**The Contribution of both Speech Act Theory and Discourse Analysis in Monitoring Teachers' Classroom Talk**.

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Abstract: The present paper aims at examining "speech act theory" in terms of the development of communicative rather than linguistic or grammatical competence. To clarify, we mean by communicative competence the wide range of various dimensions of language behaviour in the individual and in the speech community. To begin with, we will summarize the most important arguments of the factors of communication and functions of language in conjunction with speech acts, followed by the contribution of the growth of discourse analysis. After describing some models of analysis and shedding light on monitoring classroom talk, we will consider the contribution of both speech act theory and discourse analysis to our understanding of observation and management.

**Key words:** speech act theory, communicative competence, classroom talk, discourse analysis, observation, management, pedagogical discourse.

## 1. Introduction

Literature in most Algerian universities is still to a great extent an unclear affair. There are some lecturers who think that the teaching of literature to non-natives relies deeply on the classics of English literature. Thus being constantly exposed to these 'selected uses' of the English language, learners will develop their linguistic knowledge. In fact, one cannot sufficiently use the language learnt without having been more or less acquainted with the culture with which this language stems from. This state of affairs leads us to make inquiries about the type of literature to teach at the university along with the way teaching is carried on in classroom settings.

In order for the instructor to actually examine the students' reception of literary knowledge, he would have to be conscious of the learner in his classroom and within the modules of literature themselves. In view of that, we aim to find out, in this qualitative action research, a pattern in

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the percentage of teacher talk time which we regard as disproportionate. By giving specific consideration to both macro and micro analysis of activities, it will be feasible to study the ways in which the pedagogical activities and the pedagogic discourse are brought into play. In the end, from the findings we plan to extend an awareness of teaching practice and ways to avoid "needless or over-lengthy explanations and instructions."[1]

As an initial point, analyzing foreign language classroom discourse would help us to put forward the following hypotheses:

**Questions:**

1) Why are students indifferent on literature in EFL classrooms?

2) Why do teachers cling to method(s)/approach(es) in the classroom which go(es) counter to the students' needs, attitudes, motivation, and desires?

**Hypotheses:**
**a)** The dominating exchange is identical to the traditional exchange which is predominantly monologue. The teacher makes use of his power by constantly overusing the lockstep teaching style through the whole lectures by being in charge of the content, stages and pace of the lecture.

**b)** It is viewpoints more than any particular knowledge or awareness that determines the roles teachers adopt inside the classroom. Teachers understanding of literary approaches are not without doubt what notify their classroom conduct.

This paper presents the review of the relevant literature. A succinct historical background and a concise description of some of the major existing interactional analysis systems will be given. Finally, we will end by giving an overview of some important features involving discourse analysis namely, Speech Act Theory and models of analysis.

## 2. Factors of communication and functions of language
In accordance with the well-known diagram of the functions of language set up by the Russian-American linguist, Roman Jacobson,[2] any act of verbal communication makes a distinction between six factors (see figure below):

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1 Richards, J. C. and C. Lockhart; (1996); Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms; New York: CUP. p. 114.
2 Jacobson, R.; (1960); 'Linguistics and Poetics'; In. Sebeok, T. A. (ed.); Style in Language; Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press. pp. 350-377.

i. a context (the co-text, namely, the other spoken signs in the unchanged message, as well as the world in which the message takes place),

ii. an addresser (a sender),

iii. an addressee (a receiver),

iv. a link involving an addresser and addressee (e.g. Speech versus writing),

v. a known code (e.g. language, dialect, or jargon) and

vi. a message form.

Every aspect is the fundamental point of a relation, which works between the message and the factor. The functions are arranged as follows:

a. referential ("The Earth is round"),

b. emotive ("Yuck!"),

c. conative ("Come here"),

d. phatic ("Hello?"),

e. metalingual ("What do you mean by 'krill'?"), and
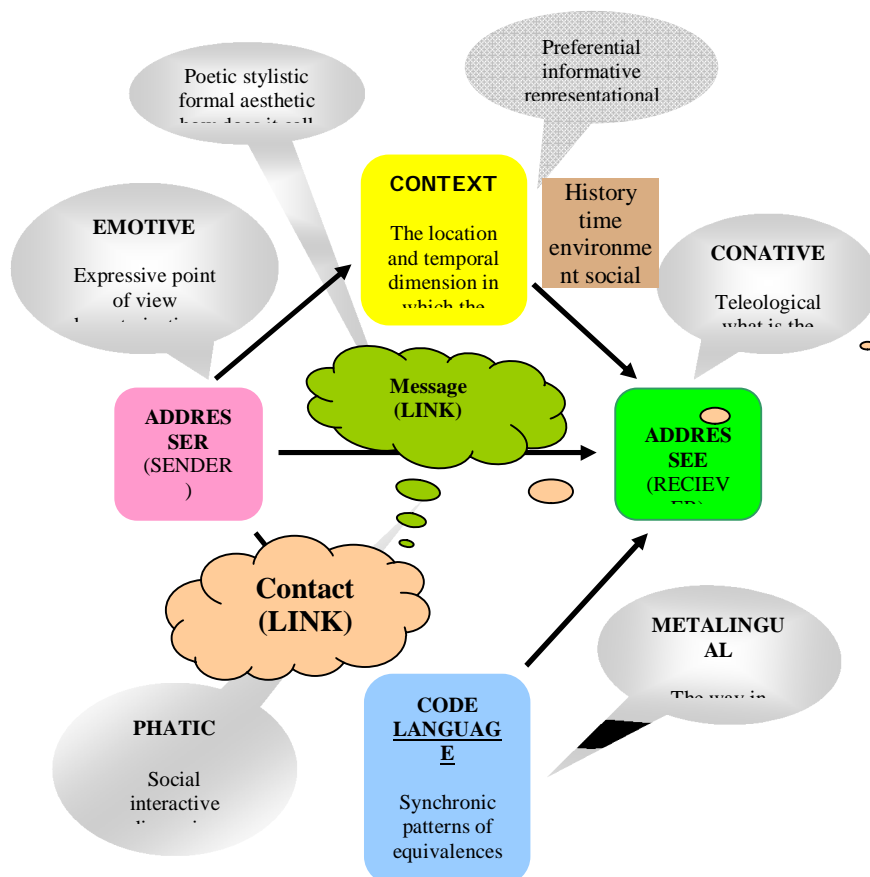
f. poetic ("Smurf").

**Figure 1**: **Factors of communication and functions of language**[1]

The above diagram of the functions of language can open a genuine debate on quite a few opinions from a theoretical viewpoint. When we begin with the analysis of the functions of language meant for a specific item; for example a word, a text or a visual aid, we specify to which class it corresponds (e.g., a written or graphic type), which functions are present or absent, together with the types of the functions, along with the hierarchical relations as well as any other relations that probably will occur between them (see table below):
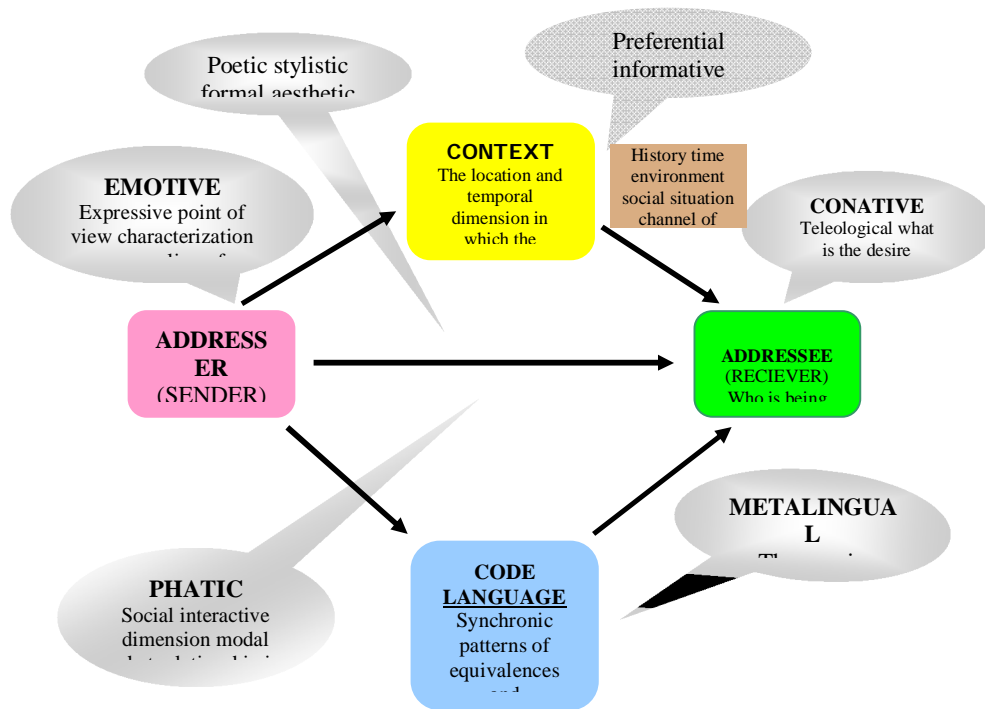


**Table 1: Factors of communication and functions of language**[2]

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1 (Ibid.)
2 (Ibid.)

In a few words, these six broad categories of functions which language in use serves[1] can be described in this way:

a) the referential function is closely associated with the context

| TARGET FACTOR AND FUNCTION | TARGET FACTOR | SOURCE FACTOR | FUNCTION |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Context | Message | Referential |
| | | | |
| 2 | Addresser | Message | Emotive |
| 3 | Addressee | Message | Conative |
| 4 | Contact | Message | Phatic |
| 5 | Code | Message | Metalingual |
| 6 | Message | Message | Poetic |

(e.g. 'Water boils at 100 degrees)

b) the emotive function is connected to the addresser

(e.g. the interjections 'Bah!' and 'Oh!');

c) the conative function is oriented toward the addressee

(imperatives and apostrophes);

d) the phatic function helps to launch, extend or cut off communication [or confirm whether the link is still easily at hand]

(e.g. 'Hello?');

e) the metalingual function is brought into play to set up mutual understanding on the code

(e.g., a definition);

f) the poetic function

(e.g., 'Smurf'), places "the focal point on the communication for its own sake"[2]

One comment to suggest refers to the interaction existing between functions. On the whole, once a specific function is stressed, it has a

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1 Stubbs, M.; 1984; Discourse Analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language; Oxford: Basil Blackwell. p. 46.
2 Jacobson, R.; (1960); 'Linguistics and Poetics'; In. Sebeok, T. A. (ed.); Style in Language; p. 356.

tendency to lessen the value of all the others; as a consequence, the contrary takes place once the function is not given importance. Yet, we will in addition take for granted that a number of functions are usually paired in a constant distinct opposite relation. On the whole, understandable pairings are the expressive and conative functions as well as the referential and poetic functions.

It is not easy to draw the line connecting interaction and combination of functions. Klinkenberg puts forward the question overtly: "Are functions actually distinct from one another?" [1] It is vital to think without delay about the amount of both interaction as well as combination in each practical mixture of functions. Klinkenberg makes clear a number of these arrangements. Let's study one of them: the referential together with the conative functions.

Whichever information – the referential function – changes the addressee's knowledge store; we are able for that reason to assert that it has an answer on the receiver: that is the conative function. Besides, much of assumed information points in the direction of behaviour as its final end result. [2]

For example the road sign 'falling rock' is intended not merely to convey information, but on the whole to create particular decision in the driver. Starting from identified characterizations of classroom teaching, one can state that teachers need to know that there are two types of communication problems "(…) communicative problems which teachers have in classrooms and some of the communicative functions which their language must therefore serve in both teaching and classroom management" [3]

Another major feature of the organisation of classroom discourse refers to teacher's talk classification which includes a big proportion of utterances which achieve specific speech acts like "informing, defining, questioning, correcting, prompting, ordering, requesting". [4] In addition, Stubbs affirms that "much classroom talk is [typified] by "the extent to which one speaker, the teacher, has conversational control over the topic". One way of analysing language behaviour in classroom settings is to look cautiously at classroom talk from two points of view:

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1 Klinkenberg puts forward the question overtly (1996: 61):
2 (Ibid.)
3 Stubbs, M.; Discourse Analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language; p. 43.
3 (Ibid.)
4 (Ibid: 44)

a) Is the discourse style employed in a particular classroom setting different from other styles?

b) Is teacher's talk transmitted via utterances which perform specific functions?

In the same line of thought, Hymes states that both contact and poetic speech functions, which he calls metalinguistic, "focus on the underlying code"[1] as in ["Go and look it up in a dictionary!"][2] in which primary focus is on meaning of language but which is also directive; in other words, it says to someone to do something. Whereas ["Can you hear me?"] (Contact function) focuses on the channels of communication, ["What oft was thought, but n'er so well expressed"] gives attention to the message form (Poetic function). These are obviously examples of utterances which are multi-functional and which are also "particularly relevant to teacher's communicative concern in the classroom."[3]

To study the ethnography of communication to the classroom setting, Stubbs[4] suggests combining the contact, metalinguistic and poetic functions of language under the category of metacomunication – they are all communication about communication and to examine speech which serves this broad function in teaching situations. Knowing that one specific type of metacomunication is metalanguage; i.e. language about language, it is therefore crucial to pay close attention to the "constant gap between what is said and what is meant[5].

3. The scope of discourse analysis

From the 1960s and early 1970s discourse analysis grew out of the interrelations between disciplines such as linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. This common core is concerned with both the description and analysis of spoken interaction and written and printed words and the context in which it is used. The overall aim is to understand better "how natural spoken and written discourse looks and sounds"[6].

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1 (Ibid.)
2 (Ibid: 47)
3 (Ibid.)
4 (Ibid: 48)
5 (Ibid.)
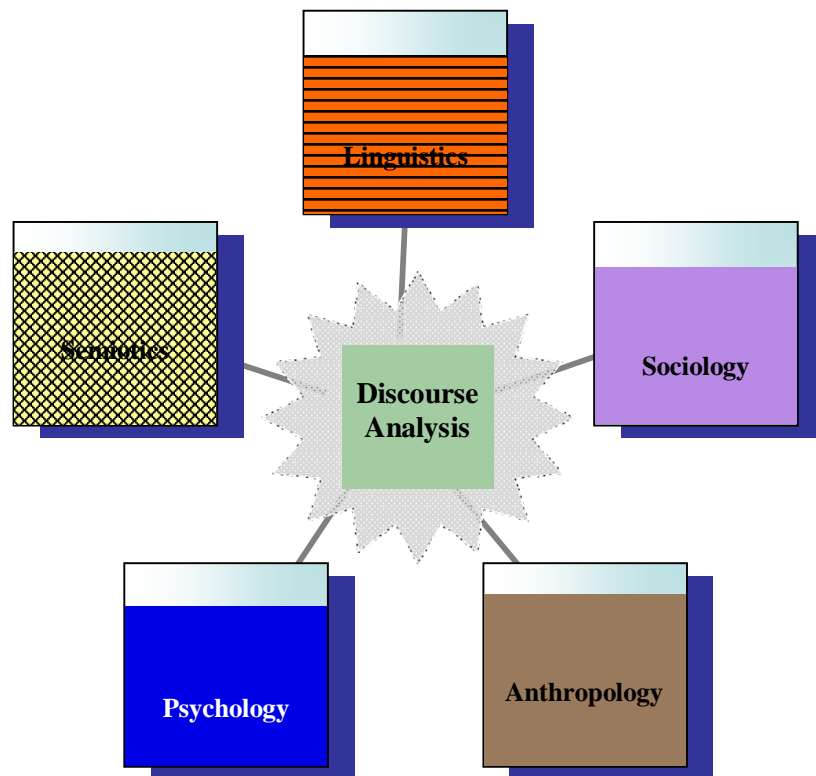6 McCarthy, M. J. ;( 1991); Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; Cambridge: CUP. p. 12.

**Figure 2: Interrelations between Discourse Analysis and other disciplines**[1]

Initially, Harris (1952) was concerned with "the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation".[2] After that, there was the spread of semiotics along with the French structural approach to the study of narrative. In the 1960s, Dell Hymes provided a sociological viewpoint when he studied "speech in its social setting"[3]; whereas the linguistic philosophers like Austin, Searle, and Grice examined language as "social action, reflected in speech-act theory and the formulation of conversational

1 Harris, Z. S.; (1952); Discourse Analysis; Language, 28, 1-30, 474-94.
2 Hymes, D. (ed.); (1964); Language in Culture and Society; New York: Harper & Row. p. 5.
3 (Ibid.)

maxims"[1] together with the birth of pragmatics greatly influenced by Levinson and Leech which studied "meaning in context." [2]

British discourse analysis has been dominated by M. A. K. Halliday's[3] functional approach to language. His framework put primary focus on "the social functions of language and the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing" [4] along with the emergence of discourse analysis in Britain were Sinclair and Coulthard who devised "a model for the description of teacher-pupil talk, based on a hierarchy of discourse units". [5]

Also important to the growth of discourse analysis as a whole is the work within the ethnomethodological tradition. American discourse analysts "emphasised the research method of close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings".[6] It is to be remarked that the American tradition[7] labelled discourse analysis as conversation analysis wherein "emphasis is not upon building structural models but on patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data".[8]

4. Models of analysis

The intent of this section is to give an overview of how foreign language classroom discourse is interpreted. Both cohesion as well as coherence are closely related in that both ideas and interactive acts conveyed through internal links can help people exchange ideas within various societal settings according to their own social experience.

1 Levinson, S.; (1983); Pragmatics; Cambridge: CUP. & Leech, G.; (1974); Semantics; London: Penguin Books. p. 6.
2 McCarthy, M. J.; Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; p. 5.
3 Halliday, M. A. K.; (1973); Explorations in the Functions of Language; London: Edward Arnold. p. 56
4 McCarthy, M. J.; Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; p. 6.
5 (Ibid.)
6 (Ibid.)
7 Coulthard, M.; (1985); An Introduction to Discourse Analysis (Second Edition); Harlow: Longman. p. 59-95.
8 See Gumperz and Hymes 1972; Goffman 1976; 1979; Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974
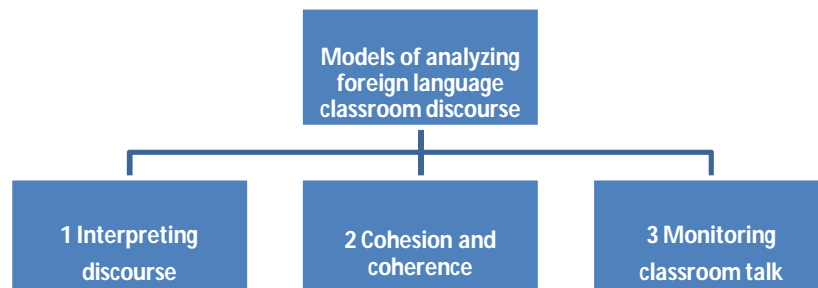
**Figure 3: Ways of interpreting classroom discourse**

### 4. 1 Interpreting discourse

In his book entitled, Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers, published in 1991, Michael McCarthy affirms that "discourse analysis is a vast subject area within linguistics, encompassing as it does the analysis of spoken and written language over and above concerns such as the structure of the clause or sentence."[1] Another significant definition of discourse analysis (henceforth, DA) refers to "the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries."[2]

Hatch defines discourse analysis as "the study of the language of communication-spoken or written." [3] According to Stubbs DA is defined as.

a) concerned with language use beyond the boundaries of a sentence/utterance,

b) concerned with the interralionships between language and society and as

c) concerned with the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication. [4]

We would like to point that the term DA "the field within sociolinguistics that has undergone more research activity in recent years than any other,[5] is very ambiguous because it not a system as

1 McCarthy, M. J.; Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; p. 32.
2 Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2010). Discourse and Context in Language Teaching: A Guide for Language Teachers. Cambridge: CUP.p.4
3 Hatch, E.; (1992); Discourse and Language Education; Cambridge: C.U.P. p. 1.
4 Stubbs, M.; Discourse Analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language. p. 1.
5 Fasol, R.; (1990); The Sociolinguistics of Language; Oxford: Blackwell Publishers. p. 65.

such, it is, in spite of this, a system that is even now evolving, a system where "there is no agreed-upon set of analytic procedures for the description of discourse."[1]

When we study language- that is, a system of arbitrary verbal codes by means of which members of a society interact with one another, we are interested in "the way language is 'used', rather than what its components are"[2]. In his book given the title of "The Sociolinguistics of Language", Fasold remarks that "Discourse studies on interactive events concern the problems and successes people have using language in their interaction."[3] The study of texts, written or oral, has been studied by "general linguists, anthropologists, sociologists, communication scientists, psychologists, scholars in artificial intelligence, and rhetoricians.[4]

To a great extent, the sentence stood for the last linguistic level that could be described. What happened beyond the sentence was considered as unexplorable and unstructured territory. On the other hand, slowly but surely linguists began to know that language was in fact arranged beyond the sentence and that is how DA came in existence:

[DA] has grown into a wide-spread and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences which affect language in use. It is also now, increasingly, forming a backdrop to research in applied linguistics, and second language learning and teaching in particular.[5]

In other words, when we focus on the description of a given language, we are clearly "asking how it is that language-users interpret what other language-users intend to convey".[6] Yule gives a worth mentioning perspective of how DA may be described. Very simply, he affirms that

[When we] ask how it is that we, as language-users, make sense of what we read in texts, understand what speakers mean despite what they say, recognize connected as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse, and successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation, we are undertaking what is known as discourse analysis. [7]

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1 Hatch, E.; (1992); Discourse and Language Education; Cambridge: C.U.P. p. 1.
2 Yule, G.; (1985); The study of Language; Cambridge: CUP. p. 104.
3 Fasol, R.; (1990); The Sociolinguistics of Language; Oxford: Blackwell Publishers. p. 65.
4 (Ibid).
5 McCarthy, M. J.; Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; p. 7.
6 (Ibid.)
7 Yule, G.; (1985); The study of Language; Cambridge: CUP. p. 104.

Ordinarily, the term DA refers to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. To arrive at an understanding, and to make our messages comprehensible, we are beyond doubt dependent on both language form and language functions. Roughly speaking, it takes account of the study of both spoken interaction and written texts in which the discourse analyst "is describing what speakers and hearers are doing and not the relationship which exist between one sentence or preposition and another"[1]. Rather than attempting to summarise the big amount of data available on discourse analysis, we can state now, according to available research in sociolinguistics that DA shows two general tendencies: analysis of interactive events, that is, "how people manage their behaviour with respect to their cultural background and their interactive goals at the time of talk"[2] and analysis of text which tries to "discover explicit rules for the management of conversational problems, such as turn-taking, closings, and error correction."[3]

## 4. 2 Cohesion and coherence

According to Yule language-users know that "(…) texts must have a certain structure which depends on factors (…) described in terms of cohesion, or the ties and connections which exist within texts."[4] These connections are used in order to "maintain reference to the same people or things throughout"[5] texts. Yet, one can note that cohesion-the act or state of sticking together- is not enough to make sense of what one actually reads. There is, in fact, another important factor which is meant to make a distinction between texts that make sense from those which do not. Undoubtedly, it is people, who thanks to their ability to interpret messages closely related to their own social experience, give meaning to what they in reality hear and read. In doing so, they make "meaningful connections which are not actually expressed by the words and sentences".[6] In order to create meaningful text and realize a propositional development in discourse, we need to use appropriate grammatical links between sentences such as the use of

a) conjunctions which are of many types: temporal conjunctions (then, previously, later, etc.); additive conjunctions (moreover, and, etc.); causal/result conjunctions (but, however, etc.)

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1 (Ibid: 27).
2 Fasol, R.; The Sociolinguistics of Language; p. 65.
3 (Ibid: 66)
4 Yule, G.; (1985); The study of Language; Cambridge: CUP. p. 105
5 (Ibid)
6 (Ibid: 107).

b) personal pronouns like she, he, it, they refer to a proceeding full lexical noun (e.g. 'The woman crossed the road.' 'She was wearing a blue scarf.')

c) the definite article 'the' (e.g. 'It was raining.' 'The rain was cold.')

d) deictics such as 'this', 'that', 'these', 'those'. (e.g. 'there are two sets of books.' 'I will take these.'

e) comparative forms like 'other'. (e.g. 'there were two men.' 'One was young.' 'The other was middle-aged.')

For a text to be fully satisfactory to a listener or reader, it needs the concepts, prepositions and events or actions to be related to each other and to be consistent with the general subject of the text. In other words, coherence consists of both the way that ideas and communicative acts are organized in discourse and the relation between one meaning and another. For example;

A. 'Are you going to Bob's party?'

B. 'No, I have to do some homework.'

Nowadays DA "is a comparatively new discipline still defining its frontiers, problems, and methodology and in so doing draws on a variety of diverse disciplines-anthropology, linguistics, philosophy, psychology, and sociology".[1] It has an extremely important role in the study of language, and research in this area has not only become very popular but has also encompassed different types of discourse, among them classroom discourse.

Sinclair and Brazil examined a particular aspect of classroom discourse: teacher talk in which teachers constantly either

a) attract or show learners' attention to the on-going speech in the classroom,

b) control learners' speech either by allowing them to speak or not,

c) check/confirm whether they have understood their learners or not,

d) summarize a given point (either read or said) in teaching,

e) clarify the topic to be dealt with.[2]

An interesting aspect of their work is the role of intonation.

1 See (back cover book). Candlin, C.; (1984); An Introduction to Discourse Analysis; Lancaster: Institute for English Language Education, University of Lancaster.
1 Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M.; Towards an analysis of Discourse.
2 Sinclair, J. McH, & Brazil, D.; (1982); Teacher Talk; Oxford: OUP.

The foreign language class discourse has also become an important area of research. Cicurel[1] studied the way in which communication takes place in the foreign language class focussing mainly on the linguistic procedures used by teachers and students. Kramsch[2] also studied several aspects of the foreign-language class discourse proposing finally a typology of pedagogical activities for the learning of interactive discourse.

We think that in DA participants have to infer meaning from the surface content of the discourse which is not always an easy task. As a matter of fact, to make a clear distinction between a proposition (i. e., a statement about something or other) and an illocutionary act (i. e.; refusing, insisting, requesting, and so on), participants have to know both

a) how to negotiate meaning wherein all aspects of the utterances are interpreted, and

b) how to provide their own contributions with regard to the kind of communicative goal.

In other words, the process of negotiating meaning between language users must include the knowledge of the language system. Besides, participants have to predict the development of discourse, hence the interest in language use rather than language usage. In the end, let us state Stubbs' definition of the term DA "Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts."[3]

## 4. 3 Monitoring classroom talk

A particular social area wherein no less than one of the members is mainly responsible for active steps to examine the communication system is school teaching.

Teachers constantly check up to see if they are on the same wavelength as their pupils' if at least most of their pupils are following what they are saying, in addition to actively monitoring, editing and correcting the actual language which pupils use (…). Teachers therefore constantly exert different kinds of control over the on-going state in the classroom. [4]

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1 Cicurel, F.; (1985); Parole sur Parole ou le Métalangage dans la classe de langue; Paris: Clé Internationale.
2 Kramsch, C.; Context and Culture in Language Teaching.
3 (Ibid: 1)
4 (Ibid: 50)

By means of metacomunication i.e.; the real words uttered by teachers, one can devise a feasible coding scheme intended for organising tape-recorded examples of teacher-pupil interaction. To give meaning to the functions of utterances, it is crucial to take into consideration the context. A study of the subsequent examples of metacomunication which characterises teacher-talk can show utterances typically fulfil many distinct functions simultaneously. In addition, teacher-talk is also characterised by "a primarily metacomunicative function of monitoring the working of the communication channels, clarifying and reformulating the language used".[1] The types of Metacomunication are shown below.



**Figure 4: Types of Metacomunication** [2]

## 5. Speech act theory

How language describes the world has long been, and is even now, an important matter of language philosophers. Various scholars, for instance, Leibniz, Russell, Frege, the first Wittgenstein, have believed that comprehension of the construction of language might shed light on the type of truth. In spite of their huge concerns, such thinkers have

1 Stubbs, M.; Discourse Analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language. p. 53.
53 (Ibid: 50-53

absolutely offered the basic systematic description of the use of language.

"Speech act theory," is part of pragmatics, a subfield of linguistics. It was developed by J.L. Austin and John Searle in the 1960's. As stated by Schmidt and Richards "Speech Act Theory has to do with the functions and uses of language (…) speech acts are all the acts we perform through speaking, all the things we do when we speak"[1]. Pragmatics deals with contextual meaning, situational meaning and speech acts. In the broad sense one might affirm that Speech Act Theory "describes how language can be used to do things, rather than merely comment on the state o the world".[2] On the whole, speech acts are acts of communication. To communicate is to state specific feelings, thoughts and viewpoints, along with the type of speech act being achieved that relates to the type of attitude being spoken. For instance, Corder affirms that most utterances have a cognitive element in them, but this does not mean that the function of language is simply the expression of that element. All languages have an attitudinal element, that which is related to the intentions of the speaker, by which he conveys something of his state of mind, his activity and why he is speaking at all. [However], this attitudinal element may, of course, not be overtly expressed. [3]

The theory of speech acts wants to do justice to the fact that even though words (phrases, sentences) encode information, people do more things with words than express information and that when people do express information, they repeatedly communicate more than their words encode. Even though the focus of speech act theory has been on utterances, in particular those made in conversational as well as other face-to-face situations, the expression 'speech act' should be considered like a generic term intended for any kind of language use, spoken or otherwise. Speech acts, no matter what the means of their performance, fall in the broad division of intentional action, with which they contribute to specific common types. A remarkably significant trait is that once one acts on purpose, usually one has a set of nested goals. For example, having arrived home without one's keys, one might press on a button with the intention not just of pushing the button but of ringing a bell, arousing one's wife and, ultimately, getting into one's house. The single bodily movement involved in pushing the

1 Schmidt, R. W. & Richards, J. C.; (1989); 'Speech Acts and Second-Language'. in Richards, J. C. (eds.); The Context of Language Teaching; Cambridge: C.U.P.
2 (Ibid.)
3 Corder, S. P.; (1973); Introducing Applied Linguistics; Harmondsworth: Penguin. p. 40.

button comprises a multiplicity of actions, each corresponding to a different one of the nested intentions. Likewise, speech acts are not just acts of producing specific sounds.

Austin[1] makes a distinction between three different levels of action beyond the act of utterance itself. He differentiates

a) the act <u>of</u> saying something, ('locutionary') from
b) what one does <u>in</u> saying it, ('illocutionary') and from
c) what one does <u>by</u> saying it, ('perlocutionary')

Think about, for example, that a bus ticket collector says the following words:

'The bus will hit the road within three minutes!'

Uttered by means of a direct quotation, he is in that way fulfilling the locutionary act of stating that the bus (i.e., the one he is in charge of) will depart within three minutes (from the point of announcement), along with what is pronounced is stated by means of covert quotation.

One can also remark that what the bus ticket-collector is saying, i.e.; the real meaning of his locutionary act, is not thoroughly in agreement with the verbal communication he is making use of, because they do not point to the bus under consideration or the point in time of the utterance. In fact, by stating this, the bus ticket-collector is achieving the illocutionary act of informing both the bus-driver as well as the passengers of the bus's approaching departure in addition to possibly the act of advising them to buy their tickets quickly. Therefore, The bus ticket-collector aims at achieving the perlocutionary acts of causing the passengers to accept as true that the bus is about to set off as well as urging them to need and to buy their tickets. He is performing all these speech acts, at all three levels, simply via saying particular words.

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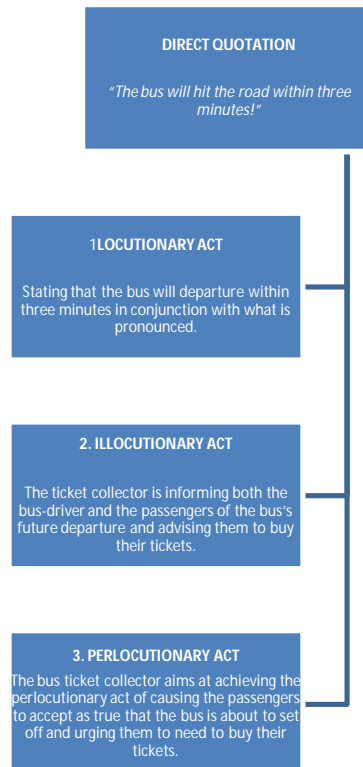1 Austin, J. L.; (1962); How to do Things with Words; Oxford: OUP.

**Figure 5: Three different levels of action.**

It looks as if there is a clear-cut connection in this example between

a)  the words spoken ('The bus will hit the road within three minutes!'),

b)  what is in this manner said, in addition to

c)  the act of informing the passengers that the bus will set off in three minutes.

Less overt is the link involving the utterance and the act of exhorting the passengers to buy their tickets. Clearly there is no linguistic link here, because the words neither make reference to tickets nor buying. This indirect relationship is a deduction. The passengers are required to deduce that the bus ticket-collector is determined to be compelling them to buy and, without doubt, it appears that the main reason his utterance is considered like an act of that kind is that he is talking with this aim.

There is similarly an indirect link when an utterance of 'It's raining cats and dogs' is made not merely the same as an avowal about the temperature but as a request to stay at home or as a proposal to take an umbrella to avoid being wet. Whether it is planned (and is perceived) like a plea or like a suggestion relies on contextual information that the speaker falls back on the audience to depend on. This is true even when the link connecting word and action is more direct than in the above example, because the form of the sentence spoken may possibly not succeed to decide immediately which kind of illocutionary act is being carried out.

Conversation or communications among people do not happen in a vacuum, but at a specific time and place, in a physical and temporal 'setting'. They may be sitting or standing, walking or driving along in a car. They may be in a crowd or alone together, among friends or strangers, in a room, a cathedral or a street. All these factors may play a part in what goes on in the conversation, but they are not what it is 'about'. The topic of discourse is obviously an important element in the speech situation.

To put it differently, a statement not only describes a situation or states some facts, but also performs a certain kind of action by itself. It is the act of saying the phrase that is important in other words, "Speech Act Theory describes whose very sentence causes things to occur"[1] as in the sentence ['I pronounce thee man and wife'][2] is what in fact leads to the marriage to take place. To focus on both the meanings of words and the types of acts performed in any given situation, Austin calls for "the [principle] 'illocutionary forces,'"[3] that focuses on the performative linguistic function in which speech is regarded as action. Thus, he felt it necessary to group speech acts into three ways.

a) The first, refers to situations in which language is used in "activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech"[4] like in two-party conversations (e.g. telephone or face-to-face), spiritual ceremonies, lectures, lessons, prefaces, and so on.

b) The second refers to situations in which language is used in fights, meals, hunts, or parties. In other words, when talking about use, the rules for forming a sentence like ["It's hot in this classroom!"] one says it when it's hot, and one does not say it when it is not hot. This implies

1 Austin, J. L.; (1962); How to Do Things with Words; London: OUP. p. 99.
2 (Ibid.)
3 (Ibid.)
4 (Ibid: 101)

that this example is possible only in those contexts where it's true and not in those wherein it is false.

c) The last, refers to acts people perform when speaking, such as " giving reports, making statements, asking questions, giving warnings, making promises, approving, regretting, and apologizing."[1]

There are numerous things which people can do via language. To make use of language efficiently in diverse situations, an individual "must possess not only linguistic competence but also communicative competence the use of language appropriate to a given situation."[2] In fact, Hymes[3] makes a distinction between speech events, speech situations, and speech acts

| FACTORS | CHARACTERISTCS |
|---|---|
| 1. ADDRESSER | A person trying to transmit a message |
| 2. PURPOSE | The addresser's reason for transmitting the message |
| 3. ADDRESSEE | The person to whom the message is being transmitted |
| 4. CONTENT | What the message is about |
| 5. FORM | How the message is delivered, the actual form of words |
| 6. MEDIUM | The medium of delivery, spoken or written |
| 7. SETTING | The place and the time |
| 8. CODE | The language in which the message is delivered, English, French, or whatever. |

**Table 2: Factors of the speech event**[4]

It is to be remarked that both linguistic philosophers Austin and Searle maintain that, "when using language, we not only make propositional statements about objects, entities, states of affairs and so on, but we also fulfil functions such as requesting, denying, introducing, apologizing etc.."[5] In other words, people possess conversational competence, that is, they observe conversational maxims, rules, regularities, and conventions. According to the philosopher Austin's speech act-act theory[6] a speaker of a sentence conveys a proposition and at the same time performs an illocutionary act (e.g., warning), which has a perlocutionary effect on the hearer (e.g. being alarmed). A

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1 Richards, J. C.; The Context of Language Teaching; p. 101.
2 Hymes, D. (ed.); Language in Culture and Society; p. 29
3 (Ibid)

5 Nunan; D.; (1993); Discourse Analysis; London: Penguin English; p. 65.
6 See chapter 4; In. Evelyn Hatch; 1992; Discourse and Language Education; Cambridge: C.U.P.

conversation consists of a series of exchanges, initiation (e.g., question) from one speaker and response (answer) from another. The strongly linked initiation-response forms an adjacency pair.

Conversation is interactive, as partners take turns in speaking and listening. Nevertheless theorists differ to a great extent in the amount and types of categories they make use of (e.g., Labov & Fanshel[1]; Edmondson[2]). The table below lists, in order of frequency, Searle's[3], categories used in his system which are based on speaker intention.

| CATEGORIES | PURPOSE | STATE EXPRESSED |
|---|---|---|
| DIRECTIVES | To get hearer to do or stop doing something | Desire |
| COMMISIVES | To impose an obligation on speaker, statements that function as promises or refusals for actions | Intention |
| REPRESENTATIVES | To show how something is, can be judged for truth value | Belief |
| DECLRATIVES | To create a fact, bring about a new state of being | None ( or belief) |
| EXPRESSIVES | To express some attitude (joy, disappointment, likes and dislikes) | Varies (e.g., regret) |

**Table 3: Five categories of illocutionary acts**[4]

Turn taking, thanks to abundant cues, occurs smoothly, but immediate talking and interruptions happen infrequently. Conversational speech is formulated on the spot and includes ellipses, pauses, discourse markers, and disfluencies. It moves in cycles of uncertain (planning) along with fluent (execution) phases. It is to be remarked that a conversational exchange involves a series of turn exchanges, a social phenomenon that interests sociolinguists. Before discussing the concept turn taking within interactive speech, we will have now to define what a speaking turn is. According to Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson a speaking turn

1 Labov, W. & Fanshel, D.; (1977); Therapeutic Discourse: Psychotherapy as conversation; New York: Academic Press.
2 Edmondson, W.; (1981); Spoken Discourse: A model for analysis; London Longman.
3 Searle, J. R.; (1976); A classification of illocutionary acts; Language in Society, 5, 1-23.
4 Adapted from Hatch, E.; Discourse and Language Education; pp.121-132.

"consists of all the speaker's utterances up to the point at which another person takes over the speaking role".[1]

A great deal has been achieved in the field of discourse analysis related to the examination of turn-taking; additionally, one is almost not able to put in writing an introduction review of discourse analyses by not mentioning the work done within this particular topic. In the traditional ethnomethodological approach, discourse analysts have stated how individuals deal with turns at talk; within any portion of ordinary English communication, turns will take place easily, by means of a small amount of overlap as well as break, along with extremely short pauses between turns (approximately a lesser amount of a second). People employ turns "when they are selected or nominated by the current speaker, or if no one is selected, they may speak of their own accord (self-selection)".[2] If none of these circumstances are used, the individual who is presently speaking may possibly keep on.[3] At the same time as the current speaker is discussing, "listeners are paying special attention to the syntactic completeness or otherwise of the speaker's contribution, and to clues in the pitch level that may indicate that a turn is coming to a close.[4]

There are particular linguistic strategies for getting hold of the turn when one is incapable to go into the usual course of turn-taking or when the surroundings require that certain principles be followed. They are significantly different at the level of formality and appropriacy in relation to various situations; for instance, 'If I may, Mr Chairman', 'I wonder I might say something', 'Can I just come in here', Hang on a minute', 'Shut up will you, I can't get a word in edgewise'). Another feature of turn-taking, referred to as back-channel responses, concerns "linguistic resources of not taking the turn when one has the opportunity, or simply of making it clear to the speaker that we are attending to the message."[5] The latter typically involve language for instance 'mm', 'ah-ah', and short words and phrases like 'yeah', 'no', 'right', 'sure'. The last point, involves the manner speakers look forward to one another's words and frequently achieve them for them, overlap with them as they finish.

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1 Taylor, I.; (1990); Psycholinguistics: Learning and using Language; London: Prentice-Hall International.
p. 39.
2 McCarthy, M. J.; Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers; p.127.
3 Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., Jefferson, G.; (1974); A simplest systematics for the organisation of turn-taking for conversation; Language, 50(4), 696-735.
4 (Ibid.)
5 (Ibid: 128).

## 6. Analysis of activities

In the previous section, a theoretical framework has been established about the most significant arguments of the factors of communication and functions of language together with speech acts, followed by the role of the development of discourse analysis. In the present section, however, we aim to give attention to both the macro and micro analysis of activities and will be looking at the ways in which the pedagogical activities and the pedagogic discourses are brought into play. In Algeria American/British (henceforth, Am/Brit) literature teaching is regarded as an important means for students to access the target culture, to improve their linguistic as well as their cultural awareness and to develop their communicative competence. It goes without saying that teaching foreign literature to non-natives is, nonetheless, an area, full of doubts and troubles. From the foregoing, we are going to suggest a number of answers to the problems from a pedagogical viewpoint.

In order to give a global view of the pedagogical activities brought into play during the literature lectures, a macro analysis is appropriate. It is to be expected that a careful consideration given to types of classroom behaviours teachers need to engage in to make better learning will help to explain whether the work is performed individually or cooperatively. For that reason, the calculation of the time division will give us the opportunity to ask a set of questions either on the positive or negative implications related to work done inside a literature class.

The next point that must be focused on is the micro analysis in which the pedagogical discourse, i.e. the use of teaching transitions can be studied with the help of a grid of pedagogical acts. In this regard, the obtained results will establish the prerequisites for a discussion concerning the teaching and learning techniques used by the participants all the way through the lectures. On the whole, implications of the present work will provide us with another viewpoint with which teaching Am/Brit literature to non-natives can be distinguished.

Having said all this, let us now return to the macro analysis of the five lectures we managed to observe in our departments of English.

In all, one can state that the overall atmosphere prevailing in the lectures (see table below as an example) refers to the teachers' persistence to dominate the talk and the students' reluctant, noisy, passive behaviours within classroom settings do not create "life" conditions where thoughts are expressed and ideas exchanged in a friendly way. In doing so, a non-realistic environment is established wherein communicative and interactive skills are almost totally absent. The most important disadvantage of his procedure does not help learning to take place most effectively because the learners are unable

to comprehend their communicative and linguistic needs. Given this view, the consequences of teaching behaviours which teaching styles have on students can not only be better understood, but also help learners to be able to grasp better the objectives of a given literature lecture.

| TIME | STEPS | ACTIVITIES USED | OBSERVATIONS | CA | GA | IA | AMOUNT OF TIME |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 08:06 | 1 | -T greets sts… -Elicitation phase T show the front cover book of "Dubliners" | Noisy atmosphere!!! me sts try to share giving short criptions | CA | | | 4 mns |
| 08:12 | 2 | -T introduces main chararacters of "Dubliners" as well as gives explanations about structure & style of the novel | -T writes bibliography & names of on the main characters on bb -T asks questions about author's life, family, etc. -T writes new vocab on bb Sts are strangely silent!!! | CA | | | 3 mns |
| 08:30 | 3 | -T explains the structure of the short story | -T draws diagram to explain what is meant by a structure of a short story -Sts are silent; T talks a lot + dictates briefly! | CA | | | 12 mns |
| 08:44 | 4 | -T tells sts to open their books on page 39. Before reading loudly the introductory paragraph, he gives an idea about the number of pages of the short story to be dealt with, -Elicitation phase: T asks a general | -T writes key words on bb -Sts are silent + take note -An important number of sts don't have books! -Sts' reactions are relatively interesting as they show real interested in the story | CA | | IA | 19 mns |

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|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | question about passage read then explains | | | | | |
| 08: 59 | 5 | -T reads the passage again then asks specific questions abut the same passage. | -T's way of reading loudly attracks sts; sts are hooked! | C A | | | 09 mns |
| 09: 08 | 6 | -T moves to the second paragraph on the same page then explains the difference between Dublin today and in the past. | -T writes new expressions on bb -T, by drawing a table on bb, focuses on Joyce's purpose which is placing characters in these specific settings; from time he intervenes to answer sts' questions. The other sts seem to interested in the lecture. | C A | | | 08 mns |
| 09:16 | 7 | -T moves to page 38 then explains vocab, through mixed question questions: yes-no & wh questions. | -T writes some words/expressions on bb; both Arabic & French are sometimes used!!! -Some sts begin to speak!!! Time is over!!! -A few sts approach the T to ask him questions about the lecture. | C A | | | 13 mns |
| 09: 29 | 8 | -T greets sts & tells them to read by taking notes the same short story for next lecture. | -Noisy atmosphere!!! | C A | | | 1 mn |

**Table 4: Division of work in "Eveline" (Teacher E)**

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## 7. Micro-analysis of transitions used in the five lectures

The concern of this sub-section is to examine the type of pedagogical discourse used in the classroom settings in order to know the relative amount of pedagogic acts which are owned by both the teacher and the learners respectively. As the teaching style is not easily operationalized, we have chosen to focus on openings and closures on one hand, and lectures periods and transitions on the other. In simple terms, transitions are periods of time when teachers direct students to end one task or activity and start another.[1] As they are periods when students can be disruptive,[2] cautiously managed transitions require together time management and behavioural management.[3] The most successful transitions concerning lectures or activities are quick ones that have clear ends and beginnings[4] and that reduce the amount of "down time" between the activities.[5]

| LECTURES | VERBAL TRANSITIONS | TACIT TRANSITIONS | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teacher A | 21 | 1 | 22 |
| Teacher B | 15 | 2 | 17 |
| Teacher C | 20 | 1 | 20 |
| Teacher D | 15 | 1 | 15 |
| Teacher E | 14 | 1 | 15 |
| TOTAL | 85 | 6 | 89 |

**Table 5: Number of verbal and tacit transitions in the five lectures.**

One can remark that from data collected (see table 5 above) that all the transitions are made by the teacher; learners do not share this category of discourse. In most classroom settings teachers use two types of transitions: verbal and tacit ones. In verbal transitions the teacher launches linguistically the movement from one teaching phase to

1 Arlin, M.; (1979); Teacher transitions can disrupt time flow in classrooms; American Educational Research, 16(1), 42-56..

2 Burden, P. R.; (2003); Classroom Management: Creating a successful learning community (2nd ed.); New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
Sainato, D. M.; (1990); Classroom transitions: Organising environments to promote independent performance in preschool children with disabilities; Education and Treatment of Children, 13(4), 288-297.,

3 Stainback, S. & Stainback, W.; (1996); Inclusion: A guide for educators; Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

4 Arlin, M.; (1979); Teacher transitions can disrupt time flow in classrooms; American Educational Research, 16(1), 42-56.
 Burden, P. R.; Classroom Management: Creating a successful learning community (2nd ed.).

5 Sainato, D. M.; (1990); Classroom transitions: Organising environments to promote independent performance in preschool children with disabilities; Education and Treatment of Children, 13(4), 288-297.

another or gives orders; while in the tacit transitions he makes a gesture, hands in handouts, writes words, phrases, or cleans or draws on the board to explain the kind of activity to be performed by the learners or writes the new vocabulary.
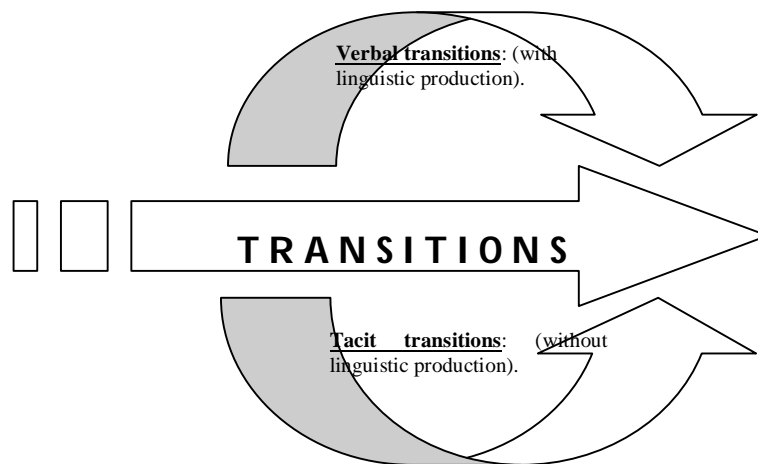
Verbal transitions: (with linguistic production).

T R A N S I T I O N S

Tacit transitions: (without linguistic production).

**Figure 6: Types of transitions**

A number of strategies help to facilitate quick transitions, including preventive measures teachers can take ahead of time, and situational behaviours that will make each transition go more smoothly. During instruction or at the time of transitions, there are a number of strategies teachers can use to encourage rapid and smooth progress from one lecture or activity to another. It is important for students to know what to do and when to do it. That is why for teachers to be highly effective, consistent visual and auditory signals as well as verbal cues must be given so that students will be aware that a period of transition is coming.

A thorough analysis of data of the five lectures reveals the total domination of teachers' signalling, that is, "the signs given to indicate that one phase is over, and the next about to begin."[1] All the transitions are launched by the five teachers who never give the opportunity to their students to share this category of discourse. As a result, the latter are considered as 'empty slates' and conduct themselves in an extremely passive way with regard to the flow of the teachers' speech. Knowing that it is not possible to keep track of a "fixed routine of opening or closing a [lecture][2] it is desirable to "refine understanding of

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1 Wajnryb, R.; Classroom Observation Tasks: A resource book for language teachers and trainers; p. 83.
2 (Ibid: 80

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the conventional routines that characterise the start and end of a [lecture]." [1]

8. The results of the Sinclair/Coulthard analysis system

In this section we shall summarize the features of classroom interaction that will be of relevance to foreign literature learning. The make noticeable the role of the literature teacher, SC's model of analysis (see table below) was used in order to examine the language of the classroom and evaluate its effectiveness. The language of the classroom is different from lots of types of spoken language in that it is formally structured and regulated by one leading individual, i.e. the teacher. We chose to follow the procedure summarized in Brazil[2] because it looked particularly understandable. In the beginning we went through the data and divided it into moves (i.e.; actions). This required first recognising framing and focusing moves. At this point the analysis was to a certain extent easy, even if later on an important number of moves were to a certain extent re-assessed and re-allocated, because of obstacles which became apparent with the subsequent phase. After that it was essential to split the moves into acts as well as allocate them all act labels. This was the most complex and time consuming phase of the analysis, but also the most informative as well. Last but not least concerns the number of act categories which poses many problems during the analysis, so the most salient have been chosen to highlight the problems met in the study.

As a primary example of the degree of structuring involved in TC' planning of instruction, let's look at the speech acts that constitute the main activity during teacher-class interaction.

Indeed, the latter may assume two main forms: It may consist of the teacher's lecturing to students who, presumably take in and process the information they receive; students either seldom ask questions or answer at the behest of the teacher. In the case of teacher A's classroom, a great amount of teacher-class interaction consists of extended teaching moves like marker, metastatement, provide information comment, and evaluate over the class period. This could be seen the interactive acts from the Sinclair and Coulthard model:

- Marker: "<u>Anyway</u>…so this chapter…" (TC)
  "<u>Right</u>…right… (TC reads passage)…" (TC)
- Metastatement: "Let me jump to more conversation…"(TC)
- Comment: "There's a very good summary … [Inaudible]…I think this is … [Inaudible]…" (TC)

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1 (Ibid: 83)
2 Brazil, D.; (1995); A Grammar of Speech; Oxford: OUP. pp. 29-46.

- Provide information: "Jordan tells Nick about the background…" (TC)
- Elicitation: "How do Americans see their culture abroad? ++ "How difficult is it to teach American literature?" (TC)

| No. | PEDAGOGIC ACTS AND THEIR LABELS | CHARACTERISTICS |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Marker | |
| 2 | Starter | |
| 3 | Elicitation | |
| 4 | Check | |
| 5 | Directive | |
| 6 | Informative | |
| 7 | Prompt | |
| 8 | Clue | |
| 9 | Cue | |
| 10 | Bid | |
| 11 | Nominating | |
| 12 | Acknowledging | |
| 13 | Reply | |
| 14 | React | |
| 15 | Comment | |
| 16 | Accept | |
| 17 | Evaluate | |
| 18 | Metastatement | |
| 19 | Conclusion | |
| 20 | Loop | |
| 21 | Aside | |

**Table 6: Grid of Pedagogic Acts**[1]

As expected TC keeps the role of someone who not only provides information comments but shows it clearly that he is the owner of knowledge as he does by means of attractive anecdotes and appropriate and humorous proverbs. In doing so, he is the only "performer" in class, one who entertains, one laughs, one determines the manner the type of activity have to be undertaken. Obviously this type teaching does not leave enough room for students' individual initiatives; that is why on the whole they remain amazingly quiet and follow almost

1 Sinclair, J. McH. & Coulthard, M.; Towards an Analysis of Discourse. pp. 25-27.

blindly the teacher's non-stop delivery of speech. Once more, this style of teaching, in which learners are spoon-fed from the start to the end of the lecture, hampers learning of literature.

Unlike the first two teachers, TC uses extensively another particular interactive act to hook the students. This teaching procedure is realised through his professional eloquence to comment with the help of L1 (Arabic) or L2 (French) some important teaching events of the lecture:

• Comment: "The metaphor is wonderful…ripple a wide tonic…hadihi toufakirouna bi chi'rin el arabi wal ène…++ this is what happened in Saudi Arabia… I know an Englishman who…" (TC)

• Comment: " On dit souvent que c'est le premier amour qui marque…" or  "Gatsby is nicely dressed …++ il a mis le paquet…"(TC)

This extensive use of metastatements, providing information and commenting hampers students' apparent involvement in the structuring of the class since teacher talk, in the form of providing and commenting, does not help to create a real learning atmosphere during the lecture. Yet this teaching strategy allows the teacher to retain control over both the content and the direction of the talk. In field notes taken on during this classroom observation, we reflected, "this teacher who chooses the topic, adopts the pace and the direction of the talk for his lecture makes students feel uncomfortable by having to perform the entire lecture events alone; this goes counter to what Harmer observes,The main aim of the teacher when organising an activity is to tell the students what they are going to talk about (or write or read about), give clear instructions about what exactly their task is, get the activity going on, and then organise feedback when it is over. [1]

Last but not least is about the behaviour TC adopts at the start of the lectures. At the beginning of his lecture, he goes directly to the front of the classroom, stands up behind his school desk and starts preparing the needed teaching documents. After that he cleans the board, and stands up once more in the front-middle of the classroom by keeping quiet for few seconds. This unspoken transition obviously shows to students that the teacher is attracting the students' attention so as to remain silent and be ready to follow the lecture events.

This pattern of teaching short stories is fashioned more along the lines of a teacher-centeredness approach which is mostly providing information, commenting, and facilitating literary notions and procedures to guide the students through the assigned material, for the

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1 Harmer, J.; The Practice of Language Teaching; p. 202.

most part, collectively. TE's role in the classroom, as facilitator, is to provide a nurturing atmosphere in which students' literary as well as linguistic development can take place. Below are some of the interactive acts processed from data:

- Marker: "<u>OK</u> <u>now</u>…?" (TE)

  "<u>Well</u> it's a contrast between…" (TE)

- Metastatement: "In this lecture I'm going to deal with Irish literature…" (TE)

- Comment: "<u>This will help you understand better the short story</u>…OK…" (TE)

- Provide information: "Dubliners is a series of short stories…+…15 exactly…" (TE)

- Request: "<u>Please</u>…+…open your books on page37…" (TE)

- Directive: "<u>Write</u>…++…Dubliners is …(TE)

- Elicitation: "It's a contrast between…++…between what? (TE)

In what follows, we shall be looking at the observation system which is widely used for observing language teaching. Around 1975, Sinclair and Coulthard (henceforth, SC) developed their system of analysis on the communicative notion of language within a classroom,[1] that is, it is a form of discourse analysis hypothesis based on three traditional and main forms of an utterance: declarative, imperative, and interrogative has been used for a bigger unit of language. Thus, understanding both the language work and its function became easy. Indeed, their system is centred on three major points: the function of utterances within the structure of discourse, the control of discourse from one interlocutor to another and the introduction and conclusion of various topics within the discourse.

In their scheme for describing classroom data[2], S/C distinguish four main units within the internal structure of a classroom discourse. The used a rank scale (lesson hierarchy[3]): lesson – transaction – exchange – move – act for their description model. In fact, the lesson is seen as a set of activities: 'frontier' exchanges and 'teaching' exchanges. Then,

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1 Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M.; Towards an analysis of Discourse.
2 Wallace, M.; Training FL Teachers: A reflective approach.
3 A hierarchy of observation categories: Sinclair & Coulthard argue for a hierarchy of observation categories similar to the hierarchies available in grammar, in which a sentence consists of clauses, which consist of phrases, which consist of words, which consist (See Wallace.; (1991); Training FL Teachers: A reflective approach; Cambridge: CUP.).

the exchanges split within 'moves'. The frontier exchanges are made of two moves: the centring and the adjusting in which, for example, ['I am going to start by asking you a few questions', makes up the initial segment for the organisation and contextualisation of a given teaching[1]. Next, the teaching exchange consists of three moves: the opening, the answer, and the renewal. For example, an 'eliciting exchange' input could be the following[2]. Finally, the moves split within 'acts' which represent the smallest units of analysis. In other words, S/C subdivide their moves into acts so that there is a systematic linguistic analysis.

| MOVE | SPOKEN DISCOURSE | ACT |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Initiating | T: Can anyone have a shot, a guess at that one? | - Elicit |
| 2. Responding | P: Cleopatra | - Reply |
| 3. Follow-up | T: Cleopatra<br>  Good girl<br>  She was the most famous<br>  Queen, wasn't she? | - Accept<br>- Evaluation<br>- Comment |

Table 7: An eliciting exchange[3]

Although SC have claimed that their system can be used in teaching applications in which observation categories are classified hierarchically, its primary thrust is linguistic (i.e., sentence – clause – phrase – words – morphemes) rather than pedagogic. On the other hand, analysing the discourse of English used as foreign language differs radically from English used as the mother tongue.

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1 (Ibid.)
2 (Ibid: 71).
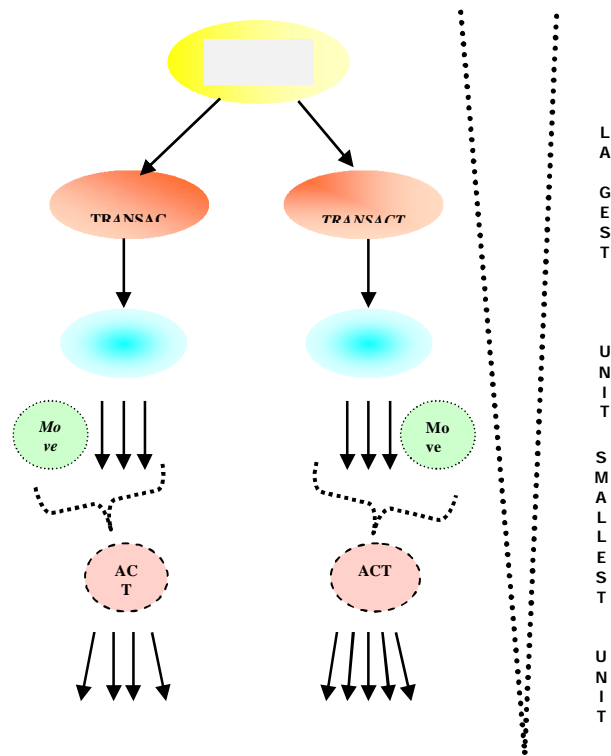3 Wallace, M.; Training FL Teachers: A reflective approach. p. 71.

**Figure 7: Hierarchy of observation categories** [1]

It is significant to assert, however, that inside the management of pedagogical acts there are a lot of functions of language inside the classroom: language can be put in order and structure the tasks; it can present and explain the functioning of the target language; it can prompt answers, evaluate, summarize, and simplify. In classroom settings, language may for the most part do the work of focussing back on language itself, i.e. language uses language (metalanguage).

## 9. Commentary

Up to now we have looked at talk within a limited environment: the usual classroom, where the roles are strictly defined and the models of interaction, are comparatively simple to observe, and were transactions are deeply marked. The classroom was a suitable space to begin, as S/C discovered. Nevertheless exploiting the classroom is for the most part helpful for our purpose because one of the things a model intended for

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1 -Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M.; Towards an analysis of Discourse.

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the study of classroom talk allows us to accomplish is assess our personal output as teachers along with that of our learners. For example, Van Lier states that "research on classroom interaction can help thus teachers sharpen their questions about and awareness of their teaching practices, and provide practical suggestions for improvements" [1]

We used both the macro and micro analysis of classroom teaching events so as to understand the teaching styles of the five teachers observed. To appreciate better how each teacher brings into play the instruments of teaching in exclusive ways inside every classroom, it is of paramount importance to know the dynamics of classrooms. On the whole, it is imperative to be aware of the teacher's role in setting up the classroom environment, in addition to providing descriptions of the teaching styles of the teachers in this analysis, which will lead up to a detailed knowledge of how teachers make use of particular teaching techniques as part of their instructional strategy. Relying merely on deep-rooted descriptions, for instance approach, plan, or procedure is not sufficient. Models of description such as the S/C model, which has been slightly adapted for this study, suggest significant insights into what teachers in fact accomplish while they apply the teaching guidelines of a course innovation to the scheduling of a class syllabus or the plan of a day's lecture.

Classroom construction can be defined as a spoken communication inside classrooms which contains two interconnected structures: educational task structures as well as social participation structures. [2] The educational task structures match up with the way the area under discussion is arranged in a lecture, or the consistent teaching procedures related to the task in addition to its chronological stages. This is the most significant teaching act in a foreign language classroom that language teachers are as a rule supposed to fulfill□

Social participation structures correspond to the distribution of interactional rights and responsibilities of members so as to have an effect on the discourse. The latter can contain turns at speaking such as the question-answer, in addition to listening manners with regard to speaking conduct.

In the case of the teachers we observed, there were many features in common. All five classes were large classes of the same kind of class. Teachers who had been directed to follow a common departmental

1 Van Lier, L.; (1988); "Classroom interaction pattern of foreign language teachers"; ERIC/CLL NEWS BULLETIN; 11 (2), March (1988).
2 Keith, J.; (1995); Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms [M]; London: CUP. p. 41.

syllabus have one thing in common: they make clear a long-established view of language which is perceived both as objective as well as realistic and separated from the knower. In other words, this traditional teaching approach concentrates on the acquisition of knowledge and prevents learners from contributing to the learning process.

It is interesting to remark that six major pedagogic acts dominate the five lectures observed: marker, comment, providing information, metastatement, request and elicitation respectively (see figure 8 below). Indeed, if we calculate the total percentage of these interactive acts, we will obtain 90.27 % for all teachers in that order of the total number of acts. This holds especially true that these lectures are teacher-led in which students are not given the ability to break the "lock-step teaching" of traditional classrooms. Being deprived from participation, students may fail to understand the main points and logical argument. Olsen and Huckin [1] attribute this failure to the lack of knowledge of the overall discourse structure as well as background knowledge. This dimension of lectures observed goes counter to what Flowerdew remarks, "a lecture is not merely a medium for conveying information, but also for relating to the audience attitudes and opinions".[2] In the same line of thought Rounds provides a description of interpersonal features of lecturers in which he affirms that it is necessary to build up "an atmosphere of cooperative interaction and consensus – a sense of working together to achieve a common goal".[3] Indeed, Rounds makes clear distinction between the sole transmission of information and what he calls "elaboration".

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1 Olsen, L. A. & Huckin, T. N.; (1990); Point-driven understanding in Engineering lecture comprehension; English for Specific Purposes; 9 (33-47)
2 Flowerdrew, J.; (1991a); Pragmatic modifications on the "representative" speech act of defining. Journal of Pragmatics 15, 253-264.
3 Rounds, P.; (1987); Characterising successful classroom discourse for NNS teaching assistant training; TESOL Quarterly; 21(4), p. 666)
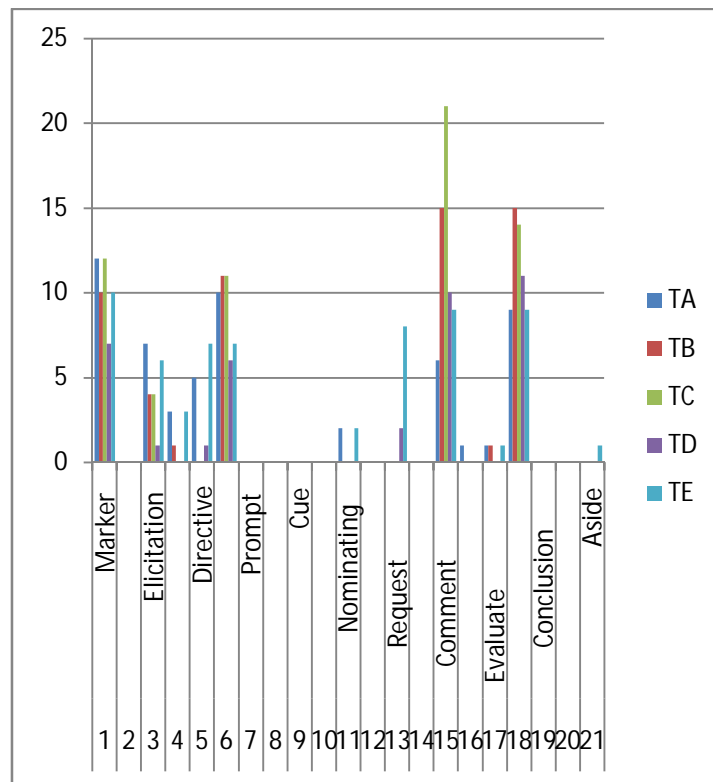
**Figure 8: Teachers' pedagogic acts in the five lectures.**

In summary, however, the analysis does not deal with the correlation between instructional approaches and student learning--a limitation which we willingly admit. It is important to state as well that teachers A, B, E use at a lesser degree other pedagogical acts such as evaluate, check, and directive. It is without doubt imperative for teachers to know if students have understood the information transmitted throughout the lecture, or whether students are tracking the events of the lecture so that they can organise their teaching act appropriately. Not only is the general picture of the lecture very important, but it will also be crucial for the teachers to check repeatedly that the students have understood. By giving clear and to the point orders to write in their copybooks, teacher A, for example, wants to make sure those students are taking notes and are almost without doubt processing the information they receive. The last two acts can show that teacher A and E being familiar with their students called students by their names because they know these students before. In sum, this teaching strategy is for the most part used to make certain that students pay attention to what the teachers were saying.

Unlike teachers B, C, and D, teachers A and B use dissimilar pedagogic acts in that they make a relative use of request, nominate, and accept (teacher A) or aside (teacher E). When asked, these two teachers answered that the ELT experience accumulated throughout years in the secondary school helped them to cling to audio-lingual as well as communicative teaching principles.

In these learning English/American literature conditions where according to DU "literature courses are conducted in such a way that they are neither language courses for practical skills nor literature courses with a view to specialisation in literature"; [1] the five teachers adopt another strategy to help their students get hold of in a better way the content of their classes. They stand for the most part in front of the room to teach to class and avoid at the same time embarrassing them (see figure below). It is through this careful structuring that these teachers signal the different steps of the lecture events.

Another teaching procedure concerns the way lectures are initiated by unspoken transitions. At the beginning of the lectures, some of them by going directly to the front of the classroom and standing up behind their school desks, they immediately get ready their teaching documents. Either cleaning the board, or standing up once more at the front, they generally ask for silence or keep quiet for a few seconds so as to launch the lecture.

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1 DU (1990); In. Ming-sheng Li; (1998); English Literature Teaching in China: Flowers and Thorns; The Weaver: A Forum for New Ideas in Educaation; no. 2, ISSN 1329-881X, at: http :// WWW.latrob.edu.au/www/graded/MSLed2.html. p. 206.
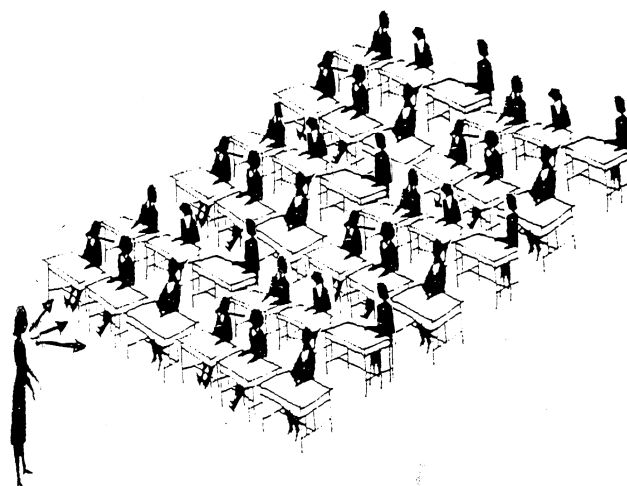
**Figure 9: Teacher to class**

In using this traditional class pattern in the classroom, teacher's role is essentially that of instructor and knowledge transmitter wherein students are obliged to go after the teachers' current talk. This type of teaching is basically rejected today because it tends to be teacher-centred and gives less opportunity for extended language work. The teaching procedure to which teachers adhere to refers to lockstep, a type of class grouping defined by Harmer as "the class grouping where all the students are working together with the teacher, where all the students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and space, the same activity (…). Lockstep is the traditional teaching situation [wherein] a teacher-controlled session is taking place."[1]

However, as Harmer[2] points out, "either the teacher is too slow for the good students (and therefore there the danger that they will get bored) or he is too fast for the weak students (in which case they panic and not learn what is being taught." [3] Thus a literature lecture, as Elliot asserts refers to "The old method of teaching English literature as a body of

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1 Harmer, J.; The Practice of Language Teaching; p. 205.
2 (Ibid)
3 (Ibid)

received knowledge to be learnt largely though lecture mode is frequently criticised as being too product-centred." [1]

To avoid students being totally locked into a teacher-controlled lecture, it is advisable to adopt a more elaborated teaching form in which students can have the possibility to be autonomous as they not only learn a lot but also attend relative shorter amount of teaching. If teaching literature is ineffective within today's classroom, it is to a certain extent the mistake of teachers along with the strategies as well as methods they employed: "Learning what is meaningful and relevant depends partly on what is taught and [to a certain extent] on how it is taught." [2] For that reason, it is advisable to put into practice an eclectic attitude toward adopting new methods in which students' learning preferences must be taken into consideration.

Last but not least concerns the conduct all the students take on during all the lectures. Nearly all students with whom we talked expressed dissatisfaction with the present type of teaching literature. It is to be remarked that although they have been exposed to both English language and Arabic literature for some years, these students meet problems as their linguistic ability fails to attain the minimum requirements. In this respect Culler states,

(…) anyone wholly acquainted with literature and unfamiliar with the conventions of how fictions are read, would (…) be quite baffled if presented with a poem. His knowledge of the language would enable him to understand phrases and sentences, but he would not know, quite literally, what to make of this strange concatenation of phrases. He would be unable to read it as literature (…) because he lacks the complex "literary competence" which enables others to proceed. He has not internalised the "grammar" of literature which would permit him to convert linguistic sequences into literary structures and meanings. [3]

Other disadvantages these lectures have referred to probably that "of sustaining the listener's attention." [4] Indeed, today a common universal belief suggests that attention declines after fifteen or twenty minutes. [5] Therefore, to avoid inflexible and unusual discourse during lectures, it is of paramount importance for the teacher to take advance action so

1 Elliot, R.; (1990); Encouraging reader-response to literature in ESL situations; ELT Journal; 44(3), 192

2 Widdowson, H.G.; (1999); Aspects of Language Teaching; Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. p.12.

3 Culler (1975: 114)

4 Wallace, C.; (1992b); Reading; Oxford: OUP. p. 35.

5 (Ibid.).

that the requirements and actions essential to set up and preserve an atmosphere where instruction and learning can take place. This is indeed confirmed by the five teachers who talk excessively as well as improvise a lot (see TB, TC and TD) and provide a large number of instructions; they illustrate the mastery of the topics dealt with throughout their presence and style, their linguistic and English accent competence by means of a loud tone of voice with efficient amount of body language.

In this study our non-native literature students are confronted with both learning a foreign literature and getting hold of a different social code of conduct, in relation to teachers and students' intentions, behaviors and emotions which are expressed in diverse ways. Foreign literature students are required to exploit social, cognitive, educational, linguistic, and paralinguistic awareness of the new literary language so as to successfully participate during classroom events. This went counter to what we observed in the lectures because students did not have the opportunity to join in classroom interactions in the new literary environment, without this knowledge; their chances for classroom discourse exchanges were almost absent. Besides students' previous instructional knowledge can also involve their expectations concerning the roles that teachers and students are supposed to assume throughout lecture teaching. For example, Widdowson[1] states that the classroom must not simply be seen as physical environments, but also considered as social area.

In the face of the numerous harsh environments that are against vital as well as authentic communication between teachers and students in foreign literature classrooms, our own observations in foreign literature settings have led us to infer that for the most part the persistent obstacle to foreign literature teaching is too much talk on the part of the teacher. Indeed, all five teachers had between fifteen and twenty five years' experience of teaching. The conclusions for our present concern may be summarized as follows:

a) the patterns most chosen by the teachers were task orientation and relevant to the lectures,

b) talking in a friendly and loud tone of voice,

c) providing too much information and

d) giving a great number of explanations.

These teachers' tendency almost certainly lies on teachers' personal opposing attitudes regarding how foreign literature learning is coped

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1 Widdowson1 (1999)

with in classroom settings by being in charge of the greatest amount of communication in class. On the other hand, excessive lecturer talk can basically be the reason of students' lack of enthusiasm and interest as many of them remain passive and feel to some extent inhibited when all the lectures do not integrate literature teaching activities. Probably, lack of sufficient time for preparation can lead teachers to fill the class time with improvised talk concerning the foreign literature module. No matter what the cause is, learners will be offered a minor amount of talk within the classroom. That is to say, too much teacher talk hampers the appearance of constant learner talk.

## 10. Conclusion

The intention behind the paper is to introduce those interested in the analysis of verbal interaction to relevant research in a variety of fields. Drawing on Halliday's classic article 'Categories of the theory of grammar', S/C have developed a system of analysis for the description of the language used by teachers and pupils and proposed five ranks to handle the structure of classroom interaction. Their model for classroom interaction was built upon a hierarchy with smaller units of interaction extending from the largest - lesson- through smaller units in turn - transactions, exchanges, moves, to the smallest: act respectively. They found repeated patterns of interaction between teachers and students who were both represented and strengthened by lots of factors, including: the setting, the institutional roles, students; the goals. These structural features were repeated in frequent organization recurred in knowable contexts and sequences. For instance, the teacher sequence 'teacher—question' -----'pupil –answer' ----- 'teacher—feedback' was common. This model knew a rapid expansion as it became used by those interested in analysing L2 classrooms

We have also seen in this paper that discourse analysis a vast subject area within linguistics; can help researchers in the analysis of spoken language. Thanks to numerous language philosophers (Halliday, 1961; Chomsky, 1965; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Widdowson, 1971 among others) who believed that understanding language might shed light on the type of truth it has been possible via Speech Act Theory to describe how language can be used to describe things. In other words, by analysing language into small units, which are organised into larger and larger units, based on forms, functions, and content, it will be possible to focus on the act of saying the phrase so that significant meaning can be obtained (speech-act theory). For example, "a speaker of a sentence conveys a proposition and at the same time performs an illocutionary act (e.g., warning), which has a perlocutionary effect on

the hearer (e.g. being alarmed).[1] In other words, this paper focuses on language as discourse rather than language as sentences.

In all, we have just looked at some ways of analysing speech and some aspects related to teacher talk we have chosen to highlight. In fact, much work remains to be done and most educational questions still remain to be answered. Discourse analysis has become well-known in language teaching in recent years because teachers are aware of the necessity to focus on specific concern in their professional practice.[2]

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جامعــة الـجيلالي الـيابس

سـيدي بلعبــاس

كلية الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية

قسم: الإنجليزية



استمارة معلومات « An Attitude Questionnaire »

– موجهة لطلبة السنة الثانية/ الثالثة إنجليزية–

السنة الجامعية:        ، الفوج:        ، الجنس:

ضع العلامة X في المكان المناسب:

I-   مستوى الطالب ورصيده:

–   هل استفدت من دراسة الأدب العربي في الثانوية:

نعم ☐ ،      لا ☐، قليل ☐

-        هل كنت ترغب وتهتم بـ:

النص ☐،      القصة ☐،      المقالة ☐،      الشعر ☐،      الأقوال

والحكم ☐

–   كيف تقيّم برنامج الأدب العربي في الثانوية:

مناسب ☐،      غير مناسب ☐

- هل يشابه الأدب العربي الأدب الأجنبي [AM-Brit lit]:

نعم □، لا □

- هل تفهم (Brit-Am) Lit بنسبة:

75% □، 60% □، 50% □، 25% □، 10% □

- هل ترجع أسباب عدم فهمك لـ:

أ- ضعف مستواك □، فهم الألفاظ □، الأسلوب □

ب- نقص المطالعة □

جـ- عدم التحضير المسبق للدروس

د- كراهية دراسة الأدب الأجنبي (Brit-Am/lit)

II- البرنامج والمنهجية:

- منهجية الأستاذ في عرض الدرس:

أ- غياب وسائل الإيضاح □: السبورة □، الصورة □،

المجلة □، الفيديو □.

ب- خلو الدرس من المقدمات (المدخل) □

جـ- طريقة نُطق الأستاذ □

د- طريقة عرض الأستاذ للدرس:

1- المناقشة مع الطلبة □، 2- الإملاء □

3- إعطاء نسخة من الدرس □، 4- مجرد إلقاء □

- برنامج (Brit-Am) Lit هل هو:

مناسب □، غير مناسب □

- هل فهمت قس هذه السنة

Colonialism □، لاشيء □،

Romanticism □، Puritanism □

- حصص (Brit-Am) Lit في الأسبوع:

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كافية ☐، غير كافية ☐

- المراجع الخاصة بالبرنامج:

متوفرة ☐، غير متوفرة ☐، قليلة ☐

- تقييمك لدراسة (Brit-Am) Lit:

مهم ☐،     هادف ☐،     بعيد عن واقعنا ☐،     يزيد في

رصيدنا الأدبي ☐

غير مهم ☐،     مهمل ☐،     مصادم لثقافتنا ☐

- ماذا تفضل في دراسة (Brit-Am) Lit:

Poems ☐ ، Text study ☐ ، Plays ☐ ، Novels ☐ ، Short stories ☐

<u>اقتراحاتك:</u>

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"Thank you"

**Appendix 2**

Table 3: Cross-sectional Observation Grid (CSOG)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | COMMENTS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. TEACHER'S PROFILE | | | | | | | |
| 1. Presence & style | | | | | | | |
| 2. Voice | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gestures | | | | | | | |
| 4. Amount of talking | | | | | | | |
| 5. Instructions | | | | | | | |
| 6. Improvising | | | | | | | |
| 7. Linguistic competence | | | | | | | |
| 8. Pronunciation | | | | | | | |
| 9. Mastery of the topic | | | | | | | |
| 10. Praising | | | | | | | |
| 11. Sociability | | | | | | | |
| 12. Teacher placement | | | | | | | |
| 13. Achievement of aims | | | | | | | |
| 14. Use of Arabic | | | | | | | |
| 15. Use of French | | | | | | | |
| 16. Use of blackboard | | | | | | | |
| B. PEDAGOGICOL MATERIAL | | | | | | | |
| 17. Objectives of the lecture | | | | | | | |
| 18. Variety of activities/tasks | | | | | | | |
| 19. Steps of the lecture | | | | | | | |
| 20. Learner's needs | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21. Use of aids | | | | | | |
| C. TYPE OF TEACHING | | | | | | |
| 22. Co-operative | | | | | | |
| 23. Directive | | | | | | |
| 24. Alternative | | | | | | |
| 25. Non-directive/laxist | | | | | | |
| 26. Teacher-centred | | | | | | |
| 27. Learner-centred | | | | | | |
| D. LEARNER GROUPING | | | | | | |
| 28. Individual work | | | | | | |
| 29. Pair work | | | | | | |
| 30. Group work | | | | | | |
| 31. Whole class | | | | | | |
| E. LEARNER PROFILE | | | | | | |
| 32. Enthusiastic/interested | | | | | | |
| 33. Inhibited/passive | | | | | | |
| 34. Disruptive | | | | | | |

**Appendix: 3**

Table 3:: Division of work in "Eveline"

(Teacher E)

| TIME | STEPS | ACTIVITIES USED | OBSERVATIONS | CA | GA | IA | AMOUNT OF TIME |
|------|-------|-----------------|--------------|----|----|----|----------------|
| 08:06 | 1 | -T greets sts… -Elicitation phase T show the front cover book of "Dubliners" | -Noisy atmosphere!!! ome sts try to are by giving short scriptions | CA | | | 4 mns |
| 08:12 | 2 | -T introduces main chararacters of "Dubliners" as well as gives explanations about structure & style of the novel | -T writes bibliography & names of on the main characters on bb -T asks questions about author's life, family, etc. -T writes new vocab on bb Sts are strangely silent!!! | CA | | | 3 mns |
| 08:30 | 3 | -T explains the structure of the short story | -T draws diagram to explain what is meant by a structure of a short story -Sts are silent; T talks a lot + dictates briefly! | CA | | | 12 mns |
| 08:44 | 4 | -T tells sts to open their books on page 39. Before reading loudly the introductory paragraph, | -T writes key words on bb -Sts are silent + take note -An important number of sts don't have books! | CA | | I | 19 mns |

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| | | he gives an idea about the number of pages of the short story to be dealt with, -Elicitation phase: T asks a general question about passage read then explains | -Sts' reactions are relatively interesting as they show real interested in the story | | | A | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 08: 59 | 5 | -T reads the passage again then asks specific questions abut the same passage. | -T's way of reading loudly attracks sts; sts are hooked! | C A | | | 09 mns |
| 09: 08 | 6 | -T moves to the second paragraph on the same page then explains the difference between Dublin today and in the past. | -T writes new expressions on bb -T, by drawing a table on bb, focuses on Joyce's purpose which is placing characters in these specific settings; from time he intervenes to answer sts' questions. The other sts seem to interested in the lecture. | C A | | | 08 mns |
| 09:1 6 | 7 | -T moves to page 38 then explains vocab, through mixed question questions: | -T writes some words/expressio ns on bb; both Arabic & French are sometimes used!!! -Some sts begin | C A | | | 13 mns |

| | | yes-no & wh questions. | to speak!!! Time is over!!! -A few sts approach the T to ask him questions about the lecture. | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 09: 29 | 8 | -T greets sts & tells them to read by taking notes the same short story for next lecture. | -Noisy atmosphere!!! | C A | | | 1 mn |