The Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

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English in the Algerian School Context:

A Pragmatic View on English as an Object of Study

by

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A dissertation submitted as a partial fulfilment for the Degree of Magister in

"Didactique et Sciences du langage"

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Autumn 2009

To my parents,

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Acknowledgements

My sincere and profound thanks go to my supervisor Professor Farouk Bouhadiba for providing us with this opportunity for research. I was privileged to have Dr. B.Neddar appointed as my co-supervisor. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to him for his constant encouragement and guidance as well as his suggestions and feedback.

I am indebted for the patient support of my uncle Dr. Baghdad Benstaali who provided me with fruitful suggestions and advice. My thanks also go to my husband for his support. He provided me with insightful opinions and inspired me in the writing of this work.

Abstract

With the idea of classroom interaction in mind and hopes for having a teaching environment where more attention is paid to active and engaging teacher-student and student-student interactive behaviour, attempts have been made by second and foreign-language educators to make changes in classroom practices. A considerable amount of effort and capital has been invested to improve and promote up-to-date teacher-training programs, teaching strategies and the like. New tasks and activities have been introduced to engage students in a sustained oral behaviour, even to the extent of imposing on teachers and students new communicative teaching and learning methods and getting rid of explicit grammar-rule teaching.

The study carried out in this dissertation is on classroom interaction in EFL contexts in Algeria. It presents an analysis of teacher talk and student communicative practices in foreign language classrooms. One assumption is that language classrooms are sociolinguistic environments in which interlocutors use various functions of language to establish a communication system.

The investigation focuses on the roles that Algerian teachers and learners play in the instructional process, and the impact of these roles on the patterns of interaction and the nature of language use in the classroom. When the secondary English curriculum was introduced, it was hoped that the adoption of the communicative approach would provide students with greater opportunities for meaningful language use than the existing oral-structural approach. It is a reflection on the characteristics of foreign language classrooms that may either facilitate language acquisition or impose constraints on the interlocutors' verbal behaviour. The study was conducted at two Secondary schools where all the students were studying English as a foreign language. A questionnaire was used for collecting data.

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Abbreviations

C1: Native Culture 37

C2: Foreign Culture 37

CA: Contrastive Analysis 31

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis 31

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching 90

CS: Code switching 84

EAP: English for Academic Purposes 75

EFL: English as a Foreign Language 74

ESL: English as a Second Language 74

ESP: English for Specific Purposes 75

EST: English for Science & Technology 75

ILP: Inter Language Pragmatics 21

IRE: Initiation-Response-Evaluation 76

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback 50

L1: First Language 19

L2: Second Language 19

NNS: Non Native speakers 20

SLA: Second Language Acquisition 20

TL: Target Language 81

TTT: Teacher Talking Time 85

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development 34

Introduction

English is taught in the Algerian schools mostly as a foreign language. It is a compulsory subject in both middle and secondary schools. By the time they finish their secondary schools the pupils have been studying English for seven years. Usually English is only one school subject among others which means that pupils receive approximately the same amount of teaching in English as they do in other subjects. They are obligatory courses to everyone. As Arabic is the mother tongue and French is the first foreign language of both the teacher and the pupils, it is very likely that there will be situations during the lessons that L1 will be used instead of English.

Basically the establishment of an ideal full English setting lies in using English as much as possible and even try to develop a language habit of using English for communication in EFL classrooms. Besides, the classroom environment in terms of EFL students and teachers would be the most fundamental environment to form English interaction when it comes to EFL learning. However, students and teachers play the important roles in the EFL setting. English learners and English teachers would need to have the positive interaction in English between teaching and learning. They also have to find out the problems or difficulties in creating an English environment for teaching and learning.

The development of communicative activities and the liberation of teachers and learners from their traditional roles have radically altered the nature of interaction in the language classroom. Unlike the traditional classroom the communicative classroom is characterized by considerable interaction in a variety of configurations, and research has indicated that group work, not only has a pedagogic rationale but may also be a necessary basis for language learning.

Language teaching specialists have become convinced that the ability to use the target language successfully as a medium of human interaction, whether in speech or writing, has to be taught. It means opportunities should be created in the classroom in order to enable the learners to develop this ability.

Efforts have been made by curriculum developers, teacher-trainers and language educationists to promote student oral participation in the language classroom. The

trend in ESL education has been toward the promotion of a classroom that is significantly different from that of the traditional one-way transmission of language rules from teachers who assume position of sole ownership of knowledge to students who are regarded as passive recipients of the knowledge. According to Richards (2004), the ESL classroom today should be one grounded on the notion of communicative competence as a goal to learning, which essentially means the involvement of learners in discovering the rules of the language in a creative and autonomous manner.

However, despite investing large amount of energy, finance and time into creating interactive classrooms, the expected results have not been achieved. It has been pointed out that despite the implementation of changes, the language classroom in different countries remains largely unchanged (Van Lier, 1997). In many cases traditional classroom practices are still the mainstay of L2 instruction in schools.

The aim of the study is to shed light on the English context in the Algerian school and whether teachers and learners in language classrooms use English-only or code-mixing when communicating and performing classroom activities.

As far as the organization of this work is concerned, it is divided into two parts. In part one (chapter1-3), the theoretical underpinnings are presented. Chapter 1 deals with pragmatics as an area of studying language in context. It reviews relevant literature on discourse, interlanguage pragmatics, speech acts and pragmatic transfer.

In chapter 2, apart from a brief overview on socio-cultural theory of second language learning, special attention is paid to classroom discourse and its characteristics.

Chapter 3 is devoted to classroom research with an emphasis on classroom interaction, its importance in learning and the role played by the teacher and the learner in the classroom.

Part 2 (chapter 4-5) includes a pragmatic approach to English as a foreign language. Concerned with social interaction in the classroom, chapter 4 begins with a presentation of English as a foreign language and then deals with English interaction in the EFL context. It also reviews the theoretical justification for the inclusion or exclusion of L1 in the EFL context.

Chapter 5 sheds light on the use of English in the EFL context in Algeria. It describes the role of English in the Algerian school and provides details about the research methods used in the study. The questions of the questionnaire seek the students' ideas and experiences in their classrooms, particularly language classrooms. Details about the role of the teacher and the learner in the classroom and the type of language used by both are also provided in this chapter.

Part I

Theoretical Underpinnings

Chapter one

Pragmatics: Studying language in context

1-1 What is discourse?

The definitions of discourse are influenced by the paradigms in linguistics that provide different assumptions about the general nature of language and the goals of linguistics: the formalist paradigm sees discourse as "*sentence*" and the functionalist paradigm views it as "*language use*". The two definitions of discourse reflect the difference between formalist and functionalist paradigms.

Hymes (1974:79) suggests various qualities that contrast structural (i.e. formalist) with functional approaches: concerning the structural view, he considers grammar as the main structure of language and the fundamental concepts, such as speech act and functions of speech and of language are arbitrarily postulated. On the other hand, according to the functional view, the structure of speech is seen in the way of speaking, and languages are functionally different because there are varieties and different styles.

Leech (1983: 46) suggests other ways that formalism and functionalism are "*associated with very different views of the nature of language*": formalists (e.g.: Chomsky) consider language primarily as a mental phenomenon and tend to explain linguistic universals as deriving from a common genetic linguistic inheritance of the human species. They also see children's acquisition of language as a built in human capacity to learn language. Whereas functionalists (e.g.: Halliday) see language as a societal phenomenon; they tend to explain the linguistic universals as deriving from the universality of the uses to which language is put in human society. For them, language acquisition is explained in terms of the development of the child's communicative needs and abilities in society To simplify, we can say that functionalism is based on two general assumptions: language has functions that are external to the linguistic system and these external functions influence the internal organization of the linguistic system.

In order to understand what is happening in discourse, form and function have to be separated. When we say that a particular bit of speech or writing is a request or an instruction, our concentration is on what that piece of language is doing, or how the listener/reader is supposed to react; for this reason, such entities are often called "*speech acts*". Each stretch of language carrying the force of requesting or instructing is seen as performing a particular act.

Discourse analysts have always been preoccupied by the functions of speech acts that pieces of language perform. When we speak or write, we don't just utter a variety of linguistic forms, we have to assign a function to a particular form of grammar and / or vocabulary. In this field, the discourse analyst is much more interested in the process by which, a particular grammatical form performs a particular function; and to achieve this, we must have our speech act fully contextualised. Discourse analysis is thus basically concerned with the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction but is also concerned with the written and printed words: newspapers, articles, stories, instructions and so on.

The availability of two different perspectives, which give two different ways of defining discourses, is partially responsible for the scope of discourse analysis. If we focus on structure, we have to identify and analyse constituents, discover regularities underlying combinations of constituents and make decisions about whether or not particular arrangements are well formed .On the other hand, if our concern is function, we have to identify and analyse actions performed by people for certain purposes, interpret social, cultural and personal meanings and justify our interpretations of the participants involved.

The term discourse analysis is used to cover the study of spoken and written interactions. Its aim is to achieve a better understanding of exactly how natural spoken and written discourse looks and sounds.

1-1-1. Spoken discourse

The approach to the study of spoken discourse was first developed at the University of Birmingham. The research dealt initially with the structure of discourse in school classrooms (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). They found in the language of traditional Native-speaker school classrooms rigid pattern, where teachers and pupils spoke according to very fixed perceptions of their roles. An extract from their data illustrates this:

(T: teacher; P: any pupil who speaks)

T: Now the…… I've got some things here, too. Hand up. What' that, what is it?

P: saw

T: It's a saw; yes this is a saw .what do we do with a saw?

P: cut wood.

T: yes, you're shooting out though .what do we do with a saw? Marvelelte.

P: cut wood

T: We cut wood .an arm, what do we do with a hacksaw: this hacksaw?

P: cut trees.

T: do we cut trees with this?

P: no. no.

T: hand up .what do we do with this?

P: cut wood.

T: do we cut wood with this?

P: no

T: what do we do with that then?

P: sir

T: Cleveland

P: Metal

T: we cut metal - Yes we cut metal - and I've got this here - what's that? Trevor.

P: An axe.

T: It's an axe yes. What do I cut with an axe?

P: Wood. Wood.

T: yes, I cut wood with the axe. Right…..Now then, I've got some more things here…… (Etc)

(Sinclair and coulthard-1975:93.4)

What is noticed in this extract is that the teacher in his planning of the lesson decides to mark it with a pause from one part of the lesson to another by giving his pupils a signal of the beginning and end of this mini phrase of the lesson when using the words "*now*", "*then*" and "*right*" that make them in a sort of 'frame' on either side of the sequence of questions and answers. Framing move is called by Sinclair and Coulthard the function of such utterances; and the transaction is the two framing moves together with the question and answer sequence that falls

between them. This classroom extract is very structured and formal, but such transactions with framing moves are common in other settings such as telephone calls, job interviews, etc.

Concerning the sequence of question-answer between the teacher and pupils, Sinclair and Coulthard see that it has a structure since we see the pattern: 1- the teacher asks something, 2- a pupil answers and 3- the teacher acknowledges the answer and comments on it. This unit that consists of question, answer and comment is called an exchange. It is seen as a three Part exchange. Each of the parts is given the name of move by Sinclair and Coulthard.

1-1-2. Conversations outside the classroom

As seen earlier, the traditional classroom is considered as a restricted context for talks where roles are defined and exchanges are easy to perceive, and where transactions are heavily marked. The classroom, according to Sinclair and Coulthard, is not the real world for conversation, but it is a place where teachers ask questions which they already know the answers, where pupils have limited rights as speakers and where evaluation by the teacher of what the pupils say is a vital mechanism in the discourse structure. It should be noticed here that the exchange model might be useful for the analysis of talk outside the classroom.

Most language produced by students in conversational interactions in class develops under highly artificial conditions. Praninkas, in "Effective Techniques for English Conversation Groups" (1985:69) says

"Despite the expenditure of much energy and enthusiasm by all concerned, the conversation class just doesn't come off; it doesn't achieve its objective. The learners, even at fairly advanced level, simply do not converse spontaneously".

The fact is during half of the teaching and learning process, the activities are initiated and more or less managed by the teacher, with all the pressure caused by his/her presence. The other half of the process which seems more difficult is to give students an opportunity to use fluently the language they have learnt in class.

However, conversations outside classroom settings vary in their degree of sturcturedness. But even so, conversations that seem at the first sight to be free and unstructured, can be shown to have a structure. The difference between the conversations is in the kind of speech act labels needed to describe what is happening. Here is a real example: It is a conversation between Chris and Josef who have established an informal and relaxed relationship.

"Josef enters into Chris's room one morning.

C: Hello Josef.

J: Hello Chris …. Could you do me a great favour?

C: Yeah…….

J: I'm going to book four cinema tickets on the phone and they need a credit card number…. Could you give me your credit card number?

C: Ah.

J: I telephoned there and they said they would do any reservations.

C: Reservations without a card?

J: yes and I could pay you back in cash.

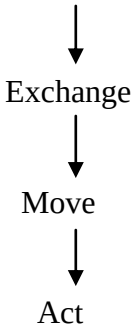
C: Yes….sure……no problem at all.

J: Yes.

This is not like the classroom. Josef and Chris are more or less equal in this piece of interaction. It is not a question-answer session like that of the classroom, but each one of them has the right to initiate, respond and follow up in their exchanges. But their talk is organised and contains different patterns.

Obviously there are other features in the conversation (intonation, gestures, etc) which provide more confidence for the analysts in their analysis. It's useful to describe talk in and out of the classroom, because there are patterns that reflect the basic functions of interaction and give a rank scale and where large units can be seen to consist of these smaller ones.

The rank scale can be expressed as follows: Transaction



The lowest rank which is called by Sinclair and Coulthard "*act*" is what we all know as "*speech act"*. Sinclair and Coulthard's model is very useful for analysing patterns of interaction where talk is tightly structured.

1-1-3. Written discourse

Some of the features and problems associated with spoken discourse are absent with written texts, because the writer has usually had time to think about what to say and how to say it. He also has time to write well-formed sentences that we can't find in the utterances of spontaneous talk. But the common questions that should be asked: what rules do people take into account when creating written texts? Are there special principles to which texts are structured and is there an organization of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges?

If all these regularities occur in written discourse as in spoken discourse and may present some problems for learners, so written discourse analysis may be applied to language teaching in order to overcome these problems.

It should be noted that grammatical regularities are essential elements in constructing well- formed written texts and the structure of sentences has implications for units such as paragraphs and for the progression of whole texts known as cohesion.

Basically, most texts display links from sentence to sentence in terms of grammatical features such as ellipsis (the omission of otherwise expected elements because they are retrievable from the previous text or context) and conjunction of various kinds (Halliday and Hassan 1976). Texts where cohesive features are apparent are easy to find. This is an example.

If you'd like to give someone a phone for Christmas, there are plenty to choose from. Whichever, you go for, if it's to be used on the BT (British telecom) network. Make sure it's approved-look for the label with a green circle to confirm this. Phones labelled with a red triangle are prohibited.

(ibid :599)

The underlined items can be interpreted in relation to items in previous sentences. "*Plenty*" is assumed to mean *'plenty of phones'*; "*you"* is interpreted as the same *'you'* in the first and second sentence; "*whichever*" is understood as the telephone *'whichever telephone'*. These are features of grammatical cohesion.

1-2. Semantics and pragmatics

1-2-1. Semantics

In 1938 Charles Morris published **"Foundation of the Theory of Signs**". He distinguished between three areas of logical investigation: Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics. This book is recognized as the starting point of investigation into the area of pragmatics. Morris's book didn't make any contribution to pragmatics but rather described problems of the understanding language which cannot be handled by semantic methods. Researchers continued later; Levinson (1983) dealt with a review of the linguistic approach of pragmatics. Since then, the area of pragmatics has lied on the borderline between logic and linguistics.

According to the typical linguistic approach, the most general definition of semantics is" *the study of linguistic meaning*" or " *The study of the meaning of words and sentences*". Semantics points out that many words do not in fact refer to the external world. People relate words to each other within the framework of their language. Semantics is concerned with what language means; that's to say, it deals with the description of word and sentence meaning.

When investigating the meaning of words in a language, linguists are more interested in characterizing the conceptual meaning rather than the associative or stylistic meaning of words. It is meant by conceptual meaning, the essential

components of meaning which are conveyed by the literal use of a word. If we consider, for instance, the word "*flower*" in English, its basic components might include *'plant - colours - good smelling'*. These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of "*flower*". However, there might be an associative meaning attached to the word "*flower*" that leads us to think of *'happiness, friendship*.'

The question that we should ask is how would a semantic approach help us to understand something about the nature of language? The best way which helps us is to notice the 'oddness'. When reading, for instance, the following sentences:

The dog spoke loudly.
My car was listening to music.

It is noticed that syntactically, the sentences are well- formed, but semantically, they are odd. If we say, "*The man spoke loudly*", the sentence is acceptable. What makes the sentence odd and not acceptable is that the noun '*dog'* doesn't have the property of *'speaking'*, but the man does. That's why the nouns that should be used as subjects of the verb '*speak*' must denote entities which are capable of speaking.

Meaning can be analysed in terms of semantic features and in terms of lexical relations. The first procedure includes the basic features involved in making the difference between the meanings of each word in the language and every other word. If you were asked, for instance, to make the distinction of the features of the meanings of the words: 'girl' and 'cat', you can say that part of the basic meaning of the word 'girl' in English involves the components (+ human, + female, - adult); and the word 'cat' involves the components (- human, + female, + adult). These can be seen as the most important features required in a noun in order for it to appear as the subject of a verb. Lexical relations are a second approach where some problems can also arise in looking for the components of meaning of many words in a language. In this procedure, the meaning of a word is not characterized in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relationship to other words. For example, if you were asked to give the meaning of the word "build", you might simply say "construct", or give the meaning of 'high', for instance, you might reply by giving the opposite 'low'.

Linguists consider the term lexeme as opposed to word. For instance, the word: begin, begins, began, beginning are different forms of the same lexeme. The typical relation between lexemes are: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy

Synonymy

It is meant by synonyms two or more forms with closely related meaning. For example, the synonym of 'customer' is 'consumer', 'liberty' is closely related to 'freedom'. We often notice when giving the synonyms of words that these words are not totally the same, but they are appropriate.

Antonymy

Antonyms are pairs of words that have opposite meanings. For example, live - die, old - young .Two types of antonyms can be identified: Gradable antonyms such as the pair 'thin - thick' can be used in comparative constructions, thinner than - thicker than. In non - gradable antonyms, comparative constructions are not used; for example, the antonym of 'dead' is 'alive'.

Hyponymy

Hyponymy is the inclusion of the meaning of a word in another. For instance, the meaning of 'animal' is included in the meaning of 'cow'. So 'cow' is a hyponym of animal. The relation of hyponymy provides the idea of "is a kind of".

The relationships between words in a language can be described differently. Other terms can be used is this field. Homophony deals with the description of two or more different written forms which have the same pronunciation. For example, see-sea; meet-meat and so on. Homonymy is used when one written and spoken form has two or more different meanings. For instance, the following pairs are considered as homonyms: bank (of a river) - bank (financial institution); pupil (at school) - pupil (in the eye). Homonyms are words which have different meanings, but have the same form.

1-2-2. Pragmatics

Meaning in language is not only a product of the meaning of words, but there are other aspects of meaning which are not derived only from meanings of the words used in phrases and sentences. When we read or hear pieces of language, we usually try to understand, besides what the words mean, what the writer or speaker of those words wants to convey. The study of 'intended speaker meaning' is called pragmatics. It has been defined by various researchers who emphasize on the use of language in context.

It is William Morris who first used the term pragmatics in his book '**Foundation of the Theory of Signs**' (1938). During the four decades after that, Pragmatics was only studied in the range of philosophy. Then, in 1979 "**Journal of Pragmatics**" was first established and it marked the establishment of the new subject, pragmatics.

So, pragmatics, as a subfield of linguistics developed in the late 1970's. It studies how people comprehend and produce a communicative act as speech act in a concrete situation. It is the term used to refer to the field of study where linguistic features are considered in relation to users of the language. When speakers perform utterances in context, they accomplish two things: interactional acts and speech acts. Pragmatics has been defined in various ways, reflecting authors' theoretical orientation and audience. The definition offered by Crystal (1997: 301) proposes that pragmatics is

"the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication".

In other words, pragmatics is defined as the study of communicative action in its socio-cultural context. Communicative action includes the use of both speech acts such as (apologizing, complaining and requesting) and speech events that vary in their length and complexity.

George Yule points out that pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes and the kinds of actions they are performing when they speak; but the disadvantage is the big difficulties met when analyzing them in a correct and objective way.

In his book "**The Study of Language**" (1985), George Yule considers an example taken from a news- paper advertisement to explain what the words might mean on one hand, and what the advertiser intended them to mean: FALL BABY SALE. When reading these words, we can't assume that it is about the business of selling young children, but it is advertising clothes for babies. The word 'clothes' does not appear, but we can interpret the words of the advertiser who intended us to understand his message to mean the sale of baby clothes and not of babies.

1-2-2-1. Aspects of language studied in pragmatics

Pragmatics studies how language is used in communication. It covers a wide range of phenomena including*:*

a. Deixis: is the ways in which language encodes features of the context of utterance. In other words, it refers to what the speaker means by a particular utterance in a given speech context.

b. Presupposition: refers to the logical meaning of a sentence or meanings logically associated with or entailed by a sentence.

c. Performative: It implies that when a speaker says something he/she also does certain things such as giving information, stating a fact or hinting an attitude. The study of the performatives let to the hypothesis of Speech Act Theory that holds that a speech act event embodies three acts: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act (Austin 1962; Searle 1969).

d. Implicature: refers to an indirect or implicit meaning of an utterance derived from context that is not present from its conventional use.

Pragmaticians are also keen on exploring why interlocutors can successfully converse with one another in a conversation. A basic idea is that interlocutors obey certain principles in their participation so as to sustain the conversation. One of the

principles is the cooperative-principle which assumes that interlocutors cooperate in the conversation by contributing to the ongoing speech event (Grice 1975). Another assumption is the politeness principle (Leech, 1983) that maintains interlocutors behave politely to one another, since people respect each other's face. Pragmatics is usually seen as comprising two components: a socio-pragmatic and a pragma-linguistic component (e.g. Crystal, 1997, 301). The socio- pragmatic component is related mainly to the social setting of language use, including the cultural context, the social status or social distance of interlocutors, whereas the pragma-linguistic component refers to the linguistic side of pragmatics, that's the range of linguistic structures used by speakers in a specific communicative situation.

Kasper and Rose (2001), in the discussion of pragmatic development, state that social interaction can be understood in a narrow and broad sense. While most researches in pragmatics have been on the narrow sense of social interaction, they argue the meaning of social interaction can "*usefully be extended to encompass all sorts of written and mixed forms of communication."* (ibid, 3)

1-2-2-2. Sentence meaning and utterance meaning

Widdowson presented Grammar as a device of mediating between words and contexts. According to him, this device can only go so far. When it has done its works, there is another task to be performed: it is to relate it to aspects of the context. This task deals with how context acts upon grammar so that the specific meanings of special expressions are realized. The most important point we have to focus on is that understanding what people mean when saying something is not the same as understanding the expressions used in saying it. To clarify this, we can consider the following expression:

I put the keys on the table.

When going through the expression, it easy to understand it as a sentence, but as an utterance presented in isolation outside its context, it seems to be unclear. We are unable to attach any meaning to it since we don't have any pre-existing knowledge or any co-existing feature of the situation of utterance. But when

producing such an expression, the addresser would have the intention of being meaningful and would suppose that the addressee can make a relation between the language and some shared conception or perception of the world and then can achieve the intended meaning. Every linguistic expression contains different meanings. The keys (of the house, of the car, of the shop…) on the table (the one in the kitchen, in the sitting-room……). The meaning here can be realized on a particular occasion and can be determined by non linguistic factors of context.

"*A sentence has only one invariant meaning, or if it has more than one, as in the case of structural or lexical ambiguity, its meanings can be exactly specified. Utterances, on the other hand, are protean in character. Their meanings change continually to suit the circumstances in which they are used".*

(Widdowson, 1990 :100)

When saying that an utterance has multiple meanings, it doesn't mean that it is completely different from the sentence. By saying keys, I can't mean anything else as (flowers, dishes …..). I can't say I put the keys on the table and I mean I threw them or I broke them. The conventional meaning of linguistic signs, and their combinations in sentences forms the ' types' of conceptualization considered as linguistic knowledge and the 'tokens' of particular and actualized meanings that must correspond to them. The keys referred to is a particular token instance of keys as lexical item, a general conceptual type as abstract. It can be said that the type is stable and depends on convention, whereas the token is not because it is conditioned by the context. Neddar (2004:43-44) argues that "*The difference between types and tokens is a difference between semantics and pragmatics*." This leads, he claims, to the distinction between two types of meaning: the symbolic (related to the sentence) and the indexical meaning (related to the utterance).

1-3. Research on interlanguage pragmatics

1-3-1. Introduction

According to some researchers, the systematic development of learner language reflects a mental system of second language knowledge. This system is referred to as interlanguage. The term interlanguage was coined by the American linguist Larry Selinker. In his view, a learner's interlanguage refers to the structured system the learner constructs at any given stage in his development. It draws partly on the learner's L1, but it is different from the target language. Therefore, it is a unique linguistic system.

The concept of interlanguage has some principal features about L2 acquisition: To begin with, it is permeable, in the sense that rules that constitute the learner's knowledge at any stage are not fixed, but open to amendment. Moreover, L2 learners' interlanguage is dynamic in that it is constantly changing; that's to say, rules change from one language to another. Furthermore, interlanguage is systematic. For an L2 learner, the true norms are contained in the interlanguage system he/she has constructed. He/she doesn't select haphazardly from his/her store of interlanguage rules, but in predictable ways. (Linneberg, 1972, in Ellis, 1985:49).

Interlanguage theory lies on two main bases, linguistic and psychological. The linguistic basis comes from the mentalist theories' principles of language acquisition. For Chomsky, the child's acquisition device is the primary determinant of L1 acquisition. This device is genetically endowed and provides the child with a set of principles about grammar, but it weakens with age so that automatic, genetically endowed language acquisition was not possible after puberty.

Selinker developed Chomsky's theory (Ellis, 1985) and suggested that the adults who can achieve native speaker proficiency in the target language do so because they continue to make use of the acquisition device. Therefore, the L2 learner who is able to transform the universal grammar into the structure of the grammar of the target language is considered as a successful learner. Cognitive psychology and psycholinguistics are the psychological bases of interlanguage. It is argued that the learner's SLA, which is a process of accumulating, reorganizing and creating, is

usually influenced by L1 language system, because the learner transfers the grammatical rules of L1 into the foreign language.

1-3-2. Interlanguage pragmatics

Since its conception in the early 1980's, interlanguage pragmatics, at the interface of second language acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics, has focused on investing learners' pragmatic knowledge. As a result, various researches in interlanguage realisations of a wide range of speech acts have been achieved. These researches study the intermediary proficiency that learners possess somewhere between the L1 pragmatic system and the L2 pragmatic system, complicated by the fact that the learner possesses an immature L2 linguistic system. The learner's pragmatic system is in a flux between that of the L1 and L2. Interlanguage pragmatics is a crossroads area that requires us to think in terms of learners and their individual characteristics as well as their respective environment. Interlanguage pragmatics has been defined as the study of "*non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic patterns in a second language"*. (Kasper and Blum Kulka, 1993:3). Kasper (1992:200) also defines it as

"*A branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers (NNS) understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language,and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge".*

It is noticed that both definitions employ the notions of "*linguistic action in L2*" and "*L2 pragmatic knowledge*" respectively to refer to the general domain of inquiry.

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) include the study of intercultural styles in bilingual speakers in a language contact situation and the use of L2 communication strategies. Five areas of research are identified by the authors: Pragmatic comprehension, production of linguistic, development of pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer and communicative effect.

From what was previously said, interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) belongs to two different disciplines: As a branch of second language Acquisition Research, ILP is

one of several specializations in interlanguage studies, contrasting with interlanguage phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. As a subset of pragmatics, ILP is seen as a socio-linguistic and psycholinguistic enterprise depending on how one defines the scope of pragmatics. A number of researchers have noted that the field of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) has focused primarily on the comparisons of the L2 learners' production of speech acts to those of native speakers.

Kasper and Schmidt (1996) suggested that interlanguage pragmatics studies have been comparative in nature because they have primarily focused on cross cultural pragmatic analyses in which the purpose is to examine the similarities and differences between two different speech communities, rather than to understand the L2 learner's development of target-like pragmatic competence.

1-3-3. Models of pragmatic competence

There are a number of relatively complex models of language proficiency that aim to capture the ability of the L2 learner to use language in social interaction. The two most influential constructs have been communicative competence (Hymes 1974, Canale and Swain 1980) and communicative language ability (Bachman 1990). What they have in common is that all of them acknowledge to some degree the importance of pragmatic competence in L2 learning. They can be seen as reactions to Chomsky's dichotomy of competence and performance, in which the notion of linguistic competence only included knowledge of abstract grammatical rules and set aside contextual factors of language use.

According to Chomsky's theory of language, individuals are born with a universal grammar, a mental blue print for processing and generating language.

"*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 limitations, distractions, shifts of attentions and interest, and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance*".

(Chomsky 1965:3)

Chomsky distinguished between the notions of "competence" and "performance". In his definition, competence is the intuitive knowledge of grammar and syntax and of how the linguistic system of language operates, and performance is the individual's ability to produce language.

As a reaction to Chomsky's limited definition of competence, the linguistic anthropologist Del Hymes (1974) proposed communicative competence by expanding Chomsky's notion and adding socio-cultural factors into the definition of communicative competence, which is the knowledge and ability that an individual possesses to use and interpret language appropriately in the process of interaction and in relation to social context. Possessing grammatical knowledge alone does not result in successful communication; the knowledge of how to use the forms of the language in a way that is appropriate to the situation or context in the speech community is also important.

For Hymes, Chomsky's definition of language knowledge could not account for the knowledge and skills that individuals must have to understand and produce utterances appropriate to the particular cultural contexts in which they occur . He defined competence in terms of

" *Both the knowledge and ability that individuals need to understand and use linguistic resources in ways that are structurally well-formed , socially and contextually appropriate , and culturally feasible in communicative contexts constitutive of the different groups and communities of which the individuals are members* ."

(K. Hall , 2002:105).

Hymes defined communicative competence in terms of four dimensions.

a. Systemic Potential contrasts with Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence and is knowledge of and ability to use the generative base of language.
b. Appropriateness is defined as knowledge of language behaviour and its contextual features and the ability to use language appropriately.

c. Occurrence is defined by Hymes as knowledge of whether and to what extent action is taken with language , and the ability to use language to take such action.
d. Feasibility includes knowledge of whether and to what extent something is possible , and the ability to be practical .

Canale and Swain (1980) were among the first in applied linguistics to attempt to use Hymes's notion of communicative competence to design a framework for second and foreign language curriculum design and evaluation . Their initial model of communicative competence contained three components :

a: Grammatical: included knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology , syntax , semantics and phonology.

b: Sociolinguistic : included knowledge of the rules of language use .

c: Strategic : included knowledge of strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication .

d: Discourse competence was later added by Canale (1982) because their initial model was concerned with oral language use . It dealt mainly with the knowledge needed to participate in literacy activities. In the same paper , he cautioned that

" *This theoretical framework is not a model of communicative competence , where model implies some specification of the manner and order in which the components interact and in which the various competencies are normally acquired ."*

(ibid: 12)

Three additional components are linked to discourse competence. The first is linguistic competence which consists of the basic elements of the linguistic system that are used to interpret and construct grammatically accurate utterances and texts, besides knowledge of and ability to use syntax, morphology, phonology, vocabulary and orthography. The second component is actional competence (rhetorical) which knows how to use language to do something to perform certain functions such as making a promise, giving orders and so on. The third component is socio-cultural competence. It comprises the non-linguistic, contextual knowledge that communicators rely on to understand and contribute to a given communicative activity. Socio-cultural competence is seen as a broader aspect as in that it includes

knowledge of and ability to use the rules, governing the larger social context of the activity. The final component is strategic competence which includes the knowledge, skills and ability to resolve communicative difficulties and enhance communicative effectiveness.

The notion of communicative competence helps us to see that language use doesn't involve knowledge of and ability to use language forms only , but also involves knowledge and ability to use language " *in ways that are socially appropriate , feasible and contextually called for*." (Hymes ,1972:282-83)

Gumperz (1982) defines communicative competence in international turns as the knowledge of linguistic-related communicative conventions that a speaker must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation. Both Hymes's and Gumperz's formulations of communicative competence recognize grammar and linguistic knowledge as a source to perform communicative functions in light of appropriateness in context.

Bachman (1990) indicates that pragmatic competence is concerned with the relationship between utterances and the functions that speakers intend to perform through these utterances. The concepts of sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence are used interchangeably by researchers because both concepts make reference to the appropriate use of language depending on contextual factors.

Bachman (1990) model of the components of communicative language ability offers a clear version of pragmatic competence to include both illocutionary competence, which is the ability to express and understand the illocutionary force of language functions, and sociolinguistic competence.

1-4. Speech acts

One main aspect of pragmatic competence is the production and understanding of speech acts and their appropriateness in a given situation.

The idea of speech act was first proposed by Austin (1962:5). He indicates that "*the uttering of the sentence is a part of the doing of an action."* According to Searle (1969:16), speech acts are "*the basic or minimal unit of linguistic communication."* Schmidt and Richards (1983:129) state that speech acts are "*all the acts we perform through speaking, and all the things we do when we speak."*

Speech acts are the actions we do through speaking, and they can cause and change in the existing state of affairs or cause an effect on the interlocutor. For example in saying "*I apologize*", one is not only stating something, but is also performing an act of apology.

Speech acts are the units of words that speakers use for achieving communicative functions. Austin (1962) classified the utterances people produce into three dimensions: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act. A locutionary act refers to the literal meaning of an utterance. An illocutionary act (force) refers to the act that the utterances convey. The illocutionary acts are performed in a way that the listener can understand the speaker's intention. They are usually conventionalized massages intended to be understood by the listener. The perlocutionary act refers to the possible effects that are caused by the utterances. Unlike an illocutionary act, a perlocutionary act is often not conventionalized and the success of the massage is often not predictable. For instance, if a brother says, "It's noisy here!" to his sister, he may simply be describing the condition in this room. Then this utterance can be seen as a locutionary act. If what he says is to imply that his sister turns the volume down, then it can be seen as an illocutionary act. If his sister can understand what he says and she immediately performs the action he implies, then it can be seen as a perlocutionary act.

Searle (1969) elaborated and refined Austin's concept of illocutionary acts and illocutionary force and developed Speech Act Theory. He used the term speech acts interchangeably with Austin's (1962) illocutionary acts. Searle (1969:12,20) classified speech acts into five basic kinds of actions based on speaker intentions.

1. Representatives: which commit the speaker to the truth of something (i.e.: asserting, claiming and reporting).
2. Directives: which are attempts of the speaker to get the hearer to do something (i.e.: ordering, commanding and requesting).
3. Commissives: which commit the speaker to do some future actions (i.e.: promising, offering and threatening).
4. Expressives: which express a psychological state (i.e.: thanking, apologizing and complementing).

5. Declarations: which bring out the correspondence between the propositional content and reality (i.e.: appointing a chairman, nominating a candidate).

The application of Speech Act Theory in SLA has studied how second language learners use sentences to perform speech acts and to participate in speech events. Harder (1980:128) found that

"*second language learners appear to have a great difficulty in expressing their emotional or psychological state (i.e.: expressive speech act) which results in the appearance of a "reduced personality"* .

Language learners may not know when it is appropriate to express certain feelings and to what degree such feelings should be conveyed on what occasion, especially in situations where negative feelings are involved , such as complaining. On the other hand, speech acts that can be performed with formulaic routines, such as expressions of gratitude or apologies, seem to be more easily acquired by language learners.

Cohen and Olshtain (1993) conducted a study examining the process of speech realization of English learners. They observed fifteen advanced English learners' use of speech acts using role play as a means of data collection and retrospective verbal reports for data analysis. The main purpose of the study was to understand the complex thinking process of English learners' production of speech acts. The results indicated that , during speech act production , learners were sometimes thinking in both the target language and learners' native languages , sometimes even a third language was involved . Learners might occasionally attend to grammar and pronunciation during speech acts production.

1-4-1. Information on pragmatic phenomena

It is argued that communication is more than just knowledge of the linguistic forms of a language. It is, rather, knowledge of the function of a language. In Hymes's terms, it is appropriate to use these forms. Social relations also affect on the production and interpretation of language.

In order to explain these functions, researchers have investigated so much the field and have taken some pragmatic phenomena such as requests and apologies as examples of speech acts.

1-4-2. Requests

A request is an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker. The act may be for an action or some kind of service; or it can be a request for information. It belongs to the class of directives.

The desired action is to take place as post utterance either in the immediate future (request-now) or at some later stage (request-then). The speech act of request can be seen as pre-event compared to, for instance, complaints which are post-event.

It has been shown that requesting appropriately and effectively in different contexts is a challenging task for L2 learners, and there are cross-cultural differences in the realization of the speech act of requesting. This has practical educational implications in L2 learning and teaching

1-4-2-1. Request strategies

By making a request, the speaker infringes on the recipient's freedom from imposition. The recipient may feel that the request is an intrusion on his/ her freedom of action or even a power play. As for the requester, he/she may hesitate to make requests for fear of making the requestee lose face: (Blum-Kulka et al 1989: 11). In this sense, requests are face-threatening to both the requester and the requestee. Since requests have the potential to be intrusive and demanding, there is a need for the requester to minimize the imposition involved in the request. To minimize the imposition, the speaker employs indirect strategies rather than direct ones.

There are three main strategies in making requests.

Direct strategies: they are marked by the use of the imperatives.

e.g.: clean up the kitchen.

- I'm asking you to clean up the kitchen.

Conventionally indirect strategies: refer to contextual preconditions necessary for its performance as conventionalized in the language.

e.g.: How about cleaning up the kitchen?

- could you clean up the kitchen, please?

Non-conventionally indirect strategies (Hints) refer to the object depending on contextual clues.

e.g.: -you have left the kitchen in a right mess.

(Blum-Kulka, Olshtain. 1984: 201-202)

These request strategies are influenced by social and cultural factors. Different cultures agree on general trends to situational variation. For example, indirect or polite strategies are used more than imposition requests. However, directness levels appropriate for given situation might differ cross culturally.

1-4-2-2. Request perspectives

In requests, there is usually a reference to the requester, the requestee and the action to be performed. The speaker can manipulate requests by choosing from a variety of perspectives in making requests. (Blum Kulka, S; House, J and Kasper, G, 1989)

a. Hearer- oriented (emphasis on the role of the hearer).

e.g.: could you clean up the kitchen?

b. Speaker-oriented (emphasis on the speaker's role or the requester).

e.g.: Do you think I could borrow your notes from yesterday's class?

c. Speaker and hearer oriented (Both requester and requestee are involved).

e.g.: So, could we clean up the kitchen?

d. Impersonal

e.g.: So, it might not be a bad idea to get it cleaned up.

Request realizations are modified internally by employing modality markers). Two types of which are identified, namely up graders and downgraders .While up graders intensify the impact of a particular utterance on the addressee, down graders serve to mitigate the respective illocutionary force.

The politeness marker "*please*" is a downgrader which is seen as a pragmatic routine. As Ellis notes, it is the first lexical and phrasal device (L and PD) to appear in request realizations. Furthermore, Scarcella (1979), in a cross-sectional study of ten beginners and ten advanced learners of English with Arabic as their L1, found that "please" was one of the first politeness features to appear with requests. Down graders appear in different situations and in different ways.

a- Alerters are used to attract the hearer's attention including titles, surnames, pronouns, etc.

E g: John, eh you ……., etc.

b- Request strategies refer to the linguistic elements used to convey the main act of the request. These strategies include want statements (I'd like to…….) , suggestory formula (how about…….?) and preparatories (can I…….? could I……..?)

c- Syntactic downgraders mitigate the request by using interrogatives (can I…...?), the past tense (I wanted to……), conditional clauses, etc.

d- Lexical and phrasal downgraders are also used to mitigate the impositive force of the request and include expressions such as "please" or "I'm afraid, you know and will you".

e- Mitigating supportives include justifications, promises of reward and preparators (I'd like to ask you……).

(Cook, V. 2003: 66-67)

1-4-3. Apologies

1-4-3-1. Definition

An apology is essentially an expression of regret, sympathy or fault. There is usually some degree (small / large) of sorrow, guilt or shame. The degree is important because it affects how to apologize .To extend this, we should say that in interpersonal manners, an acceptance of responsibility for a wrong, plus a pledge to change one's way. The wrong may be intentional or accidental; an apology is fitting in either case. The apology is usually made to the person or persons wronged. The purpose of an apology is to put the listener at ease. It is not complete if it does not reflect the four points: regret, understanding of the problem, acceptance of responsibility and willingness to do better.

We often apologize for things we do not do or show our responsibility with regret. Apologizing is one of the most important functions. Its appropriate use can mend broken relationships, prevent conflicts and smooth the road of life. The ability to understand how and when to apologize in a cross Cultural context can help bring peace and be happier and more productive individuals.

1-4-3-2. Analysis of apology realizations

Empirical investigations of apologies have been carried out by many scholars in the past decades. Olshtain (1983) investigated how native speakers of English and native speakers of Russian, both learners of Hebrew, apologized in Hebrew and their native languages. She used the same procedure used in an earlier study in Cohen and Olshtain (1983) which examined realization patterns of apology by native speakers of Hebrew to compare native usage and non-native usage. Taking the results into consideration, she found that English speakers who apologized, most of them in their native language, tended to apologize considerably less in Hebrew, while the Russian speakers apologized more in Hebrew.

Nollmer and Olshtain (1989) researched apology realization preference of speakers of German, focusing on the relationship between their realization patterns of apology in social/situational parameters such as social status, social distance, the hearer's expectation of an apology and severity of offence. They found two main points. First, the subjects showed responsibility in all situations; second, the use of intensification of apology was highly related to situational parameters (e.g.: the lower the speaker's social status, the more he/she used intensifiers.)

Holmes (1995:379,380) looked at gender differences in apologies and found both similarities and differences between males and females:

- Women used more apologies than men did.
- Women used most apologies for the hearers of equal power, while men apologized to women of different status.
- Women used most apologies for female friends whereas men used most for socially distant women.

It is noticed that the studies indicate that many similarities of realization patterns of apology were found across cultures and genders, even though there were several

differences among them. Moreover, the choice of apology strategies in certain situations is related to social/situational parameters (strategies are changed according to hearers or situations), and language learners tend to transfer their socio-pragmatic strategies in their L1 to apologize in L2. They also tend to apologize differently in their target languages.

1-5. Pragmatic transfer

There has been a great interest of second language researchers in studying the role of first language (L1) in second language (L2) learning. This interest makes the evidence that "*language transfer is, indeed, a real and central phenomenon that must be considered in any account of second language acquisition process*" (Gass and Selinker 1992:7). Selinker sees language transfer as central to the development of interlanguage.

The notion of pragmatic transfer refers to the use of one's L1 rules of speaking when conversing in a second language. This notion was first involved during the Contrastive Analysis (CA) period which was linked to behaviourist views of language learning and to structural linguistics. Because of the amazing effect the L1 had on using the L2, mainly at the level of pronunciation, researchers decided in the 1960's to forward the contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). The two beliefs which were dominating at that time were that the L2 was strongly influenced by the native language and this influence was negative. The CAH suggested that where two languages were different, there would be negative transfer or interference since learners would face difficulties that lead to the production of errors; and that where two languages were similar, there would be positive transfer since learning would be facilitated and no errors would result.

The notion of transfer was closely linked to behaviourist theories of language learning. However, several reasons lead to a different account of this notion:

a- L1 transfer is not adequately explained in terms of habit formation.

b- The notion of transfer must also account for phenomena such as avoidance caused by L1 influence.

c- Languages other than the L1 can also have a linguistic influence on second language acquisition and use.

Besides the phenomena that have been attributed to transfer on the grounds of similarities and differences between learners' L1 and L2, a process-oriented approach has been adapted. It implies the identification of what is transferred and the determination of the circumstances under which transfer takes place. These conditions are called "transferability constraints".

Kasper mentions different sociolinguistic factors that condition the occurrence of pragmatic transfer. In his research, he has shown that learners regularly perform speech acts such as requests, apologies and refusals in accordance with the sociolinguistic norms of their native language, despite the fact that they

"…….*have been shown to display sensitivity towards context-external factors such interlocutors' familiarity and status ……. Context-internal factors such as degree of imposition, legitimacy of the requestive goal……. and severity of offense, obligation to apologize, and likelihood of apology acceptance in apologizing."*

(Kasper, 1992: 211, 212)

This means that both native and non-native speakers vary their strategies in different contexts, although learners' variation follows their own L1 sociolinguistic patterns.

Linguistic proficiency, cultural information and length of stay in the L2 community are considerable factors that explain transferability constraints.

Pragmatic failure, according to Thomas (1983), is the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. It often occurs in cross-cultural and intercultural communication, and it plays an important role in foreign language acquisition.

Pragmatic failure may not only cause ineffective communication but may also cause native speakers to form misjudgements or misperception about the personality, beliefs and attitudes of the learner.

Chapter two

Socio-cultural aspects of classroom talk

2-1. Socio-cultural theory and second language learning

The socio-cultural perspective suggests that learning is a process of appropriating "*Tools for thinking that are made available by social agents who initially act as interpreters and guides in the individuals' cultural apprenticeship*"(Roggof 1990) , It is not just that the child learns from others in social contexts and during social exchange, but rather that the actual means of social interaction (Language, Gesture) are appropriated by the individual to form tools for thinking and problem- Solving.

Vygotsky's explanation of the relations between language and thought provides an illustration of the process of appropriation. His book, **Thought and language**, captures the notion that speaking and thinking are ways of acting on the material and social work , For him, The changing functional relationship between speaking and thinking is the most compelling example of the general process of development in which social tools are appropriated and transformed into individual tools of thinking and problem solving.

The works of L.S Vygotsky have continued to influence educational thinking. The two main aspects of his thinking that have influenced various works are first, the principle that "*Social relation or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships.*"(Vygotsky, 1981 a: 163) Mediation is the vector for learning by tools such as psychological devices (Vygotsky, 1981b) speech (Kozulin, 1986), the teacher (Jones,1997) , The group (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Second, the site for mediation is the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1962) originally defined the ZPD in terms of development. According to him, it is

"*The distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers."*

(Ibid:86)

2-1-1. Social view of learning

The importance of allowing space for talk within the curriculum has long been recognized. More recently, largely influenced by the work of Vygotsky, the social and contextualized nature of learning has been foregrounded. A social view of learning places interactions and the social context of learning at the heart of the learning process. Since "talk "is seen as an integral part of how understanding is developed ,the classroom is viewed as a place where understanding and knowledge are jointly constructed and where learners are guided by the teacher into common understandings and a common language to express them.

The notion of apprenticeship into a culture is particularly relevant in the E S L context, where in order to participate in the dominate culture, part of what students must acquire is control of the dominant language through which that culture is constructed. The importance of interactive communication where weight is given to learner as well as to teacher contributions is a major theme in second language acquisition research (for example: Ellis, 1994; Van Lier 1988).

2-1-2. The value of social and cultural diversity

Social and cultural diversity is a resource for expending and enriching the learning experiences of all students. Students can learn much from the diverse background experience and perspective of their classmates in a community of learners where participants discuss and explore their own and others' customs , histories, tradition, beliefs and ways of seeing and making sense of the world .In reading ,viewing and discussing a variety of texts, students from different social and cultural backgrounds can come to understand each other 's perspective to realize that their ways of seeing and knowing are not the only ones possible , and to probe the complexity of the ideas and issues they are examining .

All students need to see their lives and experiences reflected in literature. To grow as readers and writers, students need opportunities to read and discuss the literature of their own and other cultures. Learning resources include a range of texts that allow students hear diverse social and cultural voices, to broaden their

understanding of social and cultural diversity and to examine the ways language and literature preserve and enrich culture.

2-2. Classroom talk

2-2-1. What's Language?

Language has always been the principal means through which humans have organized their activities together. It is thus the basis of culture and at the same time the mediator of each individual's social and intellectual development .As Halliday (1993 a:93) states:

"When children learn language, they are not simply engaging in one type of learning among many, rather, they are learning foundations of learning itself .....Hence the ontogenesis of language is at the same the ontogenesis of learning."

Language is the principal means through which we formulate thought and the medium through which we communicate with others. Thus language in use underlies the processes of thinking involved in listening, speaking, reading, writing and other ways of representing. The application of these interrelated language processes is fundamental to the development of language abilities, culture understanding, and critical and creative thinking.

2-2-2. Language as a social resource

A social perspective on human action locates the essence of social life in communication. Through our use of linguistic symbols with others, we establish goals, negotiate the means to reach them, and conceptualize those we have set. At the same time, we articulate and manage our individual identities, our interpersonal relationships in our social groups and communities.

So many researches on communication show that much of what we do when we communicate is conversionalised. (Gumpersz, 1982 , 1992; Hymes, 1972) . That means that every day we participate in a multiplicity of communicative activities.

On our daily basis, we give and take orders, request help, chat with friends, seek advice and so on. Such activities are considered as routine activities, and we can easily distinguish one activity from another. Walsh (1991) states that

"*Language is more than a mode of communication or a system composed of rules, vocabulary and meaning. It is an active medium of social practice through which people construct , define and struggle over meanings in dialogue with and relations to others ; and because language exists within a larger structural context , this practice is in part , positioned and shaped by the ongoing relations of power that exist between and among individuals ."*

(ibid:32)

2-2-3. Language and cultural confrontations

Culture has been defined in various ways in different disciplines. For instance, Geertz (1973, 89) defines it as

"A historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, *perpetuate and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life".*

According to Holland (1987:4),"*culture is what people must know in order to act as they do make the things they make, and interpret their experience in the distinctive way they do".*

If people view language practices in themselves as embodying acts of identity, learning an L2 may engage learners in identity construction and negotiation. When learners are in the process of identity negotiation, they may shift their ways of viewing different languages (L1 and L2) and cultures (C1 and C2) and their ways of thinking about themselves in social contexts.

Rudimin (2003) indicated that in the process of identity negotiation, some individuals may adopt three general cultural strategies: assimilation, acculturation and preservation. In assimilation, learners give up their C1 styles and values and

then adapt to C2. In acculturation, the learners adapt to the life style and values of the C2, but at the same time maintain their own cultural styles and values. In preservation, the learners completely reject the styles and values of the C2 and preserve their C1. These categories help one to understand learners' possible reactions when they have contact with different languages and cultures.

Meanwhile, a group of researchers suggest that learners' cultural strategies are a matter of co-existence hybridization and blending. When learners have contact with different cultures and languages, they are working through contradictions and dilemmas among different cultures. They are experiencing, reacting and trying to move beyond these contradictions. In these processes, learners need to project a centred culture where they can negotiate the differences between different cultures and languages. Some researchers refer to this centred culture a third culture (Kramsch, 1993), and some call it hybrid culture (Gutierrez, 1995). These two concepts are similar. Both of them indicate that there is a third place to synthesize elements of different cultures and negotiate a mutual understanding of each culture. In other words, the third culture is a place of learners to negotiate cultural differences and construct their own understanding of the different cultures (Kramsch, 1993).

2-3. Classroom discourse and the construction of identities

Identity refers to our sense of self, or who we are. Since birth every person is subject to a set of "ascribed" identities usually associated with biological referents. Different forms of identities are given to people and enable them, when they move along different social contexts, to perceive how they are the same, or different from each others.

2-3-1. Learners' identities

Classroom discourse refers to contextualized language use in classrooms that reflects cultural and social practices. Interest in classroom discourse analysis grows

with an enhanced understanding of the mediating role of talk in learning as a high level mental activity and classroom interaction. From a socio-cultural point of view, a person's speech is a marker of identity. The interweaving relationship between identity and contextualized use of language in the classrooms has been developed by social constructivist researchers who view classroom as a social and cultural space where power politics and ideological conflicts are in constant interlay. An understanding of how such politics and conflicts come into being requires understanding teachers' and students' identities as a dynamic negotiable and powerful factor in the process of interaction, which in turn, affects ways of teaching and learning.

2-3-2. Teachers' identities

Various ethnographic studies have shown that the natures of classrooms are legitimate socio-cultural communities where different kinds of activities and events take place, and various roles are played by teachers and learners.

Duff and Uchida (1997) explored the multiple and varied social identities of four teachers of English in Japan that emerged from the teachers' participation in their schooling context. They were interested specifically in the teachers' identities as *"instructors and purveyors of the American English language and culture(s)." (ibid:453)* They found that although the teachers didn't perceive themselves as sources of American culture, "*implicit cultural transmission was very evident*". (ibid:467), particularly in the way they structured their instructional environments. One teacher, for example, focused in his daily lessons on social issues of American culture. Another relied on communicative language methods in learning.

The authors argue that the way they constructed their social identities as sources of culture were linked to their personal circumstances, professional histories and perceptions roles as teachers in their teaching contexts.

"*Socio-cultural identities and ideologies are not static, deterministic constructs that EFL teachers and students bring to the classroom and then take away unchanged at*

the end of the lesson or course ..... nor are they simply dictated by membership in a larger social, cultural or linguistic group ..... Rather in educational practice as in other factors of social life, identities and beliefs are ca-constructed, negotiated and transformed on an ongoing basis by means of language."

Duff and Uchida (1997:453) in Norton (2000: 56)

2-4. Identity and language use

In the study of language use, "linguistics Applied" approach considers individuals as significant sources of data on language which is assumed to be universal and abstract systems seen as self-contained and independent entities from individual minds, because traditionally individuals are seen as autonomous decision-makers. They can make whatever use they want of their language systems which are considered as the central means for the expression of personal meaning.

Moreover traditional perspective considers culture as an important construct, but it is treated separately from language .Individual language users can display their cultural norms, but they do not inhabit them and this cannot affect them in any way. They can use language to realize personal intentions that are not necessarily related to their culture group. From this view, cultural identities are like cloaks that individuals can put on or take off as they choose.

The socio-cultural perspective has a different view on language use and identity. This latter is seen as a socially constituted product of the social , historical and political context of an individual's lived experiences .While individuals' social identities and roles are to a great extent shaped by the groups and communities to which they belong , they , as individual agents , play a great role in shaping them . Unlike the traditional view, which views agency as an inherent motivation of individuals, a socio-cultural perspective views it as the "*socio-culturally mediated capacity to act"* (Ahearn 2001, 112) and locates it in the discursive spaces between individual users and the conditions of the moment.

Interactional sociolinguistics is an approach to the study of language use and identity that has had a great impact on research in applied linguistics. Interactional

sociolinguistics (IS) is based on the work of the anthropologist, John Gumperz (1981, 1982 a, 1982 b) .The notion of contextualization cues is at the heart of instructional sociolinguistics. These cues are defined by Gumperz (1999: 461) as

"Any verbal sign which when processed in co- occurrence with symbolic and lexical signs serves to construct the contextual ground for situated interpretations, and thereby effects how constituent message are understood."

The cues encompass various forms of speech production including the lexical, syntactic and pragmatic .They also include turn-taking patterns and even the language code itself.

John Gumperz explains the function of contextualization cues

"How do contextualization cues work communicatively? They serve to highlight, foreground or make salient certain phonological or lexical strings Vis – à- Vis other semilar units, that is, they function relationally and cannot be assigned context- independent, stable, core lexical meanings." (1992:232)

This approach to the study of language use assumes the individuals enter into communicative activities with others as individuals interested in working towards a common end, the analyses were mainly based on the cues the individuals use to signal an aspect of the context in which the sign is being used.

In theorizing how the socio cultural meaning may influence classroom practice, it was important to consider the discourse of the learners as collective .Thus it was the overall profile or composition of the learners' discourse that was of interest, including the patterns, norms and variation in the data. This profile is given the term classroom meta-discourse and was taken as being in relation to children's participation in salient socio cultural practices . Methodologically, the classroom meta -discourse was revealed by the points of view of the collective of learners in

the classroom. It was therefore necessary to consider the contribution of each learner in the classroom as important in making up the meta-discourse.

Learners 'perspectives are now viewed as an important focus of educational research. Children are no more viewed as passive recipients of adult socialization, but they are recognized to be active participants with their own sense of agency in their work on identity, Holland et al (1998:145,146) state that

"*The concept of identity serves as a pivot between the social and the individual, so that each can be talked about in terms of the other. The resulting perspective is neither individualistic nor abstractly institutional its social character – Talk about identity in social terms is not denying individuality but viewing the very definition of individuality as something that is part of the practices of specific communities .It is therefore a mistaken dichotomy to wonder whether the unit of analysis is the community or the person .The focus must be on the process of their mutual constitution ..... In a duality it is the interplay that matters most, not the ability to classify."*

According to Holland et al, identities are practised within figured worlds or frames of meaning, where cultural models set the stage and character the scene.

2-5. Classroom and language use

The language of the classroom has become a topic of great importance for researchers and educators who were often interested in asking questions about the outcomes of teaching. Their inquiries were on the various interactions through which knowledge is transmitted, displayed or avoided.

Professional interest in classroom language has grown with the recognition of its centrality in the processes of learning and its values as evidence of how relationships and meanings are organized. The publication of " **Language ,The Learner And The School** " was a real stimulus for people in the United Kingdom .

Much of the force behind investigations of classroom talk came from linguists especially those who wished to extend the domain of linguistic study beyond a concentration on structure and with a focus on " *persons in a social world who must know when to speak , when not , what to talk about , with whom ; when , where and in what manner "* (Hymes, 1972 :277). Those linguists were joined by ethnographers of communication whose purpose was to discover how talk is patterned in ways which define how the speakers perceive their relationships and situation. Such talk may become predictable on the basis of certain features of the local social system.

2-5-1. Classrooms as socio cultural communit*ies*

It has been noticed that participation in classroom activity is not the same as participation in other practices, for example, in the social practices children encounter at home or in the neighborhood. Since its power in determining children's future school success sets it on a very different level.

However, classroom practice and other social practices are not unconnected. In the classroom children encounter different pedagogies, pedagogic cultures and their corresponding discourses. They also collectively bring to the classroom discourse and knowledge that is constructed within the practices of their everyday lives outside the school .An understanding of the relationship between children's cultural resources and classroom pedagogic culture enables a view of children's meaning construction as embedded in their social and cultural milieu.

As Rogoff (1990:89) says, "*Social and cultural environments in which each is inherently involved in the others' definition. None exists separately.*" A concern with understanding classroom cultural norms and local pedagogies has resonance in many fields of educational research and carries international significance. Indeed, there is a diverse body of classroom focused research influenced by thinking in socio- cultural theory; for instance, within research in literacy education. However, an interest in understanding classroom practice extends across many fields.

Even research in school effectiveness and improvement has nudged towards an acknowledgement of the influence of socio-cultural circumstances on classroom practice.

Thrupp, for example, writing about schools in New Zealand, has claimed that the social class composition of schools influences classroom practices, schools' organization and management and the culture or values of the schools.

In order to understand the learners 'worlds outside the classrooms , a socio cultural perspective on language , culture and learning has drawn attention to the significance of classrooms as socio-cultural communities and thus to the importance of the language and culture of classrooms .

Drawing on Hymes's ethnography of communication approach to describe the features that are typical of particular classroom environments, various studies look for answers to question such as: What do classroom communities look like? What are the typical communicative events and activities? What are the conventional norms and patterns of participation? Who are the participants, and what roles do they play ?

Studies aim to shed light on the particular cultural assumptions embodied in the classroom routines and activities so that to understand the socio-cultural world into which learners are being socialized along with the participants' own understandings of their world and their positions within them.

Different studies on classrooms and on language classrooms in particular, have used more general ethnographic methods. Data come from varied sources and include videotapes of classroom activities, interviews with teachers and students, and written documents that are typical of the learning communities. Some of these studies take a language perspective and examine the content and patterns of language use in school contexts. Others have been concerned with linking learners classroom lives to the larger social, political, economic and historical conditions that give them shape. While other studies have been concerned with uncovering the cultural and ideological assumptions embodied in the particular identities that teachers and students adopt within their learning communities.

Canagarajah (1993) took the classroom as his unit of analysis. He investigated students' attitudes towards learning English as they were reflected in their involvement in a university-level English classroom in Srilanka. He noticed that while they were resistant to the Americanised cultural discourses found in their text books, the learners were strongly motivated to learn English for socioeconomic advancement in their communities. He concluded that full understanding of what happens inside a classroom must also be based on an understanding of the socio political forces with which students must contend outside the school.

Harklau (1994) also used similar methods comparing the communicative activities found in two instructional contexts – English as a second language (ESL) and mainstream classrooms- for adolescent learners of English as a second language in the USA .She found that both contexts didn't serve all the needs of language minorities, they served only some of their needs .

There are alternatives to a pure analysis of classroom talk, for example traditionally, in revealing cultural practices, ethnographers were not equipped to gather replicate data, and were forced to rely very much upon their field notes, memories and their own sense-making about the culture under examination. However , a strength of choosing multiple case study design is that in addition to a recognition of the researcher as a significant tool for understanding , it also allows for the systematic analysis of non- naturalistic data, that's the challenge for case study researches is to find credible wins to get under the skin of the culture under examination.

In writing their papers, the researchers aim to demonstrate how deep the relationship is between learners' identities and the significant social practices in which they participate. The classroom is viewed as a site for socio-cultural reproduction in which local pedagogic cultures and learners' identities are mutually constituted.

2-5-2. Classroom discourse

2-5-2-1. Overview

Conversation analysts have understood classroom talk as a type of institutional table that is empirically distinct from the default speech exchange system of ordinary conversation.While ordinary conversation is a locally managed equal power speech exchange system , teacher fronted classroom conversation is an unequal power speech exchange system in which teachers have privileged rights to assign topics and turns to learners and also to evaluate the quality of students' contributions.

Participants exhibit a preference for classroom talk to be organized in terms of initiation- response -evaluation (IRE) or question -answer -comment sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard 1975). These sequences are initiated and closed down by teachers who own the question and comment turns. Learners, however, are responsible for the answer turns in this typical classroom sequence.

Researches concerned with the language and culture of the classroom have looked more closely at how the worlds of classroom are constructed through language. In fact there are links between students participation in particular patterns of interaction and their communication development that's why researchers have become more and more interested in the field.

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:2) the classroom represents an attractive research setting because "*teacher-pupil relationships are sufficiently well defined to expect clear evidence in the text"*. Investigations were made on classroom as communicative settings where pupils receive and display knowledge and the distinction between their experience of language is being used in the other setting of their social world.

2-5-2-2. General characteristics of classroom discourse

As noted by Allwright and Bailey (1991, classroom discourse mediates between pedagogic decision- making and outcomes of language instruction. In order to plan

their lessons, teachers make selections with regard to what to teach (syllabus), how to teach (method) and also the nature of the social relationships they want to encourage (atmosphere). These plans are acted on and therefore result in "classroom interaction" that is produced with the learners. This interaction gives the learners opportunities to practise the L2. It also creates in the learners a willingness to encounter the language and the culture.

To identify the structure of classroom discourse, Mehan (1973) distinguished three components in general subject lessons:

1- An opening phase where the participants inform each other that they are going to conduct a lesson.
2- An instructional phase where information is exchanged between teacher and students.
3- A closing phase where participants are reminded of what went on in the core of the lesson.

Turn-taking in L2 classrooms has been examined by a number of researchers. Their researches have drawn extensively on studies of naturally occurring conversations. For example, Sacks and Jefferson (1974) identified rules that underlie speaker selection and change: only one speaker speaks at a time; a speaker can select the next speaker by asking a question that requires an answer; a speaker can alternatively allow the next speaker to self select.

Classroom researchers frequently highlight the differences between turn-taking in natural and classroom settings. They have shown that classroom discourse is often organized so that there is a strict allocation of turns in order to cope with potential transition and distribution problems and that who speaks to whom at what time is firmly controlled.

Turn-taking in language classrooms does differ from that in general subject classrooms. Lorcher (1986) examined turn-taking in English lessons in different types of German secondary schools. He found that the turns were allocated by the teacher, the right to speak returned to the teacher when a student turn was completed, and the teacher had the right to interrupt or stop a student turn. Lorcher

argues that these rules are determined by the nature of the school and by the teaching-learning process. Van Lier (1988) held the most important discussion of turn-taking in the L2 classroom and identified a number of turn-taking behaviours.

2-5-3. Patterns of classroom discourse

2-5-3-1. Initiation-response-evaluation sequence

One of earliest descriptions of discourse is provided in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) study. They were interested in describing the form-function relationship of typical classroom utterances ,and larger patterned sequences of activity into which the utterances fell .They described a three-part sequential exchange ,that they considered as the basic unit of classroom discourse –The IRE consists of the teacher 's initiation (I) the learner's response (R) and the teacher's evaluation of the response (E) .

More recent research on classroom discourse by for example Cazden (1988)and Gutierrez (1994) has shown the existence of the IRE pattern in western schooling from kindergarten to the University.

The IRE pattern involves the teacher who plays the role of the expert, eliciting individual students in order to ascertain whether the students know the material. The teacher asks a question to which he /she knows the answer, and expects the student to provide a brief and "correct" response. The teacher then provides an evaluation with such phrases: "Good", "That's right" or "No, that's not right" and so on.

The characteristics of classroom discourse have been shown in more recent researches in which the researchers have drawn connections between the patterns of language development. Cazden (1988) , for example ,used data from her own and other classrooms and revealed how the use of the IRE pattern more often facilitated teacher control of the interaction rather than student learning of the content of the lesson .

Gutierrez (1994) found that the use of the IRE sequence didn't allow the teacher and the students to communicate .In her study of "Journal Sharing", she revealed that in classrooms in which the activity was based on a strict use of the IRE , the teacher did most of the talking by commenting or elaborating ;whereas , student participation was limited to providing brief responses to the teacher's questions . The conclusion drawn by Gutierrez was that the students were given few opportunities to develop the skills they needed to construct extended oral and written texts.

An example of Gutierrez's study

1-(teacher calls on louiza; louiza reads her journal).

2-T: very nice louiza ....great ....okay ....she told us how he got burned and the [title ...

3-L:[oh yeah ....and it took place in the house .

4-T: AT the house ...great ...yolanda.

5-(Teacher calls on yolanda: yolanda reads her journal).

(Gutierrez 1994:348 in Norton 2000:75, 76)

According to other recent researches, the extended use of the IRE pattern in second and foreign language classrooms creates limited conditions for language learning. Hall (1995) , for example ,argued that persistent use of the IRE pattern limited students involvement in the target language, and gave them no opportunity to participate in more communicatively complex language events .

Similar findings were reported by Lin (2000) in her investigations of junior form English language classrooms in Hong Kong .In her analysis , she found the recitation script was the common pattern , and this was limited to student participation . Moreover she found that it most often occurred in classrooms consisting primarily of students from socioeconomically disadvantaged backgrounds .Lin argued that by keeping to a strict IRE pattern of interaction , the teachers ran the risk of pushing their students

"*further away from any possibility of developing an interest in English as a language and culture that they can appropriate for their own communicative and socio-cultural purposes"* .(ibid:75).

According to her , the use of the IRE was more prevalent in lower -track classes , leading to the construction of significant inequalities in student opportunities to develop intellectually and communicatively complex knowledge and skills .

2-5-3-2. Initiation – response – follow up sequence

In order to understand more fully the links between particular patterns of classroom discourse and learning, Wells (1993, 1996) conducted an analysis of the interactions of classrooms where extended student's participation was common. He noticed that the teachers in the classroom often initiated questions to students but instead of closing down the sequence with a narrow evaluation of their responses in the third part of the three – part sequence , they more often followed up by asking the students to elaborate or clarify so as to contribute in the ongoing discussion.

Wells concluded that the teacher's evaluation (E) of the students' responses in the third part of the sequence was limiting students' learning opportunities. He added that the teacher's follow up (F) on students' responses by asking them to expand their thinking or clarify their opinions, students' participation increased and their opportunities for learning were enhanced. He argued that the IRF pattern was beneficial to learner development.

Nystrand et al (1997), in their study of language arts classrooms confirmed the differences between the IRE and IRF patterns of interaction. They found that the teacher's third-part continuation served to open up the discussion rather than close it down. The discourse ratified the students' responses and incorporated them into the discourse of the class by elaborating on them or asking follow-up questions.

The researchers argued that these actions affirmed student participation in the process of knowledge building, helped them to extend their thinking and engagement with the subject matter, and provided opportunities for the learners to

take ownership of the ideas. These strategies also helped to create on inclusive classroom culture that valued participation and learning and enhanced students' performances in the classroom. Wells (-2000) noticed that teacher follow ups that made students extend their initial responses opened the door to further discussion, and provided more opportunities for learning.

Similar studies were held in foreign language classrooms to confirm the value of the IRF for promoting student interaction. Hall (1998), in her study of high school Spanish as-a-foreign language, found that when the teacher asked students to elaborate and expand each other's contributions, more participation occurred. When the teacher limited her responses to short evaluation of the students' responses, participation was constrained and learning opportunities were limited. Consolo (2000), in his turn, examined the interaction of English language classrooms in Brazil and found that in classrooms where students participate, teachers more often followed-up on student responses in ways that helped them to create topical connection between them. Verplaetse (2000) also studied the aspects of the IRF. These studies showed that regardless the content matter of the classroom, teacher follow-ups that expanded responses made the students' contribution valuable and encouraged active student participation in communicatively and intellectually rich interaction.

Chapter three

Classroom Research

3-1. Introduction

Second (or foreign) language classroom research is research that is carried out in the language classroom for the purpose of answering important questions about the learning and teaching of foreign languages . This kind of research derives its data from either classrooms specifically constituted for the purpose of foreign language learning and teaching or experimental laboratory settings that are set up for the purpose of research. These settings are sometimes established to replicate or recreate what happens in language classrooms.

3-2. Aims and issues in classroom research

Classroom research can focus on teachers or on learners, or on the interaction between teachers and learners .Teacher-focused research examines such factors as the classroom decision making processes of teachers, and what is referred to as teacher talk.

Teacher talk encompasses that kinds of questions that teachers ask, the amount and type of talking that teachers do, the type of error correction and feed-back that teachers provide, and the speech modifications teachers make when talking to second language learner.

Research that focuses on the learner looks at, for example, the developmental aspects of learner language, the learning styles and strategies used by different learners, the classroom interaction on learner language development.

A great deal of second language classroom research is carried out within the sub-discipline of applied linguistics known as Second language acquisition (SLA). The main goal of SLA research is to describe and to predict the stages that learners pass through in acquiring a second language, and to identify the processes through which learners acquire a second language. The purpose of classroom-oriented research is to identify the pedagogic variables that may facilitate or impede acquisition. The variables may relate to the teacher, the learner, the environment or some form of interaction among these factors.

The importance of interactive communication is a major theme in SLA research. Studies applied in the field give weight to learner as well as to teacher contributions (Ellis, 1994; van Lier, 1988), and other studies of mother tongue development also suggest that the process of language development involves adult and child together jointly negotiating and constructing meaning (Halliday, 1975). The kinds of modification which occur as meaning is negotiated and clarified appear to be particularly significant in second language learning, because they make meaning more comprehensible for the learner. Swain (1985.1995) also suggests that it is important for second language learners to have opportunities to modify what they say in order to produce more comprehensible, coherent and syntactically improved discourse for their listeners.

3-3. The classroom setting

Recently, schools have been confronted to various new teaching methodologies that purport to make the learning process more thought –provoking for both teacher and learner. Different approaches have been introduced in the field of foreign language learning, the communicative and progressivist approaches are of particular importance and value. The former approach's philosophy is that language is viewed as a vehicle for communication, through which people express feelings or exchange information and opinions in a given social context, whereas the latter (progressivist approach) takes a holistic view of the teaching –learning process, with the aim of fostering the student's development of the whole persona.

Consequently, the student is no longer considered to be a passive subject; on the contrary, he /she is looked upon as a self – actualising individual whose cognitive, emotional and educational needs are to be respected and promoted. It has been mentioned that learners are considered as effective participants in the process of learning and responsible for its outcomes and the teacher as a guide and facilitator who creates conditions for the development of an inventive, problem-solving capacity.

In fact, human interaction, inside or outside the classroom leads to authenticity and self–fulfilment. There has been a room for both teachers and students to grow

into. It is a setting that refers to a certain environment in which every task is performed. In relation to classroom arrangement, Wright (1987) suggests the different ways in which learners might be grouped physically based on individual, pair, small group, and whole class mode. In this kind of relationship, methods and techniques are facilitating devices, whereas the cognitive, affective and social growth of teachers and learners are the keynote.

3-3-1. Classroom interaction patterns

Classroom discourse analysis has long been investigated and classroom interaction patterns are being studied because of their great impact on either facilitating or inhibiting students' language acquisition.

Traditional language classroom interaction is usually characterized by a rigid pattern, particularly, the act of asking questions , instructing and correcting students' mistakes .Also , Teachers are usually the ones who select and initiate topics for conversation and restrict students' responses. Besides this, teachers' questions were the most dominant in the lessons .The interaction was predominantly a teachers- centered question – answer- feedback interaction during which student knowledge was displayed and evaluated, whereas pupil -initiate was completely absent. With the absence of opportunities for students to negotiate meaning with their teacher, their language acquisition is claimed to be inhibited (as suggested by Long, 1987).

Teachers in traditional classrooms tend to dominate the interaction and speak most of the time because they think that close and persistent control over the classroom interaction is a precondition for achieving their instructional goals and students' unpredictable responses can be avoided. (Edwards & Westgate, 1994) Pupils on the other hand, just act mainly as the receivers of knowledge. This interaction pattern is likely to minimize students' involvement in the lessons and inhibit their opportunities to use language for communication.

Mc Carthy (1991:18) suggests that teachers should try their very best to strike a balance between "real" communication and teacher talk.

It has been noted that "good" teachers talk means "Little" teacher talk, because too much talk by the teacher deprives students of opportunities to speak. In other words, it means that instead of dominating the whole lesson, teachers should give their students more opportunities to initiate topics for conversation. Another reason for teachers' dominance in classroom interaction is that it is rather difficult for teachers to get students oral responses.

In a variety of research studies conducted by researchers with groups of teachers teaching in secondary schools thought that getting students 'oral responses was one of their major problems in teaching. The teachers noticed that student reticence is due to: Low English proficiency of students; - students' lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes, the uneven allocation of turns because teachers tend to ask brighter students to answer questions, and lack of students' understanding of teachers' instructions.

3-3-2. Importance of classroom interaction in learning

Language classrooms can be seen as sociolinguistic environments (Cazden 1988) and discourse communities in which interaction is believed to contribute. According to a review of studies presented by Hall and Verplaetse (2000), interactive processes are not strictly individual or equivalent across learners and situations, language learning is a social enterprise linked to learners repeated and regular participation in classroom activities. The authors state that the role of interaction

"In additional language learning is especially important. It is in their interaction with each other that teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development."

(ibid:10)

According to Allwright's (1984:158) Claims on the importance of classroom interaction in language learning in foreign language lesson, it is "*inherent in the very notion of classroom pedagogy itself."*

Long' s interaction Hypothesis (1985) argues that negotiation of meaning in verbal interactions contributes to the generation of input favorable for second language development, and several studies have built upon the effect of negotiation of meaning on second language acquisition. In Ellis review (1999) of the updated version of Long's interaction hypothesis (1996), Two views of interaction are incorporated in the revised version of the theory that was presented by Long a decade earlier: an interpersonal process, to help learners notice relevant features in the input, and an intrapersonal activity which involves different types of processing operations for learners to acquire the negotiated input.

3-3-2-1. Turn-taking in classroom interaction

Review literature about turn-taking shows a close connection between learner discourse acts (identified by Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), such as informative, clarifications and conscious negotiating of learning, especially when learners make effective use of turn-taking opportunities. Such learners show active involvement in the dialogue. When they question certain opinions or express disagreement, they prospectively influence the direction of other turns in classroom talk. The personal views they raise as evidence of ability to engage with both the topic under discussion and the activity on which that topic is based.

Van Lier (1988: 94) defines turn-taking as "*The systematic nature of speaker change in different settings"*, for example the classroom in our case. When the teacher gives input, what does the learner do with the slot in terms of a contribution relative to content, form and meaning? He adds

"*Because of the turn-taking rules, participants are restricted in their power and initiative to change and influence the discourse. This implies that the way turns are allocated either constrains or promotes initiative."*

(ibid:105)

One of the assumptions made by Van Lier is that "*interaction presupposes participation, personal involvement and the taking of initiativ*"(ibid:91). Initiative can, therefore, be viewed as the learner's motivation to take part in classroom dialogue without constraint, and in the words of Van Lier, initiative can be studied qualitatively in terms of "*how intensely and spontaneously and actively they do so*"(ibid:91). The intensity and spontaneity of initiative is manifested in the way turns are taken. Learners who initiate turns as opposed to waiting for teacher-allocated turns show evidence of initiative.

Van Lier (1988) identifies four ways through which initiative is expressed, through prospective turns, retrospective turns, topic management and sequencing turns. The prospective turn of allocation limits the next speakership, influencing the information generated to sustain the discussion. This could be in the form of a question or clarification request. The retrospective turn of self-selection is linked to a preceding turn. In this type of turn, the interactant will select him/herself to respond to a question or a clarification request. Concerning topic management, initiative is manifested in the way the learner manages the topic. It is characterized by the way learners question certain aspects of content, disagree, raise personal opinions or object to assertions. Initiative can also be shown when a learner gets involved in a series of sequentially related turns which "*influence the kind of activity that is being conducted".* (ibid:123)

3-3-2-2. Malamah-Thomas on classroom interaction

Malamah-Thomas (1987:5) says that having a teaching plan is just a beginning because "*when the plan is put in action, things get more complicated*". This is a reminder that the teacher's language action is followed by learner reaction, which makes discourse unpredictable because "*every interaction situation has the potential for co-operation or conflict*".(ibid:8) Co-operation and conflict are directly influenced by the attitudes and intentions of interlocutors, and determine the way interaction takes places during a given lesson. She also argues that having something to communicate does not necessarily mean that the teacher will be able

to communicate it. "*Achieving communication requires a lot more effort and expertise."* (ibid:11)

Drawing on Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Malamah-Thomas makes their ideas more relevant to practice. She specifies the importance of subject content as the basis of interaction, leading to data that can be subjected to analytical instruments. This is manifested in the learning event and the context of pedagogic communication. The learning event takes place through language; for the speech event, she argues that the addresser has to choose words that make his attention clear and the message must be accessible to the addressee. She articulates some characteristics of the speech event. These are:

Addresser = Teacher.

Purpose = The teaching objective.

Content = The syllabus item.

Form = The activity.

Medium = The spoken language.

Setting = The classroom.

(ibid:34)

These are useful descriptive tools for discussing dialogue, qualifying speech acts and explaining turn-taking. Each of the factors has some effect in the learner; hence, the ideas given by Malamah-Thomas are closely linked with turn-taking theory. For example, if a teacher does not make the purpose of communication clear, chances of conflict and lack of co-operation are high. Turns will not be as effective as expected, and opportunities for initiative would be minimized.

3-3-3. Types of language use in classroom interaction

Researchers have described classroom interaction by identifying the different types of language use or interaction found in L2 classrooms. Allwright (1980)

provides what he calls "*a macro-analysis of language teaching and learning"* by identifying three basic elements:

1. Samples, instances of the target language in isolation or in use.
2. Guidance, instances of communication concerning the nature of the target language.
3. Management activities aimed at ensuring the profitable occurrence of L1 and L2 (ibid:166).

Mc Tear (1975) identifies four types of language use based on the distinction between interaction where the focus is the code itself (a key feature of the language classroom) and interactions which centre on genuine meaning exchange.

1. Mechanical (no exchange of meaning is involved).
2. Meaningful (Meaning is contextualized but there is still no information conveyed).
3. Pseudo- communicative (i.e. new information is conveyed but in a manner that is unlikely in naturalistic discourse).
4. Real communicative (i.e. – spontaneous speech resulting from the exchange of opinions, jokes, classroom management etc).

The frameworks developed by Ellis and Van Lier are more complicated because they involve two dimensions rather than one. Ellis distinguished "goal" (the overall purpose of an interaction) and "address" (who talks to whom). He specified three goals.

1. Core goals where the focus is on the language itself which is the medium, on the message, or embedded in some ongoing activity.
2. Framework goals deal with the organization and management of the classroom events.
3. Social goals.

To illustrate how the type of goals influences the discourse, Ellis took interactional sequences from an ESL classroom in Britain and discussed them. Then he speculated about the learning opportunities each type affords.

He pointed out that interactional events with core goals restrict learners to a responding role, whereas both framework and social goals give them opportunities to initiate discourse and to perform a wider range of language functions.

Van Lier (1988) also developed a framework in which he distinguished four basic types of classroom interaction according to whether the teacher controls the topic (i.e. what is talked about) and the activity (i.e. the way the topic is talked about).

Type 1: is concerned with the small talk sometimes found at the beginning of a lesson or in private talk between the students. Here the teacher controls neither topic nor activity.

Type2: In this type of interaction, the teacher controls the topic but not the activity; it occurs when the teacher gives instructions or delivers a lecture.

Type3: Both topic and activity are controlled by the teacher, as when the teacher elicits responses in a language drill.

Type 4: Is illustrated in small group work where the procedural rules are specified but the students are free what to talk about. In this type of interaction the teacher controls the activity but not the topic.

In addition to these types, van Lier deals with the function that language serves and distinguishes three types of function: ideational (Telling people facts or experiences), interpersonal (working in relationship with people), and textual (clarifying and summarizing).

Language classrooms have been taken as the main sites to develop these frameworks through ethnographic studies.

3-4. The effects of the teacher's authority

« Teacher authority » as a matter of fact, has been given various meanings. Some people associate it with the teacher's elevated cognitive, intellectual and social status; while others tend to connect it with such feeling as arrogance.

There has always been a tendency on the part of the teacher to claim superiority over his / her students. The teacher who evinces these characteristics keeps on blaming the students for their aberrant behavior and unsatisfactory performance. He/ she asserts his her authority over his/ her students. With such a feeling of arrogance, this teacher behaves in an undemocratic way, in any case. That's to say this arrogant figure with his lofty ideas, his personality, intellectual and linguistic abilities, besides the facial expressions and bodily positions of the teacher, i. e. left /right, front /back, elevated/ non elevated, and standing /seated, have each been associated with a certain degree of social dominance. For example, a teacher who, most of the time in class, is standing , elevated and occupies the foreground on the right side, is perceived to be dominant.

We can imagine what a real strain on the pupils this must be. Consciously, the teachers' posture and facial expressions exude a certain mood which often builds up tension and aggravates interaction between teachers and students, and among students themselves. This discrepancy between this mood and the educational objectives relating to cognitive development is in itself pernicious and un-possessing to cope with, mainly on the part of the student. How can the student feel secure and confident in a hostile environment, in which he/ she is to be « seen but not heard? »

It has been argued that facial expressions for primary emotions such as surprise, fear, sadness and happiness are universally the same and are consequently cross-culturally perceived. As is evident a teacher exercises his requisite authority to lay down rules which the students must adhere to. Many generations look back on their school-days with a measure of fear because they believe that learning means hard work and sacrifice, and teacher's job is to reward or punish. Though this belief may be legitimate, it should be suggested by realizing and assuming the correct and important role as teachers and learners.

3-5. The roles of the teacher and the learner

One can hardly envisage a language learning situation in the absence of an interaction of the student with his/her fellow students, the teacher and the text book- Every time the student interacts with any of these sources, he /she makes various hypotheses about what he/she is learning, and accepts or rejects them, trying out new ones. In his /her attempt to learn the foreign language, he /she is dependent on his /her co-interactants, as he /she develops a wide range of strategies which are tested only in a communicative context. These strategies can be distinguished in three categories: production strategies, comprehension strategies and interactive strategies. It should be pointed out that human interaction in the classroom is a condition for successful language learning and intellectual, emotional and social development.

3-5-1. The role of the teacher

Language teaching is a complex issue that encompasses linguistic, psycholinguistic, socio cultural, pragmatic and instructional dimensions. A lot of factors contribute to the dynamics of the educational process, such as interactionalism and the pragmatic status of the foreign language, teaching and learning styles and program characteristics. The teaching –learning process reflects different cultural traits and traditions. In some cultures students tend to feel more at ease in the classroom, expressing their viewpoints and agreement or disagreement towards the teacher and the target language. For instance, Greek society and its educational system favor rote memorization, while western countries, in general, do not value it.

Moreover, such issue such as the degree of preparation of teachers, the validity of testing and evaluation procedures can have a tremendous impact on language learning. It's obvious that the task or act of « teaching » encapsulates a lot more than merely providing instructions and guidelines for students. It presupposes a psychological and philosophical knowledge on the teacher's part, so as to combine

techniques in class, as well a view to assessing any situation accurately and appropriately.

The teacher is expected to play important roles in the instructional process. These roles must ultimately be related to assumptions about content and, at the level of approach, to particular views of language and language learning. Some instructional systems are totally dependent on the teacher as the source of knowledge and direction; others see the teacher's role as consultant, guide, and model for learning, while others limit the teacher initiative and build instructional content and direction into texts or lessons plans.

« *Teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristic of classrooms in which a particular method is being used. Teacher roles in methods are related to the following issues; the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill (e.g.: practice director, counselor, model), the degree of control the teacher is responsible for determining linguistic content, and the international patterns assumed between teachers and learners »*

(Richards, 1994; 23).

Undoubtedly, the teacher is called upon to perform several functions in foreign language learning. These functions are:

- Teacher as director and manager
- Teacher as language resource.
- Teacher as a model and independent language user.

3-5-1-1.Teacher as director and manager

The teacher's concern as a director and manager is to create a warm and stimulating atmosphere in which the students will feel secure and confident. It is very important for learners to feel very much at home with both their teachers and fellow –learners .They are expected to face the obstacles of foreign language learning, and experiment the new and strange sounds by role playing in a language that they have begun to learn.

Besides creating the right atmosphere, the teacher should also make decisions on the materials to be used, as well as the activities and games which will best accord with the cognitive and linguistic abilities. Because the learners do not share the same cognitive and linguistic abilities, or interests and motivation, it is necessary for the teacher to choose a wide range of materials and teaching techniques and strategies in order to respond to the students' interests and capacities. So, the teacher is supposed to organize the class and decide whether a specific activity, role play or game will be performed in pairs or groups. Taking into account the learners' preferences, the teacher may help develop a learner- centered approach to foreign language learning. He/ she has also to decide for the materials and strategies suitable for their needs.

3-5-1-2. Teacher as a language resource

Besides acting as manager, the foreign language teacher has a second function; it is that of counselor and a language resource.

In other words, he/she has to provide the learners with necessary input in order to foster understanding of the relation between language and communication. He /she must modify and simplify his/her language according to the needs arising in each communicative situation, and to the grammatical and language proficiency of the students.

Moreover, the teacher as a language resource should help learners to acquire a taste for the target language and culture. He/ she should make explicit that language should always be learnt in connection to its users and the uses to which it is put. That's why grammar should not be the only reference point in foreign language learning; the teacher has to draw his students' attention to the socio-cultural and pragmatic aspects of the foreign language they produce, both at the sentence level and the discourse level. J.C Richards (1994:175) notes, "*A focus on grammar in itself is not a valid approach to the development of language proficiency."*

The main goal of the teacher as a language resource is to provide enough remedial work in order to eradicate students' errors, and encourage learners to develop their

own learning strategies and techniques so as to discover the answers to their own questions.

3-5-1-3.Teacher as a model

In order to become a successful communicator and model for learners, the teacher should promote a wide range of behaviors and psychological and social relationships such as solidarity and politeness. Because of the psychological and social distance which exists between them, learners often find it difficult to adopt these behaviors. So they have a tendency to adopt the teacher's language behaviors to indicate attitude and role relationships. Of course, the learners see the teacher as a live model and human being to whom they can relate.

The teacher should help learners to negotiate meaning in the target language through his/she participation in it, and act as a mediator between the linguistic and extra- linguistic context of foreign language learning, as these are reflected in the text books, the audio- visual aids or literature.

To conclude, it should be noted that teachers play an essential role in the foreign language classroom. They are not only directors and managers of the classroom environment, but they also function as counselors and language resources that facilitate the teaching-learning process. In addition teachers can become models and independent language users whom learners can rely on to overcome the short-comings of the foreign language classroom environment.

3-5-2. The role of the learner

With the shift from cognitive and transformational – grammar approaches to a communicative view of learning, learners who were viewed as stimulus – response mechanisms whose learning was the product of practice are nowadays regarded as individuals who should have a say in the educational process.

"*The role of the learner as negotiator between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning, emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the*

group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way."

(Breen and Candlin 1980:110 in ibid: 22-23) .

Various factors are seen as responsible for students learning, but three are conspired as the most important.

3-5-2-1. Age and cognitive factors

Age variation in foreign language learning and learning differences between children and adults are significant factors that must be taken into account in choosing the right approaches, design and procedures. Experiments have shown that there are a lot of biological factors at work in language learning. In young learners, both hemispheres of the brain are responsible for the language function, while at puberty it is only the left hemisphere that takes over, which makes language acquisition and learning more difficult. This process may be responsible for learning differences between children and adults.

Cognitive and learning styles, already acquired through mother tongue, may influence foreign language learning. Some individuals are more analytical by inclination and tend to learn through reasoning faculties, whereas others view learning as acquiring knowledge subconsciously.

Piaget's 'formal operations' theory relates to adults' more mature cognitive capacities as opposed to the unconscious automatic kind of learning that characterizes young learner's less mature cognitive system. According to this theory, adults are thought to deal with the abstract nature of language more easily than young learners, though those young learners may prove better ones in the long run. Language learning can also be influenced by the way in which the learners use that language.

"*Three types of monitor users have been identified: over users, under-users and optimal users. Over-users are associated with analytical conscious learning. On the*

other hand, under-users are associated with subconscious learning. Finally the third category is that of optimal users who seem to be the most efficient."

(ibid: 85, 86).

It could be said that the rate at which learners learn a foreign language may pertain them to foreign language aptitude.

3-5-2-2. Social and affective factors

It is necessary to call for an examination of the social and affective factors in order to achieve successful foreign language learning. The teacher should take into consideration the social proficiency which learners have attained. That's to say the degree to which the learner employs the foreign language in order to communicate and negotiate meaning or achieve certain social goals. Some learners, for example, fail to use the right words in certain situations because they have not learnt to use language in a socially accepted way. For instance, they cannot cope with making requests, asking permission, giving advice, etc. It could be noted that different cultures favor different attitudes on the part of the learner.

Besides the social factors, affective factors also play an important role in facilitating or precluding learning. It is obvious that an atmosphere which fosters and promotes confidence and emotional stability will produce better students. Harmony in the classroom helps relieve tension and keep the door to language processing open. The teacher's task is to conduct the learner beyond everyday's problems towards a more creative reality. In this reality, the learner may easily identify with the teacher and venture out into new aspects of the target language, dealing with it in his/her own individual way. If the learner feels at ease with the teacher and the fellow Student, he/she will learn; if he/she feels rejected and is afraid of being scoffed at whenever making a mistake, he/she will withdraw from the educational process and lag behind cognitively and emotionally.

3-5-2-3. Learners' needs and interests

A successful course should consider learner needs. For this reason, the concept of needs analysis has assumed an important role in language learning. Needs analysis has to do with the aims of a course, since these aims are determined by the uses to which the target language will be put on completion of the program. For example, is our aim to achieve a high level of language proficiency or are we called upon to respond to the needs of learners who need to master specific skills? All these parameters will have to inform the methods and techniques that we use in class, as well as the materials design we are supposed to implement in order to achieve the best results.

Concerning the learners' interests, it is worth noting that the teachers should be aware of the differences between children and adolescents. For instance, the former are interested in body movement and play, whereas the latter want to learn about human relationships in general and achieve a deeper understanding of their abilities, with the aim of developing personality and character.

It's evident that foreign language learning is not a simple process where teachers are the purveyors of knowledge. For successful foreign language learning, they must have both the ability and desire to learn. Otherwise, the objectives we set will fail.

It has been noted by specialists that foreign language teachers must be flexible enough and sensitive enough to give convincing responses to the learning preferences, interests and needs of their learners in terms of materials, techniques, classroom methodology and teacher talk.

3-6. Factors influencing language learning

There are some factors that may facilitate or hamper language learning. These factors should be given attention in order to be described and evaluated.

Infrastructure and school budgets are considered as important issues but have not received much attention in ELT articles and books, though they contribute a lot in out-coming the educational process. One could say that they constitute the extra-linguistic context of the teaching-linguistic situation, a situation where the

classrooms are over-crowded and the teacher seems unable to familiarize himself with numbers of students. Moreover, the limited, or to say, no access to school libraries and educational seminars may also inhibit students' and teachers' progress. In addition to this, seating arrangements in class can be another factor that influences language learning. For example, in a class where desks are arranged in such a way that students look towards the teacher rather than their classmates, learners and teachers alike are unable to interact through role-play and other activities or even eye contact and non-verbal communication in general; whereas, in a situation where desks are arranged in a circle or in groups or pairs, learners are provided with the opportunity to develop warm and constructive interpersonal relationships.

The teaching-learning situation is not merely an intellectual or cognitive system of values; it is a complex, dynamic and psychological process, whereby students should be encouraged to think, analyze and make hypotheses as well as feel, and in so doing, to live.

Part II

A Pragmatic Approach to EFL

Chapter four

Social Interaction in the classroom

4-1. Introduction

English is used in different regions of the world. It is used by people from Korea, Thailand, and Switzerland just to speak with the Americans, the British or Australians. English is increasingly used by people from Asia to interact with people from Africa. "The story of English" is a BBC documentary in which it was shown that English is frequently used among interlocutors when no so-called "native speaker" of English is present. The contexts for the use of English may be academic, conferences, business, diplomacy, educational institution audio-visual media or tourism.

The English language includes at least three types of varieties: (1) those that are used as the primary language of the majority population of a country such as American and British. (2) Varieties that are used as an additional language for intra-national as Well as international communication in communities that are multilingual such as India, Nigeria, etc. and (3) varieties that are used almost exclusively for international communication such as Chinese and German. Most of these English developed as a result of colonial imposition of the language in various parts of the world.

Although English is not the language with the largest number of native or first language speakers, it has become a lingua franca. A lingua franca can be defined as a language widely adopted for communication between two speakers whose native languages are different from each other's and where one or both speakers are using it as a second language. For example, many people living in European Union frequently operate in English besides their own languages and the economic and cultural influence of the United States has led to increased English use in many areas of the globe. English seems to be one of the main languages of international communication, and even people who are not speakers of English often know words such as: Bank, hospital radio, piano……. . Many of these words have been borrowed by English from other languages.

4-2. The context ESL versus EFL

There is a need for making a distinction between the English as a second language (ESL) and the English as foreign language (EFL) environments. ESL classrooms mean that the second language (L2) serves as both the medium of instruction as well as the content of instruction, which means that the learner is expected to understand as well as communicate in L2. ESL classrooms are usually made up of students from a variety of backgrounds, cultures and socioeconomic realities, who often share nothing more than their non-native status in an English speaking country. Murphy and Byrd (2001: 4,5) define ESL as

"*the teaching of English……. in countries where English is the major language of commerce and education*", where students *"are likely to hear English being spoken on a regular basis in settings beyond the classroom".*

EFL generally encompasses all other teaching situations that do not fall into this category. In the EFL teaching environment, students most likely only speak English in the classroom, or on very limited occasions outside the classroom. In contrast to ESL classroom, in EFL classrooms the learner learns the language in an environment where there in little natural use of the language; Furthermore, the foreign language is treated equally to the other school subjects with its homework and tests, and the lesson minutes are priceless slots of time for input, output and practice. The use of L1 can appear to get in the way of optimal lesson time management; it can seem like a detracting force that bursts the fragile bubble of L2 communication created by the instructor. In an EFL classroom one of three situations typically exists: -a-the students and teacher all share a native language and culture, and the English language is part of a purely academic understanding.
b- the teacher, despite being a native English speaker, has spent many years in the students culture and has a basic understanding of the native language; or -c- the students share a first language (L1), but the teacher has come from another country to bring the English language and all that comes with it.

For many years, research has encouraged English as foreign language (EFL) teachers not to use any language but English in their classroom. Most of them tend

to have opinions about native language use, depending on the way in which they have been trained and, in some cases on their own language education. They bring these opinions to the profession and therefore to the classroom.

4-3. General and specific English

One issue of language variety has little to do with geography and power. Teachers have to decide whether the English taught will be general or specific.

A large number of students in the world study "general" English, that is all purpose language with no special focus on one area of human experience (e.g.: Business or academic study) over another. General English courses usually offer a judicious blend of different language skills and choose their topics from a range of sources, basing their selection of content more on student interest and engagement than on an easily identifiable student need. In schools and institutes all over the world students are taught to communicate on a general social level and to cope with the normal range of texts which educated language users experience outside their professional lives. General English is taught when we do not know how, why or when our students will need the language in the future, and so we give them language with the broadest range of use possible.

In contrast to students of general English, students of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) may have a closely identified goal for learning. Perhaps they are studying in an English-Medium University. They might therefore want a form of ESP referred to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in which there is a concentration on writing academic essays, taking notes from oral lectures, etc. If they are going to become scientists or engineers, on the other hand, they might be learning English for Science and Technology (EST) in which case their teacher might have them improving on their ability to consult or design manuals among other things.

Different genres of writing and speaking provoke different language use. Scientific articles require less general style; particular expressions are employed in academic essays. This would be out of place in normal social interaction. Moreover, the language of air traffic control has a specific vocabulary which has to be understood and followed. Workers in the tourist industry need to be confident

about the specific vocabulary and the types of language interactions, such as dealing with dissatisfied customers that they may encounter.

In the field of English business, English language teaching has enormously grown because many students perceive a need for the kind of language which will allow them to operate in the world of commerce. There is a specific vocabulary and language events which are unlikely to appear in a general language course, but which are vitally important for business students. So teachers find themselves training classes in such procedures such as the art of negotiating the correct use of phones and e-mail, or the reading of business reports.

4-4. The language classroom in the ESL/EFL society

4-4-1. Target language

Over the last decades, English language classroom in English as second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) societies has been subjected to intense scrutiny. What is observed is that students do not contribute sufficiently or in some instances even at all to the talk that goes on in the language classroom. (Widdowson, 1987) To a large extent, large lessons are still very much tied to traditional teaching methods, teacher centered classroom and minimal student participation. The general perception is that the students remain orally incompetent despite being structurally knowledgeable in the second language (L2). This has been a worrying thought for ESL and EFL countries where English assumes a key role in progress, advancement and even survival in this age of globalization and of improved international communication. These countries have come to the realization that it is imperative not only that their speakers should know about language, but they must also know how to use it communicatively to interact meaningfully with people in the wider English-speaking world. Thus in schools communicative competence in the English language, with particular focus on its oral aspects, is seen to be desirable and necessary, although there have been quite diverse opinions as to what constitutes communicative competence within the formal learning of English as a second language.

In EFL classrooms, English would completely take the place of the native language to become the language which is widely spoken and used for mutual communication between EFL teachers and students. As both teachers and students expose themselves to English as much as possible, they would build up a relationship between teaching and learning, and form the habit of using the same language.

4-4-2. Interrelationship between EFL teaching and learning

According to Krashen and Terrell (1983:120), an ideal classroom of language education lies in students being "*totally immersed*" in a learning environment of that language full of "*comprehensible input.*" Teachers should provide EFL learners with the resources in English to help them develop a good habit of using English more. Besides, Krashen and Terrell noted that "*translation is inevitable even when teachers use full English on their instructions in the classroom".* (ibid:147) When EFL learners receive any information in English, they may use native language for translation to help themselves understand the entire pedagogical content. Once students are forced to give feedback or response in English, they still would directly think about what they want to say in the first language (L1), and translate their words into the second language (L2) for expression. However, Larsen-Freeman (1986:219) said,

"Foreign language application should not be produced under the process of mother tongue translation, but learners would try to get the point from what they hear".

A full- English environment could help both teacher and students to form their habits of thinking and responding in English more.

4-4-3. Language habit

When EFL learners pick up a foreign language, they may over depend on the usage of their mother tongue because of their L1 language habit. The style and structure of a foreign language coming out from EFL learners seem to be different

from native speakers of English. These learners may express their ideas in English with the syntax and linguistic concept of their native language or English with few grammatical errors. Those English sentences produced by EFL learners may not be native-like, but they can be understandable and communicable.

Therefore, if most EFL learners are involved more in mother-tongue (native) language environment, English language environment may suffer from L1 interference in the aspects of language structure, grammar and even accent. So, when providing students with a full-English environment, the problem of first language interference would be solved and EFL learners would be encouraged to use L2 naturally and comfortably in EFL classroom.

Oller and Richards (1973:83) remarked that *"second language learning involves the acquisition of new verbal habits, and hence prior verbal skills facilitate their acquisition."*Apparently, a full-English environment may have an influence on the students' learning conditions. It was also pointed out that acquisition could be achieved through meaningful interaction in a natural communication setting. That's to say if teachers and learners tried to reach a communicative agreement in class with each other, there would be less conflict between teachers' teaching and students' learning.

A successful English education in school lies in using English massively in the classroom, creating a full-English Immersion setting as a requirement for teaching and learning, and even encouraging teachers and students to form good language habits. However, if EFL teachers and students maintain a less comfortable classroom atmosphere in class, then how could EFL teaching and learning in the classroom become more effective and meaningful? Therefore a positive interaction between EFL teachers and students seems to be another factor in EFL context.

4-5. English interaction in EFL context

A good interaction and proper communication lead to good language learning. According to Brown (2000:52) "*native speakers often show down their speech to second language learners, speaking more deliberately.*" This way of speaking may not confuse the learners because speakers may hope to have good interaction with learners to achieve the best learning effect and help learners with a greater

understanding of the conversational context. However, this unnatural way of speaking may mislead or even confuse the learners. Most of EFL students prefer reading rather than speaking. This is due to the traditional instructional method. Obviously, English learners may follow and listen to what teachers ask them to do in the classroom. They would sit in the classroom and play the role as mission-takers or task-completers rather than to stand up as ideas sharers. When EFL learners are less active, the whole process of communicative behaviour would hardly work out for EFL teachers and students.

Brown cited several studies concerning "*The important relationship between interaction and acquisition.*"(ibid;60) If the mutual interactive practice between teachers and students could move on well, students would be more eager to ask for help from teachers with their language-learning obstacles. Thus teacher-student relationship would go well.

Brown mentioned that "*student-to-student and teacher-to-student are the two major types of classroom interaction.*"(ibid:73) Student to student interaction lies in "*peer relationship*", while teacher to student interaction is based on *"superior knowledge and authority."*(ibid:79)

4-5-1. Factors influencing classroom interaction

Learners' participation in class is one of the aspects of classroom interaction (Ellis, 1994). It is a process in which opportunities are created for learners to practise L2 and produce output.

For any kind of interactive relationship, there would be some psychological factors which may interfere the interaction in the EFL context. These variables would be categorized:

1- Gender difference.

2- Levels of EFL learners.

3- EFL teachers.

4-5-1-1. Gender difference

In the EFL classroom, gender would be regarded as an important issue. The question "who would learn language better, the male or the female students?"

seems to be controversial when it comes to language learning. According to Brown "*women appear to use language that expresses more uncertainty than men suggesting less confidence in what they say*." (ibid:259) It seems that female students in the EFL classroom would not be assured of the language they express because they are not confident of their language performance. However, Brown also mentioned that "*men have been reported to interrupt more than women and use stronger expletives, while the latter use more polite forms*." (ibid:259) Obviously, men would take the chance to speak with less fear, and would be more confident of using the language while learning the forms of English alone. Brown (ibid :253) argues that

"*Males place more value in conversational interaction, on status and report talk ..... while females value connection and rapport fulfilling their role as more cooperative a facilitative conversationalists."*

4-5-1-2. Levels of EFL learners

Different levels of EFL learners have different understandings toward English learning. It would be often difficult for EFL teachers to handle a group of students having different language proficiencies by providing the same lecture at the same time. Also, as teachers have a hard time building up a good interaction and communication with students of different levels, students may get confused and lose their learning motivation gradually. Therefore, the suitable way to deal with this problem would be to separate students and look for their need in learning English.

Though EFL students of different levels would encounter different challenges and language learning barriers, each learner may have his or her own preferred learning style or methods to overcome their learning difficulties.

4-5-1-3. EFL teachers

Teachers are seen as the keys to language acquisition of EFL learners; in addition, language teachers would be the models for students to mimic. They use many metaphors to describe what they do. Sometimes they say they are like actors.

Over the short history of the ESL/EFL field, various methods have been proposed. Each method has in turn fallen out of favour and has been replaced with a new one. Teaching English in foreign countries is inherently an exchange not exchange of language, but also of values. (Crookes,2003:94) states

"*All teachers.... are involved in implementing or resisting national educational policy and are contributing, in a small way to reproduction of society or to changes in society".*

Because foreign language education is fundamentally an interaction of different cultures not only language learning occurs, but also values learning.

4-5-2. Debates on the use of Target language (TL) and first language (L1)

In different schools, under the currently favoured methodology of English language teaching, English language teachers are expected to use as much English as possible in their teaching. In fact, most secondary schools do stipulate a policy of using English-only in English language lessons regardless of the proficiency of the students (Lin 1990). It has been assumed and accepted that only-English should be used in the English lessons. Code-switching and code-mixing of English and the native language (L1) have long been considered as the major cause of the decline of students' language standard, English in particular. However, some English language teachers still persistently rely on mixed-code in their language classroom, especially in those with low proficient students. When students are exposed to English, they will learn it more quickly, and through hearing and using it, they will begin to think in English.

4-5-2-1. Definitions of terms

Target language (TL), second language (L2)

In many studies, the terms TL and L2 have been used interchangeably to describe and discuss classroom communication. In our case, TL refers to English. According to Levin (2003), TL refers to oral production in the foreign language classroom by both instructor and the students.

In fact, according to stern (1983), L2 and FL are different in nature. Although English is one of the official languages and enjoys second language status in various communities, it is seldom used for communication. English is not considered as a second language in countries where people cannot operate easily and spontaneously for general social and daily communication. As pointed out by Lin (2000:192), the majority of students have *"little access to English and English is irrelevant to their daily lives."* In other words, English is learned and functions more like a foreign language than a second language in the local setting.

Code switching and language alternation

These terms have been used in more than one sense in different studies. According to Gumperz (1982), code-switching covers any form of alternation of language system within a sentence or above the sentence level. It is defined as the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent. Apart from two or more alternating languages, the term code-switching has also been used about different styles within the same language, for example formal and informal speech between monolinguals, but in the field of bilingualism and multilingualism it is used to refer to the alternate uses of two languages.

Target language only practice TL/L1 code-switching practice

Target language -only (TL-only) practice refers to the exclusive use of the target language as the fundamental language in the English classroom. In our case, English is the target language. Code-switching practice refers to the complementary switch of L1 and TL as the instructional language in the English classroom. Code-switching practice is the use of L1 to complement the use of English as the instructional language.

4-5-2-2. Use of mother tongue in class

Students are often unwilling to use English in the classroom, especially during communicative activities. They use their mother tongue. There are many reasons why students revert to their own language in certain activities.

A principal cause of this L1 use the language required by the activity. If beginners are asked to have a free and fluent discussion about global warming, for example, they'll do something which they are linguistically incapable of. If they want to say anything about the topic, they use their own language.

Some students use their own language in the classroom because it is an entirely natural thing to do; when we learn a foreign language, we use translation without thinking about it, particularly at elementary and intermediate levels. This is because we try to make sense of new linguistic through the linguistic world we are already familiar with. "*Code-switching between L1 and L2 is naturally developmental".* (Eldridge 1996: 310 in Harmer 2001: 131)

When performing pedagogical tasks, especially when explaining something to another, students use their L1. This is a habit *"that in most cases will occur without encouragement from the teacher."* (Harbord 1992: 354 in ibid:131) Teachers themselves can be another cause of the use of mother tongue. If they frequently use the students' language (whether or not they themselves are native speakers of that language), the students will feel comfortable doing it too. Therefore, teachers need to be aware of the kinds of examples that they provide.

It should be pointed out that the amount of L1 use by particular students may have a lot do with different learner styles and abilities some use mostly English from the very beginning, whereas others seem to need to use their L1 more frequently.

4-5-2-3. Attitudes to mother tongue use in the classroom

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the Direct Method avoided the idea of using the mother tongue in the language classroom where the language itself was talked and taught rather than being talked about in the students' L1.

More recently, however, attitudes to the use of the students' mother tongue have undergone a significant change. David Atkinson argued that "it *is not difficult to think of several general advantages of judicious use of the mother tongue."* (Atkinson, 1987: 242 in ibid: 132). He suggested that activities such as grammar explanations, checking comprehension, giving instructions, discussing classroom methodology and checking for sense fell into this category. He claims that if

teachers can use the students' language, these tasks will be expedited more efficiently.

However, by contrasting this view, Peter Harbord points out that the giving of instructions and many other teacher-student interactions are "*an ideal source of language for student acquisition."* (Harbord, 1992: 353 in ibid: 132).

Cook (2001) has challenged the exclusion of L1 in FL classroom. He argues the re-examination of the theoretical underpinnings of the TL-only movement. He questions the limitation of Krashen's Input Hypothesis by pointing out its doubtful analogy with first language acquisition. He also suggests that there is a possible connection between L1-L2 in the L2 learners' minds and that L1 may play *"an integral role in L2 learning as well as in L2 use."* (Cook 2001:408) Therefore, he does not support the unnecessary insulation of the L2 learners from the use of L1 in the language classroom.

We know that whatever teachers say or do, students will use their L1 in class; the question is whether we should try and stop it. John Eldridge suggests that there is no evidence to suggest that this would improve learning efficiency. He claims that most of the code-switching he has observed is *"highly purposeful, and related to purposeful goals."* (Eldridge, 1996: 3003 in Harmer, 2001: 132) More researchers have documented the different functions of the L1/TL code- Switching practice in the foreign language classrooms. Ferguson (2003) has attempted to group such functions under three categories: code-switching (CS) for curriculum access, CS for classroom management discourse and CS for interpersonal relations.

The functions of code-switching in maintaining classroom discipline and creating a social and affective classroom environment where teachers and learners negotiate relationships and identities have been confirmed in a number of researches conducted in different countries (Atkinson 1987; cook 2001).

Two issues seem to arise here. Firstly, since students are likely to use their L1 any way, there is little point in trying to stamp it out completely. Such an approach may discourage the students who feel the need for it at some stages. However, a lot will depend on when students use their L1. If they are studying a text, for example, and are working in pairs, the use of their L1 may be acceptable since they are using it to further their understanding of English. On the other hand, if they are performing an

oral fluency activity, the use of a language other than English makes the activity essentially pointless. Moreover, since teachers want to promote as much English use as possible, they try to insist on the use of English in language study and oral production activities. They also continue to encourage students to try to use it as often as possible.

As far as teachers are concerned, they are a principal source of comprehensible input. Teachers-talking time (TTT) plays an important role in language acquisition. Teachers have to speak English as much as possible; if they don't do so, the students will not see the need to speak to much English either. However, there are times, especially at lower levels where the use of L1 may help both teacher and students such as in an explanation or discussion of methodology, or the giving of announcements which would be difficult in English.

4-6. Arguments supporting the TL- only movement

The TL –only movement in the Non-English speaking world can be traced back to its colonial and post-colonial roots. Some researchers agree that SL/FL acquisition should be based on the use of the TL in communicative situations *"without recourse to the use of the native language"* (krashen and Terrell 1983, 9) They see no reason why teachers should use any L1 in their language classrooms. They believe that input to learning can be made comprehensible through the exclusive use of simplified target language, contextualized cues, and visuals (Mac Donald, 1993). They believe that teachers should maximize the use of the TL as much as possible, especially in foreign language contexts where students have little contact with the TL outside the classroom (Atkinson, 1987).

Since the 1960's and 70's there have been various studies that discussed the possible correlations between teacher use of TL and the learners' FL proficiency and achievement. In the 1980's with the promotion of the National Approach (Krashen and Terrell 1983) and the Immersion Approach exclusive TL use in FL/SL classrooms was widely endorsed. In particular, advocates of the Immersion Approach supported their assertions with empirical findings. Many of these findings suggest that learners in the programs are more proficient in TL than their counterparts in traditional language programs.

In the 1990's studies that support the exclusive use of TL in FL classrooms include the wok of F.Chambers (1991) and duff and polio (1990). Up to this point, the importance of TL in SL/FL learning has been confirmed when compared with other traditional language methods. However, there are few studies that directly compare the effects of using two different instructional languages, namely TL-only and TL/L1 code switching in SL/FL learning.

4-7. Strategies for encouraging more L2 in the classroom

4-7-1. Create a classroom and school context with expectation.

Teachers need to establish rules of conduct for the classroom, and make clear to students that they are expected to use the L2 as much as possible. They also need to create an environment which encourages the use of L2 and provides ample opportunities for its use, because the lack of such environment causes loss of motivation and a negative attitude toward the second language.

Researchers have also found that concrete activities related to themes, which provide for interaction between students are important to ensuring L2 use. Topics that are relevant to students will be of more interest to them. Teachers should create a learning environment that encourages students to talk to one another and to the teacher for real purposes.

In addition the student must believe that the second language is important. This involves elevating the status of the language in the school and classroom context.

English learning has been found to be most effective when it is separated from another language, and one language is taught for an extended period time.

4-7-2. Set language learning objectives

Teachers should incorporate specific language teaching objectives into their instructional plans. When units or activities are planned with language in mind, benefits to language development can be seen. According to some specialists, this approach aims to make children aware of specific rules and to provide opportunities for them to practise those language aspects in meaningful, communicative activities. Thus, by incorporating specific language objectives into content lessons, teachers can increase language awareness and proficiency in the learner.

4-7-3. Develop non-academic vocabulary.

It has been found that teaching vocabulary related to every day topics, such as clothing, food, toys, sports, family, travel, feeling, etc. encourages students to share information about their likes and dislikes, family and weekend activities. In addition, planning activities that incorporate these topics, role play and discussing current events may also be beneficial for promoting the learners' proficiency in English.

4-7-4. Organize classroom activities and provide opportunities that maximize students' L2 output.

4-7-4-1. Use group and pair activities:

Group and pair activities provide a rich source of interaction between students, and take a variety of forms: group work (classroom arranged in groups to allow for talk)

- Pair work
- Peer to peer dialogue
- Cooperative learning

All these group /pair activities are beneficial. Peer support can lower anxiety, clarify conceptual understanding, encourage communication in the L2 and provide for different learning styles). In addition, group work creates communication and thus increases opportunities for language Practice. It has also been shown to improve the quantity and quality of student talk. Cooperative learning is another excellent way to encourage communication naturally in the classroom. It requires that all members participate and contribute to the work of the group. In addition the division of tasks allows students to use their unique strengths and learning styles.

4-7-4-2. Develop an activity-centred classroom.

Activity-centred classrooms allow students to participate in hands-on activities. The goal is to improve aural comprehension and oral fluency, but students can also be involved in reading and writing activities. A theme is suggested by the teacher, and the students choose their own area of study. They investigate the topic, then

present their findings in the form they choose. Students use each other and the teacher as resource person. This type of learning can provide opportunities for using the second language as students will be motivated by real- learning and being able to choose their topic. In addition, they will be reading and writing in the L2, and have the opportunity to use the L2 in informal discourse with the teacher and other students.

4-7-4-3. Plan for creative expression in L2

Students can also be encouraged to use the L2 throughout various language activities such as: songs (artistic styles), puppet plays (students perform plays for given topics/themes), Linguistic games (bingo, Jeopardy, etc), dialogue (incorporate language objectives), Role plays (designed around daily activities), video performances (news reports, weather reports, current issues).

Chapter five

The use of English in the EFL context

5-1. Introduction

The Algerian Ministry of Education has introduced a series of pedagogic innovation with the aim of creating a more progressive and less formally academic secondary school curriculum. These innovations, which were originally designed for education system, have recommended a learner-centred classroom approach rather than the teacher-cantered approach which has traditionally been adopted by Algerian schools.

In the field of English language education, the major innovation at secondary level has been the introduction of communicative language teaching (CLT). This new policy was designed to bring about a significant shift in the balance of power in the traditionally teacher-cantered English language classroom. The introduction of CLT in Algeria was first of all, a positive reaction to the recommendations of the council of Europe (1977) and the inability of our learners to use language communicatively. So, the Ministry of education's belief was that the key to improved standards lay in the use of more effective teaching methods.

The emergence of CLT in Europe and North America in the 1970's was largely inspired by dissatisfaction with the Oral-Structural Approach, the most influential British language teaching approach in the post war period that grew out of the work of a group of applied linguists, notably Harold Palmer from the 1930's to the 1950's (Howatt 1984). Speech was regarded as the basis of language and thus advocated an oral approach to language pedagogy. Moreover since knowledge of language structure was perceived to be the key to speaking ability, the approach was founded on the notion that if the main sentence patterns of English were practised orally, students would learn to use the language automatically.

In terms of classroom practice, the Oral Structural Approach involves the systematic presentation and practice of carefully selected and graded sentence patterns and lexis. Lessons tend to be highly teacher-centred since the teacher's main role is to present the relevant structures and vocabulary and then engage the students in intensive question and answer work. Practice activities are tightly controlled to prevent students from making mistakes and thus develop bad habits. Students have limited opportunities to negotiate meaning in pairs or small groups. This emphasis on the mastery of form rather than meaning led many teachers to

argue that the approach produced students who were *"structurally competent"* but *"communicatively incompetent."* (Johnson 1981:1) Unlike the Oral-Structural Approach, CLT offers a wider perspective on language learning and teaching.

In theory, although the shift from structural to communicative approaches represented a major reorientation in language pedagogy, it did not necessarily involve a complete break with the past. The approach which has dominated classroom teaching and learning in Algeria in the past decades has focused on the transmission of information about grammar and vocabulary, and the provision of examination-related notes and exercises. The most important piece of evidence is the fact that much of examinations in English has focused on the written language, whereas official policy has been founded on an oral approach. The influence of examinations on pedagogy made it reasonable to argue that methodology largely involved the transmission and mastery examination-related content in a strictly controlled and formal classroom environment. Consequently, both teachers and students have tended to view learning English and preparing for English examinations as two quite different activities.

5-2. The role of English in the Algerian school

The goal of teaching English is to help our society to integrate harmoniously into modernity by participating completely the linguistic community that uses the language for all types of interaction. This participation, based on the sharing and exchange of ideas and scientific and cultural experiences, will allow a better knowledge of oneself and others. Everyone will have the possibility of access to science, technology and universal culture while avoiding the pitfall of acculturation. The teaching of English involves not only the acquisition of language skills and communication skills but also cross the methodological, technological, cultural and social skills such as the development of a critical spirit and of analysis, our commitment to national values, respect for universal values based on respect for oneself and the others, tolerance and openness to the world.

Thus, a new dynamic will be blown to English considering this language as a factor of individual and social development and as a vector of professionalization, giving the learner the essential assets for his/her success in tomorrow's world.

Hence, an effort is needed to ensure to students the mastery of a linguistic tool. The longer this language will be controlled, the best will be the success of the student and his flourish in an academic, professional and scientific environment, using his/her ability to solve more and complex problems in various situations.

The teaching of English in the secondary school is part of the national policy of foreign languages and within the general framework of the provisions of the Reform in the educational system introduced in 2001 and establishing the objectives of the teaching/ learning in Algeria.

Speaking about the second / foreign language (LE2) after French (LE1), the teaching of English covers seven years, four in the middle cycle and three in the secondary. In short, the mastery of English will give students a vision of the world allowing them to share knowledge, science, technology and become the citizens of the future, responsible and able to integrate harmoniously and effectively in the globalization process.

5-2-1. General objectives of the teaching of English in the secondary cycle

The teaching of English in the second year aims to consolidating, deepening and developing knowledge and skills acquired in the first year. Thus, the development of the three skills is continued to be developed. It should also be recalled that English programs in the secondary school revolve around three main objectives.

5-2-1-1. Linguistic and communicative objectives

It is to provide the learner with a solid linguistic basis (grammar, syntax, vocabulary, pronunciation, proficiency in oral and written, enabling him to successfully pursue higher education in English.

5-2-1-2. Methodological and technological objectives

This type of objectives aim at consolidating the intellectual abilities of students such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation through relevant activities and promoting in the learner learning strategies and self-evaluation allowing him/her to deepen and broaden his/her knowledge. They also aim at strengthening the methods of thinking

and working previously acquired and encouraging discussion at all stages of learning.

Besides, the students are taught the efficient use of oral and written documentation in English, whether it is scientific, technical, economic or literary, in order to be prepared for university or professional life. They are also put in contact with technological tools (such as the internet) ,which is necessary to research inside and outside the classroom.

5-2-1-3. Social and cultural objectives

The learners are encouraged to work on various topics studied in other disciplines for the integration of all their achievements .Their curiosity is also stimulated by exposing them to various contexts of civilization and affecting them to the Anglophone culture (English, American, African), in particular.

5-2-2. Competency-based Approach: Pedagogy of Integration

Competency-based approach is based on the pedagogy of integration of what is acquired, and requires a new conceptual and methodological vision of classroom practice. The program of teaching/ learning based on this approach allows the following:

- Give meaning to learning:

This is to ensure that learning is not theoretical to students, but it can serve them concretely in their life as citizens.

This approach also makes learning more efficient. The gains are better set because knowledge is mobilized under the resolution of a problem and new learning situations for the students.

Competency-based approach helps to focus on the essentials and to foster a better mastery of the most important achievements. It also allows networking between the different conceptual nations and establishing these concepts more solidly.

- Prepare for later learning

From one year to another, the gains are gradually reinvested and used for increasingly complex skills. The learning and the integration of what has been acquired is done through the Terminal Objective of Integration that students

learning English must reach in the end of the school year. Its aim is that the learner must be capable of producing a written message on the basis of given data. This objective develops in learning situations and reinvests in situations of integration, which are new for the learner.

A- Learning situation (Project outcomes) is a situation of exploration that promotes new learning (know; know to do and know to be). It is built for teaching purposes (for the class): experienced in the class in order to be reinvested in the learner's life, inside or outside the school.

It is composed of three parts:

- Support: is presented to the learner as an oral or written text, illustration, photos, a CD that can create a context.
- Task: is done in or outside the class and which anticipates the expected output.
- Record: is all the work instructions given to the learner in an explicit way.

B- Situation of integration (Learner's outcome) is a situation of reinvestment which is close to the daily life of the learner. It allows him to integrate what has been acquired, to solve any problem individually. It also leads to the integration of knowledge discussed in class previously, and finally it makes him assess his achievements.

In short, the process of integration in this program offers learning situations that put the learner at the centre of learning and make him participate in the ownership of knowledge. They also foster his creativity, lead the learner to use various learning strategies and provide for the reinvestment of his environment. Moreover, learning situations encourage the learners' motivations and interest and make them acquire working methods. Finally, they develop in the learners the meaning of autonomy and integrate self-assessment, mutual evaluation (peer assessment) and co-evaluation/evaluation by the teacher.

The learning situations and integration must also contain elements and promote intercultural comparison between different situations, through debates, for example.

5-2-3. What methodology is used?

Following the principles and objectives defined by the Algerian National Curriculum, and which rely on the competency-based approach, the methodology

for the use of the second year program in the classroom exhibits various characteristics.

It is communicative: the text focuses on the learner's practice of English and encourages interaction. Tasks and activities have been designed in order to meet the students' interests and needs to prepare them for exchanges of information, opinions through a variety of texts in which spoken English or formal written English is used.

It is task-based: the text book includes a large number of tasks and activities that aim at developing both "lower-order" skills (acquiring new knowledge, understanding new facts and idea and applying them to solve problems) and "higher order" skills (analysing information by breaking it into small parts to understand it better, synthesizing knowledge by combining it into new patterns and evaluating new information by forming an opinion and judging the quality of that new information).

The project is the final task, and is the most complex one cognitively. It requires the application of both types of cognitive skills described above; and the textbook offers plenty of opportunities to students to reach the objectives of the project.

It encourages cooperative learning. Following the Vygotskyan principle of social constructive learning, the textbook offers tasks and activities that encourage the learner to work with one or several partners (pair and small group-work) ,in order to construct new knowledge inside or outside the classroom. The project should be emphasized here. It is one of the undertakings that will promote learning skills and will help students to develop such social skills as designing an action plan, collecting information, sharing information...The project work can take the form of a few basic tasks which will grow into an accomplished and finalised product (for example, a biography, a poem, a scenario, a legal document, etc).

It encourages learner reflection through individual work. Tasks and activities are designed to make students work individually so as to work out solutions by themselves before sharing them with a partner or with the group, and finally checking their findings with the teacher. The thinking stage of the 'Think-pair-share' procedure is an important phase of the learning process. Through it, the learner can form hypotheses and pay close attention to a specific aspect of language

(grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) or skills (listening, speaking, reading or writing).

It integrates grammar learning, each unit contains practice (for example Grammar Desk) which draws attention to grammatical terms and forms, and will increase the students' awareness of the English grammatical system. This is intended to help them improve on spoken and written production.

Therefore, the learner is helped to be self-critical and also to stimulate self-improvement. Students doing a group activity can also use self-assessment grid; this will help them set standards for themselves by comparing their own self-assessment with that of their peers.

Finally the English programme uses authentic material. It offers students a variety of authentic reading texts in order to let them get feel of language as produced by native speakers. Some of the material, however, appears in translation from other languages (for example the fable by Jean de La Fontaine); or has been simplified in terms of vocabulary and syntactic structure. The idea was to keep the students motivate by saving them under sophistication at this stage; on other hand, some of the texts refer to the students' own social and cultural realities, the Algerian ones.

5-2-4. Evaluation of learning

The assessment is an integrated process to any form of learning. It can determine the level achieved by the learner as he/she progresses. The learner is positioned and classified according to a set of evaluation criteria and in relation to a concrete observable reality.

The assessment can be made at any time and / or when all teachers and the administration decide. It may be diagnostic, formative, formative and summative.

5-2-4-1. Diagnostic evaluation

It can be a "state of play" of knowledge and skills. It is the beginning of a period of learning through tasks that will help the teacher to measure the skill level of students who come in 2nd AS , identify their strengths and weaknesses and plan the work (review, for example).

5-2-4-2. Formative evaluation

It will take place during the week of integration, i.e. after three weeks of learning. This type of evaluation must involve students in a variety of tasks, oral and written statements. The criteria and assessment procedures must be communicated to the learners in order to become responsible for their own learning. It takes knowledge of their progress and shortcomings, and the importance of regular work. By regularly assessing the student, The teacher can detect the origin of errors and design remediation strategies to help students overcome the obstacle and continue their progression (e.g. to repeat mispronounced words, to restore the explanation of a paragraph, directing them to a grammar lesson previously viewed, give-building activities to do at home).

Types of formative assessment tools:

-The logbook will be written by the student himself and will contain personal observations, reflections on his work, his progression or difficulties and the solutions he proposes alone or with his teacher.

-The portfolio will contain production written by students: a newspaper article in connection with the project prepared, a dictation made and corrected by a partner. This work will be corrected by the teacher and then repeated by students to measure the progress.

-The debate where students learn to listen and find solutions to their problems

-Interview: maintenance or face-to-face with the teacher.

Formative evaluation may be done in another form. It involves one or more students and allows everyone to know where he/she is. It is done at three levels, from a grid indicating the criteria and indicators:

-The co-evaluation/evaluation by the teacher: student – professor (tutoring) .Students will compare their own assessment to that of their teacher and they have to correct.

-The mutual evaluation: students-students or student-student (peer assessment). Based on criteria proposed by the teacher, the students assess their productions to each other.

-Self-assessment (self-assessment): The students evaluate their own work in order to improve, so that they become responsible for their learning, and hence more autonomous, for example, through the portfolio and the logbook.

5-2-4-4. Summative evaluation

It is the best known and most practised by the school system and is in the logic of selection and orientation. It becomes a diploma or Certified at the end of the cycle (BEM/Baccalauréat).It helps to demonstrate the mastery of competence in all its complexity.

According to official guidelines, it is based on the development of tests and examinations. It comes at the end of a period of learning and reflects the degree of learning of each student through marks. It can take decisions: classification, switching to a higher level, success or failure in examinations. Types of items for evaluation criterion: multiple-choice questions, text followed by questions and so on.

5-3. Design of the study

5-3-1. Method

This dissertation reports the findings of a study which principal objective was to investigate, through the reflection of a large group of secondary school students, the extent to which the pedagogical aims of the "syllabus of English", particularly those relating to teacher and learner roles, patterns of interaction and language use, have actually been implemented in English classrooms in the Algerian secondary schools.

The findings reported in this study were derived from a questionnaire survey of second year students. The questionnaire required the subjects to reflect on their experiences of learning English.

5-3-2. Participants

The study aimed at investigating to which extent teacher and learner roles, patterns of interaction and language use have been implemented in English

classrooms in the Algerian secondary schools. So a number of students from second year literary stream classes were recruited. The choice was on 1st November School, Mostaganem and Frères Eddrief School, Mazouna. There was a total of 120 subjects (60% females and 40% males) who were asked to complete the questionnaire using their own reflections and experiences in their classes. It should be mentioned that all of the students studied English as a foreign language. According to the schools' internal language policy; the English lessons should be conducted in English-only, while the use of L1 is practised occasionally.

5-3-3. Data collection

The questionnaire contained various questions, some of them dealt with the role of teachers and learners in the classroom, while others were concerned with patterns of interaction. A number of questions focused on the type of language used by teachers and learners in the classroom. To get information about the role of the teachers and learners and patterns of interaction, the participants were asked to express the frequency of the practice of different activities in the classroom. Items were given in rank order from the least frequent to the most frequent. Concerning the type of language used by teachers and students, we intended from the subjects to show whether English-only or mixed code was used.

5-4. Findings and analysis

5-4-1. Teacher and learner roles in the classroom

The subjects were asked to assess the frequency with which their teachers undertook certain classroom roles. As table -1- indicates, the teaching behaviours (items1-4) which tend to be the characteristic of "traditional" teachers have higher rates than those generally associated with "progressive" teachers (items 5-8).

Table 1: The role of the teacher

Role	1	2	3	4	5	6
1- Correct students' grammar and pronunciation	3%	9%	12%	28%	30%	18%
2- Lecture the students on grammar rules and other aspects of English.	2%	7%	7%	28%	38%	18%
3- Closely follow the textbook	2%	8%	20%	19%	27%	23%
4- Teach students techniques to help them pass exams	7%	10%	11%	25%	24%	23%
5- Provide students with opportunities to interact in English	6%	12%	30%	24%	20%	8%
6- Encourage students to express their own ideas and opinions	12%	18%	25%	24%	16%	5%
7- Teach students techniques to help them learn English effectively.	7%	17%	25%	34%	12%	5%
8- Give students the chance to choose their own topics to work on.	18%	25%	30%	13%	8%	6%

Items are in rank order from least frequent to most frequent. 1=never; 2=seldom; 3=not very often; 4=sometimes; 5=often; 6=always.

The correction of grammar and pronunciation seems interesting for English teachers. According to Brumfit's view (1987: 165), "*teachers may never again be encouraged to correct the language attempts of their learners automatically, insensitively and invariably.*" It's not indicated how and when teachers corrected their students and in any case teachers may fully justify in providing corrective feedback.

Textbooks have always played a key role in many education systems, particularly in English lessons. Because many lessons do not vary their materials and use nothing more than textbooks, CLT has not evolved. According to the findings, (50%) of the subjects often or always followed the textbook.

These findings prove that text books play an important role in the Algerian English classrooms and teachers rely so much on textbooks in teaching. Apparently they tend to follow the programme in order to achieve their aims. But teachers' reliance on textbooks is reflected on some students' comments who argued that it was boring to follow the textbooks.

It's not surprising that teachers are also concerned by teaching examination techniques. (47%) of the students argued that their teachers often or always show them the techniques that enable them avoid exams difficulties.

As regards the roles which might be adopted by communicative teachers (items 5-8), providing students with opportunities to interact in English was of a high rate; More than (50%) of the subjects said that their teacher occasionally gave them opportunities to interact and exchange ideas in English, though they often found it difficult to find the words to interpret verbally their feeling and ideas. For them, the main reason of this difficulty was that English was not spoken outside the classrooms. The classroom was the only site where they could be in contact with the English language. A small number of subjects (21%) argued that they were encouraged to express their own ideas and opinions. As far as the last two findings in table 1 are concerned, it was pointed that there was a lack of encouragement for discussion (17%), and little chance for individualized work (14%) in English lessons.

5-4-2. Patterns of interaction in the classroom

The roles of the teacher and learner and their impact on the patterns of interaction in the language classroom can be examined to find out the preferences of the teachers and the types of activities performed in the language classroom. It would appear from the findings presented in table 2 that a considerable amount of class time was devoted to individual work and listening to the teacher. More than (70%) of the subjects reported that they often or always do their work individually, and about (60%) of them argued that they regularly listen to their teacher lecturing. They admitted that they would like to have more chance to speak English more than just to the teacher.

It would seem that the majority of the subjects' English classes questioned found classroom interaction a hard business. The findings indicated that taking part in teacher-led discussions, asking the teacher questions, talking to the teachers during pair/group work and volunteering answers to the teacher's questions did not form a very regular component of the subjects' English lessons.

Table 2: Patterns of interaction in the classroom

Patterns of interaction	1	2	3	4	5	6
1- Work individually	2%	3%	9%	11%	50%	25%
2- Listen to the teacher lecturing	0%	1%	12%	22%	45%	20%
3- Take part in teacher-led class discussions.	6%	21%	30%	25%	10%	8%
4- Ask the teacher questions	5%	20%	38%	25%	8%	4%
5- Talk to the teacher during pair/group work.	10%	21%	20%	30%	16%	3%
6- Volunteer answers to the teacher's questions.	6%	31%	29%	20%	9%	5%
7- Stand up to answer a question	10%	30%	25%	12%	15%	8%
8- Work in pairs	10%	27%	28%	15%	11%	9%
9- Work in groups	15%	22%	30%	13%	12%	8%
10- Present in front of the class.	20%	32%	23%	16%	7%	2%

Items are in rank order from least frequent to most frequent. 1=never; 2=seldom; 3=not very often; 4=sometimes; 5=often; 6=always.

It would appear that pair work and group work were also not very regular features of English courses, with almost (50%) of the subjects claiming that they were

seldom or sometimes engaged in such work. Because standing up to answer questions was considered as a traditional practice, few subjects claimed that they required answering questions in such position.

5-4-3. Language use in the classroom

The last two sections of the questionnaire were designed to provide information about language use in the classroom. Since the findings are based on subjects' reflections rather than actual classroom recordings, they can not accurately measure the real nature and function of language use, particularly the extent and complexity of code-mixing and code-switching which are characteristics of Algerian classrooms. Despite these limitations, the data offer a general picture of classroom language use, particularly in the area of student-student interaction.

Table 3: Teachers' language use in the classroom

	English	English+Arabic words/phrases	English+French words/phrases	Arabic
1- Teaching the whole class	63%	15%	20%	2%
2- Managing the classroom	65%	6%	22%	7%
3- Answering the students' questions	69%	6%	20%	5%
4- Talking to individual students about class work	49%	16%	25%	10%
5- Chatting to students about non-academic matters	28%	17%	23%	32%

Table 3 summarizes the findings about the teachers' use of the two codes in the classroom. It would appear that most of the teachers used mainly English to present the content of the lesson and manage the classroom.

However, the findings may not show clearly the teachers' frequent use of Arabic or French for explaining lesson context after the initial presentation in English (63%). It is possible that the(15%)and 20% who claimed that their teachers used English with some Arabic or French words/phrases to teach the class were perhaps trying to reflect this phenomenon. It is also noticed that teacher apparently used less "pure" English and more mixed code when answering students' questions and talking to individual students about class work, which strongly points to the use of French and some Arabic for explicatory purposes. In non-academic discourse, teachers tended to use Arabic (32%), English/Arabic mixed code (17%) and English/French mixed code (23%) more than English (28%). According to these findings, the use of the mother tongue or French in the classroom is to create a pleasant classroom atmosphere, develop personal relationships and motivate students. These findings also suggest that English is normally used for the formal presentation of lesson content and classroom management, whereas mixed code appears to fulfil a more negotiative, explicatory function.

Table 4: Students' language use in the classroom

	English	English+Arabic words/phrases	English+French wors/phrases	Arabic
1- Answering the teacher's questions	65%	15%	12%	8%
2- Asking the teacher questions	50%	23%	20%	7%
3- Working on pair activities	16%	37%	26%	21%
4- Working on group activities	18%	35%	32%	15%
5- Discussing class work with classmates	7%	27%	18%	48%
6- Chatting to class mates about non academic matters	3%	17%	10%	70%

Concerning students' language use, the findings in table 4 suggest that when answering the teacher's questions students used English (65%) or English-Arabic/French mixed code (15%-12%). It was argued by specialists that where English was used by students, it was generally used in response to a question asking them to display their knowledge and occasionally their opinions.

It seemed that asking the teacher questions was not very often done, but (50%) of the subjects reported that they used purely English because this was established classroom practice. It was also noticed that rather more mixed code (43%) was used, which may indicate students' attempts to clarify lesson content. As far as peer is concerned, the subjects reported that very little English was used; only (7%) used English to discuss with their classmates and (3%) chatted about non academic matters in English. The subjects generally used Arabic and mixed code even in pair

(16%) and group (18%) activities designed to provide opportunities to negotiate meaning in English.

5-5. Conclusion

What was reported in the study was designed to investigate the extent to which pedagogical aims of the syllabus of English, particularly those relating to teacher and learner roles, patterns of interaction and language use, have been implemented in English classrooms in the Algerian secondary schools.

The findings clearly indicate that the introduction of communicative language teaching (CLT) in Algeria has not so much changed the traditional balance of power in the Algerian classroom. It would appear that power, authority and control in the classroom continue to be in the hands of the teacher. Teachers still apparently favour a transmissional style of teaching, while the students' main classroom role would be listening to the teacher and working on individual exercises. Since lessons appear to have been largely teacher-centred, students seem to have limited opportunities to negotiate meaning and even when they were engaged in group work, a considerable number of the subjects claimed they used mother tongue or mixed code to interact with their peers.

General conclusion

Research in linguistics and education seem to make an impact on classroom practice or on the language taught and used in classrooms. So, advances in discourse analysis and conversational analysis in recent years have revealed a great deal about the nature of spoken discourse and how it differs from written discourse. It has been argued by language teaching specialists that the ability to use the target language successfully as a medium of human interaction should be taught. The trend in ESL education has been toward the promotion of a classroom that is different from that of the traditional one-way transmission of language rules from teachers who are considered as the owners of knowledge to students who are regarded as passive recipients of the knowledge. To make changes in classroom practices, attempts have been made by second and foreign language educators in order to create teaching environments where more attention is paid to active teacher-student and student-student interactive behaviour.

English, as a foreign language, is taught in the Algerian school as a compulsory subject in both middle and secondary schools, in this field the introduction of communicative language teaching (CLT) has been a reaction for using more effective teaching methods and improving the standards of learning.

The hypothesis drawn on the syllabus of English, and particularly, on the teacher's and learner's roles, their impact on classroom interaction and the language used in the classroom, has been proved through the findings which explain that the shift from structural to communicative approach does not involve a complete break with the past. According to the findings the roles of the teacher still remains that of present the relevant structures of language, and the learner's job is to receive limited opportunities to negotiate meaning in pairs or small groups. Moreover, the claims show that when interacting with each other in the classroom, the students often use mother tongue or mixed code.

That's why curriculum developers and language educationists have to improve the standard of English in the secondary school by following useful strategies that encourage the use of English in the classroom. Teachers need to create environments which encourage the use of L2 and provide ample opportunities for

such use. They also have to set language learning objectives into content lessons in order to increase language awareness and proficiency in the learner. Moreover, classroom activities should be organized to provide opportunities that maximize L2 output. Group/pair work activities create communication and increase opportunities for language practice. Aural comprehension and oral fluency can also be improved through the development of activity centred classroom. In addition, the students will be involved in reading and writing to be allowed to use L2 in informal discourse with the teacher and peers too. Role plays, songs, dialogues are other language activities that encourage the use of L2.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Questions below seek your ideas and experiences in your school, and particularly, in your language classroom. Please answer each of the following questions.

I) How often do your teachers perform these activities in your classroom?

- Put a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
1-Correct students' grammar and pronunciation.						
2-Lecture students on grammar rules and other aspects of English.						
3-Closely follow the text book.						
4-Teach students techniques to help them pass exams.						
5-Provide students with opportunities to interact in English.						
6-Encourage students to express their own ideas and opinions						
7-Teach students techniques to help them learn English effectively.						
8-Give students the chance to choose their own topics to work on.						

II) How often are the following activities performed in your language classroom?

- Put a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

	Never	Seldom	Not very often	Sometimes	Often	Always
1- Work individually						
2- Listen to the teacher lecturing.						
3- Take part in teacher-led discussions.						
4- Ask the teacher questions.						
5- Talk to the teacher during pair/ group work.						
6- Volunteer answers to the teacher's questions.						
7- Stand up to answer a question.						
8- Work in pairs.						
9- Work in groups.						
10-Present in front of the class.						

III) What language do your teachers of English use to perform these activities in your language classroom?

- Put a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

	English	English +Arabic Words/Phrases	English +French Words/Phrases	Arabic
1-Teaching the whole class.				
2-Managing the classroom				
3-Answering the students' questions.				
4-Talking to individual students about class work.				
5-Chatting to students about non-academic matters.				

IV) What language do students use to perform the following activities in your language classroom?

- Put a cross (x) in the appropriate box.

	English	English +Arabic Words/Phrases	English +French Words/Phrases	Arabic
1- Answering the teacher's questions.				
2- Asking the teacher questions.				
3- Working on pair activities.				
4- Working on group activities.				
5- Discussing class-work with class-mates.				
6- Chatting to classmates about non-academic matters.				