning in Algeria. English Teaching objectives are set to equip the learner with necessary tools that will help him succeed in his future life. It is about helping the learner to a harmonious integration in modernity, and joining a new linguistic community which uses English in various situations. By following such objectives, the learner will develop capacities and competencies which will facilitate his integration in the society surrounding him where he learns to share, to cooperate and considers himself a positive part of his society. Therefore, teaching English as a second foreign language (FL2) after French as a first foreign language (FL1) covers seven years; four in the middle cycle and three in the secondary.

To summarize, according to Algerian syllabus designers, the mastery of English will give the student a vision of the world that will allow him / her to share knowledge, science, technology and become the citizen of tomorrow, responsible and able to integrate effectively into the process of Globalization.

1.4.1. General Objectives for Teaching English

According to the Ministry of Education, the objectives of teaching and learning foreign languages are not solely functional, but are also social and ideological. These objectives centre round:

- an academic platform, which is the development of linguistic skills to catch up with science and technology in the world.
- a cultural platform, which enables students to communicate with and to know people from other countries and cultures, and to exchange ideas and experiences.
- a socio-cognitive platform, which allows students to reflect on themselves and their environment and hence to identify themselves and their society.

These objectives seem to reflect an overall philosophy based on a socio-constructivist approach to education (Anderson et al., 1991), which the government seems to have adopted for the Algerian school as part of their reforms. Socio-

constructivism generally entails an emphasis on 'the importance of students thinking and construction of meaning through interaction with others about complex, authentic problems' (Anderson 1995). In this approach the student interacts with teachers and community through negotiation of knowledge based on critical reflection towards using knowledge in her/his social context and community (ibid). In this respect, the teaching of foreign languages in the new curriculum is seen as a means towards the construction of knowledge about science and technology, and intercultural communication.

In reality, Algeria which has witnessed some difficulties in setting the language for education finds it hard to set the above mentioned objectives to learn English. In Secondary Education, students when often asked about their motives of studying English as a specialty. Their answers vary between "Because I like it", "because it's the language of the world", "It was not my choice but it's a compulsory subject". Another phenomenon is that Algerian learners take into account and rely on grades as a motive for learning. The mark became the main objective for learners rather than the learning of English itself.

As such, the fact of bearing more importance to marks may not only hinder the learner from doing research, for the sake of gaining knowledge, but also kills creativity and cleverness.

2. English Teaching: History of Approaches and Methods

Language teaching refers to the set of educational practices, approaches, and materials used by instructors to facilitate language (FL) learning. Adopting any of the methodologies that existed along the teaching history should normally cope with the learners' current needs and life requirements.

Improvement in foreign language teaching began in the 19th century and became very rapid in the 20th century. It led to a number of different and sometimes conflicting methods; each appear to be a key to innovation compared to the previous methods. Over time, language education has developed in schools and has become a part of the educational curriculum around the world in addition to other main subjects like maths and science. There are many methods of teaching languages. Some have fallen into relative

roles and others are widely used; still others have a small following, but offer useful insights (Ndubuisi Ogbonna A. 2014).

Although they can be differently defined, the terms "approach", "method" and "technique" are hierarchical concepts. *Approach* is a set of assumptions about the nature of language and language learning, but it does not involve procedure or provide any details about how such assumptions should be implemented into the classroom setting. Such a concept can be related to second language acquisition theory. There are three principal approaches:

a. *The structural view* that treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning. It involves isolation of grammatical and syntactic elements of L2 taught either deductively or inductively in a predetermined sequence.

b. The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.

c. The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This approach has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.

Method is a plan for presenting the language material to be learned, and should be based upon a selected approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students, and the roles of teachers.

a) Structural methods are grammar translation method and the audio-lingual method.

b) Examples of functional methods include the oral approach / situational language teaching.

c) Examples of interactive methods include the Direct Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Language Immersion, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, The Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, Teaching Proficiency Through Reading and Storytelling, and Dogme Language Teaching

Technique (or strategy) is a very specific, concrete strategy designed to accomplish an immediate objective. Such are derived from the controlling method, and less directly, from the approach.

The change in approaches and methods over time narrates the story of how language teaching materials were succeeding one another until today for the reason of inappropriateness. From the *GTM* (The Grammar Translation Method that depended on grammar teaching and literary translation to the *CLT* (Communicative Language Teaching) that favours oral language interest for communication until recently the *CBA* (The Competency-Based Approach) that calls for learner centeredness and autonomy in language learning, all in order to improve a learning process based on communicative purposes. Thus, based on different theories of learning, language teaching has undergone a lot of changes in methods and approaches seeking language learning improvement. The following is a summary of these approaches and methods; their establishments and contribution to foreign language teaching.

2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

Based on the assumption that language is primarily graphic, the grammar translation method (GTM) was characterized in the following points:

- Teaching second language was based on building structure (verb, adjective, conjugations, etc.) to use them as a tool either for literary interests and translation or to develop the learner's power.
- The medium of instruction in the GTM was the mother tongue with little use of the target language.
- Practice was through written activities.
- Vocabulary was learnt lists of isolated words.
- Written language was superior to the spoken version; speaking and listening were seen as less important and classroom conversation were seen as extra to the main objective of the lesson.

According to its basics, this method did nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language Celce-Murcia M. & Olshtain, E. (2001). For learners, foreign language learning meant a boring experience of memorizing endless lists

of useless grammar rules and vocabulary that aim at producing perfect translation of literary prose" (Richards and Rodgers 1986:4). However, though it does not cope with today's learning contexts, it was popular for some reasons. The examination of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored. The GTM is sometimes successful in leading a student toward a *reading* knowledge of a second language.

However, its aim which is to simplify the language learning process by focusing on isolated sentences paved no place for real communication and created passive learners. After many years of GTM-based education, the knowledge pupils had about language was many words of the target language with its structure that, later through time decreases because of the lack of practice.

In fact, the grammar translation method was criticised the worldwide as it presented constraints as social, political and educational objectives have changed and new interests and needs required challenging the teaching of languages in general and the teaching of English in particular.

2.2. Direct Method

This approach was developed initially as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach in an attempt to integrate more use of the target language in instruction.

- Speaking and listening were the most important skills in this method.
- The medium of instruction was English (the target language).
- Grammar was taught through sequences of strictly-chosen grammatical phrases by listening and repetition. Grammar rules were avoided, and were taught implicitly through phrases
- Vocabulary was learnt either incidentally, as part of the phrases being taught, or via lists grouped under types of situation.

2.3. The Audio-lingual Method

This method is based on the principles of behaviour psychology. By the 1970 and the early 1980, the new method adapted many of the principles and procedures of the Direct Method like placing emphasis on spoken language rather than on written language. Based on the principle that language learning is habit formation in this method:

- Structures are sequenced and taught one at a time; little or no grammatical explanations are provided.

- Grammar is taught inductively.

- The speaking skill was taught through exercises such as listen and repeat (drilling, rote memorization, role playing).

This approach aimed at teaching the language skills in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. At the first level of instruction, learning was based on dialogues containing daily used expressions. The dialogues were learnt by a process of mimicry memorization so as to develop speech habits. Unfortunately, the audio-lingual mechanical way of teaching language created learners who are able to recite whole utterances when simulated but unable to use what they have learnt in other situations or in real unexpected communicative situations. (Rivers, 1981:43-44).Thus, learners were incapable of using language effectively in formal or informal situations, although such a method's objective was developing the oral skill.

In short, this method used to discourage both teacher and learner; it did not depend so much on the instructor's creative ability and did not require excellent proficiency in the language, and automaticity of response was favoured since its references were the sets of lessons and books. As a result, a growing need for real communication competence in English led to the implementation of the communicative language teaching (CLT).

By the middle of the 20th century, theories in cognitive psychology led by Vygotsky and Piaget were established to explain the limited effectiveness of the traditional prescriptive and mechanistic approaches to language teaching. Both of them argue for the idea that a learner builds cognitive structures in order to understand and respond to physical experiences within his/her environment. For them, true learning occurs when the learner actively transforms his world and does not just imitate it.

On the other hand, but towards the same objective with Piaget and Vygotsky's conception, by the beginning of the 1950s, Noam Chomsky and his followers challenged previous assumptions about language structure and language learning, taking the position that language is creative (not memorized), and rule governed (not based on habit), and that universal phenomena of the human mind underlie all languages.

This Comskyan perspective gave rise to *eclecticism* in teaching and highlighted a significant shift toward greater attention to reading and writing as a complement of listening and speaking, based on a new awareness of significant differences between spoken and written languages, and on the notion that dealing with language involves an interaction between the text on the one hand, and the culturally-based world knowledge and experientially-based learning of the receiver on the other. There have been developments such as a great emphasis on individualized instruction, more humanistic approaches to language learning, a greater focus on the learner, and greater emphasis on development of communicative competence more than on the linguistic one.

By its emergence in the 1970's, the CLT was the source of impact on language teaching worldwide. Algeria was among those countries who called textbook designers to meet the new approach's requirements. As a results new textbooks were established; *My New Book* of English for SE1 pupils, *New Midlines* for SE2 pupils and *COMET*, for SE3 pupils. As Richards (2001) states it:

> **with CLT began a movement away from traditional lesson formats where the focus was on mastery of different items of grammar and practice through controlled activities, towards the use of pair work activities, role play and group work activities.**

2.4. The Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)

The origins of the CLT go back to the Council of Europe development of syllabus for learners based on functional-notional concepts of language use. This came in response to the call for immigrants and workers and a new British linguistic tradition to describe language behaviour taking into consideration both the linguistic and the social context.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined it as composing competence in four areas: Words and rules, Appropriacy, Cohesion and coherence, Use of communication strategies. The communicative language teaching (CLT) is considered the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction.

Chomsky for example had shown that the structural theories of language widespread at the time could not explain the creativity and variety evident in real communication. British applied linguists such as Christopher Candlin and Henry

Widdowson started questioning the significance of structure in learning and they found that it was not evident in helping learners.

They saw a need for students to develop communicative skill and functional competence in addition to mastering language structures. The CLT's perspective comes from a theory of language as communication and its goal is to develop communicative competence. It is based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through communicating real meaning. That is, when learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn to use the language.

Thus, CLT is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Based on theories of language and learning, this method of teaching aims at giving students tasks to deal with, using language instead of studying language. Its classroom characteristics can be summarized as follows:

- It is devoted primarily to activities that foster acquisition of L2. Learning activities involving practice and drill are assigned as homework.
- The instructor does not correct speech errors directly.
- Students are allowed to respond in the target language, their native language, or a mixture of the two.
- The students receive comprehensible input in a low-anxiety environment and are personally involved in class activities.

The CLT approach had great impact on language teaching and syllabus design as it was attacked by Michael Swan in the English Language Teaching Journal in 1985 and some other writers for paying insufficient attention to the context in which teaching and learning take place, though it has been defended against this charge by (e.g. Harmer 2003). The many subsequent teaching methods followed the CLT have been greatly influenced by its methodology such as the Functional-Notional Approach, the Natural Approach, and recently the Competency-Based approach.

The communicative approach had been in use in Algerian middle and secondary schools until 2002 when the recent educational reform launched the competency-based approach in 2003. It was first implemented in Middle schools during

the academic year 2003/2004 and two years later in Secondary schools. This shift from CLT to the CBA is due to a new national conception of today's generation and the role the learner plays in his local and global environment. The textbooks which were introduced within this approach and which are currently used by ELT educators are At the Crossroads for SE1 pupils, Getting Through for SE2 pupils, and New Prospects for SE3 pupils. The latter will be a research tool to be evaluated in this study.

2.5. Competency-Based Approach (CBA)

The 1970's witnessed the emergence of the Competency Based Approach which means an educational method that support the educational objective in terms of particular description of the knowledge, skills and behaviour that should shape learners learning in the end of the course study.

Generally speaking, methods and approaches focus on inputs to language teaching. However, the CBA is an educational reform that concentrates on the learners' output, the outcomes of learning in developing planning and curriculum design. The Competency approach is a teaching that combines perception, memory and conception which help to think clearly, read and listen critically and write convincingly for self expression in speech and on paper. It is an approach that is based on functional perspective on the nature of language.

It seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used. As such, the CBA designers can predict the vocabulary and structures that can be encountered by the learner in certain situations that are centred to the learner's real everyday life in order to programme and organize language teaching/ learning units. It is characterized as follows:

1) An action oriented in that it allows learners to be effective and competent language users in real life situations outside the classroom. It adjusts language learning to the acquisition of know-how embedded in functions and skills that will later help learners to become an effective component speaker in real-life situations.

2) A problem-solving approach**:** involves learners in situations where they check and test their capacities to overcome obstacles and problems.

3) A social constructivist: it views learning through social interaction with other people in and outside the classroom.

4) It is a cognitive approach**:** referring to Bloom's taxonomy, its objectives consider learners' attitudes, values, emotions, etc.

As other countries, Algeria has adopted the new Educational Reform characterised by the Competency Based Approach (CBA) in 2002, in order to introduce education to globalization's requirements. This reform, thus, introduces new dimensions related to globalisation like introducing ICT's use and focusing on foreign languages teaching without falling into the trap of losing one's identity and acculturation. Louznadji (2008) summarizes:

> **The recently integrated approach to competence, which aims to use the English language as a tool and not as an end, was adopted in the reform. It aims towards the integration of acquired skills, by mobilizing a range of skills and a quantity of knowledge through problem situations to be solved. Moreover, since this approach is learner-centred, it is essential to respect the student's needs and interests.**

The Competency-Based Approach conception to language learning is at the same time cognitivist and social constructivist (Riche, 2005). In this approach the teacher is not the only supplier of knowledge in the classroom and the learner as being the passive recipient. Rather, it is the responsibility of both the teacher and the learner to participate in the learning process. The learner is required to participate in his own learning through interaction with peers in and outside the classroom. Thus, this new educational reform has brought new insight concerning the role of the teacher in the learning process.

True that each of the teaching methods and approaches that existed did not last long when it was substituted by one another, but all of them had and still have impact on practice by teachers and educators. Moreover, many experienced teachers today select from the whole methods to save complex teaching situations and use them appropriately in other situations. Recently, people learn a foreign language in order to read and study its literature. The Grammar Translation Approach was one of the most widely used methods and approaches to achieve this aim. The best authors were selected and their writings were studied through compositions' (Bouhadiba in his article: Understanding Culture in FL Learning). All of them searched language learning effectiveness; recent approaches sought the communicative competence that is acquired by valuing the

account for language skills, the classroom participants' interaction, and the social context where language occurs.

The real issue is not which syllabus to put first: it is how to integrate all or some of the provided syllabuses (functional, notional, situational, topic, phonological, lexical, structural, skills) into a sensible teaching program (Swan 1990:89 cited in Masum BILLAH 2015). An eclectic approach based on the structural, functional notional and communicative approaches to language teaching could keep a balance of accuracy and fluency (Masum BILLAH 2015).

The idea of implementing an approach to language learning that focuses on how learners learn and where the learner is supposed to be placed in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible, by being fully aware of the course they are studying is not that easy task to achieve by both the learners and the teacher in charge of those learners.

Critics have suggested that a learner-centred syllabus seems to be an essential idea since it will be the learners' responsibility. Some researchers raise the issue of the difficulty of applying such kind of syllabi in large classes where the number in some developing countries exceeds 40 pupils (Renaud et al.,2007), the case of most Algerian schools. Even with less than 40 pupils in the classroom, the principles related to this syllabus cannot be relevant; it may only be implemented with classes containing maximum 15 learners which is really far-fetched in Algerian public schools.

Failure of these methods and approaches may be refer to the quality of input learners receive in the classroom such as unauthentic interaction which does not lead to effective communication as it may be due to individual elements related to the learners' state during the process of learning. There may also be reasons that are related to the language teaching process per se; the way it was and is still applied by teachers. In this study, these issues may be referred to the types of discourse and interactions the teachers use with learners to cope classroom English events. This will be explored through the empirical part of this study.

Ultimately, it is the teacher who has power over the classroom events who can decide what methodology is best used to enhance learning achievement. An interaction

that involves all the classroom participants can effectively reveal the current learners' levels that need either to improve or to correct or modify.

3. The Teacher-Learner Roles in Language Teaching/Learning

The learners' beliefs about the teachers' roles in the classroom influence directly or indirectly the application of the competency-based approach (CBA) and the realization of its objectives such as boosting learner autonomy. Learners might have the conviction that the teacher is the one responsible for their learning and for their academic success. Under such attitudes towards learning, it becomes a difficult task to apply the new approach and encouraging learners to take part in their learning, at, least by doing their homework and preparing their lessons. This is clearly shown in many Algerian secondary classrooms where students stay passive in front of the teacher of English. Some learners prefer to listen only then wait for the teacher to write what he has already explained so as to copy it back. Some of them listen but without any attention that when they are asked to repeat what was said, they appear out of topic. Some pupils, at the end of the session, they take pictures of the lesson. Only a little number of learners, especially literary and foreign language classes, listens to the teacher, asks for more explanation, and tries to answer questions or do the task. Even these motivated students do not take part in their own learning unless they are supported and promoted by the teacher. As it was mentioned by some of them, 'we got the habit of our middle school teachers' care'.

4. Language Leaning Components

According to Gass and Selinker (2001, p: 5), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the 'process of learning another language after the native language has been learned'. That is, SLA studies how learners create a new language system with only a limited exposure to a second (and/or foreign) language. Within SLA, teacher talk has been looked at through three prominent perspectives (Krashen's Input hypothesis 1982, Long's Interaction hypothesis 1980, and Swain's Output hypothesis 1985, 1996). In the following sections, each of these hypotheses will be discussed in details with classroom interaction.

4.1. Interaction

In order for learners to develop their discourse patterns in the language classroom, they need to interact; discuss ideas and negotiate meaning with either the teacher or their peers. Classroom interaction enriches learners' knowledge of the target language. It enables them to internalise a good input that they use later appropriately in similar or different situations.

Rivers (1987) states that through interaction, students can increase their language stock through the output of their fellow students in discussions and real life exchanges, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journal. (Allwright, 1984 cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 173) has defined interaction as: "the fundamental fact of pedagogy" and that "successful pedagogy involves the successful management of classroom interaction"; it serves both the teacher who can evaluate learners' language and program new better methods, and learners in that they can benefit from teachers instructions, error correction, what leads them to improve their language system.

Moreover, Long (1996) argued that interaction plays a key role in developing second language since the primary source of data for learners is taken during a meaningful interaction where all types of learners levels interact ideas, concepts, new vocabulary, etc, this means that interaction is considered as an important source that provides learners with opportunities to take parts and participate with their own ideas.

Classroom interaction then, contributes to language development and discourse construction since it enables teachers to observe the classroom while interaction and inspire them with strategies to deal with their output as appropriate as possible to meet students' needs and feedback as well. Interaction provides the teacher with opportunities to get rid of previously planned and useless methods and gives them ideas about new strategies that they would enrich their classrooms with. Communicative activities for instance, encourage learners' participation and pair-work through which they exchange ideas using the target language.

Van Dijk (1983) insists that 'It should also be geared towards an inquiry into existing knowledge, and towards the actualization or establishment of the required motivations, interests, beliefs, opinions and goals of the pupils'. In this respect, Littlewood (1981) advocated that there is a progression from "pre-communicative" to

"communicative" activities which involves many forms of interactive language practice, this means that practicing such activities should progressively related to the real-life language use. Both scholars confirm the importance of interaction in enhancing learners' communication.

In the communicative approach to language teaching, classroom interaction is regarded as an important factor in second language learning since it occurs either between the teacher and the students or between the students themselves, individually or collectively according to the communicative situation. Vygotsky(1978) claims that human higher mental functioning is constructed in a social, cultural, historical, and institutional context. This context is determined by social interactions, a dialectic unity of input and output. Therefore, according to Vygotsky's approach to the understanding of learning, the interactions between input and output give rise to second language development.

Classroom interaction is an important aspect of the learning process. It illustrates the joint contributions of teacher and students, rather than focusing only on the teacher's language. The amount and quality of teacher talk has great impact on L2 learning. Jeremy Harmer (2008, p: 38) states that 'classes are sometimes criticised because there is too much TTT (Teacher Talking Time) and not enough STT (Students Talking Time).

There is a continuing debate about the amount of time teachers should spend talking in class. The overuse of TTT is inappropriate because the more the teacher talks the less chance there is for students to practise their own speaking. And if there is something to be learnt is the teacher's talk but not practising it. How can they practise what they learn if not given the opportunity to talk? It is the students who need the practice, not the teacher. For these reasons, a good teacher maximises STT and minimises TTT'. Thus, the more the input is discussed, recycled and paraphrased by both participants, the greater is its potential usefulness as input (Mitchell & Myles, 2004)

4.2. The Role of Input in SLA

The awareness of the role of input in SLA has undergone a radical change throughout the history of SLA study. After the conflict among behaviourist and mentalist during the 70's, new approaches to input began to be introduced in applied linguistics. Ellis (1985) defines input in SLA as 'the language that is addressed to the L2 learner

either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner'. He stresses that SLA is strongly aided through employing comprehensible input.

Similarly, in Krashen's view ,"humans acquire language in only one way by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input that contains structures at our next stage structures that are a bit beyond our current level of competence" (Krashen 1985). He categorized an individual's current second language competence "i", and the next stage " i +1". For second language acquisition to happen", input must contain "i +1" (1982: 21). (Krashen1985, cited in Gui Min (2006)).

Krashen's SLA Theory (1982) leads the assumption that since a large amount of good quality, relevant comprehensible input a bit beyond the current productive capabilities of the self-confident and highly motivated acquirer are provided in low-anxiety situations, no explicit instruction is necessary for the subconscious acquisition to take place. Krashen believes in that the process of L2 acquisition was similar to L1 acquisition however, L2 learners fail to master their target language while L1 learners do. He suggested that the reason behind this that the learning conditions for both learners differ. Conventionally L2 learners are taught rules of grammar and regularly receive correction when they make grammatical mistakes while L1 learners are neither instructed nor corrected when committing mistakes. This led Krashen (1984) to assume that if the conditions for L2 acquisition were more similar to those of L1 acquisition, L2 development would be more successful (Spada, 2007).

Krashen's strong claim of the role of "comprehensible input" in second language acquisition implies a nearly null role of output. 'Our 'formal' knowledge of the second language, our conscious learning, may be used to alter the output of the acquired system, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced.' (Krashen1981). Indeed, Krashen believed that speaking or output, plays no direct role in acquisition, and the benefit that output might bring is to elicit additional comprehensible input. Output does not lead directly to language acquisition, but via the functioning of comprehensible input.

4.3 Output Hypothesis

The insufficiency of input to language learning has been noted by Swain (1985, 1996), who admits that input may be essential to SLA, but it is not the only condition necessary to ensure native-like performance. Output mainly contributes to the grammatical competence of learners rather than their communicative competence. The lack of proficiency of second language learners, coupled with an apparent lack of productive use of the target language, led Swain to assert the crucial role that output could play in the development of second language. For language acquisition, input is not sufficient because 'hearing a language alone cannot account for producing syntactic structures' (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 277). He proposed that through producing language, either spoken or written, language acquisition/learning might occur. Contrary to Krashen's input, Swain's output hypothesis stipulated that output might lead directly to language acquisition.

Swain (1996) also specified four ways in which output might play a role in the process of second language learning; (a) to develop fluency and automaticity in language use; (b) to let learners notice what they do not know or know only partially; (c) to give learners opportunity to try out new expressions; and (d) to generate feedback which can lead learners to modify their output. This also helps teachers to have an idea about their input in learners, hence, to modify it accordingly. Moreover, output enriches and encourages a rich teacher/learner interaction.

It is through language production that learners become faced with the fact that they have to take responsibility over their learning, come up with alternatives, and negotiate meaning to push the limit of their communicative competence. Hymes (1972) defines 'communicative competence' as the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately (cited in Richards, 2001, p. 157).

Therefore, input plays an essential and direct role in language acquisition, while output might exhibit an indirect and complementary influence. Krashen's claim of the minor role of output runs contrary to the common sense and to the practice of either

languages teachers or learners. It is widely believed that practice makes perfect, and a language classroom with input only doesn't lead to communicative language purposes. Although scholars have proved that input was valuable for L2 learning, it has been argued that input is not enough for the second language acquisition to take place unless it is complemented with learners' output.

In addition, van Lier (1996) argues that language learning is a process in which 'input flows from an external source (e.g., teachers or peers) to the learner, who processes it and then makes it available to produce output' (p. 50). Van Lier emphasises on the role of the co-construction of knowledge through interaction. Therefore, based on what has been discussed, it becomes clear that quality EFL teaching needs to be interactive, dialogic and co-constructive in nature.

4.4. Negotiating Meaning

Long (1980) also was interested in interaction when he stated that greater attention should be paid to the interaction in which learners are engaged in order to understand more fully the nature and usefulness of input for SLA. Unlike Krashen (1985) who claims that speaking doesn't necessary lead to second language acquisition, Long insists on the fact that classroom interaction is of great importance and that this interaction has to do with both participants, that is, it shouldn't be seen as a one-directional source of target language input feeding into the learner's internal acquisition device (Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. 1991).

Long's theory implies that the effectiveness of comprehensible input increases when learners negotiate meaning. This occurs when there is a breakdown in communication which interlocutors attempt to overcome. One of the participants in a conversation will say something that the other does not understand; the participants will then use various communicative strategies to help the interaction progresses. The strategies used when negotiating meaning may include slowing down speech, speaking more purposely, requests for clarification or repair of speech, or paraphrase (Long, M. (1983).

Long stated that the more the input is queried, recycled and paraphrased, the greater is its potential usefulness as an input (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In his hypothesis, he places emphasis on the importance of the interactional modifications applied by both

participants of the interaction. These interactional interactions promote, as to Long, the comprehension as well as the communication processes. Additionally, according to his view, interactive input is more important than non-interactive input (Ellis, 1994). Long's hypothesis is based on three steps:

Step 1): that linguistic adjustments promote the comprehension of input. In this step, comprehension is improved through modification, that is, negotiation of meaning. Also, in this step, the participants are involved in a context where they make use of linguistic or conversational adjustments, such as repetitions, reformulations, more careful articulation, comprehension checks or clarification requests, to solve difficulties in interaction. That is to say, fine-tuning makes input more relevant to the current state of learner development, as a way of maximising comprehension and negotiating through trouble spot (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). An example of interactional modifications is as follows:

(1) **Question and answer**

    NS: When do you take the break? At ten thirty?

(2) Decomposition:
NS: When do you go to uh Santa Monica?
... You say you go fishing to Santa Monica, right?
NNS: Yeah.
NS: When?

<div align="right">(Freeman & Long, 1991:124)</div>

  Step *2*): that the comprehensible input promotes acquisition. Long believes that the quality of input (comprehensible or incomprehensible) distinguishes the outcomes of acquisition. Children or adults who are not provided with comprehensible input , but only NS-NS models, either do not acquire at all, or acquire only a limited stock of lexical items or formulaic expressions. Research proved that all cases of successful SLA are characterised by the availability of input (ibd: 142). In other words, acquisition occurs only when the input is both comprehensible and accessible.

  Step 3): deduces that linguistic adjustments promote acquisition (ibid: 273-274). Long holds the view that modifications of the interactional structure of conversation/written discourse during reading, though not sufficient, are a necessary condition for acquisition. Indeed, the role that linguistic/conversational

adjustments   plays in the negotiation of meaning helps to make input more comprehensible while still containing unknown linguistic elements and potential intake for acquisition (ibid:143).

Simply speaking, the interactional adjustments not only help a learner understand the input better, but also lead to his/her acquisition. Long's Interaction Hypothesis "emphasized the importance of comprehensible input but claims that it is most effective when it is modified through the negotiation of meaning." (Ellis, 1997: 47)

Interactions may serve as a way of focusing learners' attention on a difference between their knowledge of the target language and the reality of what they are hearing; it may also focus their attention on a part of the target language of which they are not yet aware. It seems that when learners participate in communicative situations where they have to negotiate meaning with interlocutors (i.e., problem solving and information gap tasks) their competence is pushed to the limit and this encourages the acquisition process (Josep Maria Cots 1995).

Walsh (2002, 2006) points out that there now exists a large body of research evidence highlighting the interdependence of interaction, input, output and the need for negotiation of meaning. Besides highlighting the importance of communicative competence, Walsh himself calls for 'L2 Classroom Interactional Competence' which involves examining teachers' use of language in relation to stated pedagogic goals as this obstructs or co-constructs interaction. He also calls for exploring the extent to which teacher language use copes with the pedagogic goals, and whether or not teachers are able to promote opportunities for learning by more careful, more conscious language use.

Some SLA scholars have taken from theories of Vygotsky, the psychologist, to clarify the importance of interaction in setting the basis for acquisition Ellis (1997, p:49). Vygotsky's work 'Active theory' includes 'motive' which implies that individual learners describe the goal of the activity for themselves deciding what is worth concentrating on and what is not and 'internalization' which focuses on how a beginner learner with the assistance of a knowledgeable learner, be able to solve a problem then assimilate new knowledge. In this repect, Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development seems important in that it argues that those zones are created through interaction with experts.

Consequently the learner learns how to do things by himself like coining a concept and using it in individual sentence of his own. (ibid)

The above discussion presented the different methods and approaches and their contribution to language teaching. It spots light on some important elements in the teaching process such as classroom interaction that is achieved through valuing the role of input and output, and the negotiating of meaning. It also revealed a number of ways through which discourse may contribute to L2 acquisition such as: the modified input that comes in foreigner talk, the input learners obtain from the negotiation of meaning, scaffolding, and the comprehensible output.

5. Pupils' Secondary Education Profile

As s/he tackles her/his first year secondary education, the pupil would have already been exposed to the English Language for four years: he would have developed strategies to face problem solving situations and would have enriched his knowledge about the Anglo-Saxon countries' culture. Thus, s/he is able to produce an individual piece of writing of about ten lines in a close relation with the communicative piece of writing presented in the instruction. First and second secondary levels of education maintain all that the learner learnt in middle school; whether it was about grammar points, vocabulary or discourse structure building. For third year level, students have had most tenses, at least those predicted for the BAC examination.

By the end of the third year, the learner should be able to produce essay writing about different themes according to the different units which are supposed to be the basics for the final examination (BAC). These longer pieces of writing would be rich of specialised vocabulary, most used English tenses and grammar points they have been exposed to since three years of learning English.

5.1. Learners' Needs Analysis

In recent years, increased attention has been put on learners' needs so as to design suitable course-books for learners of English as a Foreign or a second language. Undeniably, learners' need is an elementary criterion for the design of successful

course-books. For this reason, needs analysis, which has to do with the aims of the course, has received considerable attention and assumed an important role in language learning.

Needs analysis or 'needs assessment' has a vital role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether it be English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or general English course and its centrality has been acknowledged by several scholars such as (Tarone and Yule, 1989). Needs analysis focus should be directed to: the learners' identities, their current level of language proficiency, teachers and leaner's goals and expectations, the teacher's teaching skills and their level of proficiency in the target language.

The Algerian learners at the end of SE1 have different needs which vary from one stream to another. Some of the learners will never use English in their professional life; whereas, others will need it as a component of their university studies. As far as the learners choosing the literary stream are concerned, they feel greater need for English since they will use it in their university studies and professional careers. They will use it for oral communication (teaching, interpreting) and for written communication as well. Thus, in this particular stage of learning, needs analysis is an important process that contributes to developing learners capacities in learning their subject matter.

Nevertheless, learners who choose to study a particular stream like scientific or mathematics, they will not feel interested in following intensive English learning during or apart from classes. If they are found interested that is obvious that a scientific student gets interested in English since all the subjects already interests her/him although they do well only in written language. The learners need to develop their cognitive abilities and language skills in order to be able to communicate in English, to interpret oral and written discourse no matter its nature is. Thus, the textbook in this case is important for the learners' needs (particularly, 3rd year classes) for their final examination which is the Baccalaureate.

To sum up, syllabus designers and course-book writers should incorporate the main objectives in favour of the learners and enable them to get benefits from what they learn to achieve their objectives which communicating using the target language.

6. Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching/Learning

Even with the most communicative approaches, the second language classroom is limited in its ability to develop learners' communicative competence in the target language. This is due to the restricted number of contact hours with the language; minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers; and limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that may occur outside the classroom. Given the limited time available for students to practise the target language, teachers should maximize opportunities for student participation.

One problem for second language learners is limited experience with a variety of interactive practices in the target language. Therefore, one of the goals of second language teaching is to expose learners to different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the second language classroom is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; McCarthy & Carter, 1994). By exploring natural language use in authentic environments, learners gain a greater appreciation and understanding of the discourse patterns associated with a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation across settings and contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends, opening and closings of answering machine messages, or other aspects of speech events.

One discourse feature that is easy to study is listener response behaviour, also known as backchannels. Backchannels are the brief verbal responses that a listener uses while another individual is talking, such as mm-hmm, ok, yeah, and oh wow. Listener response can also be non-verbal, for instance head nods. Research has identified variation among languages in the use of backchannels, which makes it an interesting feature to study. Variation has been found not only in the frequency of backchannels, but also in the type of backchannels, their placement in the ongoing talk and their interpretation by the participants (Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki, & Tao, 1996). Students can participate in the Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze technique to study the linguistic form and function of backchannels in conversation.

"**Step One**": Ask to video- or audiotape a pair of native speakers engaging in conversation, perhaps over coffee or lunch.

"**Step Two**": Play the tape for students. Have them identify patterns in the recorded linguistic behavior. In this case, pay attention to the backchanneling behavior of the participants. Is the same backchannel token used repeatedly, or is there variation?

"**Step Three**": Transcribe the conversation so that students can count the number and types of backchannel tokens and examine their placement within the discourse. "Step 4": Have students analyze specific discourse features individually, in pairs or in small groups. These are some questions to consider: How often do the participants use a backchannel token? How does backchanneling contribute to the participants' understanding of and involvement in the conversation? How can differences in backchannel frequency be explained? How does backchanneling work in the students' native language?

Students can collect and analyze data themselves. Once collected, this set of authentic language data can be repeatedly examined for other conversational features, then later compared to discourse features found in other speech events. This discourse approach to language learning removes language from the restrictions of textbooks and makes it real, so that students can explore language as interaction rather than as grammatical units. Teachers can also use these activities to raise students' awareness of language variation, dialect differences, and cultural diversity.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided a discussion concerning the current language teaching methods and approaches in the Algerian EFL schools and the different pedagogical elements needed in the language classroom. It has revealed that the implementation of discourse approach in language classroom is not a matter of the adoption of new categories and analytical techniques (Josep Maria Cots 1995, p: 78) that should be imposed on teachers just to follow as the new trending, yet, it is a matter of what teachers' awareness of the importance of looking at language learning from a discourse level in order to enable the analysis of both learners needs and practice. For this pedagogical

process, the teacher is the first responsible of the materialization of the teaching content, then learners as active participants in the learning process to be aware that the main focus of study is not language but communication (ibid).

Teachers try hard to make available different strategies to teach students that language is not just an academic subject that requires only higher grades and moving to the next level, but it is more than that. Language is a means for communication that is taught to be used in and outside the classroom and to solve communicative problems and moreover, to lead to a better career. Language learners, then, need not an idealized abstract version of language to learn and use just when are examined or tested to be evaluated but a real reflection of it. Therefore, it is the teacher's task to decide to what extent different language models contribute to the development of using language out of its academic context.

Analysing classroom discourse may provide a key framework for decision-making in the teaching and learning of language for teachers. There are factors necessary to develop an educational environment where language can be acquired and developed through a communicative approach, creating appropriate contexts for interaction, a list of exchanges of listener/speaker or author and the opportunity for the learner to address the language in a variety of situations, all contribute to the provision of the desired educational environment, and in this field to acquire the second language and development in the context of communication.

The following portion of this study (chapter four) will include different theories in educational psychology and sociolinguistics presenting possible factors determining learners' motivation in second/foreign language learning.

Introduction

Language Teaching is all about teaching a second/foreign language and the latter means the language which is not the native language of the learner. It is a branch of applied linguistics that can be considered an interdisciplinary field that incorporates many disciplines such as sociology and psychology. By the middle of the twentieth century, and responding to the traditional prescriptive and mechanistic approaches to language teaching, Vygotsky and Piaget argued for the idea that a learner builds cognitive structures in order to understand and respond to physical experiences within his/her environment. However, this would not be achieved unless the learner is provided with materials and situations that allow them to discover new learning. The learner when involved in the process of learning depends on his cognitive and affective resources getting influenced by social and cultural interactions of her/his environment through which s/he learns to adapt with different situations and then creates his own strategies and rules (The Encyclopedia of Psychology 2004).

This part of the study aims at outlining some educational factors characterizing FL learners' outcomes. These factors may represent obstacles that hinder the learning process as they may develop learners' communicative competencies using the target language. This chapter will open with discussing internal factors, mechanisms such as personality, motivation and anxiety, and the second part will include sociolinguistic elements such as gender, social class and the national linguistic/ideological profile of languages of the discourse maker.

1. Internal Factors

1.1. Individual Differences

Learners' individual differences (IDs) have always been linked to discussion concerning discourse development in FL classroom. However, efforts to relate them to success or failure in SLA fail for the reason that the elements within individual differences are variables that regularly change when classroom interaction since they differ not only among learners but also in the individual himself. Thus, psycholinguistic research and the discussion of the relationship between IDs and discourse building are left for readers; educators and practitioners to reflect upon the literature available through their observations and research in the field of SLA and our debate in this study is an example.

This section will summarize current Applied Linguistic perspectives on the roles of IDs in discourse building in terms of psycholinguistic processes. These include motivation, anxiety, age, etc.

1.1.1. Anxiety

Anxiety has been suggested as an obstacle for a learner's motivation to communicate. Anxiety can play an important role in second language learning if it interferes with the learning process (Shahila Zafar & K. Meenakshi 2012, p: 64). Whether an individual remains an attentive listener or will fluently contribute to the construction of discourse may depend on an individual feeling of anxiety, which naturally has an effect on discourse domains such as turn-taking, topic-nomination, interactive discourse development.

Two types of anxiety have been identified *trait anxiety*; a more permanent tendency to be anxious and *state* anxiety; a type of anxiety experienced in relation to some particular event or act which can be temporary and context-specific (ibid). Although both types are likely to affect individual language performance, it is trait anxiety that is subject to more thorough analysis in SLA research, possibly, because it can be easier to manipulate in a specific learning situation.

Situation-specific anxiety is a subcategory of trait anxiety, which is investigated to a great extent in SLA research (Ellis 2000: 480). Situation-specific anxiety will involve feeling anxious in an individual situational context. This type of anxiety can materialize in three areas relevant to this research: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety, and (3) fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al 1986 cited in Marcin Jaroszek 2008). After all, it is often the case after all that a learner has no previous learning experience and is though anxious about the forthcoming L2 encounter.

Anxiety usually has a negative implication and it may be negative to L2 production, including classroom dynamics (Turula 2002), as well as to the reception of input where its weaknesses will most likely materialize in the high Affective Filter (Krashen 1982), preventing the intake of input. However, anxiety can also help L2 production. In fact, anxiety often facilitates language performance by playing a motivating role (Robinson 2003a: 653). Learners can be stimulated by this positive tension to reinvent themselves as both language learners and language users.

Self-confidence is linked to anxiety as it is important in discourse construction. Although the role of self-confidence is usually discussed, like other affective factors, in relation to the receptive affective filter, self-esteem, as well as self-image are often positively indexed to language production (Bailey 1983) and are likely to balance high anxiety levels. Studies by (Heyde (1979) suggest there is a positive correlation between self-esteem and oral production (cited in Long 1991). Interestingly, no such relationship was found in Gardner and Lambert's (1972) study, possibly since the measuring instrument used in both studies was a self-report questionnaire, which demonstrates a limited methodological reliability.

1.1.2. Motivation

Motivation is another learner-specific individual variable. The most influential approach has been that of Robert Gardner. According to (Gardner 1985), Motivation = effort + desire to achieve goal + attitudes (cited in S. Zafar & K. Meenakshi 2012). Gardner distinguished between two motivational orientations, integrative and instrumental. The former concerns learners who show interest to learn a language to "enter" the community of its speakers by devoting more time and energy to achieving fluency in the target language (Mackey 2008, p: 448), while the latter regards language as a potential tool which may simply be useful.

Gardner has researched this orientation distinction extensively, and developed complex social psychological models to account for data, in a wide range of situations, as well as an assessment procedure. Both types of motivations have different roles to play and both can lead to success. According to Saville-Troike (2006), the relative effect of one or the other is dependent on complex personal and social factors (cited in S. Zafar & K. Meenakshi 2012).

L2 learning by a member of the dominant group in a society may benefit more from integrative motivation, and L2 learning by a subordinate group member may be more influenced by instrumental motivation. Gardner's approach has been criticized for it is not sufficiently dynamic and rooted in classroom situations. Moreover, motivation may also be influenced by other actors like geographical background. In the case of the Algerian learners, people living in the south of Algeria are more interested in studying classical Arabic or at least subjects taught in the mother tongue where as people who are

situated in the north in their everyday lives use French and encourage their children to learner foreign languages since life requires.

More recently, Dornyei (2001) has proposed a more dynamic account of motivation, based on Action Control Theory. In this model, clear distinctions are made between the pre-actional phase (where Dornyei locates much of Gardner's work), the actional phase, where learning activities are situated, and the post-actional phase, where important attributions about success and failure are made.

Although researchers of SLA are still debating whether motivation causes language learning or whether success in language gives rise to motivation, Mackey (2008) states that some recent studies claim motivation is of great importance for it predicts the L2 learner's level of proficiency. It has also been proved that as the learners affected by the learning environment such as the group of classroom participants, the learner's conversational partner's motivation, motivation changes among learners during the learning process and varying from day to day and from event to event and even from task to task (ibid).

Algerian learners do live in the same society with almost the same norms and traditions however, motivation is observed in learners' across classroom events and tasks. Some learners do well in the oral lesson and prefer extending the session but there are others who feel bored of this session and prefer the reading one; they like reading and discussing whatever the topic events and tasks are. However, motivated learners regarding the oral session rarely get good grades in the current subject where as those who are not interested in speaking achieve higher levels when examined or tested.

In most of the motivation research, the relationship between motivation and second language achievement has been shown as a strong one. But whether the achievement drives motivation or motivation drives achievement is always left for scholars and practitioners in the field to test and practise. Both teachers and learners have to collaborate with each other to facilitate the learning of the FL and the teacher is always the guide to do most of the task of teaching by getting learners focused and engaged.

1.1.3. Age

Age is another individual difference that may play a key role in second language learning. Mackey (2006), states that researchers link age of acquisition to ultimate attainment in some aspects of L2. He mentions the critical period hypothesis discussed in the late 60's by Eric Lenneberg that states that language acquisition must occur before puberty in order for the speaker to reach native-like fluency. However, other researches proved that some individuals do achieve native-like fluency even though they began their studies of the L2 later on in life Mackey (2006). Other researcher insist that apart from age, there are other social factors intervene in the learning process such as the L1 and the influence of its culture, motivation types, the amount and quality of input learners receive during classes.

Investigating whether age influences all aspects of language, it has been proved that younger learners do well in phonology classes. However, there is a growing agreement that learners starting their L2 after puberty can achieve a mastery of L2 syntax that is nearly distinguishable from that of native speakers (ibid).

J. Harmer (2008), on the other hand, distinguishes between children, adolescents and adults in describing age influence on language learning. Although children's levels of intelligence vary according to the conditions where they develop, children have the ability to learn more than they are exposed to by teachers (p: 14). He explains that they can less concentrate on abstractions such as grammar rules and topics that do not match their interest but they like when they are praised by the teacher when responding to questions. Teachers should pay attention that a child's attention span is often short yet, activities and conversations that focus on their lives and experiences are usually a topic of interest for them where they participate and enjoy their learning (ibid).

An obvious quality in young children is their ability that is shown in their eagerness to become competent speakers of a new language. However, this characteristic should be borne a special care by teachers. Learners should necessary be exposed to the target language because as they easily learn, they easily do, forget. Teachers may create appropriate activities that make learners involved in the learning process where they interact with their teacher and peers, activities that increase their participation in enriching the classroom with new vocabulary, new information that maintain a real communication (Harmer 2008, p: 15).

One of the greatest differences between younger children and adolescents is the fact that adolescents have already developed a greater capacity for abstract thought as they have grown up. Compared to younger children, adolescents can go through abstract ideas and receive them in a critical way developing their own ideas. Nevertheless, one of the characteristics of adolescents is the search for identity and the need for self-esteem (Harmer 2008). This alone may represent an obstacle in the learning process.

While adolescents search for their identity to fully comprehend their learning of a new language, adult learners, Harmer (2008) claims that they have enough experiences to draw on their own learning; they consciously accept and cope with the different contexts they are involved in when learning. They often have a clear understanding of why they are learning things, and can sustain their motivation by perceiving long-term learning goals (ibid).

However, experiences that adults get benefits from in that learning, may also represent obstacles that hinder their learning. These experiences may create negative attitudes in learners; for instance, learners who has faced failure, may get used to it. Other learners may get a bad experience that blocks his thought when it comes to learning new topics. Such students also may have bad memory of teaching methods that limits their motivations and prevents them from talking and expressing their ideas in the classroom. Such serious pedagogical situations can either improve or weaken the learning process in students if teachers do not take them into consideration. The researcher also experienced bad attitudes of old teachers who used to deal with students errors by hitting them.

As students of different ages differ in their characteristics, teachers should vary their way of teaching them too. As children have always the sense of playing, they can be given related tasks where they learn a new language through playing games. However, these children are also supposed to pass to another level that is why they should develop their own learning with other developed types of learning methods. Adolescents who are more sensitive to any type of learning should be dealt with in special way by teachers because as this category of students may facilitate the teacher's task, they may drive the teacher to lose control over the class. Adolescents may do well when involved in peer and group work where they feel confident and express their own thought using both her/his L1 and the target language as well with peers.

Generally, not only adolescents who misbehave in the classroom that makes the teaching task difficult but also younger learners and adults too. These categories of students may show such disruptive behaviour because they come from an exhausting and demanding subject like mathematics or physics bearing in minds that they will have a rest and relax in the English subject. They may find the topic boring that some of them prefer only listening while others tackle any other subject apart from English. As these misbehaviours annoy the teacher, it may be a point of reference when the teaching material is to be prepared. The teacher can identify learners' learning styles and ways of dealing with the different learning event in order to improve the learning task.

> **Whatever their reasons for learning (or the circumstances in which it takes place), it is sometimes tempting to see all students as being more or less the same. Yet, there are marked differences, not only in terms of their age and level, but also in terms of different individual abilities, knowledge and preferences.**

(Harmer 2008 p: 14)

1.1.4. Learning Styles

According to S. Zafar & K. Meenakshi (2012), language learning styles refer to cognitive variations in learning a second language. It is about an individual's preferred way of processing, that is, of perceiving, conceptualizing, organizing, and recalling information related to language learning. These can positively or negatively influence the learners' learning especially that the classroom contains of a diversity of students.

All students respond to various stimuli such as pictures, sounds, music, movements, etc, but for most of us (as learners) some things stimulate us to learn more than others do. The reason is that one (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic) is more powerful than the others in enabling us to learn and remember what we have learnt (Harmer 2008, p: 16). As a teacher at secondary education, it is always observed that some learners rapidly understand the topic content without any efforts while there are others who although they spend much efforts to understand unfortunately, they do not.

The question poses here is why is learning a new language so easy for some and so difficult for others? The answer to this is that all of us have his/her own ways of learning and understanding. The reason why not all of us learn in the same ways, it is because our ways of learning are determined by a variety of external and internal elements related to

us. Learners' learning styles have been differently defined and categorized. Some of them identified perceptual styles: the *visual*, the *tactile* and *kinaesthetic*, and the *auditory*. Others have looked at cognitive styles and distinguished between field-independent and field-dependent learners. Let us list some of them:

- **Visual learners** usually enjoy reading and prefer to see the words that they are learning. They also like to learn by looking at pictures and flashcards.

- **Auditory learners** prefer to learn by listening. They enjoy conversations and the chance for interactions with others. They don't need to see words written down.

- **Field-independent learners** (also called analytic learners) like to concentrate on the details of language, such as grammar rules, and enjoy taking apart words and sentences. They are sometimes unable to see the "big picture" because of their attention to its parts.

- **Field-dependent learners** (also known as global learners) focus on the whole picture and do not care so much about the details. For example, they are more interested in conveying an idea than worrying about whether it is grammatically correct.

- **Reflective learners** like to think about language and how to convey their message accurately. They tend not to make so many mistakes because they take time in formulating what they want to say.

- **Communicative learning style (**Shahila Zafar & K. Meenakshi (2012): learners with a communicative learning style prefer a social approach to learning. They need personal feedback and interaction, and learn well from discussion and group activities. They thrive in a democratically run class.

Peter Skehan (1990) states that researchers in language learning believe in that identifying the strategies used by good language learners would enable them to be taught to less successful learners, and more successful learning would result. Teachers in this respect, can benefit a lot by knowing examples of learner' favoured learning style. Their awareness may help them to explain why some aspects of language learning appear easier or are more enjoyable to than others.

If a learner is analytic, the teacher knows, in advance, that this learner is unlikely to feel comfortable doing a language activity which involves a lot of unstructured, spontaneous speech without any concern for grammatical correctness. Another implication which is derived from the first is that giving learners the opportunity to choose how they acquire a new language can ensure that their preferred style matches the teaching methodology of the particular language course they want to enrol in. This does not only promote learners understanding and performance, but also provide the teacher with new information that strengthens her/his method in a particular classroom activity.

For example, reflective learners may act well in purely conversational classes and auditory learners will probably want to avoid a course with a heavy reading requirement, and certainly some other learners have no such choices like learners at field-independent.

Overall, teachers with a thorough data about their teaching proficiency are aware of the different learning styles in their classrooms and try to find activities that will involve the maximum of learners. Despite the amount of research that has been done into learning styles over the last few years, there is no clear evidence that any one style is generally better than another. The abovementioned learning styles are only examples of many others which were not mentioned here as they represent only part of learners' individual differences like personality.

1.1.5. Personality

Personality studies have been the core of the study of human psychology for more than 150 years by scholars such as Freud, Skinner and Allport focused their studies on human personality Ehrman (1996) (cited in S. Zafar & K. Meenakshi 2012). In SLA the study of the relation of personality and language learning has been the subject of scholars like Krashen (1985), Skehan (1989), Gass & Selinker, (1994) etc. There is a clear relationship between personality and SLA as personality determines what people feel comfortable with (ibid). This research, however, will not review personality theories and will be restricted exclusively to the relationship between possible personality types and discourse production.

Personality plays an important role in discourse building, especially in interaction. Interaction requires turn-taking and the latter depends on the student's motivation. Whether to get involved or keep watching the class participation, this is the individual's

choice. The most common distinction is made between the *introvert* and the *extrovert*. It has intuitive appeal that extroverted speakers will show more interest in verbal communication whereas introverted types will more often slip into their thoughts and refrain from interaction.

According to Dawaele and Furnham (1999) extroversion and introversion are a part of a continuum. Extroverts are considered sociable and impulsive. They seem to dislike solitude, take risks, impulsive. Whereas, introverts are believed to be introspective, quiet, retiring and reserved. An extrovert is said to receive energy from outside sources, whereas an introvert is more concerned with the inner world of ideas and is more likely to be involved with solitary activities. This trait does not just describe whether a person is outgoing or shy, but considers whether a person prefers working alone or feels energized and at home working in a team.

The relationship between extroversion and learning was first studied by Eysenck (1979, 1981 cited Dawaele and Furnham 1999) who hypothesized that extroversion was not positively correlated with learning due to several neuro-chemical phenomena in the human brain. Thus he concluded that an introvert and not an extrovert would be a better language learner.

The SLA theorists, however, tend to disagree with Eysenck's conclusion. It is often argued that an extroverted person is well suited to language learning. SLA literature suggests that the more extravert language learners would increase the amount of input (Krashen, 1985), prefer communicative approaches (Cook, 2002). Therefore, they increase their interaction in the language which maximizes the language output (Swain, 1985), hence yield a better product, that is to say, language proficiency.

2. External Factors

Nevertheless, this discourse is constructed within particular social settings and, therefore, depends on a number of external factors. Our discussion of some factors does not mean these are the only factors but we try to restrict it to variables more relevant to the FL classroom learner like the national linguistic/ideological profile of the individual, social class and gender.

2.1. Social Class

It has always assumed that there is a link between learners' social class and their language use. Yet, as was the case of the gender and discourse relation, a common overgeneralization is frequently claimed, that implies that there is a relationship between a certain discourse variations and a specific social group. Researchers often conclude that "middle class learners achieve higher levels of academic language proficiency than working class learners" (Ellis 2000) and then are struck with the finding that "working class children do as well as middle class children in immersion settings" (ibid).

This astonishment with seemingly conflicting findings reduces the superficiality of many researchers' analyses. What might these findings contribute to is but indicating an indirect relation between the speaker's social class and language use. It is, after all, other social factors, such as the availability of education, motivation or educational settings that underlie the development of language proficiency. When exposed to L2 input in a fascination programme, with language opportunities equal for every learner, despite their social membership, differences in language proficiency are non-existent. It is the variation in discourse, thus, that could be linked to a speaker's social class.

Research into the relationship between a social class and language use refers back to the sixties and the seventies of the 20th century and has not re-emerged under the title of social class with equal intensity since time (Robinson 2003). In his studies of the relationship between social stratification and discourse use, Bernstein (1971) suggests that there are two polarizing language variants in utterance-organization: 1) restricted code, also referred to as positional or closed role system, and (2) elaborated code, also referred to as personal or open role system.

In the restricted code, communication is often not explicit, but implied and meanings are often taken for granted, with ready-made and predictable forms of speech, whereas in the elaborated code communication is aimed at the exploration and construction of individual identities; meaning is more explicit and therefore less predictable (Montgomery 1996).

It must be emphasized that the restricted-elaborated distinction does not relate just to the restriction of lexis of linguistic devices. It assumes that the restricted code suits more efficiently the situations in which the interlocutors share the knowledge of the

context. The result of this grammar-based point of view is that some speakers will compensate the lack of the shared knowledge of the world with the systemic knowledge that materializes in a more elaborated language use. Similarly, sharing schematic knowledge or assuming the other interlocutor is familiar with a certain situational context is likely to result in the use of simpler linguistic devices.

Whether either of these two codes can be indexed to any social class is an open question. Bernstein (1964) initially proposed that working class speech represents restricted codes where as elaborated codes are characteristic of middle class speakers. Bernstein's impoliticly termed deficit hypothesis was found offensive as it posited the restricted code of the working class was linked to their innate mental capabilities, thus implying that working class speakers are genetically inferior. Bernstein (1971) later modified this hypothesis suggesting that British middle class language users will more likely have access to both restricted and elaborated codes, whereas some sections of working class speakers will communicate with access only to the restricted code.

This firm variance of sociolinguistic distribution is surprisingly common throughout literature. However, its simplistic indexing puts these hypotheses in threat. It is common sense that a working class child will have more contact with a vernacular style and a middle class child with a careful style. However, linking a given style to a social class would be an overgeneralization that is not necessary true. After all, linguistic choices can be determined by situational contexts, age, gender, or idiolectic differences.

In the context of Algerians, we can refer to social classes as intellectuals, diplomats, peasants, politicians, officials, etc. As secondary school teachers, we can say that these social categories have a certain influence on FL learners' language production and use. However, we cannot link a total failure in communication to those categories. In this study, exactly in the empirical work, two different secondary schools are observed. One of them is in the city and the other is in a small town.

The one in the city includes excellent students that do well in many pedagogical subjects such as mathematics, physics and even foreign languages although this school includes even students from outside the city (small villages). On the other hand, the school of the small town (including the countryside) though very rarely includes students

from the city, last year, it witnessed an excellent FL class almost full success beside more than 50% success in other scientific streams.

With these contradictory results to the above Bernstein' hypothesis, we would rather discuss other social factors influencing FL use such as pedagogical interest among learners. It is common among teachers that In Algerian secondary schools succeed in a subject depending whether it is of higher coefficient to pass to the next level or not. For instance, for scientific streams, we do find a lot of students who do well in foreign languages classes in both spoken and written side of the subject. However, they easily ignore these subjects that their grades are not as important as those of essential subjects and so is the same situation for other streams.

As was discussed earlier in this chapter, recent studies of the relationship between a social class and second language acquisition still preserve a simplistic superficial approach to the analysis and, surprisingly, a considerable number of them. (Skehan 1990) suggests that educational achievements can be directly linked to a learner's social background.

What comes as a surprise to many linguists is that in immersion programs no such relationship can be found. This clearly supports the claim that it is the exposure to an effective language methodology that is characterized by interaction and appropriate educational settings including other participants that mostly determine its development in the learner's inter-language. Social class, then, is not a direct determinant of one's linguistic achievement.

2.2.   Gender

Language acquisition is a complex process that constitutes of several factors, chief among them the types of memory systems involved in females and males and which make both genders different from each other (Schakouri N. 2012).In a study on 'the Role of Gender in L2 Interaction: Socialization via L2 Materials, Gascoigne (2002) claims that males are likely to use linguistic devices such as interruptions, directives, and sentence-initial conjunctions whereas females lean to the use of more heavily on questions, justifiers, intensive adverbs, personal pronouns and word-initial adverbs (cited in Nima Shakouri, 2012).

Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 2003 states that tone and pitch of voice, patterns of intonation, choice of vocabulary, even pronunciations and grammatical patterns are assumed to be the linguistic variation across speakers' with regards to their sex. Yet, linking specific linguistic choices to males and others to females is something debatable. It seems that a commonly committed mistake is when analyzing male or female discourses out of context with other sociolinguistic factors. After all, it is the speech community, as well as the speaker's psychological predispositions that also have an effect on individual reasonable practice.

A frequently cited attempt to systematize gender differences in discourse construction is the classic one by Lakoff (1975), who lists a number of discoursal features of female language, complimented and expanded by other linguists, e.g. Freeman and McElhinny (1996):

a. Stronger expletives are reserved for men; weaker expletives are
   reserved for women.
b. Women's speech is more polite than men's.
c. Topics that are considered trivial or unimportant are women's domain
   (e.g., women discriminate among colours more than men do).
d. Women use "empty" adjectives (adorable, charming, divine, nice).
e. Women use tag questions more than men (e.g., "The weather is really
   nice today, *isn't it*?").
f. Women use question intonation in statements to express uncertainty
   ("My name is Tammy?").
g. Women don't tell jokes.

(Freeman and McElhinny 1996: 232)

Lakoff's list apparently cannot be treated as a universal truth. His findings have been challenged by Holmes (1986) for instance, who asserts that men do use the hedge *you know* a bit more often, but to express linguistic imprecision, whereas women use it more frequently for emphatic purposes. Another refinement regards the use of a question tag, which cannot be attributed directly to a woman's choice of linguistic forms.

Applying this particular discourse device can result from the intention of a speaker to soften "a harsh utterance, which may be a strategy more often adopted by women because of cultural or ideological expectations about femininity" (Freeman and

McElhinny 1996: 234). A question tag, like many other linguistic forms, is non-referentially indexed to gender. It is also *nonexclusive* (not restricted to the use by only one gender group) and *constitutive* (not related to a social identity directly) (Freeman and McElhinny: 1996).

The apparent limitations of the perception of social identity in terms of an index come also from the observation that much of the modification and development of social discourse take place as a result of interaction. It is men that tend to take much longer turns, "in interactions characterized by monologues, single-speaker control, and interactional hierarchies (Edelsky 1981, cited in Freeman and McElhinny 1996).

In these situations, turn takers stood "out from non–turn takers, with the turn takers controlling the floor" (Edelsky 1981, cited in Freeman and McElhinny 1996). Some research (e.g. Cameron 1998) also suggests that it is predominantly male speakers that demonstrate their speaking dominance by interrupting their interlocutors.

As suggested before, such radical classifications of discourse implementations by specific gender groups lack solid grounding. James and Clarke (1993), for instance, claim that there may be no gender differences in general rates of interruption between male and female interactants. It is possible, then, that the popular belief that men interrupt their interlocutors more than women do stems from the general male domination of other domains of life (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 2003), which results in stereotypically portraying men as aggressive and competitive and women as peaceful and cooperative. Trudgill (1988: 85) suggests that females tend to use forms that are socially "considered to be 'better' than male forms".

This might result from the finding that women are more social status–conscious, hence more sensitive to the linguistic norms in a given community than men (Trudgill 1988: 85). Men, in turn, can be attached to "toughness", a widely accepted social characteristic, which could account for both why they make more nonstandard linguistic choices and why they express power in discourse more directly than women. Some research (Labov 1972) also suggests that female speakers are more grammatically accurate than their male counterparts, whose speech is mostly colloquial.

Although these claims do have intuitive appeal, available research, as claimed by Romaine (2006), is contradictory in regard to women's tendency to use more accurate

linguistic forms. Studies by Milroy (1980), for instance, show that gender itself cannot be directly linked to the language spoken, as the results might be badly affected by other interfering variables, such as a lower social status or high unemployment rates.

3.   The Linguistic Status of Languages : the Case of Algeria

Perhaps the social class is proved to be far from being a factor that directly influences the learners' language use achievements however; it may be so in another way. Intellectual parents and diplomats seem to have a positive influence on the educational level of their children in that they share with them the interest of learning languages since they travel a lot and need to use foreign languages. Thus, they encourage them to use the foreign languages such as French and English in and outside their classes.

Although this is not always true; many Algerian learners whose parents are teachers of French and English do not do well in French and English classes. However, the fact that French language existence in Algeria which dates back to more than one century, succeeded to be (though considered by the first foreign language by the Algerian constitution) the second language of Algerians that is spoken by children, adults and older (illiterate) people everywhere that it could influence even their L1 production. Moreover, it even influences the second foreign language production, which is English learning (see examples below). The question that comes to mind is why do learners seem unable to write or speak fluently using this status language in French classes?

The answer to this question is not our concern since it requires various educational, social and attitudinal areas to be investigated, however, it leads to another important question: why do Algerian learners not get benefit from French for the learning of English since the former contains in almost the same linguistic characteristics with English? Perhaps, it is the way foreign languages (for example, French and English) are taught in classes does not suit learners. French is spoken and used everywhere and everyday by Algerians. It is also used to answer questions and instructions in Arabic and English classes. However, learners do not deal with French as a language but as an academic subject that is used to interpret longer texts. Also, English though it is welcomed by society, learners, (Algerians now suggest English to be taught from primary schools) and the government first, it is still in its infancy with regards to classroom outcomes.

As was mentioned earlier in chapter three, the language used in administration, schools, and the media is Classical Arabic, whereas, what is used in everyday life and in informal situations is a variety of languages that is composed of Arabic, French Berber and other foreign languages which are used even by illiterate people who did not enter schools. French constitutes a great deal of speech in the classroom; Algerian learners instead of using knowledge of French language to learn English, they code switch using French words to fill in the gaps whether they were verbal or written.

This particular linguistic code is popular and useful among Algerians everywhere and even in academic situations. Algerian learners in their classes do not hesitate to use code mixing (Arabic and French) in asking or answering questions instead of using Arabic. Teachers of other use French in subjects such as mathematics, physics, sport, English, etc.

The English curricula (2006) established by the Algerian Ministry of National Education states that the teaching of English at the secondary school is part of the national policy of foreign languages and within the general framework of the provisions of the Reform of the Educational System introduced in 2001 and fixing the missions and objectives of teaching and learning in Algeria. Thus, the mastery of English will give the student a vision of the world that will allow him / her to share knowledge, science, technology and become the citizen of tomorrow, responsible and able to integrate harmoniously and effectively into the process of Globalization.

Algerians today use considerable amounts of French in their daily conversations. As a matter of fact, many hesitate to identify the Algerian Arabic as a true Arabic variety because it contains so much French. A recent research on a sample of 15 speakers having different characteristics (age, place of origin, place of residence, etc.), were requested to minimize their use of French. Nevertheless, an average of 16% of the word count in naturalistic speech proved to be French (Bergman, 2001). The following are samples observed by the researcher in her learners' writings during classes. They characterise the influence of French language on the English language writing production:

1) 'I like live in a wonderful world, because he **contien** the best food and protection, the **éducation** and health car for all. The environment wise he express **un *role***. when we environment wise **la santé n'ai pat sike**. They are not pollution.'

2) **'Le monde** is biutiful and **les..... qui très gentile** because …………..in **la vrai prisonce** preparaytion…..'

3) 'I am writing to e-mail my **ikib de** volley-ball (CRBC). Could you go to Italia with my **ikib** because I was playing volley-ball (CRBC) on Italia **coupe du** Italia for volle-ball. I playing volley-ball 15 jour **apipri**. Write the e-mail with invitation.'

4) 'I am writing to aply **Telecharge** an aplicasion **de jeux et** very very nice. **Telécharge** de play store....'

The above samples are taken from students' exam sheets. They are topics to be written in paragraphs. Students as it is mentioned above, include French words in their English writings to fill the gap of the missing words. These French words are translated into English in the following tables:

Table 6: sample1 Translation from French into English

French	English
'Contien'	Contains
'éducation'	Education
'un role'	a role
'la santé n'ai pat'	health is not

Table 7: sample 2

French	English
'le monde'	the world
'les...... qui très gentil'	the…… which is very gentle
'la vrai prisonce'	the right presence

Table 8: sample 3

French	English
'ikib de'	the team of
'ikib'	Team
'coupe du Italia'	the cup of Italy (Italia is used in an Arabic form)
'apipri'	Nearly

Table 9: sample 3

French	English
'telecharge'	Download
'de jeux et'	of games and
'telécharge de'	download from

Attempts to replace French with the English language teaching by the national policy, failed. French could maintain its status as a second language and the above learners' productions illustrate this. Nonetheless, this inter-language phenomenon in the Algerians generally seems helpful since learners see including French words in an English paragraph as a solution instead of keeping passive in front of a linguistic gap. Even though, academic writing does not allow mixing languages in a piece of writing unless there is a content which is borrowed. Perhaps it is better allowing the use of French in language classes since it facilitates the learning process.

4. Ideological Factors

4.1. Foreign Culture Teaching v.s Foreign Language Learning

One fundamental aim of foreign language teaching is to develop students' ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in different situations. Thus, teaching culture is no doubt needed because "language use has its own social grammar of roles, settings, rules of speaking, and norms of interpretation" (Kramsch, 1998:10. Yet, attitudes against the incorporation of foreign culture in the teaching of foreign language were of serious impact among many countries teaching EFL. These attitudes may at a great account decrease learners' effective EFL classrooms outcomes as it may also result in failure in communication using the target language. It might also be the reason behind the negligence of cultural aspects of the target language in the textbook.

Attitudes play an important role in forming/shaping our world view. They influence our perception of the world around us and determine how we respond to different entities of the world. It may be interpreted at cognitive, experiential and ideational level (Fasold, 1985; 44 Halliday, 2005). The Encyclopedia of Psychology (2004) discusses the attitudinal model, on the basis of three factors: affective, behavioural and cognitive. Thus a dominant aspect of attitude is an emotional response to particular entities.

4.2. The Intercultural Approach to Language Teaching

Traditional culture teaching was restricted to providing the learners with a body of information about the native speakers of the TL and their way of life. It proved to be an inadequate approach to culture teaching. Its perspective is objective culture rather than culture as a social construct, or as the product of subjective perceptions (Kramsch, 1993).

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It presents facts without catering for means susceptible to stimulate the learners' study and synthesis skills.

On the whole, the intercultural philosophy denotes, by definition, cultural interchange for a better mutual understanding and enrichment. It assumes thus that the cultures involved are all valuable and equal. It is a look upon one's own society and its functioning mode, stimulated by confrontation with other societies and cultures. New approaches to culture teaching are four, as identified by Kramsch (1993):

- "Establishing a 'sphere of Interculturality' ", by which is meant an intercultural approach based on reflecting on both NC (native culture) and TC (target culture), as delineated above. According to this approach, "understanding a foreign culture requires putting that culture in relation with one's own" (Kramsch, ibid: 205).

- "Teaching culture as an interpersonal process", according to which, teachers should not merely present facts about the TC but should more importantly provide for ways to enable learners to understand these facts and all what is 'other' or 'foreign'.

- "Teaching culture as difference", on the basis of which, to have a different culture does not only mean to have different national identities; age, gender, regional origin, ethnic background, social class are other factors that determine one's cultural personality.

- "Crossing disciplinary boundaries", on the basis of which, culture teaching is viewed in relation to anthropology, sociology, semiology and ethnography. Language and culture teachers should accordingly have readings in these disciplines.

These approaches reflect, by far, more than an incidental encounter with or random reference to cultural matters. Worth noting is that special emphasis on culture is far from being wasteful of class time, as claimed by some teachers, given its relevance to language learning / teaching.

The implementation of an IC approach as the goal of FL teaching will depend on the attitude and the training of the teachers in these aspects. A teacher is a mediator that has to give priority not to the amount of knowledge to be acquired but to the development of new attitudes, skills and critical awareness in the student. That is to say, the task of the teacher is not to provide comprehensive information or bring the foreign society into the classroom for learners to observe and experience but to develop in students the

competence that will make them relativise their own cultural values, beliefs and behaviours and investigate for themselves the otherness, what is different to their "norm" (Byram et al. 2002: 13–33; Byram et al. 2001: 3).

Consequently, in this context non-native teachers become particularly valued for their ability to move between the home and target cultures (Corbett 2003: 12), although, obviously a curious, open-minded native teacher, especially if widely-travelled, can be equally or better valued. In fact, the best teacher will be neither the native nor the non-native speaker, but the person who can make students see the connections between their own and others' cultures, as well as awaken their curiosity about difference and otherness.

4.3. Benefits of Incorporating Culture in EFL

The implementation of Structuralism, Direct Method, Audio-lingualism, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach in the beginning of 1970s made culture neglected. These approaches regard ESL/EFL teaching as a matter of linguistics, their emphasis was on structures and vocabulary. The advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the late 1970s made the negligence of culture became worse for it focused on teaching learners to act upon dialogues, that is, to use language in the real world and to achieve communicative purposes. However, with developments in CLT, it was realized that to communicate effectively, one should adapt the properties of his language use (such as intonation, lexical choice, and syntax) to the social 'variables' (such as those of class, gender or race) in which he interacts with others. Consequently, the role of culture in the ESL/EFL curriculum grew.

In the 1990s, the cultural syllabus has been supported by researches and its importance was strongly confirmed. Researches like Byram (1994) and Kramsch (1993; 2001) strengthened the close relationship of ESL/EFL teaching and target culture teaching. Also, growth of English as an international language causes the inclusion of culture in EFL curriculum unavoidable.

The importance of the incorporation of culture in EFL/ESL teaching can be summarized in the following:

- Language is a part of culture and a culture is a part of a language. The two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" Brown (1994).

Buttjes (1990) summarizes:

- language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures.

- the process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchanges of language in particular social situations.

- every society orchestrates the ways in which children participate in particular situations, and this, in turn, affects the form, the function, and the content of children's utterances.

- caregivers' primary concern is not with grammatical input, but with the transmission of sociocultural knowledge.

- the native learner, in addition to language, acquires also the paralinguistic patterns and the kinesics of his or her culture.

- Since language and culture are inseparable, language teaching is culture teaching, Buttjes (1990) explains:

- language codes cannot be taught in isolation because processes of socio-cultural transmission are bound to be at work on many levels, e.g. the contents of language exercises, the cultural discourse of textbooks, and the teacher's attitudes towards the target culture.

- in their role of "secondary care givers" language teachers need to go beyond monitoring linguistic production in the classroom and become aware of the complex and numerous processes of intercultural mediation that any foreign language learner undergoes.

The inevitability of incorporating cultural matters into an ESL/EFL program is the fact that the major goal of a foreign language program is the mastery of communicative competence. To achieve this; a learner should be able to conceive of the native speakers of target language as real person. This can't be achieved through the reading of grammar books which present so called genuine examples from real life, without background

knowledge those real situations may be considered fictive by the learners. An EFL once s/he understands the TC, s/he would associate/relate the abstract sounds and forms of a language to real people and places (Chastain, 1971).

4.4. Drawbacks Behind the Absence of Culture Teaching

People all over the world may hold some common assumptions and beliefs, which may at times be wrong. Thousand years ago, it was believed that the Earth was flat and was the centre of the universe, staying fixed while the Sun, Moon and Stars moved. When nearly almost all people believe in the same thing, there is little chance that they will ever consider believing in something else. As a result, a view that is not valid may be transmitted from generation to generation. Unwilling to question our own assumptions, we may negatively perceive another group of people. The outcome would be negative stereotyping of other cultures. Belonging to different cultures may misinterpret and misjudge the others' ways of being polite. In fact, the negligence of culture in language teaching prevents one from solving cultural misunderstandings and misinterpretations. In contrast, it enlarges among communities the distances where people struggle and conflict.

Similarly, the separation of language and culture in teaching a foreign language has always carried the implication that a foreign language can be treated as if it were self-contained and independent of its socio-cultural phenomena. This separation means:

- The calls for discrimination based on stereotypes of the 'others' which ideally leads to an awareness of one's own and the others' culture-bound behaviour.

- Reducing the ability to behave and use language in ways acceptable, appropriate and familiar to native speakers. This means the absence of international and cross-cultural tolerance and understanding.

As such, learning a foreign language is merely a process of sequential acquisition of discrete language units:

- It is a reminder of a stock of vocabulary and grammar rules with the ability to use them in acceptable syntactically well pronounced utterances.
- It is the teaching of speaking, listening, writing and reading.
- All what is outside the realms of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation is not language and, thereby, supplementary or secondary.

Today, learners are very affected by culturally based activities such as singing, dancing, role playing, or doing research on other countries and peoples. If ever foreign language teaching is isolated from its culture, classrooms will suffer from unmotivated learners'. Kramsch (1993) argues that the difficulties faced by foreign learners to read and understand authentic texts, is due to cultural impediments rather than linguistic ones.

- Harrison (1990) says that the message in any text will be interpreted according to the readers' sensibility, world view, and cultural experience, and since the reader's culture is different from that of the writer in foreign language texts, then what will be understood is may be quite different from what is intended.

- Kramsch (1994) ensures that foreign language texts reflect particular features and styles belonging to the target culture, hence, it is impossible to get the full meaning of a given text unless you consider the contextual factors of its production and perception.

4.5. Learners' Motives and Culture Learning Requirements

Any learner asks her/himself: what shall I learn? Why is this necessary to me to learn? Questions as such make the learner think of the goal s/he is going to achieve. Precisely speaking, learning a foreign language is either a school program or a learner's specific desire. Both objectives imply that learning a language needs certain environment in order for someone to reach proficiency. One of the most important individual differences shaping language learning outcomes is learner motivation.

Theorists in the field of educational psychology indicate that learners who are strongly motivated are much more likely to succeed. Motivation is believed to be a drive for people to do things, similarly for learning English. Many English dictionaries define motivation as something that causes someone to act. Accordingly, motivated behaviour will lead to various actions in order to reach a goal. The most influential theory in the field of language learning motivation is the socio educational model proposed by Gardner (1985). According to Gardner, motivation identifies two types of motivational orientation: integrative and instrumental.

4.5.1. Instrumental Orientation

It pertains to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as to get a better job or to pass a required examination. S. L. McKay insists that English is now a distinct world language thanks to the growing number of L2 speakers of English. In the present time, many of the bilingual speakers of English have no desire to acquire the culture of native speakers of English because, unlike immigrants to English-speaking countries, they will not be living and interacting in a native-English-speaking context Smith (1976) argues that in the teaching of English as an international language (EIL) the cultural basis is that:

- there is no necessity for L2 speakers to internalize the cultural norms of native speakers of that language
- an international language becomes de-nationalized
- the purpose of teaching an international language is to facilitate the communication of learners' ideas and culture in an English medium

Many existing English textbooks place a heavy emphasis on target culture materials, including native-English-speaker names and places. However, if one of the main purposes of teaching an international language is to facilitate the communication of learners' ideas and culture in an English medium, then there are many reasons why source culture materials should be used in the teaching of EIL (English as an international language).

4.5.2. Integrative Orientation

Gardner and his colleague found that integrative motivation, which refers to 'a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group' (Lambert, 1974, p.98), was a more powerful predictor of linguistic achievement as it was consistently correlated with L2 linguistic achievement (Gardner, R. & Lambert, W. (1972). Dlaska, (2000) summarizes:

- Since language and culture are inseparable, neglecting one of the two aspects will be to the detriment of the other.

- With regard to the course objectives culture will be a motivating factor for the learners due to their career considerations.

- Since the learners are likely to work, live, and travel abroad there is a pressing need to go beyond a tourist approach in teaching English.

- Culture-integrated language teaching encourages meaning negotiation rather than speech reproduction.

- The often disconnected and disjoined modules of the English course will be given some coherence.

- Culture-integrated language teaching raises the learners' awareness and helps to overcome their ethnocentrism.

- Culture-integrated language teaching may represent an intellectual challenge for the learners which may lead to high learning motivation

Language attitudes have to do with students EFL learning. These attitudes may influence students to succeed or fail to learn English language in the required manner. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, there are factors like educational factors, social factors, learner's personality factors and other factors which may affect learners' learning behaviour and manipulate their attitudes towards the learning of EFL.

Conclusion

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there is a number of educational factors which may influence an individual's discourse production: 1) internal factors related to the learner per se as an individual such as motivation, personality, and anxiety, 2) external factors related to the learner as language learning participant that may occur in and outside the classroom such as gender, age, and social class, 3) the national linguistic profile of a country, and 4) ideological factors which contains of negative and positive attitudes towards an FL.

It has been indicated though, that relating some variables such as self-confidence with others like extroversion does not necessary involve a successful discourse maker; it is already mentioned earlier in this chapter that learners may do well in a skill at the expense of other skill not only because they are weak but also because they may not have interest in this particular skill such as the case of literary streams and scientific ones, the former show interest in studying and doing well in subjects such as

Letters and Philosophy they represent higher coefficients, where as the latter show interest in all subjects except some preferences to make all the English class oral.

Furthermore, there are some learners who can be considered as introvert (never hear their voice in the classroom) are successful in delivering a meaningful discourse in both writing and speaking when addressed by the teacher (when it comes to tests and exams). It is also assumed that external factors such as gender and social class may influence a learner's language outcome in that the environment surrounding the learner with the differences among the group of participants in speech events may present obstacles hindering language learning process.

In the case of Algerian learners, within the foreign language stream, a learner who comes from the small village and whose parents are not intellectual cannot do well in the foreign language where as a learner whose parents are socially well positioned would certainly have great knowledge of foreign languages. Yet, there are cases where the former learner can be excellent in English and always has very good grades while the latter does not show interest at all in the same subject.

Consequently, claiming that learners' linguistic choices are always linked to specific internal or external factors related to the learner is an overgeneralization that contradicts with several researches in the same field of interest. However, what can be said here is that both sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics are still need other research areas regarding other unmentioned factors in this study or perhaps the same factors in many areas of the world in order to provide us with the tools to develop language teaching environment and provide it with better learning conditions.

Introduction

It has been argued in the previous chapter that the quality of an educational system depends to a large extent on its teachers as they are the key source of knowledge and skills. International research into classroom processes recognises that managing the quality of teacher-student interaction is one of the most important factors in improving the quality of teaching and learning, particularly in contexts where learning resources and teacher training are limited. Also, helping teachers to transform classroom talk into a purposeful and productive dialogue, through pedagogy and curriculum that is relevant to the lives and the linguistic profile of the communities from which the pupils come, can therefore be seen as being fundamental to improving the quality of education.

It has also been argued that regular training and pedagogical meetings are of great importance in raising the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Pedagogical research in secondary schools from around the world shows that teachers often rely on an old method that promotes the transmission of knowledge and rote learning. Such interaction often takes the form of lengthy recitations comprising teacher explanations and questions and brief answers often repeated by the whole class or by individual pupils. Therefore, changing such a limited repertoire of pedagogic practices taking into consideration the quality of classroom interaction can be an effective way of improving the classroom pedagogy per se. In this way, the teaching repertoire can be enhanced and characterized by student-teacher discussions, pupil-to-pupil dialogues and the whole classroom participants' interaction. Raising cognitive engagement and understanding and value output among students help avoid the traditional way of teaching (teacher-centred approach) and opens the way for the new effective method (student-centred approach).

This chapter outlines the research design and methods used to conduct the study with a detailed description of the techniques used for data collection. It begins by outlining the purpose of the study, the scope of the study by restating the research questions to be followed by the rationale for using the mixed methods in the study. After this, the chapter will present a detailed description and discussion of each method used in the present study, namely the survey questionnaire, the classroom observation, and the textbook evaluation. How each method was developed, applied and analysed will also be presented in this chapter. The chapter ends by drawing attention to some data collection constraints and other considerations.

1. The Purpose of the Study

Successful language learning depends on classroom communication, i.e. interaction learners engage in with their teacher and other learners. The discourse among students and the teacher and students themselves is central for foreign language learning as it contextualizes learning experiences, while active participation in classroom discourse engages learners in the learning process.

English is taught as a compulsory subject in Algerian schools in general and secondary schools in particular and is given considerable time separately according to the different streams. English is the medium of instruction and interaction with pupils in FL classes. It is also supposed to be a means of communication outside the classroom since it is already learnt and used for more than five years. Thus, the teaching of a foreign language is assumed to help to increase the acquisition of the target language and makes it possible for learners to achieve a higher level of proficiency.

Nonetheless, having been exposed to four years in middle school then two years in high school, the third year secondary school pupils must have a good mastery of the target language. They, at least, can participate in classroom interactions using the target language. However, regular observation related to this study shows that learners can neither speak fluently nor write an accepted piece of discourse in English. Third-year students of English classes display poor performance, short output in classes, and narrow interactive contexts in the different sessions. Therefore, the present research aims to shed light on teacher-learners classroom spoken discourse. It attempts to investigate patterns of teacher-student interaction and observe what is going on during classes using classroom discourse analysis.

Classroom discourse analysis is a way of abstracting and analysing language for teaching purposes. It helps teachers create a second language learning environment where learners are aware of how language is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts. It is also a research method for teachers to investigate their own teaching practices and also as a tool for studying interactions, social and linguistic behaviour among language learners (Demo, Douglas, cited in Eric, 2001).

2. **Classroom Discourse Analysis**

The use of language in any classroom is interesting from an educational point of view because education itself is conducted fundamentally through the medium of language. The term 'the language classroom' is used here to refer to a classroom in which the primary concern is the development of a language that is not the first language of the learners.

Classroom Discourse is a special type of discourse that occurs in classrooms. Special features of classroom discourse include: unequal roles of participants, turn-taking at speaking, patterns of interaction, etc. Classroom discourse is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of particular social roles which learners and teachers have in classrooms and the kind of activities they usually carry out there. Researchers and language teachers focus on classroom discourse in order to know what actually happens in the classroom that really matters, that makes a difference to the learners' progress in language acquisition.

According to Arthur (2008), the earliest systemic study of classroom discourse was reported in 1910 and stenographers were used to make a continuous record of teachers' and student's talk in high school classrooms. The first use of audiotape recorders in classrooms was reported in the 1930s and during the 1960s, where there was a rapid growth in the number of studies based on analysis of classroom discourse transcripts.

Consequently, it was observed that the verbal interaction between teachers and students had an underlying structure that was much the same in all classrooms, at all grade levels Arthur (2008). Classroom discourse, which includes the interactions between language learners and their teacher or other learners, is a row material that, if well considered, may uncover many issues in language learning as it may well strengthen the teaching process.

The concept of classroom discourse has undergone various interpretations by different scholars in the field of language study. Each of them interprets the concept according to her/his perspective and the requirements of their subject matter. However, most of them agree on the importance of language used by classroom members in interaction in the language being learnt. Kramsch (1985) for instance, valuing the role of learners' backgrounds as a factor in language acquisition, considers classroom discourse

as composed of a continuous bridge that links pedagogic discourse to natural discourse poles.

Nunan (1993) views classroom discourse as the distinctive type of discourse that occurs in classroom. In his opinion, special features of discourse include unequal relationships, which are marked by unequal opportunities for teachers and pupils to suggest topics, turn sequencing, etc. This can possibly enable the teacher to observe the probable lacunas that need to be fixed. In this respect, Edmondson (1985) differentiates between two learning objectives that classroom interaction is supposed to focus on. He believes that classroom discourse provides "co-existing discourse words" depending on whether the participants are engaged in the act of trying to learn or trying to communicate. In other words, explaining the structure of an activity is also a type of classroom discourse. Yet, it does not necessarily require learners' interaction as when classroom members interact at the same time. Instead, it requires learners' comprehension of the instruction to be analysed by the teacher.

Although scholars' interpretations show a difference in opinions, most of them agree on the fact that classroom discourse is a matter of two parties with different roles but shared events and topic discussions. In view of that, it is the role of the teacher to manage the classroom talk who, when and how much time devoted for. The learning of a foreign language in or outside the classroom itself depends on particular characteristics of the L2 learning settings. The awareness of the role of input and output in FL acquisition by teachers enables teachers and educators to observe their teaching in the first place then their learners' output in order to determine the objectives of a successful EFL classroom.

The teacher, when analysing all that, creates techniques and procedures to conduct an effective classroom interaction through the negotiation of meaning, appropriate instruction and the efficient distribution of classroom participants' roles.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) term classroom research to cover all research studies related to language learning and classroom teaching. For them, classroom-based research does not concentrate only on particular features of the classroom such as input that investigates the teaching materials or output that requires the examination of learners' levels like tests and exams. Rather, it takes these and other features and draws the whole corpus study of a classroom.

Classroom research does not view the language classes as the settings for research but as the object of the research. Research's focus should be on describing the greatest possible details or what really happens in the classroom, putting as an aim to identify the phenomena that promote or hinder learning (ibid). Examples of issues that have been studied within the field of classroom research include how interaction occurs in classrooms, how teachers respond to learners errors, the type of linguistic input provided in classrooms, the feelings of teachers and learners during or after the lessons, and so on.

Whatever the interest of researchers in the language classroom, one common characteristic of classroom research in that it is descriptive in nature. It involves observation, recording and transcription (Van Lier, 1998). Since the description is the basic tool of classroom-based research, the principal approaches of studying second language learning and teaching are either observation or introspection or a combination of these two (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Thus, based on the nature and principles of classroom-centred research, description is the key term to be retained in this study. Besides, the data collection approach chosen for the current study is classroom observation.

For this classroom research to reach its goal, it will be described taking into consideration three classroom aspects the amount of teacher's talk, the types of classroom discourse structure, and the teachers' questioning. These elements will be defined and illustrated in the following section.

2.1. Aspects of Classroom Discourse

2.1.1. The Amount of Teacher's Talk

Academic discourse has always been part of the classroom. In the early history of education, teachers used to talk for most of the time devoted for instruction in each lesson. Learners were always quiet either doing their activities or listening to the teacher. What students were expected to do was to memorize contents then recite them. In the late 1800s, students were not required to talk but to be silent, otherwise punished.

Later, throughout the history of teaching, educators realized that students' talk was necessary for their academic success. Teachers started to focus on the individual learner to assess their knowledge through their answers and feedback. However, by observing language classrooms, it was found that most of the talk is that of the teacher. Students are passive and do not initiate talk until they are asked or addressed to and when they are

invited, they do not deliver longer discourse but only words or phrases and sometimes their responses are in another language (mother tongue).

In an EFL class lesson for instance, teachers argue that their dominant talks was because learners do not want to talk in order not to make mistakes. Teachers also argue that the lesson time is limited and that they could not spend the whole session waiting for learners' responses and participation for only one particular point in the lesson.

Even though, scholars in the field of language learning have considered different functions for the influencing role of the teacher's talk. It is usually viewed as one of the influential factors of success or failure in classroom teaching (Xu, 2010). It can determine whether teaching in a specific classroom has been successful or not. The teacher can realize his objectives concerning his method through learners' achievements and feedback. It has also been proved beneficial for learners in that it provides them with a specific opportunity to have more learning, questions and answers, and other activities that they are not aware of; through teacher talk, teachers use different types of questions based on different factors some of which are the level of students, the type of materials they teach and their purpose of asking questions (Huang & Zheng, 2009).

However, much time given to teacher's talk may result in limits the learners' use of language in and outside the classroom for it is not the only role in a classroom interaction; it is the exchange of ideas, opinions and turn talking that shape a successful classroom interaction.

Harmer (1998) found out that teacher's talk occupied much more time than students' talk while the balance of teacher's talk and students' talk is important in the EFL classroom. The classroom is composed of several daily pedagogical aspects such as teachers' and students' talk, question-answer exchange, teacher and students' feedbacks, etc. that if confined to only teachers' talk, will illuminate the learners' role and decreases his opportunity to talk and perform the target language. Accordingly, teacher's talk should be turned up in favour of the whole classroom events, tasks, and language performance in order to contribute to classroom FL learning achievements.

The passivity of learners' participation in the classroom interaction and discourse hinders the flow of communication when the teacher tries hard to create ways to get his students involved. However, slow learners should not be neglected and focus only on the

learners who have good command of the subject matter. It is important for the teacher to take interest of their ideas and ask them to clarify and justify their ideas either in oral or written form. This will establish a good teacher-learner relationship and enable students to try to satisfy the teacher by participating in the classroom discourse. By avoiding too much criticising and giving negative evaluations. Learners' learn how to learn from their mistakes as they will not hesitate to talk since this is not neglected or disallowed.

We said earlier that discourse is communication whether in spoken or in written language and that communication requires a speaker and a listener so, the teacher himself also has to be a good listener by accepting the ideas contributed. However, the teacher should be professional in selecting important points and indirectly correct errors in order to promote favourable student learning. The teacher should also monitor and engage every student to participate in discussions either in small groups or whole class. Volunteer students can be of great help if the teacher involves them in group work with slow learners in order to interact with each other. As such all learners are given the chance to talk, express their ideas and participate in communicative classroom conversations.

2.1.2. Types of Classroom Discourse

Generally speaking, teachers use questions to fulfil various classroom tasks among them warming up students about the previous lesson. The teacher may also ask questions to elicit students' knowledge about the new (current) topic, all that to manage and conduct a classroom interaction.

Classroom interaction is composed of different language patterns depending on the nature of the topic being studied. Halliday (1978) makes his key contribution to create a model where the language and social action of specific situations (such as the lesson) could be understood as integrated within a single meaning structure or semiotic structure. That is to say, the structure of the social action and the structure of the language used could be understood as mutually determining.

It was generally acknowledged by those who studied classroom discourse that it differed in significant ways from other kinds of social interaction. Borrowing from Halliday's theory of scale and category grammar; Sinclair and Coulthard (e.g., Halliday, 1961), developed a model of classroom discourse involving a series of ranks and levels

arranged in hierarchical order. Ranks at the discourse level, for example, were, in descending order: Lesson, Transaction, Exchange, Move and Act.

While the whole structure was important to the overall model adopted, in practice Sinclair and Coulthard were to be remembered most for the particular character they gave to the structure of one of the Moves they identified: the so-called Initiation, Response, Feedback move, known as the IRF, or sometimes, following a similar description in Mehan's work (1979) as the Initiation, Response, Evaluation move, the IRE. It is a structure, where the teacher initiates a question, in order to check students' knowledge and responses. This one is evaluated with feedback from the teacher (Richards et al., 1992). This paves the way for more participation in the classroom topic on the part of students, as it enables the teacher to analyse, evaluate, and then plan an appropriate lesson.

> T: What's the capital of France? (Initiation)
> S: Paris. (Response)
> T: Yes, Paris. That's right. (Feedback)

(Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model of classroom discourse)

Table 10: Sinclair and Coulthard's System of Analysis

Exchanges			Moves	Acts
Teaching	**Free**	Teacher-Inform Teacher-Elicit Student-Inform Student-Elicit Teacher-Direct Teacher-Check	Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF)	Marker (m) Starter (s) Elicit (el) Inform (i) Direct (d) Reply (rep) Comment (com)
	Bound	Re-initiation Listing Repeat Reinforce		Clue (cl) Aside (z) Loop (l) Nomination (n) Accept (acc) Metastatement (ms) Conclusion (con
Boundary		Framing Focusing		Framing (Fr) Focusing (Fs)

As a matter of fact, the IRF structure initiates a give-and-take conversation between the teacher and students (Chang 2002). It introduces the idea that in the teacher-students interaction, the answer part is always followed by the teacher's evaluation and comments addressing the student. This feedback is what permits the teacher to control language comprehension and use merely because it is the part that decides on what is relevant in certain discourse and what is not. This type of classroom discourse structure is one of the language aspects this empirical work is based on in the investigation of the place of discourse among FL classes.

Behavioral psychologists were the first to recognize the power of feedback as a motivating influence. Feedback refers to the informative responses to what learners say or do, for example, a nod, smile, puzzled frown, or clarifying question are all useful feedback to learners.

(XU 2010)

2.1.3. Teachers' Questioning

Among the many aspects that help create classroom interactions the types of the questions that are asked by teachers. Considerable research exists indicating that questions can assist learners in improving their linguistic ability. Mehan (1979) offered three structural components of pedagogic discourse:

- An opening phase is where the participants inform each other that they are in fact going to conduct a lesson as opposed to some other activity.
- An instructional phase where information is exchanged between the teacher and students.
- A closing phase where participants are reminded of what happened at the core of a lesson (as cited in Behnam & Pouriran 2009).

When the teacher asks a question, the student answers and the teacher evaluates. The teacher continues to ask another question and so the sequence continues. This structure of classroom discourse encourages teacher-learners interaction and insures the balance of talk among them.

In this respect, Ellis (1994) mentioned two types of questions display questions and referential questions. The former requires the respondents to provide knowledge or

information already known by the questioner, for example "What's the synonym of 'right' in English?" The latter, on the other hand, request information not known by the questioner, hence requiring more details.

To some extent, referential questions are authentically thought of being challenging, while display questions 'test' the learners by eliciting already known information. These types of questions may address students' memory not their comprehension. This is what would drive students to compete over who would answer first in the case of extrovert learners, a type of students who show more interest in verbal communication and take risks (Dawaele & Furnham 2005 p: 6).

However, referential questions are concerned with eliciting longer, more authentic responses than display questions by stressing more learners' comprehension than memory; this type of questioning works well with introverts (who are reflective but reserved); they are more concerned with the inner world of ideas than extroverts but are more likely to be involved with solitary activities (Zafar & Meenakshi 2012 p: 243).

The primary objective of referential questions is to encourage various and long responses from students, that is, to present a better chance for them to talk by engaging them in higher-level thinking. Consequently, they would provide their own information and ideas instead of recollecting the previously presented information. This scheme will further drive them to forget about their personal problems and consider themselves as part of a group.

 Also, Ellis typology of questions can be used in the three phases of a session depending on the learners' output; as a warm up, as an oral activity, and as an assessment to examine students' understanding to pass to the activities phase (Mehan 1979 as cited in Behnam & Pouriran 2009). Based on many studies, referential questions call for more interaction and meaningful negotiation and investment of language.

Indeed, real language interaction does not consist only of questions from one party and answers from another. It also consists of world knowledge and meaning negotiation in order to communicate not only ideas but also understandings, intentions, and a successful pedagogical relationship between the teacher and learners. Accordingly, questions in the language classroom should be referential or meaning-based, not focusing on form only. By doing so, the teacher addresses the learners' capacity and pushes them

to talk, answer questions but more than that, to speak out his ideas using the target language in the classroom and other appropriate situations.

3.   Scope of the Research
3.1.   Research Questions

This study sets out to investigate the nature of teacher-student interaction in secondary EFL classrooms in order to shed light on the underlying pedagogical approaches currently in use and to understand the contextual issues that shape such patterns of interaction.

As stated in chapter one, the study was designed to explore the following research questions:

4)   What types of discourse do Algerian secondary school EFL teachers currently use in their classes?

5)   Does learners' performance reveal a real classroom interaction?

6)   To what extent is the teaching/learning process supported by teaching materials relevant to the context so as to apply the communicative approaches to teaching English?

3.2.   Hypotheses

Our assumption was put forward through the following hypothesis:

Our assumption was put forward through the following hypothesis:

H1): We suggest the dominance of the IRF discourse structure and the supremacy of display questions which prevent the learner from getting involved in longer discussions.

H2): We hypothesise that students' classroom participation does not contribute in their learning of the target language because it does not reflect real communication patterns. We also hypothesise that students' interests is directed towards written examinations at the expense of classroom performances.

H3) We assume that the absence of authentic language classrooms lies in the current teaching materials represented in the third year students' textbook and the teachers' methodology that lacks innovation. We also assume that the absence of regular

pedagogical training and classroom observations by experts makes it difficult the change in the teaching methodology.

In order to fully address the complexity of the research questions, a mixed-method research design using both quantitative and qualitative methods was used. This allowed greater validity and reliability in the study. Each of the research methods was designed to be closely related to each other method to ensure a fully integrated research design with a central focus on classroom processes.

This chapter outlines the methodology for the present research. It presents the methods and materials employed in the study; the participants and the location, the research questions and hypotheses are also presented. It also presents the literature about classroom discourse as a necessary part of the classroom research as it outlines observation as a beneficial strategy in picturing what is happening in the classroom between the participants.

4. Rationale for Using Mixed Methods

Over the last decade, mixed methods research has emerged as an emerging and progressively growing theory in educational research with a noticeable rise in the number of ELT researchers using it in their studies (Bryman, 2006, 2008). Most researchers argue that the selection of research approaches and methods of data collection should always be influenced by the nature of the inquiry, the nature of the population, the nature of the hypotheses and variables and by the research questions (e.g. Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al. 2007; Creswell, 2008; Gay & Airasian, 2003).

As an approach, 'mixed methods' is defined as 'procedures for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study…' (Creswell 2008). It is argued that such an approach is capable of integrating and bridging the gap between the quantitative and qualitative paradigms, as mixed methods can answer research questions that the other methods cannot. Therefore, a major advantage of mixed methods is that it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer confirmatory and exploratory questions, and verify and generate theory in the study. It allows for a high degree of reliability as well as 'flexibility' which could not be achieved with using inter-related methods (Bryman, 2008). This derives from an epistemology that views knowledge of the world as a social construct rather than as a

given, external reality. A mixed methods approach using observation, interviews and structured questionnaires was therefore adopted as the most appropriate way of addressing the three research questions investigating teacher beliefs classroom practices and training needs.

The approach for data analysis we selected for this classroom-based research is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches followed for the research tools in this study. The terms qualitative and quantitative are applied to both data collection and data analysis phases of any research. The data obtained in an investigation can be quantified, as when the researcher counts the frequency of certain behaviour (e.g. hand-raising). Thus, any sort of measurement generates quantitative data.

On the other hand, some data are not the result of counting and do not produce numerical information such as diaries, interviews, prose descriptions and classroom transcripts. Given these two types of data, researchers apply the terms qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and data analysis in classroom research.

The collected data can be analysed by counting or measuring (quantitative analysis), or by directly interpreting them by a qualitative analysis (Burns, 1999). For example, a transcript of classroom lesson (qualitative analysis) can be explored by counting all sorts of things the amount of teacher talk, or learner talk, the frequency of use of certain words, the number of instances of learners errors, and so on, depending largely upon what interests the researcher (Burns, 1999).

Alternatively, the lesson transcript could be treated like a literary text, and try to understand it by close textual analysis that need not involve counting at all. The third possibility is that these two approaches, the quantitative and the qualitative can be combined in any investigation. Even numerical analysis needs a qualitative interpretation at any stage (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

Classroom observation then, followed both quantitative and qualitative methods; the quantitative data will be shown in tables, analysed and then interpreted in the *Research Result and Discussion* chapter whereas the qualitative data will be presented in the end of these analysis followed by the *conclusion*. The data collection for the teachers' questionnaire followed a quantitative method except the last part of it which was

qualitatively analysed. Concerning the third tool in this research, the qualitative method is relevant for the textbook evaluation.

Table 11: Data Collection Method and Tools

Method		Purpose	Scheduled date	Target and total
Questionnaire		To know teachers' opinions about overall English teaching/learning in Algerian secondary schools and to free their expressions of ideas and views when answering questions.	The first trimester	3rd year teachers of Scientific/FL streams
Classroom Observation	**Note-taking**	To cover as much as we can information on classroom events	The first trimester	3ES 3FL
	Audio-tape	So as to help in translating all that is said and done during classes	The first trimester	3ES 3FL
Textbook evaluation		To analyse the place of discourse in the textbook oral/written activities	Third trimester	3rd year 'The New prospect'

5.   Data Collection Methods and Tools

5.1.   The Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument that consists of a set of questions or other types of prompts that aims to collect information from a respondent. A research questionnaire is typically a mix of close-ended questions and open-ended question. Open-ended, long-form questions offer the respondent the ability to elaborate on their thoughts. Research questionnaires were developed in 1838 by the Statistical Society of London. The data collected from a data collection questionnaire can be both qualitative as well as quantitative in nature. A questionnaire may or may not be delivered in the form of a survey, but a survey always consists of a questionnaire.

The best way to understand how questionnaires work is to see the types of questions available. As done by the current study, the researcher could collect as much as she could questionnaires samples in order to compare then sampling a relevant one. Among the sample that was of great benefit for this research, the researcher's own questionnaire for her MA dissertation included similar ideas.

5.1.1. Advantages of the Questionnaire

Through a survey questionnaire, the researcher can gather a lot of data in a short period of time thanks to the variety of population addressed. Besides, there is always less chance of any bias creeping if the survey includes a standard set of questions to be used to the target audience. The responses in a questionnaire enable the researcher to compare data with the data in another research tool used previously or after that and understand the shift in respondents' choices and experiences. What also guarantees good expectations is that the informants find no obligation to reveal their identity thus, they feel free to transfer reality in their answers.

O'Leary (2014) suggests that a questionnaire allows researchers to get access to various authentic works specific to the respondents as it offers insights that might otherwise be unavailable elsewhere.

5.1.2. Characteristics of a Good Questionnaire

In a survey questionnaire, it is the data you need to collect that decides the design of your structure; a qualitative questionnaire is used when there is a need to collect exploratory information to help prove or disprove a hypothesis whereas, a quantitative questionnaire is used to validate or test a previously generated hypothesis. However, most questionnaires are structured according to the following principles: (Bell &Waters (2014) and O'Leary (2014).

Uniformity: Questionnaires are very useful to collect demographic information, personal opinions, facts, or attitudes from respondents. One of the most significant attributes of a research form is uniform design and standardization. Every respondent sees the same questions. This helps in collecting data its statistics analysis.

Exploratory: It should be exploratory to collect qualitative data. There is no restriction on questions that can be in your questionnaire. Open-ended questions give you more insight and allow the respondents to explain their practices. A very structured question list could limit the data collection.

Question Sequence: It typically follows a structured flow of questions to increase the number of responses. This sequence of questions is screening questions, warm-up

questions, transition questions, skip questions, challenging questions, and classification questions (ibid).

5.1.3. Types of Questionnaires

English Oxford Living Dictionaries define the questionnaire as a set of printed or written questions with a choice of answers, devised for the purposes of a survey or statistical study. There are two types of questionnaires: *Structured Questionnaires* which are concerned with collecting quantitative data (Creswell, 2009). The questionnaire is planned and designed to gather specific information. It also initiates a formal inquiry, supplements data, checks previously accumulated data, and helps validate any prior hypothesis. *Unstructured Questionnaires* in contrast, collect quantitative data. They use a basic structure and some branching questions but nothing that limits the responses of a respondent. The questions are more open-ended to collect specific data from participants (ibid).

5.1.4. Types of Questions in a Questionnaire

The types of questions used in a questionnaire depend on the researcher. Using various question types can help increase responses to research questionnaire as they tend to keep participants more engaged. Among the widely used types of questions are:

o *Open-Ended Questions* which help collecting qualitative data in a questionnaire where the respondent can answer in a free form with little to no restrictions.

o *Dichotomous Questions* are generally "yes/no" close-ended question. This question is usually used in case of the need for necessary validation. It is the most natural form of a questionnaire.

o *Multiple-Choice Questions* Multiple-choice questions are a close-ended question type in which a respondent has to select one or many responses from a given list of options. The multiple-choice question consists of an incomplete stem (question), right answer or answers, incorrect answers, close alternatives, and distractors. Of course, not all multiple-choice questions have all of the answer types. For example, a researcher probably will not have the wrong or right answers if he is looking for a teacher's opinion.

o *Pictorial Questions* is an easy type to use and encourages respondents to answer. It works similarly to a multiple-choice question. Respondents are asked a question, and

the answer choices are given. This helps respondents choose an answer quickly without over-thinking their answers, providing more original data.

The questionnaire for this study takes from the available questionnaire by including types of questions like open-ended and multiple-choice questions. It is divided into two parts. The main part is structured serves to collect quantitative data and the second part is unstructured which was designed for qualitative data. It also contains of different types of questions that facilitate things for the informants.

5.5. The Sample

This study was carried out with 10 teachers from two different secondary schools (Ali Chachou, in Chlef the city and Bouzar Essaidi Med in Oued Fodda, the town). The researcher tried to be present while the teachers were filling the questionnaire in order to be sure they did not check any source to get information.

5.6. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed to teachers of 3rd year pupils of foreign languages, literary, and scientific streams. It begins with a short introduction which explains the aim of the study. It involves three sections with different content. Each of the sections includes some statements to be ticked or questions to be answered by the teachers. The questions were designed as they were to facilitate teachers' answers. Some question although includes the same content, they were asked in different ways in purpose in order to compare and end with logic results.

The first *section* aims at obtaining teachers' professional life; their names (optional), their qualifications, and their teaching experience. The second *section* aims at knowing teachers' views of the importance of English teaching in Algerian secondary schools, their attitudes towards learning it and their objectives as well as the extent to which they are satisfied with the pedagogical matters applied.

In the last *section*, the teachers are asked to answer the questions by ticking one answer among the choices given. The section starts by asking teachers to define the term *discourse*. The following questions concerned methods teachers adopt in their classes.

The questionnaire in this study was designed in addition to a classroom observation in order to support the analysis task of the observation. It was distributed before the classroom observation took place so that we obtain a clear data from the teachers about their opinions concerning the overall English teaching/learning and the teaching materials exist in the Algerian schools.

6. Classroom Observation

Another type of data collection procedure for this study is the classroom observation. Classroom observation is the means through which we verify our research hypotheses, and try to answer our research questions. Any classroom observation we have two strategies of observation *structured* and *unstructured* observation.

According to Cohen et al (2000, cited by Donryei) structured observation means going into the classroom with a specific focus. Structured observation involves the recording of events of predefined types occurring at particular points in time. It usually produces quantitative data about the frequency occurrence of different classroom events or activities.

Furthermore, structured observation is easy to be described for its limited goal but difficult to be well covered without engaging in the process. In other words, it involves placing an observer in a social setting to observe all activities designed for observation. This type of observation may easily miss the insights that could be provided by the participants themselves (Allwright & Bailey (1991). It may also disrupt the learners' attention.

Unstructured observation, however, is less clear then the first category. The observer needs to observe first what is taking place before deciding on its significance for the research. In contrast to structured observation, unstructured observation does not require the observer to participate in the classroom what gives him more opportunities to cover all that is happening without disturbing the whole class participants.

The current study is conformed to the aim of unstructured observation because a structured observation would have given us a very limited view of classroom behaviours. In order to take a full account of classroom interaction with the participants, we acted as a passive observer. This role has no interaction with the participant during data collection

procedure. Being an observer as a participant using audio-recording are useful techniques to be almost unnoticeable as possible in order to minimize the effect on the data collected.

To obtain authentic data for all the observed classes, the researcher did not inform the teachers about the recording of their classes. They were only informed that their classes will be observed. There was no instruction to the teachers on using particular method or even particular types of questions in order to obtain authentic data record. Then, the audio-recorded data was listened to by the researcher several times. After the regular observation, all the discourses of the teachers and their students were transcribed and calculated from the three aspects: the amount of *teacher talk*, the types of *discourse structure*, and the uses of *teachers' questions*.

Next, all the items (of audio-recording of each class) concerning the above three aspects were counted to get the means and average percentages of the items for each class. The means and average percentages of the items of the six classes were finally calculated and analyzed. The final stage was comparing the data of both research tools in order to find a reasonable answer to the obtained findings.

Taking into consideration the importance of classroom discourse, the present study sets out to investigate the patterns of teacher-students' interaction. Although there is a large body of research that provides insight into classroom discourse, the resent study focuses on the nature of teacher student interaction and patterns in the particular areas mentioned earlier.

6.1. Research Participants

In this study, the author chose to work with third year classes of three different streams; FL, literary, and scientific. The aim for the choice of third years for the author has more than six years of experience teaching them and is aware of the educational situation. For the three streams, the choice was because English is one of their subjects that each of them sees it differently. In order to observe the real classroom conditions, we needed a variety of streams with more than one teacher to better reveal the problem. Finally, all the mentioned classes are concerned to be observed.

6.2. Learners' Sample

Participants in a classroom discourse are usually a teacher and the pupils. For classroom observation, the researcher chose six classes to be observed with six teachers that is to say, at Ali Chachou secondary school (in the City of Chlef), we chose three third year-classes: FL, Literary, and scientific and a teacher for each of the classes. The same thing happened with Bouzzar Essaidi High school (Oued Fodda, Town). The learners were of different ages; between 16 and 20, females and males having studied English for 6 years (regardless those repeating the years). The number of learners in each class was between 30 and 44.

The reason behind the choice of streams is that English as a subject is supposed to be taught differently depending on the status of the subject in each stream (pedagogical units, instruction, activities, etc). For instance, English is a primary subject in the FL stream, one of the essential subjects within the literary stream, but secondary in the scientific one. This choice enables a comparison among students of all streams in terms of English knowledge.

6.3. Teachers' Sample

The six teachers are from both sexes. They had almost the same education and teaching background with 3 to 5 years' of English studies and from 5 to 29 years of teaching experience. The teachers and students shared the same L1 background, that is, they are all Algerians. However, they belong to different regions (towns) but in the same province (Chlef).

7. Textbook Evaluation

Many people when hear the term teaching, they directly link it to the teacher standing in front of the student teaching them contents. However, teaching contains in many pedagogical material that are supposed to bring effective learning to students. Teaching can be a teacher facilitating knowledge for learners by adapting content of available materials to learners' needs. It can also be a textbook which presents samples of language use guiding the learners to discover and develop their capacities (Tomlinson 2011).

Textbooks are the best source of information for both teachers and learners. That is why it is the best teaching material that may contain the curriculum objectives of FL teaching/learning. Textbooks provide the means for instruction for teachers and serves as a support for learners whenever asked to participate with their feedback. The Ministry of education purposefully designed the textbook for those specific goals to support the teaching of the foreign language for this teaching material is considered by teachers as the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, as well as the types of language practice the students engage in during class activities.

Today, textbooks represent the most practical role for both teachers and learners to act upon the target language. As such, the textbook can be considered as the cause behind any success among teaching/learning participants in using language appropriately. However, it is also inevitably to consider it as a factor behind any failure in the EFL classroom. In short, it may be predictable that the quality of the textbooks has a direct impact on the overall achievements of the EFL education.

The Algerian secondary education textbooks have witnessed various changes from the early 60's to now. This may give a view that English language teaching attracts a great number of ELT educators, researchers and learners as well. This may clarify the idea about the role attributed to textbooks as being a point of strength of the teaching/learning process of English language in the Algerian context. Titles such as: *Practice and Progress*, *Developing Skills*, *Think it Over, New Lines ,New Midlines, Comet*, *At the Crossroads*, *New Prospects*…etc. have ranged from structural to notional functional and competency based approaches. They could improve the situation of the English language teaching in Algeria for long years as they were regularly being analysed, criticized and praised by practitioners, teachers, inspectors and researchers all around the country.

According to the research questions in this study, the English classroom will be observed to spotlight on the type of discourse the teachers use and teach to learners. Educational discourse does not confine only to be produced or taught by teachers but it is also included through the textbook content as an objective the learners reach. Therefore, the researcher decided to evaluate the textbook of English that is currently used by third year high school learners. The evaluation is descriptive done by the researcher herself

taking into consideration the teachers' book SE3 currently used by teachers and her period of teaching that exceeded the seven years now.

This section of the study is concerned with analysing of one of the three Algerian secondary ELT textbooks *The New Prospect* in order to check the extent to which this teaching material fulfils the objectives set down by the Algerian ministry of education, particularly, those concerned with the communicative competence. Does this textbook introduce learners to appropriate contexts where they learn to use language to achieve authentic communication? In fact, this is the point that we will tackle through the discussion of the findings in the following chapter.

The textbook evaluation is meant to show the role of the textbook in transmitting the authentic language to learners to act upon when taking part in a real communication. Such an objective is supposed to be dealt with through the different tasks and activities tackled within the textbook. However, the evaluation will generally analyse the different pedagogical units but focusing only on the first unit *'Ancient Civilization'* that is concerned with third year foreign languages and some related tasks. The job of introducing any textbook requires a systematic evaluation; so, let us first have an idea in the literature about what is said on the theory of textbook analysis and evaluation.

7.1. Defining Evaluation

The term "evaluation" is widely used in the field of applied linguistics. It is said that evaluation is a procedure to measure the value of the learning materials to make judgments about the effect of the materials on the community using them (Tomlinson 2003).

The idea of evaluating textbooks is seen by some scholars to be closely linked to the selection of textbooks. Hutchinson (1987) states that evaluation is about making judgments about the quality of the textbook by using a particular research tool for the sake of making improvements to the quality of the textbooks. He suggests an interactive view of materials evaluation. He emphasises the deeper level of materials evaluation by questioning materials and the way they are processed in. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that evaluation is a matter of forming an opinion about the appropriateness of something for a specific goal. Cunnigsworth (1984) claims that 'professional judgment, founded on understanding of the rationale of language teaching

and learning and backed up by practical experience, lies at the base of evaluation procedure.'

As far as textbook evaluation is concerned, it can be predictive, ongoing and retrospective evaluation Cunningsworth (1995). The predictive evaluation often generalized and rather aiming at establishing the future or potential performance of newly designed textbooks. They state that it "involves making predictions about the potential value of materials for their users" (ibid). The second type is known *as in-use evaluation* which involves measuring the value of the textbook either by using it or by observing it during use. This type is more objective and reliable. It is done throughout the period it is used and re-evaluated to determine suitability and teachers can benefit from its evaluation by making the textbooks more productive and their teaching more effective by identifying parts of the textbook that need adaptation (Mukunan, 2007).

Tomlinson has listed some basic points that can be taken into consideration in during evaluation. These are: clarity of instruction, clarity of layout, clarity of objectives, credibility of tasks, achievement of performance, practicality of the materials, flexibility of the materials, motivating power of the materials and impact of the materials (2003).

The third type is known as the *post-use evaluation*. It is certainly more valuable than the previous two types but the least administered type of evaluation because it allows the actual effects of a textbook on its users showing its intrinsic value (Ibid). This type also provides retrospective assessment of a course-book's performance and can be useful for identifying strengths and weaknesses which emerge over a period of continuous use." (Cunningsworth 1995)

Sheldon (1988) maintains that since no one set of criteria is applicable to all different situations, we can only turn to checklists or scoring systems. He suggests the use of textbook evaluation sheets in the ELT classroom. The evaluation sheet consists of a list of factors such as rationale, availability, layout, etc. and rating (poor, fair, good, excellent) and comments will be given at the corresponding space by the evaluator.

To avoid the danger of allowing subjective factors to influence judgment in early stage of analysis, Hutchinson and Waters (1994) emphasise the importance of objectivity

in evaluation. For them, evaluation basically matches needs to available solutions. 'If this matching is to be done as objectively as possible, it is best to look at the needs and solutions separately.' Thus, they divide the evaluation process into four major steps, i.e. 1) defining criteria 2) subjective analysis 3) objective analysis 4) matching. The checklist they present contains criteria for both objective and subjective analysis for each item to be assessed (ibid).

Cunningsworth (1984) proposes a checklist of questions which summarises the criteria for evaluation discussed in the various chapters in his book. Some questions in the checklist can be answered in polar terms or on a five point scale. Others require an evaluative or descriptive comment.

All the scholars mentioned earlier have their own methods to follow when evaluate teaching materials, whether it is a checklist, a framework, or an evaluation sheet, however, they all agree on that there must be essential questions when it comes to examine a particular textbook in use or they are going to select or adapt.

Therefore, the evaluation related to this study will take into consideration the *teachers' book* description of SE3. It will examine the place of discourse in the different point treated in the textbook. All in all, it will check the extent to which the objectives of teaching English are integrated in the textbook.

7.2. The Sample Description: '*New Prospect*' SE3
7.2.1. Pedagogical Principles

As clarified in the teachers' book of SE3, ' *The New Prospects*' is the latest in the series of three course-books designed for teaching English to secondary school students. It complies with the recommendations issued in the official syllabus set down by the Ministry of National Education (2006). Its main principle is communicative language teaching, which engages learners in real and meaningful communication that is, learners are given opportunities to act upon content relating to their backgrounds and to develop both fluency and accuracy.

In this coursebook, the teaching of English deals with language learning as a developmental process that takes into consideration learners errors as part of natural learning. Grammar for this approach is not an end by itself but a means to an end, that is, communicative use of language.

In *The New Prospects,* learners are provided with a large number of effective learning tasks that provide plenty opportunities for learners to interact in the classroom and negotiate meaning. Most of these tasks encourage group and individual work in that it involves learners in more complex, fluent, and accurate utterances compared to previous years of education.

On the other hand, the present coursebook, with its six thematically based units, will be geared to raising more awareness of the complexities of the English language in terms of lexis and discourse. Therefore, the texts selected present language in different types and styles: radio interviews, dialogues, news reports, encyclopaedia entries, newspaper and magazine articles, excerpts from works of fiction, poems, etc, presented for both teachers and students to support their teaching/learning.

7.2.2. Organisation of the Textbook

The New Prospects progressively develops in students the three competencies of interaction, interpretation and production that cover all areas of language (syntax, morphology, vocabulary, pronunciation, and spelling) through six graded units. In addition, the graded tasks give students an idea about the English *Baccalaureate* examination in order to make them familiar with the examination requirements. The different task types will be dealt with subsequently.

- Each unit in *New Prospects* includes the presentation and practice of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation/spelling with the four skills. This practice is related to the theme discussed previously in the Listen and Consider or the Read and Consider *rubric* in the unit.

- Each unit is followed by an evaluation grid to check on the learner's progress. It reviews students' knowledge of the language items presented in the unit and tests their ability to use the skills and strategies through reading passages/texts that appear at the end of the coursebook.

- At the end of **The New Prospects**, following items are included:

a. Listening Scripts

The listening scripts for all listening tasks in the units can be used by the students in class to correct their own work.

b. Grammar reference

This is a rubric to which students are referred for the sake of reinforcing their understanding of the grammar point by revising and checking whenever necessary. This will foster autonomy and will make it easier for them to keep on learning after classes.

c. Resources portfolio

This section aims at making learners maximise their language learning experience. The resources portfolio contains a number of texts which correspond thematically to the texts in the units and present topic-related reading tasks for both skimming and scanning purposes. In each of the six units, the focus is on an area of knowledge which develops a specific use of English. *The New Prospects* is designed in such a way that a number of units among the six is designed for a specific stream. This is agreed on by inspectors/teachers. That means that the students need not work on all six units. The themes in the coursebook are as follows:

A/*Ancient civilizations*, **B/***Ethics in business*, **C/** *Education in the world*: comparing educational systems, **D/** *Advertising, consumers and safety*, **E/** *Astronomy and the solar syst*em, **F/** *Feelings and emotions*. Each unit is structured as follows:

7.3. A Micro Analysis of Unit 1: *'Ancient Civilisations' (*Exploring the Past)

a/ **Listen and Consider**

First of all, this sequence is designed in a way to provide learners with the different steps of teaching a lesson. According to the teachers' book of SE3, it starts with a listening activity in which learners are invited to observe thematic pictures in order to get an idea about the new topic. This activity helps students comprehend the background knowledge of the topic and prepare them for the coming listening script. Listening to the script is meant to help students first, to listen for a purpose then to have an idea about the language used in the text preparing them for the coming grammar point activity. As such, students are supposed to have had a larger view about the theme, the time, the place, and the general ideas that encompass keywords and new lexis and generally the grammar point mentioned in the *Preview*.

Installing knowledge of the subject matter while the listening activity, would build a great deal of cognitive structures in students and get them ready for tasks that

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concentrate on features of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling. As a result, the comprehension of the theme together with the understanding of the language points that includes language vocabulary, sounds and spelling are the features that lead students to identify the structure of discourse related to a listening phase of a whole unit, thus, identifying both devices and strategies to create their own discourse.

In fact, this unit includes the *think, pair, share* rubric to provide learners with this opportunity. This rubric requires learners to work in collaboration to interact together to exchange ideas with the help of the teacher then produce individual pieces of writing such as a dialogue, a short article, a description, a narration, a poem, etc. to be presented orally to the class which is the aim of the sequence.

b/ Read and Consider

Just like the Listen and Consider rubric, *Read and Consider* main objective is to develop the reading skill as it is supported by similar texts in the resources portfolio for extensive reading in.

In this sequence learners start by the brainstorming task through which, they are introduced to the first points of the lesson. It requires brainstorming students about the current topic where learners' background knowledge is activated as they are involved in a variety vocabulary and language structures related to the same topic. According to the instruction in the teachers' book, through this pre-reading activity, the students will build schematic knowledge necessary to understand the text and to use in other situations like in the writing activity.

The following rubric, *Taking a closer look,* involves reading the text and answering comprehension questions. It involves not only looking at its content, but also at its form. Two types of exploring activities are provided stemming from the text studied in the *Around the text* rubric: *Grammar explorer* and *Vocabulary explorer*. *Grammar explorer* comprises up to three levels of activities (I, II, III) of graded difficulty, and its main purpose is to study the grammar of the text: the students will be involved in awareness-raising activities related to tenses, prepositional verbs, etc. They will also be given an opportunity to produce messages in correct English. These accuracy-based activities end with a production task which is also meant to focus the learner's attention on grammatical correctness.

Vocabulary explorer (I, II, III,…) caters for the student's vocabulary building skills followed by *Pronunciation and spelling* that also deals with language-related tasks, specifically pointing to the phoneme-grapheme correspondence in English.

Similarly, *Think, pair, share* rubric focuses on individual work, pair work and group work, and generates interaction between group members with the guidance and the necessary intervening of the teacher.

This sequence ends with *Take a break* rubric in which learners are introduced with light jokes, proverbs, songs, etc denoting An intercultural dimension as a means to pointing to other people's experiences in their own milieus. This is a moment for students to relax before moving on to the next sequence.

Research and Report rubric deals mainly with learners' outcomes, i.e., behavioural outcomes. The tasks are assigned to students to work on (individually, in pairs, or in groups). A number of written/oral tasks are suggested: newspaper articles, short stories poems, speeches, etc. Like in *Think, pair, share, this rubric* encourages interaction/negotiation of meaning, and it is a good preparation for the final major task, i.e. the project.

C/ Listening and Speaking

This sequence includes four main rubrics. The first one *Skills and strategies outcomes* is a preview of the communicative objectives to be achieved by the students. In this rubric, a number of receptive strategies are activated. Students, in this part of the sequence, are moving from language-based study to discourse-oriented learning, and the student is accordingly requested to move from language analysis to discourse analysis. Therefore, the aim is to 'unlock', or 'unpack' texts to look into relations of cohesion and coherence, at lexical chains, etc. It is the examination of the logical relations between sentences in a text that will make students discover the connotative import of discourse (E.g. mood, tone) and trace 'underside meanings'.

Before listening is a rubric that prepares the students for the understanding of an aural text through pre-listening activities, and thus allow her/him to predict content through a set of questions. *As you listen* is a rubric which includes activities requesting learners to listen for gist, for detail, and to check their expectations/inferences, confirm

them or reject them. *After listening* is a post-listening stage which involves activities of a more intensive nature.

Unlike pre-listening activities which focus on top-down thinking through prediction of content (from a picture, for example), *post-listening* activities deal with bottom-up listening and help students to give shape and significance to the texts. Thus, they can construct a plan from notes and summarize the content. After listening activities, other skills such as speaking, reading and writing can be practised.

Saying it in Writing rubric is a kind of learning how to develop an oral discourse guided by particular tasks. It prepares the students for the next section which is *Reading and writing;* a stage that follows logically from this one.

d/ Reading and Writing sequences start with *Skills and strategies outcomes*, a rubric that defines the objectives to be achieved by the students (linguistic, communicative, cognitive), and the levels of reception and production of a message expected.

Before reading, As you Read, and *After reading* focus on the students' use of their skimming and scanning skills to make sense of authentic and semi-authentic materials. The students will first activate their pre-existing knowledge to make predictions about the topic. In many cases, they will also be required to identify the structure of the text, infer meaning, identify inferences from context and follow up abstract ideas.

Writing Development is the last skill rubric in which the students will have opportunity to express opinions, give reasons, present arguments through the available vocabulary sufficient for this stage, and grammatical command as well as the required skills and strategies to do the writing tasks. The writing activities which have been suggested earlier, reflect real-life tasks, such as writing simple reports, brief articles, formal and informal letters, etc. the following is about learning-and-doing outcomes.

About the project: As said in the foreword to the Student's Book, the project procedure is supposed to be worked on during the unit progress. It is the visible activity of the students' competencies of the whole unit. The follow-up between two sessions is assumed to be done by the students, as a group, outside the classroom.

Above was a discussion on the content of the Algerian third year education English textbook *The New Prospect*. The difference in units lies in the nature of the content however, the order and design of the content structure is the same for all the units.

The above discussed unit is a unit that is designed for foreign language learners. It was chosen to be analysed because English is an essential subject in this stream.

8.   Research Tools Relevance

This study was conducted through three research tools a survey questionnaire, a classroom observation, and a brief textbook evaluation with regard to the teachers' book. The researcher found it relevant going through such different research tools because they are interrelated one to another to support the empirical portion and to reinforce the validity of this study. The questionnaire with its different sections questioning teachers about the overall teaching/learning of EFL (EFL approaches, learners' attitudes and motivation, and textbook content with regard to the curriculum) was of great importance in building the support for classroom observation procedure in that it enables to compare the teachers' feedback in both data collection tools. The questionnaire, as it was rich in the subject matter of this study, it encompasses almost all the different points tackled by teachers using the textbook. Thus, the multiple methods help in drawing the relationship among teachers' views of teaching/learning through the current approaches with the classroom participants behaviour and the content of the textbook which is supposed to be the guide for both participants (the teacher and the learner).

Conclusion

This chapter clarified the methodology of practice for this research, in which a mixed-method approach was adopted. Learners in three different streams and six separate classes were observed for more than a month in two secondary schools in two different regions in Chlef Province during the first trimester. Following the same logic, six teachers of a variety of degrees of experience were also observed as regards the methodology adopted by each one of them. Data will be analysed and discussed in the following chapter. The literature reviewed earlier will serve as the support upon which we will build our data analysis and results in discussion.

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the data collected for this study. It presents all the findings related to the three research tools; the teachers' questionnaire, the classroom observation, and the textbook evaluation. It is divided into three parts: the first part will deal with the teachers' questionnaire, discuss its results then provide a conclusion. The second part will be about the results we obtained from the classroom observation, through which the three hypotheses will be examined. The third part will analyse the content of the third year English textbook *The New prospect* that includes a sample unit of the book to be analysed with a couple of activities, then discussed. The chapter ends with some recommendations to support teachers' classroom language teaching/learning, followed by the conclusion.

1.   The Questionnaire

1.1. Teachers' Experience and Qualification

Teachers in this research were optionally asked to include their names. Concerning their qualifications, they had almost the same educational background with three (Licence LMD) to four years (Licence BA) or five years (Masters MA) of English studies and from five to 21 years of teaching experience.

1.2. Teachers' Perception, Attitudes and Objectives in FL Learning

This *section* addresses teachers and questions, first their personal view of foreign language teaching in terms of perception, attitude, objectives for learning an FL, the extent to which they are satisfied with the overall pedagogy followed in FL teaching. Second, it enquires about their knowledge of L2 discourse. It includes five sections with three multiple-choice answers which were classified as follows.

Table 12: Perceptions of the Importance of English (EFL)

No	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	English is an important part of the school programme	10	/	/
2	English is unquestionably the most important medium for international communication nowadays	10	/	/
3	English is an essential part of the education of any citizen in the 21st Century.	10	/	/
4	English is a key for accessing knowledge about science and technology	10	/	/

The table above reflects teachers' perceptions of the importance of English language teaching as all of the teachers acknowledge this importance. All the teachers questioned confirm and insist that English is unquestionably the most important medium for international communication nowadays as it is an essential part of education in the 21st century. They also validate it as a tool for access to science and technology.

Table 13: Attitudes toward Learning English

N	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	I want my learners to aim for fluency in English	10	/	/
2	I want my learners to learn as much English as possible and to continue to learn even when they leave school	10	/	/
3	I want my learners to enjoy learning English	10	/	/
4	I want my learners to take my English classes seriously	10	/	/
5	Some learners clearly believe that learning English is boring	02	02	06
6	To some learners, learning English is a waste of time	07	03	
7	They'd rather spend their time on subjects other than English	07	03	/
8	Some of my learners find English difficult to learn	10	/	/
9	Personally, I would be happy if English became a second language and replaced French in all aspects of life in Algeria	07	/	03

Table 'B' includes the attitudes towards learning English. All the teachers want their learners to enjoy learning English. Their classes aim at making learners reach proficiency in English and continue that even after schooling. Although the ten of them indicate that some learners find difficulty to learn English, three of them were not really sure that their learners reject learning English. In this section also, seven of the teachers prefer that English replaces French as a second language whereas three of them disagree.

Table 14: Teachers' Objectives for Learning English

No	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
2	I expect my learners to hold the view that English will make them better educated and more knowledgeable citizens	06	02	02
3	I expect my learners to say that knowledge of English will enable them to gain more respect	04	/	06
4	I expect my learners to say that they are studying English first and foremost because it is a very useful international language	10	/	/
5	I expect my learners to say that when they leave school, they will stop studying English completely because they won't need it	/	03	07
6	I expect my learners to agree that English will be useful to them for travelling abroad	10	/	/
7	I expect my learners to say that they need English to use the Internet (Facebook, YouTube, etc.)	08	02	/
8	I expect my learners to hold the view that knowledge of English can increase their chances of success in life	08	02	/

In this table, for some questions, there is a considerable percentage reflects teachers' negative attitudes towards considering learning English such as gaining knowledge, respect and success in life. However, almost all of them reveal an instrumental orientation for learners to learn English. For them, English is a useful international language where, getting a good job in the future, travelling abroad, accessing the Internet, increasing their chances in lives would enable them to be more knowledgeable citizens. This view is supported by almost all of the teachers confirming that they expect their learners to keep learning English even after schooling.

Table 15: Teachers' Attitudes towards the Overall English Teaching

No	Items	Yes	Neither/Nor Satisfied	No
1	The overall quality of English teaching in your school		07	03
2	The overall content of the English programme / syllabus		03	07
3	How the prescribed English textbooks deal with English culture.	03	03	04
4	Your learners' progress in English reading and writing		05	05
5	Your learners' progress in English listening and speaking	02	03	05
6	Your learners' overall competence in English which they have acquired at school		08	02
7	That the amount of support and encouragement that you are able to give to your learners is adequate/ sufficient	03		07

Questioning teachers' satisfaction with English teaching, its content in the syllabus, textbooks and culture implementation, learners' language skills, and the adequacy of their support for learners, the table above covers all their answers. Only two of the teachers show satisfaction concerning the learners' overall competence in English listening/speaking skills and only three teachers agree on the amount of support teachers devote to learners whereas almost all of them reveal dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction concerning the overall quality of English teaching in their school as well as its content in the syllabus is clearly shown through the great amount of percentage in the table above.

Table 16: Attitudes toward Speaking English in Class (Confidence Level)

No	Statements	Yes	Neutral	No
1	Grammatical mistakes are systematically corrected in class	10		
2	Pronunciation mistakes are also immediately corrected	10		
3	Most of my learners are happy to join in and answer questions in the class	06		04
4	Most of my learners don't get nervous or embarrassed when they speak English in class	10		
5	Most of my learners love speaking English in class. They think it is great fun!	04		06

Table two might suggest high percentages (all of the teachers) imply that teachers systematically correct their learners' mistakes of pronunciation and grammar in class. By this, they confirm that their learners are motivated to participate in English class, and they bear no feeling of embarrassment when they speak. This particular result shows teachers' satisfaction with their learners' performance in the classroom.

The following *section* is designed for teachers' opinions about Algerian secondary school pedagogy and its implementation. Some of the questions are answered using personal knowledge, while the others were guided (with multiple choice answers).

1.3. Teachers' Knowledge of Discourse Importance in FL Learning/Teaching

a.   How would you define the term Discourse?

Teacher1: 'Communication and interaction; to make your students independent users of English, communicate with them. Make English a living language and not just another school subject.'
Teacher 2: 'Discourse is spoken language, a serious speech about a given topic.'
Teacher 3: 'It is a serious speech or discussion between a teacher and his/her learners in a class.'
Teacher 4: 'Discourse is when a speaker conveys a message through his language.'
Teacher 5: 'It is a language that we communicate within conversations.'

b. **According to you, what is a competent speaker?**

Teacher1: 'Speak fluently and develops confidence in his ability to speak.'
Teacher2*:* 'Someone who has the ability to speak a language well.'
Teacher3*:* 'S/he is able to communicate in English fluently through his/her conscious listening.'
Teacher 4: 'A speaker who can express himself to others.'

c. What is the importance of discourse in foreign language learning?

Teacher1: 'Learners need to learn English to speak to foreigners.'
Teacher2: 'Learners learn how to deliver a discourse to use it when searching for a job abroad.'
Teacher3: 'They need it to talk to foreign speakers and to write academic job application letters.'
Teacher 4: 'A learner when travelling abroad, he can talk in English fluently using the target language.'
Teacher 5: 'It is important in the sense that it helps to understand the teacher's questions and instruction, as well as texts in exams and tests'

d. What is the role of classroom discourse in FL learning?

Teacher1: 'Students in the classroom depend a lot on written discourses for its importance in paragraph writing in exams.
Teacher2: 'Classroom discourse helps learners to develop their speaking and writing skill as well.'
Teacher3: 'Classroom discourse means classroom interaction. Learners get involved in participation with each other.'

All of the questioned teachers had an interest that English should be used and their answers to the above questions reveal that. For question (a), all of them agree that

discourse is language use whether individually or between two persons or more. In question (b), answers were almost the same in that they see that *Competency* in speaking refers to fluency in using English. Although teachers agree that discourse is language use, in question (c), they limit discourse as a means to deal with a native or a foreigner either to search for a job or to communicate other matters the same as they viewed it in the second section of the questionnaire. In question (d), teachers see the role of classroom discourse in developing the learners' writing skill. They see its importance in written exams, especially in paragraph writing.

Therefore, teachers' answers, in the four questions reveal their understanding of discourse as language use as they value its importance in FL learning. However, their views appear superficial. Teachers' understanding of discourse in foreign language and EFL in general reveal characterize their awareness of discourse importance to a language learner; there is a narrow understanding of discourse that calls for developing learners' writing skill which thus, marks the instrumental motif to learn a language.

1.4. Multiple Choice Questions

Table 17: Question 1 Language Skill Teaching Focus:

Teachers	Choices			
	Listening	Speaking	reading	writing
1			X	
2				X
3				X
4		X		
5				X
6				X

Table 1 shows that most teachers focus more on the writing skill to teach learners than on the other skills like reading and speaking.

Table 18: Question 2 Grammar Teaching Method:

Teachers	Choices	
	Bottom-up	Top-down
1	X	
2		X
3		X
4		X
5		X

In this table, teachers' preference in teaching English is biased towards using top-down approach rather than the bottom-up one.

Table 19: Question 3 Discourse Competence Dependence

Teachers	Choices	
	Knowledge of language	**Communication**
1	X	
2	X	
3	X	
4	X	
5	X	
6	X	
7		X
8		X

This table reveals almost a total agreement of teachers that knowledge of language is the focus in English language teaching. The six of them agree on that a competent speaker's knowledge comes from rules of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Only two of the teachers see that through communication a learner learns to produce his own discourse.

Table 20: Question 4 The Influence of Arabic on L2 Discourse Development

Teachers	Choices	
	Yes	**No**
1		X
2		X
3		X
4		X
5		X
6		X
7		X
8		X

Though Arabic is used in all the subjects programmed for learners in the whole week besides at home, it never constituted an obstacle to learning how to use English according to the teachers questioned in this study. Nevertheless, L1 interferes regularly throughout the lessons as learners code switch in the classroom.

Table 21: Question 5 Teaching Structures of Language v.s Teaching Discourse

Teachers	Choices	
	Structure	**Idea behind language**
1	X	
2	X	
3		X
4	X	
5	X	
6	X	
7	X	
8		X
9		X

In this table, half of the teachers are interested to teach structures of language in teaching English and half of them see the teaching of English through teaching the idea behind language.

Table 22: Question 6 Learners' Use of L1/French Writings Production:

Teachers	Choices	
	Yes	**No**
1		X
2		X
3		X
4		X
5		X
6		X
7		X
8		X
9		X

The table indicates that all teachers agree on that using words from L1 or L2 (French) in written paragraphs is not allowed.

Table 23: Question 7 Learners' Use of L1 in Interaction

Teachers	Choices		
	Yes	No	Only when necessary
1		X	
2		X	
3		X	
4		X	
5			X
6			X
7			X
8			X
9			X
10			X

The majority of teachers in this table show agreement on learners' use of L1 to talk or ask questions when necessary while four of them reveal disagreement on the fact.

Table 23: Question 8 Errors Correction during Speaking

Teachers	Choices	
	While	After
1	X	
2		X
3		X
4		X
5		X
6		X
7		X
8		X
9		X

Teachers prefer not to correct learners' mistakes while talking. They would rather, correct them after they finish.

Table 23: Question 9 Teachers' Attitudes towards Teenagers' English in the Chat Rooms

Teacher	Choices		
	Vague	Informal	Lacks rules of grammar
1			X
2		X	
3	X		
4	X		
5		X	
6		X	

The tables, here, reveals teachers opinions about the English people use in the chat rooms. Six of the teachers' indicate that this language is vague, informal and lacks rules of grammar.

Table 26: Question 10 The Advantages of Learners' Exposure to Native Speakers:

Teachers	Choices	
	Yes	No
1	X	
2	X	
3	X	
4	X	
5	X	
6	X	
7	X	
8	X	
9	X	

In this table, teachers totally agree on that English in the chat rooms is beneficial for learners' discourse development. All of the teachers answered with yes for the benefits learners gain as they are exposed to native speakers in the social networking

Table 27: Question 11 Learners' Types of Errors:

Teachers	Choices		
	Gram. Mistakes	Pronunciations mistake	Vague ideas
1		X	
2		X	
3		X	
4	X		
5	X		
6	X		
7	X		
8	X		

The table indicates that learners' discourse is problems at both levels pronunciation and grammar what explains teachers' choices in the table.

Question 12: How do you evaluate the CBA (Competency-based approach) to language teaching

Teacher1: "stop teaching them, let them learn". I think that this approach is important. It encourages individual students to attempt a higher level of knowledge."

Teacher2: "CBA could be effective with classes of less than 20 pupils. Large classes are really an obstacle to work with such an approach"

Teacher3: "I guess it is not suitable in most of Algerian classes owing to lack of teaching materials such as computers, labs, data show, etc."

Teacher 4: "This approach does not work with large classes like those we have."

Teacher 5: "This approach works in Europe and other developed countries where learning."

Teacher 6: "The CBA is an approach that was brought from abroad. It was implemented by persons who do not practise teaching. Teachers are the ones who should be invited to participate in the reforms related to language teaching."

Teacher 7: "this approach is interesting in teaching a foreign language in that it encourages learners' autonomy and creates pedagogical room for learners to express themselves individually or through interactions with their peers."

Teacher 8: "the CBA cannot succeed in our schools because implementing it requires small pedagogical groups where each learner can be individually evaluated throughout classes and given chances to talk and express his interests. In large classes, however, conversations, dialogues, group work, etc. that is, all communicative tasks cannot be done in a limited time."

In this question, all the teachers agree on the effectiveness of the CBA and that it creates chances for learners to improve their knowledge and performance of the target language, however, all of them mention the difficulty in implementing it in the Algerian context. Teachers describe the CBA as an important approach that enhances learners' language competence and encourages autonomy. Nevertheless, this approach prevents knowledge achievement in large classes. Some of the teachers were even against the implementation of the approach since it does not cope with the Algerian situation.

Table 28: Question 13 Teachers' Preferences in Teaching Language:

Teachers	Choices		
	GTM	**CLT**	**Audio-lingual M.**
1		X	
2		X	
3			X
4		X	
5		X	
6		X	

Table 13 shows teachers total agreement on the fact that communication was the best objective to teaching English: almost all of them voted for CLT as the best approach.

The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire allowed us to draw the following conclusions: The ten teachers in this research state that English is unquestionably the most important medium for international communication nowadays as it is an essential part of education in the 21st century. They also validate it as a tool for an access to science and technology. This section then, provides clear evidence that secondary school teachers in this study value the role of discourse and interaction in FL learning.

However, their answers above contradict what really delivering a discourse means, that is, language is meant to be used to achieve communicative purposes. Teachers' answers also reveal their dissatisfaction towards the teaching methods applied in Algeria that lack the appropriate conditions to apply; learners do not meet natives nor are they regularly exposed to real-life contents. Although they show the importance of both English language learning and discourse competence for communication, teachers in this research restrict the latter to either writing a job application or talking to foreigners.

English in Algeria is taught as a foreign language to learners who are supposed to meet native speakers and interact with them to develop their communication skill, unfortunately, it is not the case; learners improve their English level to speak and write in the chat rooms, web sites, and the social media but in informal way, that is, almost not understood since such settings of practice gather English speakers coming from different parts of the world. This speaking and writing skill which are learnt from those settings are applied in the classroom; learners use the informal and abbreviated language to speak and write.

Although, limitations to this particular data collection tool were marked by teachers' unwillingness to do all the job of answering all the questions, the findings and conclusion of this section could provide us with the big picture of teachers' ways and awareness of the classroom pedagogy of EFL. The findings of the questionnaire will certainly help us determine the objective of the classroom observation in that we will take teachers' views into consideration to analyse what is going on between teachers and learners in the classroom. Our focus will also be on teachers' instruction; what strategies and measurements they plan to achieve learners' communicative competence.

2. Classroom Observation

This section presents the findings of the classroom observation concerning classroom discourse and interaction. Its analysis will follow two methods: the first part will quantitatively analyse the frequency occurrence of *teachers' talk*, *the types of classroom discourse structure*, and *the teacher's questioning*. Whereas the second part will be qualitatively analysed and mentioned in different points that the researcher observed during classes.

The teacher-learner talk is the first element to be tackled here, for the researcher found that in all the classrooms observed, talk is an important element that draws on the other classroom aspects. After a discussion of the teacher-learner talk, results of types of classroom discourse structure (IRF) will be highlighted followed by the presentation of the results from the types of questions. In the six classes, the average time measured is 30 minutes because the other portions of the class time is always distributed between administrative procedures, writing on copybooks/board, arranging students, etc.

2.1. Result of the Amount of Teacher Talk

2.1.1. **The Dominance of Teacher's Talk**

Table1. *Amount of Teacher Talk*

Regions	Classes	T-Talk Time/min	T-Talk Time Percentage (%)	S-Talk Time/min	S-Talk Time Percentage (%)
Chlef	E.S class	18	60	12	40
Chlef	FL class	22	60	8	40
Chlef	L. class	25	85	5	15
Oued Fodda	E.S class	20	60	10	40
Oued Fodda	FL class	18	60	12	40
Oued Fodda	L. class	25	70	5	30
Total/ Number of classes	Results	21.33	65.83	8.66	34.16

Table 1 shows that the amount of teacher's talk time exceeds that of students' in all the classes. The amount of teacher and students talk is identified in terms of streams and regions. In Chlef city, students-talk exceeds that of the students' in Oued Fodda village in the scientific (E.S) and literary (L.) streams except in the FL classes (which is not always the case). Similarly, the teacher's amount of talk in the six classes is different across streams and regions. The difference is that, in for instance E.S stream, brilliant students try to participate as they do in the other subjects what requires the teacher to give them opportunity to talk.

However, these E.S classes do not do all the time. In their last year, they prefer save all efforts to the Baccalaureate exam. Thus, the classroom interaction in all classes appears to be initiated either by the teachers or a rarely participation by a small number of students.

Measuring talk in the classroom, the observation proves that in the investigated classes, the regular classroom events necessitates the teacher's talk so, s/he unintentionally occupies most of the talk in her/his classes regardless the streams; in the very beginning of the class, he manages the pupils (call names, prepare books, copybooks, etc) and arranges the pedagogical settings to start the lesson. After that, he warms up students in order to get them involves in the lesson then presents the lesson and start asking questions or giving instructions according to his methodology expecting students'

interaction. Throughout the lesson, activities are the practical side of the lesson where the teacher explains the content of the tasks guides students to find solutions and assist them when it comes to group and pair work.

All these pedagogical steps occur through the teacher's talk and it can be maximised if the interaction takes place to reinforce the content of the lesson (in the case of slow learners). However, as the classroom interaction is an important aspect of the learning process, it is supposed to be conducted and built through both the teacher and learners' contributions to the classroom talk and it should not focus only on the teacher's talk. A good teacher maximises students' talking time (STT) and minimises teachers' talking time (TTT) (Harmer, 2008).

2.2. Result of Types of Classroom Discourse Structure

2.2.1. *The Dominance of IRF Structure*

As stated by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the teacher applies the maximum amount of control over classroom discourse when the discourse structure followed is taken by the teacher. Table 2 shows similar characteristics with Sinclair and Coulthard's findings.

Table 30: Types of Classroom Discourse Structure

Regions	Classes	IRF Structure		Other Structures	
		Number/ 30min	Percentage (%)	Number/ 30min	Percentage (%)
Chlef (City)	E.S class	15	50	8	10
	FL class	20	80	3	
	L. class	20	80	5	
Oued Fodda (Town)	E.S class	25	95	6	
	FL class	20	85	2	
	L. class	15	50	2	
Results	Results	**18.33**	**73**	**4.33**	

In this study, as the table reveals, IRF structure is observed to take a large section in the six classes with regards to the different streams and regions and students' levels. The following is an example of IRF structure found in one of the six classrooms.

Example1:

        T: From which period? (Initiation)

        S: "The Ottoman". (Response)

        T: Yes, it is the Ottoman period, thank you. (Feedback)

In this exchange, the teacher initiated a question, the student responded with one word, and the teacher provided a feedback confirming the student's answer. Though the exchange seemed dialogic, it doesn't require a discussion because the teacher's feedback signalled the end of talk and passed to another question.

For long, the IRF has been broadly used by researchers as a practical type of classroom sequencing to examine educational discourse. Following Ellis (1994), teachers control the classroom discourse and occupy the first part of the three-phase IRF exchange by asking many questions. However, the third part of the three phases is also taken by the teacher and even if it is for students' feedback, it may occupy the whole classroom time as the teacher has other different talks.

Also, such kinds of discourse structures seem ideal in the Algerian secondary school context, at least from the part of the student; when the teacher receives no complete answer, s/he finds her/himself completing the answer and appending to it a feedback to students who do not participate. Such structures do not prove beneficial unless, in purpose, the teacher prepares particular types of questions, where he either tests students' memory or challenges it:

Example 2:

        T: What are the different heritage places abroad?

        S: Chinese, Egyptian, Sumerian

        T: Great!

        T: Can you classify them according to their emergence?

        S: Sumerian, Egyptian, Chinese, Greek..

        T: excellent that is the order!

                (Excerpts from current classroom observation)

Therefore, it is clear that IRF structure is dominant in High school FL classrooms in Chlef city and Oued Fodda town. In IRF structure, the teacher has two turns, while the student has only meagre one. It demonstrates the insufficiency of students' opportunities to practise English.

2.3. Result of Teachers' Choice of Questions

Again, the teacher occupies the classroom talk through his types of questions. S/he uses more information-seeking (display) questions than reflective (referential) questions. The frequency occurrence of the two types of questions used in almost all the six classes is listed in Table 3.

2.3.1. The Dominance of Display Questions

Table 31: Frequency Use of Display Questions and Referential Questions

Regions	Classes	Frequency of Display Questions		Frequency of Referential Questions	
		Number/30mn	Percentage (%)	Number/30mn	Percentage (%)
Chlef	E.S Classes	8	45	10	55
	FL Classes	15	60	5	40
	L. Classes	15	60	6	40
Oued Fodda	E.S Classes	8	50	8	50
	FL Classes	10	50	10	50
	L. Classes	20	75	2	25
	Results	12.66	56.66	6.83	43.33

Table 3 indicates that display questions and referential questions are differently used in the six classes. They differ in terms of streams and learners motivation with regards to their subject matter. Display questions work well in streams like FL and Literary classes:

Example 3:

> T: What are the different heritage places in Algeria?
> S: They are 7; Djamila, Timgad..
> S: seven
> S: seven places
> T: yes, good!
>
> (Excerpts from current classroom observation)

While students in the same streams do not do well in referential questions and the teacher tries to mix between all the types of questions in order to push students to talk.

Example 4:

> T: This lesson is about civilization, what do we mean by civilization?
> S: ehh mm civ..
> T: yes, come on, what do you think civilisation is?
> T: Is it history? Is it tradition?
> S1: traditions and styles
> T: Your friend says style, great!
> S2: it's life styles
> T: yes it is life style and....?
> S: and traditions
> T: yes, good
>
> (Excerpts from current classroom observation)

Referential questions on the other hand, work well in E.S (scientific) classes:

Example 5:

> T: Have a look at the pictures, what do you call this?
> S: touristic guide
> T: great!
> T: What does it include?
> S: ruins
> S : buildings
> T: Has any one of you already visited these places?
> S: No!
> S: No, unfortunately!
>
> (Excerpts from current classroom observation)

As for the scientific streams, students reflect on their previous knowledge to answer referential questions. However, as shown in the above examples they answer briefly for each question; one word was enough from a small number of brilliant students. Perhaps, then, reasons behind poor performance even with brilliant students may not lie in the teachers' types of discourse itself but may be behind the previous learning of English.

In reaction to this, for all students when there is a shortage in participation, the teacher usually moves to another question to save the interaction. The conversation continues poor as such then ends in a short time leaving the role to the teacher to ask and answer the rest of the question then end the conversation. In this case, the teacher turns to display questions to increase learners' participation and avoid time consumption. Display questions are direct and require, generally, *copybook* and *memory check* which don't require learners more efforts in formulating correct sentences.

In this respect, according to Maclure and French (1980, cited by Johnson, 1995) teachers use two interactive strategies to help increase students' participation. The first strategy, *per-formulation* as in *example 3* when he repeats what students say to fill in the other ones' answers gap. The second strategy is *reformulation* as in the same *example* that involves rephrasing the question so that it becomes simple and clear or giving clues so that the learner builds on his answer such as the example:

Example 6

> T: What is the meaning of inherit?
>
> S1: money
>
> T: yes, can you clarify more?
>
> S: ehh, mmm
>
> T: what do civilisations leave for people?
>
> S: Someone take money of his father for example.
>
> T: yes, but only money?
>
> S: ehhh ....(no answer)
>
> T: Remember Djmila, Timgad...!
>
> S: heritage
>
> T: yes, that's it, excellent!

Referential questions which are usually used for *information gaps,* they pave the way for an exchange of ideas among the teachers and learners and conducts participation among learners since they require longer structures of speech than display questions do. Display questions, on the other hands are usually asked for existing information, "*memory check, confirmation checks* or *clarification requests* (Long and Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986, cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1998).

Eventually, this investigation indicates that referential questions generally reduce learners' participation and speech and limit interaction for many reasons such as the lack of vocabulary, grammatical errors and anxiety problems whereas, display questions regardless the different streams and classes, get learners involved in conversations and interactions where they reuse already existed information, paraphrase each others' answers, check copybook keys or check their memories for previous lessons. In the end, they will all have very good marks for the participation.

In short, in either of referential or display questions use, there are a number of elements that should be considered when teaching/learning in order to conduct an appropriate conversation that involves the whole class to interact such as the learners' aim in learning English; the stream, the socio-cultural background, and more importantly the world current changes and development; the English used in the social networking with a diversity of foreign speakers became part of learners' lives.

Furthermore, it is the classroom daily contexts that decide which type of questioning to use at what particular time and for what objectives each of them fits the EFL classroom discourse because learners at the secondary school even FL classes do have other subjects where they may invest all their efforts at the expense of English classes.

As mentioned above, this observation followed both a quantitative and qualitative method of analysis. Since the first part was analysed quantitatively, the following part will be qualitatively presented. The classroom is a complex variety of events that regularly happen and differently appear every session that they may be ignored by the teacher himself. The researcher could not prevent herself from observing a number of patterns of classroom interaction and questioning that occurred during the designed observation. She could also have a brief discussion with some pupils concerning EFL learning. The following remarks are related to students of both institutions Chlef city and Oued Fodda town).

- At the beginning of the class, there is always an attempt to attract learners' attentions in order to link smoothly the last lesson with the new one by using reflective questions however, teachers usually ends in turning to display questions according to the class they have, if it was scientific, things work much better with referential questions while a communication blocks when it comes with literary streams and even with foreign language classes.

- With literary classrooms, some teachers seem to get the habit to deal with display questions and direct conversations to augment learners' input and participation. Generally, this, results in a successful interaction among learners and the teacher that lasts for almost all the time devoted for the lesson.

- It is said that display questions require very short answers (Brock, 1986, cited in Nunan, 1989). However, it was observed that some display questions require learners

to speak for one to two minutes. Sometimes there is even an interaction among learners, and although they use their mother tongue, learners tend to speak more, especially when the topic interests them.

- In some classes, especially the scientific ones, questions were not always undertaken by the teacher. Learners tried a lot to initiate a fruitful interaction among them or with the teacher discussing interesting topics. Sometimes they even end the whole session asking the teacher and enjoying their lesson.

- One of the reasons behind teachers initiating display questions is that the grammatical/syntactical nature of certain activities requires understanding check through short answers and already-existing information.

- Most of referential questions asked by teachers concerned personal knowledge such as the family, ideas about society, crime, work, education, etc, that are related to the students' everyday-life but only some brilliant students interact. Less motivated/slow learners participate in the interaction only when asked by names and encouraged by the teacher. That may show that the nature of the topic being discussed is not really what prevents learners from getting engaged in interaction.

- Not all answers to referential questions were long and meaningful. It was observed that lots of grammatical mistakes and insufficient specific vocabulary characterize learners' output, even with good students; that means that the type of questions the teacher uses do not hinder learners' language outcome but perhaps learners' command of English itself that makes a difference.

- It was observed that learners were much influenced by the subject matter they are concerned with in terms of streams; FL learners, for instance, were more interested in English as a subject since it is part of the BAC examination where they focus only on pedagogical units (like Ancient Civilizations and Education) Scientific ones give importance to English for they see that all subjects should be studied equally in order to have a very good average; they spend most of the class time answering the two types of the questions.

- After one of the classes, the researcher tried to ask learners in different classes if they liked to study English language and almost all the pupils said no. Their reasons were different:

- I don't like English because it is boring.
- I don't like to study English because my teacher does not forgive mistakes.
- I don't want to study English because it is a secondary subject which I'm not in need of.
- I prefer studying the essential subjects for the Baccalaureate.
- I'm scientific; English is more or less a literary subject, studying it is a waste of time!
- I have never chosen to study foreign languages; my average in the BEM didn't allow me to choose so it was an obligation to study this stream!
- My mother and sister are teachers of English so I like to imitate them.
- I don't like this subject because I don't understand it, besides; the teacher uses English all the time.
- I chose to study foreign languages stream escaping philosophy.

Although only some of the school students answered the above question in that way, the researcher as being part of the educational staff, confirms that during more than eight years of teaching, we had many students with similar answers.

The analysis of the observed classes describes the characteristics of particular Algerian English classrooms. The findings show that the balance of talk for most of the classes is heavily weighted toward the teacher. Although teacher's talk is the medium of teaching and instruction that aims at improving communication, it still dominates high school English classes at both regions in Chlef province and occupies most of the classroom activities.

The IRF structure is frequently used by the teacher. Using this structure, the teacher was observed giving feedback, whenever a pupil answers, in order to provide as much as possible language points or new conceptual information. However, such an interaction was marked with unequal power relationships by unequal power opportunities for teachers and students to propose topics and take turns at speaking. The teacher, relying on this order, restrains students' opportunities to participate in classroom interaction and develop individual discourse. IRF sequence was criticised by Van Lier (1988) for being closed and inauthentic and does not necessitate negotiating meaning.

Display questions, on the other hands had its lion's share over referential questions in the investigated classes. This is also another reason for the imbalance between teacher's talk and student's one.

Real communication as defined by Harmer (2001) means learners are involved with their teacher and peers in spontaneous interaction reflecting on their understanding about the current topic, exchanging ideas negotiate meaning through a connected and fluent language that extends their conversation. Similarly, McCarthy (1991, p: 30), sees communication as dynamism, fluidity, variability, mixing and negotiation of meaning. Thus, it is only through a teacher-students and students-students interaction discussing their intake that communication is maintained. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) state**:**

> **There may be times when teacher's desire to get students to interact verbally can be counterproductive. Rather, it is important for teachers to adjust their teaching styles to learners' strategies.**

To recapitulate, the findings show that both high schools EFL classes of Chlef city and Oued Fodda town are still teacher-oriented. In the classroom, the teacher is the most active participant. It is the teacher who controls the subject matter, deciding whatsoever needed to be talked and arranging what the students should do, what, clearly, contradicts the current teaching approach of student centeredness. Therefore, the three hypotheses drawn in this research are confirmed; for the two first hypotheses, the teacher's talk controls the classroom aspects and events. It is present from the beginning of the lesson (managing the classroom, warming up), during (instruction, questioning) to the end of it (practice; discourse delivery, tasks and activities).

The third hypothesis was confirmed through teachers' arguments when asked by the researcher about the lack of innovation in their classes. During the period of observation which lasted for two months, there was no innovation at the level of teaching materials. The textbook, the lesson plan, and worksheets were the only pedagogical tools used in all classes by all teachers. However, materials such as ICTs (information and computing technology), were totally far from the teacher's use. Also, the researcher could have some discussion with teachers about pedagogical training as well as seminars; both high school teachers confirmed that seminars regularly take place by inspectors only

by the beginning of the academic year. However, seminars and pedagogical days are almost designed for coordinators who rarely meet their colleagues in an official day to transmit what they are informed with by inspectors; they generally share the information during the breaks. The researcher herself confirms that her last seminar attendance with the teacher trainer was in six years whereas the last inspector's visit to her was when she was transferred to another institution four years ago.

Perhaps, reasons behind learners' shortcomings in the EFL classes do not confine only to type of discourse used by teachers but it may exceeds this to the pedagogical issues related to the whole educational system.

3. The Textbook: *'New Prospect'*
3.1. Unit One: *'Ancient Civilization'*

To begin with, it should be mentioned that this textbook has already been used since long period before even the new recent educational reforms by the ministry of national education (2003). During observation, teachers were observed trying hard not to depend completely on the textbook in delivering lessons and practising tasks with their students. Perhaps novice teachers refer continuously to the textbook in their teaching yet experienced ones create their own content and adapt it with that of the textbook in order to promote each particular learning point and realise the learners' needs. However, what was confirmed during classes, the textbook still represents the teaching/learning material that both learners and teachers should regularly use.

Generally, *New Prospects* has been presented in such a way to provide students with all the content they need in order to achieve the objectives set by the syllabus design by the Ministry of national education that is the communicative use of the English language (the teachers' book). Its content follows a logical sequencing of all the pedagogical units and focuses mostly on accuracy then fluency. The lesson within *New Prospect* includes three phases: presentation, practice then production. Although most of the activities focus on language practice, language use is the main objective of the current teaching approaches that should be concentrated on.

Apparently, the unit, as was detailed in chapter five, outlines a diversity of tasks and activities reflecting real-life situation and getting students involved in to create their own linguistic content. The skills included in this course-book (listening, speaking,

reading and writing) are supposed to be realised through appropriate activities inspired by the competency-based approach that facilitates things for teachers to select and present them for students taking into consideration the related objectives in each stage of the lesson. However, preferences are always shown by learners when it comes to learning skills.

The listening skill for instance, materialized through the *Listen and Consider* and *Listening Speaking* sequences do not attract learners to concentrate on the content that the teacher presents. In the *while listening* phase, when learners are supposed to listen to a script to do a task, they directly go to the script in the end of the textbook to follow with the teacher turning the listening activity into a reading one.

With regard to the reading activity, in this unit, texts are very long and lack authenticity. Learners show less care; only a little number of students read the text silently but the other ones prefer talking with their classmates or even explore other subjects than reading the text. Being aware of this, the teacher, always asks third-year students to read the text in advance to facilitate things for them. However, this usually doesn't result in any feedback.

Language point in the *New Prospect* is designed to be taught in the same way; all the units as mentioned in the description earlier include grammar after providing learners with either a warm up activity on a particular topic or a written text in order to provide learners with the context needed to internalise language units. However, the context given represents no familiar background as the basis through which learners interact to build the grammatical structures needed. All the given texts are not authentic that they do not carry a real message behind but they seem as if they are narrating old stories about unknown people. Let's have an example:

Grammar explorer II (P: 17)

Consider sentences 1-3 below. Then answer questions A-B on the next page:

1. The Sumerians **had to** import many of the raw materials necessary for civilized.
2. They **were able to** control the Euphrates.
3. They **used to** barter their goods.

Questions:

A. What meaning does each of the items in bold type convey?

B. What are the negative and interrogative forms of the items in bold? *Illustrate them in sentences of your own.*

In this stage, grammar points are presented to be learnt and practised through the above sentences which were brought from the previous listening script. The objective here is to use the expression in bold to express obligation, necessity in the past, ability and habits in the past in order to speak about past events and narrate stories. However, the context given seems to serve no more than a semantic context for the grammatical expressions. The past events that surround the sentences here represent a bank of information to be used in the classroom practice only. They reflect no background for learners to enable them to bring back their own experiences to reflect on in classroom discussion, negotiate meaning and internalize a clear input.

According to Widdowson (2007, p: 4) a piece of language cannot be recognised as a text unless it is produced for communicative purposes. However, the texts within educational textbooks are written in the way they are according to a theme to be studied and analysed through classes. Learners are supposed to take from the narrative texts presented in this unit to fill in gaps within activities or to understand a grammar point only to use in written exams.

The writing phase of this unit in general, seems to be a source of boredom for students since it requires them to write paragraphs and essays that they do no not concentrate on when explained and conducted by the teacher during classes. Reasons to this may refer to students themselves in that they don't put much care of the writing skill. Yet, spending a long time listening to or reading a long piece of writing may be a reason for not concentrating. Some students claim that they do not understand the English that the teacher reads. Others state that they prefer to read from the book to understand rather than listening.

The lack of the appropriate teaching materials that facilitate things for the teacher like a recording device may better serve the situation and make the listening skill enjoyable for learners. Worksheets, colours or even paintings with shorter texts may also motivate learners. However, the time constriction devoted for the English session together with large classes make things worthless.

The communicative use of language is the main objective for syllabus designers. That is why, tasks integrated in this coursebook are designed to address learners' cognitive capacities following Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives; the surface levels involve knowledge, comprehension and application while the deeper levels of cognitive processing appeal to analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Thereby, every unit contains a number of tasks which have been designed to provide subject-matter knowledge, lower and high order thinking skills, reading strategies and compositional skills. These will enable the students to achieve proficiency in the three competencies, namely interaction, comprehension/interpretation and production.

However, in the analysis of the questionnaire, it was found that teachers show dissatisfaction with learners' use of English while classes. This, they refer, is due to problems at the level of the linguistic content (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.). It is also mentioned earlier in this evaluation that students when invited to participate in a warm up activity, they show interest by either concentrating on the listening script or by code-mixing answers using their mother tongue (Arabic).

Moreover, learners after they leave the classroom forget everything they have read or discussed with the teacher except a very small number of them who would have some information for the next lesson. Most of the students when understanding the topic being discussed, participate using their mother tongue. A lack of vocabulary and weaknesses at the level of grammar is clearly shown in their language outcomes.

It is worth mentioned that third year students do not bear a lot of importance to their textbook. As they were observed, they concentrate more on their copybooks (writing, revising, and refer to when questioned by the teacher). Although the teacher, from the beginning of the school year mentions the importance of the textbook, learners usually ask whether they use it or not in order to go out looking for it among other classes.

Learners do not prefer to bring their textbooks, for them the copybook is enough since it contains in keys and answers to activities, grammar rules, and written essays. Indeed, the copybook content is more favourable for revision than the textbook although the latter, as described previously, includes a lot of interesting contents related to their BAC examination (such as texts, pronunciation rules, lists of types of verbs conjugated, etc.). Thus, the textbook for the student is not considered a source of knowledge but an

annoying stuff that they should present to satisfy the teacher. With regard to the classroom observation, the textbook is a teaching material that concerns the teacher only.

Perhaps the main objective behind the textbook of SE3 which is preparing students to their final BAC examination influences both teachers' and learners' outcomes; at the end of the paper addressed to teacher-trainers, it was written:

> **'At all events, we hope that this coursebook will be a pleasant pedagogic tool, and a useful document to help our students in their progress towards success at the *Baccalaureate* examination.'**

The aim addressed which is the BAC exam gives the impression that the textbook in hand was designed to students so as to be a precious source of BAC revision and dependence. That means that the communicative objectives set in the textbook may be applied and help improve first and second year students in that they can have the whole course time to reflect on what they learn in classes, in contrast, with regard to third year classes, those objectives seem to be superficial.

3.2. **Let's hear it***: (Task 5 p: 17)*

*Instruction***:** Use as much information as you can from tasks 1, 2, and 3 on the previous page to complete the dialogue below. Pay attention to the framed information

3.2.1. Evaluation

Although this activity is intended to be an oral activity, it is entitled 'Let's hear it'; it is structured in a way that involves more writing than speaking. Further, instructions maintain that it is an individual work rather than dialogic. Thus, this task does not involve any interaction or negotiation of meaning among students. Moreover, students are supposed to conduct a dialogue to perform by at least two students in front of their classmates yet, a large class (the case of Algerians) would not achieve its objective in less than 60 minutes (the time devoted for an English class) because not all of the students will have a chance to present their work, hence, the teacher would not provide them with appropriate feedback.

The dialogue does not sound like every-day or real-life conversation, but rather, it is like a lecture of history to students or a story of the past told by historians to foreigners.

True it aims at making students talk using thematic information, but it is never like those dialogues that the student comes across in the real world. Thus, learners collect the information and complete the dialogue without any intention to perform the dialogue.

3.3. Take a Break (P.30)

In this stage, according to the *Teachers' book*, an example of a past story that starts with the expression: *once upon a time* seems to be a model for learners to either finish the current story or create their own. However, in the textbook, in this particular page, cultural elements are presented instead. A caricature that shows the difference between past lifestyle and today's ones that seems to be a warm up activity. The following task is entitled: *Proverbs and Sayings* where students are asked to match between parts of proverbs to obtain a complete proverb.

3.3.1. Evaluation

Firstly, the page: *take a break* presents the foreign culture. This no doubt, represents one of the main objectives of EFL in the Algerian syllabus and it is presented in the current textbook in (to the teacher) as follows:

> **The Learners' outcomes and the Intercultural outcomes for their part are in-built, i.e. made to be part and parcel of the process of teaching/learning at all times, notably through a pertinent typology of activities.**

Nevertheless, introducing the target cultural components requires bringing the local culture which is not the case in this stage (take a break) and the activity above explains this; the task addresses one particular objective which is matching parts of proverbs from the target language. Originally, this phase is neglected by teachers in all the units and all the streams. They find no relevance in the case of third year students who seek lessons of grammar, vocabulary lists and pronunciation rules to memorise for their BAC exam.

Secondly, the title *Take a Break* implies that learners will feel free to use the target language however; according to the Teachers' book, students are asked to write a past story that is related to the unit theme Civilization. That means that they are not free and that they are still involved in the lessons and limited in the contexts they should take from.

Regardless the objective here, the instruction in the textbook could be designed to address learners' own ideas and background knowledge about story telling. This would achieve two pedagogical goals; enabling students to learn how to start narrating a story through speaking (addressing language elements; grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation through), using the target language appropriately, and taking a real break to change the classroom atmosphere.

Although the textbook's content is designed to help learners in their learning from preparing a lesson to practise what they have already learnt, it is found that learners appear passive and unconcerned dealing with it. This is often seen in the classes when a number of students forget to bring their books. Moreover, students' feedback is often dissatisfied when asked to prepare a lesson or when given homework. Actually, learners do not even make research on their learning content although they are always attached to internet services. However, if the textbook was more innovative and cope with learners' needs and interest with regard to their real lives; would the situation be different?

Conclusion

This chapter included the interpretation and discussion of the findings from the questionnaire, the classroom observation and the textbook evaluation. It tries to show how the results from these research tools contribute to the study and the realisation of the research questions and hypothesis. It first exposed the results of the teachers' questionnaire which revealed positive views concerning the teaching of English in general and clarified their awareness of the significance of discourse development in the classroom. However, the findings of the classroom observation showed different data; what was happening in the classroom do not reflect teachers' views in the questionnaire because of many variables.

First, in the findings of the questionnaire it was found that teachers value the role of discourse and interaction in FL learning however, during classes, talk was an important element that drew on the other classroom aspects. Talk was a teacher's behavioural property in all the classroom events whether to express the teacher's role or to facilitate learners' answers and feedback. According to this, it was found that the most performed discourse structure was the (IRF). Also, the findings highlighted the dominance of display questions over referential questions in the investigated classes. Thus, in spite of the fact that the choice of the discourse structure (IRF) together with the dominance of the display

questions aim at increasing learners' interaction and avoid time consuming, they appeared as an obstacle against learners' developing discourse structures in different classroom events. Depending on those particular types of discourse and questions prevent the learners from participating in group interaction where they can develop new ideas, negotiate meaning and then produce their own discourse that they will use in other situations other than the classroom.

Second, according to the teachers' book, all the skills presented in the textbook are designed to develop learners' communicative competence in the target language. However, learners' outcomes as observed and as mentioned by teachers were dissatisfactory; all the discourse structures texts, dialogues, articles, interviews, etc. They are not authentic; they do not embody real-life events.

In this study, the questionnaire as it revealed teachers' views on the overall EFL teaching and learning provided the support for classroom observation in that its aim was to observe the types of discourse that the teachers use. The classroom observation on the other hand allowed the opportunity to observe the role of the textbook (as used by both teachers and learners) before it was evaluated; thus, it helped to compare teachers' views with what is happening in the classroom and with the textbook content. The multiple way of examining the place of discourse, helped the researcher to conclude that English teaching is well-welcomed by the Algerian staffs and population on the one hand, and made it clear the different obstacles behind learners' poor performance and shortcomings in achieving authentic communication with the availability of the different teaching materials and pedagogical instruction provided by the ministry of education.

General Conclusion

This study was intended to explore the place of discourse in Algerian EFL classrooms. It investigates language teaching knowledge and methodology in Algerian secondary schools. The examination was conducted through classroom observation and was supported by a survey questionnaire for secondary school teachers and a textbook evaluation for third year English classes of (SE3).

Recent research and studies have revealed that language learning is not conceived as grammar rules to be memorized to either recite or practise in the classroom. Today's new approaches to language teaching imply that a language learner needs the language to use it in different situations other than the classroom. The learner needs to develop discourse patterns in order to participate in higher level conversations outside the classroom. In this study, the discourse was understood as an individualized language use, a cooperative activity that demonstrates cohesion and coherence in the process of meaning creation through interactive collaboration or intra-active expression of the speaker's thought. As learners are social beings who are every day involved in interactions with people of different ages and levels, they need to participate in classroom discussions where they exchange ideas and learn from them assisted by their teachers. Such a way of teaching makes learning fun and enjoyable as it brings their existing knowledge of their daily life to the classroom. Therefore, adopting discourse as an approach to teaching language may be relevant.

As far as English teaching is concerned, the new educational reforms adopted recently by the Algerian ministry of education have drawn new principles and beliefs that aim to boosting the learning/teaching of a foreign language and developing learners' capacities and competencies to using it. The new approach was implemented in the textbook in order to facilitate the learning process for both the teacher and learners. It took into consideration the learners' cognitive skills and included a variety of appropriate activities. Yet, in this study, findings revealed a poor classroom performance among learners in delivering a discourse to convey certain thoughts. A regular classroom observation found that teachers use display questions to bring forth learners' attention to the topic and boost their participation. However, this teaching strategy did not result in any feedback in contrast, it decreased learners' participation. The teacher's control over the classroom discourse prevents learners from experiencing the language they learn since there is no chance for them to practice their input through meaningful, spontaneous and natural interaction.

General Conclusion

The findings in this study were conducted through a classroom observation that lasted for two months during the first trimester. Data analysis was dealt with through both quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative method analysed the first part of the questionnaire and the frequency occurrence of the teachers' talk, IRF pattern and display questions. On the other hand, the qualitative method was used in the interpretations of the second part of the questionnaire (that is concerned with question of discourse understandings) and in analysing the other elements out of the aspects of classroom designed for observation. It also comprehends the textbook evaluation that was analysed taking into consideration the teachers' book designed by the ministry of national education.

This study is descriptive in nature in that it described the classroom as it was during the learning process. In an attempt to explore the different factors behind learners' shortage in foreign language performance and production, six teachers were observed during two months within three different streams: the scientific, the literary and the foreign languages. The observation concerned six classes in both high schools: a scientific class, a literary class and a foreign languages class in Ali Chachou high school in the City of Chlef, and the same thing in Bouzar Essaidi high school in the town of Oued fodda, three classes of different streams with three teachers for each.

The classroom observation in this study revealed a teacher-centred approach to teaching through a mechanical-like method of teaching preventing learners from experiencing their input. The findings demonstrated that both high schools EFL classes of Chlef city and Oued Fodda town are still teacher-oriented; the teacher seemed to be the supplier of knowledge in most classroom situations. S/he controls the subject matter, decides about learners' needs and arranges what the students should do and even provide the answers to questions and tasks. Actually, this way of teaching depends on previous teaching knowledge and experience that was gained from teaching previous generations. Although, teachers' views in the questionnaire revealed their desire to teach English to learners in order to use it after classes and even after school graduation, this was not the case when they were observed during classes.

Teachers limit the speaking opportunities for their students by asking limited questions and use particular type of discourse in order to achieve educational objectives however; they in fact prevent learners from developing their speech capacities and break the pragmatic abilities that can enrich their classroom interaction.

General Conclusion

According to the issues in this study, teachers depend a lot on the traditional discourse structure IRF in their lessons. The continuous use of this structure by the teacher makes learners passive participants who only receive and make no efforts to think. The teacher is rather required to vary his strategies to encourage classroom participation and distribute talk appropriately by varying the types of questions between display and referential depending on the topic being tackled and the learners' attitudes.

Findings related to the teachers' questionnaire revealed teachers' agreement that oral classes are important for learners' interaction with each other and that they consider mistakes as part of learning. For that reason, teachers claimed that mistakes were not corrected while talking so as not to block the flow of communication. However, this was not materialized throughout the oral classes; how can learners speak freely and express themselves without being corrected while one of the sequences devoted for such an objective is ignored. The classroom observation in this study revealed that classrooms marked the absence of one of the sequences included in all pedagogical units, namely the *Listening and Speaking* sequences. Teachers claim that this sequence proves no outcome for third year classes. Their reasons were that from introducing the topic, reading the script, inviting students to do tasks, until finally reaching the *saying in writing* phase, this sequence is considered like a reading sequence because learners prefer to follow with the teacher by reading from the textbook rather than listening, thus, it became unworthy teaching it since we have already a R*eading and Writing* sequences besides to *Listen and Consider* rubric.

Alternatively, teachers find it relevant to change the *listening and speaking* sequence into another beneficial lesson to enrich learners' memory preparing them for their final examination (BAC). Accordingly, all teachers in both secondary schools agree on introducing the thematic feature of this sequence and discuss it in the classroom so as to write information about it to serve as a support for revision. However, recently, the sequence have been totally ignored from lesson plans in SE3 course book, therefore, all the sequences of *Listening and Speaking* in each unit are omitted from the teaching programme of third year regarding all the streams. In fact, such a way of dealing with this sequence was actually confirmed by the author of this thesis. As a secondary English teacher, she was oriented to follow a certain methodology for third year-classes in all streams in the beginning of her career seven years now, and the teaching of this sequence is one of them.

Although it may negatively influence learners' outcomes preventing them from experiencing group interaction and meaning negotiation that contribute in building individual discourse, teachers prefer to invest the time devoted for this sequence in language points that are not programmed in the textbook (such as t*he direct and indirect speech, unless, all the types of the conditional*) but are present in the BAC exam. With regard to teachers' views, the English session is limited by a particular time that does not allow opportunities for all students to take turns in conversations and make mistakes without correcting them. Thus, teachers' idea of replacing certain contents in the textbook by others is a matter of adaptation with the learners' needs. Indeed, oral classes need a whole separate session to be taught regularly the whole course-year in order to make sure students have their share of performance of the target language.

According to the new English syllabus for SE3 by the National Curriculum Committee of the Ministry of National Education (2006), the third year course book's basic principles remain the same. The communicative language teaching characterized by the CBA is still the FL teaching methodology in the Algerian syllabus. However, in the same syllabus principles, the National Curriculum Committee (2006), and in the SE3 textbook in particular, insist, in the first place, on thematic orientation and reading matters since the Baccalaureate examination is in the written mode where memory is tested. This made teachers depend on the reading sessions and tasks requiring writing to orient learners in FL learning.

Actually, in learning a language, learners face an important task of acquiring not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence. Thus, they need opportunities to investigate their language learning at all linguistic levels, especially at the highest level (Riggenbach, 1999; Young and He, 1998).Without knowledge of and experience with the discourse and socio-cultural patterns of the target language together with the help of the teacher, second language learners are likely to rely on the strategies and expectations acquired as part of their first language development, which may be inappropriate for the second language settings and may lead to communication difficulties and misunderstandings. Accordingly, the *listening speaking* class is important in that it permits learners to use appropriate vocabulary related to the current theme in the writing activity in the classroom and the exam as well. In addition, it changes the atmosphere of the classroom and paves the way for learners' relax in that they change the mode of the lesson.

The current lesson can be delivered using a projector to show first some pictures to introduce the new topic as a warm up activity. In the second step, learners will be divided into pairs to be shown a video that includes a song. The learner listens to the song then will be given a gap filling activity; worksheets with the lyric of the song with some blanks. Students in this stage will listen for the second time to complete the gaps. In the *after listening* phase, learners compare their worksheets with the song lyrics projected by the teacher then try to sing them with the teacher after they have corrected their mistakes. At the end of the lesson, learners would enjoy the lesson as they learn new related vocabulary, collaborate with each other, and learn an English song. Therefore, teachers should not ignore any of the tasks that provide learners with the opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning in classrooms, even third-year levels.

Learners outside the classroom are aware of the growth of the English language. They cope with the world change in all domains. A lot of English learners are motivated to learn this language because of their fans such as footballers, artists, influencers, etc. They imitate them in their dressing styles, eating and even their language. Today, English the medium of contact among people around the world as it became fashionable and prestigious that young people prefer to use in their daily life. Algerian learners like their peers learn English in these contexts and use it everywhere, even in the classroom ignoring the academic language in the academic context as if it is not the same target language.

Observing learners during classes, the researcher has marked many learning competencies at the level of English fluency. Although there have been some learners who do not do well in written exams and some classroom activities, these learners have some preferences in learning English. Such learners work well only when asked to prepare project presentations or dialogic activities. That means when they are given the choice of choosing their data sources, selecting group members and choosing presentation time, they show creativity. Their arguments for these preferences were that classroom English is boring. Thus the situation urges teachers to rethink their teaching content to cope with the world requirements in order to obtain motivated learners who learn English for integrative objectives and whose aim is proficiency.

The classroom is the right context where all elements of language should be used in both linguistic modes; written and oral. Techniques in writings differ from those used in the oral discussion. This can be taught for learners but through practice; group and pair work

are of great importance that enable learners to learn the difference between written and oral language. Also, written tasks that follow the oral discussion are beneficial such as writing summaries.

The textbook is considered crucial in the teaching/learning of a foreign language. It has always been an available support for both teachers and learners. As Sheldon (1988) puts it the textbook is 'the visible heart of any ELT programme' since 'it is an almost universal element of ELT teaching.' (Hutchinson 1994:315), however, a controversy over the roles EFL textbook plays in teaching and learning a foreign language still apparently exists in the inconsistency between its content and the learners' needs. In this study, the textbook evaluation revealed that the Algerian textbook *New Prospect* of SE3 is an old version that dates back long before the new recent educational reforms of 2003 had been established. This alone has had its influence on both teachers and learners classroom feedback and marked their dissatisfaction towards the teaching materials. Perhaps it is the reason behind teachers' reflection on their own experiences in teaching depending on them repeatedly throughout classes for a long period time.

New Prospect leads a meagre role in characterizing learners' language conception and production. Developing learners' communicative competence in the target language and involving them in problem-solving situations by bringing back their schematic knowledge to practice in the different classroom events are the main objectives set in the teachers' book. However, learners' classroom outcome is dissatisfactory; all the discourse structures texts, dialogues, articles, interviews, etc. are not authentic; they do not embody real-life events and this was proved during the classroom observation where learners did not bear any importance to their textbooks. In their revision, they use their copybooks and for lesson preparation, they get access to the internet or borrow other previous classes' copybooks. For some of them the textbook is not a source of information but an annoying heavy object in their bags.

In this study, teachers confirm that New Prospects does not offer learners suitable opportunities to learn authentic language and they confirm that the prescribed textbook should be supported with other authentic teaching materials such as audio-visual (ICTs), posters, handouts, songs, etc., as they call for the imperative need either for a new textbook or a new edited version.

General Conclusion

Describing the importance of the textbook, some scholars state both theoretical and practical problems with textbooks. Sheldon (1988) claims that the major issue is that textbooks are mostly derived from other textbooks versions and they do not necessary admit the change from research, methodological experimentation, or classroom feedback. Allwright (1981) concludes from the management analysis that teaching materials can contribute to but are limited in determining learning goals, content and management of learning. On the other hand, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that the textbook has a vital and positive role to play in the teaching and learning process, especially during periods of change. The situation then requires a whole inclusive methodology that gathers efforts from the part of 1) teachers who are required to evaluate, select and adapt teaching materials to meet the teaching and the students' needs in order to maximize learning potentials, 2) syllabus designers who are concerned with observations all over the Algerian learning/teaching contexts in order to support their content's selection, 3) the Ministry of education gathering all the available teaching materials supports the teacher in the classroom, and finally, 4) the student himself who is supposed to be assisted directly by the teacher, needs also to be supported by all the earlier mentioned parts of the teaching staffs besides to her/his parents.

Virtually, rather than choosing between one and the other approach (top-down, bottom-up) when organizing a syllabus, it is probably better to combine them in what Stanovich (1980) defines as Interactive-Compensatory-Model cited in Nunan 1993). According to his model, discourse comprehension is not as simple as moving from higher to lower levels or vice versa. It is an interactive process, in which we use information from more than one level simultaneously, and deficiencies at one level can be compensated for by any other level, independently of its rank (98 Links & Letters 3, Joseph Maria Cots, 1996)

In short, for textbooks to make use of the curriculum objectives, they are supposed to include authentic language, i.e., a language that discusses real-life events, normal, natural and used by native speakers or competent speakers (Harmer (2007, p. 273). Authentic language means that real instances of language use as opposed to those translated versions and devised ones, especially for language teaching and learning purposes.

The issue of authenticity emerged with the emergence of the communicative language teaching and in relation to the notional "functional" syllabuses where the focus was on natural language behaviours occurring with relevant content with regard to the learner through the process of needs analysis. Therefore, introducing tasks and activities in the textbook requires the selection of authentic scripts, discourses that are produced by real speakers and writers in a real community in order to convey a certain message. Thinking of authenticity and appropriate language use, the instructor can make sure of the different sources of the addressed discourse, the context of use, and the learners' needs behind learning a particular language point.

Moreover, by recognizing the importance of discourse, we language analysers, textbook evaluators and language teachers can make use of what language as discourse implies within the language teaching/learning context. Moreover, to adopt a discourse approach to analyse and study language does not mean dealing with discourse as the only means through which successful language teaching is achieved but it rather means to deal with what really language means and what is really meant to do with by its users.

> **Bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom cannot be an end in itself but rather a means to make our pedagogic task more efficient and effective in developing the learners' communicative competence** (Josep Maria Cots (1995)

The following points are recommended to help educators compare their teaching methodology with the present ones in order to extend their ideas and create their own strategies. They are also suggested for researchers to build on such a descriptive study new research hypotheses to either test them in other areas or use them to conduct new topic within the same field of research.

✓ The type of language presented and the skills should be consistent and variant so as to enhance participation and interaction and bring real life situations into the classroom setting.

✓ The selection of contents, subjects and topics should reflect learners' levels, knowledge, styles, and the clarity of objectives that should be mentioned explicitly.

- ✓ Learners' individual differences should be taken into consideration for appropriate remedial constraints.

- ✓ The textbook should present the teaching methods following the new approaches. It is very important to get rid of the traditional teaching approaches that prioritize the learning of language in isolation of its context and learning it for purposes other than to communicate with.

- ✓ The social and cultural dimensions should be included in an appropriate and equal way in relation to the source and target culture. It should help learners to understand and to be understood in intercultural communication situations.

- ✓ In a collaborative work among teachers of different subjects like history, physics, philosophy, teachers may agree on including English terminology and concepts in their classes. This may improve learners' talk in the classroom as they are already exposed to similar topics in the other classes. As such, students will find the English class important and enjoyable and later, this terminology would serve as a schematic knowledge that the learner makes benefit of in either writing or talking about certain topics. Furthermore, teachers will find it easy to explore learners' difficulties as well as their skills and capacities to plan lessons accordingly.

All in all, failure in communication using a foreign language is associated with a lack of practice of this language. True that the English language is used across the world by all categories of people and in different spaces such as the cinema, social media, songs, etc where young people enjoy being part of global communication, however, such spaces include a variety of Englishes with various cultural backgrounds that the language of communication cannot be learnt to be used elsewhere. While in the classroom, learners' capacities, individual differences, and learning styles are the main objective of lesson plans. That is why language teachers need to observe not only learners but also their own teaching methodology. In this respect, it is advisable for teachers to strengthen not the quantity but the quality of input they deliver in each session as they should not ignore learners' output as the building block of a whole pedagogical methodology.

This dissertation is a case study that addresses a particular learning context in a particular region in Algeria that cannot be generalized for all other learning contexts. However, the related interpretations would, it is hoped, to a large extent, provide teachers

and researchers alike with necessary tools as well as a variety of learning/teaching situations to face possible teaching obstacles.

One of the limitations of this study is that the findings cannot be generalized over the other Algerian ELT coursebook either at middle or secondary school. Even with the same textbook (of the third year), different contexts of learning influence both learning and teaching. Geographical factors, for instance, play an important role in characterizing learners' output; learners living in the north of Algeria do not conceive the learning a foreign language like those living in the east do. This particular analysis concerns particularly the third year secondary school of particular institutions.

The second limitation is the population in this study. The questionnaire was given to fifty teachers from different high schools around the city in order to compare the findings related to the three data collection tools in this study. However, only fifteen of them were given back. So, the researcher decided to work with only ten of them since the other five questionnaires were incomplete that could not be reliable.

The third obstacle is that the data collected from textbook evaluation focused only on one particular U*nit* (Ancient Civilization) that concerns specifically foreign languages classes; the different points that have been analysed through this evaluation might have been of help for other streams such as the scientific ones.

Due to the nature of the research which explores the place of discourse in the different points devoted for by the syllable designers, this analysis would not give a clear idea about the benefit of the communicative activities since the classroom is unstable in nature. Learners seem to be interested in some tasks and fail to achieve others; we refer here to the different learning styles in students. There is a type of student who has the willingness to participate in a classroom talk; others prefer written tasks, etc. Thus we might not well determine the effect of the textbook content on all learners and all classes.

Some of the data in this study were collected during the classroom observation and in particular sequences like R*eading and Writing*. Since the fact of observing classes itself was a bit annoying for some teachers. So, the results might be incomplete and unreliable accordingly.

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APPENDICES

Résumé

Cette étude descriptive vise à améliorer la qualité de l'interaction dans l'enseignement de l'anglais dans les cours d'enseignement secondaire de troisième année en Algérie. Plus précisément, il étudie la place du discours parlé anglais dans les écoles secondaires d'Ali Chachou et de Bouzar Essaidi (Chlef, Algérie). En d'autres termes, notre attention est portée sur les raisons qui sous-tendent les difficultés des apprenants à s'exprimer correctement en anglais. Pour mener cette étude de recherche, six enseignants comptant six cours, avec plus de 200 élèves dans trois domaines différents, langues étrangères, littéraires et scientifiques, ont été observés. Les données ont été recueillies à l'aide de trois outils de recherche, d'un questionnaire d'enquête, d'une observation en classe et d'une évaluation des manuels, puis ont été analysées, en tenant compte des vues des enseignants sur l'enseignement de l'EFL dans le questionnaire et de la quantité de discours des enseignants, des types de structure discours en classe et des questionnaires de l'enseignant. Les leçons ont été enregistrées dans l'audio pour obtenir des informations valables. D'après l'analyse des données, les résultats ont montré que la plupart des discussions dans tous les aspects de la classe sont presque initiées par l'enseignant qui intervient tant dans la structure discours IRF (Initiation-réponse-Feedback) que dans les questions d'affichage. Le contrôle de l'enseignant sur les schémas de discussion en classe limite la réflexion critique des apprenants et diminue leurs possibilités de participer à l'interaction en classe. Sur la base des conclusions actuelles, certaines orientations pédagogiques sont proposées aux enseignants du secondaire pour surmonter les faiblesses des résultats des apprenants de l'EFL afin d'améliorer leur évolution des schémas de discours.

Summary

This descriptive study aims to help improve the quality of interaction in the teaching of English in third-year secondary school classes in Algeria. More specifically, it investigates the place of English spoken discourse at Ali Chachou and Bouzar Essaidi's secondary schools (Chlef, Algeria). In other words, our focus is on the reasons behind learners' difficulties in expressing themselves correctly in English. To conduct this research study, six teachers with six classes, with more than 200 students in three different streams, foreign languages, literary and scientific, were observed. Data were collected using three research tools a survey questionnaire, a classroom observation, and a textbook evaluation, then were analysed, taking stock from teachers' views on EFL teaching in the questionnaire and the amount of teacher's talk, the types of classroom discourse structure

and the teacher's questioning. The lessons were recorded in audio to obtain valid information. Based on data analysis, the findings showed that most of the talk in all classroom aspects is almost initiated by the teacher who intervenes in both the discourse structure IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) and the display questions. The EFL teacher's control over classroom talk patterns limits learners' critical reflection and decreases their opportunities to take part in classroom interaction. On the basis of the present findings, some pedagogical guidelines are suggested for secondary school teachers to overcome the weaknesses among EFL learners' outcomes in order to improve their discourse patterns development.

الملخص

وتهدف هذه الدراسة الوصفية إلى المساعدة على تحسين نوعية التفاعل في تعليم اللغة الانكليزية في صفوف المدارس الثانوية في الجزائر في السنة الثالثة. وعلى وجه التحديد، فإنها تهدف الى التحقيق و ملاحظة تحقق مكانة الخطاب الانجليزي المنطوق في ثانويتي 'علي شاشو وبوزار السعيدي' (ولاية الشلف، الجزائر). وبعبارة أخرى، فإن تركيزنا ينصب على الأسباب وراء صعوبات المتعلمين في التعبير عن أنفسهم بشكل صحيح بالانكليزية. ولإجراء هذه الدراسة البحثية، لوحظ ستة معلمين يدرسون لست أقسام يتجاوز عدد الطلاب فيها 200 طالب في ثلاثة شعب مختلفة و هي لغات أجنبية، شعبة أدب و فلسفة و شعبة العلوم التجريبية. وجرى جمع البيانات باستخدام ثلاثة أدوات بحثية استبيان استقصائي، وملاحظة الفصول الدراسية، وتقييم كتاب المدرسي السنة الثالثة، ثم تم تحليلها، واستخلاص آراء المعلمين بشأن تعليم اللغة الاجنبية من الاستبيان، وكمية حديث المعلمين، وأنواع بنية الحوار الدراسي، واستجواب المعلمين. وقد سُجلت الدروس بالصوت للحصول على معلومات صحيحة. واستنادا إلى تحليل البيانات، أظهرت النتائج أن معظم الكلام في جميع جوانب الفصل هو تقريبا من جانب المعلم الذي يتدخل في كلا البنية الخطابية (السؤال-الإجابة-التعقيب) و انواع الأسئلة. إن السيطرة على أنماط الحوار في الصفوف تحد من استعمال المتعلمين للغة الأجنبية و تقلل من فرصهم للمشاركة في التفاعل في الصفوف الدراسية، و على هذا الأساس، يُقترح بعض المبادئ التوجيهية التربوية لمدرسي الثانوي للتغلب على نقاط الضعف بين المتعلمين من أجل تحسين تطوير أنماط الخطاب.

Appendix 1: The Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of a research work .It aims at *conveying the place of discourse in Algerian EFL classes.* Your experience at the secondary level is valuable information to achieve this study. Thank you for your cooperation.

Section One

1. Name (*optional*): …………………………………………
2. Qualification: ....
3. How long have you been teaching English?

Less than 5 years◯   **Between 5 and 10 years**◯   **More than 10 years**◯

SECTION TWO

A/   Perceptions of the Importance of English (FL)

No	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	English is an important part of the school programme			
2	English is unquestionably the most important medium for international communication nowadays			
3	English is an essential part of the education of any citizen in the 21st Century.			
4	English is a key for accessing knowledge about science and technology			

B: Attitudes toward Learning English

No	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
1	I want my learners to aim for fluency in English			
2	I want my learners to learn as much English as possible and to continue to learn even when they leave school			
3	I want my learners to enjoy learning English			
4	I want my learners to take my English classes seriously			
5	Some learners clearly believe that learning English is boring			
6	To some learners, learning English is a waste of time			
7	They'd rather spend their time on subjects other than English			
8	Some of my learners find English difficult to learn			
9	Personally, I would be happy if English became a second language and replaced French in all aspects of			

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	life in Algeria			

C. Teachers' Objectives for Learning English

NO	Statements	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree
2	I expect my learners to hold the view that English will make them better educated and more knowledgeable citizens			
3	I expect my learners to say that knowledge of English will enable them to gain more respect			
4	I expect my learners to say that they are studying English first and foremost because it is a very useful international language			
5	I expect my learners to say that when they leave school, they will stop studying English completely because they won't need it			
6	I expect my learners to agree that English will be useful to them for travelling abroad			
7	I expect my learners to say that they need English to use the Internet (Facebook, YouTube, etc.)			
8	I expect my learners to hold the view that knowledge of English can increase their chances of success in life			

D. Are you satisfied with the following?

No	Items	Yes	Neither/Nor Satisfied	No
1	The overall quality of English teaching in your school			
2	The overall content of the English programme / syllabus			
3	How the prescribed English textbooks deal with English culture			
4	Your learners' progress in English reading and writing			
5	Your learners' progress in English listening and speaking			
6	Your learners' overall competence in English which they have acquired at school			
7	That the amount of support and encouragement that you are able to give to your learners is adequate/sufficient			

E. Attitudes toward speaking English in class (confidence level)

No	Statements	Yes	Neutral	No

1	Grammatical mistakes are systematically corrected in class			
2	Pronunciation mistakes are also immediately corrected			
3	Most of my learners are happy to join in and answer questions in class			
4	Most of my learners don't get nervous or embarrassed when they speak English in class			
5	Most of my learners love speaking English in class. They think it is great fun!			

Section 3

- How would you define the term *Discourse*?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………

- According to you, what is a competent speaker?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………

- What is the importance of discourse in foreign language learning ?
....
....

- *What is the role of classroom discourse in FL learning?*
....

- In the teaching of English as a foreign language, which part of language do you focus on?
  ☐ Listening   ☐ Speaking   ☐ Reading   ☐ Writing

- What is your method to teach English grammar?
  - Bottom-up approach (Setting rules on the board through explaining, then giving ☐ learners tasks to practise and understand)
  - Top-down approach (indicating grammar structures with learners through a piece of reading, eliciting the rules then set them tasks in order to reinforce their understandings. ☐

- Competency in discourse depends on:
  - Knowledge of language/linguistic competence ☐
  - The ability to communicate using L2 ☐

- Classical Arabic is weekly used in all subjects (except F. Lges) beside at home. Do you think that this influences L2 discourse development in learners?

☐ Yes:
....
...

☐ No.

- Are you interested more in teaching structures of language (rules of grammar, pronunciation) or you focus more on the idea behind language?
  ☐ Structure   ☐ Idea behind language

- If ever your learners use L1/French in their writings, will you punish them? Why and how?
  ☐ Yes,   by:
  ....
  ☐ No

- Will you agree if learners use L1 when talking/asking questions?
  ☐ Yes   ☐ No
  Others:
....

- Do you correct your learners' mistakes/errors while talking or after they finish?
  ☐ While   ☐ After

- Are you aware of the English learners/teenagers use in the chat rooms (face-book, twitter, whatsapp)? How do you find it?
  Vague ☐   Informal ☐   Lacks to rules of gramma☐   Unacade☐c

- Learners' exposure to foreigners through the social networking improves their English and helps them in delivering a clear English discourse. Do you ag☐?   ☐ No
          Yes

- Do you think the rapid growth in technology is in favour of EFL Algerian learners, especially that English is the leading world language? Yes ☐   No ☐

- Do you advise learners to be up-to-date with such growth? Yes ☐   No ☐

- Do you find difficulties in understanding learners' English discourse? Why?
  ☐ Grammar mistakes   pronunciation mistakes ☐   vague ideas ☐

- How do you evaluate the CBA (Competency-based Approach)?

  ....
  ....

- Which of the Teaching previous approaches to language teaching is the best?
  GTM (grammar translation method) ☐   CLT   (communicative   language ☐
  teaching)
Audio-lingual method   ☐

Appendix 2: Teachers' Learners' Interaction Classroom Observation

Participants; Teacher (T) and students (S)
Example1:

  T: From which period? (Initiation)
  S: "The Ottoman". (Response)
  T: Yes, it is the Ottoman period, thank you. (Feedback)

Example 2:

  T: What are the different heritage places abroad?
  S: Chinese, Egyptian, Sumerian
  T: Great!
  T: Can you classify them?
  S: Sumerian, Egyptian, Chinese, Greek..
  T: excellent!

Example 3:

  T: What are the different heritage places in Algeria?
  S: They are 7; Djamila, Timgad..
  T: good!

Example 4:

T: This lesson is about civilization,
What do we mean by civilization?
S: ehh mm civ..
T: yes, come on..
T: Is it history? Is it tradition?
S1: traditions and styles
T: Your friend says style, great!
S2: it's life styles
T: yes it is life style and....?
S: and traditions
T: yes, good

Example 5:

  T: "Have a look at the pictures, what do you call this?
  S: "Touristic guide"
  T: great!

  T: How do you call this?

S: "Ruins"

S "buildings"

T: "Has any one of you already visited these places?"

S: No!

Example 6

T: What is the meaning of inherit?

S1: money

T: yes, can you clarify more?

S: ehh, mmm

T: what do civilisations leave for people?

S: Someone take money of his father for example.

T: yes, but only money?

S: ....(no answer)

T: Remember Djmila, Timgas...!

S: heritage

T: excellent!
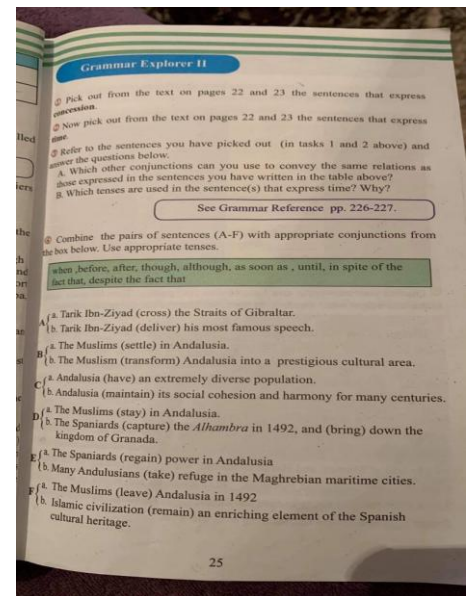

Appendix 3: Samples of N*ew Prospect* Content

New Prospect **Book cover**   **Let's hear it: Task 5:**   **Grammar and unreal-life**
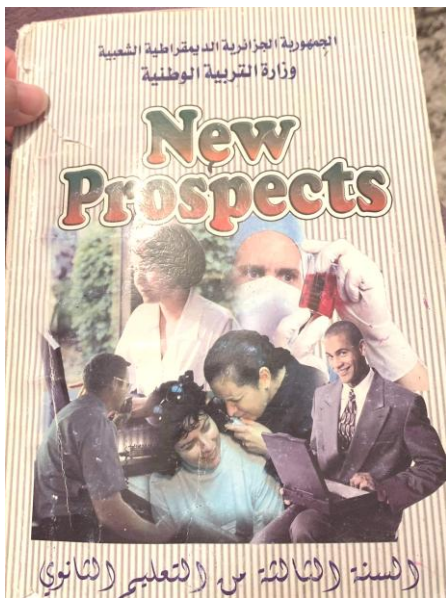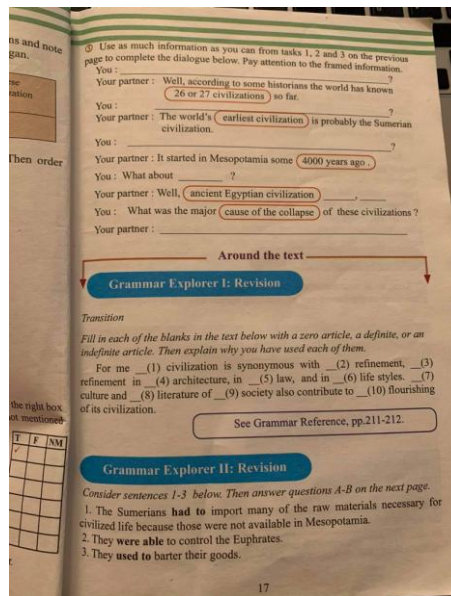
Take a Break