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**Discourse Studies in Enhancing Foreign Language Learners'
Communicative Competence**

The Case of Second Year English Students at Biskra University

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree in Sciences of the
Language**

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to

My source of inspiration and hope, my dearest **mother** whose constant belief in my capacities brought me back to the university confines after a break of ten years.

My dear **father** who has always been at disposal whenever I needed, and without whom my life is worthless.

My **brother and his wife** for the help and support they provided me with.

My **father and mother in law** for their precious piece of advice, endless love and encouragement.

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Abstract

The achievement of an acceptable level in terms of communication is a prerequisite for any language learner. The current study aims at investigating the role of discourse studies in enhancing EFL learners' communicative competence from a pedagogic-practical perspective. In addition to the teacher's role and syllabus to enable students use the language in an intercultural communication. To realize the sought objectives at hand, a descriptive qualitative method through triangulation was pursued. The latter encompassed three data collection tools: a students' questionnaire, teachers' interview and a classroom observation taking the case of second year students at Biskra University with a sample of 116 out of the whole population. All of which are used to ensure the validity of the research and not only to cross validate data, but also to capture the importance of discourse studies on various dimensions. The obtained results reveal that despite EFL students' acceptable proficiency in linguistic terms, they remain communicatively not competent enough. With further attempts put forward by teachers to implement a speech act theory for their learners, this nevertheless remains considerably not sufficient due to many constraints. Lastly, a number of recommendations are put forward to enable students reach a proficient level in terms of target language competence.

Keywords: discourse studies, communicative competence, speech act theory

List of Abbreviations

CA: Conversation Analysis

CD: Classroom Discourse

CDA: Classroom Discourse Analysis

CI: Classroom Interaction

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DA: Discourse Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

UMK Biskra: University Mohamed Khider of Biskra

IS: Interactional Sociolinguistics

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

L1: Mother tongue

L2: Second Language

OE: Oral Expression

Q: Question

SAT: Speech Act Theory

T: Teacher

TL: Target Language

VA: Variation Analysis

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General Introduction

Introduction

Enhancing communicative competence is a preliminary task and a promising end of English language teaching with regard to EFL learners, which aims at enabling them to communicate successfully in real life situations. In fact, learners would formulate a habit that enables them to produce and generate speech acts that are equated as contextually relevant and appropriate to the target speech community.

The main focus, put forward by English teachers, is the linguistic competence, which would enable EFL learners to reach a certain level in order to communicate effectively in the foreign language. However, this has proven to be unsatisfactory so as to put the learners beyond the limitations of grammar, vocabulary and all those linguistic functions. In fact, teaching language in isolation regardless to its contextual use renders the EFL learners unable to face the challenge of recognizing and assigning utterances their appropriate functions where necessary.

In addition, it has been asserted by many scholars that communicative competence, a well known concept by Dell Hymes (1972) is inevitably associated with the four areas of competencies: linguistic, socio-cultural, strategic and discourse namely centered on the sole and mere goal of promoting communication and language use particularly in the realm of pedagogy. In fact, this reflects the essence of language from a variety of dimensions through the production of correct and appropriate speech acts which best fit both the current speech event and situation an EFL learner is confronted with.

The above idea was further expanded by the integration of many language approaches, theories and methods that emphasized a need for communicative effectiveness over accuracy. For instance, a discourse analysis-oriented approach would grant a challenging and motivating environment for EFL learners if only teachers implement discourse analysis theoretical perspectives in their own classroom practices. Therefore, they would incite them to express themselves not only within the classroom but also outside its boundaries to adapt a more native-like language behavior. In fact, the EFL learners are under the supervision and guidance of their teachers who would ensure the creation and the delivery of such kinds of communicatively appropriate messages. To put it another way, to communicate in the foreign language, then means that the EFL learners can carry out various functions that they have acquired thanks to the practical applications put forward by discourse analysis studies.

1. Statement of the problem

Acquiring communicative competence in English for many foreign language learners is a far reaching objective. Therefore, they equate their capacity of speaking a language to that of knowing it. Therefore, foreign language proficiency consists of learning the language and how to use it as a communicative tool.

The current research investigates the communicative competence of EFL learners at MKU, in Biskra. The issue of this research lies in the communicative competence challenges that face these learners in the manipulation of the forms, functions and contexts of the foreign language. In other words, this study is simply a trial to confront the problem of many EFL learners to communicate both fluently and accurately in English.

Therefore, the determination of the category of these learners' competence will depend on describing not only their linguistic behavior in terms of the structural forms but also the functions and contexts of their utterances' use. Additionally, a thorough inquiry will present a more inclusive picture of learners' competence and determine the variety of approaches upon which communicative competence will be conducted and achieved.

As a result, the present study tries to focus on importance generated when integrating a speech act approach within the context of discourse analysis. This focuses on the relationship which unites the linguistic forms with the current speech events or situations in which the talk is occurring. As a learner, one has to build an awareness of the intricate relationship between the three levels and the various ways in which they interact i.e. to establish connection between the grammatical forms and language functions in specific contexts. Undoubtedly, the outcomes of discourse analysis have to be put into application in order to overcome the psycho-pedagogic issues that may hinder learners to become communicatively competent in EFL contexts.

2. Significance of study

The stimulus behind investigating the role and utility of implementing discourse analysis, in enhancing EFL students' communicative competence, is derived from the hurdles faced by learners at a very advanced tertiary level to use the language both appropriately and effectively.

Teachers tend to focus on accuracy over fluency. Their duty is to prevent learners from committing mistakes in the different levels of language. This is due to their inability to

understand that language, in its essence, is nothing than a series of acts of communication. (Palmer and Redman, 1932)

Therefore, the investigation aims at improving the teaching practices and strategies that are experienced at an advanced level by the implementation of discourse analysis courses and speech act theories. Indeed, elements should be enhanced in the context of EFL learners of MKU Biskra to improve on their communicative competence.

Another purpose of this study is to investigate the communicative competence of the selected EFL learners by describing the forms and functions of their English utterances. Furthermore, this research work aims at analyzing whether or not EFL learners are thoroughly concerned with the process of acquiring English vis-à-vis their main objective in achieving real life communications.

One last reason behind our interest in this topic is to highlight the significant role that both practices introduced by discourse studies and a speech act theory play in EFL teaching and learning.

3. Research Questions

The study aims to answer the following questions:

- How can the use of a communicative syllabus contribute in developing communicative competence of EFL learners?
- What is the teacher's role and requirements in the application of his task (in terms of motivating students, the use of various materials along with effective teaching strategies) to provide an effective acquisition of communicative competence?
- How can the atmosphere in the classroom situation be in adequacy with the atmosphere in real life conditions of the foreign language speech community?

4. Hypotheses

On the basis of our research questions, we suggest the following hypotheses:

- If learners are only linguistically competent, they would still fail to make an appropriate use of the foreign language in their communications.
- If EFL teachers introduce speech act theory in the classroom and deliver relevant communicative knowledge, this would help students become capable of performing appropriate speech acts through an intercultural communication.

5. Objectives of study

The aims of this study are:

- To ascertain the utility of discourse analysis in making EFL students able to display an awareness and / or mastery of EFL discourse conventions, which require understanding of language as discourse in the educational programmes.
- To examine the manners in which the prospect of EFL students as well as teaching shifted from focusing only on linguistic competence to communicative competence in order to acquire general overall language proficiency.
- To provide insights into how the main effective methodology/methods would bring into the classroom situation an atmosphere of real life communication in the foreign speech community.

6. Research Methodology

To meet the research objectives, a descriptive qualitative approach will be implemented to gather and explain the results that would be gained in various stages of discourse analysis and a speech act theory programme. This can be achieved through the use of the following instruments: a semi structured questionnaire to students, an interview with the teachers and a non participant classroom observation to investigate the ways in which EFL learners' communicative competence can be enhanced.

The study will be conducted at MKU Biskra (Algeria). Therefore, the sample is composed of 116 second year students as they are enrolled thoroughly in terms of exposure to English as a foreign language. They are randomly chosen and the data obtained thanks to their cooperation is illustrated in terms of tabulations and graphs.

7. Limitations of the study

Any researcher is conscious about the various hurdles that may hamper in any manner thus affect the learners' development of their communicative competence. Limitations may come to surface and affect the result of our study. We can mention some:

- The evaluative study is limited to communicative competence.
- The references in relation to the second variable were considerably unavailable at the local Library.

- The sample of the study is limited to two groups of second year at the English division.
- The written aspect was not dealt with due to the time limitations.

8. Literature Review

The following overview sheds light on the importance and relevance of our research work from a theoretical perspective and through the lens of the most prominent scholars who credited both variables discourse analysis and communicative competence to be amongst the most interesting elements that have revolutionized the language teaching and learning processes.

Schiffrin, Tannen & Hamilton (2001) asserted that discourse analysis has grown up and become fruitful either from a theoretical or a functional paradigm. The fact of having its first roots in linguistic, anthropology and philosophy then extended to embrace a variety of disciplines such as social psychology and communication for instance. From a variety of perspectives, discourse is defined as the study of language beyond the limitations of the sentence or particularly the study of language in use. In brief, “[discourse] further refers to a broad conglomeration of linguistic and non linguistic social practices and ideological assumptions” (p.1).

From an educational perspective, Adger (2001) argued that the pedagogic interest of DA can be classified into two mainstream categories. The first is revealing the various manners in which talk on the level of educational institutions is distinct and calls for the obligation of being linguistically performing in order to achieve academically well in such a context. The second one is to spotlight social relations and ‘socialization functions’ among learners and its effectiveness in bringing the teaching process to a realm of a realization when students fulfill their goals in using the language.

Additionally, she added that discourse analysis in terms of classroom interaction discern pedagogic failure when both cultures of L1 and L2 are different and therefore seizing the need to assimilating non verbal communication. The latter may reduce the gap between students when communicating.

From a language teaching perspective and with the aim to grant language learners mastery and full manipulation of the target language, Hatch (1992) referred to DA and CC as broad terms where one is a means and the other is an end respectively. On one hand, discourse

analysis when systematically described enables language teachers to unveil the clumsiness over a variety of communication systems such as conversations and speech events that grant discourse an aspect of coherence and clarity. On the other, the relation that bonds DA and communicative competence lies in the choices and abilities on behalf of learners to manipulate such systems through the selection of more appropriate forms that fulfill the goals or 'ritual constraints' of communication.

In Hatch's words, "communicative competence is the ability to create a coherent text that is appropriate for a given situation within a social setting. Discourse analysis is a description of the many sub-systems that promote coherence and the social constraints that operate on those sub-systems" (p.318).

In addition, she argued that DA and communicative competence are interrelated entities that link both items covered in DA (i.e. subsystems) with the inner competencies that formulate communicative competence. Therefore, any language teaching syllabus or curriculum should cover in depth the different subsystems comprised within DA (speech acts, turn taking in conversations... etc) otherwise, it will be considered limited.

McCarthy and Carter (1994) argued that "the notion of competence was expanded to embrace what a speaker needs to know about how a language is used in particular situations for effective and appropriate communication, in other words communicative competence" (p.172). They emphasized the importance of communicative competence in relation to language teaching and this is in terms of the communicative abilities any language learner is supposed to endorse or perform by the end of the learning unit or the academic year.

Early interest in achieving such a competence was implemented in the range of classical communicative syllabuses such as 'the Malaysian (1976) communicative syllabus for forms 4 and of secondary school'. The latter had a misbalance in terms of focus on communication over grammar and vocabulary/lexis correctness i.e. emphasis on communicative competence over linguistic competence. Such syllabuses led applied linguists to question the notion of competence itself on the basis of whether it is a monolithic concept or not. However, they came to a conclusion that communicative competence is an empty component without linguistic knowledge of grammar, lexis and vocabulary. The latter is considered as a prime condition to foster and build its relevance with the proportional/eclectic syllabus where both knowledge and skills were in favor of the learners' needs and interest when acquiring the language.

McCarthy (1991) emphasized the usefulness and utility in language teaching in creating a comprehensive language matter to be presented to the learners and hence incorporate all the elements necessary to improve one's language overall proficiency. For instance, he pointed out the implication of grammar, lexis and phonology in language teaching from a discourse-oriented teaching.

➤ **Grammar**

Without a command of the rich and variable resources of the grammar offered by a language such as English, the construction of natural and sophisticated discourse is impossible... We begin by looking at grammatical cohesion, the surface marking of semantic links between clauses and sentences in written discourse, and between utterances and turns in speech. (p.34)

➤ **Vocabulary**

Bringing a discourse dimension into language teaching does not by any means imply an abandonment of teaching vocabulary... the vocabulary lesson (or part of a lesson) will still have a place in a discourse-oriented syllabus; the challenge is to bring the discourse dimension into vocabulary teaching alongside traditional and recent, more communicative approaches... Vocabulary should, wherever possible, be taught in context, but context is a rather catch-all term and what we need to do at this point is to look at some of the specific relationships between vocabulary choice, *context* (in the sense of the situation in which the discourse is produced) and *co-text* (the actual text surrounding any given lexical item). (p.64)

➤ **Phonology**

The most exciting developments in the analysis of discourse have been in intonation studies rather than at the segmental level (the study of phonemes and their articulation) and partly because intonation teaching, where it has taken place, has proceeded on the basis of assumptions that are open to challenge from a discourse analyst's viewpoint. (p.88)

McCarthy and Carter (1994) argued that the application of such a syllabus is the teacher's role and responsibility. Therefore, a balance among the communicative competence subdivisions and those put forward by DA need to be met. In other words, sociolinguistic and strategic competences need to be implemented within the component of discourse. For instance, speech acts when taught in isolation, they remain insufficient to enable learners to manage their incorporation in larger chunks of language. As a result, functions of speech acts are fully an integral part of discourse patterns, genres, and many other features such as coherence and cohesion.

In the same line of thought, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) stressed the importance drawn to communicative competence by Dell Hymes throughout the sum of socio-cultural rules that accompany linguistic competence which enable EFL learners acquire socio-culturally

appropriate language use. The sum of knowledge reflected through the linguistic structures grant EFL learners to be aware of native speakers' preferences in terms of language appropriacy. Therefore, SAT is the most efficient teaching theory that presents material perspective of the TL. In other words, it renders EFL learners become familiar with the use of speech acts according to the situation and deciding which linguistic formula goes with such an appropriate choice in the first place.

Speech act theory as Dubin and Olshtain (1986) described "deals with the description of the functions and uses of language, or the acts we perform through speech, thereby providing... the rules which enable speakers to choose potential linguistic forms which carry illocutionary intent" (p.93).

Paltridge (2006) explicated the nature that links communicative competence with a DA. The first argued that communicative competence, theoretically speaking, is one important goal for the language teaching and learning process. Moreover, it works within the confines of DA. He asserted that:

Communicative competence involves not only knowing what is grammatically correct and what is not, but also when and where to use language appropriately and with whom. It includes knowledge of rules of speaking. As well as knowing how to use and respond to different speech acts: that is how, for example, to apologize or make a request, in a particular language or culture. (p.6)

The latter is inherently incorporated with the sub-components of communicative competence i.e. "taking account of the social and cultural setting in which the speaking or writing occurs, speakers' and writers' relationships with each other, and the community's norms, values and expectations for the kind of interaction, or speech event" (p.6). As further explained by Paltridge, the situation/place, the relationship among interactants, nature of interaction and the cultural context are all elements that should be taken into consideration and reflected from a linguistic paradigm in terms of discourse structures, vocabulary, grammar, politeness strategies along with body movements.

Paulston (1992) argued that communicative competence has greatly affected EFL language teaching and this was reflected through the emergence of the communicative approach to language teaching. This, in turn, emphasized rather a focus on language use where linguistic competence is an implicit part of communicative competence and also the teaching units become rather based on speech acts formulation in a multiple variety of speech events/situations. In addition, SAT is remarkably considered useful to language teaching

where an understanding of socio-cultural rules that over the FL are needed to adjust both the nature of instructional material, learning procedure and learners' awareness to raise their proficiency.

Olshtain & Celce-Murcia (2001) argued that fulfilling a communicative language teaching approach where language teaching is based on a DA theory needs the collaboration of major elements: 1) teachers' role and responsibilities in terms of discourse and culture awareness through course planning, content organization, linguistic and pragmatic information that enable students understand better particular interactional communicative exchanges. 2) Syllabus or curriculum with an implementation on context, text types and communicative goals. 3) Teaching material and evaluations instruments, which lead to taking contextual features into consideration such as the linguistic and sociolinguistic learners' backgrounds. In addition to text types which should be in harmony with real-life situations' needs and give a clearer overview on the practices that occur within the classroom environment. Taken such elements into consideration ensures a better understanding of the process of FL teaching and learning and the enhancement of classroom interaction.

9. Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation at hand is divided into three major parts. The first part entitled general introduction comprises the most important elements that formulate the framework of the current research: a brief introduction, statement of the problem, aims of the study, research questions, hypotheses and methodology. In addition to the literature review used to value the research investigation from a scholarly perspective.

The two forthcoming chapters constitute the theoretical part. The first chapter is subdivided in two parts. The first part deals with the concept of communication in terms of definition, components, types, characteristics, models and strategies. The second part is devoted to communicative competence, its definition and relation to communicative language teaching from a pedagogical perspective. The latter embraces a brief historical overview, definition, principles and goals in relation to methodology, roles, physical setting and instructional material. Lastly, the relevance between discourse analysis and communicative competence is displayed through the SAT and its practical application in EFL contexts.

The second chapter is made of two parts as well. The first part deals with discourse analysis, its definitions, approaches and their communicative features. Then, a brief overview on discourse, its typology along with their distinctive features and differences is presented.

Concerning the second part, it deals with classroom discourse analysis in terms of definition, features and advantages. Then, it displays its relation with classroom interaction in terms of difference and authenticity of the used language. Lastly, it presents the practical implications of discourse analysis in FL teaching in terms of the sum of tools that would bring about a relevant teaching theory for EFL learners.

Lastly, the field work is displayed in chapter three which includes the collection of data in terms of description and administering along with the analysis devoted to each devised instrument. Furthermore, the set of findings inferred followed with a list of general recommendations at the end of this chapter.

Chapter One

Introduction

The needs and requirements of real life teaching, especially in foreign language and the changes of its concerns have altered the ways in which learners communicate. This is due to the increasing emphasis placed on communication abilities rather than mere exposure and mastery of the linguistic code of the foreign language.

The following chapter provides a thorough overview of two basic concepts which are closely interwoven: communication and competence in an EFL teaching context. Both of them are encompassed under the umbrella of communicative competence. This, in turn, is the ultimate goal of foreign language learners for an effective real life interaction in the target language.

Concerning the first concept, a set of definitions will be provided from various conceptualizations and views that tried to present communication as an efficient process. Then, a comprehensive discussion about its components, types, effective traits and models will reveal the importance of such a phenomenon in the lives of humans with regards to its complexity and different forms under practical applications. In addition to the above points, communication strategies and their multiple sub-strategies will be further dealt with.

The second part of this chapter will deal with communicative competence. This important notion is the goal of a more updated approach of foreign language teaching where the main focus should not solely be on grammar and vocabulary but also on providing learners with effective communication skills. Within this respect, a comprehensive definition of communicative competence will be provided. Then, a brief historical account from a British and an American world will be displayed. Afterwards, the foundations of communicative competence with regards to its goals set forth under the framework of the communicative foreign language teaching approach will be tackled from eight important points. First, its definition, principles and characteristics in hope to precast light on its essence of practice inside the classroom and bringing about its main goals under focus. Then, a brief description of the practical implications in terms of syllabus and methodology will follow. The latter implies the major functional and notional activities along with the teachers and learners' roles and the sum of used material. All of which are used to assess the learners'

performance under the light of reaching more communicative outcomes when using the target language effectively.

Finally, an attribute of relevance between communicative competence and discourse analysis in terms of speech acts will be projected. This comprises respectively definitions, origins, components and classifications along with its current status in EFL teaching and its interrelatedness to intercultural communication to raise EFL learners' oral proficiency.

Part One

1. The Concept of Communication

1.1 Definition of Communication

Communication is a complex phenomenon which comprises a long range of processes that would enable one to unveil the ambiguity about the multifaceted side of the human life. Throughout the decades, several scholars came up with various and multiple definitions to delimit its scope. Still, this was quite challenging due to the new advances in sciences, new ideas and concepts that came into application. As a result, a need for a change in perspective would be the cause to such diversity wherein scholars approached communication.

In a survey of the literature on communication, Dance and Larson (as cited in Steinberg, 2007) found that “there were 126 definitions, and since then even more definitions have been formulated” (p.39). Etymologically speaking, communication originated from a latin expression ‘**communicatio**’ meaning the action of sharing things. Rimondini (2011) revealed that the concept itself comprises reciprocity or mutuality which is said to fall in the original meaning of the word and its connotations. This idea is reflected in Merriam-Webster dictionary’s definition “a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs or behavior. i.e. information exchange via words, sounds or nonverbal behavior”.

Communication can be viewed from many angles such as cognitive psychology, linguistics, sociology and many other fields in which the fact of exchanging communicative messages is within its prime scope of study. From a linguistic point of view, Lindblom (as cited in Hauser, 1996) stated that

Human communication... includes forms of verbal communication such as speech, written language and sign language. It comprises nonverbal modes that do not invoke language proper. But that nevertheless constitute extremely important aspects of how we communicate. As we interact, we make various gestures-some vocal and audible, others nonvocal like patterns of eye contact and movements of the face and the body. Whether intentional or not, these behaviors carry a great deal of communicative significance. (p.7)

Lindblom (as cited in Hauser, 1996) highlighted namely the non verbal aspect of communication in addition to spoken and written language forms. This was described by the scholars as having a crucial role in human communication including body language, gestures, eye contact and face movements which convey a various set of meaningful messages.

From another perspective, Dance (as cited in LittleJohn, Foss & Oetzel 2017) claimed that the concept of communication can be distinguished on the basis of three dimensions of abstractness, intentionality and normative judgment such as accuracy, effectiveness or whatsoever. As far as the first dimension is concerned, some views and definitions may be either broad or restricted. The broad ones embrace the whole elements of the system that unite humans with one another whereas the narrow ones indicate that information and knowledge is being exchanged thanks to such a process.

Concerning the second dimension, Miller (as cited in Dainton and Zelle, 2015) defined communication as “those situations in which a source transmits a message to a receiver with conscious intent to affect the latter’s behavior” (p.3). In other words, the speaker when transmitting a message, a pre-planned intent is being implemented so as to create a specific effect on the hearer. Similarly, many scholars agreed on such a view and gave their interpretations differently. For instance, Newcomb (as cited in Schement & Rubin, 1993) defined communication being an act “viewed as a transmission of information, consisting of a discriminative stimulus, from a source to a recipient” (pp.26-27).

Amongst the most significant definitions of communication is that of Anderson (as cited in Schement & Rubin, 1993) “Communication is the process by which we understand others and in turn endeavor to be understood by them. It is dynamic, constantly changing and shifting in response to the total situation” (p.24). He summarized all the preceding views highlighting the trait of dynamism that qualifies communication a sense of constant change to suit any kind of situation.

The last dimension is judgmental as being attributed a trait of success, effectiveness or accuracy. For instance, Hoben (as cited in Wang, 2017) defined “communication as the verbal interchange of a thought or idea” (p.301). The latter emphasized the fact of success in terms of transmission of ideas through communicative exchanges among individuals. However, non judgmental definitions can be demonstrated through Berelson and Steiner (as cited in Schement & Rubin, 1993) who clearly defined communication as “the transmission of information, ideas, emotions, skills...etc. by the use of symbols-words, pictures, figures, graphs ,etc. It is the act or process of transmission that is usually called communication” (p.11).

In brief, Narula (2006) argued that even with the complex nature of communication, all of its suggested definitions agreed on a set of unified ideas where communication is viewed as a process of ideas transmission from one person to another in relation to feelings and behaviors. Moreover, the fact of being persuasive in nature, communication’s ultimate goal is to receive a positive feedback to its transmitted message. Lastly, communication is a multiway process that goes in two directions among participants.

The phenomenon of communication, discussed in the following chapter is purely associated with humans i.e. ‘human communication’. Therefore, it is completely distinct and shares specific features described by Rosengren (2000). The latter drew attention to such a difference saying that human communication should include specific elements that narrow its sense and scope of interest:

- Interaction, which is of both mutual influence.
- Inter-subjective (i.e mutually conscious), and purposive.
- Carried by a system of signs.
- Based on a system of verbal symbols.
- Based on a fully developed system of phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

1.2 Components of Communication

The elements of communication are by no means complementary constituents of the whole process. Steinberg (2007) explained further the role played by such components as they happen interdependently and harmoniously when communication takes place. In the same discussion, Steinberg (2007) compared the communication components and the whole process

to the human body system where all its parts work altogether to maintain the mechanisms' flow in a natural and regular manner.

(Verderber 1990; Hybels&Weave, 1995; Barker & Gault 1996 and Verderber & Verderber, 2000 as cited in Steinberg, 2007) briefly presented the components of communication which are not mutually exclusive yet interwoven.

- People
- Message
- Medium and channel
- Noise
- Feedback
- Context/setting
- Effect

1.2.1 People

They are labelled differently depending on the scholar and the year of study. Steinberg (2007) called them 'communicator' and 'recipient' instead of 'message source' and 'message receiver' where both exchange roles. However, they refer to one similar idea which is humans' taking part in the communication process where one is the sender and the other is the receiver. In other words, each one is naturally assigned a specific task wherein the sender used words while interacting are utilised to incite the receiver to decode the targeted message in a comprehensible manner through a shared medium of communication (verbal/nonverbal).

In her discussion of the first element in the communication process, Steinberg (2007) asserted that a communicator needs to set any intentional purpose in advance and afterwards use whatsoever linguistic or non-linguistic tool to get the message through. Nevertheless, the recipient, being an active agent, is by no means contributing via understanding and interpreting the message. In brief, the final output is a matter of exchange and application where both participants take part interchangeably.

1.2.2 Message

It is the sum of thoughts and ideas which constitute the content to be transmitted in the act of communication whether written or spoken. This is achieved using specific medium of signs and linguistic codes where the meaning can be either covert or overt.

Verderber, Verderber, & Sellnow (2017) highlighted the terms of message production along with message interpretation which indicate how to produce an effective and adaptive

script and expect an effective interpretation of the message to render a comprehensive feedback. Additionally, Burgoon (as cited in Verderber, Verderber, & Sellnow, 2017) highlighted this idea as the result of an interaction coordination which leads to enable the creation of shared meaning in terms of behaviour adjustment among interactants.

1.2.3 Channel /Medium

It represents the main stream thanks to which a message is transmitted between the interlocutors. Steinberg (1995) presented the medium as the physical means and the channel as the message travelling route. Furthermore, she illustrated such means saying that the medium can be confined into the mass communication medium such as books, T.V., newspapers and means alike. The channel can be the waves which are transmitted thanks to such means or, one's voice along with the five sensory channels.

Verderber, Verderber, & Sellnow (2017) developed further the notion of channels which functions according to the current time requirements, one's purpose, the receiver and situation. All of these elements take into account both media richness and synchronism. These can be refined into how much and what kind of information can be transmitted via a particular channel and the extent to which this one allows for immediate feedback through emoticons, acronyms or visual symbols.

1.2.4 Noise

It is also referred to as interference by many scholars. Griffin and Bone (2017) defined it as "things that interfere with the transmission and reception of a message" (p.10). They also presented three types of noise that hurdle the effective transmission of the message:

- External or outer distractions that exist round human beings.
- Internal in terms of the sum of thoughts and feelings one undergoes.
- Semantic that is reflected through the use of unfamiliar words.

Verderber, Verderber, & Sellnow (2017) pointed out that noise is any physical or psychological disturbances that interfere with achieving shared meanings. These can be either internal or external disturbances such as notifications and sounds or feelings and thoughts respectively. All of which disrupt attention from the actual message.

1.2.5 Feedback

It is the final goal and objective of the communicative process where the sender's message reaches the recipient due to a mutual understanding of the intended meaning. Steinberg (2007) summarised the importance of feedback in three main points:

- It assigns communication a feature of dynamism and interactivity/interaction.
- A means whereby meaning and ideas will be exchanged and negotiated to reach a satisfactory communication.
- It monitors participants' performance (whether to continue/terminate the talk).

1.2.6 Context/Setting

The setting indicates that any message during communication requires the convenient time and place. In her short presentation about context, Steinberg (2007) assumed that "context refers to the environment; the place or conditions in which the communication encounter takes place" (p.50).

Context includes a variety of contexts such as the spatio-temporal and the cultural one which is particularly of a greater importance especially in multicultural countries. Griffin and Bone (2017) referred to the context as the environment or the cultural background where participants interact in a specific location and set of worldviews generated when both are being engaged in communication.

1.2.7 Effects

DeVito (as cited in Bono, Jones, & Heijden, 2008) explained that for each communicative act, there is a specific effect that can be reflected in any of the number of participants. He also summarised such effects under three headings:

- Intellectual/cognitive effects receiving a new set of information in terms of analysing or evaluating.
- Affective factors in relation to a change in attitudes or feelings.
- Psychomotor factors where new bodily movements are incited thanks to the brain such as driving a car.

1.3 Types of Communication

Communication can be manifested under many forms. The most important ones are verbal (auditory), nonverbal (body language), visual (pictures, illustrations) along with formal

and informal communication. A brief introduction to the following forms will be given to brighten their conceptual frameworks where each type can be classified under two basic criteria: communication channels along with purpose and style.

Taking the first criteria into consideration, communication can be either verbal i.e. oral or written and non verbal. As for the second criteria, communication can be formal or informal.

1.3.1 Verbal Communication

It is also known as oral communication. This type of communication includes not only the speaking skill but also the listening one as they both play a complementary role towards a better communication. It is estimated that the listening skill is crucial and effective in communication. Lunenberg and Ornstein (2012) highlighted the efficient role that listening plays in a fruitful successful communication by the interlocutors. These, in turn, should know when and how to listen to each other in order to establish mutual understanding.*

Ralph Nichols (as cited Thompson, Stehly, & Chandler, 1979) reported that the time we spend in “verbal communication is about 10% is given to writing, 15% to reading , 30% to talking and 45 % to listening” (p.7).

The main tool used in such a communication is the linguistic manifestations or simply the language. This latter, plays a multiple role having a different set of functions which can be classified under three categories. Lyons (as cited in Rodriquez, 2000) pointed out that language in verbal communication can be of a descriptive, expressive and social function. Such functions underlie the use of language for specific purposes within a specific context. For instance, the descriptive function is used mainly to depict and describe a situation a person, a place, or whatever element given that the speaker or writer should be knowledgeable about its subject matter.

The expressive function is to use the language tools such as interjections and exclamations in order to reflect one’s inner feelings, piece of mind, thoughts and many other purposes about a specific topic or idea using different language forms. Such as: rhetorical and tag questions.

The last category is the social one, where one can perform a variety of language functions like advising, greeting, requesting and many other functions alike. Generally, to perform all of the above functions, where the sender should use grammatically correct language, have an intention in mind and share mutual knowledge to reach an effective final output which is communication.

1.3.2 Nonverbal Communication

Ting-Toomey (as cited in Guillherme, Glaser & Mendez, 2010) defined nonverbal communication as “the non-linguistic behaviours (or attributes) that are consciously or unconsciously encoded or decoded via multiple communication channels... [These] need to be considered to render a complete account of nonverbal communication” (p.127).

Tortoriello, Blott and Dewine (as cited in Bhardwaj, 2008) referred to nonverbal communication as “the exchange of messages primarily through non linguistic means, including kinesics (body language), facial expressions and eye contact, tactile communication, space and territory, environment, paralanguage and the use of silence and time” (p.323).

Regardless to the above perceptions, nonverbal communication refers to the non linguistic aspect of the language where people use body movements and gestures to express their own thoughts, ideas and communicative intent. Nowadays, nonverbal communication is categorized in different types (babies, animals, deaf, deaf blind, etc). It is presently given a great importance since it constitutes a huge percentage of our daily communications. On one hand, Bhardwaj (2008) revealed that human beings spend 75% of their lives communicating. On the other, the social anthropologist Hall (as cited in Bhardwaj, 2008) claimed that 60% of humans’ communication is nonverbal. In more precise words, Calero (2005) emphasized that research findings revealed that 55% of individuals’ messages are conveyed using the human body whereas 38% of the messages are transmitted through the voice (inflection, intonation, volume) and the remaining 7% is through words.

Calero (2005) endorsed the idea that non verbal communication is vital in understanding the sum of others’ thoughts, needs, feelings and emotions. In other words, it polishes the quality of our lives and opens new windows for better perspectives and insights.

1.3.2.1 Constituents of Nonverbal Communication

According to Bratanic (as cited in Esposito, 2007), the components of nonverbal communication are:

➤ **Kinesics**

It refers to the sum of body knowledge comprising movement, posture, facial expression and many other elements

➤ **Oculesics**

It is sometimes labelled eye contact such as of eye gaze, avoidance and their effect while communicating

➤ **Chronemics**

It is about the effects of time on communication and it is comprised of two sub-categories: monochromic and polychromic.

➤ **Proxemics**

It is the manner in which humans use the space when communicating with each other, in terms of being close or far.

➤ **Haptics**

It is the touching behaviour.

➤ **Olfatics**

It is the sense of smell and olfactory communication.

➤ **Paralinguistics**

It is related to vocal communication in terms of tone of voice, pitch and pronunciation.

Bhardwaj (2008) highlighted the importance of nonverbal communication in relation to three important reasons:

- Presentations skills' refinement
- Confidence building and creativity
- Message contradiction to another one.
- Skills' development
- Message reproduction made verbally by any person
- Message substitution

1.3.3 Visual Communication

The first tool by which man has visualised ideas is through the usage of writing. The latter is the visual manifestation of the spoken word which is the most prevalent means for communication. However, not only words play an important role in communication, visual signs also contribute to the whole process in terms of meaning and ideas reinforcement. It is

estimated that the power of signs can be one of the best alternatives, where words cannot play their own role.

Ball and Byrnes (2004) contradicted the belief made by many people who neglected visual communication and considered it as unimportant. This was thanks to presenting one of its prominent aspects of perception or awareness and leading thereby to the earliest beliefs by the Greek philosophers that objects emit something of themselves to our eyes, which allow us to see them and generate meaning afterwards.

1.3.4 Formal and Informal Communication

These two types of communication go under the umbrella of style, purpose and context wherein communication takes place.

1.3.4.1 Formal Communication

It is also known as official communication. It follows a hierarchical chain of command which is established by the organisation itself. It is exclusive in the workplace and the employees are bound to follow its while performing their duties. (Surbhi, 2015)

It can be under the following forms:

➤ Upward

It is the kind of communication where there is a difference in terms of scale of authority and status, such as from a subordinate to a superior

➤ Downward

The flow of communication occurs between two people with two distinct backgrounds mainly from superior to subordinate.

➤ Horizontal

It is the kind of communication that occurs among two or a group of people with the same social and intellectual status.

➤ Crosswise

Communication happens among two people from different levels or social status and with different backgrounds.

1.3.4.2 Informal Communication

It also referred to as ‘grapevine communication’. Unlike formal communication, it flows in all directions and has no predefined channel. People interact, within such a communication about any subject matter. (Surbhi, 2015). It is divided into four major types:

➤ **Single strand chain**

The message flows from one person to another.

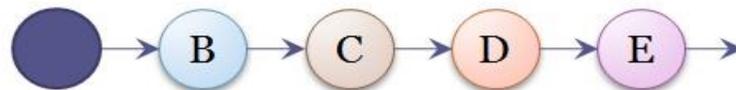


Figure 1. “Single strand chain” (Surbhi, 2015)

➤ **Cluster chain**

The message is transmitted from one person to another group of people with whom they are closely interconnected.

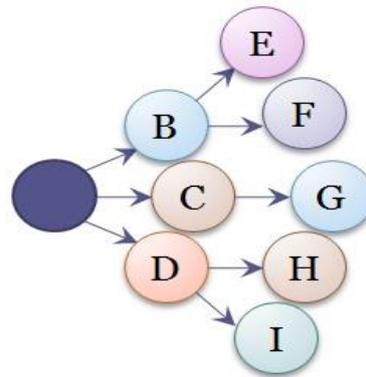


Figure 2. “Cluster chain” (Surbhi, 2015)

➤ **Probability chain**

The message is being transferred depending on its importance.

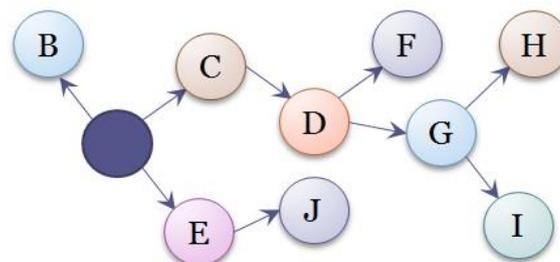


Figure 3. “Porbability chain” (Surbhi, 2015)

➤ **Gossip chain**

It is the process in which the communicative message is being transmitted to a person, and hence transferred to others to become widely spread.

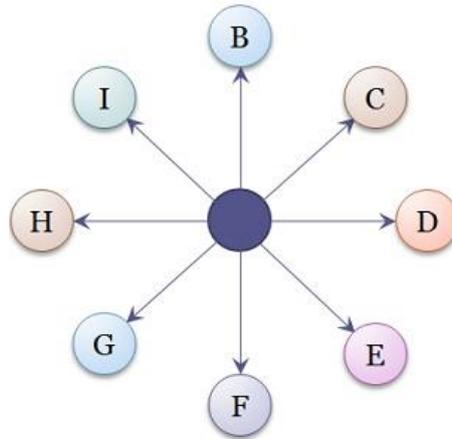


Figure 4. “*Gossip chain*” (Surbhi, 2015)

1.4 Characteristics of an Effective Communication

The effectiveness trait attributed to communication gives it a more valuable status to reach success in message transmission. A great number of research works concluded that most of human beings living hours are dedicated to communication. Individuals should develop efficient communicative skills in order to become skilful in communication specifically more dynamic, competent, effective and elegant communicators.

Effective communication serves a function which can be limitless depending on the context in which one communicates a variety of elements such as the personality of the interlocutors, the nature of relationship between interlocutors and the purpose behind one’s communication. However, Gutierrez-Ang (2009) described five basic functions around which an effective communication is revolving:

- To interact;
- To increase and store information;
- To have better insights towards oneself and the world ;
- To cause changes in people;
- To make decisions.

The effectiveness and appropriateness of any communication act in particular context are labeled “communication competence”. This idea was developed by many scholars. For

instance, Spitzberg (as cited in Verderber, Verderber & Sellnow, 2017) stated that communication can be both appropriate and effective when it fulfils its goals and conforms to the situation where it takes place. Within the same respect, communication competence comprises three main elements summarised under the following points:

- To be motivated i.e. showing willingness to improve in the course of communication to reach the needed goals.
- To be knowledgeable in terms of having the right amount and quality of information to ensure a smooth flow of communicative exchange.
- To be skilful by knowing and practising the needed skill to hold a conversation.

In the same line of thought, Verderber et al (2017) added the criteria of ‘credibility’ and ‘social ease’ which empower a human being to become a good communicator from his own perception about himself (self image) and the world’s perception towards himself as well. In other words, a credible communicator is the one who gains the listeners’ attention and renders them influenced. Social ease means overcoming affective factors to be conceived as competent as possible.

Additionally, Wofford, Gerloff and Cummins (as cited in Rodriques, 1996) emphasized that the efficiency of humans in any organisation depends largely on their ability to communicate effectively. This urges them to use different strategies, channels and means to ensure effective communicative objectives. Similarly, Rodriquez (1996) argued that the lack of communication in terms of needs, thoughts and feelings towards each other results in breakdowns of mutual understanding, cooperation along with a collapse of social relations and organization. He also believed that the key to success in the modern world is due to the effective communication in different areas of human interaction. Therefore, he summarised the effectiveness of this complex process in the following points:

- Clarity of realistic purpose and objectives in terms of thought and expression.
- Conciseness.
- Courtesy (known as politeness).
- Self confidence and conviction
- Time consciousness
- Adaptability and attentiveness.
- Organisation, completeness and correctness of the message.
- Appropriate tone, pitch, quality, force and intensity of voice.
- Adequate knowledge of the communication subject and receiver.

The already mentioned points are the required skills a good communicator should possess in order to build a good rapport and maintain a deep bond through sharing a great deal of trust, respect and backup with other members of the speech community.

1.5 Models of Communication

There are many models of communication. However, due to the limited scope of this research study, only the most effective ones which influence the process of communication will be dealt with in relation to its aims and functioning mechanisms.

Gutierrez-Ang (2009) pointed out that “any communication model provides a holistic picture of what actually happens when one communicates in different circumstances” (p.8). Furthermore, the manner in which people exchange communicative messages will help them develop all the effective styles and techniques of communication. In fact, there are five models of language communication.

1.5.1 A Linear Model

It is a one way process model. It is considered among the first models of communication where a set of elements are working in a harmonious manner to ensure that the whole process of communication conveys its final objective in terms of transferring the right and appropriate message.

1.5.2 A Nonlinear Model

According to Narula (2006), this model is related to cybernetic conventions where information, feedback, networks and purpose formulated its main elements at work to generate and ensure a better communication.

1.5.3 An Interaction Model

Narula (2006) defined the interaction model as one that “focused on interaction and relatedness between the sender and receiver” (p.16). It is a model where feedback is newly introduced to ensure that the message is well transmitted during communication.

1.5.4 A Transaction Model

It is also known as a circular model. It is a reversed model where both the sender and the receiver in the act of communication take turns while exchanging the message and being active participants aiming at achieving communicative goals.

1.5.5 A Convergence Model

This model is the representative of the newly technological form of communication. In this model, communication is held between both the sender and the receiver in a form of an interchangeable swap of ideas that happens in a reciprocal manner. Fielding (2006) emphasized that the idea of communication within a convergence model is transactional where meaning is something established on behalf of both parties.

Each of the above models was adopted by a number of scholars, whose work in the communication process, was assumed to be of a fruitful effect to the development of communication, in terms of bringing changes in scope and perception.

Narula (2006) revealed that most of the earlier models which were linear (that of the 1940's and the 1950's) developed into non-linear, interaction, transaction and convergence models of the 1980's. Furthermore, the human communication process was explained due to the development in concepts such as multiple feedback loops, context, along with being specifically centered on a particular focus that of culture, system or situations for instance.

The first model of communication was that of Aristotle around 300 BC. It is equated as the simplest model of communication that has ever existed. It is the one in which the speaker is the one who is in charge of making use of his ability and skill to speak and be an active member in the communicative act. On the other hand, the listener is qualified as being into consideration. The following table summarizes communication models giving their sources, types and main components passive even if his role is quite important because it directs the effectiveness of the speaker's communication. Thereby, the speaker needs to take many aspects with regard to the listener

The forthcoming models are the most prominent in the history of communication as they were well elaborated by some eminent theorists in the domain. Furthermore, they revolutionized the world of communication thanks to their continuous contributions as each work paved and opened the doors to new refinements and modifications leading therefore to the current advanced state of communication.

Sources	Types of Model	Model's Main Components
Laswell (1948)	Linear/Action	Sender-Message-Channel-Receiver- Feedback
Shannon and Weaver (1949)	Linear	Source- Encoder- Message- Decoder- Destination- Noise – Feedback.
Gerbner (1956)	Interactive	Source- Content- Means- Audience- Event- Consequence.
Charles Osgood and others (1957)	Interactive/ Circular	Message- Decoder- Interpreter- Encoder- Message- Decoder
Westley and Maclean (1967) based on Newcomb.	Interactive	Messages- Sources-Gatekeepers- Receivers- Feedback.
Berlo (1960)	Linear	Source-Message-Channel-Receiver- Feedback.
Schramm (1973)	Relational	Informational signs- Relationship among participants- Active receivers.
Lawrence Kincaid (1979)	Convergence	Information uncertainty- Convergence- Mutual understanding- Mutual agreement- Collective action- Networks of relationships.

Table 1. Adapted from *Handbook of Communication Models, Perspectives, Strategies*, Narula, 2006, (pp. 21-22)

1.6 Communication Strategies

Learners in EFL contexts are in a constant attempt of communication through a language which is not theirs. Therefore, they encounter some hurdles that may hinder the realization of their goals on daily and pedagogical grounds. This is mainly due to the limitations in their linguistic resources that is why they rely on some useful strategies to help them repair the damage or breakdowns in communication. Cook (2008) introduced a detailed list of three different approaches to communication strategies which are 1) the social communicative strategies, 2) the psychological problem solving strategies and 3) the compensatory strategies.

1.6.1 Social Communicative Strategies

Tarone (as cited in Cook, 2008) listed some strategies that are utilised whenever a difficulty arises while communicating among two or more people. They can be simply mentioned in the following points:

1.6.1.1 Paraphrase

This strategy comprises other sub-strategies such as approximation i.e. using the **near meaning** to cause deduction on behalf of the listener, **word coinage** (making up a word as a substitution) and **circumlocution** (going all the way around when referring to a single word).

1.6.1.2 Transfer

This strategy embraces a set of sub-strategies which revolve around translation from the mother tongue (L1), language switching, appeal for assistance, and mime.

1.6.1.3 Avoidance

It includes two main sub strategies which call for the need of message abandonment or topic avoidance. The first one refers to leaving the message unfinished due to language difficulties that may arise during the course of communication. The second one urges the learner to avoid namely areas or concepts that may pose a difficulty in the language. Bialystok (as cited in Cook, 2008) emphasized the need to repair the conversation when things go wrong as she described its vital role to the second language use. Furthermore, she highlighted the teachers' role in instructing the strategies to their learners so that they will be able to use them in a real conversation.

1.6.2 Psychological Problem Solving Strategies

It focuses on the learner's mind that bears the need to express himself using the TL and the hurdles encountered when willing to do so. This has resulted with Faerch and Kasper's approach wherein two mainstreams of communication strategies were introduced:

1.6.2.1 Achievement

According to Cook (2008), the first set of strategies can be subdivided into cooperative and non cooperative strategies. The first ones fall into Tarone's already mentioned list. As for

the second ones, they can be simply described as code switching and foreignization. These are claimed to be useful when learners have a good mastery of both L1 and TL. However, Faerch and Kasper (as cited in Cook, 2008) presented the inter-language strategies which comprise substitution, generalization, description, exemplification, word coining and restructuring that learners resort to when being unable to remember the appropriate linguistic structures.

1.6.2.2 Avoidance

According to Cook (2008), the avoidance communication strategy can be divided into formal and informal strategies (linguistic and non linguistic). Such strategies are used by the foreign language learner to demonstrate that the TL needed structures to be used are out of his reach.

1.6.3 Compensatory Strategies

Kellerman (as cited in Cook, 2008) simplified the long list provided by antecedent scholars referring to the lack of effective communication and words for learners to express and convey meanings when they ignore its counterpart in the TL. In fact, these are compensatory strategies where learners compensate for the damage caused to the act of communication due to the lack of vocabulary at hand.

Thanks to her experiential procedures, Poulisse (as cited in Cook, 2008) introduced two mainstreams of strategies called archistrategies. The first one is conceptual archistrategy and the second one is linguistic archistrategy. They both depend on the manner in which learners attempt to cope with the unknown words.

1.6.3.1 Conceptual Archistrategy

It includes analytic and holistic strategies. The first one deals with breaking the word into smaller chunks to reach the intended meaning, whereas the second is to find a word which is approximately the same to the unknown word in the target language.

1.6.3.2 Linguistic Archistrategy

This strategy comprises both morphological and L1 transfer. The first one has to do with the creation of a new word that may be the same as the target word i.e. structurally speaking, whereas the second one is to bring a word from the mother tongue repertoire with hope it functions within the target language contexts.

In brief, the incorporation of communication strategies in the classroom encourages effective exchange between the teacher and the learner on the one hand and ensures meeting the learning objectives on the other hand. One simple example on how teachers and students build on communication altogether is repetition when needed to make learners reach their ultimate goal in understanding the content at hand. Another example is lending one's ear to the students. To put it differently, teachers can stop the lesson presentation and double check the learners' understanding and hence verify whether they have assimilated what has been presented to them or not in order to cover the basic gist of the learned material.

Part Two

2. The Notion of Communicative Competence

2.1 Definition

The term communicative competence was best illustrated by both linguists Dell Hymes and Gumperz who gave reference to its theoretical implications in the field of language teaching. Hymes and Gumperz (1972) defined such a concept as “what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings” (p.7).

Additionally, Paulston (1992) highlighted that the term communicative competence was an opposing concept to Chomsky's notion of competence which had a revolutionary echo in the world of language teaching and linguistics on the whole. The definition of communicative competence was not explicitly agreed upon among scholars. This was due partially to its practical implications in many domains. In foreign language teaching in the United States of America, for instance, scholars gave one common definition that attempted to limit its scope of concern. Savignon (as cited in Paulston, 1992) regarded communicative competence as “the ability to function in a truly communicative setting that is in a spontaneous transaction involving one or more other persons” (p.12). Savignon meant that the notion of communicative competence is far beyond than being a conceptual construct of rules' knowledge, but rather it implies the individual's potential in using the language for practical purposes with multiple people.

Paulston (1992) highlighted the second view of communicative competence under the lens of EFL scholars. These, in turn, referred to such a competence as the knowledge of linguistic forms of the language and its social rules that determine its appropriateness of use

within specific contexts. The scholarly works of EFL linguists were in harmony with Hymes' perception in the first place.

Canale and Swain (as cited in Paulston, 1992) gave a tripartite definition to communicative competence as the componential construct of knowledge and abilities that an individual possesses with regard to producing appropriate chunks of language structures in a socio-cultural context.

On the whole, Wilson and Sabee (2003) argued that most scholars could not agree on a single definition of communicative competence because of their disagreements on whether to consider competence as a construct or as a theoretical term:

When communicative competence is explicated within a particular family of communication theory, grounds exist for determining which psychological and behavioural qualities are central to competence, how they are associated with each other, and how they enable competence ... In contrast, explicating competence as a construct has left us with hodge-podge lists of qualities and no principled grounds for addressing such issues. (p.36)

Kaplan (as cited in Wilson & Sabee, 2003) emphasized that terms like communicative competence can be "defined clearly only within larger frameworks as we are provided not only with a dictionary of terms but with a guide book to their subject-matter" (p.36). In like manner, the already mentioned scholars such as Savignon, Hymes and others defined communicative competence within a particular theoretical framework of their own interest vis-à-vis the realisation of specific aims and purposes they have in mind. Therefore, we will be given inferences in those theories about communicative competence's assumptions and purposes.

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching

2.2.1 A Brief Historical Overview

The interest towards more fruitful communicative outcomes in the foreign language classroom led scholars to re-think the way they approach both language and teaching. Over the years, various language teaching approaches prevailed with the aim to fulfil the learners' needs in relation to the target language. However, they proved to be inadequate. This inadequacy urged scholars to seek for alternative methods that could refill the missing gaps, and repair the misconceptions rooted within their view towards foreign language instruction.

All of which, would open practically new pedagogical horizons that fit within a more communicative approach.

Stern (as cited in Byram & Garcia, 2009) highlighted the different sources that lead to the change of scope of interest and the emergence of CLT. Among these:

- Pedagogic proposals based originally on purely linguistic studies (Hymes, Labov, Grice , Austin, Searle, Firth and Halliday)
- The attempts to formulate a more situational functional notional syllabus by the Council of Europe (Van Ek, Alexander & Wilkins)
- A need for a more individualised syllabus that promotes EFL competence (mainly communicative competence)
- The change of vision towards the role of parties in the teaching/ learning process with comparison to previous approaches.

The inclination towards a more communicative approach was rooted in the works of European and American scholars. These formed the first footsteps towards the appearance of CLT in the late 1960's (Laviosa, 2014) and beginnings of the 1970's (Lantoff, 2000). CLT was in a continuous development from diverging angles in terms of syllabus and methodology as Byram and Garcia (2009) highlighted “the definition of objectives and syllabuses, the ‘what’ of language teaching, and the determination of appropriate methods, the ‘how’” (p.497). In the same line of thought, Nunan (1989) also held the belief that language is no longer seen as a pot of linguistic rules, but rather a dynamic resource for generating meaning.

2.2.1.1 The Anglo-Saxon World

It was reported that CLT was launched concurrently with the **Communicative Teaching Of English** (a conference held at Lancaster University in 1973) due to newly insights where language became rather a matter of meaning exchange rendering communicative competence the ultimate goal of language teaching (Laviosa, 2014). Furthermore, this communicative approach introduced four dimensions relatively connected to knowledge and **ability for use** (language use) following the Hymesian principles of feasibility, probability, possibility and actual performance. Van Ek (as cited in Savignon, 2000) rebuffed that the new standard of language ability was highly described with a more

functional aspect of **what one should be able to do with the language** (using language to achieve communicative functions) in order to forge communicatively competent learners.

Due to the significant expansion of language education that responds to the needs of Commonwealth countries' children and ESP overseas students, CLT formed its initial defining framework under John Munby's syllabus (1978). This gave extensive introduction to English courses with the aim to recruit third world students for different jobs in Britain. The job requirements, in terms of communication skills, were greatly enhanced with the change of perspective about language which is more viewed as a means of communication.

This framework is strongly influenced by the work of the council of Europe. (Howatt, 1984; Richards & Rodgers, 1986) stated that the interest in a more communicative centred approach came as a result of the works of the council of Europe where developing alternative language teaching methods were their prime priority. (Lantoff, 2000; Savignon, 2002) stated that this council helped with the creation of a communicative-based syllabus by incorporating the meaning communication into it and embracing Wilkin's functional notional syllabus as a reference source. Indeed, (Laviosa, 2014; Savignon, 2000) claimed that such a syllabus was initially derived from Firth and Halliday's view to language. Such a view was described by Savignon (2002) as "meaning potential" and "the context of situation" which is crucial in discerning how language systems complementarily interact with each other" (p.1).

2.2.1.2 The American World

According to Byram and Garcia (2009), the emergence of CLT was a countermove against the Chomskyan and Bloomfieldian perspectives on language learning. CLT owed much credit to the works of its prominent figures such as philosophers like: Austin & Searle, who developed the speech act theory and linguists such as Labov, Hymes, and Gumperz who explicated how verbal behaviour can be determined within social contexts. Savignon (2002) claimed that the Hymesian perspective to language was in parallel with that of Firth & Halliday's. Larsen-Freeman (2000) supported all those scholarly views, especially that of Hymes and claimed that "knowing the rules of linguistic usage does not mean to be able to use the language. But rather, it requires more: knowing when, how to say what and to whom" (p.121). Similarly, Widdowson (1972) shared the belief that it was a common mistake that the knowledge of how to use sentences for communication does not result from the knowledge of

how to compose them. He added to the previous belief “those meanings assigned to such sentences (their values) in text and discourse needs to be taught separately” (p.17).

The need to establish more practical methodologies and goals within the EFL classroom by following scholars was not an easy task. Therefore, communicative competence was highly equated with CLT within teaching-learning contexts. This was sufficient to indicate that acquiring the target language is a combinatory process where linguistic competence should be linked to other competencies comprising socio-cultural competence leading one to hold communicative interactions effectively.

The history through which CLT has undergone is merely a continuum or a **cumulation (a word used by many scholars)** of the pitfalls of previous language teaching methods and the thirst to realise the sought reforms traced in the 19th century. According to many scholars (Howatt, 1984; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 2000), CLT had covered not only a theory of language learning, but also a theory of language, and a method of teaching. All of which had its explicit realizations within language use in foreign language contexts. As a result, CLT grounded its basics on a solid foundation over the decades.

2.2.2 Definitions of Communicative Language Teaching

The CLT, as a communicative approach, could not be enclosed within one limited scope of interest. Therefore, it has been a complex task to come up with one single definition. However; the various works presented by scholars in many spots of the world would provide us with better insights on its true nature and valuable contributions offered to reforms within the FLT sphere.

Harmer (as cited in Carrio ,2016) defined CLT “as an umbrella term, which includes learning sequences aimed to develop students’ ability to communicate and distinguishes it from learning bits of language just because they exist without considering their use in real-life communication” (p.14). One of the most preliminary advances at that time to come up with an approach that reflect a linguistic theory of communicative competence within pedagogy is that of Paulston (as cited inn Weideman, 2017) clearly stated that If you accept Hymes’ notion that “a model of language must be designed with a face toward communicative conduct and social life...then it follows a model for teaching language must also be designed with a face toward communicative conduct and social life” (p.26).

Paulston attempted to link the communicative approach of language teaching with a more central focus on communication that would sculpture the learners and enable them to use language in its real social context of use. Similarly, Kaplan (2010) equated CLT with enabling learners to communicate both inside and outside the classroom through teaching language skills. He also gave illustrations of such communicative functions through “asking for information, seeking clarification and relying on circumlocution where necessary ... negotiating meaning by all linguistic and non-linguistic means at one’s disposal” (p.114). Additionally, Savignon (2002) referred to CLT as both processes and goals in classroom learning where communicative competence is at its heart and introduced in an EFL or an L2 language teaching and use. Pan (2008) emphasized more the preceding idea of Savignon’s view to CLT as “a language teaching approach that makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching”. Li (2001) likewise presented mainly some of the distinctive features of CLT and emphasized his agreement with Holliday (1994) and Howatt’s (1984) definition that they termed **CLT’s weak version (as there is another version which is termed strong version)** as “it stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes”(Howatt, 1984; Holliday, 1994 as cited in Lantoff, 2000, p.117) .

Macaro (1997) stated that CLT is an approach which “displays an enormous eclecticism ... thanks to which its resolution comes through the notion of communicative competence” (p.42). Brown (2000) also defined CLT “as a unified but broadly based theoretical position about the nature of language and of language learning and teaching” (p.266).

Despite the attempts provided by scholars to define CLT, the scope of its interest and the diverging views about the way it was considered make of it a hard and challenging task to be fully achieved on the grounds of practicality within EFL classroom contexts.

2.2.3 Principles and Characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching

The characteristics of CLT had different interpretations by various scholars. Some argued that they can be noticeable in terms of the “systematic attention to that functional as well as to the structural aspects of language” (Littlewood, 1981, p.1). Others argued that CLT is featured with “the procedures where learners work in pairs or groups mainly for problem-solving tasks with the linguistic means available at hand” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.66). Furthermore, Yalden (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986) emphasized the incorporation of

a more “learner-generated view of syllabus design” (p.66). In fact, CLT with its huge amount of literature may have multiple interpretations in terms of goals, methods, techniques, syllabus design and many other aspects such as the parties involved in the pedagogical interaction (**teacher-learner**). This provides us with a full image on how such elements contribute to the achievement of a more valid empirical version of CLT.

Johnson and Johnson (as cited in Laviosa, 2014, p.22) summarised the main distinctive features of CLT in five main points:

- Risk taking (students are encourage to learn by trial and error)
- Appropriateness (language use must be appropriate to the contextual situation)
- Message focus (learners need to be able to create and understand meanings)
- Free practice (simultaneous use of various skills)
- Psycholinguistic processing (learners engage in activities involving cognitive and other second language acquisition process)

The above communicative traits of a language teaching approach discussed mainly language use and meaning rather than language knowledge and linguistic structure. It has also favoured the nature of activities that should be inclined towards a spirit of problem solving rather than translation and building in a motivating free atmosphere where language skills are used concurrently.

2.2.3.1 Communicative Language Teaching at the Classroom Level

Spada and Brown (as cited in Benati, 2009, p.66) listed six main features of CLT at the classroom boundaries: 1) the meaning is emphasized over form, 2) grammar should be learned communicatively, 3) simplification of the input through the use of contextual props, cues and gestures rather than structural grading (the presentation of one grammatical point at a time in a sequence of structural grading (the presentation of one grammatical point at a time in a sequence of form simple to complex linguistics features), 4) he amount of correction is kept to a minimum, letting the students express themselves, 5) Use of a variety of discourse types introduced by role-playing, stories, real life materials and 6) learners should have considerable exposure to the second language speech from the teacher and other learners, and instructors should provide opportunities for learners to play an active role

2.2.3.2 Goals of Communicative Language Teaching

The targeted objective of CLT is in harmony with communicative competence. Macaro (1997) stated that the CLT practitioners' would believe more in what facilitates the goal of communicative competence. He also suggested the following beliefs about a more communicative-centred objective of CLT in the four coming points (pp.42-43)

- An emphasis on speaking and listening rather than our reading and writing.
- An emphasis on communicating new information rather than 'already known' information.
- An emphasis on active involvement rather than passive learning.
- An emphasis on meaningful bits of language rather than well formed sentences, individual words or bits of words.

Despite the above designated goals to achieve communicative competence, the EFL classroom should be in a harmonious interdependency with other elements such as the teacher's role, the learner's role and the type of instruction materials and activities. All of these should work altogether in order to reflect a more communicative-centred approach where "a complex framework in which psychological, socio-cultural, physical and linguistic elements comes into play" (Byram & Garcia, 2009, p.501).

'The concept web' represents the pivotal elements needed for communicative competence to be achieved within the communicative classroom.

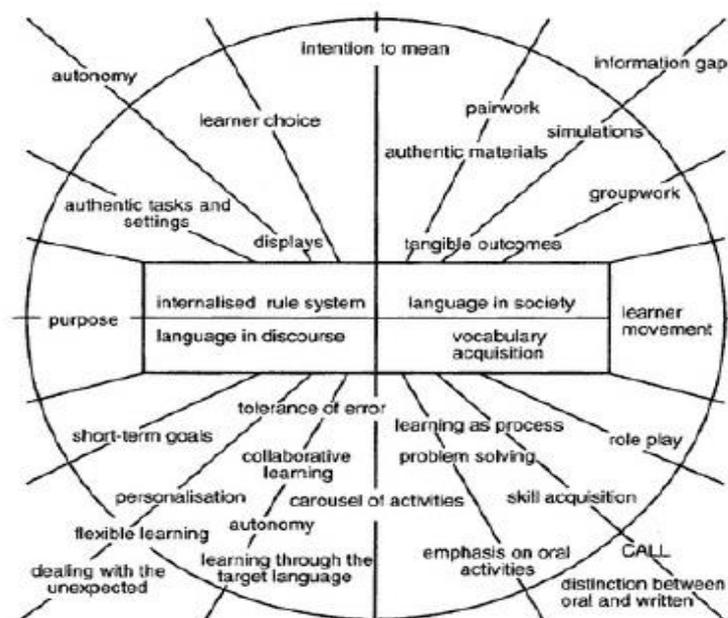


Figure 5. "The Concept Web" (Macaro, 1997, p.47)

2.2.4 Implications for Syllabus Design

Byram and Garcia (2009) emphasized some crucial elements that have to be incorporated within a communicative syllabus to meet the desired outcomes such as:

- The exclusive attention that should be put on content rather than structure i.e. grammar should not be neglected but does not have to be an end in the syllabus formation.
- General and specific linguistic and communicative knowledge of the target language along with the socio-cultural aspects related to it.

The implications of communicative language teaching for syllabus design had its beginnings with the contributions of Finocchiaro and Brumfit's (1983) functional-notional implications for language teaching taking into consideration both a 'communicative approach' and 'language functions' which was mainly inspired by Wilkins (1976) syllabus design theory. However, the shortcomings in such work have brought nothing new to the communicative centred approach. Berns (2013) presented this criticism:

The limitations of their treatment of the relationship between form, function, and culture in particular contributes to the failure of their account of a functional-notional approach to be anything more than an overlay of new terms on old concepts. While Finocchiaro and Brumfit point out that the language forms a speaker uses are influenced by the function of the message, the situation, and the topic, they do not call attention to the role that the speaker's cultural background plays in determining the appropriateness of linguistic structures and lexical items selected to realize a function. Failure to do so ignores the effects of socio-cultural constraints on language form and function as a crucial consideration in materials development and curriculum design. (p.87)

Richards (2001) stated that the third category in Wilkin's syllabus communicative functions (**speech acts: requests, suggestions...**) was a starting point and a useful implication for a syllabus design that meets the integration of communicative competence, which was at the heart of CLT. Yalden (as cited in Richards, 2001) presented the goals advanced by syllabus designers in order to fulfil communicative outcomes. He proposed a set of components that would meet the requirement of learners' and the objectives set forth by teachers respectively. These can be listed in terms of delimiting the reasons for which learners are studying the target language. Moreover, with whom it will be used and where (situations) such as academic, daily, professional...etc. Third, the language functions to be utilized to fulfil the preceding aims. Then, what skills notions and language varieties (in terms of topic,

personal and learning skills) are required to transfer meaning and be able to negotiate it through spoken and written language via the linguistic items to be taught.

Richards (2001) estimated that the above framework called for Wilkins' syllabus implication within the design of a communicative syllabus. Richards and Rodgers (1986) highlighted that even with the huge amount in CLT literature about implications for syllabus design, such second thoughts need to be abolished and leave the floor for learners as they are the only decision makers in relation to their own learning needs vis-à-vis the foreign language.

2.2.5 Methodology

According to Byram and Garcia (2009) in order to achieve the learners' communicative competence, lots of elements interplay. Among them, the set of communicative activities that respond to the learners' needs and seek genuine communication on their behalf. Johnson (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986) described various activities introduced by scholars as follows:

Wright (1976) achieves it by showing out-of-focus slides which the students attempt to identify. Byrne (1978) provides incomplete plans and diagrams which students have to complete by asking for information. Allwright (1977) places a screen between students and gets one to place objects in a certain pattern: this pattern is then communicated to students behind the screen. Geddes and Sturtridge (1979) develop "jigsaw" listening in which students listen to different taped materials and then operate by providing information to some and withholding it from others. (p.76)

The above activities as (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) emphasized "are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing" (p.76).

Littlewood (1981) presented two streams of communicative activities that meet the principles advanced by CLT: functional notional activities and social interaction activities.

2.2.5.1 Functional Notional Activities

These kinds of activities were introduced with the primary emphasis, as Littlewood (1981) highlighted "on being functionally effective ... where learners should use the language they know in order to get meanings across effectively as possible" (p.20).

(Richards, 2015, pp. 71-72) gave a brief description to the forthcoming functional notional activities from his own perspective.

➤ **Information gap activities**

Such activities require communication on behalf of the learners in order to get information they do not possess.

➤ **Jigsaw activities**

In those activities, a part of the information needed to complete the activity is at the disposal of each group of the whole class.

➤ **Task completion activities**

Using one's language resources to complete a task.(e.g. puzzles, games, map reading ...etc)

➤ **Information- gathering activities**

They require students to use their linguistic resources to collect information (e.g. student-conducted surveys, interviews and searches)

➤ **Reasoning-gap activities**

Deriving some new information from given information, through the process of inference, practical reasoning, etc

2.2.5.2 Social Interaction Activities

The limitations of the preceding activities urged the implementation of the 'social interaction activities'. These were partially presented due to some requirements as described by Littlewood (1981) who stated that a learner can "experience a wider range of communicative needs in situations more similar to those outside the classroom and under the influence of more varied and clearly defined social conditions" (p.39). Richards and Rodgers (1986) likewise listed the social interaction activities under "conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates" (p.76). In addition, Littlewood highlighted that "Simulations and role playing are at the heart of communicative activities because they create a wider variety of social situations and relationships than a classroom may offer" (p.20).

➤ **Conversations**

It is a multifaceted activity providing learners with the opportunity for unstructured free discussion. (Richards, 1990).

➤ **Discussions**

Stremba and Bisson (2009) stated that discussions are easier to generate when based on a direct experience. For instance, an entire or a sub-group discussion is considered one of the main effective techniques to develop classroom interaction.

➤ **Dialogues completion**

They are conversation transcripts with removed features (such as opening, closings, clarifications, requests...) that urge learners to ask for the missing information for completion for later comparison or practice.

➤ **Role plays (socio drama)**

Bhardwaj (2008) defined roles plays as giving the students the chance to communicate in different social contexts and roles. They may be structured or unstructured. Stremba and Bisson (2009) emphasized that role plays are often prepared in advance in a form of a guide to their improvisations.

➤ **Simulations**

“They are more appropriately used when the entire class is involved in a full-scale process for the purpose of testing new skills” (Stremba and Bisson,2009, p.18).

➤ **Improvisations**

According to Willis (2003), learners produce language without having the chance to prepare in advance. This makes of it a difficult and challenging task because it also requires from learners to be concerned namely with using language to get meaning across.

➤ **Debates**

These are free speaking activities used to engage learners in a challenge to talk about a controversial topic.

2.2.6 Roles in the Communicative Classroom

The term“ role refers to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants” (Nunan, 2004. p.64). These two parties have very influential effects in the

pedagogical framework especially with the emergence of CLT that has brought new perspectives in relation to the manner in which the instructional process occurs within EFL contexts.

2.2.6.1 The Teacher's Role

The role of the teacher under the communicative approach has taken another turn. Scholarly literature on the position a teacher should take within the EFL classroom was quite diverging. However, there are crucial features that should be assigned to teachers so that they will be able to accomplish their task effectively and successfully in relation to the learners' language in use requirements. Byram and Carcia (2009) stated that teachers besides being knowledgeable about their taught subject matter, they should also have the appropriate linguistic baggage which makes them apt to teach the target language.

Considerable emphasis on the teacher's role was drawn by Richard and Rodgers (1986) who gave three distinctive characters played on his part within the classroom. These can be listed as follow (pp.78-79):

2.2.6.1.1 Needs analyst

Having the capacity to discern and react to learners' needs in relation to the language. Consequently, generating a pre-plan directed mainly to fulfil every possible inquiry (individual or collective) put forward in the educational instruction.

2.2.6.1.2 Counsellor

It means providing learners with the most significant traits of a model communicator. This can be put in grounds of application by maximizing their opportunity in classroom interaction through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

2.2.6.1.3 Group process manager

Being the one and only responsible about organizing the classroom in terms of instruction, behaviour and activities to meet the learners' goal in the educational process of learning the target language. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986) commented on such a role as follows:

During an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity,

pointing out alternatives and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. (pp.78-79)

In addition to the above roles, there is a vast set of literature on the roles undertaken by teachers in the communicative classroom Breen and Candlin (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986) highlighted other examples of the teachers' roles and classified them into main and secondary ones. As far as the main roles are concerned, a teacher can be a **facilitator** (reducing the difficulty that may rise among the classroom participants themselves, the activities and the instruction materials), and an **independent participant** (being part of the classroom tasks). Subsidiary roles, in the second place, can be demonstrated by the teacher being an **organizer** (exerting his capacity in designing and managing classroom activities), a **resource** (allowing his readiness to act as instruction materials), a **guide** (readjusting the flow in which the classroom tasks are proceeding) and a **researcher-learner** (being in a constant inquiry for new strategies that promote the learning experience; therefore, making benefits in developing one's own teaching capacity and career).

Larsen-Freeman (2000) added all of the adviser and monitor roles to the previous lists that may be used to describe the teacher's behaviour in the classroom activities. She stated that "During the activities he acts as an adviser, answering students' questions and monitoring their performance" (p.128).

2.2.6.2 The Learners' Role

The role of the learner has radically changed with the implementation of CLT as a new approach. The old traditional view where learners were considered as passive recipients is no longer prevailing, nowadays. Larsen-Freeman (2000) pointed out that "students are, above all, communicators. They are actively engaged in negotiating meaning- in trying to make themselves understood and in understanding others- even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete ... students are seen as more responsible managers of their own learning"(p.129). Breen and Candlin (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986) delimited the learner's role in CLT as follows:

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. (p.77)

To put it differently, the learner within the communicative classroom should not be in a jug-and-mug like position where he receives knowledge passively. However, he should have a more active, negotiative role in which he contributes to the sum of the presented knowledge by his teacher. (Richards & Rodgers, 1986) He should also interact more with his peers to promote self-autonomy and develop a process of personal growth in order to become responsible of his own learning. (Nunan, 2004)

2.2.6.2.1 Characteristics of the Learners' Roles in the Communicative Classroom

According to Robin and Thomson (as cited in Nunan, 2004, pp. 66-67) gave a brief summary of the main characteristics of a language learner.

- Find their own suitable way of learning
- Organize information about language
- Be creative in terms of using the target language
- Make their own opportunities through classroom interaction
- Learn to live with uncertainty using various resources
- Use mnemonics (learning strategies such as word classes/associations, rhymes...etc) to recall information
- Learn production techniques (fluency) over accuracy in order to produce more spoken language
- Make errors workable by learning from them
- Use their linguistic background knowledge to build on future experience in the target language
- Let the context help them by developing a capacity to guess and infer meaning alone.
- Learn to make intelligent guesses based on probabilities
- Learn formalized routines, whole phrases and idioms
- Use different styles of speech and writing

2.2.7 Settings in the Communicative Classroom

The logistic boundaries are one of the most important dimensions in achieving the goals of whatsoever teaching approach. In CLT, the settings or **the classroom arrangements (as referred to by Nunan, 2004)** should be well configured so as to meet the learners' needs in the language. Nunan (2004) highlighted that "a wide range of configurations is possible in the communicative classroom, although practical considerations such as class size can constraint what is possible in practice" (p.71).

The learners' interaction in the foreign language classroom, under the CLT approach should be maintained under different organizational seating arrangements. This depends mainly on the nature of the activity to be undertaken. Pair and group work, for instance, are amongst the most effective techniques to start communicative activities. However; they necessitate the appropriate settings. Wright (as cited in Nunan, 2004) "presented the multiple ways in which learners might be grouped physically within the classroom" (p.71).

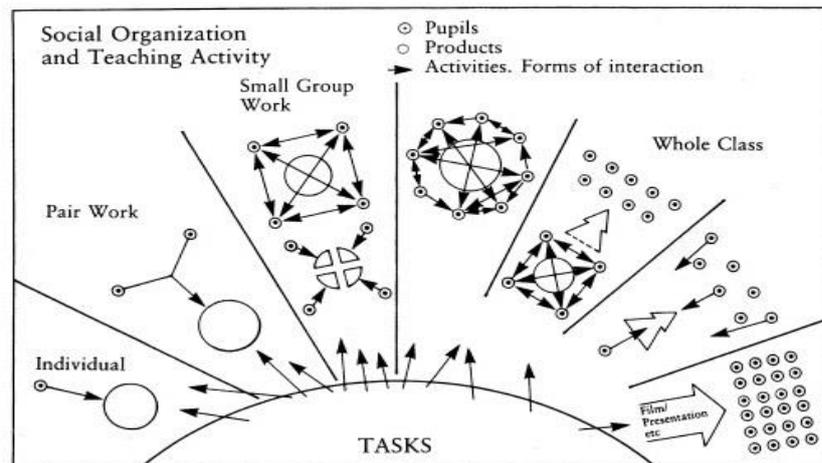


Figure 6. Social Organization and Teaching Activity (Wright, as cited in Nunan, 2004, p.71)

2.2.8 Teaching Materials in the Communicative Classroom

The instructional material used in the communicative classroom is considered as a facilitating tool that help teachers in conducting their lessons in a more organized and effective manner. Consequently; they provide the learners with a more appropriate environment to acquire the target language. Richards and Rodgers (1986) listed three kinds of materials that are currently assigned to CLT: text based materials, task-based materials and realia content. These in turn, are promoters of communicative language use since they influence the quality of classroom interaction and language use

2.2.8.1 Text-Based Material

Richards and Rodgers (1986) stated that such materials are originally taken from a readjusted structure based syllabus. These texts are initially implemented to invoke interaction through enacting role plays and many other activities. They also suggested an example of a typical lesson, which should be made of the following steps (pp. 79-80)

Step 1) Theme: e.g. relaying information.

Step2) Task Analysis for Thematic Development: e.g. understanding the message, asking questions to obtain information, taking notes or ordering and presenting information.

Step 3) Practice Situation Description: e.g. a caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay the message to your manager.

Step4) Stimulus Presentation: e.g. in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation scripted and on tape.

Step5) Comprehension questions: for instance: why is the caller in the office?

Step6) Paraphrase exercises.

2.2.8.2 Task-Based Materials

These materials present a “variety of games, role plays, interviews, jigsaw, simulations and task-based communicative activities”. (Richards and Rodgers, p.80) Additionally, they can be in a one-of-a-kind form such as: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards and pair communication practice materials. Others activities, they provide drills and practice materials in interactional formats.

2.2.8.3 Realia Content

These are utilised in a communicative classroom on the basis that the classroom boundaries is intentional in terms of preparing the EFL learner to survive within the real world. Richard and Rodgers (1986) explained that “they advocated the use of authentic-real life materials in the classroom” (p.80). In the same line of thought, Harmer (1983) referred to authenticity in texts “either written or spoken are those which are designed for native speakers; they are real texts designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language in question” (p.146). Realia content can be either language based such as signs, magazines, advertisements, newspapers, or graphic and visual sources such as maps, pictures, symbols, charts and graphs.

In brief, Nunan (2004) proposed that the classroom communicative activities undertaken by learners should at least reflect real-life interactions through the different kinds

of communicative behaviours learned in the classroom. Therefore; the above mentioned materials would be beneficial in terms of its positive effects on enhancing learners' motivation. They also direct exposure to language use and provide genuine cultural information about the language target in its real context of use.

2.2.9 Assessing the Learners' Performance

The learners' performance, especially at the EFL classroom, is one of the main implications of CLT in language teaching. (Van Ek, as cited in Nunan, 2004) referred to CLT's first document about performance-based communicative curriculum as it:

... tries to specify foreign language ability as a skill rather than knowledge. It analyzes that the learner will have to be able to do in the foreign language and determines only in the second place what language-forms (words, structures, etc) the learners will have to be able to handle in order to do all that has been specified. (p.44)

Assessing the learners' performance has taken another turn with the introduction of CLT and its newly implemented characteristics. As a result, it became quite challenging for teachers to seize the sought and required behaviour from their learners. Unlike traditional assessment strategies, the CLT's approach to errors is flexible, tolerant, and considered as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. In addition, teachers are there to comment and help learners implicitly rather than to correct and criticize explicitly in the classroom. Therefore, learners are expectedly practising the target language with the ultimate objective to receive more guidance and awareness that raise their motivation towards being more communicatively competent. Despite these instructional guidelines, errors can be rectified through accuracy-based activities to draw learners' attention explicitly to their errors. Larsen-Freeman (2000) commented on this idea in that the teacher "might make note of their errors to be worked on at a later time during more accuracy-based activities" (p.129). Selinker (as cited in Byram & Garcia, 2009) likewise emphasized that "errors are explicitly dealt with when they interfere in communication but if they do not interfere in communication, they are only pointed out if the learner makes them regularly. Errors are a necessary part of an evolving 'interlanguage' (p.502).

In brief, CLT considers assessment as a continuous process that involves both teachers and learners. It also stresses the learners' achievement in relation to the target language where testing is not the central final indicator of their improvement and ability in the foreign

language. It is also “based on criteria such as fluency, comprehensibility, effort and interaction in improvised communicative tasks” (Byram & Garcia, 2009, p.502).

In a more learner-centred classroom, McKenzie-Brown (2012) indicated that self assessment promotes autonomy in learning, gives learners a better sense of their competences’ improvement while assessment by teachers activates language use in terms of oral performance. From a CLT perspective, learners’ performance was assessed by teachers through alternative ways such as: observing them, meeting them, having them write journals and create portfolios of their work. Tannenbaum (as cited in McKenzie-Brown, 2012) emphasized that such ways enhance not only academic but also linguistic and communicative development of learners since they utilize strategies that ask students to show what they can do with the language through approaching, processing and completing real-life activities in the classroom. By the same token, Byram and Garcia (2009) considered such testing tools as efficient means “to encapsulate and reveal of learners’ communicative competence” (p.502). Additionally, Tannenbaum stated that teachers are required to shed light on learners’ individual growth vis-à-vis language use overtime rather than comparing them to their peers. A teacher should also take into considerations learners’ differences in terms of language proficiency, learning styles, cultural and educational background as well as their grade level.

2.3 Relevance between Discourse Analysis and Communicative Competence

A discourse analysis approach in the language classroom overlaps with the objectives/goals of communicative competence. The main reason behind such a claim is that learners under a communicative syllabus are required to develop a native-speaker like competence, or in other words ‘ability’ which enables them to use the language for its prime and main goal ‘communication’. However, such an objective is quite a challenging if not a far-reaching process to be put in grounds of application. But, despite such hurdles, discourse analysis practically speaking, offers a set of techniques and strategies via its theoretical and analytical approaches to fulfil such a competence in reality.

Discourse analysis, in essence, fosters dealing with a natural product rather than a sophisticated one i.e. its main concern is to observe natural phenomenon as they occur and attempts to provide teachers with better insights to alter their classroom atmosphere as well as their teaching practices in a way of implementing a discourse-based approach within their drills, activities or tasks. This can be found in the components of communicative competence which are sociolinguistic discourse and strategic competences. This ability to rely on discourse and its offerings to bring about native-like behaviour in the classroom is quite

tempting. But, first let us see how the preceding scholars attempted to teach such competences through their earlier classroom practices. Coulthard (1985) asserted that teachers went into two diverging ways when it came to implementing communicative competence. We found that ones who attempted “to teach the component concurrently and other that are organized consecutively” (p.147). In other words, what Coulthard meant was that some teachers attempted to teach all of the componential elements of communicative competence at once by presenting them through one lesson (that tackle the four areas) or teach them one after the other, which means devoting the whole unit to enhance socio-cultural competence through setting activities and tasks that enable learners to become socio-culturally knowledgeable and aware of other societies’ norms and conventions, through mainly conversations and authentic interactions.

The implementation of discourse analysis throughout a communicative syllabus is said to have positive effects in promoting communication. Brumfit (as cited in Coulthard, 1985) argued that there “may be more a shift in methodology than a change in syllabus specification” (p.156). This is all with the aim to enhance communicative competence. Furthermore, he suggested a shift in methodology from “Present-Drill-Practice” (by Wilkins, 1972) in context into that of Brumfit (1978) which revolves around:

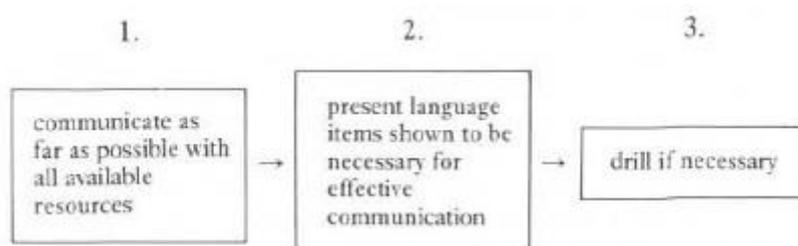


Figure 7. Brumfit post-communicative model (Brumfit, as cited in Coulthard, 1977, p.156)

The above model is built on the principle of “what needs to be taught is defined by the failure to communicate at the first stage which thus operates as a diagnosis” (Brumfit, as cited in Coulthard, 1985, pp.156-157). Furthermore, Brumfit suggested that teacher’s objective in the target classrooms should not ask for the unattainable on part of their learners. This is due to one main reason which is when an EFL learner studies the target language his final aim is “not to usually become a member of that community; but merely to be able to communicate with it” (Brumfit, as cited in Coulthard, 1985, p.157). Therefore, the final aim an EFL learner aspires to reach is “how to cope with limited language resources, a problem which requires excessive use of non-verbal signalling, paraphrase, inferencing, circumlocution, repetition,

and checking” (Coulthard, 1985, p.157). These are conceptual tools put forward by discourse analysis in order to foster communication.

The meaning of communication within the EFL classroom diverge in terms of degrees i.e. to what extent activities and tasks presented reflect real-life genuine communication identical to that undertaken by members of the target speech community. Coulthard (1985) asserted that

Much of what goes on in the foreign language classroom is not genuinely communicative. Apart from those occasions when the teacher is organizing the classroom and the lesson, ‘open the window/close your books’, instructing, ‘a noun is ...’, and socializing, ‘hello Susan...’ all the language used is more or less artificial because it arises not from a need to use the language but from a requirement by the teacher to produce language. (p.157)

As a result, scholars have attempted to elaborate a set of activities that meet with the needs of real-life language use in its natural contexts. Effectively, the start was “from drills to simulations, from dialogues to communication games” (Harmer, as cited in Coulthard, 1985, p.157).

Among the scholars who have tried to come up with resourceful insights in order to foster EFL communication in the target language is Willis (1983). This latter suggested a framework for language classroom activities. It embraced three types (citation, simulation and replication) and replaced Brumfit’s earlier model with further modifications in terms of “Replication-Citation-Simulation”. Such activities range in terms of their communicativeness. Replications provide genuine communication “by crating situations in which there is a real need for communication in order to achieve something else, usually to solve a problem or play a game” (Coulthard, 1985, p.158). Citations are drills in nature “formal exercises like repeating, combining and transforming” (Willis, as cited in Coulthard, 1985, p.157). Simulations (role plays and discussions) are considered communicative. However, its “success is in fact measured linguistically” (Coulthard, 1985, p.158). Despite such description, Coulthard argued that “replication is a vital part of communicative teaching, certain essential aspects of communication, like greetings, closings, invitations and pre-sequences, can in fact only be practised through simulation exercises” (p. 159). Additionally, the presentation of all of the above activities should be done in order to reach a communicative outcome. Therefore, Coulthard argued that:

Willis conceives the activities in terms of “illocutionary sequences and semantic-grammatical categories’ and offers an interesting sketch of a course which takes sequence as the basic communicative unit and sets out to teach students to build up sequences from exchanges and exchanges from moves- different macro-functions can be slotted into this abstract framework;

decisions about what functions to teach, their sequence and their grammatical realizations are based on insights derived from speech act theory, conversational analysis and discourse analysis. (p.158)

2.3.1 Speech Act Theory

2.3.1.1 Definition

A speech act theory can be found in many specific contextual works such as literature discourse and poetics for instance. However, the major emphasis in our research study is centred on the works related to the discipline of linguistics and specifically to those of pragmatics. Borghoff and Schlichter (2000) asserted that SAT is in opposition “to traditional linguistic theories which focus on how words transport information [where its emphasis is] the activity” (p.338). In other words, SAT claims the equation of speaking to action via words where the listener and speaker share a mutual relation where the influence of utterances can change the flow of the coming events in the act of conversing.

Borghoff and Schlichter (2000) asserted that SAT “analyses speech as meaningful acts by communication partners in situations of shared activity” (p.338). As it can be seen, human communication is a mutual communicative exchange where people are supposed to be in a specific situation where language is being used accordingly through any unit of communication be it smaller or longer.

Moeschler (2002) argued that “speech acts are not isolated moves in communication; they appear in more global units of communication, defined as conversations or discourses” (p.240). In the same line of thought, Vanderverken (as cited in Vanderverken and Kubo, 2002) asserted that “

Speakers perform their illocutionary acts within entire conversations where they are most often in verbal interaction with other speakers who reply to them and perform in turn their own speech acts with the same collective intention to pursue with success a certain type of discourse. Thus, above all, the use of language is a social form of linguistic behaviour. It consists, in general, of ordered sequences of utterances made by several speakers who tend by their verbal interactions to achieve common discursive goals such as discussing a question, deciding together how to react to a certain situation, negotiating, consulting or more simply to exchange greetings and talk for its own sake. For terminological convenience, I will call such ordered sequences of speech acts conversations. (p.240).

In addition, Moeschler (2002) argued that “if SAT has been used so extensively within [the] paradigm of DA, it is because the functional properties associated with speech acts as units of meaning have been exported to speech acts as units of communication and discourse”

(p.241). In other words, DA needs two conditions of contextual and cotextual appropriateness in order to render SAT functional in terms of their utility in EFL contexts.

Speech acts can be defined within a variety of discipline and from a variety of perspectives. From a narrow angle of DA, Moeschler (2002) highlighted that SAT can be possibly extended to DA where their mutual ground is conversation. This latter is purely pragmatic and urges at its heart the notion of language use through a variety of skills. In brief, Levinson (2013) maintained that SAT was seen by linguists “as variously applicable to problems in syntax, semantics, second language learning and elsewhere” (p.226). This view was shared by many scholars such as Filmore (1971), Sadok, Jakobovits and Gordon (1974). On the other hand, “in linguistic pragmatics, speech acts remain, along with presupposition and implicature in particular, one of the central phenomena that any general pragmatic theory must account for” (p.226).

Throughout the recent works and inquires about earlier definitions of the speech act theory, Nordquist (2015) classified the SAT into pragmatics and considered it as “a subfield concerned with the ways in which words can be used not only to present information but also to carry out actions” (“Definition”, para.1). To put it differently, words in themselves are not static in their meanings because they carry within outer considerations of the setting and the participants in the act of communication.

2.3.1.2 Origins and Backgrounds

By language in use, we mean to look at the communicative side where language is a means of exchanging ideas mainly through conversation and this latter implies not only speaking randomly but unconsciously following implicitly certain rules, adapting to change and using the kind of linguistic luggage to fit the situation where the talk actually takes place. In other words, such behaviours or skills embrace practices such as turn taking, topic initiation, and topic steering along with deciphering the messages conveyed via body language. Not only this, changing the ways of talking and adapting it to a more suitable situation, and giving detail and finally greeting, requesting and executing many speech acts at the same time when the situation necessitates such a shift in linguistic behaviour.

All of above skills are relatively close to speech act theory. According to scholars, the already mentioned behaviours fall within the pot pragmatics and this is the main crossroads where SAT and pragmatics meet i.e. better understanding of the most essential advances of

pragmatics and the essence of communication leads to a better understanding of the SAT itself.

The SAT has its roots with the works of earlier philosophers who viewed language as a pot of meanings (hidden-surface) and interpretations that a listener would equate to the message he gets through; either appropriate or not, correct or not. The floor was open to a different set of interpretations that gave importance rather to what is intended rather than what is actually said.

SAT originated with the works and ideas of both British and American philosophers Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). On one hand, Austin gave birth to such a theory in his book “How to do things with words” (a series of his lectures’ compilation in the 1950’s). However, “that similar lines of inquiry were part of the rhetorical and linguistic investigations of the sophists in the fifth-century B.C.E.” (Lynch Kennedy, 2006, p. 305). Speech act theory, henceforth, “very luminously originated with [the argument] against the philosophical assumptions that verbal statements can be analysed in isolation and in terms of their truth or falsity” (Mahbub, 2012, “Background”, para.2).

In the same convention and as far as any invention or development is concerned, SAT has been a counter movement against many traditional views to those of earlier decades ago. Particularly, Austin reacted accordingly to such assumptions and came up to what is known today as the cross cultural pragmatics view to language since the latter is a social phenomenon. These assumptions were centred on two pillars, in addition to the already mentioned one above (utterances meanings), of sentence type and basic language use which revolve around the declarative nature of a sentence (either a statement or an assertion) and the descriptions of state of affairs truths or events which can only happen through statements. Austin’s investigation vis-à-vis such hypotheses concluded that such statements or as he termed performatives can only be felicitous or infelicitous i.e. “either appropriate or inappropriate, operative or inoperative, successful or unsuccessful... for certain intents and purposes but not for others”. (Lynch Kennedy, 2006, p.305). Moreover, Austin (as cited in Lynch Kennedy, 2006) argued that “it is good enough for a top ranking general, perhaps, but not for a geographer” just to shed light on the uniqueness of such statements and their need to follow certain conditions which can flow under “the speaker’s intention and his or her role within a specific social or institutional context” (Lynch Kennedy, 2006, p.305).

Later developments to SAT were brought by the American philosopher Searle. This latter has taken research about such a theory to a whole new level were his main belief was to

move further beyond reaching the idea that “each time a word or phrase was spoken it was a speech or illocutionary act that could be placed in several different categories” (Johnson, n.d, “the theory of speech acts”, para.3) and thereupon, establish a theoretical framework in which the triangular realms of utterance, meaning and action existing in speech acts could be considered as one single unified and complementary unity. Searle must be remembered for the additional updates he made on SAT in terms of constitutives’ rules that govern the performance of illocutionary acts. In other words, the different set of rules which the participants’ conduct in a given speech act.

In short, Searle’s extensive research with regards to SAT was markedly inspired by works and writings of Wittgenstein, Midgley, Grice, Strawson, Rawls and Alston all of whom have helped in rendering this theory more expandable on different horizons. (Johnson, n.d, ‘the theory of speech acts’, para. 4).

2.3.1.3 Components and Classifications

The introduction of SAT and its attempt to change the scope of attention on language towards a more pragmatic directed view led scholars to handle utterances from a specific perspective. Following an Austinian convention towards SAT, as its founding father, utterances or speech acts are classified into three major categories. This distinction is a shift “from the initial binary distinction between two classes of speech acts [and] replaced by a ternary distinction between locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts which are presented as internal aspects of speech acts in general” (Bronzo, 2015, p.2). Brinton and Brinton (2010, p.340) highlighted speech acts’ main parts and described them as follow:

- **A locutionary act:** including both an utterance act and a propositional act; a locutionary act is the recognizable grammatical utterance (its form and meaning);
- **An illocutionary act:** such as stating , promising, or commanding an illocutionary act is the communicative purpose of an utterance, the use to which language is being put, or what the speaker is trying to do with his locutionary act and
- **A perlocutionary act:** such as persuading, annoying, consoling, or alarming; the perlocutionary act is the intended or actual effects of a locutionary act, the consequences these acts have on hearers’ attitudes, beliefs, or behaviour. The effects of a speech act are not conventional but depend upon the context.

As far as the Searlian convention with regards to SAT is concerned, attention was drawn to both propositional content and illocutionary force. Fultner (2014) emphasized that thanks to SAT “an utterance or speech act Mp has two primary components: propositional content p (the traditional purview of semantics) and illocutionary force (M), which indicates what action the speaker is performing in making the utterance” (p.58). Similarly, Fultner illustrated the **Mp notion** (p: represents the world and M: fixes the communicative function of the content uttered by Habermas) through this example: The roads are icy (p)

This utterance can be use in different types of speech acts with different types of illocutionary force. For instance:

“A descriptive assertion: the roads are icy, to ask a question: are the roads icy? And to issue a warning: the roads are icy”

Searle has taken the distinction a little further where he developed a taxonomy of illocutionary acts in 1976. Searle (as cited in Flor and Uso, 2010) maintained this idea where “he grouped [those acts] according to common functional characteristics, where the taxonomy includes five major categories namely those of representatives, directives, expressives, commissives and declarations” (p.7). A brief explanatory account of the meaning of each category was highlighted by Flor and Uso (2010, pp.7-8)

- **Representatives:** are linguistic acts in which the speaker’s purpose in performing the act is to commit himself to the belief that the propositional content of the utterance is true.
- **Directives:** : refer to acts in which the speaker’s purpose is to get the hearer to commit himself to some future course of action
- **Expressives:** have the purpose of expressing the speaker’s psychological state of mind about, or attitude towards, some prior action or state of affairs.
- **Commissives:** the acts in which the speaker commits himself to some future course of action.
- **Declarations:** acts which require extralinguistic institutions for their performance.

2.3.1.4 Applications and Considerations in EFL teaching

2.3.1.4.1 Speech Act Theory and Intercultural Communication.

Taken from a perspective of EFL classrooms, communication in the target language is quite a necessity especially with advances in language teaching approaches which view language as the main means to get ideas and notions across. However, the one and only

consistent hurdle faced since almost earlier ages is the inability to get meaning across and fully. Porter and Samovar (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) argued that

Communication is controlled by the rules of social and physical contexts in which it occurs, while culture is the rule-governing system that defines the forms, functions and contents of communication. Thereby, understanding the connections between culture and communication is critical to improving intercultural interactions. (p.90)

Difference in cultural background renders communication in the target language difficult. This is remarkably due to the implicit and indirect meanings implemented within utterances (since they have a tie with specific cultural conventions). Some scholars such as Look and Gumperz (1982) exaggerated communicative flexibility. This component is extremely crucial to maintain intercultural communication. i.e. being communicatively competent urges one to “have ability to adjust their communication to meet different situations, with the most effective and appropriate behaviours and expressions” (Chen and Starosta, as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.90). It is further estimated that the dependency on one’s cultural background to interpret the target language messages will resolve/result in communication breakdowns. Not only this, the lack of others’ culture knowledge and one own culture will lead to more than a communication deficiency and render communication a very challenging task to fulfil. Taking this to EFL contexts, Sullivan (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) suggested that communicative flexibility is a necessity in order to push EFL learners’ linguistic behaviour forward by enabling them to overstep the existing cultural barriers between target and host speech communities.

To put it differently, EFL learners faced with the target language finds it quite a dull and challenging task to understand and to be understood i.e. to make the relationship between forms and their interpretations (that are not always direct and overt), therefore, a need to implement a theory and teaching practices to get learners’ attention to such indirectness and ambiguities in the target language is specifically needed. This latter, for instance, is enclosed with the level of performative speech acts and furthermore, with the illocutionary force that is found within the speech act itself. All of those may or will have a serious misconception when interpreted out of its normal and natural contexts. The latent hurdle of inability to seize the exact meaning set forth through the illocutionary force of an utterance and the difficulty that lies in executing speech acts in different contexts call for the need of implementing a SAT theory which enable EFL learners execute a more appropriate and convenient act of communication through speech acts. The already mentioned hurdles are one of many others

that an EFL learner needs to account for and build such an awareness to develop his own communicative skills vis-à-vis the use of the target language. Throssell and Zhao (2011) highlighted those differences in terms of “coverage of speech acts that that people can perform, differences in the diversity of speech acts, differences in rules of performing speech acts, differences in the acceptance of new message and the differences in attitudes to the conversation” (p.91).

Scholars such as (Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Gass & Neu, 1996 as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) asserted that “speech acts should be deliberated as sets of formulas which act upon the same purpose... [where] foreign language learners need not only to acquire speech acts knowledge as part of language acquisition but also to understand the sets of formulas of speech acts to achieve successful communication” (p.91).

2.3.1.4.2 Speech Act Theory in EFL Classes

The need to implement the SAT in EFL classes is the same as to attempt to change the traditional views and practices of language teaching with a more learner-centred rather than teacher-fronted classes. These consider the foreign language learning as that of a matter of linguistically correct structures i.e. to master English in Algerian contexts is to be able to build correct knowledge in terms of its syntax, grammar and vocabulary (linguistic competence). However, the ultimate and true essence of any language, be it first, second or foreign is communication, henceforth, the deficiency in terms of inability to “identify how different communicative functions are realized in English and how these communications can be successful in certain situations” (Porter & Samovar, as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.91) render any language user unsuccessful and farther away from being equated communicatively competent language user (in that language).

In order to get past such language deficiency and establish a more appropriate and tactful intercultural communication in the target language, Throssell and Zhao (2011) believed that “pragmatic capacity plays a critical role in the tactful and felicitous use of a language in different settings. It is the key to success in different interactions” (p.91). Similarly, Peterson and Coltrane (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) argued that “language learners have to know the culturally proper ways to offer greetings, make requests, show apologies, express thanks, agree or disagree with others” (p.91). This knowledge needs to be conveyed in parallel with the linguistic luggage i.e. “language teachers, when teaching English especially in terms of the usage in English in certain circumstances, need to take into

consideration cultural factors and imbed culture in the linguistic forms that students are learning” (Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.92). More specifically, “concerning speech acts performed in English so as to develop their pragmatic competence” (Flor and Uso, 2010, p.10) and henceforth, become acknowledged with the right manner in which such linguistics formats are to be used in their appropriate socio-cultural contexts as Peterson and Coltrane (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.92) believed that “students will master a language only when they learn both its linguistic and cultural norms” and this is significantly associated with speech acts.

Speech act theory in EFL contexts is primordial for ensuring greater communicative outcomes in the language. These assumptions could be achieved within classrooms thanks to the different recommendations given by many scholars to teachers in order to promote their EFL learners’ proficiency mainly the oral one. For instance, Larsen-Freeman (as cited in Throssell and Zhao, 2011) recommended a more functional, meaningful and authentic language use through classroom activities through “the use of various authentic sources from the native speech community [this can happen by utilising] English movies, TV shows, news broadcasts and so on [where] students may be asked to discuss in groups or to write reviews” (p.92). In fact, such exposure to “authentic language of English [means that] learners should practise the target language in real life to achieve communicative purposes” ‘Li, as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.92). Moreover, “engage in authentic cultural experiences where this kind of training and practice can help language learners improve their pragmatic competence effectively” (Larsen-Freeman, as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.92).

In addition to Larsen-Freeman ideas, Peterson and Coltrane (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011, p.92) asserted that

Students can role play some situations ... how an appropriate greeting is used or miscommunication is acted out based on cultural differences. Meanwhile, other students observe the role play and try to identify the reasons for the inappropriateness or the miscommunication. Then, they can be encouraged to act out the same situation using a culturally appropriate form of address (p.92).

Not only this, Throssell & Zhao (2011) maintained that “teacher can integrate cultural features into an explicit topic of discussion associated with linguistic forms to make students aware of those cultural features presented in the language” (p.92).

It is obvious that EFL teaching and learning is not an easy task to be undertaken. However, Richards and Rodgers (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) believed that

if EFL teachers can incorporate the knowledge of speech acts into [the already mentioned] activities through communicative language teaching (CLT) which is presently thought to provide a style of teaching and learning that is beneficial to language learners, language learners may learn and utilize the target language more effectively and successfully. (p.92)

In brief, SAT is not only a theory that emphasizes learning the level of socio-cultural perspective and dimensions that govern language use; many scholars such as Kasper, Schmidt and Richards (as cited in Throssell & Zhao, 2011) asserted that it is rather a means to transmit the politeness principles and strategies embraced within speech acts.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature relating to communicative competence is considered crucial in terms of providing a practical framework to put its theoretical considerations into grounds of application. This was accomplished through the communicative language teaching approach which has attempted, since its early appearance, to set a solid basis that would enable EFL learners achieve their goals with regards to the target language. In other words; to gain the required amount of competence beyond the linguistic limitations by building a socio-cultural identity that meets the requirements of language in use by conditions of society, norms and conventions belonging to the target entourage. However, the role of communicative language teaching from a modern perspective is considered just as elementary, because communicative competence needs more than an approach to take the EFL learners to the next level of mastery of the target language in question. Beyond that, it necessitates a whole functional operation where different elements comprising (strategies, tools, methodologies...) come into play and mesh altogether in an interrelated way to fulfil the teaching-learning objectives towards the language within EFL grounds. An example of one key element that would come up with fruitful learning outcomes will be discussed at large in the second chapter.

Chapter Two

Introduction

Discourse studies have always been consecutively associated with many disciplines such as sociolinguistics, sociology and various other disciplines. From the scope of applied linguistics, discourse studies became largely associated with pedagogy and educational practices. This is mainly from an EFL perspective to bring valuable insights in the teaching-learning processes where teachers are in desperate need to alter their so-called traditional methods to come up with more communicative outcomes vis-à-vis the TL. The set of analytical and conceptual notions and approaches, set forth by discourse analysis, assumedly serve as effective tools in EFL classrooms. Arguably, this would render the EFL learning experience a lifetime opportunity in which learners will be provided with the most appropriate practices leading them for better linguistic behavioural outcomes.

The aim of this chapter at hand is to provide a descriptive overview on the concept of discourse analysis. First, drawing the thick lines that delimit its theoretical and practical frameworks. These, in turn, comprise respectively conceptual definitions that have helped discern its major themes under scope of interest and therefore, leading to seize its primordial domains under study. Second, presenting valid approaches under functional and structural perspectives and drawing their most shared commonest features. Third, highlighting the notion of discourse, as a relevant component, in terms of definition, its spoken and written types along with their distinctive features and prominent differences that make them stand as one whole entity.

All of the presented concepts serve as a reliable framework for other disciplines and constitute a well-elaborated space namely for the pedagogical institution. As a result, the second part of the chapter will be devoted to the role of discourse analysis within the boundaries of the language classroom. First, a brief definition and discussion about the reasons behind the adaptation of discourse analysis in classrooms will be dealt with. Then, revealing its main features that influence the teacher-learner nature of interaction. Second, a small scale description of classroom discourse and classroom interaction will be introduced in terms of difference and level of language authenticity. In the hope that, reflective practical insights would ensure best practices among both parties. Therefore, leading to foster the necessary amount of knowledge and competences to effectively communicate in the target language under a variety of conceptual discourse analysis-based tools with applicable frameworks. Finally, the practical implications of discourse analysis in foreign language

teaching settings will be given the lion share. This will embrace its relevance to enhance a successful act of communication among EFL learners thanks to its presented premise. These, in turn, fall within two explanatory and descriptive fruitful concepts to enable one reach a proper competence

Part One

1. The Concept of Discourse Analysis

1.1 Definition of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a dichotomous term which embraces two words. Such a combinatory construct means “the route to analyse discourse” whether written or spoken superficially speaking. This short simple lexico-semantic dissection divulges the realities encompassed within such a bipartite construct of discourse analysis. Being amongst the most controversial and obfuscatory terms ever, coming up with a finite and well-elaborated definition of discourse analysis seems an exuberating task. Alvesson and Karreman (as cited in Berti, 2017) argued that definitions of such a concept may range from broad as “discourse may mean almost everything” to unclear “the meaning of ‘discourse’ is highly contested and ambiguous” (p.20). Similarly, Fairclough (as cited in Mautner, Hackley, Oswick & Wodiak, 2016) highlighted such a difficulty in terms of definition where he asserted that it is “a difficult concept, largely because there are so many conflicting and overlapping definitions formulated from various theoretical and disciplinary standpoints” (p.17). In fact, even with scholars it has been something extraneously daunting and difficult to handle easily. On the contrary with its subject matter which inevitably needed to be handled with care, so as to enable readers understand much of its concern.

Regardless to its defining framework complexity, there is a huge amount of literature that attempts to provide a clear synthesis about discourse analysis. For the purpose of enriching the current disciplines that would benefit of its conclusions and theoretical assumptions, it remains quite challenging to come up with exact similar conclusions. As a result, the sum of definitions we provide are by no means diversified embracing many views and scholarly works. Carta and Morin (2016) referred to the theoretical diversification of DA’s definition by presenting various scholarly opinions. These, in turn, will give just a brief conceptualization and a thorough picture of our subject under study. The underpinnings of such definitions will outline a considerable range of meanings that lead to draw the big lines which circumscribe its cluster-like nature.

Schiffrin, Tannen and Hamilton (as cited in Nevalainen & Traugott, 2012) pointed out that discourse analysis may fall within three dimensions of meaning precisely as “anything beyond the sentence level, language use and a broader range of social practice that includes non-linguistic and nonspecific instances of language” (p.382). On the same line of thought, Bhatia (as cited in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) asserted that “within linguistics, DA has taken at least two different paths: one is the extension of grammatical analysis to include functional objectives and the other is the study of institutionalized language use within specific cultural settings” (p.4).

Taking these diversified tripartite frameworks to discourse analysis definitions, we find a long list of scholars who viewed discourse from a linguistic perspective. For instance, (Bullocks & Stally Brass, 1977; Gasper & Anthrope, 1996; Milliken, 1999; Campbell 2005 as cited in Carta & Morin, 2016) asserted that “discourse is a stretch of language, larger than the sentence” (p.3). This has linked discourse to longer stretches of language such as text, which is being referred to as either spoken and written stretches of language. This latter idea has been further expanded by works of Fairclough (as cited in Mautner, Hackley, Oswick & Wodiak, 2016, 2016) where he argued that discourse analysis is:

... sometimes used to refer to extended sample of spoken dialogue in contrast with written texts ... focus upon higher-level organizational properties of dialogue (e.g. turn-taking, or the structure of conversational openings and closings) or of written texts. (e.g. the structure of a crime report in a newspaper) More commonly, however, it is used to refer to extended samples of either spoken or written language... Discourse emphasizes interaction between speaker and addressee or between writer and reader, and therefore process of producing and interpreting speech and writing, as well as the situational context of language use. (p.18)

From the above definition, Fairclough embraced discourse analysis from both spoken and written formats. This is purely with an emphasis to their mutual relevance in producing language through various interactional patterns and hence determining the use of language within particular contexts among interlocutors. Similarly, he (2001) asserted that discourse analysis is an indispensable part of our lives where “[it] is concerned with the contexts and the processes through which we use oral and written language to specific audiences or for specific settings” (p.428).

From a social practice and language use perspective, many scholars embraced the idea that discourse analysis is more operational when it is framed within contextual grounds. Phillips and Brown (as cited in Phillips & Hardy, 2002) asserted that “discourse

analysis...contributes to the constitution of social reality by making meaning” (p.4). Additionally, Foucault (as cited in Mautner, Hackley, Oswick & Wodiak, 2016) maintained that one should take the responsibility of how to structure language knowledge with accordance to its social use. This latter can be executed via symbols such as language or images or any other means (linguistic or non-linguistic). Moreover, both scholars Foucault and Gee described discourse analysis as a whole new corpus that not only helps humans use as a means to convey meanings. But also, as a parameter that enables them reflect on their own ways and practices through the language in order to build their social identity. First Foucault (as cited in Mautner, Hackley, Oswick & Wodiak, 2016) asserted that “discourse... constitute key entities (be they ‘mental illness’, ‘citizenship’, or ‘literacy’) in different ways and position people in different ways or social subjects (e.g as doctors or patients), and it is these social effects of discourse that are focused upon in discourse analysis” (p.18). Then, Gee (1999) termed small d-discourse to make a reference to the already wide spread belief of language in use. This latter is an inseparable part of big D discourse used to depict “the ways of combining and integrating language, actions, interactions, ways of thinking, believing, valuing and using various symbols, tools and objects to enact a particular sort of socially recognizable identity” (Gee,2005, p.21). This is believed that it works only in tandem to serve the bigger picture of what is culturally shared and understood amongst the member of the speech communities.

In brief, discourse analysis is being referred to its efficiency in terms of not only creating a bond between linguistic knowledge and its socio-cultural use, but also in constructing and positioning interactants’ social entities. All of this with the aim to enable participants use the language to fulfil its aim with relation to communication.

From a philosophical, more pragmatic-like viewpoint, Blommaert (2005) highlighted thoroughly that discourse:

... comprises all forms of meaningful semiotic human activity seen in connection with social, cultural and historical patterns and development of use.... all kinds of semiotic ‘flagging’ performed by means of objects, attributes, or activities can or should also be included for they usually constitute the “action” part of language-in-action. (p. 3)

This idea was further illustrated by the works of many other scholars whose interest was directed to such ultimate objective. To point out, Simpson and Mayr (2010) maintained that “discourse operates above the level of grammar and semantics to capture what happens

when these language forms are played out in different social, political and cultural arenas” (p.5). Seen in this light, discourse is inevitably inclusive and constitutes a greater entity of the interactions that take place between humans in a socio-cultural context, making use of a variety of means that constitute the actual state of language that is enclosed within practical and dynamic contexts.

In short, the above definitions were merely a flashback into how DA took over the world and became “a common currency in a variety of disciplines: critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, social psychology and many other fields” (Mills, 2004, p.1). . Moreover, how such a concept is increasingly becoming more valuable in a world of diversified concerns. Scholarly works continued to vary from rather too brief, bold and bare definitions towards narrow ones embracing almost every possible conceptions of discourse analysis. Ochs and Shieffelin (as cited in Aronoff & Rees-Miller, 2017) have highlighted that “discourse analysis brings to linguistics and related disciplines a human dimension. It focuses on language as it is used by real people with real intentions, emotions and purposes. It reminds us that “language has a heart” and that language users and linguists do too” (p.459).

1.2 Definition of Discourse Studies

The notion of discourse studies has been dealt with by a considerable number of writers, specifically those interested with more than exerting an analysis of discourse. In comparison to discourse analysis, Flowerdew (2013) asserted that it is “perhaps more appropriate than the older term” (p.1). The reason behind such appropriateness is “because it gets away from the misconception that the field is only concerned with analysis, while it is also concerned with theory and application” (Van Dijk, as cited in Flowerdew, 2013, pp.1-2). In other words, discourse studies is more than a method, it is far beyond that in that it comprises a host of methods that reaches application in a variety of fields and disciplines. Regardless to such a distinction, Flowerdew (2013) felt the urge to add that discourse studies is rather an interdisciplinary activity associated with a long range of realms such as education, communication and many other fields.

In addition to the above definition, discourse studies were given quite a short and rough definition by Renekma (2004) who argued that this discipline is “devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication” (p.1). Furthermore, he illustrated such an investigation by giving this example:

A: Say! There's a good movie playing tonight.

B: Actually, I have to study.

Both utterances are statements that imply an invitation and a refusal. Despite the affirmative structure of statement **A**, no implication to the invitation form is provided (i.e. in a question form). In statement **B**, likewise, no negation was presented to indicate a refusal. As a result, the general aim of discourse studies is “to provide an explanatory description of the intricate relations between forms of discourse elements and their functions in communication” (p.2). To put it differently, discourse studies enable individuals to have a look at discourse either in a spoken or a written form with an eye of an analyst to know about the insinuations put forward by linguistic combinations.

1.3 Approaches to Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis holds two main approaches that fall within the realms of both functional and structural paradigms. From a structural perspective, Schiffrin (1994) elucidated that DA entails the language in its upper case format surpassing the sentence as a language unit and henceforth, comprising utterance or even conversations. Similarly, Babbie and Baxter (2004) highlighted that DA structurally speaking is “the qualitative study of constituent units of discourse and how they are arranged in a system, structure, or grammar” (p.355). In addition to Schiffrin, Babbie and Baxter's conceptions, Conville (as cited in Babbie & Baxter, 2004) provided a simple example of a structural DA. The latter was originally inspired by anthropological works of Saussure and Levis Strauss where it examines discourse for its underlying structure with respect for its binary pairs (such as bat-pat) and concluded that larger chunks of discourse may be understood due to the hidden formats that constitute them.

On the other hand, the functional approach to discourse rests largely upon and with greater emphasis on language use. Various scholarly beliefs were centred on the idea that discourse understanding is firmly shaped by its functions and objectives in one's life. For instance, Schiffrin (as cited in Ramsay, 2008) believed that DA, from a functional approach, is connected with the speech community and their aspects of societal ways of living. She also added that ‘its analysis necessarily intersects with meanings, activities, and systems outside of itself’ (p.41). In addition, Babbie and Baxter (2004) asserted that both structural and functional approaches to discourse are similar in “[seeking] to understand patterns or regularities in discourse. However, [they diverge in that]... a functional approach views

discourse as a socially and culturally organized way of speaking in which certain functions are enacted” (p.355).

There is a variety of theoretical and analytical approaches implemented within the scope of discourse analysis. They flow respectively under six heading as highlighted by Schiffrin (1994):

- Conversation analysis
- Variation approach
- The speech act approach
- Interactional sociolinguistics
- The ethnography of communication
- The pragmatic approach

The above approaches may be classified into structural and functional approaches. Therefore, a brief overview will be presented about each of these vis-à-vis their contributions that led to the formulation and shaping of discourse analysis to its current state. Moreover, these are just narrow terms that refer to a particular kind of discourse analysis (Babbie and Baxter, 2004) Similarly, Schiffrin (1994) elucidated that the origin of each presented approach is usually linked to fields outside the realm of linguistics such as anthropology, philosophy, and sociology. It is worth mentioning that each approach can be applied to a particular analysis and study of a specific issue.

1.3.1 Structural Approaches

They are categorized into two mainstream approaches: variation analysis and conversation analysis. They both concentrate on the various structural categories within texts and sequences of talk respectively. Moreover, they stress the reason behind individuals’ choice of specific sayings and ways of talk with a particular form in a given specific period in time.

1.3.1.1 Variation Analysis

This approach is the fruitful product of the shifts in linguistics comprising variations. Variation means saying the same thing in a variety of manners. Walker (2013) asserted that such an approach to discourse “seeks to understand variation assessing which dimensions of the linguistic and/or social context correlate with the occurrence of a particular variant form” (p.440). In other words, VA functions at both the sentence and discourse level. As far as analysis are concerned, there are two levels. The first tackles the variations at the sentence level and was developed thanks to the works of Labov (1972). The second one was developed

thanks to the work of Biber 1988. In this latter, Labov focused on the bond that unites the social profile of the story teller and the story structure.

Hisnanto (2012) has illustrated the above bond asserting that the narrative structure of this analysis involved six stages: abstract (what the story revolves around), orientation (background information about the story's settings and characters), complication (the prime event of the story), evaluation (the significance of the story), resolution (the flow of events) and quoda (the indicators of the story's end). These complementary stages are considered clear and applicable despite the received complex data that need thorough investigation.

1.3.1.2 Conversation Analysis

Conversational analysis is a term coined by the three sociologists: Jefferson, Sacks and Schegloff during the 1970's. It is particularly derived and influenced by ethnomethodology and the study of talk in interactions mainly real-life natural ones. This indicates that there are other types of interactions highlighted by some scholarly works. Drew and Heritage (as cited in Baker & Ellece, 2011) illustrated such kinds of interactions under the form of legal, medicine, classroom talks, interviews in interactions along with many other institutional form of communicative exchanges.

Among the variety of characteristics and aspects conversational analysis shares is the focus on the organizations of the three pillar elements corresponding to turn-taking, sequence and repair through talk. As far as CA aspects are concerned breakdowns in the flow of conversation via its composing structures is one key aspect that can be seized through interruptions and pauses interchangeably in the outlined written or oral transcriptions.

Despite its different underlying assumptions and insights as a newly emerging approach, CA has its own limitations. First, the lack of reliability on other interdisciplinary theoretical premises led to a dry, rigid and poor analysis fairly restricted to transcripts. Second, the fact of not being able to supplement their conversational interpretations with regards to the psycho-sociocultural dimensions or conventions that govern the talk occurrence.

Regardless to the critics directed towards CA nature and focus, it continued to move forward and develop thanks to the sum of achievements on the scholars' behalf. Baker and Ellece (2011) highlighted Jefferson's contributions by implementing new criteria of analysis which occurs when "[considering] the speaker's volume, intonation, speed and emphasis as well as phenomena like breathing or lip smack" (p.22).

1.3.2 Functional Approaches

Under this paradigm, functional approaches of discourse analysis entail the speech act theory, ethnography of communication, interactional sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Their focus of research deals with one main theme: communication and related ideas such as communicative acts, cultural behaviours shared thanks to the sociolinguistic meanings that are generated during interactions.

1.3.2.1 Speech Act Theory Approach

Even though it was not initially developed to serve discourse analysis, the multiple issues raised within are in line with the principles and main areas of investigations governed by DA. Hisnanto (2012) asserted that this theory is an utterance interpretation rather than a production one. This raised from the belief that language is merely functional where its logical philosophical nature urged quite a considerable emphasis on the organization of conversation among humans. Austin and Searle as the co-founders of this theory tremendously provided interrelated and valuable hints about such a belief. They highlighted as (cited in Hisnanto, 2012) that “the basic focus in analysis should be on the conveyed function and intended meaning and the illocutionary force (communicative force) of an utterance (the function) rather than its form (speech act) grammatical structure” (“Speech Act Theory”, para. 1). In other words, this is what matters when it comes to dealing with language in terms of analysis and understanding of its true nature.

Austin and Searle’s contributions for the development of speech act theory were briefly highlighted by Baker and Ellece (2011). They stated that, Austin equated talk to actions via utterances (speech acts) and conditioned its performance with the necessary adequate felicitous conditions. These, in turn, bring about new meanings formulations through utterances. Additionally, Searle introduced both the speech acts’ classification systems and the indirect speech acts that fall within. The first one falls into five categories of representatives (concluding/asserting), directives (requesting), commissives (promising), declarations (firing someone) and expressive (apologizing). Concerning the second one, the indirectness of a speech act reveals the non conforming relation between structure and function. In other words, the grammatical format does not conform to the intended function.

Example

Sally: It is cold in here

Sarah: Ok, I will close the window.

This example is given to illustrate the above notion of indirectness of speech acts. The primary act of Sally is to request from Sarah to close the window (even if it is not in a question form and it is hidden). The second one is simply the literal statement saying that the room is cold.

1.3.2.2 The Ethnography of Communication

It refers to the description of the socio-cultural communicative habits agreed upon by the members of the speech community. ‘Speech events’ are the new unit of analysis in terms of routines and ceremonial events such as marriages, births and many other situations alike. These were introduced by Hymes and were regarded as primordial units to the ethnography of communication.

This approach was developed and implemented by Hymes (1972-1974) where he highlighted that its emergence was due to the need for “a general theory and body of knowledge within which diversity of speech repertoires and ways of speaking, take primacy as the unit of analysis” (Hymes , as cited in Grenfell, Blackledge, Hardy, May, & Vann, 2011, p.121). Additionally, Atkinson, Delamont, Coffey, Lofland & Lofland (2007) highlighted that this analysis “largely focuses on sequences that are conceived of as distinct from every day talk” (p.289).

In addition, the ethnography of speaking analyses the speech events components that Hymes presented in his **SPEAKING** model. The latter is an acronym which stands for (settings and scene, participants, ends, act sequence, key, instrumentalities, norms and genres). Similarly, Hymes (as cited in Clark, 2007) highlighted that “the communicatory behaviour in a community is the starting point for ethnographic analysis”. He has identified several components of communication that require description, of which the most important are (1) the setting or the context, (2) the participants (as a minimum of speaker and addressee), (3) the topic (s) and attitudes and (4) the goals” (p.52).

Despite the aim of such an approach in discovering rules of appropriateness in speech events, some limitations were found by many scholars. First, the drawbacks of such an approach as Hisnanto (2012) asserted are “the lack of explicitness in Hymes’ account on the relationship between genre and other components of the speaking grid and their expression in language and cognition of the close relationships between speech events and their social or cultural contexts” (“Ethnography of Communication”, para.3). Second, Hanks (as cited in

Atkinson, Delamont, Goffey, Lofland, & Lofland, 2007) presented the critics directed towards the ethnography of communication as follows “ a lack of theoretical unity, for its functionalists leanings, and for its under-estimation of the difficulties of totally describing all the ways of speaking of any language” (p.294).

To put it differently, there is no relation between speech and context in societies but on describing speech practices that are meaningful to a specific society. Then, speech events are shared only among cultures but not on the relation that ties a speech situation to events. Finally, the separation of both speech events and speech situation was a difficult task.

1.3.2.3 Interactional Sociolinguistics

Kroger and Wood (2000) briefly demonstrated IS as follows:

Approach of Gumperz (1982) focusing on the way in which language in social interaction are related to issues of identity construction and miscommunication with an emphasis on variations in social and cultural context. Schiffrin adapted contributions by Goffman (e.g. 1959, 1967, 1984) under this heading because of his general emphasis on interaction, self, face, and social context. (p.215)

It is an anthropological product and a combinatory concept which comprises anthropology, linguistics and sociology (pragmatics - conversation analysis). This approach studies how cultural diversity can impact the contextual use of language. In other words, how people despite sharing the same linguistic knowledge and traits i.e. grammatical structure put into action the communicative event differently.

Baker and Ellece (2011) asserted that Gumperz was the first to popularize international sociolinguistics. It is used mainly to decorticate different meanings and analyses where intercultural communication breakdowns were under the scope of its interpretations grounds. This interest was not the sole key concern of IS. (Baker and Ellece, 2011) stated that Deborah Tannen used IS in a cross-gender analysis to reach its hypothesized objectives.

The above argument is clearly stated by Baker and Ellece (2011) who asserted that socio-cultural knowledge is inherently present within situational cues in the given interactions. However; the set of values and judgement that are externally observed in interactions are only helping traits that lead to an overall meaningful analysis. Seen in this light, Hisnanto (2012) illustrated cues mentioned earlier as “intonation contours, speaking for another, alignment, and gender” (“Interactional Sociolinguistics”, para.2). He also presented

Schiffrin's interest in discourse markers analysis and their basic function in fulfilling conversational coherence.

1.3.2.4 The Pragmatic Approach

It is considered as one of the broadest approaches to discourse analysis. Therefore, it is quite difficult to come up with one single operational definition. Pragmatics is relatively associated with many scholars as Grice (1975), Leech and Levinson (1983), Thomas (1995) and Yule (1996). Their works were mainly emphasizing meaning over form. In other words, Baker and Ellece (2011) asserted that "how we achieve meaning in particular contexts, by taking into account things like how, where and when something is said, who says it, what the relationship between the speaker and hearer, and how we make sense of ambiguous uses of language" (p.100).

At the heart of the pragmatic inquiry is the Gricean principle 'the cooperative principle'. This principle seeks people's interaction by using minimal assumptions about each other i.e. interlocutors interpret the preceding utterance of their preceding counterparts. Moreover, they focus on the manner thanks to which they decide to perform something. This indicates that pragmatics is associated with "the communicative functions of language, particularly examining language and interaction in context" (Baker and Ellece, 2011, p.100). The latter allows a clear description of proper and previous conditions which allow for the interpretations of different inferring items.

In addition to the above fruitful contributions, the pragmatic approach has valuable insights in presenting useful tools to characterize varieties of conversations. This is wholly due to its formulation-nature like which is composed of 4 maxims: the two **Q's** (Quality /Quantity) along with relation and manner which contribute largely to formulate a proper conversational behaviour.

Despite its positive contribution, Hisnanto (2012) asserted that pragmatics has some limitations which can be summed in the inability to meet the requirements when conversations occur cooperatively. This is in terms of power distribution which is assumed to be unequal. Moreover, all of the preceding conditions cannot meet reality due to the level of naturalness in daily conversations. This can be illustrated in terms of disagreement, resistance and power.

1.3.3 Common features of Discourse Analysis Approaches

Thanks to the incorporation of the cognition, culture, and society tripartite within language, DA has found a variety of approaches that incorporate this bond and consider it as one unified corpus. Therefore, revealing the essence of contextual language use in communication among individuals beyond the level of the sentence. It is assumed that discourse analytical approaches are complementary in nature and work at the boundaries of DA.

Schiffrin (1994) elucidated that such approaches meet in one dimension that can be summed under language organization through the message it conveys. Despite such complementarity and conversion, approaches to DA share distinctive features that make them stand on their own as independent entities and disciplines and henceforth, contribute to the richness and vastness of DA.

The different analytical discourse approaches have common views about discourse. Reis and Sprecher (2009) assumed that “[They] combine a set of theoretical assumptions about discourse is and how it is used with a rigorous methodology that determines what kind of data are appropriate and how they should be analyzed” (p.427). Moreover, they asserted that “the distinctions between different versions of discourse analysis have led to many heated debates within the field, particularly where researchers are working with a specific discipline” (p.427).

In addition, discourse analysis approaches in terms of nature and function with regards to the notion of discourse have so much in common as they almost share common beliefs about some notions and principles. From a paradigm of similarities, first they regard language as a social entity where interaction constitutes its primary activity. Second, they involve assumptions that revolve around how language is viewed with the intentions to accomplish an effective act of communication and formulate knowledge about the world outside the cocoon that restricts language within the realm of such approaches. Concerning the conception of “social life”, Baily and Shaw (2009) highlighted such a common view in terms of three sub-points:

First, language and interaction are best understood in context. Insightful interpretations of data involve understanding contexts such as local circumstances (e.g. settings, participants) and/or wider discourse that shapes language and interaction. Second, social reality is socially constructed i.e. all knowledge-including “taken-for-granted”, “common sense knowledge”- is derived from and

maintained by social interactions. Third, to look beyond the literal meanings of language. [i.e. to be] interested in the social functions of talk (e.g. the way that talking about thinking positive bonds members of a group or moves discussions on from difficult topics). (“what do these approaches in discourse analysis have in common”, para.1-2-3)

Seen in this light of social action, Reis and Sprecher (2009) asserted that almost every discourse approach shares the belief that “discourse is treated as constructing or constituting the world ... social action is also produced through being many versions of the world that can be constructed in discourse ... social action is produced through the coproduction of meaning within discourse” (p.428).

Discourse analysis approaches preach the same objective in their functions and essence. Nevertheless, their subject matter of inquiry draws its own absolute idiosyncrasies. Such differences were highlighted by Han (2014) who has namely provided four points in which divergences arise. First, origins and definitions are assumed to be differential. Second, linguistic and interactive meanings, in terms of their assumptions and the role they assign to language during interactions. Third, structural and functional dimensions i.e. the manner in which they approach discourse in their study and analyses. Fourth, their shared views with regards to the dichotomies of “text and context” and their contribution to bring about insights for better understanding of the area under investigation. Finally, the methods thanks to which data is being collected and analysed vary in their scope of limitations and selections.

2. The concept of Discourse

2.1 Definition of Discourse

The term discourse was given a variety of conceptual definitions. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) “discourse [is] a unit of coherent language consisting of more than one sentence”. Additionally, they highlighted that “discourse [is considered] as language in use” (p.4). Similarly, Van Dijk (as cited in Knapp & Daly, 2002) highlighted that “the term discourse is wholly used to refer to a particular form of language use (e.g public speeches) or more generally to spoken language or ways of speaking, such as the “discourse of former president Ronald Reagen” (p.103).

Despite such defining division and classification, most scholarly works criticized those dry definitions on the stand that “a piece of discourse in context can consist of as little as one or two words, as in ‘stop’ or ‘no smoking’. Alternatively, a piece of discourse can consist of hundreds of thousands of words as in the case of a very long novel” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, p.4). Additionally, “the notion of “sentence” is not always relevant-especially when

we consider spoken discourse where the phrase “language in use” is so general that it can be almost meaningless. It presupposes that we know what “language” consists of and that any piece of discourse is an instance of putting elements of language to use” (p.4).

A more specialized yet professional definition of discourse was given by Van Dijk (as cited in Knapp & Daly , 2002). It includes a particular focus on the actual language used in a communicative event where the discourse analyst is essentially interested in “who uses language, how, why and when” (p.103). With much emphasis, Van Dijk explicated that “a discourse analyst might examine talk occurring during encounters with friends, phone calls, job interviews” (p.103).

2.2 Discourse Typology

Discourse can be either spoken or written. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) highlighted that both spoken as well as written discourse is an inclusive component of discourse analysis and shares a variety of formats. First, it can be under the form of a verbal interchange of ideas such as conversations. Second, a formal, orderly and usually extended expression of thought on a subject such as discussions. Finally, it can be a linguistic unit larger than a sentence such as stories or novels.

The above classification is one among many others. Discourse, for instance can be classified following the register, formality level, genre in terms of communicative purpose, style and audience. Moreover, discourse can be monologic, dialogic or multiparty. To put it another way, monologic is when a single speaker or writer (one interactant) produces an entire discourse. Dialogic or multiparty is when the discourse is formulated thanks to the interaction maintained among interactants/ participants (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). In the same light of thought, Holmes (as cited in Tannen, Hamilton and Schiffrin , 2015) pointed out that discourse types are alternatively named discourse genres and fields. On one hand, spoken discourse embraces instances of small talk, humour, narratives along with interviews. On the other hand, written discourse covers email interaction, workplace notes, memos, minutes of meeting and formal letters.

2.2.1 Spoken Discourse

The spoken discourse mode does not only refer to verbatim and purely verbal productions, it is also a part of the whole picture of discourse. Widdowson (1978) argued that “[it] is only a part , [a] dependant part of the communicative event... which employs such

paralinguistic devices as gesture, facial expression and so on... conveyed through the visual medium” (p.73).

Spoken discourse can be demonstrated under a considerable number of formats and structures. Cook (1989) maintained that spoken discourse can be categorized under four main axes which the following figure represents.

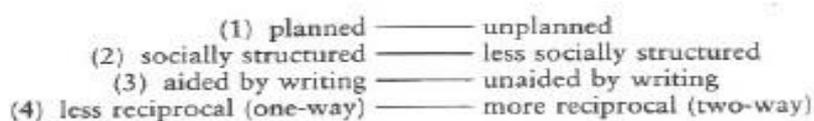


Figure 8. The Clines of Spoken Discourse (Cook, 1989, p.116)

In addition, Cutting (as cited in Hyland & Paltridge, 2011) indicated the relevant types of spoken discourse which are unplanned (where nothing is being organized beforehand by the speakers such as gossips, chat, casual conversation ...etc). Semi-planned (where an idea about what will be discussed by the speakers has already been formulated such as job interviews). Other types may be cross- divergent with written discourse such as semi-scripted and scripted. The first one is where most of its verbatim is written down such as a student/lecturer reading from the power point slides. The second one is almost similar to written discourse since it includes reading aloud written words and sentences such as recorded phone message, news reports either on TV. or on the radio.

2.2.1.1 Features of Spoken Discourse

Spoken discourse in its various formats shares the same distinctive features which can be categorized in terms of three axes: lexical, syntactical and disfluency. Concerning lexicality, spoken discourse encompasses elements such as vague, informal and interactional words. Instances for such wordings may fall under: first, general nouns, noun clusters, verbs, extenders, and vague quantifiers. Second, short names, deilexical verbs, basic adjectives and adverbs, colloquial and swear words and lastly, discourse markers, fillers and hedges, communication checks, confirmations, backchannels and expressions respectively. With regards to syntactical features, we may encounter vague references, incomplete utterances along with informal grammar. Examples of each category can be indefinite pronouns, deixis, and general noun clauses. Then, initial clausal ellipsis, stand-alone subordinate clauses and unfinished utterances. Last, short clauses, headers, tails and vernacular grammar. As far as

disfluency features are concerned, all of repetitions, recasting, pauses, overlaps, and interruptions are commonalities of spoken discourse.

In addition to the above features, Lenk (1998) presented some major characteristics of spoken discourse as follow:

It is usually produced under online conditions... a speaker is faced with the challenge of constantly monitoring herself concurrently arranging her thoughts and producing the appropriate sounds... particularly casual conversation is 'messier'... it constantly offers the possibilities of various interactive developments between the participants... the production of mostly unplanned contributions to casual conversation takes place under the pressures of 'real time' where indication of connections cannot be added to a prior segment of the discourse. (p.18)

2.2.2 Written Discourse

Written discourse is a combination of verbal and non-verbal features that may be embedded implicitly in its consistent formulating nature. Widdowson (1978) emphasized that "a good deal of [written discourse] is purely verbal and although the paralinguistic features of spoken discourse are not directly recorded in the written mode; it is quite common to find non-verbal elements in written discourse" (p.73). Moreover, the non-verbality traits of written discourse were arguably illustrated in Widdowson's words. He stated that "such non-verbal devices as drawings, flow-charts, tables, graphs, charts and so on are incorporated into the discourse and relate to the actual verbal text to form a cohesive and coherent unit of communication" (p.73). Therefore, written discourse implies the visual and non-verbal features in order to facilitate its understanding by the received audience. Its interpretation likewise "involves the processing of these non-verbal elements and recognition of their relationship of the verbal text" (p.73).

2.2.2.1 Written Discourse Features

Written discourse like its counterpart spoken discourse has its own characteristics. The most prominent ones are put forward by Lenk (1998) "[It has] a lengthy production time enabling properly [the connection] of its parts... [It] has an appropriate indexing of what comes next and how it is related to the overall scheme of [discourse]" (p.18).

Chafe (as cited in Strauss & Feiz, 2013) pointed out that written discourse "does not lend itself to immediate responsiveness by others-responses, if produced at all, are inherently delayed" (p.65). Similarly, Strauss and Feiz (2013) summarised some of the most prominent

traits of WD where “it can be used for private self-reflection and rehearsal with no reader intended” (p.65). Moreover, its syntactic organizational traits can be quite distinct from other types of discourses. This can be demonstrated in terms of permanence, spontaneity and liveliness, easiness to be edited and revised throughout the use of symbols and punctuation marks.

2.2.3 Difference between Spoken and Written Discourse

Many scholars have tried to provide a distinctive list entailing most of the differences between spoken and written discourse. Lenk (1998) asserted that all of Chafe (1982), Brown and Yule (1983), Biber (1986-1988) along with Stubbs (1996) gave briefly the distinctive features that make both discourse a unique and independent corpus. Some of them may fall within the perspective that written discourse is constant and static whereas the spoken one is dynamic and changing. Another dissimilarity is the fact that written discourse is remarkably standard, formal, planned, edited, public and non interactive whereas the spoken discourse is casual, spontaneous, private and face to face. Despite the divergence in their own formulating nature, both versions either spoken or written constitute two sides of the same coin which is discourse. (Biber, 1988 & McCarthy 2001, as cited in Lenk, 1988) considered spoken and written discourse as one whole corpus which merges in one another to constitute what Riggensbach (as cited in Paltridge, 2006) “the bigger picture” of language description and use [interchangeably]” (p.20).

Paltridge (2006) emphasized that both written and spoken discourse enclose a data set of divergences which have implications for discourse analysis. These can be listed under the following headings:

2.2.3.1 Grammatical Intricacy

Both spoken and written discourses are structured. However, the spoken discourse is relatively less elaborated and less complex in terms of structure than the written one. In other words, longer and more complex formats in written discourse, whereas, they are shorter and simple in the spoken one.

Paltridge (2006) stated that “grammatical intricacy [accounts] for the way in which the relationship between clauses in spoken discourse can be much more spread out and with more complex relations between them than in writing, yet we still manage to keep track of these

relations” (p.14). Halliday (as cited in Paltridge, 2006) argued that “speech is no less highly organized than writing. Spoken discourse has its own kind of complexity” (p.14). In other words, in spoken discourse, clauses are long and spread out: spoken discourse can be grammatically intricate as well.

2.2.3.2 Lexical Density

Paltridge (2006) asserted that “Lexical density refers to the ratio of content words to grammatical or function words, within a clause” (p.14). He also added that “in spoken discourse, content words tend to be spread out over a number of clauses rather than being tightly packed into individual clauses which is more typical of written discourse” (p.14).

2.2.3.3 Nominalization

It is also labelled **grammatical metaphor** (by Halliday, 1989). “It is where actions and events are presented as nouns rather than as verbs” (Paltridge, 2006, p.15) It is stated that written discourse has a high level of nominalization (i.e. more nouns than verbs). Moreover; spoken discourse tends to have less noun groups than the written one. As a result, Paltridge indicated that “the information in the text is tightly packed into fewer words and less spread out than in spoken texts” (p.15).

2.2.3.4 Explicitness

Paltridge (2006) believed that it is commonly agreed that spoken discourse is less explicit than the written one. However, this view has been rebuffed on the grounds that it is only dependent on the purpose of the text itself. Paltridge estimated that “a person can state something directly or infer something, in both speaking and writing, depending upon what they want the listener or reader to understand, and how direct they wish to be” (p.16).

2.2.3.5 Contextualization

It refers to the extent knowledge of context is needed to interpret a text. Paltridge (2006) asserted that spoken discourse is less decontextualized since it depends on both an interpretation background and a shared situation. This view was criticized by many scholars who emphasized that not all spoken types of discourse apply to such a convention. Nevertheless, other types of written discourse highly depend on a shared contextualized knowledge such as personal letters between friends.

2.2.3.6 Spontaneity

This notion refers to the disorderliness and ungrammaticality of the spoken discourse over the written one. In other words, spoken discourse is organized in its own unique manner. The reason behind such an organization as Paltridge (2006) further explicated “spoken discourse does, however, contain more half completed and reformulated utterances... because [it] is often produced spontaneously and we are able to see the process of its production as someone speaks” (p.17). Additionally, Paltridge (2006) indicated that the patterns in which meanings are conveyed in spoken discourse are numerous. For instance, they vary from topics change, speakers’ interruptions, overlaps, clarification to inquiries and recapitulations. Besides, the bodily movements and intonation use which are quite fruitful when it comes to put spoken discourse in grounds of action.

2.2.3.7 Repetition, Hesitation and Redundancy

What best characterizes the spoken discourse over the written one is the trait of “on the spot” production which grants it with a range of qualifications. These, in turn, are demonstrated in terms of hesitation, redundancy, repetition along with fillers and pauses which enable one to elaborate what to say and produce a more organized form of discourse.

Part Two

3. The Concept of Classroom Discourse Analysis

3.1 Classroom Discourse Analysis

3.1.1 Definition

Many scholars who are interested in teaching and language use in its real contexts have presented DA from many angles and under a variety of perspectives. For instance, Derakhan, Sharbati and Zeinali (2015) believed that classroom discourse is “the survey of language use in social environment... it is a procedure of face to face classroom teaching. [It] refers to the language that teachers and students use to communicate with each other in the social surroundings or in the classroom” (p.240). In other words, CD is more than only oral conversation and communication as it surpasses it to establish a social relationship under educational conditions.

As far as CD is concerned, this term persistently indicates the teachers- students used language as a means to exchange communicative messages with each other in the classroom

grounds. Henceforth, the ultimate medium thanks to which most of the teaching occurs is conversing or talking.

A more inclusive definition to our concept under study is given by New and Cochran (2007) who asserted that CD is “the vehicle through which much of the teaching and learning occurs in educational settings. It consists of the communicative system that teachers set up to carry out educational functions and maintain social relationships” (p.134). In the same line of thought, Hall (2013) highlighted that CD is highly prolific due to multiple theoretical traditions and methodological orientations which led to the foundation of its practical implications. In fact, CD reveals the type of interaction among teachers and students giving futuristic insights that teachers would benefit from in order to guarantee and create an appropriate learning atmosphere where students fell motivated towards language learning.

From another angle, Rymes (2015) emphasized that CD “ranges from the contextual traits starting from talk within a lesson, to students’ socialization reaching the entire schooling institution that render DA worth the application when such contextual features are included within the analysis” (p.12). That is to say, when all the conditions meet together such as talk within a lesson and students’ socialization with teachers and the whole institutional stuff, CDA becomes applicable in order to look thoroughly for better revision and improvement.

In addition to the contextual features, Rymes briefly asserted that CDA could be paraphrased as “looking at language-in-use in a classroom context (with the understanding that this context is influenced also by multiple social contexts beyond and within the classroom) to understand how context and talk are influencing each other” (p.17). What is meant by Rymes’ words is that CDA, considered as an effective tool to work on enhancing the classroom practices, may be as well affected by societal circumstances and backgrounds that students carry with them or by which they are surrounded. This latter could be of a huge impact on the nature of talk, reflections and even learning styles and behaviours, students exert in the classroom. Therefore, “[CDA is used] for the purpose of improving future classroom interactions and positively affecting social outcomes in contexts beyond the classroom” (p.17). In order to alter talk features and patterns that hinders learners’ full engagement.

CDA ensures betterment and even more effecting positively what relates to learners’ backgrounds in terms of social and psychological ways of living. In fact, discourse analysis analyses CD not only in linguistic terms through the study of classroom transcripts which typically assign utterances to predetermined categories, but also penetrates through learners’ lives with an attempt to uncover what kind of learners a teacher has in the classroom and consider them as a society-reflection corpus to facilitate ones’ task in order to have a crystal

clear idea about their differences and learning routines and habits (behaviours). The latter idea was emphasized by Christie (as cited in Soler & Jorda, 2012) who asserted that CDA revolves around the classroom language behaviour that he refers to as “a structured experience”, exclusively unique to CD. Additionally, she highlighted some cross-disciplinary key notions that may be used in classroom practices such as multiple versions of “speech events” such as greetings and storytelling, openings and closures, turn taking and **adjacency pairs (a question and its answer)**. All of these flow in the direction of promoting communication in familiar settings and henceforth attempting to bring a real-life experience to the classroom.

3.1.2 Features of Classroom Discourse Analysis

Thanks to the distinctive features put forward by CDA. It is arguably assumed that a sense of awareness and apprehension is being implemented among classroom participants. This is all with the purpose to create better learning opportunities and improve the teaching-learning processes. In EFL classes, for instance, Strobelberger (2012) among many other researchers claimed that “the increased importance of language in our multicultural societies calls for a detailed investigation of features of CD with the overall aim of improving teaching and consequently learning”. Analyzing CD is at the heart of the study directed to learning (p.3).

To know more about CD traits and what best distinguished EFL classroom interaction, the main features of CD were briefly sketched by Walsh (2006). They fall within four points. First, control of patterns of communication. Second, elicitation techniques, third, repair strategies and lastly, modifying speech to learners. Furthermore, he argued that when following a CLT approach, those features are the teachers’ responsibility since they are the ones in charge for manipulating and managing learners’ abilities to ensure successful lesson that runs smoothly.

3.1.2.1 Control of Patterns of Communication

In EFL classrooms, a variety of communication patterns are quite guided, identified and clearly well-structured. This is due to “[Teachers’] control of both the topic of conversation and turn-taking” (Walsh, 2006, p.5). Similarly, all of (Slimani, 1989 ; Johnson, 1995; Ellis & Breen, 1998 as cited in Walsh, 2006) asserted that teachers in L2 classrooms, whatsoever its nature, lead the interaction and control patterns of communication by taking control of the topic, restricting or allowing L2 interaction and henceforth giving or taking the floor from learners to benefit from such learning opportunities” (p.5).

It has been maintained by Walsh (2013) that the IRE or IRF (Initiation- Response-Evaluation/Feedback) exchange structure is “one of the most important features of all CD ... [which has] a huge impact on our understandings of the ways in which teachers and learners communicate and led to many advances in the field [of CDA]” (p.41). Walsh (2001) illustrated such a recitation script (tryadic structure) as follows:

Extract1.

Teacher: So, can you read question two, Junya. **I**

Junya: (Reading from book) where was Sabina when this happened? **R**

T: Right, yes, where was Sabina. **F**

T: In unit 10, where was she? **I**

Junya: Er, go out... **R**

T: she went out, yes **F**

In the above extract, the teacher used an initiation technique where she asked Junya to read the question. Then, she received a response after that; she received feedback and an initiation in terms of restatement of the question and re-asking the question. Then, Junya answered using an irrelevant verb tense where the teacher readjusted it (under a corrective implicit feedback).

The IRF structure is quite purposeful and useful. Walsh (2013, p.42) summarised its advantages in terms of “[Understanding] the special nature of classroom interaction... why teachers talk so much more than learners: for every utterance made by a learner (R), teachers make two (IF) ... [Seeing how], if overused, CI can become very mechanical, even monotonous”. Additionally, Musumeci (as cited in Walsh, 2006, pp.5-6) highlighted the IRF structure commonality as follows:

... Teachers’ and Students’ expectations regard question and answer routine as appropriate classroom behaviour... Second, teachers feel the need to make learners ‘feel good’. The feedback given by a teacher to a student is important and necessary. Third, the system of power relations in most classes means that it is the teacher who has more of the ‘floor’ owing to asymmetrical roles. Finally, the time constraints facing teachers confirm question and answer routines as the most effective means of advancing the discourse.

To put it differently, IRF structure is adequate in classrooms is adequate in classrooms because it allows teachers and students share information and built social relations in a time-

framed setting. Moreover, these relations are strengthened through feedback when being positively headed towards them.

Despite the positive effects of the utilisation of IRF in classrooms, some scholars panned the nature of interactions and practices by learners on the grounds “that learners are afforded minimum interactional space” (Kasper, as cited in Walsh, 2006, p.6). Similarly, McCarthy (as cited in Walsh, 2006) suggested that learners should be the centre of attention in order to favour more learning opportunities. He also suggested the introduction of listenership in the follow up stage while interacting. All of the proposed resolutions enable learners to engage fully in classrooms inspite of not being the main interactants during the course of communication exchange.

Communication patterns control is just one task teachers are able to do within the classroom. Control is not only directed to discourse, it may as well tackle other areas. Cazden (as cited in Walsh, 2006, p.6) maintained that “...teachers control the topic of discussion; teachers control who may participate and when; students take their cues from teachers; role relationships between teachers and learners are unequal; teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs; teachers talk more”. Similarly, Johnson (as cited in Walsh, 2006) suggested “that teachers control both the content and structure of classroom communication, at least in part, by their use of language. Furthermore, their decision as to whether to tightly control the topic of discussion or whether to allow a more egalitarian discourse structure in which students self- select and have a more equal share in turn- taking, is not random”. In brief, teachers’ presence in the classroom confines necessitates the implementation of variety of facets of language use in terms of linguistic material. This is all with the aim to take the learners’ participation to another level where classroom interaction is seemingly fruitful and evident. As far as language is concerned, “teachers also help create a specific type of linguistic code” (Walsh, 2006, p.7). Therefore, students’ progression in terms of language appropriate use is mainly due to their teachers’ consistency and insistence that led them to where they are now. (Moje, as cited in Walsh, 2006). In fact, Walsh (2006) believed that “teachers’ use of language enabled the construction of pedagogical and content registers; in other words, the teacher gained the respect and co-operation of the class by her use of language” (p.7). He, additionally, assumed that to be successful in using and assimilating the language of the target community is the teacher’s responsibility who promotes both effective and efficient language use.

Kumaravadivelu (as cited in Walsh, 2006) summarised the above idea in his own words:

Getting the best' out of a group of learners – that is, facilitating contributions, helping them say what they mean, understand what they are studying and making sure the rest of the group is able to follow – is dependent on a teacher's ability to make *professional* use of language. This ability has to be learned and practised over time, in the same way that teachers acquire and perfect classroom teaching skills. (p.7)

In other words, teachers need to have an outer thorough and analytical perspective of language use behind the barriers of classroom. This is for the mere objective of bringing a real life experience to the learners to enable them use language in its possible forms and functions. Van Lier (as cited in Walsh, 2013) argued that “the classroom is part of the real world, just as much as the airport, the interviewing room, the chemical laboratory, the beach and so on” (p.43). This is just to indicate that CD is equated with real communication especially when classrooms are the only possible place where the FL is being learnt or exposed to.

3.1.2.2 Elicitation Techniques

Elicitation or eliciting is a multiple variety of sub-techniques used by teachers to get information from their learners rather than to give it directly to them. It is based on different premises. For instance, questioning is one where information is rendered more indelible because it has been self-discovered. Darn (2016) mentioned the importance of elicitation through its implementation in classrooms in the following points:

- Promoting the notion of information exchange among multiple learners.
- Facilitating the learning procedure through the inductive approach, tasks and self-discovery.
- Altering traditional teacher-centeredness and teacher-fronted instruction towards a more learner-centeredness.
- Inciting learners to get engaged in producing language.
- Establishing a variety of interaction patterns in the classroom (pair work- group work...)

Earlier studies emphasized the different types of questions used in classroom used questions, the manners in which they are used and the degree to which they generate communication and interaction among learners and teachers. As far as later studies are concerned, they concentrated on investigating the distinction among the various types of questions vis-à-vis the production of language directed towards communication.

Questions that teachers use to elicit various answers from learners are of three types. Alsubaie (2015) mentioned all of “yes/no” questions, “closed/display” questions and “open referential” questions. Additionally, he emphasized that such questions promote learners’ motivation “through many practical techniques and tools to make materials and tasks more interactive and more learner-focused, [i.e.] encouraging students to take more responsibility for their own learning” (p.29).

The aim of such questions moves in accordance with the teachers’ objectives. In other words, it is up to the teacher to choose what best fits his learners for more participation. (Wintergest, as cited in Walsh, 2006). In the same line of thought, Walsh (2013) argued that “if the aim is to quickly check understanding or establish what learners already know, display questions are perfectly adequate, if , on the other hand , the aim is to promote discussion or help learners improve oral fluency, then referential questions are more appropriate” (p.34). Similarly, it is asserted that “the length and complexity of learner utterances are determined more by whether a question is closed or open than whether it is a referential or display one” (Musumeci, as cited in Walsh, 2006).

In brief, Long and Sato (as cited in Walsh, 2006) argued that questions in EFL classrooms invite non native students to become fully involved and maintain participation in the classroom. Moreover; “CD differs from ‘normal’ communication in terms of the number of questions used and their function to encourage involvement rather than elicit new information” (p.8). The following extract by Walsh (2013) highlights the “more interactional space and freedom in both what they say and when they say it” (p.35).

Extract2.

T: I do you do you believe in this kind of stuff? We talked about UFOs and stuff yesterday

L: no...

L: Well maybe...

T: maybe no and not?

L3: um I'm not a religious person and that's the thing I associate with religion and believe in supernaturals and things like that and believe in god's will and that's so far from me so no =

T: I understand so and why maybe Monica ?...

L4: well I'm also not connected with religion but maybe also something exists but I erm am rather skeptical but maybe people who have experienced things maybe =

T: uh huh and what about you (do you)

From the above extract, we can notice that learners are assigned the floor through “why questions” (referential) and even if they are non-native speakers, they feel free to express their own piece of mind.

3.1.2.3 Repair

It is generally referred to as “error correction” and it is also labelled “error treatment” (by Nafez, 2011). However, the term ‘repair’ was preferred because it tackles all sorts of teacher feedback.(Van Lier , as cited in Walsh, 2006).

Opposing views to repair (as a classroom activity) and its effects on the learners investigated by many scholars. Van Lier (as cited in Walsh, 2006) argued that “error correction should be avoided or eliminated altogether, since it raises the affective filter and disrupts communication ... [and] consistent error correction is necessary if we are to avoid the learner's interlanguage fossilizing into some form of pidgin” (p.10). These views varied between avoidance and necessity. In fact, in formal EFL contexts errors are tolerated and seen as contributors to the learning process i.e. whenever learners make an error and receive the correction either on the spot or by the end of the task or session, they will find themselves gaining experience from such correction and moving forward with their linguistic and communicative luggage. Seedhouse (as cited in Walsh, 2006) asserted that “learners appear to have grasped better than teachers and methodologists that, within the interactional organization of the L2 classroom, making linguistic errors and having them corrected directly and overtly is not an embarrassing matter” (p.10).

Walsh (2006) maintained that repair like any other classroom practices is rather a ritualistic observation away from any criticism considerations. On the same line of thought, Kasper and Van Lier (as cited in Walsh, 2006) argued that “specific repair strategies are preferred or dispreferred according to the teacher's goal, contrasting ‘language centred’ with ‘content centred’ repair... [concluding] that repair is closely related to the context of what is

being done [i.e.] related to pedagogic goals” (p.11). In other words, repair is a classroom activity which depends at large on learners’ personality and teachers’ objectives, methodology and content. Therefore, it is preferable to avoid its interference with the learners’ participation and achievement.

In the following extract, the teacher’s aim is to improve oral fluency where repair is present and overlap with learners’ turn in square brackets [] (Walsh, 2006, pp.11-12).

Extract 3.

T: what about in Spain if you park your car illegally?

L4: ... there are two possibilities

T: two [possibilities]

L4: (one) is er I park my car ((1)) and

T: yes ...if I park ... my car ...illegally again Rosa

L4: (**Laughter**) if I park my car [illegally]

T: [illegally]

L4: police stat policeman er give me give me

T: GIVES me

L4: give me? A little small paper if er I can’t pay the money

T: it’s called a FINE remember a FINE yes?

L4: or if if my car

T: is parked

L4: is parked illegally... the policeman take my car and ...ergo to the police station not police station it’s a big place where they have some [cars] they.

In fact, the teacher’s insistent repair retained Rosa and made her unable to express herself fully and it only when the teacher backs off that Rosa felt at ease and made her communication clearer and freer, and this is all due to the teacher’s imposition and interruption by controlling the majority of the talking time.

3.1.2.4 Modifying Speech to Learners

The importance of teachers’ modifying speech to learners is due to the “greater insights [one will gain] into the interactional organization of the second language classroom and to helping teachers make better use of the strategies open to them” (Walsh, 2006, p.12).

A huge literature is centred around the role played by speech modifications in terms of enhancing learners' use of the language. Some scholars such as Pica, young and Doughty, (1987), Chaudron (1988), Tardiff (1994) and Lynch (1996) contributed, thanks to their studies, to the role played by speech modifications in terms of enhancing learners' use of language. Each one of them emphasized specific relative speech and interactional features and strategies.

3.1.2.4.1 Teacher-Learner Communication

It has been estimated that oral performance improvement is due to the communication held between teachers and learners. This is in terms of the teacher's manipulation of language use according to desired learning outcomes. (Pica, Young & Doughty, as cited in Walsh, 2006).

3.1.2.4.2 Teachers' Four Aspects of Modified Speech

Chaudron (as cited in Walsh, 2006) maintained that teachers commonly alter their speech using a variety of techniques. First, through the utilisation of simplified vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation by using no idiomatic expressions, present tense and shorter utterances. Second, rendering speech forms slower through an exaggerated use of facial expressions and gestures. He equated such modifications to parents when addressing/talking to their children using L1.

3.1.2.4.3 Teachers' Five Speech Modification Strategies

Tardiff (as cited in Walsh, 2006,) highlighted five speech modification strategies to meet the pedagogic goals in the language classrooms through self repetition, linguistic modelling, providing information, expanding an utterance and using extensive elicitation (p.13). All of which are inspired from works of Long and Sato (1983).

They do all relate to questions' gradation and adjustment. The following study has expanded to shed light on "the relevance of scaffolded instruction to learning, whereby language is 'fed in' by the teacher during an exchange, to help learners express themselves more clearly" (Walsh, 2006, p.13). In other words, teachers attempted by all means to assist learners thanks to the use of a variety of techniques in order to generate more talk on their behalf. On the same line of thought, Van Lier (as cited in Walsh, 2006) argued that "learning can only be optimized when teachers are sufficiently in control of both their teaching methodology and language use" (p.13).

3.1.2.4.4 Teachers' Interactional Features

Teachers' Interactional Features are used by teachers to “deliberately to bring about intended learning outcomes” (Lynch, as cited in Walsh, 2006, p.13). These descriptors are typically interactional ways used by teachers to favour more communication and participation. Lynch emphasized such features in terms of confirmation checks (Teachers make sure to understand learners), comprehension checks (teachers ensure that learners understand teachers), repetition, clarification requests (asking for clarification), reformulation (rephrasing an utterance), completion (finish a learners' contribution) and backtracking (return to an earlier part of a dialogue).

Some scholars commented on the utility of such features in classrooms. For instance, Musumeci (as cited in Walsh, 2006) suggested that “seeking clarification and requesting confirmation, by getting learners to reiterate their contributions, learners' language development is fostered rather than filling in the gaps and smoothing over learner contributions, as a means of maintain the flow of a lesson or in order to create a flawless discourse” (p.13). In Musumeci's point view learners are denied pivotal chances for learning and henceforth, Walsh (2006) highlighted that “clarification requests are extremely valuable in promoting opportunities for learning since they ‘compel’ learners to reformulate their contribution, by rephrasing or paraphrasing” (p.14).

The above themes do represent the kinds of interaction which happens typically in EFL and L2 classrooms. For instance, Johnson (as cited in Walsh, 2006) argued that “an understanding of the dynamics of CD is therefore essential for teachers to establish and maintain good communicative practices” (p.4). On the same line, Lynch (as cited in Walsh, 2006) highlighted the importance of such features due to four reasons:

... because of the link between comprehension and progress in L2. If students do not *understand* the input they receive, it is unlikely that they will progress ... Second, is the issue of the influence of teacher language on learner language...activities performed by L2 teachers is to *model* target language for their learners; in many cases, this may be the only exposure to the language that learners receive. The third reason ... is the need for teachers to modify their speech owing to the difficulties experienced by learners in understanding their teachers. Without some simplification or reduction in speed of delivery, it is highly unlikely that students would understand what was being said to them. (p.12)

3.1.3 Advantages of Classroom Discourse Analysis

Classroom discourse is quite important and significant as any other domain of interest. Derakhan, Sharbati and Zeinali (2015) contended its importance in terms of both organization and classroom management where the teacher is the most eminent figure. This latter is responsible for the manipulation of students' learning through adequate content and topics' creation. In other words, to render the pedagogic atmosphere more open for CDA practices that foster students' motivation and hence, to provide them with more chances to perform a variety of tasks in the classroom.

The use of discourse analysis within the classroom confines is useful and advantageous in many ways. The utility of discourse analysis lies in that it functions as a tool to analyze teachers' talk in classrooms. This can be summarised under four purposes:

- To become aware of learners' differences and as share a mutual ground of understanding and tolerance.
- To foster students' academic attainment and their level of aptitude, consistency, involvement and interest in classroom subjects.
- To discern the insinuations behind both linguistic and cultural classroom talk clichés.
- To become enthusiastic about the profession of teaching and generate an internal motivation that lasts throughout the whole professional life-time.

The above purposes assigned to CDA effectiveness were commented on by a considerable number of scholars who are interested in DA within pedagogical limitations. By understanding differences, Rymes (2015) highlighted both causes that led to such a divergence. First, patterns of communication and second classroom communication breakdowns. To put differently, "patterns in how teachers and students take turns, introduce topics, use multiple languages and language varieties or tell stories in different ways" (p.6). Moreover, breakdowns in communication should be regarded more as a difference (a resource for learning) than a deficit. Evidence from a research undertaken by Au (as cited in Rymes, 2015) argued that "native Hawaiian "talk story" genre involves multiple participants talking at the same time, but this style had initially been interpreted as disruptive misbehaviour by non-native-Hawaiian teachers" (p.6). Second, Saville-Troike (as cited in Rymes, 2015) argued that

teachers should adopt a more sociolinguistic view that leads to foster learning and facilitate classroom talk understanding and this happens through the application of DA methods of analysis” (p.8). Third, evidence from CDA led many scholars to reach many resolutions. For instance, Phillips (as cited in Rymes, 2015) asserted that group work project is more practical than traditional instruction because it is found in the sociological nature of learners. Similarly, Au (as cited in Rymes, 2015) argued that full engagement in classroom activities is a result of discourse patterns understanding. In addition, (Cazden, 1972; Heath, 1982 as cited in Rymes, 2015) found out that interactional aspects of learning such as “topic, task who is asking the questions and how they are framed” lead to the construction of reliable responses on behalf of learners. Rymes (2015) maintained that “interactional are likely to contribute to student success” (p.9). Moreover, learning about questioning patterns led to the alteration of teaching patterns and hence motivating more students. Finally, Paley and Gallas (as cited in Rymes, 2015) asserted that “ gathering CD... provides teachers with a medium for collaborative, hands-on, professional problem solving... [where] a sense of professional community and support can make teaching less isolating and promote teaching habits that are exponentially more rewarding” (p.11). In fact, this is all with the ultimate objective to get past societal and cultural barriers between members of the group and therefore, develop positively to meet fruitful educational results.

4. Classroom Discourse Analysis and Classroom Interaction

4.1 Difference

Classroom interaction and classroom discourse are two distinctive concepts theoretically and methodologically speaking. However, they are related on the grounds of the intricate relationship that holds language and learning in terms of pedagogic implications. Walsh (2011) maintained the idea that CD is merely needed to ensure more interaction among teachers and learners by creating chances for engagement and dynamism in the learning process. In addition, the nature of CI in EFL classrooms is quite challenging for both parts in order to maintain a specific kind of CD that serves as an enterprise leading to more educational development and achievement.

Classroom interaction is characterized by its complexity and centrality to the classroom activity (Walsh, 2011). It is asserted that CI “has multiple foci [where] the language being used may be performing several functions at the same time: seeking information, checking learning, offering advice and so on” (p.2). The use of language is at the heart of classroom. In other words, “it is through language that real world problems are solved

... it is through language in interaction that we access new knowledge [and] deal with communication breakdowns ... language is not only a means but the goal of study” (Long,1983 and Brumfit,1985, as cited in Walsh, 2011, p.2). To put it differently, decorticating language with regards to the various classroom practices lead teachers to develop new strategies and techniques to push ahead learners’ proficiency.

Interaction is considered relatively important and therefore, understanding its nature is a necessity. However, Walsh (2006) argued that CI needs further by suggesting improvements. In fact, CI can be achieved by promoting the use of different CD techniques and strategies that urge the enhancement of such an interaction in the classroom boundaries because CD is “a tool [used] for meditating and assisting learning” (Walsh, 2006, p.132). In addition, Sford (as cited in Walsh, 2011) highlighted that “a better understanding of CD will have a positive impact on learning, especially where learning is regarded as a social activity that is strongly influenced by involvement, engagement and participation; where learning is regarded as doing rather than having” (p.158). To put differently, CD does not only promote learners’ interaction, but also it promotes the whole learning process in which learners are supposed to give as much as they have or more.

Classroom discourse and classroom interaction are fairly connected to one another since both meet on the classroom grounds. Therefore, in order to promote interaction and maximize learning opportunities, CD needs to be reflected upon by teachers through their own practices thanks to the change of theoretical perspectives and the implementation of new techniques that lead to more communication and fruitful classroom exchange.

Hall and Verplaetse (2000) highlighted both roles of classroom interaction and classroom discourse in the foreign classroom event. There have been a long set of concerns directed to enhance classroom language learning. Such concerns can be centred on the teachers’ talk role. This can be demonstrated through rendering input comprehensible where learners’ exposure to L2 or FL is restricted to classrooms. Moreover, making students aware of the target language syntactic aspects and ensure their learning. Schmidt (as cited in Hall and Verplaetse, 2000) argued that “such teachers’ talk helps explicitly focus the learners’ attention on the syntactic forms in question and thus facilitates their development of the knowledge and use of these forms in L2 or FL. In fact, teachers are responsible for much learning that happens inside their classrooms. Hall and Verplaetse highlighted that “through their communicative actions in their interactive activities, teachers shape the learners’ developmental paths in the following ways:

...make salient to the learners certain properties of the world constituted within their classrooms, providing models of what they consider appropriate communicative actions and ways to go about acquiring those actions as they do...mediate both the quantity and quality of opportunities the students will have to participate in and learn from activities ... this, in turn, shapes the degree of individual learning that will occur... in and through their interactions with learners, teachers make apparent the standards against which students performance are measured. (p.10)

Similarly, Hall and Verplaetse (2000) maintained that CD is an additional medium along with oral interaction that fosters learning and pedagogical outcomes in EFL or L2 classrooms. This can be entirely devoted to manage and provide the right and adequate interactions among students and teachers and students themselves to “create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development to facilitate learners’ development in the target language in our classroom activities” (p.10). In addition, CD is viewed crucial in EFL classrooms because “many classroom activities are created through CD through - the oral interaction that occurs between teachers and among students- its role is especially consequential to the creation of learning environments and ultimately to the shaping of individual learners’ development” (p.9).

4.2 Authenticity

The theme of authenticity is extremely a significant and sensitive issue with regards to CD in second or foreign language classrooms. This is wholly due to the objectives set beforehand by the majority of learners vis-à-vis the target language in order to achieve fuller mastery of its linguistic and communicative aspects for daily use in different contexts.

According to Aleksandrak (2013) “classroom interaction is sometimes stereotypically viewed as an example of artificial or inauthentic discourse which bears little or no resemblance to natural communication ... [which leads to the belief that] CD is not particularly helpful in preparing learners for unassisted real-life language use” (p.137). In other words, when it comes to real life communication learners would stumble and feel unable to express themselves accordingly.

Due to such view concerning CD, many scholars find themselves concerned with highlighting the thick lines that make the distinction between pedagogic discourse and naturalistic discourse in order to reduce the existing gap that may hinder the natural flow of

target use on behalf of the learners. Among these studies, Majer (as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) highlights the main distinctive divergences that exist between the two versions of discourse.

Characteristic	Naturalistic 12 discourse	Pedagogic 12 discourse
Goal	Non-instructional	Instructional
Function	Social interaction	Class management
Focus	Meaning	Form
Language	Authentic	Pre-planned
Use	Communicative	Pseudo-communicative
Structure	Non-hierarchical	Hierarchical
Style/ register	Informal	Formal
Power relations	Equalized	Unequal
Directionality	Two-way	One-way
Learner role	Speaker	Talker
Talk	Symmetrical	Asymmetrical
Pattern	Information exchange	IRF/ display question
Input	Foreigner talk	Teacher talk/ peer talk
Metatalk	Absent	Frequently used
Output Opportunities	Ample	Limited
Switching to L1	None	Frequent
Negotiation of meaning	Frequent	Rare
Feedback	repair	Error correction

Table 2. Fundamental Differences between Naturalistic and Pedagogic L2 Discourse (Majer, as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013, p.135)

It is clearly obvious that both versions of discourse have no mutual grounds of resemblance not only in terms of the function, focus and use of language, but also in terms of style, nature of talk, opportunities and many other features that grant the instructional discourse its own specific and particular peculiar aspects. Majer (as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) maintained that despite such a difference CD “should not be seen as ‘deviant’ or ‘distorted’ since, in fact, it is authentic in instructional learning settings and constitutes a discourse domain in its own right” (p.137).

One important aspect that received more attention in the degree to which the language presented in EFL classroom is authentic. This matter has a variety of interpretations and

views. One view as Aleksandrak (2013) asserted that authenticity is when “interaction serves as a common ground where the participants work out an interpretation of meaning through condition where “participants of interactive activities in the classroom share discourse rights” (p.136).

Other views such as those of Van Lier (1996) and Widdowson (1998) regards authenticity as a social phenomenon and a construct that is rather connected to the learning tasks and activities in the classroom wherein learners are involved. Both scholars agreed that it is not the use of materials and language that would shape the degree to which a classroom atmosphere is authentic. On the contrary, Van Lier (1996) asserted that authenticity is a combinatory component that unites learners and teachers together with the learning procedure and the language being used as a means to transmit such language.

Wilczyriska (as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) maintained Van Lier’s idea of learners’ involvement in interaction where she presented a model of individual communicative competence that is synonymous to authenticity where it framed through “ a learner’s personality, capabilities, goals and aspirations... manifested in [his own] communicative style and implies negotiating interlocutors’ objectives and statuses in interaction” (p.136). Seen in this light, “three cerebral functions crucial in developing foreign language competence (thinking, speaking and learning) are activated through such authenticity.(referred to as learners’ self-regulation)

The above interpretations of authenticity in EFL language classrooms need a shift in the orientation of classroom practices. From a teacher-centred traditional classroom to a more learner centred classroom where different modes and forms of interaction are diversified to meet the objectives and requirement sought by the nature of language which is purely for communication giving “a well-balanced distribution of talking rights... to multiply their learning initiative” (Aleksandrak, 2013, pp.136-137).

Another important study which aimed at enhancing EFL learners’ communicative competence in the target language was conducted by Pawlak (2004). Such a study stated by Aleksandrak (2013) utilised a few number of key variables such as “ turn-taking, discourse structure, interaction types, teachers’ questions, students’ communication strategies, effectiveness of group work, use of the learners’ first language [and] repair techniques” (p.138). This is with the mere aim, to check their importance in terms of improving classroom interaction to generate more communication. Surprisingly, it was the learners’ involvement,

teaching styles along with the lesson's format quite efficient in promoting classroom interaction rather than teachers' background, experience and presence of native speakers in the classroom settings.(Pawlak, as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) Furthermore, "teaching the patterns typical of casual conversation may hinder rather than foster language development and reduce students' speaking opportunities, particularly in the case of less proficient or less confident learners and result in excessive use of the native language when communication problems are encountered" (p.138).

In fact, teachers need to keep their classroom practices implicit and rather simple and built on clear instructions so as to avoid confusion on their part due to their linguistic deficiency. The latter will urge them to rely on L1 and distort out of the normal flow of learning the target language in which L2 is mostly required when using the language for communicative exchanges. Seen in this light, Piotrowski (as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) suggested that "reducing the use of the first language to the minimum, since its excessive use functions as a barrier which makes learners communicate below their actual level of competence and does not allow for exploiting the potential of metacommunication in the target language" (p.139). (Pawlak, 2004; Piotrowski, 2011 as cited in Aleksandrak, 2013) highlighted the concentration on a more 'meaning-focus and form-focused instruction' i.e. both the meaning and form of utterances and also on the process of performing a specific task in order to "provide students with communicative skills and ensures the sufficient amount of explicit instruction or corrective feedback necessary for language development" (p.138).

5. Practical Implications of Discourse Analysis in Foreign Language Teaching

A change in perspective and scope of interest in language teaching, especially in L1 and FL is mainly "reflected in the incorporation of specialists in discourse analysis and pragmatics... and the inclusion of university courses under these titles in the curricula of future language teachers" (Cots, 1996, p.78). As a result, the final goal EFL learners should reach is to acquire full communicative competence that reflect a good mastery of sub-competences and skills that would urge them to communicate effectively and appropriately in that language.

Language, from a discourse analysis point of view was highlighted by Verschueren (as cited in Cots, 1996, p.78)

As a means for the human being to adapt to psychological/cognitive, physical and socio-cultural circumstances ... [for instance] grammatical choices that people make when communicating constitute just one level of adaptation. Others levels of adaptation have to do with choices of sign system, channel, code, style, speech event, discourse, speech act, propositional content, word and sound.

To put it differently, the grammatical competence being shed light on the traditional classes is just one part of the whole picture and needs to be assisted by other competences to render language its real value. For instance, pragmatic competence needs to take the lion share in EFL classes so that learners build on their awareness and competence towards the target speech community. However, this is only an assumption since “pragmatic information has usually been presented as an auxiliary component which is to be used only when grammatical explanations are difficult or impossible” (Cots, 1996, p.78). She, additionally, maintained that such a competence “has become equivalent to the topping of an ice-cream: it is nice if we can have it, yet it is not the ice cream”.

5.1 Premises for Bringing Discourse in an EFL Pedagogical Setting

Bringing a discourse framework into EFL classrooms is still a very challenging and frivolous task achieve discourse analysis approaches language from rather a functional perspective i.e. language is solely used for communication. The only tie that unites theoretical assumptions with educational practices is the language teaching approaches. For instance, communicative language teaching (CLT) succeeded to bring such awareness but still fails in terms of their integration in their classroom practices and this is mainly due to “the absence of systematic descriptions integrating all the levels of adaptation into pedagogical materials” (Cots, 1996, p. 79).

Regardless to the absence of materialistic insights, discourse analysis has attempted to beget some relevant premises to promote the teaching-learning procedure in EFL settings. Cots (1996) summarised three basic premises that would improve communicative-performance essential to language learning:

- Context, language variation and real data
- Negotiation of intentions and interpretation

The above notions are of a huge interest since their introduction through specific classroom communicative tasks would strongly influence teachers’ pedagogic practice and therefore become a real basis of both language syllabus and evaluation system (Cots, 1996).

She further estimated that knowledge about language will inevitably enable the adaptation of a discourse view in language teaching and henceforth influence both syllabus and teaching methodology.

5.1.1 Context, Language Variation and Real Data

Discourse analysis accounts for “the notion of context precisely as possible and trying to find out in what way language use is influenced by the different contextual aspects and, at the same time, how these same contextual aspects can be altered by the action of the speakers” (Cots, 1995, p.81). In other words, in order to reach a successful communication, participants need to manipulate different need to manipulate different language uses, variations and functions. McCarthy and Carter (as cited in Cots, 1996, p.81) asserted that the “world of discourse [needs to be divided] into different genre which at the lexico-grammatical level are realized by registers. In this sense, a genre is considered as a particular «communication format» defined according to its social functions” (p.81).

Teachers are equipped with a thorough piece of advice to improve their teaching practices. This can be done in a variety of ways we have already mentioned. In fact, “the best (and perhaps the only) way to contextualize language is simply to use real instances of language use, in which the full potential of language can be appreciated by looking at its social effects” (Cots, 1996, p.81).

5.1.2 Negotiation of Intentions and Interpretation

In foreign language teaching, conceiving a “communicative event be as the locus where meanings are created through negotiations of intentions and interpretations” (Cots, 1996, p.81). EFL learners in the classroom have to be involved in such communicative classroom situations where the meaning should prevail more than linguistic structures themselves. This can be done through a specific set of devices that their ignorance may a bit hurdle or hamper the flow of acquisition to an FL learner. Bygate (as cited in Cots, 1996, p.82) emphasized some strategies and techniques any EFL learners should take into consideration when ensuring that meaning will be well-established and maintained in the flow of communication involving both interlocutors. For instance, by the speaker to “announce one’s purpose in advance, clarify meaning/intention by summarising, rephrase exemplify or by the listener, indicate understanding by gestures or verbal tokens, ask for clarification, indicate current interpretations. Cots (1996) reinforced such strategies through illustrations

which go under “choosing the same style, register, dialect or discourse routines... requesting clarification or supplying backchannel, use of paraphrase and metaphor” (p.82).

In addition, many scholars asserted that engaging in communicative activities such as problem solving or information gap activity, increase EFL learner’s competence and enable them to use the target language at large. Moreover, EFL learners need to reduce the risk of misunderstandings that may result from the difference in cultural values and how things are executed via the target language. This can be solved by implementing a speech act theory in the classroom practices by teachers.

Regardless to the above discussed notions and devices, there should be a need to promote linguistic awareness among EFL learners and even teachers. This is wholly due to as James and Garrett (as cited in Cots, 1996) argued that this procedure does “not only enhances performance but also increases the learners’ empathy toward the language studied, develops social and cultural tolerance and forces general cognitive capacities” (p.83).

By the same token, the task of rendering discourse applicable and of useful implications in EFL classes would be of crucial usefulness to foster language awareness and lead to better communicative outcomes on part of the language users. This procedure can be found in a theory of human and social action moving away from “a prescriptive emphasis, telling the learners what is right and what is wrong instead of telling them what is appropriate and what is not according to the context” (Cots, 1996, p.82). To put it another way, teachers feel quite unsecure and uncomfortable when trying to follow a discourse-based approach to language teaching in their EFL classes. It feels like they are getting out of their zone of comfort or as Colt highlighted “afraid of losing the power and security that grammar confers still seem excessively reluctant to adopt a discourse approach to language in which the concepts of wrong and right become very diffused” (p.83).

5.2 Discourse Analysis Conceptual Classroom Tools

The inclusion of discourse analysis conceptual tools in the classroom is of fruitful outcomes vis-à-vis the objective sought within EFL classrooms and teacher so as to enhance communication. It is estimated by a huge number of literature and scholarly works that teachers need not only to alter their linguistic teaching material and practices but also to reinforce them with those based on a discourse approach. Cots (1996) illustrated some of the adjustments brought to traditional practices as follow:

... the same very same text which has been used to introduce or reinforce a grammatical structure or a function could be used, instead, to talk about the type and distribution of speaking turns (if it is a dialogue), the levels of politeness, the construction of coherence and understanding by means of specific linguistic tokens of the type of communicative/social situation. (p.84)

Discourse tools can be classified into descriptive and explanatory. The following concepts need to be included in EFL classrooms not only for the sake of teaching the target language but also to make EFL learners' reflect their own language, culture and the different contextual use they may encounter and henceforth build upon such comparisons to move forward with their language proficiency.

5.2.1 Explanatory Concepts

5.2.1.1 Principles

These principles fall within the social dimension of the language as it directs EFL learners' attention to the insinuations put forward by the target language. Moreover, they serve as useful tools to put the language into action and function "as part of the individual's communicative competence, the way in which the actual production of utterances is affected by the existence of a series of constraints originated in the physical, psychological or social context" (Cots, 1996, p.91). Such norms are among the most relevant representatives that unite grammar units to their context of use in terms of communication exchange.

Instances for such principles are Grice's cooperative principle (1975) which comprises four maxims (quality, quantity, relevance and manner). Then, Leech's politeness principles which entails six principles (tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy) should be implicitly drawn attention to because EFL learners need to be exposed by their teachers to such exceptions in terms of language use. In other words, "we are not only interested in the effective transfer of information but also in the maintenance of social harmony" (Cots, 1996, p.92).

An example of the above principles and their maxims can give a clearer idea of what is being explicated above.

A: would you like to go to the cinema, tonight?

B: Well, I have an examination, tomorrow.

(B) might be conceived grammatically wrong by EFL learners, because it does not follow the rules of yes/no questions. However, from a Gricean perspective this answer is quite

relevant because it is an indirect decline of the invitation. Therefore, the teacher's role is to explain that this answer is quite correct as it falls within the realm of daily use of language in its real contexts.

5.2.1.2 Self Presentation

Teachers can benefit from such a concept in the EFL classrooms through using the language in activities in which learners “not only carry out transactions of goods or services but also to use their interpersonal skills in defining the situation, enacting a self identity, and using strategies to accomplish other interactional ends” (Cots, 1996, p.93). For instance, some strategies which relate to such a concept should be taught through linguistic structures that learners would make use of when conversing. Avoiding assertiveness, explaining and justifying along with revealing one's inner self are all strategies used to enable EFL learners preserve their public image while interacting. Tannen (as cited in Cots, 1996) argued that when one expresses his wishes, likes, dislikes and opinions he relies most of the time on both personal experience and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, he has to be guided within the target speech community norms by the teacher so as to sound socio-culturally appropriate.

5.2.1.3 Communicative Strategy

One of the strategies that should be drawn attention to in EFL contexts and that may well exist in L1 contextual use of language. Therefore, the fact of initiating and maintaining a conversation necessitates “rather the implementation of a plan or a communicative routine in which a series of verbal actions are mutually dependant and they all contribute to the achievement of a specific goal” (Cots, 1996, p.94). As an example, when asking for directions EFL learners should learn that we may not go directly and say “can you show me the directions to ...?” However, in real-life contexts we may “[include] utterances with the function of attracting someone's attention, explaining/justifying oneself and thanking” (p.94).

Additionally, the communicative plan of such a request and many others as well contain different phases such as greeting, preparation, meeting, leave taking and many others in order to sound more effective when executing such a language function.

5.2.1.4 Cultural Inferencing

In EFL contexts, this concept should be presented within classroom practices and tasks. This is with the purpose to add to the awareness of the target language by EFL learners. This is achieved when the meanings of grammatical structures cannot be explicitly grasped

unless learners formulate inferences in order to obtain the appropriate elucidations. This process plays “an important part, offers us a way of introducing specific socio-cultural knowledge not as an extra component of a language course (the «civilization and culture component») but as an essential aspect of the ability to communicate in real contexts” (Cots, 1996, p.95).

One example of such a process is demonstrated in the following utterance by Cots (1996): “I went into the restaurant; I paid my meal and then looked for a table to eat it”. The following example when presented to EFL learners may sound irrelevant and incoherent because humans are not literally able to eat a table. However, it is due to the unfamiliarity with fast food restaurant convention where the meal is paid beforehand. This is the reason behind the use of such an expression “a table to eat it”.

5.2.2 Descriptive Concepts

5.2.2.1 Turn Taking

When the rules of turn-taking are implemented in EFL interactional tasks, they render the conversation more effective and efficient. These are considered as additional rules to those of grammar in order to render the “conversation a cooperative enterprise in which the participants must perform in a coordinated way” (Cots, 1996, p.85).

The rules of turn-taking and their instances are summarised by Cots (1996) under interruption (Sorry to interrupt, but..., if I could just come in here..., By the way...), showing attention and understanding (really?, I see , m'm), checking understanding (do you see what I mean? , right? , am I making myself clear?...), the use of fillers and hesitation devices (well! how shall I put it, let's see now...) along with adjacency pairs (conversation routines) such as (how do you do? , that's alright, yes, please, it was nice meeting you too...) to maintain cooperation. These are “fixed sequences of turns with invariable expressions which appear at specific stages of an interaction or in given situations like service encounters, telephone conversations, conversations at parties, lessons, etc)” (p.88).

5.2.2.2 Topic Management

The ability to manage a topic within an EFL classroom, for instance is something extremely challenging for learners. Therefore, teachers need to provide learners with the right tools that help them communicate using the target language without hurdles. These tools are referred to as topic management markers where they “contribute to the efficiency and

effectiveness of the message by signalling explicitly the relationship in terms of topical coherence between the different parts of the message” (Cots, 1996, p.88). Examples of those markers are topic shift (by the way, I nearly forgot, on an entirely different matter, now...), summing up (what I’m saying basically is, to sum up...), structuring (to begin with, finally...), paraphrasing (what I said was, I mean...), and exemplifying (for instance, take,...)

Topic management usefulness in educational confines lies in the apprehension of two main notions: cohesion and interaction. Cots (1996) described both respectively saying that “coherence is verbally created by the participants in a communicative event... what people talk about, how they talk about it and how long constitute three very important aspects of communication” (p.88).

5.2.2.3 Communicative Event

EFL learners need to be exposed to a variety of communicative events. This is due to the different instances of communication they get exposed to and the linguistic structures they are required to use to fulfil their needs. It can be even challenging as it pushes their competences to the extremes where all the socio-cultural, physical and verbal contextual elements should be taken into consideration vis-à-vis the general objective of interaction. Therefore, conversing in such situations is “not only the individual’s decision to convey a message but also the contextual constraints which appear in a specific communicative situation” (p.89). For example, the channel is one trait of communicative events that give hints about what should be used as linguistic structures for exerting communication and understanding it.

A: Mr. Walker? Which department is he in?

B: Accounts.

A: Hold on... trying to connect you... alright... you’re through.

The use of the expression “trying to connect you” indicates that this is a phone not a face-to-face conversation. Therefore, the nature of the communicative situation urges the learner to choose the appropriate language that fit both linguistically and socio-culturally.

In short, EFL learners need to be exposed to activities not only from their structural perspective i.e. grammar rules, subject-verb agreement, verb tense...etc but farther from a functional angle though tackling the above notions implicitly to render learners generate a form of assimilation with the target language.

Conclusion

The current chapter attempted to provide a thorough overview on the notion of discourse studies and its relevance mainly to the practices carried within EFL learning-teaching contexts. It is of obvious evidence, that there has been no single solution to implement a particular effective teaching theory that would enable learners meet their requirements to convey communicative functions in the target language. However, discourse analysis through its practical aspects and various analytical approaches happen to be used as a tool or a means to reflect upon the practices of both teachers and learners and thereupon bring improvements and fruitful insights that can be beneficial to foster first the relation that unites both pedagogical parties (teacher-students), second, bring about relative teaching practices and materials that could promote learners' communicative competence and finally, ensure more beyond than using the language inside the classroom setting, but furthermore in a real intercultural world where more than linguistic competence is sought but a combination of socio-cultural, pragmatic competences along with the development of analytical and critical thinking that foster and generate an effective and efficient use of the target language.

Chapter Three

Field Work

Introduction

The following chapter deals with the research study from a practical perspective. It is completely devoted to the presentation of the field work in terms of the pursued research procedure. Therefore, the first part of this chapter briefly deals with a presentation of the nature and aim of the research methodology, study participants, tools and their description used to grant the current research work an aspect of validity and reliability in terms of results and conclusions.

The second part of the chapter is devoted to the analysis of the data gathered from each instrument. Moreover, a thorough discussion of results and interpretations will be provided in order to reveal the research findings that have been remarkably witnessed while conducting this study.

Afterwards, a general conclusion comprising a list of general recommendations will follow from our findings and therefore, would serve as a beneficial ground for future research on one hand and as a background for EFL teachers and learners educational practices on the other.

Part One

1. A brief Overview of the Research Procedure

The research methodology design is an extremely important feature to ensure the ordinary flow of the research investigation and procedure. Therefore, the identification of multiple points is required so as to build a well-structured practical framework. First, the current research followed a descriptive method design. This is merely implemented so as to test the projected hypotheses and answer the given questions relevant to the actual topic under exploration.

The primary goal set forth in this research study is to prove the ways thanks to which discourse studies can enhance EFL learners' communicative competence. It was specifically targeted to second year students of the English Division at MKU, Biskra with a sample of 116 students. This selection followed a 'single random sampling' where each EFL second year student is assumed to have the same equal opportunity of being singled out due to their approximately similar educational background in the FL.

Additionally, a number of six English teachers out of forty-one teachers were selected according to three main criteria: relevant background experience, knowledge and domain of involvement with the area related to our subject of study.

As far as the data yielding is concerned, three research instruments were utilised: a semi structured students' questionnaire, a semi-structured teachers' interview and a non-participant classroom observation. The first instrument was administered to the already mentioned sample comprising twenty-one questions.

Interviews, on the other hand, were utilised to give in-depth views about the targeted research work spectrum. Moreover, to reflect teachers' professional and personal viewpoints about the relation that holds this research problem with their teaching experience and knowledge. As a result, shed light on the possible resolutions that may be put forward in finding relevant answers to the provided hypotheses and questions.

Concerning classroom observations, attendance was fairly devoted to the oral expression module so as to have a closer look at the EFL teaching practices and learning procedure from two angles. The first is through observing teachers' practices and teaching routines whereas the second is through observing EFL learners' reactions and attitudes towards the presented material. Moreover, observing their linguistic communicative behaviour when using the target language through tasks and activities and as a result, attempting to give more insights and perceptions about the complementary roles that both EFL teachers and learners execute. This is all with the aim to ensure an adequate atmosphere leading henceforth to the promotion of FL proficiency.

2. Description and Administration of the Research Instruments

2.1 Description of the Students' Pretested Questionnaire

The first draft of the questionnaire, being pilot tested, comprise several elements in terms of layout. The overall heading consists of general information about the faculty specialty, the department and the division at MKU, Biskra. Then, a brief descriptive paragraph includes the research study title and the purpose behind such a data collection inquiry. In addition, a simple catchy note was submitted to remind students that this is anything but a test and hence opens the floor for a variety of personal opinions to be shared with the aim to serve the validity of research. Finally, to guarantee the confidentiality of responses in case they provide sensitive answers.

2.1.1 The Piloted Questionnaire Format

The students' pilot-tested questionnaire is divided into four main sections on a five-page layout. Question items diverge between open and closed ended questions. The former "allows participants to respond in their own words... [the latter] forces participants to choose from a set of predetermined responses" (Christensen & Johnson, 2010, p.169). Therefore, the current questionnaire is a 'mixed questionnaire'. The open-ended questions are just provided for EFL students to give an additional option that was not mentioned or to briefly give justifications to a specific answer. This is only to yield responses and know their positions vis-à-vis the provided question item. Moreover, the multiple choice tables with free columns blanks are arranged on the left side of the page leaving space for responses to be ticked at (within the appropriate columns). The questions' instructions are written in bold type in order to highlight the questionnaire items for the respondents. On one hand, the questions were assigned a unique number so as not to confuse the participants. On the other, options from which they have to choose are labelled using alphabets so that it will facilitate the coding and analysis procedure.

The questionnaire is composed of four sections. The first section "students' background information" is made of five questions. The nature of questions is factual (those of gender and facts about learners' language learning history by Dörnyei), and attitudinal (comprising values, beliefs, opinions and interests). They respectively deal with 'gender', motives, reasons, abilities and skills that EFL students possess.

Section two labelled 'Learners' attitudes towards using English for communication' entails eleven questions. All of which revolve around the ways EFL learners' handle the target language in and outside of the oral expression courses despite the nature of their involvement, on one hand. For instance, the frequency of their participation in class and the use of the mother tongue. Moreover, the different strategies they use so as to cope with such communication breakdowns. On the other, attempting to know EFL learners' opinions about the traits of fluent speakers. Additionally, getting their reflections and perceptions about the OE classes where they are exposed to L2 and determining the kind of linguistic material they are projected to. The category "others" was used to as a supplement to the EFL learners' additional comments especially when they cannot find their sought option within the provided options.

‘Learners’ difficulties in the oral expression sessions’ is the name assigned to section three of the questionnaire contains five questions centred on the hurdles faced by students in the OE sessions in terms of nature of activity and practices. Moreover, the level of difficulty certain activities impose especially when dealing with multiple types. Therefore, delimiting the areas they would like to improve in relation to their FL proficiency. The latter enables them to sound more appropriate than correct when using the target language.

‘Discourse Studies implications on the classroom interaction between teachers and learners’ is the fourth primordial section of the whole questionnaire. This is mainly due to the nature of statements that dig within the socio-cultural dimension of the FL. Ten statements are presented under a likert scale model, ranging from a scale of strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree to strongly disagree. It entails ten statements.

This piloted questionnaire was supplemented with an opinionnaire presented after the final fourth section. It contains three main ‘yes/no’ questions; namely concerning the difficulty, the ambiguity, the length and the layout of the questionnaire items. In addition to two other sub-questions; which require the participants to mention the specific number of the particular sections and questions in which they face a challenge.

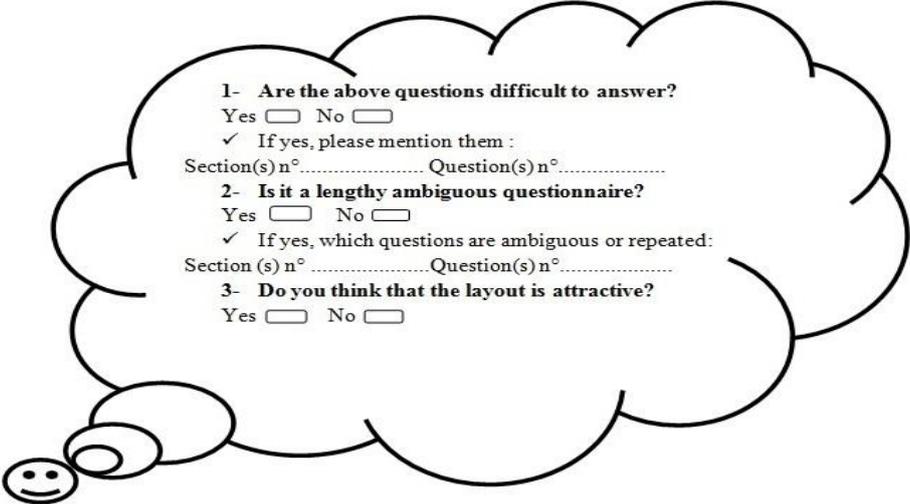


Figure9. A screenshot of the printed opinionnaire in the pretested version of the questionnaire.

The aim behind the opinionnaire implementation is to enable the researcher to narrow down the hurdles faced by the students. This can be done through the restatement of the question items’ structure and use of a more simplified language. In fact, to avoid ‘the fatigue

effect' (By Dorneiy, 2003) that may impact negatively their responses due to boredom, length and ambiguity.

2.1.2 Administration of the Pilot Tested Questionnaire

It is generally known that during the phase of questionnaire generation, a preliminary version is recommended. Therefore, it is extremely challenging to depict signs of ambiguity and confusion unless it is pretested for revision before its actual administration. It is thanks to the rendered feedback that the researcher would qualify the questionnaire as workable and valid. More precisely, a pilot study manages to explicate all the items and terms and thereby clear all sorts of ambiguity.

The pilot study was practically undertaken before the actual administration of the questionnaire. This was intentionally designed to disclose the issues encountered in the formulation of the questions in terms of nature and orientation.

The questionnaire was distributed in a regular session (amphitheatre B) on a total number of ninety-two second year students, randomly chosen to be pre-tested out of the whole population. Thanks to the presence and guidance of the teacher, participants were politely requested to fill in the questionnaire till the end before leaving.

Excerpt1.

T: Do not leave before filling in the questionnaire.

SS: yeah!

T: ... and once you finish you may leave and thank you for your patience. But, do not leave before you answer, ok?

SS: Sure, Sir.

After the teacher's intervention, students were thanked beforehand and introduced to the importance of the research and its purpose. Afterwards, they were shown the manner in which they will proceed while answering. The estimated time of the questionnaire completion was about 16-30 minutes overall. However, this remains dependent on each student's level of interest and mastery of the target language.

The pilot testing phase was recorded via audiotape to record what students say out loud while reading and answering the questions. This technique is sometimes referred to as ‘the think aloud technique’. Johnson and Christensen (2014) highlighted the usefulness of such a technique in:

determining whether participants are interpreting the items the way you intended... listen to how the participants think about the instructions and the items in your questionnaire... determine whether any of the questionnaire items are confusing or threatening. Asking participants to tell you when they reach an item that is difficult to understand and then ask them to paraphrase what they believe the problem item is stating or asking. Determine whether your participants understand the items in a consistent way. (p.183)

As far as ambiguities are concerned, after the first four minutes, a respondent asked the researcher to explain further the nature of activities mentioned in Q4 (Section 2, for instance, meditation). Another question was whether it is an obligation to fill in ‘others sections’ or it is only needed when the above choices do not match their preferences. Moreover, when the question concerns the teacher practices in the EFL classroom, participants asked whether it applies to the OE module or other modules. In addition, among participants, one student asked about the meaning of ‘socio-cultural appropriate sentences in English’ (Q4/Section3). Finally, questions about the wording in section four arouse especially with new terminology such as: linguistic structures, conversational situations, feedback, intercultural communication, authentic language. Furthermore, there were considerable remarks about some word meanings such as ‘adjust, maximize, implement, overcome’ that were not at the participants’ disposal.

The feedback rendered from the pretested questionnaire indicated that some questions were totally discarded. Not only those of open-ended questions, but those which formulate the most important part that serves to answer the research hypotheses and questions such as statements of sections four and question 3 and 4 of section 3 and 2 respectively. Moreover, some statements were not circled but ticked at in section four, and those of section four were not wholly answered.

A considerable number of constructive comments in the opinionnaire section proved to be extremely fruitful. It provided insights about what should be taken into consideration while reconstructing the content of the final administered questionnaire draft. For instance, participants suggested the paraphrasing of specific questions, namely those of section four due

to their difficulty, vagueness or even ambiguity. Moreover, some remarks were solely made about the questionnaire length and its attractiveness.

2.2 Describing and Administering the Final Draft of the Questionnaire

2.2.1 Describing the Final Draft of the Questionnaire

The final draft of any questionnaire is anything that has been pretested for further revision and adjustments. This final version contains almost the same structure and format (i.e. an easily legible and clearer format). For instance, it begins with an introductory statement where a general instruction is provided to be followed by respondents in order to know how they should go about answering the questionnaire items (for instance, providing a (tick) or a cross (x) on choice). This was followed by a post scriptum (p.s.) remark to draw their attention that only OE teachers are concerned. Then, the body of the questionnaire comprised the questionnaire items and a final note to thank and appreciate the respondents' cooperation.

Despite the similarities between the first and final self-administered drafts, differences and adjustments in terms of change to its body were introduced to its content of questions.

In section one, the number of questions was reduced to three questions. All of them are factual questions about gender, motives and reasons behind learning English and level of ability in English. Each question is preceded by a specific instruction to guide the participants while answering. They are printed in bold type so as to be distinct from other questions and the provided multiple choices.

In section two there were considerable changes and adjustments on the level of content, number, order and nature of the questions and instructions as well. For example, Q8: how do you consider your communicative abilities? is newly implemented. As for the rest they have been re-organized logically according to the order of importance and focus. The overall purpose of section two is to seize the EFL learners' attitudes towards the OE module as a whole, along with the presented material in terms of their experience with learning FL (English). Then, to depict the sum of causes, preferences and areas where English can be enhanced. Additionally, to rate their frequency of participation in the EFL classroom regardless to the allotted time. All in all, the number was reduced from eleven to nine questions.

In section three, the question items number augmented from five to eight questions. They deal with the probable difficulties EFL learners face when communicating in the OE expression courses in order to delimit the hurdles they may encounter when willing to express themselves.

Finally, section four has taken the lion share with its ultimate change, either in terms of structure, statements or specific instructions. Instead of ten statements, they become eight and the instruction changed from putting a circle (○) to providing a tick (✓) where necessary. All of these were displayed in a table form supplemented by columns and statements on the left side along with the scale of agreement on the right side to ensure the clarity of the responses.

In addition, the wording of each statement has been changed. This is mainly due to the comments received by respondents during the pretesting stage that necessitated changes and readjustments. However, this does not mean deviating from the original purpose and context of the already given statements. To put it differently, it is just a restatement to generate further meanings and more accurate responses.

Another important point to mention is the layout of the questionnaire. This latter is not merely a matter of structure, furthermore, it combines many other points such as “density, order (variety of type facets and highlighting options), quality and sequence making” (Dörnyei, 2003) concerning the density, the self administered questionnaire became clearer and less numerous in terms of pages (from five to four pages). This renders the EFL respondents feel motivated and not frustrated due to the length of the questionnaire.

In brief, all of the above mentioned adjustments were a result of the piloting phase that resulted from the participants’ comments, remarks and the nature of answers they provided. All of these urged changes to meet the requirements of the research work standards.

2.2.2 Administering the Final Draft of the Questionnaire

The final draft was administered on March 12th during a lecture session, in amphitheatre B, at MKU, Biskra. The 116 second year participants were randomly chosen. The teacher requested his students to take their time answering the questionnaire. All of the students handed back on point the questionnaire in an estimated time of 15-20 minutes. The

administration phase went smoothly as there were no questions seeking clarifications about the nature of the posed questions. However, there have been questions about the nature of the topic itself. EFL students felt the need to know more about the research problem and the usefulness of the questionnaire in finding appropriate and plausible answers.

In brief, the administration phase was properly undertaken. It was accomplished without any hurdles or disturbing factors.

2.3 Description of the EFL Classroom Observation

The classroom observation field trip was undertaken during the second semester of the academic year (2016/2017) specifically from the period of January 29th till March 9th, 2017, in order to gather the relevant data to the research study at hand. The EFL teacher whose class to be observed, was completely cooperative as he facilitated the research process and was open to welcome the researcher's presence at any time. On one hand, the researcher on the other hand explained the research aim and the methods used so as to enable data collection such as the use of an audiotape recorder and the OE teacher gave his full consent to its implementation without any hesitation. On the other, second year students were also introduced to the research structure and its aim through brief explanations concerning the undertaken research.

2.3.1 The Use of Tape Recorder

According to Eggleston (2013), the use of at least one tape recorder is useful in order to supplement the observation and other additional techniques such as field notes or checklists.

In terms of technicality, an audiotape recorder was utilised in order to assist the researcher with gathering adequate data. This is purely to depict the classroom EFL discourse by the teacher and learners, the language use and the ways EFL learners interact among themselves via the target language. Smith (as cited in Bowman, 1994) argued that "the use of mechanical recording devices usually gives greater flexibility than observations done by hand" (p.1).

Despite the merits of videos as a research tool (especially for a non-participant observation), its implementation was completely avoided. The reason behind this is the

refusal of the teacher and students to appear on a videotaped material even if it is for research work benefits.

One week ago before the actual start of the scheduled observation, some sessions were attended (From January 29th, till February 2nd). This is referred to as “the dry run” (By Bowman, 1994). In these sessions, the observer gets to create a bond of familiarity with the classroom (physical and psychological atmosphere). Moreover, to discuss with the teacher the nature of classroom practices undertaken with a possibility for further suggestions to meet the research goals. Additionally, to make an overall observation about the EFL students’ in terms of participation and interaction with the teacher, use of the target language and the degree of their cooperation and motivation in the OE expression sessions. Finally, to find the right spot where to put the audio recording device so that it would better capture a clearer sound due to the outside noise.

In brief, it is thanks to those pre-official observation sessions that the rest of the scheduled sessions went in a smooth acceptable manner. Even if the observer did not undertake the role of the participant observer, the constant presence allowed the researcher become an inseparable member of the group and thereby, emerged within the presented classroom tasks and activities.

The chosen class to be observed was a second year class of fifty-six EFL students (52 female and 4 male EFL students). This single group is referred to as ‘a single tutor group’ (by Eggleston, 2013). It is a group of a considerable number of students and a complete mixture of abilities. However, this group is divided into two sub-groups. This is due to the numerous number of students and the nature of tasks and practices developed in the OE module. The latter needed space and room for their practices especially for the change of the seating arrangement to fit their presentations, for instance. Thereby, the sessions to be observed were a total of three hours per week during a period that started from February, 12th till March, 9th, 2017. Concerning the classroom practices, they were more learner-centred because students were the ones in charge to prepare and present the learnt material to their peers. This was in favour of the research requirements with the absolute aim to see how EFL learners handle the use of the target language without the over control and intervention of the teacher.

‘Classroom Atmosphere’ contains six statements. They deal with the classroom atmosphere and the physical arrangement. Additionally, the teaching routines in terms of reviewing previous session courses, summarizing the course content and objectives along with connecting the course input to prior knowledge. Section two, ‘Methods and Lessons presentation’ contains six statements. They deal with the used material, the nature of tasks, interactional discussions and type of activities used to present a well-structured effective lesson. Section three ‘Making the content comprehensible’ is made of three statements which embrace the notion of flexibility vis-à-vis the teaching procedure and techniques in order to render the language content more at the EFL learners’ disposal. Lastly, the manner in which the teacher deals with the learners’ assimilation process towards the presented instructions and materials.

Section four and five are concerned with the nature of interactions that take place in the EFL classroom. As far as section four is concerned, eight statements are implemented. First, they revolve around the interactional patterns such as group, pair, solo and open class work and their effectiveness in moving forward the students’ involvement in the TL. Thereby, being able to determine whether this enables the exchange of a new set of unknown expressions and words among one another or not. Third, to depict the manners that corresponds to the TL use. For instance, whether students know how to converse, how to organize their utterances with the ideas in mind using the appropriate speech act, how to respond in a variety of situations and how to show their understanding through communication. Then, how to initiate and end a topic discussion or presentation. Afterwards, to evaluate the students’ baggage necessary to speak in the FL in the classroom and whether or not the EFL learners communicate comfortably regardless to errors. Moreover, how they go about when falling in a breakdown communication trap (i.e. whether they use L1 or not or use gestures instead) and whether they rely on L1 interference while interacting in the classroom.

‘Teacher-students’ interaction’ is made of six statements. It tackles the ways in which the teacher manages the classroom situation to maintain interaction with students. This can be observed through:

- The teacher’s encouragement to FL use in terms of participations and use of the target language inside and outside the classroom. Moreover, the planning for a variety of grouping patterns to facilitate such a task.

- Being a model to look up to in language use for all interactions. This will be supplemented with exposure to real-life situations to meet the L2 in its real life contexts of use.
- The intervention on the teacher's part whenever there is a breakdown of communication especially when EFL learners are given the floor to communicate.

The last section 'feedback' provides insights about how the teacher handles not only mistakes/errors done by the students. But also, the ways in which a set of various techniques, methods and strategies are used to motivate the students, raise their level of confidence and self-esteem towards the use of the FL. Six statements seek to capture whether the teacher uses verbal motivational statements through comments after their oral performances and participations. Lastly, how does the teacher behave when one of the students commits a mistake/an error. To put it differently, how the teacher renders feedback when mistakes/errors take place.

2.3.2.2 Degree of Achievement

This second part is composed of three columns. The first one is a 'well observed' column, the second is a 'fairly observed' column and the third is a 'not observed' column. The significance of each column is assigned to the occurrence of the statements in the 'General Classroom Elements'. In other words, whenever an element among the mentioned ones occurs, the fieldworker needs to put a (✓) in the corresponding column. This does not mean that all elements will be observed. The inclusion of the 'not observed' column is dedicated to such cases. However, the 'fairly' column is devoted to elements that are not often performed by the teachers or students.

The checklist usefulness lies in "[the examination of] either the whole classroom climate or parts of it, such as relationships, behaviour, engagement and sense of belonging" (Cefai, 2008, p.116).

2.4 Description of the Teachers' Interview

The following research instrument falls within the category of semi-structured interviews. It is an additional tool used to gather data from professional perspectives and views belonging to the tertiary level (i.e. university teachers). Thanks to the implementation of such a methodological tool, the research gained rich and detailed data that would add to the

sum of the gathered data by the two other instruments (students' questionnaire, classroom observations). These latter help in increasing the rate of reliability through triangulation i.e. provide reliable comparable qualitative data.

The interview devised to teachers is organized in the same manner as questionnaires. Its form (structure) and content are strictly (specifically) guided by the research objectives and conclusions. In terms of structure, the interview is composed of the following components:

- An overall heading including the relevant information about the faculty, department and the division at MKU, Biskra.
- The title of the document
- A general descriptive short paragraph which states the title of the research work at hand.

Then, the aim set behind such an investigation is being provided so as to give the interviewees the chance to have an overall idea about the nature of the topic to be discussed and to prepare themselves, psychologically speaking, to the questions to be posed by the interviewer.

- A final thank you note to show appreciation to the beneficial contributions of the interviewees.

All of the above elements serve as a paper-based guide to be followed when conducting the interview. Therefore, it consists of a considerable set of questions that are almost open ended ones. These, in turn, permit the interviewees to feel free to express their viewpoints in their own terms. These were prepared ahead of time and fixed. However, they were supplemented by probes and follow-up questions through improvisations such as (could you please comment on that? If yes, why? , If no, why not? How? For instance, probes used were various. This depends on both the question and the response of the interviewee. They fall within many categories such as:

- Uh-huh probes: mmm! , I see, Yes, ok! , Aha!, Great!
- Echo probes: in addition to open discussions, what kind of activities do you deal with? (instead of 'Give examples' in question two)
- Clarification probes: you have said earlier 'speaking games', what are they about exactly?

- Detail-oriented probes: it means you give them words in order to formulate a story. Do they have a problem when formulating the beginning of the story?

These were useful in terms of getting more in-depth answers or to get and extended answers comprising more clarifications concerning some points, mentioned by the interviewee, that seem interesting and need further illustrations and comments.

The phrasing even the order of these questions have been altered. This is particularly done in order to build a rapport with the interviewee. It is believed to undertake a moderate pace better than having a quick rigid exchange of instant questions-answers. As a result, an audiotape recorder was used during the entire interview. The latter facilitates the transcription of the collected information through accurate responses for analysis.

The total number of questions is fifteen questions. These questions were supplemented by follow-up questions such as ‘how?’, if yes, could you list some of the classroom tasks that you prepare for your learners?, why?, In what way does this apply to you?’.

These questions are not broad and direct. This is due to the nature of the research topic at hand where its posed questions attempt to provide relevant answers to the research questions. This is done in a side way manner i.e. the complex practices and suggestions put forward by the topic requires such simplicity and question generation so as to acquire richer data. McNabb (2010) argued that “in a typical in-depth interview, there is no set limit to the number of questions that should be used. The goal is to continue asking questions until the desired information objectives are met” (p.100).

The **first two** questions are designed to acquire relevant information about the EFL learners’ level in communication and the nature of activities used to foster their English oral proficiency. The **third** and **fourth** questions attempt to discern teachers’ opinions and views about some pillar principles that urge the utilisation of the FL for communicative purposes. First, to know how EFL teachers foster and motivate their learners to use the target language, and whether they are eclectic in their OE courses or not. Second, to get their reflections about the implementation of CLT principles and their actual classroom practices and whether they fall within the realm of what they really preach about or not. The **fifth** question attempts to know about the role performed by teachers in order to create a relevant social context for

learners to meet their learning needs, interests and cognitive styles relevant leading them thereby to utilise English as a means for communication rather than for academic purposes.

The four coming questions i.e. **sixth**, **seventh**, **eighth** and **ninth** attempt to tackle the teaching behaviours exerted by teachers inside their classrooms and towards their students. For instance, question **six** and **seven** are concerned with the different difficulties students face when speaking in English and how do teachers deal with them. Away from a linguistic structural perspective, the coming two questions are concerned with the teachers' multiple tasks and practices relevant to bring the FL to life within the classroom situation. Moreover, to enable EFL learners build proper awareness about the socio-cultural dimension of the target language use in its appropriate contextual surroundings. On one hand, question **eight** is purely exploring whether techniques of building proper conversation are taught or not and hence how do such techniques affect their use of language. The **ninth** question, on the other hand, concerns the utilisation of different speech acts within classroom tasks to draw EFL learners' attention to the insinuations put forward by the FL. Furthermore, inquiring whether learners are knowledgeable about such patterns or not.

Question **ten** deals with the need to obtain relevant information about the manner in which culture is primordial in developing learners' communication skills. The forthcoming **eleventh** question explores whether teachers implement culture-related courses in their OE sessions or not and if they do so through what kind of activities and tasks they present. Question **twelve** investigates the teachers' opinions about the appropriateness of the classroom atmosphere to promote EFL learners' communicative competence. Furthermore, the reasons behind their provided responses be it positive or negative.

In question **fourteen**, teachers are asked to give a brief evaluative outlook about the use of ICT tools and language laboratories at the English Division at MKU, Biskra. This is all with the aim to have insights about the real-life situations and conditions in which EFL students are learning the FL. The final **fifteenth** question aims at requesting the teachers' opinions to give further suggestions related to our research work in order to bring about improvement to the interdependent classroom interaction among EFL teachers and learners.

2.4.1 Administering the Teachers' Interview

Teachers who were targeted to take part in the interview were selected for the mere belief that their opinions and responses are necessary to meet the research objectives.

Moreover, their experience in our area under study will provide the current investigation fruitful insights.

Over a period of four weeks, a total number of eight (06) experienced EFL teachers were interviewed. The interviews diverged in duration from 15 to 30 minutes. The following table shows an overview of the number of interviewees and some relevant data about them such as teaching experience, the interview duration and the gender of the interviewee.

Number of interviewees	Educational Degree	Gender	Overall Teaching Experience	OE Teaching Experience	Interview Estimated Time
01	Ph.Degree	Male	12 years	8 years	30 minutes
02	Ph.Degree	Male	25 years	12 years	18 minutes
03	Magister	Female	09 years	04 years	30 minutes
04	Doctoral Degree	Female	15 years	8 years	30 minutes
05	Magister	Male	More than 20 years	More than 7 years	30 minutes
06	Doctoral Degree	Male	More than 20 years	/	30 minutes

Table3. General information about the conducted interview

The above table indicates that most of the interviewed teachers have quite a relevant experience. This is compatible with the nature of the research work at hand which needs to depict both knowledge and experience of teachers to reflect on proper educational practices to acquire the right amount of information. This latter serves to the identification of several variables reasonably organized to find practical solutions to our research problem under study.

3. Analysis of the Research Instruments' Data

3.1 Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire

The gathered data generated thanks to the responses of the EFL students' questionnaire is operated thanks to the use of the software package for statistical analysis 'SPSS' : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Version 19.0 Armonk, NY, 2010). It is used to provide an overall and accurate complete analysis of the collected answers.

Abramowitz and Weinberg (2002) asserted that the use of SPSS does not only help in computations' performance and graphs creation. But more than this, it sheds light on better assimilation and interpretation of the research work at hand. Furthermore, it gives beneficial insights through the statistical practice.

Before the beginning of the analysis, the data collected needs to be coded i.e. to be entered manually into the SPSS software. To put it differently, each questionnaire is given an identification label where its responses are assigned numbers to replace the values of each variable in all of the questionnaire items set. Afterwards, they were exposed to a specific statistical interpretation in order to determine both frequency and percentages of the chosen options by students vis-à-vis the variety of questions raised in the questionnaire.

The presented analysis is based on the computation of inferential statistics. This is solely to “limit the data collection to some randomly selected smaller group and use inferential statistics to generalize to the larger group the conclusions obtained from the smaller group. Inferential statistics are used when the purpose of the research is not to describe the data that have been collected, but to generalize or make inferences based on it” (p.2).

The data set is displayed in tabular forms supplemented with brief descriptions and interpretations to the displayed results.

The ‘others’ section under some of the close-ended questions (such as question 14 and question 17) along with the two open-ended question item in question 2 and question 12 to provide justifications to their chosen options, were taken into consideration by means of content analysis. Concerning the answers in the “others” section, they have varied in number (from 5 to 28 responses to no response at all). As for the open-ended ones, they constitute 67 responses out of 116 responses.

In brief, these answers are used simply to back up the statistical data.

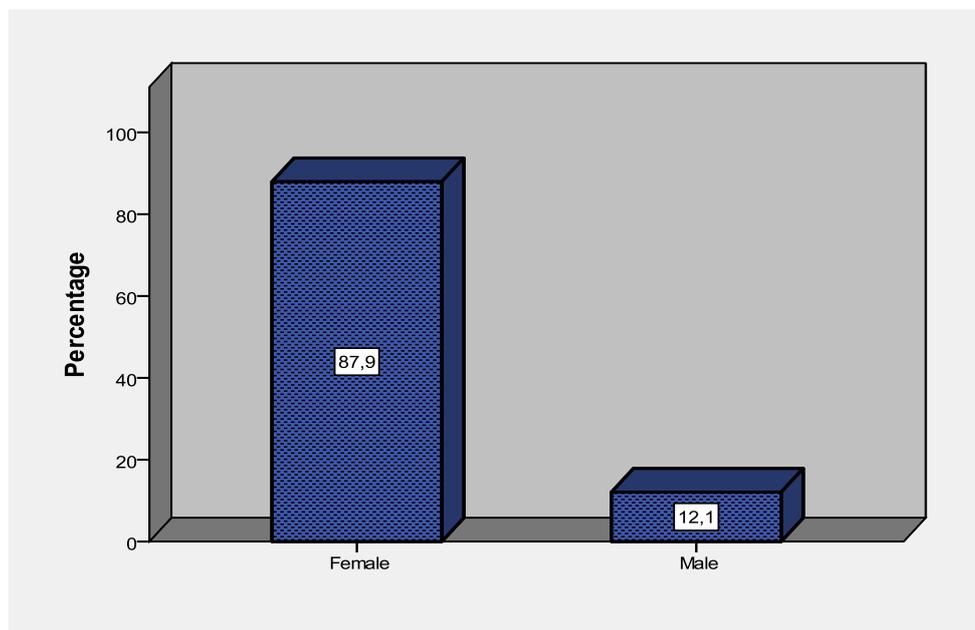
Section One: Students' Background Information

Q1. Gender

(a) Male (b) Female

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Male	14	12,1	12,1
Female	102	87,9	87,9
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table4. Students' Gender Distinction



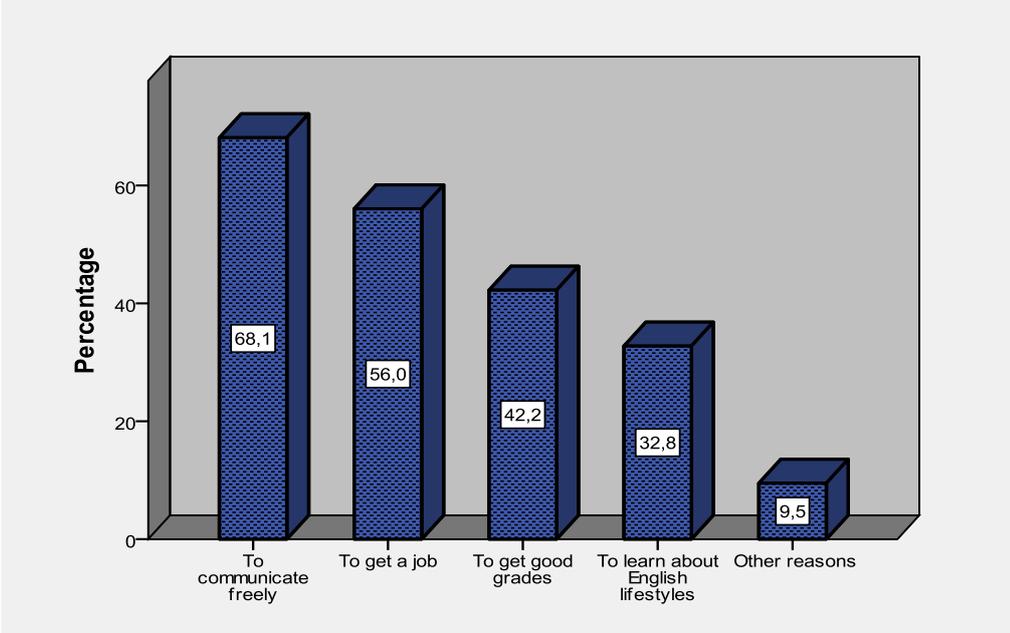
Graph1. Students' Gender Distinction

Table 4 with a noticeable participant number of **116** indicates the number of students who contributed in the questionnaire. This is an estimated percentage of **12.1%** male students (**14**) and **87.9%** female students (**102**) respectively. This reveals that the higher percentage of the whole sample participants, under investigation, is assigned to female students due to their numerous enrollement in such a branch and thereby, the female sample level outstripped the male ones. This would be beneficial in terms of seizing the impact of a discourse studies approach on their communicative competence from different perspectives and views. Renker (2007) argued that “the growth in the English branches and its widely noted dominance by female students became bound up with ... the idea that English was for girls” (p.18).

Q2.You are learning English because (You may tick more than one answer)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid :	To get a job	65	26,9%	56,0%
	To get good grades	49	20,2%	42,2%
	To communicate freely	79	32,6%	68,1%
	To learn about English lifestyles	38	15,7%	32,8%
	Other reasons	11	4,5%	9,5%
Total		242	100,0%	208,6%

Table5. Reasons behind Learning English



Graph2. Reasons behind learning English

The following question inquires about the reasons behind learning English. It is a multiple choice questions where participants are required to choose more than one answer that applies to their ends and goals set vis-à-vis English as a FL. The presented data set is displayed in table 5 which reflects the responses’ number and percentage for each chosen option (from a-d) along with other reasons.

The highest percentage is **68,1%** which a total number of **79** EFL students have opted for. In other words, **68%** of the respondents consider the reason behind learning English to communicate freely with people all over the world. An estimated percentage of **56%** consider the factor of getting a job quite important that is why they have chosen English as their

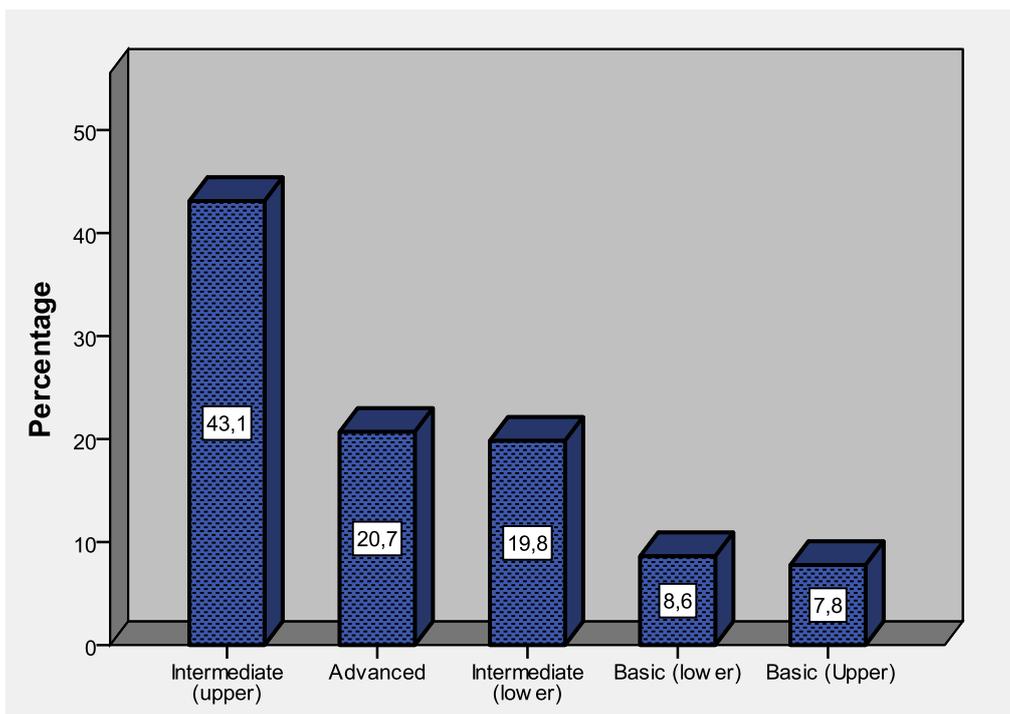
primary tertiary option. A considerable percentage of **42,2%** of EFL students have the ultimate goal to study English for Academic reasons preaching higher education, whereas **32,8%** reveal their interest towards the non-aesthetic side of the language which falls within customs, lifestyles and ways of living in foreign countries such as UK and USA. Finally, the remaining eleven students (**9,5%**) choose other reasons where they all agree on the fact of learning English simply because they were obliged to study it (or they were directed to it), it is easier than other foreign languages or simply they love learning about language and get a second diploma.

Q3. How do you consider your level of ability in English?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Basic (lower)	10	8,6	8,6
Basic (Upper)	9	7,8	7,8
Intermediate (lower)	23	19,8	19,8
Intermediate (upper)	50	43,1	43,1
Advanced	24	20,7	20,7
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table6. Students' Level of Ability in English

From the above displayed table, it is obvious that most of the respondents' English ability level is 'upper intermediate', which makes a percentage of **43%** comprising **50** students of the total population. Then, a total number of forty-seven students' level range from lower intermediate to advanced respectively: **20%** to **21%**. As for the rest, their level is around lower basic to upper basic (**9% to 8%**). To put it differently, the majority of the students' level in the given population can be classified as follows: 1/Upper intermediate, 2/advanced, 3/ lower intermediate, 4/ lower basic and 5/ upper basic.



Graph3. Level of Ability in English

This divergence in responses reflects the mixture of levels the students possess; each of them according to the selected criteria that match with their potential in manipulating the FL in a variety of areas such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and many other areas of language proficiency.

Section two: Students' Attitudes towards Using English for Communication

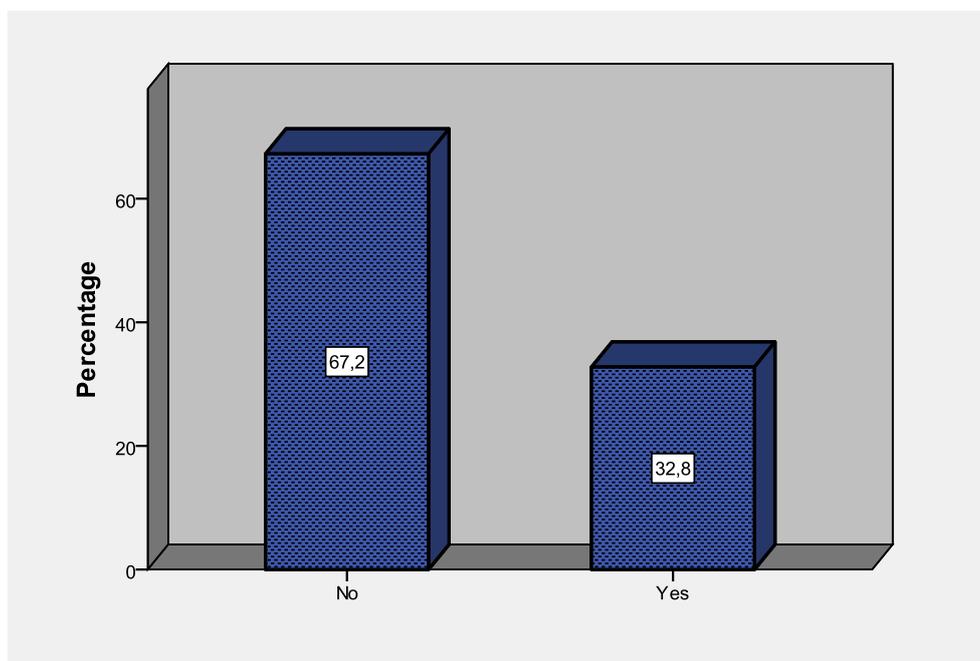
Q4.Do you think that the time allotted to oral expression classes is sufficient to enable you to become communicatively competent in English?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Yes	38	32,8	32,8
No	78	67,2	67,2
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table7. The Time Allotted to Oral Expression Classes

According to the displayed results, **67,2%** of the responses (**78 students**) think that the allotted time to OE courses is not sufficient to take benefit from the presented activities and henceforth make use of the target language as much as possible in order to build on their oral proficiency. On the other hand, the low rate of the remaining respondents (**32, 8%**)

disapproves the non sufficiency of the time devoted to OE classes. In other words, they hold the view that OE courses are sufficient to a considerable amount in providing them with the relative opportunities to explore the language and use it to the maximum.



Graph4. The Time Allotted to Oral Expression Classes

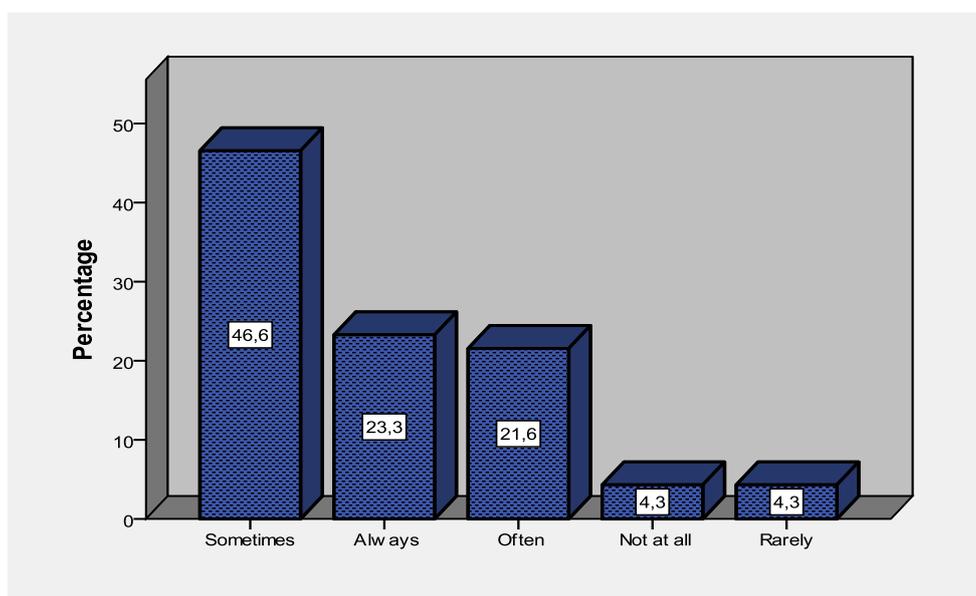
Q5.How often do you participate in the oral classroom?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Not at all	5	4,3	4,3
	Rarely	5	4,3	4,3
	Sometimes	54	46,6	46,6
	Often	25	21,6	21,6
	Always	27	23,3	23,3
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table8. Participation in the Oral Classroom

The rate of participation by the students in EFL classrooms is quite different among students. **46, 6%** do not participate all the time and their participation occurs sometimes depending on specific factors such as the nature of the topic, psychological hindering (motor-driven) elements: anxiety, shyness and many other elements. **23, 3%** and **21,6%** of the whole population, their participation is between ‘always’ to ‘often’. This means that they are

constantly present throughout the variety of the presented tasks. However, only a similar percentage of **4,3%** (**5 students**) of the answers indicate the number of students who do not participate at all, and those whose participation is rarely observed.



Graph5. Participation in the Oral Classroom

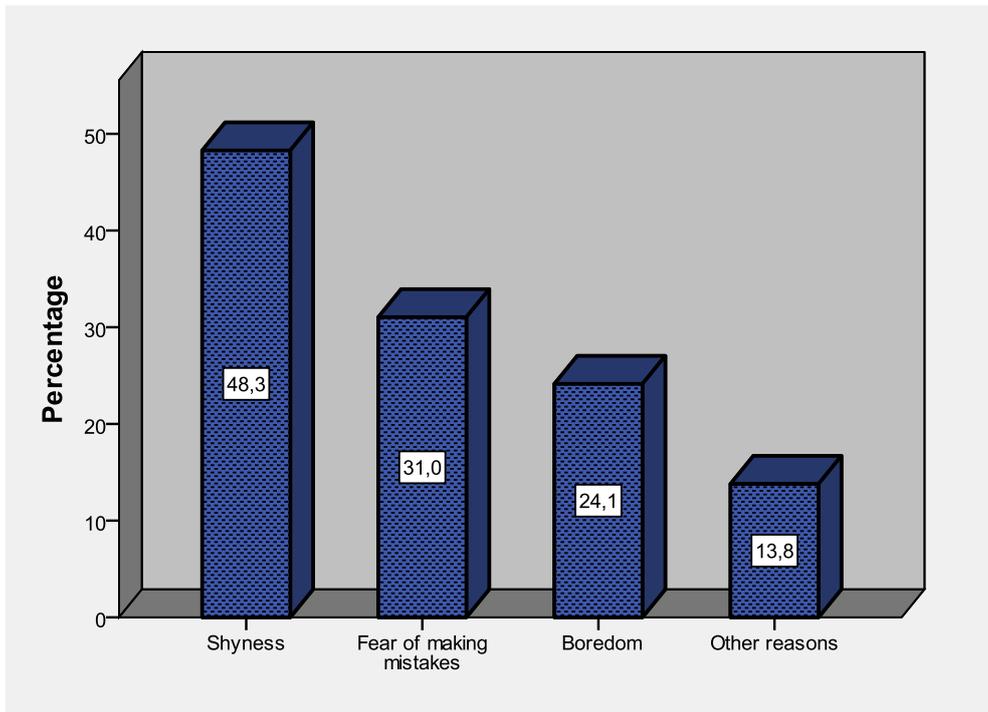
Q6. Being silent in an oral expression class is due to (You may tick more than one answer)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Boredom	28	20,6%	24,1%
	Shyness	56	41,2%	48,3%
	Fear of making mistakes	36	26,5%	31,0%
	Other reasons	16	11,8%	13,8%
Total		136	100,0%	117,2%

Table9. Reasons behind being silent in Oral Expression Classes

The provided numerical data in table 9 reveals that EFL respondents have opted for a variety of choices. **48,3%** reflects one of the major causes to students' silence in OE classrooms which is 'shyness'; EFL students abstain from being active participants in the classroom because they are shy (this is described as a psychological hindering element to students' progress). Furthermore, fear of making mistakes is selected by **31%** of the

population. This reveals that students do not like to be judged or to be conceived as weak and hence they remain silent to save their faces.



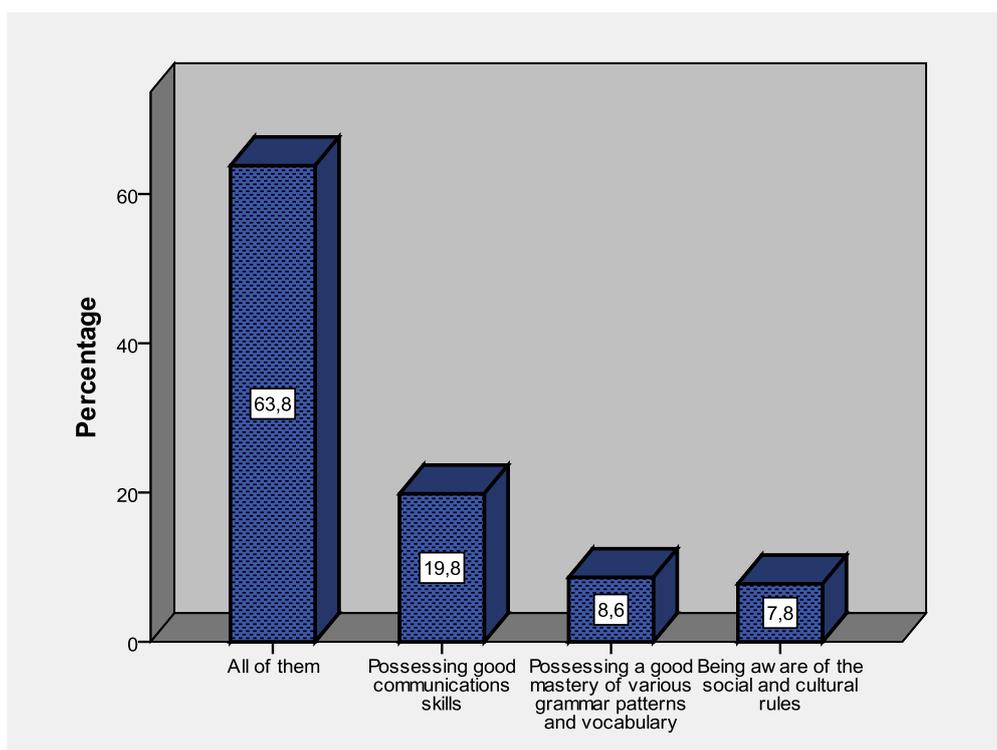
Graph6. Reasons behind being silent in Oral Expression Classes

Another fairly considerable number of **28** students (**24,1%**) is assigned to boredom, as a prominent cause to indicate that once students feel bored or the displayed tasks or activities do not meet with their wants, needs and motivation they will remain passive. Finally, **13,8%** of the remaining response were other reasons suggested by students which most of them fall within psychological problems such as anxiety, stress, fear of being judged by classmates and the teachers' attitudes towards negative responses. Moreover, the lack of motivation, interest along with the lack of knowledge and information about/towards the presented topics or activities and then the nature of the posed questions that are sometimes ambiguous.

Q7.What does “to be fluent in English” mean to you?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Having a good mastery of various grammar patterns and vocabulary	10	8,6	8,6
	Having good communications skills	23	19,8	19,8
	Being aware of the social and cultural rules to sound more appropriate	9	7,8	7,8
	All of the above	74	63,8	63,8
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table10. Meaning of English Fluency for EFL Learners



Graph7. Meaning of English Fluency for EFL Students

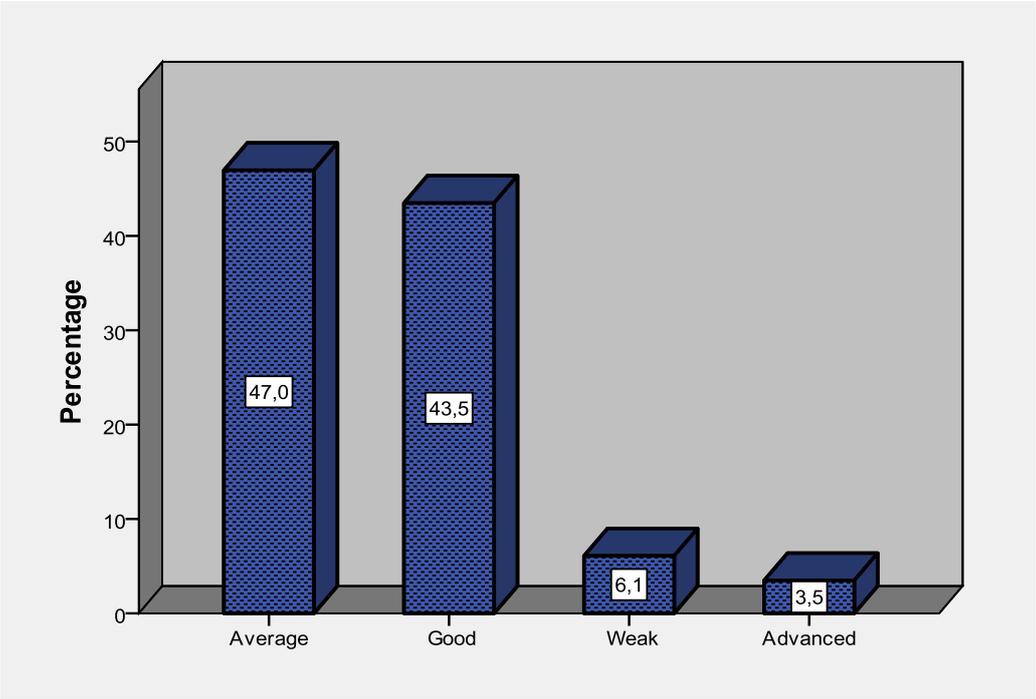
As far as being fluent in English, the majority of EFL students (**63, 8%**) consider the fact of manipulating the linguistic aspect, having good communication skills and being aware of the socio-cultural aspects of the target language preliminary contributing factors to build one’s fluency and proficiency. Furthermore, **19, 8%** of the given answers emphasized

particularly on having good communication skills and this is important in forming someone's advanced level in English. However, an approximately similar percentage of **8,6%** and **7,8%** (**9-10 students**) were about having a good mastery of various grammar patterns and vocabulary and moreover, building more awareness and appropriateness in the FL through its socio-cultural level of knowledge.

Q8.How do you consider your communication abilities?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Weak	7	6,0	6,1
	Average	54	46,6	47,0
	Good	50	43,1	43,5
	Advanced	4	3,4	3,5
	Total	115	99,1	100,0
Missing		1	,9	
Total		116	100,0	

Table11. EFL Learners' Communication Abilities



Graph8. EFL Learners' Communication Abilities

In the frequency table above, **115** of the total **116** EFL participants have valid data whereas one participant has not answered the question. Valid percents are slightly higher than the actual percents because the only missing case has been removed from consideration.

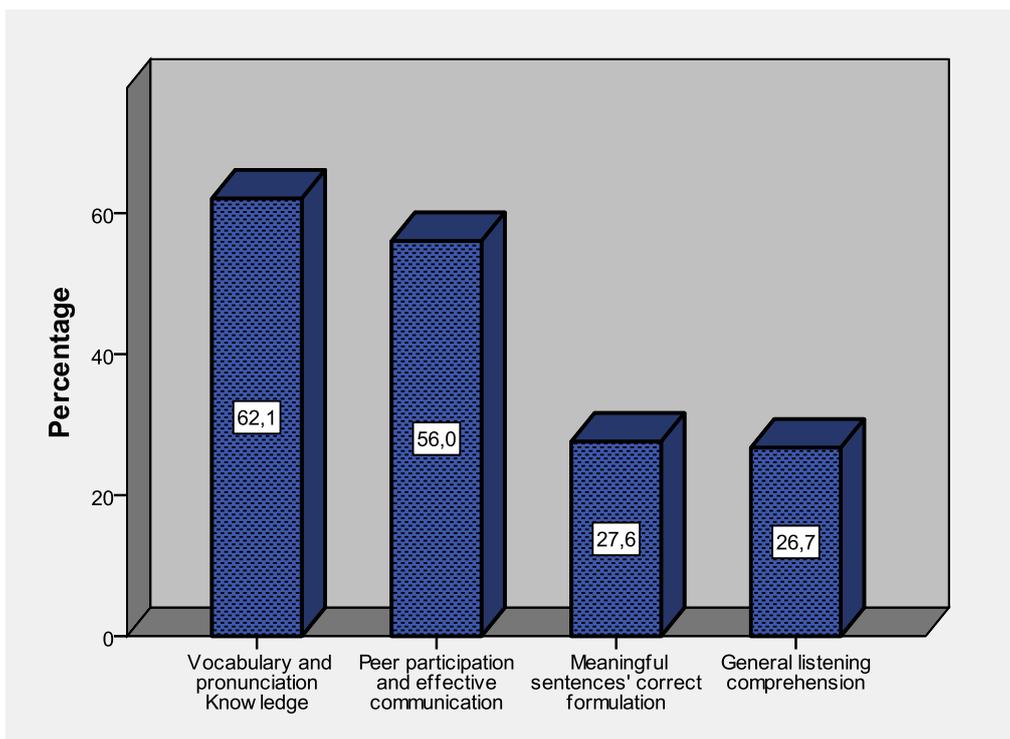
As displayed in table 15, a significant number of 54 EFL students with a percentage of 47% claim that they possess an average communication ability. Additionally, 43,5% (a total of 50 students) described their ability as being ‘good’ and a percentage of 6,1% of responses (7 students) demonstrate a relatively ‘weak’ level of ability in exchanging communication messages with others in the FL. The left minority of 3, 5% (4 students) are considerably advanced when it comes to communicating in English.

Q9. In what interactional areas, would you like to improve on in your English? (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	General listening comprehension	31	15,5%	26,7%
	Peer participation and effective communication	65	32,5%	56,0%
	Meaningful sentences' correct formulation	32	16,0%	27,6%
	Vocabulary and pronunciation Knowledge	72	36,0%	62,1%
Total		200	100,0%	172,4%

Table12. The Interactional Areas Sought to be improved by EFL Students

The percentages in table 12 indicate the various interactional areas EFL students would like to improve in English. 62,1% which formulates the majority of responses, emphasize the knowledge of vocabulary and pronunciation as their main goal. 56% of the respondents stress upon the need to work on their peer and collaborative works’ skills i.e. to participate in small group discussions or in conversations. In addition to those percentages, another 27,6% are willing to foster the formulation of correct and meaningful sentences so as to enable themselves to use the FL as freely as possible. Similarly, not far from the previous responses, 26,7% seek to improve their listening comprehension skills. Taking the current results into consideration, most of EFL students think that the key to being competent in English (in terms of interactional and communication skills) is the possession of the right amount of linguistic luggage (vocabulary and pronunciation). This is all with the aim to be able to manipulate the FL in a variety of multiple contexts and situations



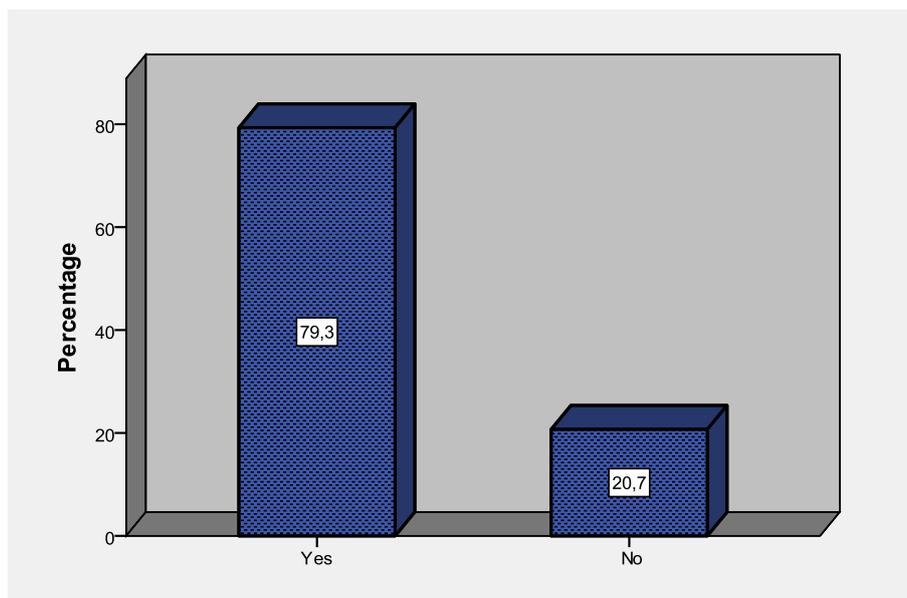
Graph9. The Interactional Areas Sought to be improved by EFL Students

Q10. Does the knowledge about culture enable you to form correct and coherent sentences in English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	92	79,3	79,3
	No	24	20,7	20,7
Total		116	100,0	100,0

Table13. Knowledge about Culture and its impact on EFL students' sentences formulation

This question reveals views on whether culture enables correct and coherent English sentences' formulation. The minority (**20,7%**) show their disapproval with such a concept. Moreover, the majority (**79,3%**) adhere to the importance of such an element in building EFL students' awareness towards appropriateness. This reveals that most of EFL learners are comfortably aware of the effects of culture knowledge on the linguistic aspect of the FL.



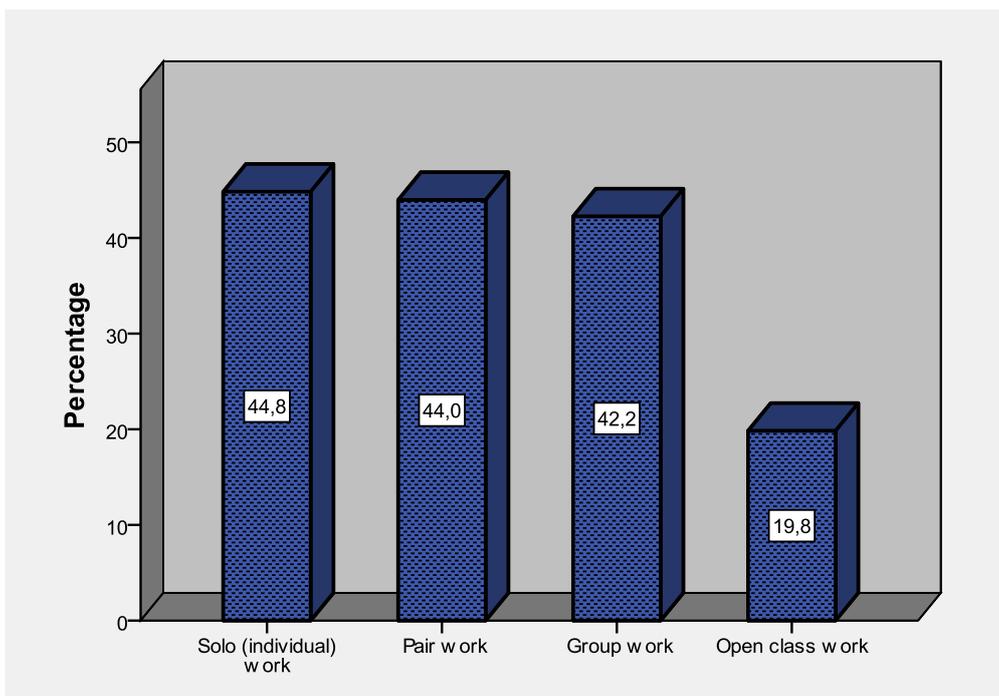
Graph10. Knowledge about Culture and its impact on EFL students' sentences formulation

Q11. When doing an oral classroom activity, you prefer: (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Solo (individual) work	52	29,7%	44,8%
	Pair work	51	29,1%	44,0%
	Group work	49	28,0%	42,2%
	Open class work	23	13,1%	19,8%
Total		175	100,0%	150,9%

Table14. Oral Classroom Activities' Interactional Patterns Preferences

Table 14 represents EFL students' preferences related to oral classroom activities. The majority with a percentage of **44, 8%** claim that they prefer to do an activity individually. Approximately to the previous percentage, **44%** EFL students maintain that being involved with a partner is their desired pattern when being involved in a classroom activity. However, **42, 2%** show their primary interest to collective work where they feel comfortable when being collaborative and sharing the idea within the group. Lastly, **19,8%** of the responses are centred on open class work.



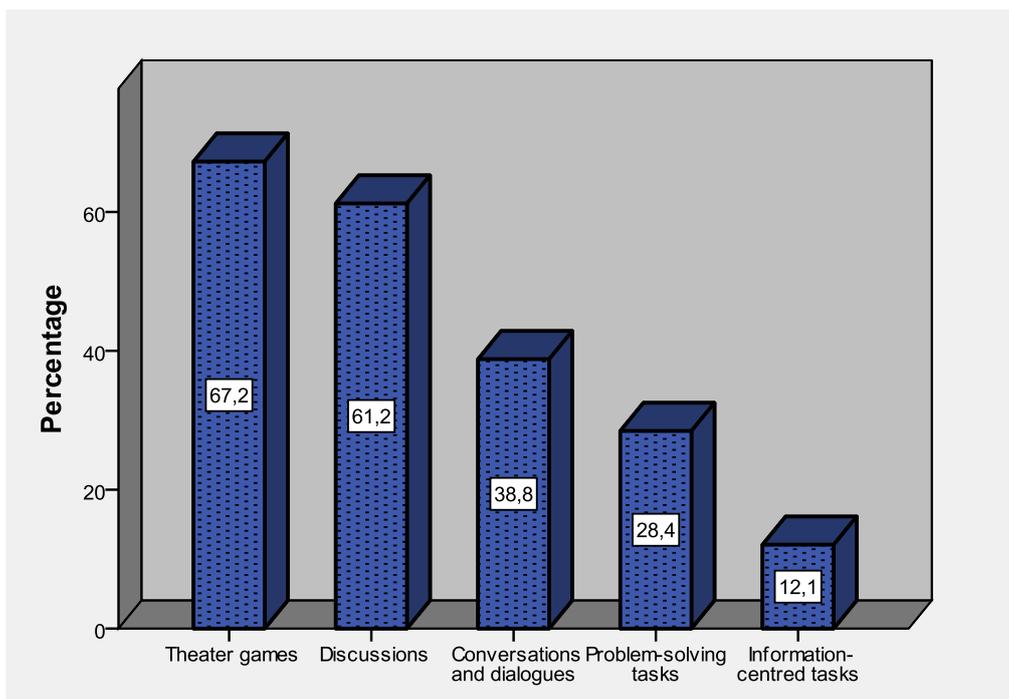
Graph11. Oral Classroom Activities' Interactional Patterns Preferences

In brief, the displayed statistics show that each of the responses reflect the students' orientations with regards to their learning style preferences along with their nature and personalities which contribute to a higher extent to the different interaction patterns exhibited by the teacher. This latter brings a sense of eclecticism and variety within the classroom.

Q12. Which of the following activities do you prefer to practise in the oral expression module? (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Theater games	78	32,4%	67,2%
	Problem-solving tasks	33	13,7%	28,4%
	Conversations and dialogues	45	18,7%	38,8%
	Discussions	71	29,5%	61,2%
	Information-centred tasks	14	5,8%	12,1%
Total		241	100,0%	207,8%

Table15. Oral Classroom Practised Activities' Preferences



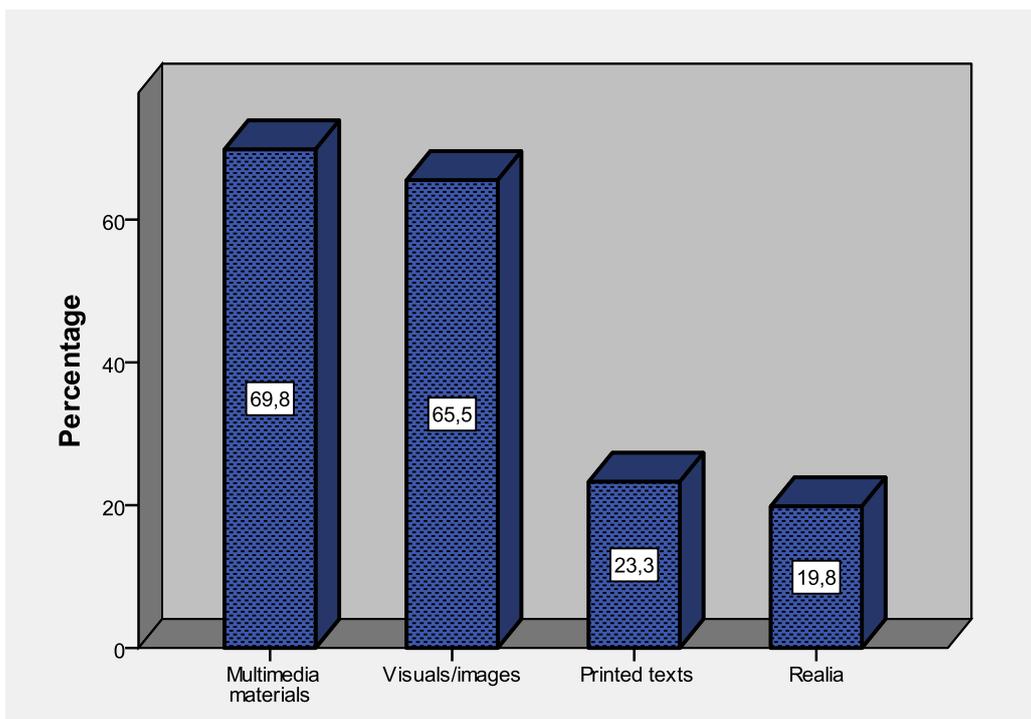
Graph12. Oral Classroom Practised Activities' Preferences

Statistically speaking, the majority of the EFL students preferences are assigned to both theatre games such as role plays, storytelling...etc and discussions with an estimated percentage of **67,2%** and **61,2%** respectively. Moreover, **38,8% (45 students)** of the participants choose conversation and dialogues, whereas **28,4%** opt for problem-solving. The rest of the responses were the minority with **12,1% (14 students)** who select information-centred tasks.

Q13. What kind of classroom material do you think it enhances more communication? (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Realia	23	11,1%	19,8%
	Printed texts	27	13,0%	23,3%
	Visuals/images	76	36,7%	65,5%
	Multimedia materials	81	39,1%	69,8%
Total		207	100,0%	178,4%

Table16. Attitudes about Classroom Material that Enhances Communication



Graph13. Attitudes towards Classroom Material that Enhances Communication

The sum of yielded data in table 16, reflect multiple responses about the views towards classroom material that promotes communication. The highest percentage of **69,8%** focus on multimedia materials (such as audiotapes, DVDS and overhead projectors). The second highest percentage is associated with visuals and images with **65,5%** of the whole population. Only **19,8%** opt for realia (objects). Whereas, printed texts such as poems and newspapers are selected by 27 students that is an estimated percentage of **23,3%**. The above results indicate students' views about what should be implemented in the EFL classes in terms of material. This is related in the first place to their learning styles, needs and their degree of cooperation with the material itself. This consequently would take their motivation to a whole new level of challenge and enthusiasm towards the FL.

The following question necessitates a follow-up sub question were justifications from EFL students are needed in order to know the reasons behind their preferences to some materials over others so as to promote more communication. A fair number of **67** students (**52%**) of the whole population attempt to give their reasons from a personal perspective. Therefore, their answers are summarised under five main categories as follows:

➤ **Improving FL learners' abilities and skills mainly listening, speaking and communication**

In this category, EFL respondents choose the presented material above on the criteria that it develops FL abilities and skills when implemented in language classrooms. The answers were different: student X says “such material help to improve my listening skill for more fruitful communication”. Student Y says “this material makes me feel familiar with English”. All of the given justifications shed light on the relevant purposes such materials provide to enable the learners become more competent in the areas that need reinforcement.

➤ **Meeting the various learning styles of multiple learners**

The multiple variety of materials, in the learners' views, open many doors to language proficiency. This is because each learner possesses a distinct learning style that enables the process of language learning and mastery. According to the responses provided, realia bring more life to the classroom and give a clearer idea about unknown words. Moreover, visuals and images enable learners memorize and remember the presented material. Just as a student state “when the teacher uses objects or audiotapes, it sticks in our heads and becomes like a painted memory that we cannot forget”. It is thanks to the different tasks and activities presented throughout such means; teachers can facilitate both the process of teaching and learning. This can happen by getting almost all learners involved in the variety of practices suggested to meet their language needs.

➤ **Enriching FL learners' linguistic baggage**

It is noticeable throughout the proposed answers that learners favour the implementation of such material to two common reasons. The first is to enrich their vocabulary through the displayed topics and imagery. The second is to foster their FL pronunciation. Some students argue that “this material encourages and motivates me to imitate English pronunciation” and “reading material opens the door for enriching and expanding my vocabulary knowledge”. In fact, EFL students think that “this material brings a clear demonstration of different accents, pronunciation and gestures made by natives. I enjoy it”.

➤ **Creating a more learner-centred communicative classroom environment**

Under such a category, EFL students' responses fall within the principles of new teaching methods where a teacher-fronted class is no longer supported. For instance, responses are divergent. For example, “objects from real life make us more involved and

enhance our attention”, “I think these materials help students to be more active and push them to discuss and participate more”, “it is more appropriate with us because we use more technologies. I feel that they are more close to us”, “It offers an exciting and challenging environment because we do not get bored at all”, “It makes me imagine more, and have a critical understanding when reading or listening to short stories”, “It breaks the routine of discussions”

All of the above responses revolve around how such material can ensure student-centeredness, autonomy and interaction with certain classroom practices and thereby inviting learners to become more involved.

➤ **Building FL Cultural Awareness**

Although the provided answers were the fewest among the others, only a fair number show their interest in getting exposed to the target culture. This was based on their arguments as follows “this material develops my critical understanding of the English culture. I am interested to know about it”. Moreover “Visuals and multimedia materials make it easier for us and portray foreign situations in which we are not able to experience or live in our country”. Therefore, the most appropriate manner in which EFL learners can be culturally aware of the target language is through exposure to multimedia and authentic material. The latter will make them live almost a real life experience and prepare learners to undergo the same experience.

Section Three: Students’ Difficulties in the Oral Expression Sessions

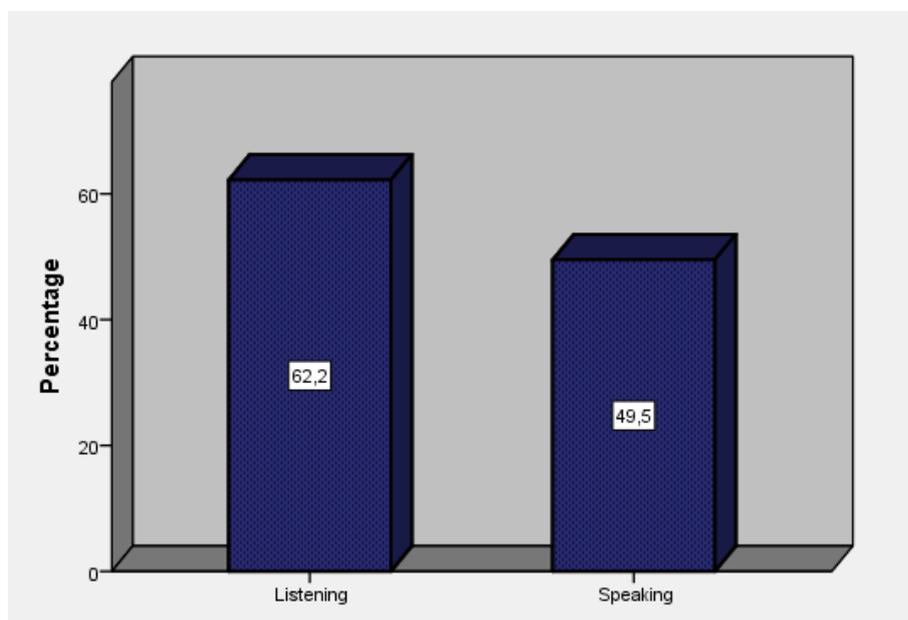
Q14. What are the skills in which you think you are still not performing at? (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Speaking	55	44,4%	49,5%
	Listening	69	55,6%	62,2%
Total		124	100,0%	111,7%

Table17. The Most Affected Language Skills among EFL Learners

The aim of the current question is to find out EFL students’ views about the skills in which they are not performing enough. Both table 17 and graph 14 reveal that 62,2% as the majority, approves that listening is the skill with greater deficiency. Whilst, 49,5% of

responses state that speaking is the skill that a considerable number of EFL students need to double the effort at so as to reach an acceptable level in English.

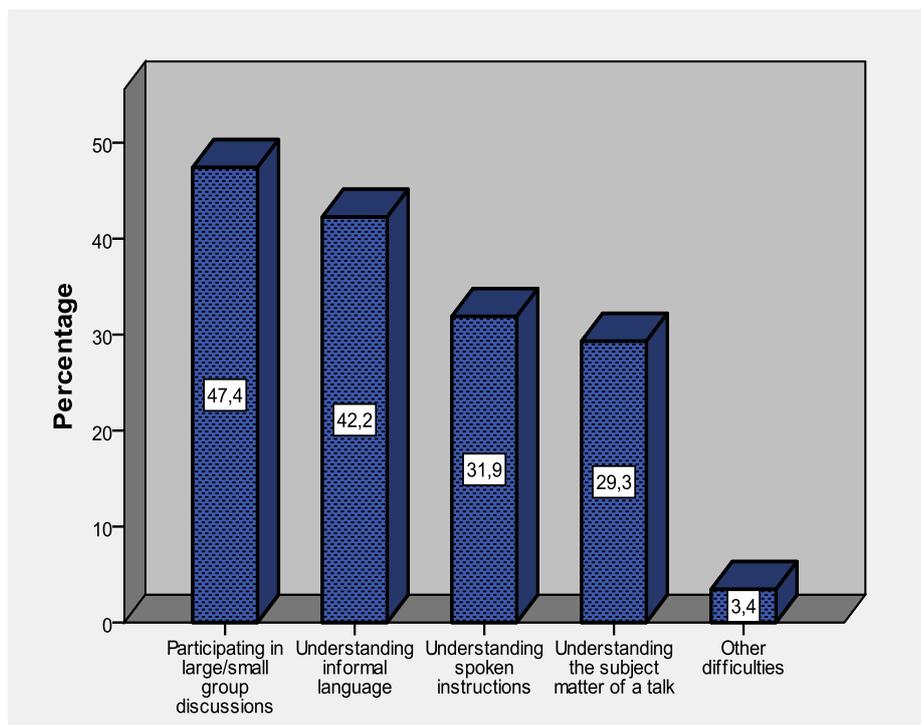


Graph14. The Most Affected Language Skills among EFL Learners

Q15.What are the difficulties you may encounter in the oral expression class? (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Percent of cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	Understanding spoken instructions	37	20,7%	31,9%
	Understanding informal language	49	27,4%	42,2%
	Understanding the subject matter of a talk	34	19,0%	29,3%
	Participating in large/small group discussions	55	30,7%	47,4%
	Other difficulties	4	2,2%	3,4%
Total		179	100,0%	154,3%

Table18. Difficulties EFL Students Encounter in Oral Expression Classes



Graph15. Difficulties EFL Students Encounter in Oral Expression Classes

The rationale behind the above question is to discern EFL students' difficulties during OE courses. Therefore, **47, 4%** find the participation in group discussions a difficult task. Those respondents apparently provide extra efforts when being involved in a large/small group activity. Moreover, **42, 2% (49 students)** cannot understand informal language because they lack exposure towards the informal aspect of the language. The fact of not being able to understand the spoken instructions directed by their teachers are chosen by **31,9%** of the whole responses (**37 students**). The following percentage of **29, 3%** is not far from the previous percentage. However, this number attempts to reflect the inability of EFL students to seize the subject matter of any topic under discussion. This hinders retain them from not participating and remaining silent during the course. At last, only 4 students choose to mention other difficulties to the already mentioned ones such as difficulty in pronunciation and expressing the idea they want to deliver because they lack vocabulary.

Q16. Which of the following activities are difficult? Please, rank them from 1 to 4 (1: not at all difficult 2: not really difficult 3: quite difficult 4: very difficult)

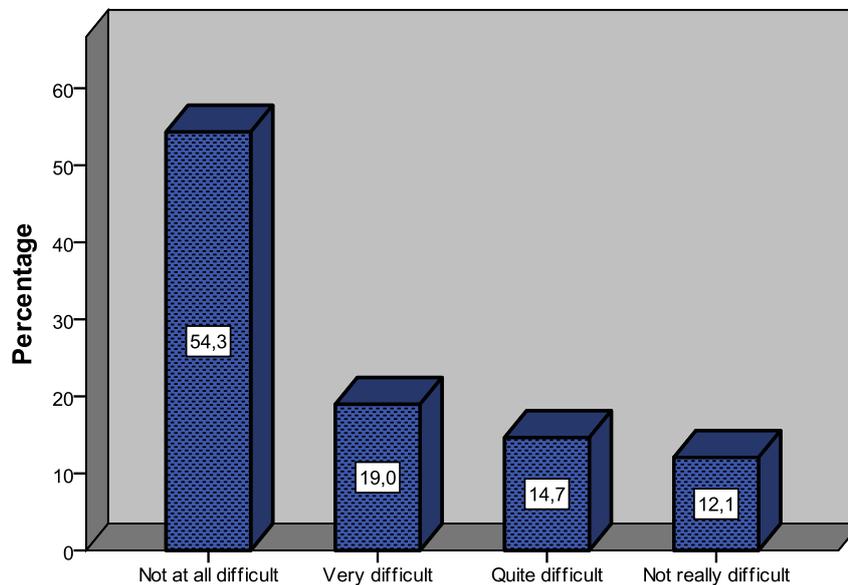
The ultimate goal behind this question is to know to what extent the presented activities formulate a difficulty to EFL students on a specific scale of (not at all difficult, not really difficult, quite difficult to very difficult)

16.1 Statement A:

(a) Listening to songs, T.V programs... etc

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid	Not at all difficult	63	54,3	54,3
	Not really difficult	14	12,1	12,1
	Quite difficult	17	14,7	14,7
	Very difficult	22	19,0	19,0
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table19. Difficulty Levels in Listening to English Material



Graph16. Difficulty Levels in Listening to English Material

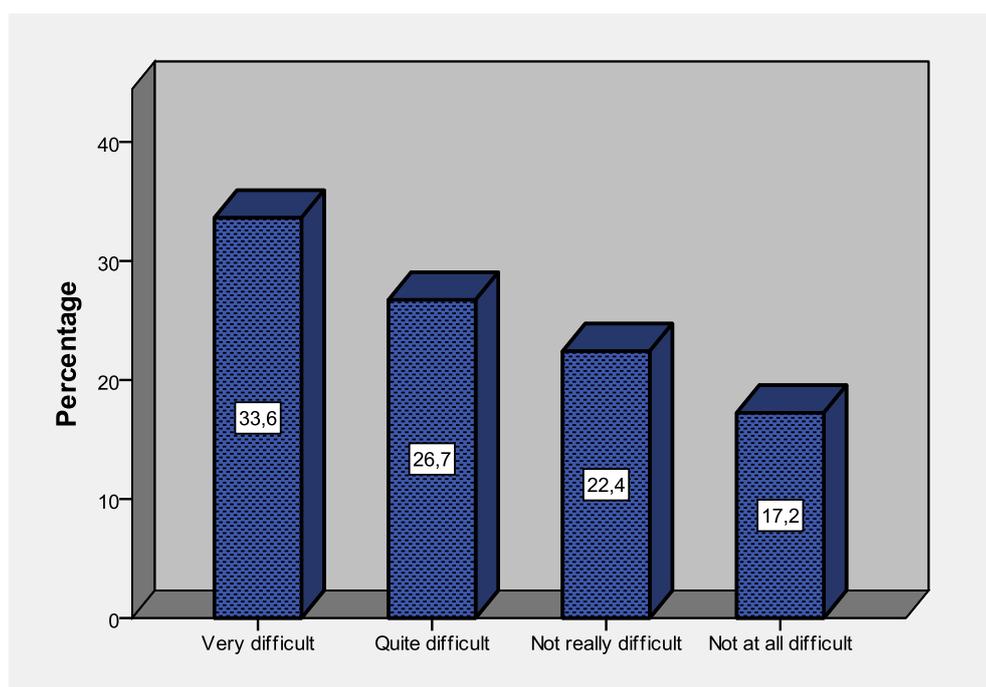
The majority of sixty-three students (**54,3%**) evaluate such an activity to be not at all difficult. In other words, they do not find it quite challenging when being exposed to in the classroom (probably because it is part of their daily routine especially listening to songs). The remaining answers are not far from each other; twenty-two EFL students (**19%**) regard this activity to be very difficult, while the rest with **14,7%** (**17students**) and **12,1%** (**14 students**) indicate that the difficulty of such an activity range from quite difficult to not really difficult.

16.2 Statement B:

(b) Listening to native speakers conversations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid	Not at all difficult	20	17,2	17,2
	Not really difficult	26	22,4	22,4
	Quite difficult	31	26,7	26,7
	Very difficult	39	33,6	33,6
Total		116	100,0	100,0

Table20. Difficulty Levels in Listening to Native Speakers' Conversations



Graph17. Difficulty Levels in Listening to Native Speakers' Conversations

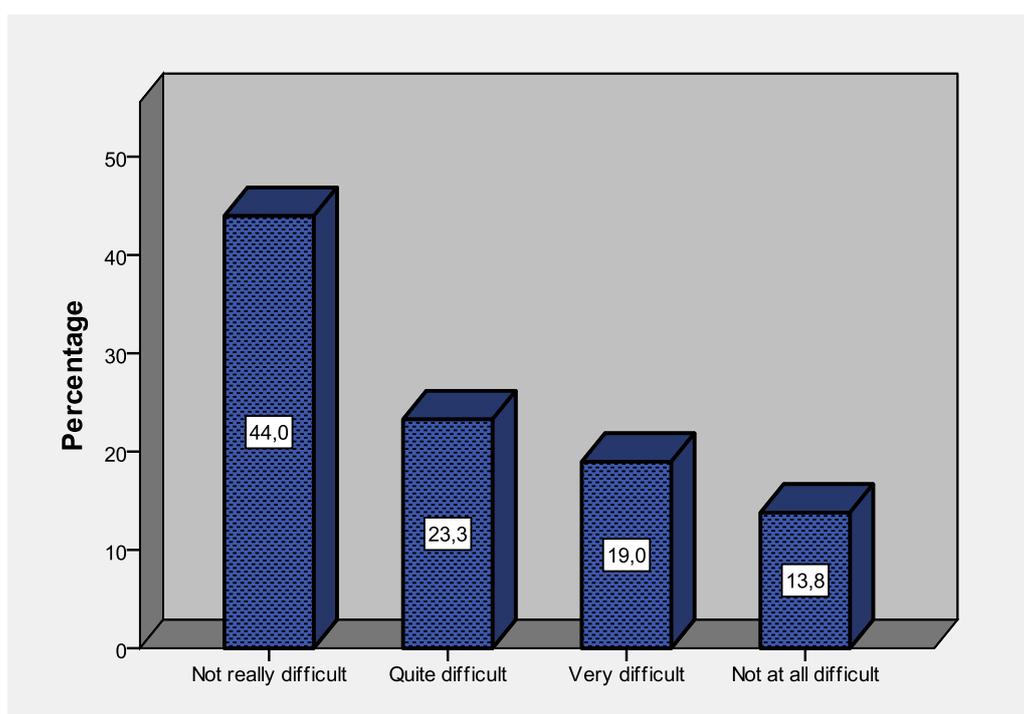
The majority of **39** students (**33,6%**) consider listening to native conversations a very difficult task, while **31** students (**26,7%**) state that it is quite difficult. On the other hand, twenty-six students (**22,4%**) indicate that they do not really encounter serious difficulties while listening. However, twenty students (**17,2%**) find no difficulties in listening to conversations whatsoever.

16.3 Statement C

(c) Watching videotapes about the English people's culture.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid	Not at all difficult	16	13,8	13,8
	Not really difficult	51	44,0	44,0
	Quite difficult	27	23,3	23,3
	Very difficult	22	19,0	19,0
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table21. Difficulty Levels in Watching Videotapes about the Target Culture



Graph18. Difficulty Levels in Watching Videotapes about the Target Culture

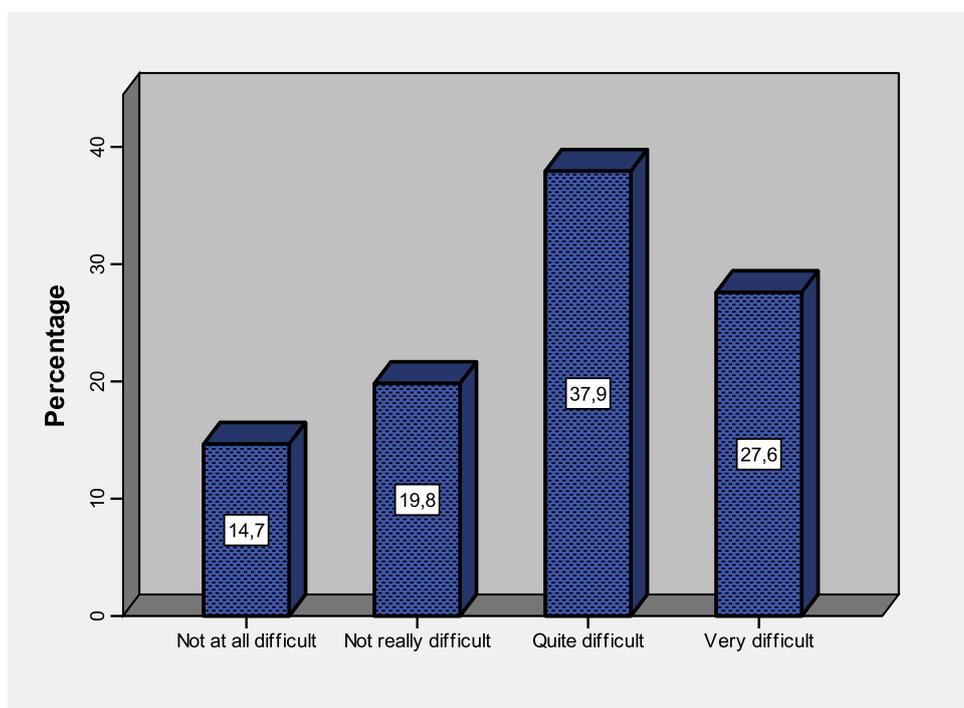
A total number of sixteen students (13,8%) considered the fact of watching videos about the English people's culture as 'not at all difficult' classroom activity, whereas, twenty two (13%) students evaluate such a task as very difficult. The majority of responses with 44% (51 students) reveal that watching videos related to culture does not impose serious difficulties on their behalf. However, 27 students (23,3%) face some difficulties when it comes to the other hidden side of the FL (i.e. culture).

16.4 Statement D

(d) Watching videotapes about daily English conversations by natives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid	Not at all difficult	17	14,7	14,7
	Not really difficult	23	19,8	19,8
	Quite difficult	44	37,9	37,9
	Very difficult	32	27,6	27,6
	Total		116	100,0

Table22. Difficulty Levels in Watching Videotapes about Daily Native Conversations



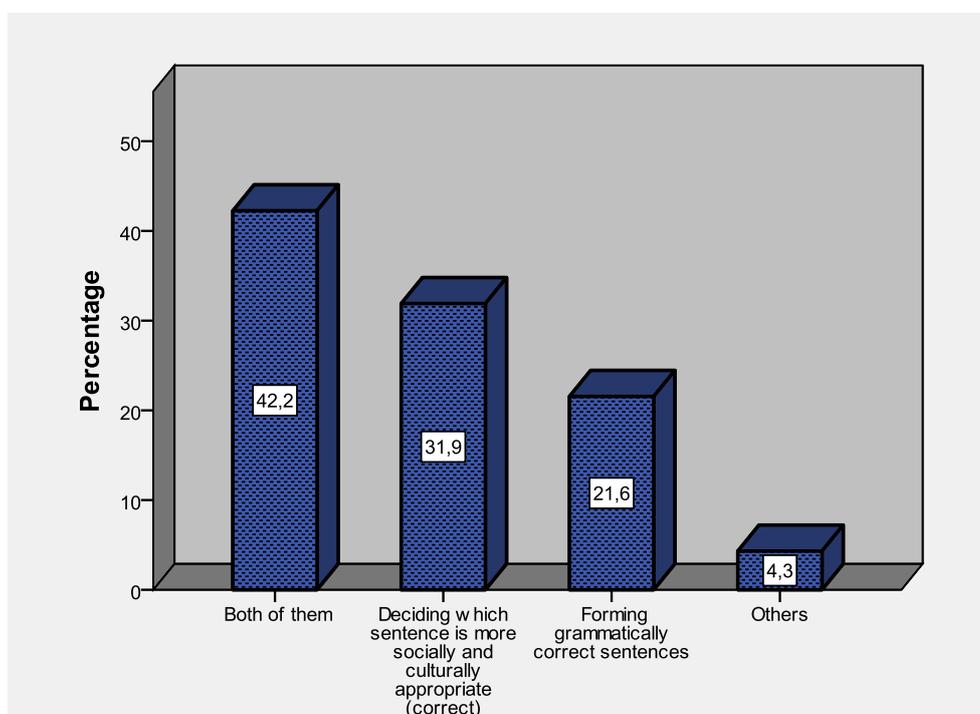
Graph19. Difficulty Levels in Watching Videotapes about Daily Native Conversations

Table 22 demonstrates that **37,9%** of EFL students consider watching videos about daily native speakers conversations quite difficult. On the same level of difficulty, **27,6%** see this as a very difficult activity to undertake, whilst **23** students (**i.e. 19,8%**) regard it as not really difficult to watch and cope with native speakers' conversations on a video display. Finally, only a few number of seventeen students (**14,7%**) consider such an activity as a simple task where no difficult is being imposed on their behalf.

Q17. What difficulties do you encounter when preparing your oral presentation (role-play, conversation ...)?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Forming grammatically correct sentences	25	21,6	21,6
	Deciding which sentence is more socially and culturally appropriate (correct)	37	31,9	31,9
	Both of them	49	42,2	42,2
	Others	5	4,3	4,3
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table 23. The Encountered Difficulties when Preparing an Oral Presentation



Graph 20. The Encountered Difficulties when Preparing an Oral Presentation

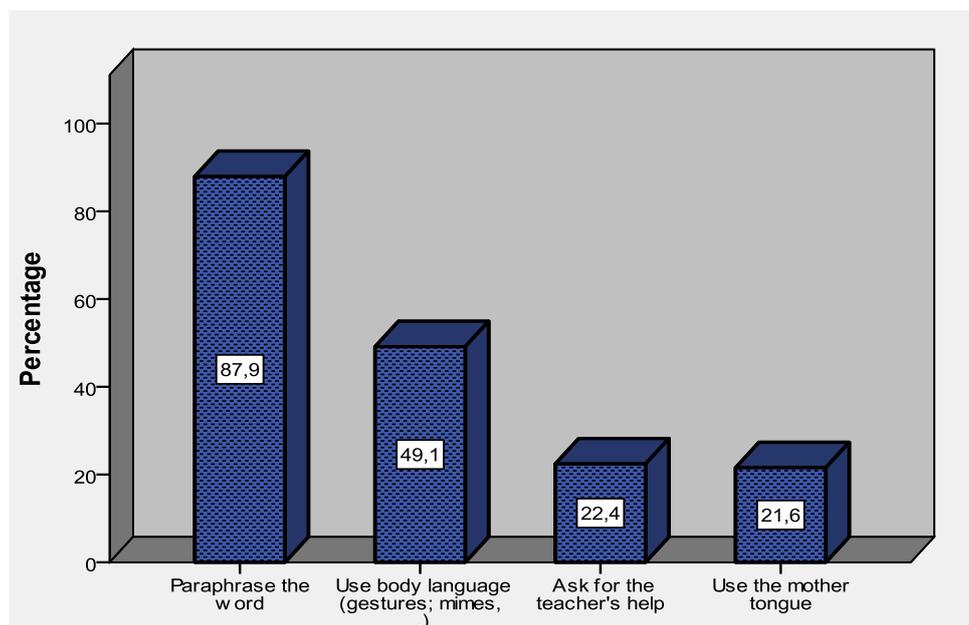
Any EFL student when undertaking the assignment of preparing an oral task encounters a considerable number of difficulties. The displayed results on table 23 and graph 20 indicate that the most encountered frequent difficulty lies in both linguistic and socio-cultural formulations of correct and more appropriate sentences for their assigned tasks such as role plays and conversations. To put much emphasis, **42,2%** of the total responses opted for this option. The second highest percentage **31,9%** fosters the decision to choose which sentences are more appropriate in a particular context of the talk. Another displayed

percentage of **21,6%** highlights a more linguistic side of the FL, which falls within the ability to construct grammatically correct and accurate sentences. As for the last percentage **4,3%**, reflects the small number of five students who mention other difficulties such as: how to pronounce accurately and sound like natives, how to remain consistent and coherent when discussing topics and how to memorize scripts for presentation.

Q.18 When you fail to express yourself in English, you ... (You may tick more than one)

		Responses		Valid Percent
		N	Percent	
Valid	Ask for the teacher's help	26	12,4%	22,4%
	Paraphrase the word	102	48,6%	87,9%
	Use the mother tongue	25	11,9%	21,6%
	Use body language (gestures; mimes, ..)	57	27,1%	49,1%
Total		210	100,0%	181,0%

Table24. Communication Breakdowns' Resolutions



Graph21. Communication Breakdowns' Resolutions

The following question attempts to reveal the different techniques that EFL students resort to when being unable to express an idea. The majority of participants (**87,9%**) choose to paraphrase the word or expression they want to use by utilising another substitute in order

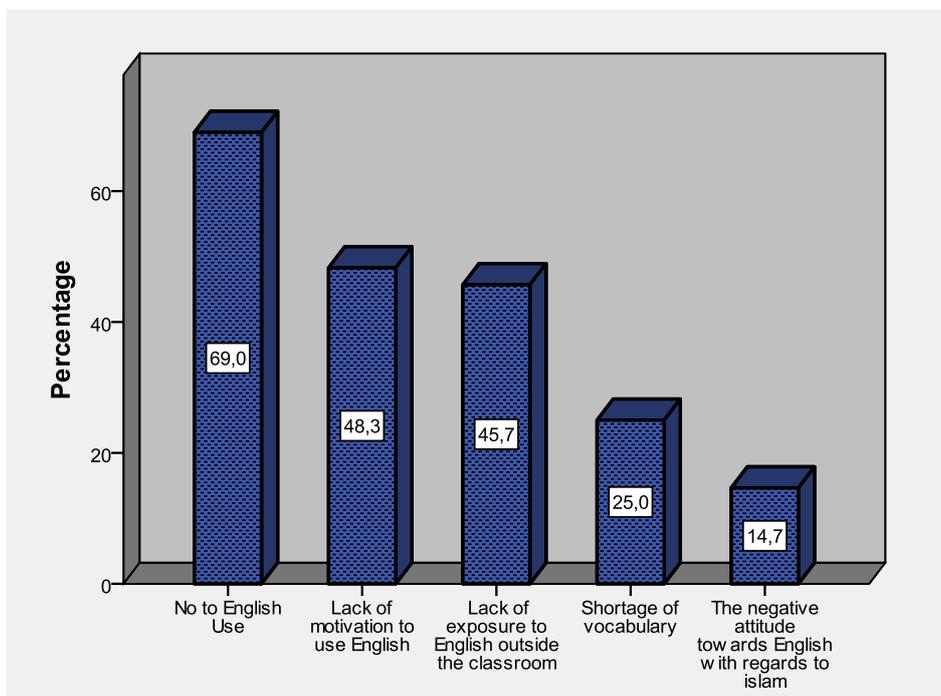
not to stop in the middle of speech delivery. The second option EFL students go for is the use of bodily gestures such as mimes, facial expressions and many other gestures alike. This is just one technique along with others such as drawing. The rest of the percentages are approximate; **22,4%** resort to ask for the teacher's help without making any effort on their behalf. Moreover, the few remaining responses of **21,6%** tend to use the mother tongue, and they are the very few.

Q19.What are the reasons that prevents you from using English outside the classroom? (You may tick more than one).

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Valid	No support to English Use	80	34,0%	69,0%
	Lack of exposure to English outside the classroom	53	22,6%	45,7%
	Shortage of vocabulary	29	12,3%	25,0%
	Lack of motivation to use English	56	23,8%	48,3%
	The negative attitude towards English with regards to islam	17	7,2%	14,7%
Total		235	100,0%	202,6%

Table25. Reasons Preventing English Use outside the Classroom

The reasons that prevent the use of English outside the classroom boundaries are many. The current question targets some of the causes that constitute a hurdle to EFL students. The highest percentage with **69 %** is the non support assigned to the English use in the home environment. The second reason constitutes **48,3%** of the whole responses that participants have opted for. In other words, they find no encouragement to use English by themselves or others in their daily interactions. This is followed by **45,7%** to outer constraints such as the unfamiliarity to English as a FL, because our society is much more inclined towards the use of French over any other language.



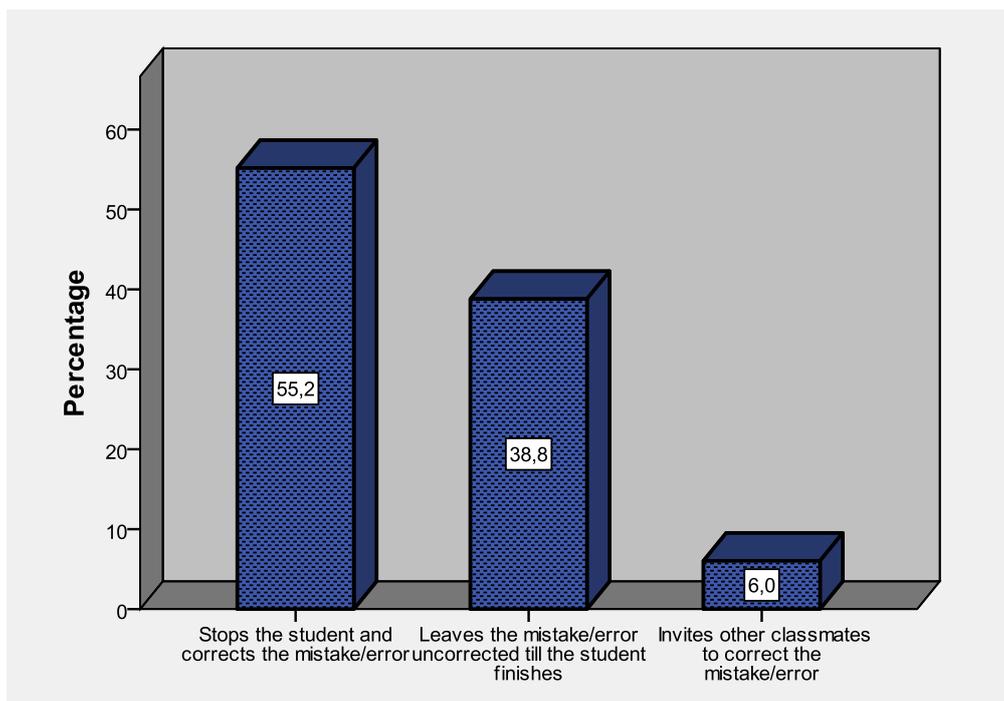
Graph22. Reasons Preventing English Use outside the Classroom

Another hindering option is the shortage of vocabulary which **29** students select (**25%**) of the suggested options. This one reflects mainly those who would like to use English outside the classroom, but do not have the adequate luggage to maintain such use. The minority of responses with **14,7%** (**17 students**) choose to believe that their use of English would be negatively perceived in our society due to religious beliefs. This concern specifically the sum of prejudices and stereotypes that lead to the rejection of English and its cultural behaviours related to the foreign society and thereby, hinders and demotivates the process of utilising the FL.

Q20.How does your teacher correct your mistakes/errors in communication?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Invites other classmates to correct your mistakes/errors	7	6,0	6,0
Leaves the mistake/error uncorrected in order not to interrupt til you finish	45	38,8	38,8
Stops you and corrects your mistake	64	55,2	55,2
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table26. EFL Teachers' Mistakes and Errors Correction



Graph23. Teachers' Mistakes and Errors Correction

The following results in table 26 and graph 23 unveil the clumsiness over the teachers' followed manners when correcting EFL students. According to the given responses, we notice that **55,2%** of the participants' answers state that their teachers interrupt on the spot by stopping the flow of communication and correcting the committed mistake/error. (This may reflect the seriousness of the mistake/error itself). Moreover, a considerable number of **twenty five** students (**38,8%**) say that their teacher leave their mistake/error uncorrected till they finish and hence provide them with the appropriate feedback. However, only **seven** EFL students (**6,0%**) say that their teacher prefer not to intervene and leave the floor to their classmates to correct the occurred mistakes/errors.

These yielded results indicate to what extent teachers take EFL students' mistakes and errors into consideration.

Section Four: Discourse Studies’ Implications on the Classroom Interaction between Teachers and Learners.

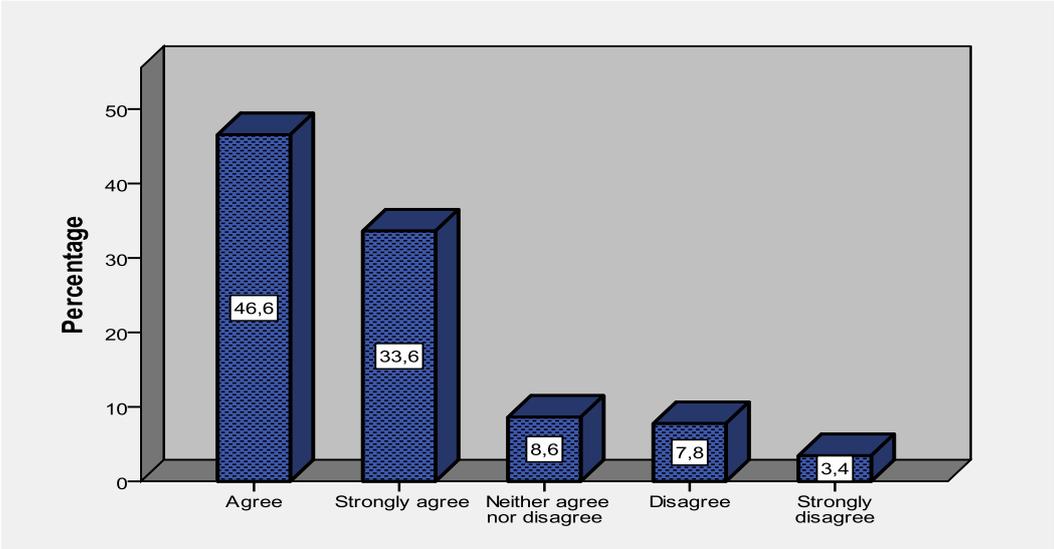
Q21.Please indicate your opinion about the following statements by putting a (✓) in the appropriate column.

21.1 Statement One

- 1. The teacher modifies his language in order to meet the learners’ level and make them familiar with English.**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid Strongly agree	39	33,6	33,6
Agree	54	46,6	46,6
Neither agree nor disagree	10	8,6	8,6
Disagree	9	7,8	7,8
Strongly disagree	4	3,4	3,4
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table27. Attitudes towards Teachers’ Language Adjustment.



Graph24. Attitudes towards Teachers’ Language Adjustment.

The following question comprises eight statements belonging to a likert scale of agreement. The analysis of each statement is done separately in SPSS in order to generate relevant and accurate data.

The current statistics indicate that, out of **116** respondents, **46,6 %** agreed with the fact that teachers need to alter their used language so that learners would familiarize and understand more English. **33,6%** strongly agreed, this is probably due to the nature of the language used by some teachers that might not meet with their actual level of ability. **8,6%** neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement and this is approximately similar to those who disagreed (**7.8 %**). Assumedly, they encounter no problem with the quality of speech provided (due to the requirements of a tertiary level) and these strongly entail the very few remaining percentage of **3,4%** of the whole sample.

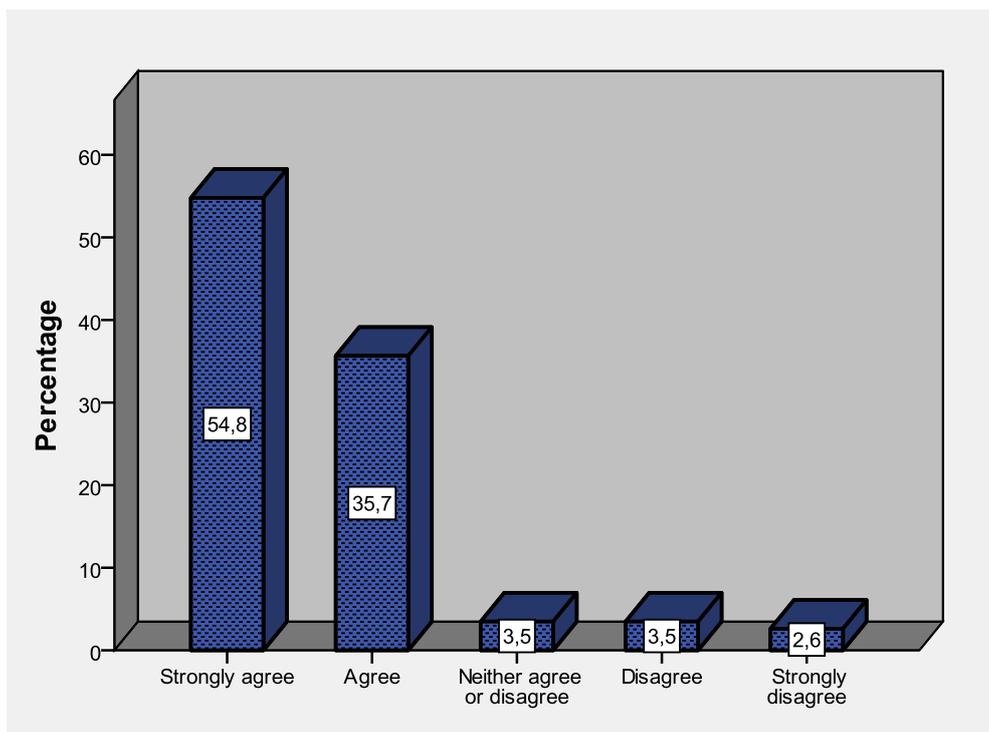
In brief, the yielded results confirm that many EFL students feel the need to receive re-adjustments with the nature of FL used in the classroom. This latter enables them to become more familiar with FL and enables the course of assimilation.

21.2 Statement Two

2. The teacher should increase the learners' talking time through discussions

		frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	63	54,3	54,8
	Agree	41	35,3	35,7
	Neither agree or disagree	4	3,4	3,5
	Disagree	4	3,4	3,5
	Strongly disagree	3	2,6	2,6
	Total	115	99,1	100,0
Missing	System	1	,9	
Total		116	100,0	

Table28. Increasing EFL Students' Talking Time through Discussions.



Graph25. Increasing EFL Students' Talking Time through Discussions.

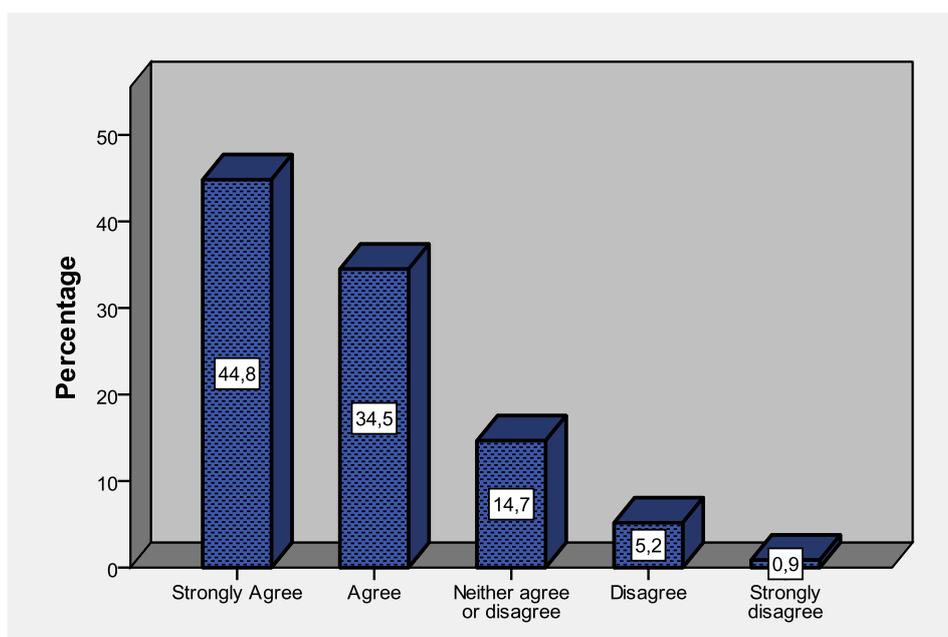
Table 28 indicate that a significant number of students show a positive attitude towards the following statement. First, **54,8% (63 students)** of responses strongly agree and then **35,7% (41 students)** agree on their need to increase their talking time through discussions. Third, **2,6 %** of the participants strongly disagree that their talking time should be increased. This is quite similar to those who disagree and neither agree or disagree, which their percentage is equivalent to **3,5%**. All of these responses show that those students (**11** from **115**) are not actually interested whether teachers urge them to talk or not (invite them to speak or not, give them the floor to speak or not). This choice is likely due to their unwillingness to participate or talk. As a result, they prefer the traditional way of teaching where the teacher is the only one responsible for most of the talk in the classroom during lectures, courses or whatever. One student has not answered the question. This may be due to the non concentration or the lack of interest towards communication/participation.

21.3 Statement Three

3. The teacher should present lessons about the English culture to make learners know more about its society and improve their communication skills worldwide.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	52	44,8	44,8
	Agree	40	34,5	34,5
	Neither agree or disagree	17	14,7	14,7
	Disagree	6	5,2	5,2
	Strongly disagree	1	,9	,9
	Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table29. Perceptions about the Effect of Culture in Improving Intercultural Communication.



Graph26. Perceptions about the Effect of Culture in Improving Intercultural Communication.

The above table indicates the distributions of the respondents' perceptions regarding the inclusion of culture lessons so as to enhance the intercultural communication skills. In this regard, strong agreement is shown to such an idea, and formulate **44,8%** of the whole population. This was followed by **34,5%** who reveal their agreement to the need to know

more about the target culture so as to know how to use the language not only correctly, but also appropriately in its right contexts. **14,7%** have neither agreed or disagreed with showing uncertainty about whether such an element (culture), would affect positively their course of communication. The remaining part, **5,2%** and **0,9%** disagree on the basis that they see no relevance between culture and communication. In other words, they cannot see the utility of getting acknowledged with the target culture to be able to use the FL fluently.

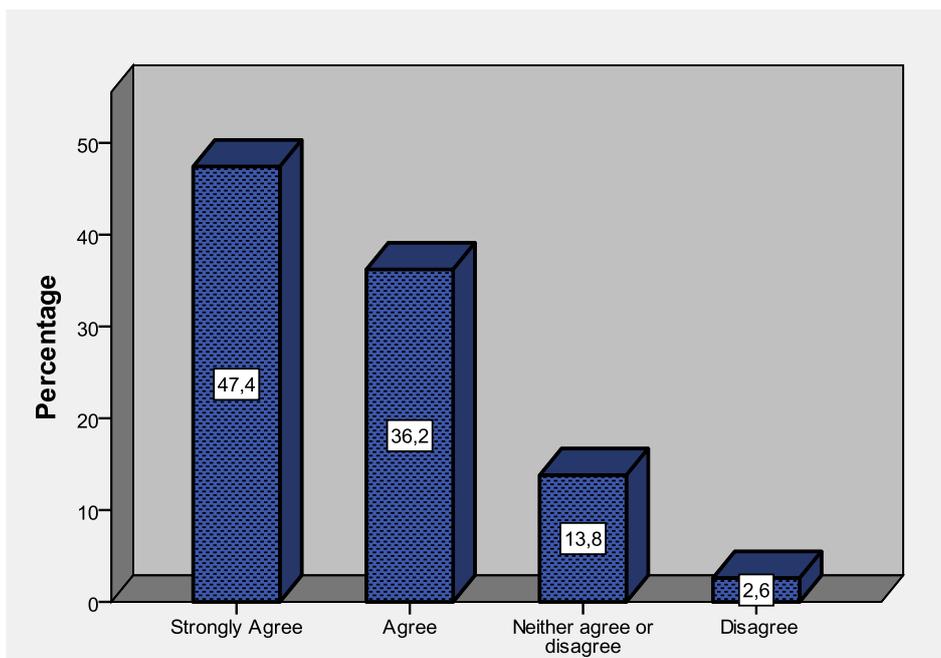
21.4 Statement Four

4. Learners should be exposed to real life conversations by natives to become aware of the appropriate use of English sentences in real life communication.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Strongly Agree	55	47,4	47,4
Agree	42	36,2	36,2
Neither agree or disagree	16	13,8	13,8
Disagree	3	2,6	2,6
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table30. Building Awareness of Appropriate Language Use through Authentic Material

Respondents were asked to reveal their degree of agreement in terms of awareness and exposure with regards to authentic conversations so as to build a relatively appropriate identity in the FL. Therefore, only **2,6% (3 students)** disagree with the above idea while **13,8% (16 students)** show neither agreement or disagreement. This is probably due to their views about that such an exposure to a native situation is a far reaching objective, or simply they find no interest in sounding appropriate, because this can be done through extensive reading, listening more other efforts on their part.



Graph27. Building Awareness of Appropriate Language Use through Authentic Material

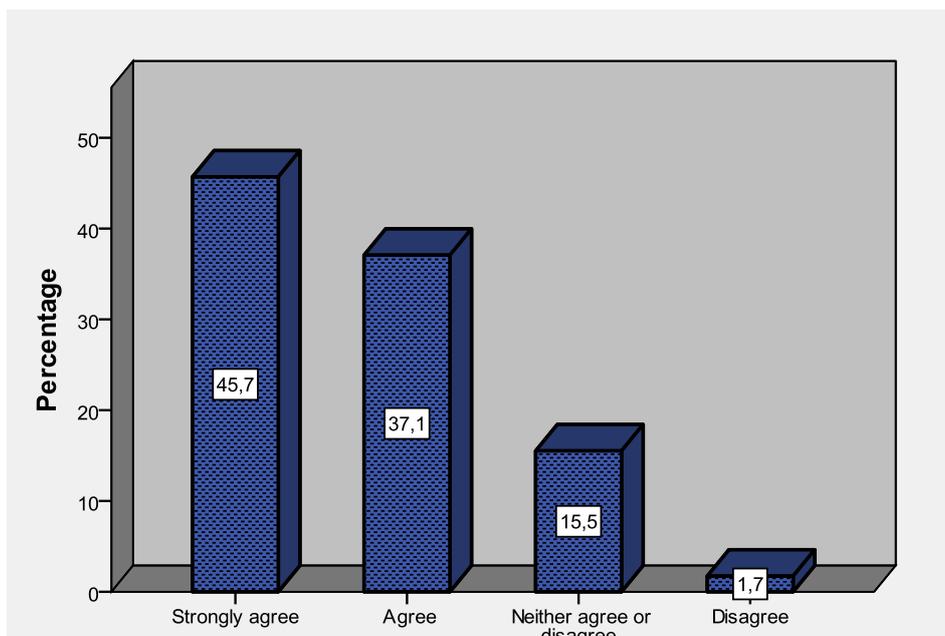
The rest of the results show slightly different levels of agreements. **47,4% (55 students)** reveal strong agreement along with **36,2% (42 students)** who completely show agreement and are in favour of the exposure to authenticity to become communicatively competent particularly in real life situations.

21.5 Statement Five

5. The teacher should teach communication strategies to his learners to help them overcome communication problems in the real world.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Strongly agree	53	45,7	45,7
Agree	43	37,1	37,1
Neither agree or disagree	18	15,5	15,5
Disagree	2	1,7	1,7
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table31. Perception about Teaching Communication Strategies



Graph28. Perceptions about Teaching Communication Strategies.

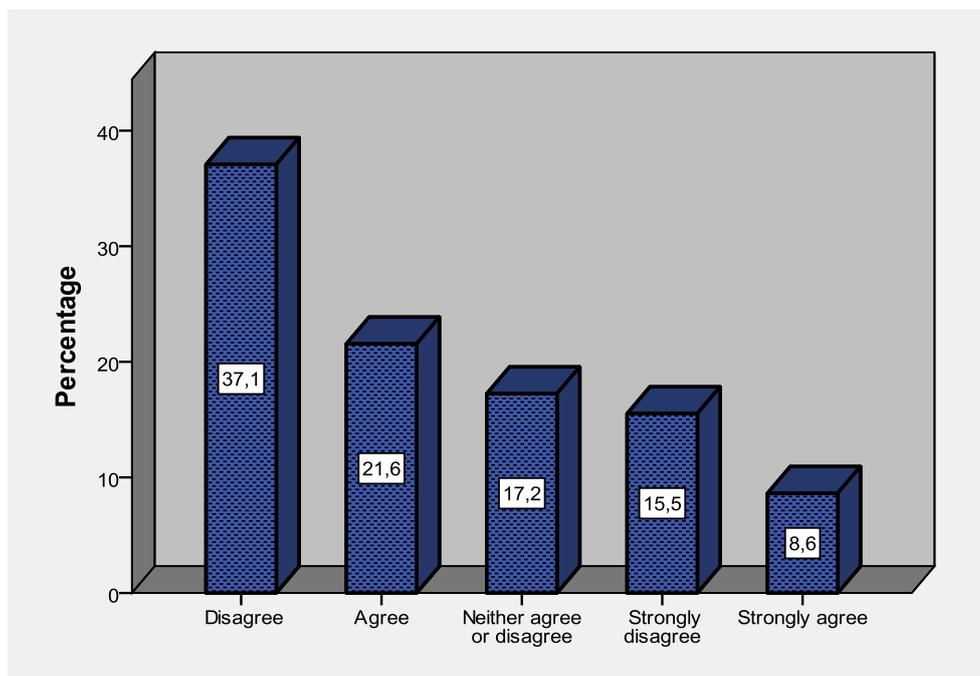
The given table diverge between a higher percentage of **45,7%** and **1,7%**. The former strongly agree with being taught multiple communication strategies to avoid the breakdowns in communication, they may face while conversing. Whereas, the latter (**2 students**) disagree with such a statement, the rest of the responses are **37,8%** to those who strongly agree and **15,5%** who are in the zone of total uncertainty towards whether to agree or disagree.

21.6 Statement Six

6. Conversing fluently in English is not an obligation for a good communication..

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Strongly agree	10	8,6	8,6
Agree	25	21,6	21,6
Neither agree or disagree	20	17,2	17,2
Disagree	43	37,1	37,1
Strongly disagree	18	15,5	15,5
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table32. EFL Students' Attitudes towards Fluent Conversation.



Graph29. EFL Students' Attitudes towards Fluent Conversation.

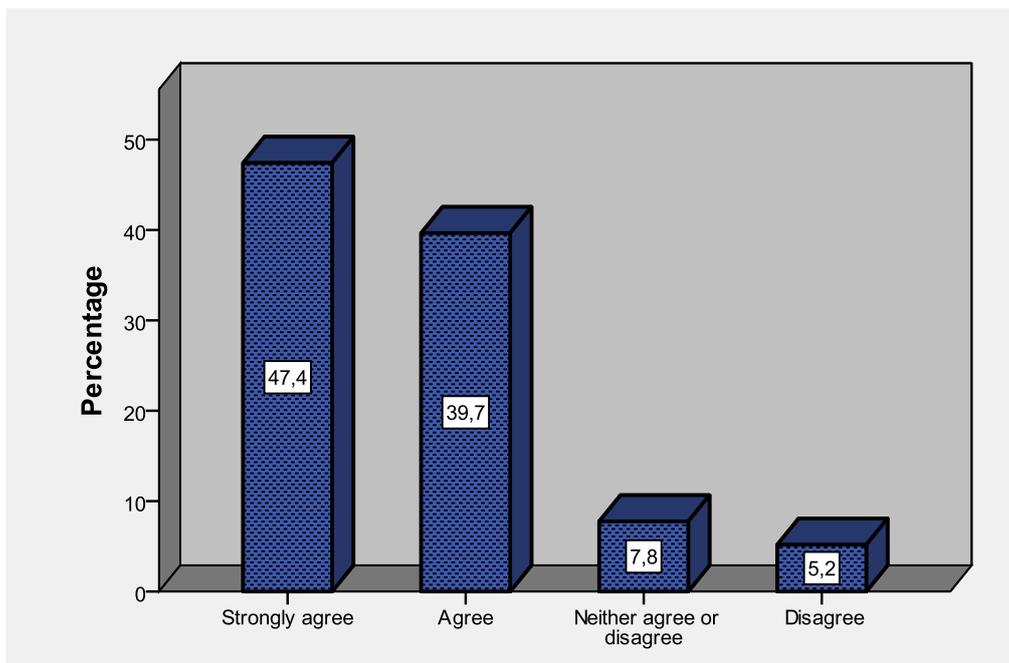
Respondents have attempted to evaluate the current statement by giving their personal viewpoints. Therefore, **37,1%** of the answers indicate disagreement with the fact that conversing fluently in English is not an obligation. On the contrary, they think that in order to converse fluently and in a good manner in English, you need to build a proper and well-elaborated conversation. Probably, this is the reason behind their lack of participation and use of English. **21,6%** agree to a certain extent that the quantity is what matters while conversing not the quality. This is the key to reach further stages of improvement in using the FL. **17,2%** and **15,5%** of the participants' viewpoints are approximate. The former show no agreement or disagreement to the given statement while the latter strongly disagree to consider fluent conversation in English as an obligation for a good communication.

21.7 Statement Seven

7. The teacher comments on learners especially when they succeed in making their oral presentations meaningful and communicative to motivate them in the future.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Strongly agree	55	47,4	47,4
Agree	46	39,7	39,7
Neither agree or disagree	9	7,8	7,8
Disagree	6	5,2	5,2
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table33. Raising Students' Motivation through Comments.



Graph30. Raising Students' Motivation through Comments.

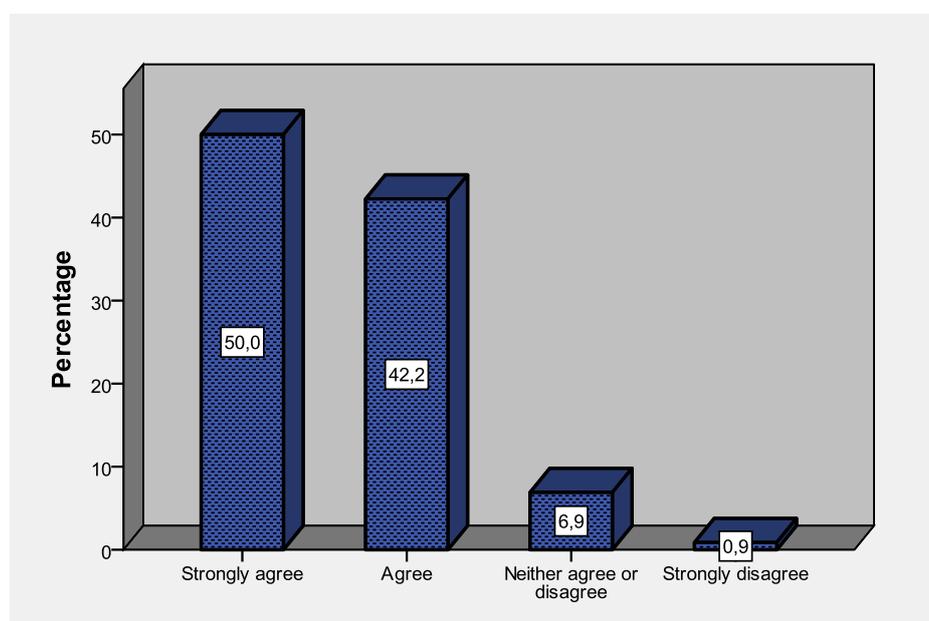
The majority of the students (**47,4%**) as indicated in table 32 strongly agree with receiving comments by their teachers when giving a presentation. This is merely done with the objective to boost their motivation and build on their self-confidence towards future use of the FL. **39,7%** agree with this idea whereas the rest show divergence between **7,8%** to neither agree nor disagree to **5,2%** where they totally disagree as far as teachers' comments are concerned. It may be inferred from the above findings that teachers' comments are mostly needed so as learners would place themselves on the scale of improvement in using the FL and henceforth, build upon previous experiences in order to generate a more advanced level of use and familiarization with the target language.

21.8 Statement Eight

8. The teacher makes learners form sentences such as (giving advice, making a request, suggesting ...) to enable them to become aware of the use of English in real life situations.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Valid Strongly agree	58	50,0	50,0
Agree	49	42,2	42,2
Neither agree or disagree	8	6,9	6,9
Strongly disagree	1	,9	,9
Total	116	100,0	100,0

Table34. Raising EFL Learners' Awareness to Authentic English Use



Graph31. Raising EFL Learners' Awareness to Authentic English Use

Although they are few, **0,9%** strongly disagrees with the above statement and **6,9%** are neutral about whether to be taught how to formulate a variety of sentences' format to exchange a message is implemented by the language teachers in OE classes or not. Despite such disagreement and neutrality in showing their viewpoints, **50%** of the participants strongly agree to be exposed to the different formats of making linguistic structures so as to be up to the task of being able to build awareness to their FL communication skills. This is followed by **42,2% (49 students)** who agree to what has been already stated vis-à-vis authentic multiple varieties of FL language use.

3.2 Analysis of the Teachers' Interview

Q1. How do you describe your learners' level with regards to communicating in English?

As far as the first question is concerned, the teachers' answers are stated differently (divergent) yet they fall within the same stream of thought. Concerning FL communication, the students' level constantly ranges from one scale to another such as outstanding, good, average, below the average, very low, poor). Those were the teachers' words used to describe the actual level of their learners' English communication ability. However, this was conceived from different perspectives of evaluation. To put it differently, depending on which criteria teachers equate their learners' level to such a category mentioned above. Therefore, the presented responses indicate that levels are dissimilar and hence the totalities of the students are described as average. This is taken literally by all of teacher four, five and six whose exact words were as follows:

T4 *"They come in all flavours and colours. There are good ones, so so and bad ones. But mostly I can say that are average students"*.

T5 *"Well, the majority of students are average. Some are below the average and very few have a good level"*.

T6 *"Well, we cannot over-generalize. We have fortunately some brilliant elements in each class every year but generally speaking most of them we can classify them to an average to poor level"*.

This was summarised by **T3** who puts it that way *"I have noticed that there is a gap in every class. On one side, you find very outstanding students who speak English very well and communicate easily in a variety of subjects. On the other side, you find very low students (to the point where you wonder why they are here). Even if, they are senior students who cannot communicate a message in the target language and this is the gap between two levels. Then, the majority, of course, are in between: I mean average students who can communicate in English but lack linguistic competence. This is sometimes due to some problems existing in all of our classes such as hesitation, anxiety and lack of vocabulary"*.

In fact, this is due to the quality and quantity of the conveyed message during the classroom activities. This is obvious especially when it comes to their use of the target language because **T1** states that *"I think they face great difficulty communicating in the FL especially, in terms of fluency and speed of delivery in talking; they hesitate and they also*

have difficulty in structuring their answers. In other words, they do not answer spontaneously as any native speaker and they have got some difficulties and delimits". T3 argues that "such differences in terms of level can be seized through classroom interaction which gives you a hint or a good image about each student. For instance, a simple discussion, a pair work and a free debate in class or even one single question may reveal everything about the students. In OE classes, we usually have debate on free topics selected by the teacher or the student himself/herself. Asking a very simple question like 'what do you think of something?' allows students who are competent enough to immediately respond to the question using their personal experience and hence communicating the idea easily. In this category, students do not have a problem with words in terms of expressing themselves with ideas. The other, whether they remain silent or once you assign them to talk, they are anxious; they do not find the word, or anything to say. This is just one example".

Regardless to the above opinions and constraints that help in the construction of learners' levels, T2 asserts that *"we cannot judge that students are poor or weak because they are not given rights in terms of opportunities then, to be judged they are good or bad. How can we judge someone for being good or bad and you have not given him/her own rights"*, and this is due as he argues to *"the real life situation of communication in this department where the conditions themselves are not favourable to afford opportunities for learners to communicate because of constraints and limiting factors which can be external or internal, social and psychological ones"*. S/he continues *"That is why their communication is forcibly affected by errors: all sorts of errors, except for very few students who are highly motivated and they provide extra effort via facebook or any other personal links and relationships or technological devices"*.

The sum of data yielded reflects teachers' viewpoints about the students' level at MKU, Biskra. This latter is confined within the limitations of three main categories: good, average and poor. However, the most prevalent one is the "average" category which constitutes the majority of the whole students enrolled in the various grades.

Q2. Do you present a variety of activities to develop your learners' oral proficiency? Give examples.

The overall answers given to this question fall within a positive realm, all of the interviewed teachers attempt to create a varied classroom atmosphere where a range of multiple activities prevail. Examples of such activities are the most recommended and dealt

with such as are role plays, classroom discussions, presentations and storytelling by all the teachers (1-6). However, they mentioned other types of activities **T5** deals with “*story completion such as an oral task that requires creativity along with communicative games such as riddles, guessing who and many other activities*”. In addition to the most known and very famous activities, **T1** emphasized that “*you can also use ICT means and then design different classroom when the film or the video is over for example. These are different techniques that can be used especially through ICT*”. **T2** pointed out that “*examples of activities can be through organizing interviews or simulations. Students can interview an important personality as a writer as a journalist, as a political leader: someone related to your topic*”. This is all with the aim as **T3** emphasized that “*as a teacher you need to vary from one to one conversation, dialogues, project based interpretation, storytelling, debates, simulations and role plays, project based, and oral presentations in class*”.

Some teachers prefer to leave the floor to students in order to be the only decision makers concerning what they need to learn. **T4** argued that “*I give them the freedom to express themselves in any way possible. Through role plays, through poetry, through projects whatever and I give them the freedom/liberty to choose their own activities without my interference*”.

Some teachers regard their own classrooms as a field of multiple set of experiences. It is not only a place where one single range of activity is concerned. Thereby, **T5** mentioned “*all of speaking games, story elaboration and speaking marathon where their main objective is as follows: “speaking games are sometimes based on enriching vocabulary, sometimes on building fluency*”. S/he highlighted each activity objective in enriching vocabulary: “*I set a task where students in a group of four choose words randomly and then write them on a sheet of paper, fold it and mix the words and distribute them among the groups, and hence they get new words. Afterwards, I ask students to elaborate a story which contains the four words (which will act as the theme of the story). This is fun and challenging as they do very creative stories. In order to build fluency, the speaking marathon is set when asking students to start a conversation randomly altogether and maintain speaking until they stop. This urges students to give their best in terms of language ability*”.

The organization of both open discussions and role plays are described by **T6**. The latter is flexible with students in terms of topic choice stating that “*at the beginning of the year, I discuss with students the type of activities they wish to deal with in class and based on*

that I opt for the inclusion of different tasks. Thereby, three or four topics are suggested per student and every student is aware of his classmate's choices. After that, sorts of elections about those topics are held and only ten out of the whole collection will be classified according to the students' scores. The one with highest scores will be the first topic to be discussed and thereby one session will be devoted for the open discussion". This routine is done in order to motivate the EFL learners build a kind of rapport and awareness with the classroom topics being discussed. Furthermore, this is done "on purpose so that they will not come to class without any background knowledge even if the suggested topic is totally new for them; they will have to search about in advance and come to class well-prepared, involved and ready to engage in any kind of discussion".

As far as role plays are concerned, **T6** argued that *"vocabulary activities formulate its introductory phase. It means when introducing the role play, we need to decide about its theme, the number of partners then the sort of target language to be utilised. However, the role play will be organized and prepared by students where the maximum of the target language provided should be included provided that they use their imagination".*

In fact the choice of these activities is due to many factors. For instance, **T2** argued that *"OE has to be taught under the variety of activities and techniques. This is dependent on the target, the objective (i.e. the objective is to teach vocabulary, to teach a structure, or to teach coherence, cohesion) the method (is it a group work, is it a personal work) and the technique. The latter should be eclectic where each time learners have to be granted with opportunity to express themselves fully by being scaffolded or accompanied by the teacher. This happens through oral activities because they constitute a kind of self-assessment where learners evaluate themselves (a kind of personal output) According to the form of interaction (is it a student-student interaction or a teacher-student interaction, a peer-group or a group work) and teacher intervention organized to enhance oral proficiency. In fact, it is not the activities but the module itself". Similarly, **T3** pointed out that "as a teacher you need to guarantee both accuracy and fluency and this depends on the lessons' objective. The latter is sometimes to focus on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, drilling and many other areas. However, the focus is sometimes on fluency about debating, arguing, asking, replying, requesting and all these kinds of language functions and speech acts. Therefore, in one lesson a teacher needs to have this balanced recipe between accuracy and fluency".*

To put it differently, the “*main objective in teaching OE is to help my students express themselves without shame or without being afraid of the teacher or their friends*” (T5).

All of the above objectives set through these varieties should “*create a motivational atmosphere for learners to be always active and hence avoiding to keep the same activity where boredom may become part of the learner routine*”, as T3 argued.

T1 asserted that “*what is most important about such variety is that the teacher should always care for the fact that he eliminates any fact/kind of inhibitions which can be found in the behaviour of the students. This is the first thing for any classroom activity to be successful where the participation of the students is essential*”.

As a result, the responses generated vis-à-vis this question prove that the FL teacher attempts by no means to meet the requirements of their learners’ needs, wants and interests. This is achieved through the fact of being eclectic and bringing to the classroom a set of multiple activities. In other words, to make a variety of new oriented modern decisions to be implemented within their daily teaching routine. These, in turn, help in creating a motivating atmosphere where learners are expected to put all their efforts to improve on their oral proficiency.

Q3. In your opinion, which of the following language skills favour more communication: speaking, listening or both? How?

The following question is designated to explore EFL teachers’ opinions about the usefulness of language skills and the ways in which they help EFL learners in relation to communication in the FL.

All of the teachers share one common that both skills generate more communication on the learners’ part and have their viewpoints stated from a variety of perspectives. For instance, T5 emphasized that “*both skills are important because they are interrelated and work together. Even if speaking as a productive skill is the one we consider most within a conversation, listening is the skill that enables us to receive the message, interpret it then respond accordingly. In addition, a successful and effective communication is not achieved unless both skills are alert and it is mostly known that a good speaker is a good listener*”. Similarly, T3 referred to this interrelationship saying that “*the common belief about communication is speaking yet its hidden part is listening. One cannot communicate unless s/he understands what the message is. So, it is always about that two sided balance where*

communication comprises not only speaking but also listening. Therefore, if a learner fails in one of them, s/he may not be a good communicator. However, one can be a good speaker, but a bad listener in terms of not understanding what s/he listens to and hence a learner may fall within the so-called pragmatic failure”.

T1 presented the importance of both skills on the basis of valid arguments “*despite the fact that learners may be skilful either in listening or speaking, each one of them is dependent on one another. Listening, on one hand especially when learners listen to native speakers of the foreign language, this may enable them to acquire certain elements like the accent (how to speak) for instance. With regard of the English language, students cannot learn stress, intonation and foreignizing tones but when they can only have insights into how the native speaker delivers his speech and this can be achieved through listening. However, on the other hand the fact of speaking or any related speaking activities material is essential in FL acquisition, particularly in the sense that there is a process of imitation and improvement when a student speaks because if s/he remains silent and passive, how is s/he going to acquire any kind of FL oral proficiency”.*

Despite the interrelatedness in viewpoints, **T6** highlighted the importance of listening over speaking based on the argument that “*we expect to listen twice as much as we speak, but we speak twice as much as we read and so on and so forth”.* Furthermore, s/he asserted that “*the path towards being competent FL communicators is through listening and if learners take this into consideration, they will be good learners and therefore good speakers. It means if they apply what they gained from listening in their speech obviously they will be good speakers as it is a direct result”.* Moreover, **T6** stated that s/he gives “*constantly a piece of advice where students have to listen as much as they can because once they listen; they improve many areas of interest. In the first place, they will foster their listening as a skill. Then, they will gain more vocabulary and hence they will be aware of how native speakers’ FL is built in terms of words’ uttering, ways of pronunciation, intonation, stress and even the manner in which they express themselves in a variety of situations (when they are surprised, when asking questions...etc)”.*

The rest of **T2 and T4** equated their opinions as being traditional and integrative. The former asserts that the preference is centred on all of them “*as they complete one another and they do not compete with one another”.* The latter argued that “*in communication, all the four skills should be involved without any exception. In fact, there is no speaking without reading*

and no writing without listening, because all the skills are learning divisions divided into abilities. It means that learners are exposed, in the early proficiency, on how to provide speech (how to speak a language), how to listen, how to write and how to read. Therefore, the aim is to lead the learner to a specific autonomy where oral communication is a combination of listening and reading, for instance. The latter, in academic teaching, is very important because it exposes learners to the authentic originality of the text through the novel and the short story, for example. Learners do not only interact orally because there are many and a variety of techniques”.

Q4. In what terms, do you think that the implementation of CLT in EFL contexts enable learners to develop communication skills?

Teachers think that CLT, as an approach, takes into consideration all the learners without any distinction. **T6** stated that *“every year, classes are not homogenous, because students do not belong to the same level of ability. Therefore, dealing with all this variety urges us as teacher to double the efforts and choose tasks and activities that suits all of them in terms of nature and hence to make sure that all of them or at least most of them are involved and engaged in the learning process”*. S/he argues that *“if teachers take into consideration just those brilliant students and forget about others. Obviously, through time this will impact them negatively and then they will get bored, skip the session or even more they will be more passive than before when being present”*. Similarly, **T5** added his voice to the above opinion where he asserts that *“CLT can enhance EFL learners’ fluency since it enables them get more chances to interact with all their peers students and teachers. Moreover, CLT approach when followed by teachers enable students build their self-confidence to speak FL with someone else, because they are not used to talk the language outside the classroom. Therefore, I guess through the communicative teaching EFL students get more chances and opportunities to talk not only with others, but also practice more vocabulary, grammar and the sum of linguistic structures. At the same time, they learn to use different types of language functions in different situations to express themselves effectively. (where they can use the language and where they have to use it). For instance, the kind of language used at the doctor’s is not the same they use in the classroom”*.

From an Algerian EFL context, **T4** maintained that *“CLT is a very good approach but unfortunately it has been badly implemented in our educational institutions. Actually, this is because most of the teachers were interested in urging students memorize vocabulary and grammar and such things but they never give them the chance to be creative, innovative and*

try something new away from such practices. However, the way in which CLT can enhance more EFL communication is the need to render teachers themselves creative through training. EFL teachers need to be ‘well-trained’ not just trained and very qualified. I mean they should undergo an education at special schools where they combine both theory and practice. This will grant them with deep knowledge about whom, what and where are they going to teach. Otherwise, they would fail in their mission”.

T2 asserted that *“CLT is just a means not an end. It is a means of teaching technique where the learner, academically speaking, should be exposed to all forms of language; H/She should be exposed either to listening, to developing his listening abilities, decoding and understanding. Furthermore, h/she highlighted that “CLT is a teaching method which originated from a conversation theory. It means that learners should be brought in a real life and interactive situation where they have to chat or communicate with a teacher or among the peer group”.* Therefore, **T2** concluded that *“CLT is an eclectic method that does not neglect any element of language teaching because each part of it is just a contributing factor and an element that add to the whole and the background knowledge of learners because these, in turn, embrace what we call the learning styles and their divergences (learning by listening or by speaking or by reading and writing). So, teachers when using CLT in EFL contexts should consider the learning styles (the learner’s personality), because one way to urge a student to communicate is through knowing personality, his background, his psychology and his behaviour”.*

T1 restated the above ideas under another version. *“In CLT, the majority of the activities are designed in the sense that they enhance learners’ effective participation in the classroom activities and consequently by its naming that is communicative, the activities are inciting the students to participate more effectively in the tasks within the classroom. As a result, the aim (of course) is the proficiency not only in communicating orally but also in enabling students to become good writers in the FL. Moreover, it has been proved thoroughly that the essence of the communicative approach in language teaching is dealing with an active learner. This is solely the ultimate objective to create a more learner-centred classroom rather than the old-fashioned teacher-fronted classes”.*

In addition, **T1** joined his voice to **T2** and **T5** saying that *“we as teachers try to create a kind of communication in the foreign language which takes place within the classroom because we are talking about a context which is purely academic and hence enables the*

students to use the language throughout the different contexts and situations which require different types of discourse”.

T3 thought that implementing CLT in EFL contexts faces a considerable number of problems related to teaching practices as they are the ones responsible for the learner’s progress. S/he stressed that *“we need to prepare learners for communication. However, the problem is that we sometimes find ourselves unconsciously doing things that are not communicative in nature. For example, we sometimes ask questions just for language accuracy and see whether students can reply to the question or not. It means that the communicative purpose is absent in the question probably just for the sake of seizing linguistic competence and therefore, we find ourselves fostering linguistic competence more than communicative competence”*. This as **T5** argued *“goes against one of the basic principles of CLT that is to develop communicative skills especially speaking. The method is based on definite techniques and strategies to foster communication through a wide range of activities that improve learners’ communicative competence and proficiency”*.

In brief, in order to acquire the maximum benefit from CLT, teachers need to focus more on implementing/integrating a more communicative based behaviour so as to work on their EFL weaknesses and raise their confidence towards using the FL.

Q5. How should the role of an oral class teacher be in order to meet EFL learners’ communicative needs?

Any teacher is required to undertake a variety of roles when being involved with learners. Despite the challenges and difficulties put in their path, they attempt to maintain the appropriate pace of teaching and henceforth provide learners with the adequate amount of learning that meet their requirements and needs within the pre-planned objectives.

Teachers, when being interviewed, had various opinions. However, their positions serve to meet EFL learners’ needs on the grounds of their teaching background and experience. The majority of teachers mentioned a list of roles such as a guide, a facilitator, a helper and a prompter. These are amongst well-known roles associated to teachers. However, when it comes to modern teaching, things have changed and become more complicated.

T1 thought that *“they are two main positions about teachers’ roles. First, modern teaching tries to keep the role of the teacher to a minimum. It means that there is no kind of imposition or presence on the teacher’s part”*. **T1** emphasized *“that this is a very difficult role to keep since we cannot pretend that the teacher has no active, specific or effective role to*

play in the classroom. However, the idea of wise guidance and appropriate intervention should be achieved by the teacher but not to the extent that it will represent a kind of hurdle in the flow of development of the students' work. Therefore, this is done in order to give opportunities to students to work by themselves through pair or group work activities. In other word, the teacher is a motivator and an active participant but at the same time he should not dominate the class by his presence or interventions”.

T6 explicated a teacher's intervention where *“he must intervene in the right moment to facilitate the task and to put the student as well in a comfortable environment. It means that in and oral class, most space should be given to the students and students' talking time should exceed teacher's talking time. The teacher must be a guide, an observer and somehow a facilitator especially when he notices that one of his students is facing problems in an attempt to express himself or suffers from shortage of vocabulary, for example”.*

T2, in the same line of thought, asserted that *“the teacher's role or intervention in the EFL classrooms should be reduced and limited to managing communication. Otherwise, it is going to be domination from the teacher's part while in modern teaching methods EFL students are supposed to express themselves more”.* Additionally, **T4** pointed out that *“a teacher should be part of the class but not the ruler, the controller or the dictator of the classroom situation. A teacher should be one inseparable member of the class where he participates in the activities just like any other student but not a teacher”.*

T5 argued that *“EFL newly generation of students require a more of a helper, supporter, a facilitator and friendly-like teacher, because once they feel that a teacher is authoritative they block and become neither motivated nor cooperative. However, once such roles are performed by teachers, learners started to react more with the activities”.*

Regardless to the above information, **T3** emphasized that *“teachers' roles depend on their learning styles. This is because some learners prefer the presence and guidance of the teacher in all the classroom tasks where they cannot do anything unless they ask about that thing. Others learners are the quite opposite because they are independent and feel at ease when they are not controlled. However, once the teacher monitors the work they feel stressed and anxious. I think that the more a teacher knows the learners' styles, the better they are left to work effectively”.*

Q6. What are the difficulties that your students may encounter when conversing in English?

Students when conversing in another language that it is not theirs face a considerable number of problems. **T2** maintained that *“difficulties vary from one level to another and from one learner to another. In terms of level, students may face various difficulties and they also do not face the same difficulty. This means that each learner has his difficulty related to his own learning styles. Therefore, difficulties vary also in nature where the more the learner develops a certain competence, the more difficulties become complex. It means they develop a kind of competence in difficulties”*.

T1 assumed that *“difficulties can be divided in two categories: psychological and linguistic problems. The former (psychological context) is where you may find students, to a certain extent proficient in communicating in FL, but they are shy and consequently avoid talking or communicating in front of an audience”*. Similarly, **T3** stated that *“anxiety affects even competent and knowledgeable students because when it comes to the stage, everything is lost”*.

FL oral proficiency problems occur when students cannot get full benefit of activities if they do not have the linguistic proficiency to achieve the task. This is because of them ignoring words, their lack or poor vocabulary, the inability to structure or to construct sentences in order to talk and of course wrong pronunciation. **T3** asserted that *“students lack many aspects and features in terms of competence, awareness and knowledge. They are poor in grammar, poor in vocabulary and lastly fall for pragmatic failure. For example, when asking learners to argue, to ask, to request or to suggest they are unable to do this; they can ask a question but it is not well structured or it does not fit the required language function. This is because they come to the tertiary level with a poor background that lacks cultural awareness, exposure to the foreign authentic language and knowledge in terms of certain fields”*.

In addition, **T4** assumed that *“most of the students are unable to overcome their shyness. Everybody is afraid in some way from the other one; female students are afraid of the males’ reactions and vice versa. So, it is a mutual negative impression. The reason behind such a problem is that we live in a society that is face saving. That is why everyone is afraid of the other. This is due to two external reasons. One is that we have not taught our students*

to work together and then is that our educational practices are mainly memorization-focused rather than contribution focused”.

T6 added to the above forms of difficulties particularly the linguistic ones where *“there are lots of common problems where they do not respect tenses; they swallow the s of the present, produce it once it is not needed. They also suffer from subject verb agreement, the plural and the singular formulation along with the use of the articles and many other forms of grammatical mistakes”*. Another major problem is mispronunciation and once they speak the structure of their sentences are weird. This is noticeable when they are asked to form a question and put it in a form of statement and vice versa. In brief, their difficulties are a mixture of lapses and mistakes”.

T5 highlighted four main points. *“First, the majority of students have tendency to think in Arabic (their mother tongue) and translate their thoughts in English. This sounds faulty most of the time because the two cultures as well as the language structures are not compatible and tare totally different. Second, EFL students ignore which specific words to use in specific contexts because they lack English culture knowledge. They generally use the literal meaning of a word and ignore its “connotation” which may cause problems in communications like making errors or misunderstandings. Third ignoring the use and meaning of idioms, proverbs, slangs, and special expression that denote a hidden message. Where students only consider the surface meaning and forget about what is really meant by these words. Finally, having difficulties with intonation and stress because they converse in a monotonous way or use an Arabic accent to express themselves”*.

In fact, the hurdles that most EFL students suffer from are not only psychological or linguistic. They can go further beyond the surface level of the FL and would be concentrated on the cultural aspect which formulates the deep level of language. This latter’s ignorance or lack of exposure results in leading EFL students commit mistakes that may be conceived negatively on behalf of the native speakers of the target speech community.

Q7. How do you manage communication breakdowns among your learners?

Breakdowns of communications are briefly explicated by some teachers. For instance, **T1** argued that *“the problem of breakdown of communication maybe due essentially to the inability to master the foreign language in terms of two aspects: the structuring of the utterances and the mastery of discourse organisation. For instance, if they do not know when to take the floor when to interrupt, what to say, to whom, at what time, all these aspects are*

determined linguistically and socio-culturally. Students, in such situations are unable to deal with these kinds of problems and consequently there is a breakdown of communication. On the other hand, there are certain inhibitions some students face. This is because of shyness or the fact that they are impressed by the teacher and consequently instead of expressing ideas fully through acceptable foreign language, they may face problems of mispronunciation and attitudes of others. They may resort to not communicating at all and they can do it in a very limited way and consequently there is a distortion in the act of communication”.

T2 asserted that such breakdowns may fall within “*what what we call avoidance strategy and the nothing to say strategy. Generally speaking, the breakdowns are due to linguistic deficiency where there is a lack of competence in that FL. So, the breakdowns might be filled down with silence, with L1 or with non verbal behaviour and this is up to the learner. So, the communicative breakdowns might be interpreted as language failure because of the lack of language competence which could be semantic or grammatical”.*

Breakdowns of communication are inevitable. They are constantly happening even in one’s mother tongue. However, the manners to handle and deal with such breakdowns are worth noting, especially in an EFL context. **T1** thought that “*the best thing to do to solve such psychological problems is not to have an impact or a direct relationship with the students. Even if this might work with some students where the teacher singles out the student and discuss the problem and this can be done with a certain category of students. On the contrary, if the student is merged within the group work classroom activity. He may feel at ease with his classmates rather than being isolated out of the group and being asked questions”.* On the other hand, “*linguistic problems may be faced by further extensive practice of real-life communication in the FL through the discourse studies (OE lectures) where it is a question of very realistic or pragmatic issue that is a practice”.* **T1** argued that “*once breakdowns of communication get out of the psychological problems, the question of practice becomes easier”.*

As far as teachers’ intervention is concerned in communication breakdowns, **T2** stated that “*such as task falls within the teacher’s roles and responsibilities. Therefore, the teacher’s assistance and intervention to bridge the gap is needed because the breakdown is a kind of gap among the learners (referred to as “scaffolding and the zone of proximal development”).*

In such circumstances, the teacher obviously has two roles where he has to identify what kind of breakdown and then intervene consequently”.

In addition, **T2** highlighted the fact that teachers should take two important factors into consideration: learning styles and intelligence. He illustrated such an idea where *“teachers sometimes think that there is a breakdown but in fact learners need time to think but this is not a breakdown. So, teachers should not urge the learners to speak rapidly, because each learner has his own specific learning styles”.*

T3 highlighted that *“two remarkable signs of communication breakdown are pauses and hesitations. EFL students tend to fill this gap with laughter, sometimes they even make a joke on that or fill the gap with an Arabic expressions or even in French and moreover, repeating the idea like: oh I forgot it let’s repeat”.*

These are common language behaviours that occur within the EFL classroom. So, **T3** suggested multiple resolutions to deal with such a dilemma (classroom issue). *“In order to fill the gap when a breakdown occurs, I suggest a word then say do you want to say this (I do not know whether it is right or wrong. Then, I try to paraphrase or to help others to try to put it right. All of these depend on the students’ learning style and personality and the degree to which the students accept the intervention or find it not very helpful. Third, to remain silent but asking students to relax, to think and make them feel at ease, and sometimes I take it for fun by saying that it does happen to all of us. Another important point to be mentioned is that students sometimes they refer to gestures just to fill the gap”.*

T4 chose to provide his answer under a specific angle. *“when the student block, I actually react by being cheerful, I respect their opinions even when they make mistakes or errors, I try to make most of the errors invisible and build their confidence rather than in store some kind of complex or something”.* In brief, having a positive attitude towards EFL communication breakdown would better encourage the learners to go past such breakdowns and feel comfortable to use the FL.

T6 maintained the idea of being a facilitator and comfortable environment and setting provider. This means that whenever an EFL student fails in the course of communication as sometimes he may not be ready psychologically or because he fails to find the appropriate word along with his peers. Therefore, it is up to the teacher to find the relevant resolutions through his interventions. This can be done by *“first, postponing if it is a question of*

presentation, I postpone it up till the end of the session or the beginning of next session till I know that they are feeling much better or ask them to demand their peers' help. If they fail all, it means at that moment I intervene and ask them separately to give me the term they would like to opt for even in Arabic and then we try together to find the right turn. Moreover, it is quite important that is to avoid outside talk such as "why do you suffer from this and I block them. These comments are harmful to the psychological student combination"

T5 suggested quite primordial ways in which EFL communication would be sustained with a lesser number of breakdowns. Four points were noted *"By making them practice orally the language in dialogues or role play in which they have to perform a realistic situation. Second, by introducing them to the target language culture through authentic materials in order to see how the language functions and how native speakers uses it (including the use of idioms, slangs, expression) in specific contexts of every-day life. students may discover the culture, traditions, customs, pronunciation, accent, stress on specific words or syllables to express something particular as well as the correct intonation, gestures which are appropriate for a particular situation, event, occasion, celebration, etc. these can be done through reading an authentic text or article, listening to a recorded tape, watching a video in which native speakers use "naturally and appropriately" the language to communicate with others. Once, introduced to all these, students become aware of the different variations and uses of the language, deduce rules and generalizations, they can then reproduce that with their teacher and their classmates. Third, by encouraging them to practice outside the class as well as use autonomously internet and read books to discover things by themselves. Finally, by encouraging them to contact native speakers through email, facebook in order to exchange ideas and see how communication in English is done"*.

Q8. Do you teach your students techniques of how to build a proper conversation in English? If yes, how does it affect them?

The current question inquires about teaching techniques of proper conversations in English and how do teachers manage to make EFL students exposed to them. This is just to build their ability to converse correctly and appropriately in the target language. Some teachers, such as **T1** asserted that *"there are many techniques depending on the type and nature of activities and they are classified within two categories. These techniques within discourse studies may be theoretical (about what should we do and this is mainly didactics). Practically speaking, the techniques may be represented through very effective tasks within the classroom but an implicit way because all modern teaching is implicit not explicit. This*

can be realised through activities and tasks such as role play, classroom discussions, debates and the field work (outside the classroom undertaking research like watching a DVD, videos, through ICT or authentic materials and chatrooms) This incites the students to communicate using the FL chatrooms mainly as they have a direct link between the learners and natives speakers of English. If teachers organize them within their classroom, it allows a kind of in real time communication with English native speakers of English and therefore this is a very useful technique in the enhancement of FL speaking in general”.

Similarly, **T2** stated that *“in terms of instruction, as a teacher, students should be given autonomy and freedom to express themselves. Therefore, teaching such techniques is done implicitly without interrupting them or letting them know that such a technique is used to convey such or so. EFL students should be assigned more chances to speak because when they speak to someone and they speak to themselves and they speak to others and through their speech we can detect, identify, analyze, understand the real level of the learner and consequently we can intervene through remedial action and expose them to such techniques”.*

The rest of the teachers agreed with the fact of teaching such techniques implicitly due to the requirements of the modern teaching methods. However, **T3** considered this as a far reaching objective *“frankly speaking, I do not teach such techniques explicitly nor implicitly, but sometimes I ask students to sustain a conversation. Then, I ask myself a number of questions about whether is it my role, as an OE teacher, to teach such techniques or is it the role of another teacher. This may be the same question on the part of a grammar teacher who gives them just the theory and it is up to the OE teacher to practise with them such techniques. As a result, the victim in between is the student. However, I think that it is a good point to devote some sessions where we teach them the way how to start, sustain and end a conversation, theoretically speaking. Then these sessions should be followed by practical sessions”.* This can be achieved on the grounds of reality through the variety of communication activities, as **T1** maintained.

T6 stated that *“no fixed techniques are taught because the task being covered in OE courses is not fully centred on conversing. However, if we deal with role plays, I show them implicitly how to handle such techniques while speaking”.* **T2** summarised both **T3** and **T6** viewpoints saying that *“there is no specific rule to teach conversations. It is a teaching competence, ability and experience of how to present the language material. For example, the language teacher or any teacher should be well-versed in his job”.*

T4, on the other hand, gave a positive feedback to the question. He said *“I do it in a subtle way. I do generally avoid explicitness teaching my students conversations and so on. On the contrary, I speak the way native speakers do and try to help my students imitate me and imitate the native speaker as well. This way they will embrace those techniques unconsciously. I do also draw my students’ attention to language use. This happens at the beginning of any oral/communication task. For example, when being invited to undertake an interview, I briefly ask them to choose formal language, avoid personal questions especially threatening questions to persuade the speaker to give them more answers”*. These are some usual routines by some teachers. However, they have precious effect on rendering EFL students more aware about their language use.

Finally, **T5** maintained that *“the rules are implicitly taught when presenting or doing activities. First, models of correct conversation are given to them. Students, then, use these models to build their own speech according to a specific situation. This is done mainly through dialogues and role plays. Other times, the model is not given and hence students have to think themselves of a situation and each one has to respond to another’s sentence. Thus, a conversation is built on a communicative principle. The teacher may intervene as a participant to help or he may give feedback at the end of the performance. Rules are at last deduced”*. In **T2** words *“learners should be exposed to FL language use in its real contexts so that they will discover the sum of rules that govern FL in its real context of use”*.

In brief, **T1** argued that the sum of techniques related to using the FL *“depends on the experience and the competence of the teacher to put this into application for sometimes the explanation of some techniques or tasks may even confuse learning since enlightening them about any topic”*. To put it clearly, *“we should be very careful and cautious about how the teacher should have a full mastery of the activities he suggests to the students in terms of experience and competence”*.

As far as the effects of such techniques awareness on EFL students’ competence, the opinions diverged. Teachers who choose teaching such techniques implicitly argued that there will be no negative impact on their linguistic behaviour. From **T6** viewpoint, *“since as a teacher one does that effort to make them aware of those techniques implicitly, you may from time to time or by the end of the year tell them that u were doing this, this and that and this is the technique or one technique that is used to enhance your cc or you just let them work and*

self-assess themselves by the beginning of the year, and if u find that they have succeeded or reached a certain a level of improvement, you tell them that this is thanks to that, that and that”.

In addition, **T5** stated that *“the fact of knowing how to start and maintain a conversation especially about forms of politeness along with how to keep their talk have a great effect on their motivation”*. In other words, through their cooperation and willingness to use the FL students build upon what they already know (background knowledge) in order to formulate a better oral proficiency with all its required elements (good vocabulary, accent ...etc). All these elements are always linked to their listening (intensive) outside the classroom”.

From another paradigm, **T1** emphasized that *“the main criterion you should take into consideration about the impact these techniques may have on the students is motivation and whether they are motivating tasks or not. Students are freely motivated and attracted by the kind of activity. This can have a great impact in the sense that students would involve themselves spontaneously in the activity and become an effective participant in the work. However, if they are not motivating or not well clarified to the students, their impact should be very great on the student. This is translated on the non participation of the students the students”*. He further illustrated such an idea giving the following example *“you can you can have a teacher organizing tasks with a group work activity, but in reality, you can find just one or two watching and do not participate because of psychological reasons especially motivation”*. As a result, the fact of exposing learners to such techniques may affect EFL students’ motivation towards the use of the FL.

Q9. Do you motivate your students to use different speech acts in the classroom?

Most of the teachers gave a positive answer. They asserted that they motivate students by all means so that they will be able to know more about the hidden meanings implemented within the target language structures. However, the methods thanks to which teachers present and motivate EFL students is not the same. For instance, **T3** argued that *“despite his attempts to motivate, he does not want to interfere so explicitly in students’ performances. I feel more that I am hindering more than helping, but when it comes to feedback, I prefer to do this when giving comments saying it is better to use this and that or better to simplify these structures. I mean I try to give a general feedback after each performance or at the end of the session so that students would improve their communicative competence”*. To restate it in another way,

T3 resorted to ask EFL students to use a variety of speech acts by the end of their presentation so as not to stop the students' flow of communication.

T6 highlighted that *“such a task depends on the students' level of proficiency and since they are different. Some of them come ready and make use of such patterns appropriately and whenever needed in the right context. Some others, just mix up and the remaining ones totally ignore the existence of such patterns. Therefore, we make them learn those patterns implicitly or explicitly. However, those who already use of them find it easier to cope with the practice and so on and may add more. Therefore, my job is to attempt to draw their attention to such patterns and ask them to implement them in a variety of situations”*.

T1 argued that *“some students take the benefit as they try to use the same vocabulary, the same expressions from previous sessions and try to use them in the new conversations. For example, if it is a dialogue, they start talking about the weather, because in England they always doing so. However, they will not initiate a conversation with how is your family like here in Algeria”*. On the same line of thought, **T5** stated that *“EFL students have some difficulties at the beginning to differentiate between the various patterns and use them appropriately. Some succeed to overcome this difficulty, but others make a lot of time to do it since their mother tongue takes over their pronunciation as well as their use of these patterns. Other students (very few) have naturally the ability to use the right speech pattern appropriately mainly because they watch a lot of movies, listen to songs, chat with natives, and use videos on line to practice their language”*.

The manner teachers go about inviting EFL students use such patterns depends on the teaching objectives, the level and the nature of the presented task. **T6** assumed that *“it is up to the units and to the programme already planned to tackle after one another. So, we tackle the lesson without telling them that we are focusing on this and that. But, by the end of the session we tell them that our focus or our target today is that point: whether to make you know how to make suggestions, how to ask for directions, how to give directions to somebody else, how to complain in a hotel, how to ask for help once you face difficulties in a different country once travelling and so on”*.

T3 maintained that this is usually done *“with first year, all about making brief conversations using polite expressions, asking, replying and all that kind of language functions where I try to give them the theoretical ground for this. For example, I acquaint them with the polite expressions, where shall we use them, and give them sometimes different*

sentence structures. I also try to give them the different formats existing in that function and they sometimes learn these functions through listening. I let them listen to recordings by natives, where the focus is on such speech patterns”.

In terms of the nature of the presented task, **T6** asserted that *“the aim of having role plays prepared in advance (one week of preparation) is to let them think freely and make use of the maximum of those expressions just to foster their knowledge and acquaintance with such patterns. This mainly works for those who totally ignore such patterns; they start using them as if they start anew where they take the pattern and try to make use of it where necessary”*. This is accompanied with a piece of advice that **T6** gave to her students *“they are not obliged to opt for these expressions on the spot and forget about them the whole year. However, they need to build upon them and make use of them when needed. For example, we may tackle another topic in which some of these expressions are exaggerated. Therefore, I would like to see them making use of once again”*.

The remaining teachers: **four, two and one** emphasized the fact of motivating students, but through *“giving them different situations to different places where they can use the language. For example at the doctor and ask them to imagine the situation” (T1)*. This is what **T2** stressed upon *“where one as a teacher should teach learners what we call real life situations especially learning by doing (Experiential learning). This is a form of simulation where learners are trained in real life situations. For instance, in a restaurant, learners would simulate as if they are actors: one is a cook, the other is a customer another is a server and the other is presenting the menu to the one serving the tables”*.

T4 gave a brief demonstration of a classroom task where he motivates students to use a variety of speech acts: *“I bring a serial story (a thriller) and give them one episode to watch, read or listen to and by the end of the episode, I ask them to do two things: imagine what happened in the next episode then we discuss. After that, they are supposed to play this episode through role plays and try to be as natural as possible and they bring all the realia and music and everything to make it close to reality. All in all, I would like them to live the situation rather than to read about it. Thanks to such a way, students are not only supposed to live the real situation, but furthermore, they would manage to use a variety of speech acts even if they are not really aware of its nature, function and effect within the target speech community”*.

T3 argued that *“the problem with these students is that their speech is not systematic. They talk without being aware of the function they are sending or using. For example, if they ask a question such as “Can I help you?” and ask them what speech act is existing here? They do not know what speech act is existent in here but they know that this is a question regardless to its function”*.

Q10. In what ways do you think that knowledge about the FL culture enables the students to communicate more in English?

Most of the interviewed teachers asserted that culture is an inseparable part of language. All of **T2**, **T3** and **T5** briefly highlighted this bond giving their opinions from different paradigms. **T5** stated that *“culture is an integrated part of language”*. Similarly, **t3** *“culture and language are like two faces of the same coin. I mean you cannot teach a language without implementing some aspects of culture”*. Moreover, **T2** argued that *“we do not teach language but we teach the culture. So, here the language is just the means or the way of transmitting culture. Therefore, the focus is on language awareness i.e. to introduce the learners to the culture of a specific language”*.

Integrating culture knowledge in OE courses can be quite challenging. **T6** pointed out *“it is important when teaching EFL students to become aware of how the other people of that culture of that target language are learning, how they behave and how they deal with each other in certain contexts. Maybe, in the coffee shop, the supermarket, the hotel, at the doctor’s or any other places. It means if they are aware about how those people behave in such kinds of situations, they gain both linguistic and communicative competence”*. Therefore, **T1** clearly stated that *“knowing the socio-cultural background of the FL is definitely an essential prerequisite for the act of communication in the FL. How can learners talk about certain elements or components in the FL if they do not know about them. The cultural component can take many aspects: a learner should have insights about history, culture, insights of all the activities mainly daily activities that are organized in the speech community precisely”*.

Despite those views, the real states of events of the EFL students’ level reflect another angle of reality. **T3** stated that *“though students are exposed to some courses in culture (culture of the language in their first year and second year and civilisation in third year) When holding conversations with them, you feel that they are not using that content that they study in these courses in their communication. So, they regard these courses as just a matter*

of university subjects to be tested at or graded in at the end without taking the benefit of them in terms of communication/ in their speaking". This is on one hand.

On the other, **T3** rebuffed that *"some OE teachers who are supposed to foster this aspect of the language do not do their job; OE, for them, is a matter of classroom debates, discussions and presenting oral works. So, they do not make efforts to practise listening which promotes effectively oral proficiency. In other words, it is the key to culture awareness: the more you listen to natives, the more you learn and acquire speech acts and discourse patterns the way they are used by natives"*.

In addition to language awareness, teachers resort to other ways in order to promote EFL learners' oral proficiency. **T5** sustained that *"students have to be introduced to the target language cultures including verbal and nonverbal communicative aspects in order to learn how to use the language in appropriate situations not to offend people and to avoid confusion, misunderstanding, and stereotypes that may ruin a conversation. So, students have to adapt their own culture to the target one and learn what words, expressions (vocabulary) to use to be successfully proficient. In fact, the words people use reflect their likes, attitudes, and beliefs and therefore language is the mirror of culture. That is why, students have to know and learn the differences that exist between languages (Arabic and English) in order to grasp the terms used to apply in communication"*. This is an important point to be shed light upon i.e. 'the target and the source culture'. **T1** argued that *"When talking about the cultural component, the source and the target culture. Even when the learner would like to talk about his own culture that is the source culture, but he lacks the linguistic luggage to express himself in the FL. The latter may also represent a problem. How can learners talk about Algerian culture if they do not know English? On the other hand with regard to FL, learners know English but do not know the culture and that is the dilemma and it is very difficult. Furthermore, these two parameters are always accompanying each other and consequently modern teaching does not any more talking about the linguistic aspect but we talk about the two and we have to bear in mind that any kind of act of communication involves or is deemed to involve a socio-cultural component"*.

In addition to the above suggestions, **T2** asserted that *"culture can enhance communication in OE courses in many ways. For example, through theatre in OE courses: introduce or teach students drama, theatre, how to perform, how to be actors on the stage. Then, to organise cultural simulations like visiting a museum, a factory, having a chat in the*

street or in the airport i.e. creating simulations and these are made for the best ways of training (i.e. a pilot before being given a plane, he is put in a simulator) therefore, culture is a simulator, it simulates the learner and imagines a real life situation. Because through culture (simulator), we reduce the distance between L1 and L2 and thereby avoid the cultural shock, reduce intolerance and discover what the degree of importance assigned to each subject in both cultures". However, T4 highlighted that "this task depends on the teacher and it is better when our students face authentic materials with a teacher who knows his business and who motivates them to react positively to that. Not necessarily to adapt a native speakers' reaction in culture but to adapt positively to that culture. This, in my viewpoints, enables learners to make a lot of progress".

Q11. Do you implement culture courses in your oral class? If yes, what classroom tasks do you prepare for your learners and how do you present them?

Most of teachers argued that they teach culture in their OE classes in a subtle way. T1 emphasized that "the cultural element should be incorporated in any kind of teaching. Even if we are dealing with courses that do not necessarily deal with culture. But since it we are not talking about something extraordinary; it is known to everybody that language is always accompanied by the cultural component whether you teach grammar, written expression or any other course, you are dealing with an FL and consequently it embeds the cultural component and in my view I think it will be better".

Similarly, T2 asserted that "all cultural courses should be introduced not only in OE sessions, but in all sessions. Culture should be taught in all its forms starting from history, to civilisation, to customs, traditions, beliefs, behaviours and all that is related to L2 culture. Implementing culture course to promote communication is fruitful because language is not only a series of connected sentences, but there is the aesthetic side, its charming power which makes the beauty of this language through its collocations, proverbs and idiomatic expressions. Therefore, from that beauty of the language, learners discover the secret of its authenticity. This latter should be taught to learners as they cannot discover it on their own. Therefore, culture is vital as far as history, civilisation and all that is related to language and its culture is concerned".

T4 claimed that presenting culture in OE classes can be done but on one condition. This is "always by respecting the native speaker culture with comparison to ours, we respect

ours too when it comes to our culture we make some kind of self-criticism. Therefore, the first thing in store is to respect other people's culture not because we are different or bad".

T6 claimed that *"when tackling a topic that is purely British. I tell students that this is discussed according to the British context not ours and then try to compare. First, they are aware how the British context deals with some kind of topics and then by the end altogether try to compare this with our context in order to see whether we have something in common or we are totally different from each other. Therefore, it is good to include culture in different courses so as to make them aware of what is happening elsewhere will have an idea on how to behave".* **T4** argued that this is achieved by *"exposing learners to culture through authentic materials (reading, videos, all the topics...) where there are no taboos and learners are made aware of things in order to communicate freely. If students are afraid of the topic, they would not be creative or respond positively. So, a teacher should make them at ease; discuss any topic provided that they do it in a professional way".*

Regardless to the above positive suggestions, **T3** maintained that *"dealing with such lessons within OE courses is a rare practice and this was due to a past experience where we watched a video about UK and its history, the way people behave, ways of life...etc and then we tried to do a simulation of a tourist guide all over London and its landmarks. This task was quite a difficult experience to accomplish and very demanding in terms of knowledge as they needed to make a research about even though they have already watched a video about. However, students told me that they were at ease when it comes to subjects inspired from our Algerian daily life contexts. The reason is that it requires a research about their daily life experiences in very manageable way. Even the context where we live (status of English as an FL) makes our students a bit far from approaching the English culture and its components. They always see something foreign, something far reaching and need to make an effort to explore it and then discover it".*

In brief and in terms of communication, **T5** argued that *"there are no such independent culture lessons, but any teacher can refer to some cultural insights through:*

- *role plays where students have to perform a play about a specific situation or topic (for example, expressing complaint and apology, expressing wishes and regrets , or acting real life situations on bullying, people disabilities, and other serious issues. Students learn also how to express themselves in common places as hospital, hotel, restaurant, school or any other place.*

- *Class discussion where the class is made in a circle or a U shape to discuss to topic related to common cultural issues. This can be done starting by showing them a picture referring to a particular place, person, or illustrating a typical behaviour, custom, tradition or even gesture where students are encouraged to express their point of view about the subject. Therefore, new vocabulary may be learnt then.*
- *A reading text can be used as a tool to introduce students to the target culture. The text is selected wisely to include a particular point of culture and questions are then asked and a debate is engaged. The topic of the text is sometimes used in a role play to see how students manage to use the language under certain circumstances.*
- *Using a video. Sometimes a picture is better than words where students have the chance to see how native speakers behave in real life. Students do not only listen to their accent and intonation but they watch their gestures and facial expressions as well. Moreover, they deduce how vocabulary is used for particular purposes.*

Q12. Is the classroom atmosphere sufficient to promote your learners' communicative competence? Why?

The responses diverged between opposing and concurring views. Speaking of the classroom, there are two sets of settings: physical and psychological. Concerning the physical setting, the classroom cannot be adequate and appropriate to promote EFL learners' communicative competence. **T2** highlighted that *“whatever an ideal classroom atmosphere, whatever the communicative competence of learning and teaching. We never reach perfection in L2. The latter remains an L2 with its deficiencies and weaknesses, in spite of reaching or gathering the most favourable conditions of teaching and learning. This is because L1 has colonized everything and prevents L2 to dominate. However, this does not prevent us from preparing very interesting and adequate lectures and the teacher's mission in order to make them discover what they do not know through comprehensible input. This can be achieved by scaffolding the learners and guiding them sometimes as they lack experience and where there is a part of what they know and another that they do not know”*.

T3, **T5** and **T6** agreed on the idea of inadequacy giving the main reason to such a deficiency which falls under the time allotted to OE sessions that is not sufficient. **T3** stated that *“two or three hours per week are not sufficient for learners to practise their language”*.

T5 assumed that *“The classroom is certainly not enough to develop students’ communicative skills and promote their competence because time is not sufficient to deal with all aspects of the language and to deal with all the patterns and variations. In addition, students need a lot of practice in order to have sufficient background knowledge in terms of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and culture consideration. All these have to be fully explored and practised in real- life situations which are impossible to be done in 2 sessions per week”*.

In addition, **T6** pointed out that *“as teachers we just sometimes start; get the students ready, involved and engaged in the topic and then time is up, you will end up with a real cut and find it quite difficult to start again the next week. This is because of the few hours allotted to OE (2-3 hours per week) and the non successiveness of the sessions as far as first, second and third classes are concerned. There engenders a real clear cut between the two sessions and render it quite difficult and make the students waste time.”*

T3 stated another reason about *“the ill equipped classrooms in terms of technological tools (ICT). As a teacher, one sometimes prepares for a listening activity and then there is a problem with the equipment or the multimedia laboratory is already occupied. Moreover, if one brings a data show to class, you may encounter noise, no electricity, the light, and the overcrowded classes, All of these are hindering factors of which prevent the implementation of these tools in ordinary classes”*.

From another paradigm, the psychological atmosphere can be one significant element in promoting communicative competence to a certain extent. **T1** pointed out that *“when talking about the classroom atmosphere, the word atmosphere gives an idea of a psychological setting that has been discussed at length by the psychological Dell Hymes. Therefore, if the atmosphere is not appropriate in the sense that we are dealing with learners which are not relaxed and feel inhibited and not encouraged to participate in the classroom activities. Of course, you are going to be unsuccessful in the application of the different tasks in the classroom. So, I think it is a primordial element for any endeavour within the context of organizing classroom activity. The first thing we should bare in mind is the relaxed atmosphere within the classroom along with the psychological state of mind of the student. This latter is something essential for the application of this kind of activities. Otherwise, we will end up with learners who do not feel at ease and consequently their motivation and participation will be if not negative, but will be just at a very low level”*.

Furthermore, **T4** believed *“in Abraham Moslo words about the sense of belonging, students should belong to the group and to the classroom as a whole. Therefore, the place plays an important role through this responsiveness to the teachers’ instructions. If they feel comfortable in that situation then they will be creative and responsive. Otherwise, they would be shy, introvert and would not react”*. However, *“students need more training, more real life experience in using the FL”*.

Follow up question: How do you encourage your students to use English outside the classroom?

Encouraging students to use the FL outside the classroom can be done in a variety of ways. Teachers have provided a considerable sum of ways and techniques. **T1** believed that this can be done *“through fieldwork, chatrooms and I think that at the present situations, things are very attractive that there are many modern means which are available to students to undertake any kind of outdoors activities using the FL mainly the chatrooms, internet connexions, skype, watching movies and many things alike. All these activities can be done and they are not available in the classroom context, but they can be achieved outside the classroom. This is particularly with the ICT means that may be of great help to the students in order to improve on their mastery proficiency of the speaking or communication in the FL”*.

Similarly, **T4** and **T2** stated that they motivate their students *“when asking them to role play for example or to prepare a project. They are asked to try to think like a native speaker; an American in particular or a student in Harvard and how would he do and then try to imitate that”*.

T5 maintained that *“it is crucial for students to be more autonomous by using the language and practice what they learned outside the class setting with classmates, parents, friends or other foreign students. Furthermore, students’ motivation happens when I encourage my students to use internet: do quizzes on line, use special software to develop their skills (like the Tell Me More Software), chat with foreign language students and with native speakers through social media. Students can even record or film themselves practising the language; they can then watch and evaluate their performance with or without the help of the teacher”*.

T6 used advice as an effective way to encourage students use the language outside the classroom *“I advise students to double the effort, at least, and listen to English. Not only*

through songs and watching movies because it is not enough. They need to promote their proficiency by listening to academic tracks we use in teaching in different contexts so as to be aware of how British or American people speak and then make the difference between two accents. This will help to enrich their vocabulary knowledge as well as far as slang is concerned in order to be aware of its meaning and avoid using them if you are in an academic situation. Moreover, I encourage them to use the language outside the classroom, by practising with each other. However, we know that the atmosphere is not encouraging and not motivating, I ask them to have enough courage to continue and struggle. Moreover, I sometimes advise them that they have a performance to prepare in one week. At least one day before the performance, I ask them to come to class and try to forget at all about Arabic and opt for English terms and commit mistakes and correct each other so that once they come to perform officially they are already used and feel familiar with the context”.

In the same stream of similarity, **T3** stated that “*once we finish the session I ask them to practise this outside and try to do it at home. Moreover, through speaking assignments to be presented at home or performed in the classroom. However, despite not giving them assignment which revolves around speaking, there was a good initiative by a colleague called ‘let us discuss’, a session on every Monday/Tuesday afternoon where a guest as a teacher or a student is received with an audience. Then, they try to discuss something away from the classroom agenda or timetable. This was done twice and then we noticed that the audience/students-teachers were not enthusiastic and did not attend. Therefore, we cancelled the whole project. This is regardless to the first two sessions where students attended and it was very fruitful”.*

Q13. What materials do you use to bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world?

Materials used by teachers to bridge the gap for learners to use FL on real grounds are numerous. For instance, **T5** suggested “*using authentic materials like videos, songs, printed authentic texts of magazines or newspapers”.* **T2** asserted that the material used is “*simulations, you have to simulate the learners specifically in learning by doing in different situations in all sorts of materials from theatre, to movies, to interviews, to cartoons, to visual aids, to ICT’s and even verbal and non verbal communication”.* Furthermore, **T4** stated that “*it could be reading materials, video materials, audio materials and even realia. Anything that could be creating a sort of natural, real native speaking environment, the teacher should go for it. However, such material should not offend their social and religious beliefs. It could*

be any topic but should not target their culture and religion and therefore, it would be a little bit offending or offensive. Otherwise, all the topics are open for discussions”.

In addition, **T3** and **T6** pointed out that *“any material could be related to listening or watching videos performed by native speakers. This is simply to make them see the difference certainly with some words we currently use and once they are exposed to, I directly ask them to reproduce and imitate the model presented. Moreover, we use them to build other related activities such as ‘fill in the gap’ and ask comprehension questions for example”.*

T1 suggested that *“different types of ICT with regard to the local conditions. It may be recordings, videos, or TVs and many other kinds or types of communication. They can be brought into the classroom and used. However, the problem in using ICT is the tendency of not to being in full contact with native speakers of English. Instead, many types of activities can be done in collaboration with native speakers and this is of great help and utility to the learners. Learners and teachers of English who are in close contact with persons, specialists, teachers of didactics and applied linguistics can organize seminars for a number of days so that it helps learners and also teachers of English as a FL”.* This is as **T5** argued with the sake of not *“only improving students’ communicative competence, but also promoting them with a high level of motivation and interest in language learning”.*

Q14. Can you evaluate the use of ICT tools and language laboratories at the English division with regard to the oral expression module?

T2 claimed that *“with the advent of ICT, L2 learning revolution has deeply changed especially the revolution of individualizing learning and discovering and developing learning styles. So, ICT enables the teacher to discover what is hidden in specific learners and even through ICT’s, learners are given more wider chances to develop their competences, abilities and their capacities of manipulating the language through all the four skills”*

Teachers evaluated the use of both ICT tools and language laboratories from their own personal experience. **T1** stated that *“the problem in the local situation at MKU, Biskra is that the conditions are very difficult and the source of the problem it is crowded classes and modern means that are not at the disposal of the teacher”.*

T3 and **T5** mentioned the range of deficiencies in such material use. On one hand, **T3** pointed out that *“we are a bit far from implementing ICT tools in our context due to many*

reasons. First of all, the availability of the tools themselves: if we are talking about internet, we have connection problems. If we talk about just the computer-based teaching, there is a lack in the availability of the classes particularly the large ones along with materials. Some teachers use their own materials like data show and laptops. However, the environment of the class and the whole atmosphere do not support the use of ICT. This is because of the noise outside in the corridors, the problem of the light and many other problems that hinder their regular conduct. This is the case of our division”.

On the other, **T5** stated that *“unfortunately, only few teachers use the labs. They are sometimes hard to access and to use and others times they do not work at all. There is also the problem of electricity as well as there is not enough seats for the whole large group of students”.*

Regardless to the negative aspects presented above, **T4** thinks that *“the laboratories experience is so good; the ICT tools are so good provided that the students feel comfortable with what they are doing. The only condition is that teachers should be very well trained to achieve their goals otherwise they would blame the other entire technicality”.* Moreover, **T6** highlighted that *“working with the old language laboratory is beneficial even if it does not function. This is helpful because at least I escape from the normal classroom just seeking for that calm atmosphere away from the noisy rooms of Betaibi. Then, I bring my personal laptop, a data show device and loud speakers and therefore can manage my courses even if it is not the right the context of use but at least we work with what is available”.*

T2 asserted that *“laboratories are a form of technology that is vanishing progressively and replaced by mobiles, internet (facebook) and many other modern tools. Personally, I do not believe in language laboratories because we have better technologies, reduced in costs than laboratories that may be quite expensive. In my opinion, one mobile is equivalent to one laboratory. Then, mobiles are individualized type of learning that are very interesting, because they have destroyed many bad and good traditions and barriers”.*

Q15. In relation to our research work, what can you suggest in order to improve the classroom interaction vis-à-vis the achievement of more communicative outcomes?

As far as suggestions related to our research work are concerned, some major viewpoints and assertions were given by teachers. In order to achieve the most important thing in any proficiency of the FL that is to communicate linguistically and socio-culturally

successfully, three major elements should be put together. **T1** argued that *“to create a kind of appropriate academic or non academic communication in the foreign language, there are the usual techniques that should be put into application from three parameters: the parameter of the means that should be definitely available. The parameter of the psychological atmosphere that should be fulfilled within the activity: First, the state of mind of the learners which is quite important. Second, the prejudices of the students with regard to the culture of the FL and consequently they think that their culture is better and would avoid communicating in the FL. They learn the language but they do not like the society and their customs. These can be put within the context of learners’ psychological dispositions. In addition to the means and the psychological parameters, we have got the teacher himself whose role is primordial in organizing the appropriate activities through his experience. Finally, there is the overall surrounding or the university context which is difficult with regard to the local situation as long as there is a shortage of time, crowded classes and the conditions in which the lectures are delivered do not allow the students to use English out of the classroom”*.

T2 believed *“in implementing inter-mental development or dialogic teaching. This considers the learning situation as just an involvement from many parts and many sides where the centre of learning is motivation either from the teacher or the learner. Therefore, once motivation is here I think the learner has to develop a competence within a learning atmosphere, and obviously conditions should be gathered either by the whole institution or the teachers. These should be highly qualified and performing in terms of planning carefully their lessons to meet the learning objectives. Moreover, the classroom interaction, academically speaking, should have an objective that is to develop the communicative competence of the learner, but we have to ensure that classroom interaction should not only be limited to speaking and listening only, but the learner should be also exposed to a combination of skills. This is because if communicative competence is sufficient by itself, why should we teach reading and writing. Therefore, we need to ensure transmitting a scientific and safe culture that is not to teach only speaking but to use the language in a scientific field. In other words, to prepare learners to be academically performing more than competent and this is the objective of an academic language.”*

T3 suggested that *“the first two years should be only and completely devoted to communication regardless to content-based courses like linguistics, psychology and all those content based material should be postponed till advanced levels. These two years should be*

centred on listening, speaking, reading and writing: the four basic skills to make students work on these skills so that you find them ready to embrace content based courses. They are poor when it comes to reading to the point that they cannot decode a sentence. Therefore, what do you expect when giving them a long text in linguistics? We need to target the first two years and give more time to OE courses. We need to separate speaking and listening skills by giving each skill a session or two (two sessions per week for each). We need also to encourage some projects outside the classroom boundaries. Students need also to join reading clubs or communicating clubs, for example”.

T4 presented some fruitful proposals asserting that *“the first thing is that a teacher should build a rapport, a good relationship with the students: no dictator relationship between both of them where trust is number one; if the teacher trusts the students then they are in the right path. The second thing is that the teacher should have clear objectives behind teaching FL. The third thing is that students should feel some kind of belonging to the group or the classroom. Finally, the material provided to the students should be motivating and stimulating; a teacher should not pick any topic at hand. However, the topic should be well-planned taking into consideration its meaningfulness, the learners’ needs and so on”.*

T5 listed some relevant points to promote classroom interaction in terms of:

- *Encouraging cooperative learning through group work*
- *Choosing topics of discussion suitable to students’ interests and needs.*
- *Using ICT.*
- *Giving students the opportunity to ask questions, express opinion, agree or disagree with the teacher or classmates.*
- *Teaching students about the use and effectiveness of socio-affective strategies (working in groups to develop skills without the help of the teacher)*
- *Using communicative activities like role play and class discussion*
- *Providing a safe atmosphere of motivation, honest competition, cooperation....*
- *Tolerating mistakes and praising students*

Finally, **T6** joined many other colleagues concerning that *“the time allotted to OE sessions are not enough and the materials provided is not enough as well. There are sometimes two teachers of the same level having OE at the same timing. So, they cannot work with the language lab altogether. Moreover, teachers ask for the data show device in the same*

timing as well, they may not find it. However, teachers have to cope with the situation as it is and hence we have to learn as well to deal with what is available so that we ensure the minimum to the students. In addition, instead of looking for the perfect environment, teachers have to work with what is available first so that to ensure the minimum for the students”.

3.3 Analysis of the Classroom Observation

Section One

Classroom Atmosphere	WO	FO	NO
1- The physical setting is clean, organized, spacious, light and comfortable so that learners can interact and speak with each other.	1	5	
2- The seating arrangement favours effective communication skills.	1	3	2
3- (T) reviews previous session’s course.			6
4- (T) summarizes the course content and objectives that will be dealt with today.	1	2	3
5- (T) connects the course content that will be dealt with their prior learning experience and knowledge.		5	1
6- (T) provides a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for students to participate naturally through tasks.	6		

Table 35. Classroom Atmosphere Observation Rating

The table above indicates the data related to ‘Classroom Atmosphere’ which comprises many aspects in terms of physical organization and lesson preparation i.e. learners’ warming up so as to allow the appropriate development of tasks throughout the whole session.

1- The physical setting is clean, organized, spacious, light and comfortable so that learners can interact and speak with each other

The organization of the physical setting tended to be fairly to well observed. This reflects the degree to which the logistic surrounding provides an adequate and well- equipped space for learners to interact among each other. However, the only time where such setting was well observed in fact was due to students’ intervention to prepare the classroom for a role play or a presentation, which needed change in the classroom decoration and thereby rendering it more suitable for all the learning parties.

2- The seating arrangement favours effective communication skills

This element was not constantly occurring when the observer was present in almost all of the sessions. However, it was fairly observed that communication among students shifts

more when they change their regular sitting distributions. This happens particularly when the classroom tasks or activities are undertaken in a group, pair or open class work.

The above element was reflected through the language games presented by students. Those needed such a change in the physical arrangement. For instance, S1 asked the rest of the classmates to sit in a U shaped form and have a chair in the middle (hot chair).

Excerpt2.

S1: So, today we will play an activity. First of all, put yourselves in a circle.

SS: ((look at S1 and move around))

S1: Each group makes a question to other members.

SS: ((looking at the S1))

S1: Is it clear?

S2: Repeat, please!

SS: xxx

The nature of such an activity required interaction, and this was reflected in the sum of exchange that occurred among students (i.e. in the group) and with the person to be asked.

Excerpt3.

S3: Are you a book lover?

S4: Of course, I am.

S3: Since when you started reading?

SS: You have?

S4: Erm. I have started reading books (like) two years ago.

S3: Ok! Aha. What was the first book that you have ...Erm ((gazes at T))

T: Read

S4: Pride and prejudice, the first one.

S3: Did you like it?

S4: Yes!

S3: Who was the author of the book?

S4: Jane Austin

S3: Great!

S4: *khl*ass 'Is it over'?

S3: ((head nod)) Now, choose someone please.

3- Teacher reviews previous session's course

This was not completely observed due to the nature of practices undertaken in the classroom. The teacher, in the second semester decided to give the floor to students to be in charge of teaching and presenting different materials throughout the different sessions (role plays, debates, teaching activities...etc). However, since the whole group is divided into two subgroups the teacher preferred to tell them about what happened with the other classmates in terms of presentations and tasks. This is just to motivate and urge them to give their best and participate more effectively in the classroom activities.

Excerpt4.

T: So, guys! Your classmates on Thursday presented very good role plays. Erm, I mean the same level as your performances. So, I am so excited to share with you almost the same experience. So, who is going to start?

SS: ((raise their hand))

T: Good

T: Pay attention, please. You are new teachers. Hhhhh

SS: hhhh

4- Teacher summarizes the course content and objectives that will be dealt with today

Summarizing the course content to be dealt with instantly was dependent on the preparation made beforehand by the students. Therefore, such a deed by the OE teacher was not executed very often, unless the students did not prepare anything. Therefore, the teacher explained what material to be utilised and the aim behind its implementation. This is just to give the students an idea about instructions of such an activity along with the aim sought to be achieved once they are involved.

5- Teacher connects the course content that will be dealt with their prior learning experience and knowledge

During the sessions, there was fairly an attempt to link the presented course content with students' prior learning experience and knowledge. This actually happens during debates and discussions where learners need to refer to a past learning experience to be able to take part in the topic at hand. Furthermore, during some activities students rely on their background knowledge so as to be able to grant their groups the correct answer. For instance, when playing crossword puzzle games students relied on their linguistic ability and the sum of

vocabulary knowledge they have. This is all with the aim to complete the puzzle particularly when dealing with information that needed general culture.

6- Teacher provides a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for students to participate naturally through tasks

Noticeably, the teacher shared a very strong bond with the students. This was observed during the sessions where they felt extremely comfortable with his presence. The latter, being part of the classroom practices. In addition, the teacher’s patience, resourcefulness, flexibility, creativity and the ways in which he manages the students made them forget that they are going to be evaluated by the end of the semester. This, in turn, allowed them to express themselves freely and hence behaved naturally in the variety of presented tasks provided they do it professionally.

This atmosphere was created once the teacher indulges himself within the group. In ‘draw and guess’ activity, the teacher took part as a member of the group and helped them with guessing the right word out of a drawing. This gave the other students particularly shy ones the chance to participate and have their voices heard.

Section Two

Methods and Lesson Presentation	WO	FO	NO
1- Material is presented at the students’ level of comprehension	1	5	
2- Invites class discussion	6		
3- The allotted time to the lesson is smooth, sequenced and logical.	5	1	
4- Incorporates in the lesson tasks that tackle collaborative tasks and interaction consistent with foreign language learning	6		
5- Utilises communicative centred activities (role plays, dialogues...)	4	2	
6- The methods are appropriate to the age and ability of learners	5	1	

Table 36. Methods and Lesson Presentation Observation Rating

1- Material is presented at the students’ level of comprehension

The teacher makes sure to involve the students with the material that best fits their level of comprehension. Therefore, during the sessions most of the students did not show any kind of discouragement or misunderstanding. However, there were few students who find it fairly difficult to understand the nature of instruction to be followed when doing an activity. This was fully observed when the instruction is quite long and redundant. Despite such inconvenience, the teacher attempted to meet the students’ level throughout concept and instruction checking questions or by simply asking other students to clarify the task content

for other classmates, especially when the task needed to be accomplished in a group work pattern. However, if the students are in charge of presenting material, the teacher first attempts to know about the task by asking the one in charge of the presentation and clearly explain to the other students what they are going to tackle. Instead, if the teacher does not intervene at first and students encounter problems on the level of comprehension, he intervenes immediately.

Excerpt4. (Before the start of the language game)

S1: So, each group tries to make a question. Erm! When you finish, we will start, we will choose someone from the group, he comes to the chair and you ask him/her. When you finish, you choose one from the group who ask him/her before he/she comes to the chair.

T: What is the first step ?

S1: Questions. Anything, (Erm) useful questions.

T: Erm. Allright.

2- Invites class discussion

The teacher invites classroom discussion whenever the need calls for it. For instance, after other classmates' presentations are delivered. The teacher asks the students about their viewpoints or further comments and discusses with them about what went well and what went wrong. This would make them feel responsible for their own learning and feel as an effective part of the classroom setting and the learning process as a whole.

Excerpt7.A

T: Any comments?

S1: A good thing.

S2: I like the pronunciation, they have good English.

T: Nice, what else?

S: They were laughing while presenting.

T: Concerning the fact that they were laughing while presenting the role play is okay even professional actors do so.

SS: Yes, they do so.

Exercpt7.B

T: Any comments about the role play?

SS: xxx

T: Yes! ((gazing at the late students to take their seats))

S1: It is a nice one, I like it.

T: Yes! What did you like?

S2: The language. Erm! Their language is very good.

T: Yes, your classmates have a good mastery of the language ... hhhh

SS: hhhh

S3: They did not use the evidence.

S5: It is obvious.

S4: There is actually an evidence but we cannot bring a body from the morgue.

SS: hhhhh

S3: But, you are a detective. You should use the evidence against the ...

S4: The evidence is so clear in the board

S3: I said that the detective did not use....

SS: xxx

T: Let her finish and then answer. Yes ((looking at the student to finish)) Go ahead.

S3: I said that the detective did not use the evidence against the victim. They should use..Erm... I don't know, talking about the evidence, I did not understand the whole thing... the victim confessed from the first time... he said that he is the one who killed that person... from the first time he killed that person.

T: You mean the suspect

S3: Yeah! the suspect.

S5: What did you say?

S3: xxx

S5: Well, about the pictures they are so obvious. There is a house, a dead body... they are so clear.

S3: I am not talking about...

S5: But, they are clear.

S3: Yeah, but you did not use the evidence.

S6: *Kasdha ma goltlich Anaya* 'she means you did not tell me right away'

T: No Arabic, please!

SS: xxx

S3: I am not criticizing, I am just discussing things

T: Ok, Ok!

S3: They do not understand others' opinions. So, I won't intervene.

SS: hhhhh

S5: I will tell you something. We did not want to say anything at the beginning. So you will be interested and let it at the end. So once I'm gonna make her fall and confess, she will tell me about it. Because if I tell you at the beginning, what is left to talk about. That's our strategy to make the scene more inviting.

T: Alright.

SS: hhhh

3- The allotted time to the lesson is smooth, sequenced and logical

Within each session, the teacher exposed the student to different presentations by assigning the right amount of time to each pair/group of students. This was observed constantly over the different assisted sessions. Moreover, the teacher regularly tried to remind the pupils about the time needed to do and finish a task. Despite the classroom learner-centred practices (i.e. students are in charge of presenting the material), the teacher ensured the smooth and sequenced flow of activities/tasks. This was almost done at the beginning where the teacher gave a brief reminder to the students who will present and the allotted time to their own presentations.

Exercpt8.

T: Good morning. Well, today we will carry on with the presentations. X and y are going to present today.

SS: Yes!

T: Ok, go ahead. You have 15 minutes so that you leave the floor for other groups, ok?

SS: Ok!

4- Incorporates in the lesson tasks that tackle collaborative tasks and interaction consistent with foreign language learning

The teacher always incorporates tasks or even techniques that urge the students to collaborate and interact with each other using the TL. This was fully observed through the implicit presence within different learning situations. Examples on such tasks can be demonstrated through challenging language games like drawing games, miming, guessing ...etc. All of these require from the student to have the spirit of the group and yield more communication on their behalf.

5- Utilises communicative centred activities (role plays, dialogues...)

From the above table **36**, it is concluded that observations concerning the implementation of communicative centred activities are positive. This means that the teacher's central activities are rather communicative than functional where the focus is

students' fluency in the TL. During the sessions, almost 3 to 4 pairs had to present a role play, a conversation or even a small talk where they express themselves using the TL.

6- The methods are appropriate to the age and ability of learners

The majority of the dealt with material is fully convenient with the students' age and level of ability. This is due to the pre-discussions with the teacher before the beginning of any observed lesson where he insisted on meeting their level of ability by presenting a comprehensible input. Moreover, the fact that OE is not the only taught module made him completely aware of their level. However, this does not mean that there are not some students who meet hurdles when being exposed to the lesson. Despite all of the teacher's efforts, students seem to ask for clarifications every now and then when not being able to understand. This reflects the nature of relation shared with the teacher and their will to learn more.

Section Three

Learners' interaction in the classroom.	WO	FO	NO
1- Learners give opinions, provide suggestions and share ideas using L2 either with the teacher or with other classmates when doing oral tasks.	3	3	
2- Learners express willingness to speak and know how to introduce / end a topic when dealing with a topic discussion.	2	2	2
3- Students know how to respond/reciprocate in situations like: greeting, inviting...etc	6		
4- Students know how and when to take the floor in oral conversations when participating in the classroom (overlap, gaze and intonation)	2	3	
5- Learners hesitate and express themselves in a difficult way in the classroom by using L1 transferred expressions/non verbal behaviour.	3	1	2
6- Learners show readiness and motivation to work with peers and feel comfortable within the group.	4	2	
7- Students deduce meaning of new and difficult words/expressions from classroom interaction and exchange.	5	1	

Table 37. Learners' Interaction Observation Rating

1- Learners give opinions, provide suggestions and share ideas using L2 either with the teacher or with other classmates when doing oral tasks

From the above table, it is noticeable that such an interaction on the students' behalf is fairly to fully observed. This depends on many factors. During the lessons, the teacher is always seeking to know the students' opinions and asks them to give their suggestions and share their ideas together. This happens mainly when a group of students present a work and

hence the teacher asks others to give their comments. Moreover, when discussing a subject matter in one of the sessions the teacher gave the student a saying about examinations and asked them to give their viewpoints. The majority of students show a considerable amount of involvement and hence participated fully in the discussion. Even if sometimes they do it in a brief manner or find it difficult to find the right word to give their opinions, they carry on and have their share in talking.

2- Learners express willingness to speak and know how to introduce / end a topic when dealing with a topic discussion

When it comes to topic discussion, almost the majority of the students know how to introduce and close up a topic particularly when they are knowledgeable about. However, if the topic is somehow new and requires thinking and further research in terms of information, only few of them can manage dealing with such a task. The most common thing observed under such an element is the implication of almost the same members who share their willingness to speak either with the teacher or their classmates. Nevertheless, the remaining few are always silent no matter how is the degree of motivation or encouragement on the part of the teacher.

3- Students know how to respond/reciprocate in situations like: greeting, inviting...etc

Since they are in the tertiary level, students know how to respond or reciprocate to the different directed questions. This happens either in role plays, improvisations or during the regular classroom questioning routines. Noticeably, when the teacher invites them to take the floor or present their work, the manner in which they respond vary from one student to another. Some use informal language (**T:** who is going to present today? **S1:** I'm gonna pass). Others use response tokens like (mmm, yeah, okay), and the rest use non verbal language (gestures) or even L1 to respond to the posed questions regardless to its nature.

Excerpt9. ('In the classroom' role play)

S1: Are you ready for the test?

SS: No, we are not.

S1: It's okay. Don't worry

4- Students know how and when to take the floor in oral conversations when participating in the classroom (overlap, gaze and intonation)

Table 37 indicates that students can manage taking the floor in a conversation in a fairly acceptable manner. When the conversations are pre-planned in advance, the students show a high degree of mastery when speaking. When it comes to overlapping and intonation, students attempt to respect such rules. This is apparent when none of them overlap the turn of

their classmates until the teacher gives them the floor. However, it sometimes happens when there is a challenging classroom activity, students break the rules and take over each others' turns. In terms of intonation, this point is not given too much explicit importance by the teacher. Nevertheless, when students produce a sentence with a faulty intonation, the teacher draws their attention by reproducing the same structure with the accurate intonation. Concerning the gaze, the teacher often uses eye contact so as to instruct the students to do something and this reflects the degree to which students are familiar with their teachers' inner classroom rules. Furthermore, the teacher often tends to assign the floor to the student by a simple gaze.

5- Learners hesitate and express themselves in a difficult way in the classroom by using L1 transferred expressions/non verbal behaviour

Hesitations and difficulty in expressing ideas are often part of a foreign language learner routine. Throughout the sessions, the majority of the students find it sometimes challenging to carry out their talk without making pauses. However, what was considerably appreciated during the classroom practices is that despite the hurdles, students did not resort to L1 and tried by all means to continue conversing in the TL. They sometimes use French, gestures, paraphrasing, or even ask for their classmates' help.

6- Learners show readiness and motivation to work with peers and feel comfortable within the group

When asked to work in pairs or in groups, students show full readiness and motivation. The teacher did not intervene in dividing the students. Therefore, they felt free to move around, choose the partner or the group they wanted to work with and therefore discussed and interacted at ease. Noticeably, it is common practice to undertake classroom tasks under such patterns provided students feel comfortable collaborating and hence attempt to exchange ideas and generate more fruitful results rather than working individually. This urged the students to become more involved, interested and breakdown the barriers of shyness and fear of making mistakes. This is due to the number of students who participated which was multiplied than when asking students individually to do a task or even answer a simple question.

7- Students deduce meaning of new and difficult words/expressions from classroom interaction and exchange

Throughout the different exchanges and interactions, students were able to deduce the meaning of new or difficult words. For instance, when the students encountered such words they immediately asked for its meaning either to the other student who presented the work, or the teacher. Other times, the teacher asked for the meaning of the word when none of the

students did this. Therefore, when the meaning is obtained the teacher repeated it to the students and asked them to jot it down or give examples using such a word.

Excerpt10.

T: So, the title of your presentation is repentance, right?

S1: Yes, Sir.

T: And what does this mean?

SS: It is a new word, what is it?

S1: Deep sorrow and regret about a past action

S3: I did not know that!

Section Four

Teacher – students interaction	WO	FO	NO
1- The teacher gives equal opportunities for the students to interact with him during the classroom oral tasks.	5	1	
2- The teacher encourages students to speak in English during and outside classroom practices.	6		
3- The teacher maintains the students’ interest and motivation by providing challenging communicative tasks.	4	1	1
4- The teacher exposes the learners to authentic situations in order to make them aware of authentic language.	2		4
5- The teacher intervenes when there is a breakdown of communication	4	2	

Table 38. Teacher-Student Interaction Observation Rating

1- The teacher gives opportunities for the students to interact with him during the classroom oral tasks

During the whole period of observations, the teacher attempted to give the students numerous chances to participate. This occurred through giving them the lead by deciding to come to the classroom with a specific task, activity or lesson to deliver to the other classmates. This was fruitful in terms of giving equal chances to students to speak and participate effectively in the classroom practices. Despite the light intervention in terms of discipline, providing clarifications or giving comments, the classroom was rather students-centred and varied in terms of interaction patters (pair work, group work and open class work). Furthermore, the teacher attempted to assign turns to the students who did not speak before and those who sit at the back. This was done to make the students feel that they exist in the classroom and that they are being treated equally in the classroom. This henceforth urged them to talk and participate more.

2- The teacher encourages students to speak in English during and outside classroom practices

It was common practice and fully observed during the attended sessions. The teacher tended to interrupt on the spot when some students were speaking in L1 (Arabic) and politely requested them to recapitulate in English. This does not mean that L1 is forbidden in the classroom but its use is kept to a minimum so as to form an English speaking habit among students.

As far as using English outside is concerned, the teacher through giving assignments provided them with implicit chances to use the TL almost every day among peers and therefore maximized the fact to be fully familiar with the TL away from the teacher and the classroom confines.

Excerpt11.A

SS: ((working in groups and discussing)), *wechih?diriha hakda* (What? Do it like this)

T: Please, girls. Do not use Arabic when discussing your work

SS: Sorry, Sir.

Excerpt11.B

T: Do not forget to prepare something to be presented for next session.

SS: Ok, Sir.

T: Make sure to practise together in English.

3- The teacher maintains the students' interest and motivation by providing challenging communicative tasks

The teacher left the choice to students to look for the most challenging tasks so as it creates a sense of competition and interest towards the classroom activities as a whole. One of the students presented a task called "Pictionary" and brought a box of papers with words, expressions and phrases. Then, she asked her classmates to split into two groups, choose one representative. This latter chose a paper and tried to draw what is in and the rest guessed. It was almost a competition among both groups to get the structure correctly and win a score. The students were very much enthusiastic, engaged and fascinated by the activity.

4- The teacher exposes the learners to authentic situations in order to make them aware of authentic language

The teacher constantly brings the OHP to the classroom. However the lack of electricity hinders the development of the related tasks to such a material. Once with the teachers, the observer asked about the purpose behind the use of this material and the lesson

that was to be presented. The teacher replied that the lessons to be tackled are based on an audio or a video by native speaking members used to build up further knowledge and awareness about some topics such as schooling system, living habits and other topics alike. Regardless to the preparation, students were not fully exposed to authentic materials except for once with a student's presentation.

5- The teacher intervenes when there is a breakdown of communication

The teacher's intervention ranged from fairly to well observed. This meant that whenever students marked a longer pause than expected or needed, the teacher intervened. Moreover, when the students were unable to sustain the talk, the teacher slightly intervened. This was done with the aim to keep the flow of communication/interaction going. However, the teacher decided to intervene and fill the students' lapses, pauses and difficulties in communication depending on the degree of the breakdown itself. In addition, the teacher let the floor to other students to adjust the missing gap from one time to another.

Section Five

Making the content comprehensible	WO	FO	NO
1- The teacher uses body language, realia, visual aids along with technological devices to communicate meaning to students.		5	1
2- The teacher introduces topics that deal with the socio-cultural environment of the target society to enable the students to be more aware about their social conventions and norms.	2		4
3- The teacher selects and adapts instructional material for learners' developmental level.	6		
4- The teacher checks the students understanding and adjusts their progress in the lesson using instruction checking questions and concept checking questions.	6		

Table 39. Making the Content Comprehensible Observation Rating

1- The teacher uses body language, realia, visual aids along with technological devices to communicate meaning to students

Table 39 shows that the use of gestures along with multiple devices are of a fairly use in the class. During the multiple sessions, the teacher attempted to render and provide the students with comprehensible input. Even when not being the one who presented the material, the teacher used body language, repetitions and CCQ to check the students' understanding. On the part of the students, their presentations were fortified by images, visual aids and OHP. The latter was implemented in one of the students' presentations named 'Look and remember'

(about cities in the USA). The exposure was fruitful because the students were put in a situation where words can be assigned an image. Moreover, it facilitated explaining abstractness that any other device can achieve. It created a challenging atmosphere by rendering the students fully concentrated and willing to engage more in the activity.

Excerpt12.

S1: Look at the displayed pictures then try to remember the names when I show them to you later

SS: Ok! Let's start

S1: hhhh, ok!

2- The teacher introduces topics that deal with the socio-cultural environment of the target society to enable the students to be more aware about their social conventions and norms

This practice was of a rare occurrence. However, topics related to the socio-cultural environment of the target society were only dealt with twice during observations. The first one was when two female students presented a role play about 'Islamophobia'. Another one was about 'Greeting in some countries'. Those gave students the opportunity to reflect about their own culture and the foreign one. Therefore, after dealing with such tasks, students attempted to compare foreign manners with the local ones in terms of perceptions.

3- The teacher selects and adapts instructional material for learners' developmental level

The effect of such an element was completely observed throughout the active participation of students during the classroom practices. Whenever a new presentation started, students attempted to become part of the task or activity and therefore react accordingly with the requirements of the task. Even the material provided by classmates is comprehensibly challenging. The latter opened the door to actively engage students and make them cope with the variety of related presentations.

4- The teacher checks the students understanding and adjusts their progress in the lesson using instruction checking questions and concept checking questions

Table 39 shows that the teacher constantly checks the students' understanding in order to make any adjustment in manipulating the students' reaction with the different material. This can happen mainly when one of the students gave them a task to do and assigned a

long redundant instruction. The teacher intervened first to ask the student to recapitulate through simple questions seeking clarifications about the different steps to be followed. Then, checked again with the whole classroom whether they understood or not.

Section Six

Feedback	WO	FO	NO
1- The teacher uses assessments (evaluation statements) to encourage students to use the language.	6		
2- The teacher uses various forms and strategies of correction and rendering feedback to the students (implicit/explicit)	6		
3- The teacher comments on each oral performance of the students	6		
4- The teacher gives feedback immediately to the students		4	2
5- The teacher provides the opportunity for the students to correct others.	4	2	

Table 40. Feedback Observation Rating

1- The teacher uses assessments (evaluation statements) to encourage students to use the language

Even during participation or before any classroom practice, the teacher tends to show positive feedback and support the students' productions. This happens regularly just to give the students the opportunity to share a fruitful psychological experience which grants the students full commitment and boosts their willingness to use the FL.

2- The teacher uses various forms and strategies of correction and rendering feedback to the students (implicit/explicit)

Rendering feedback is something crucial with regards to students' learning and improvement. Table 40 indicates that such a technique is constantly implemented by the teacher despite the nature of the activity/task. The teacher, throughout the sessions, implicitly corrects the students' mistakes. This happened when a student conversed in English, committed a mistake but the teacher decided not to correct overtly. This is probably not to embarrass the students in front of each other and wait for the rest of classmates to intervene. However, explicit is when the teacher asked the students to repeat and when this happens, the mistake is being pointed at and corrected on the spot without any considerations. This happened mainly when there is a discussion over a topic or when the student gives his answer

or opinion. Otherwise, when presenting a role play or a conversation, the teacher does not interrupt the students at all until they finish.

Excerpt13.

S1: Have you understand?

T: Repeat, please!

S1: Have you understand?

T: Have you understood?

S1: Ah, ok! Sorry!

3- The teacher comments on each oral performance of the students

This is noticeably common practice in OE observed classroom. By the end of each presentation, the teacher makes his own comments then asks for further supplementary comments by students to share their viewpoints about what they have already assisted to. This does not only give insights to the students under question an idea about their efforts, but also to open more doors for discussions where the students use more the target language. This also gives the students the ability to share their ideas freely without any hindering factors.

4- The teacher gives feedback immediately to the students

The teacher fairly gives feedback immediately to the students. This depends on the nature of the mistake itself. If it is something crucial in terms of wrong information, the teacher does not retain himself, stops the student, indicates the mistake and then corrects it. On the other hand, when the mistake is a lapse or a slip of the tongue, the teacher skips the attention and focuses on the bigger picture. This is all in order not to cut the flow of communication. In brief, even if the feedback is not immediate, the teacher leaves it till the end of the session and gives it a recall as an overview evaluation to make them learn from their mistakes.

5- The teacher provides the opportunity for the students to correct others

This was fully observed especially when there is a competition among students. The students sometimes tended to correct their classmates just to mark their presence. However, it was fairly observed especially when their correction to each other is wrongly perceived by each other and creates conflicts among them, thereby the teacher intervenes and draws the

students' attention to the mistakes to lessen the threat among them and keep the atmosphere professional.

4. Discussion of the Data's Findings

4.1 Discussion of the Students' Questionnaire

Different opinions and viewpoints were raised in relation to the role of discourse in enhancing classroom interaction among students and teachers and the general remarks about the encountered difficulties in OE sessions that inhibit students' full achievement from a communicative perspective.

Despite their motive behind studying the language for free communication in the TL with others and their average level in terms of communication and overall ability, second year students face a considerable range of difficulties in putting the TL language in its real context of use. For instance, they lack full performance in the listening skill that is why they face problems of understanding when being exposed to audio/video material by natives in the classroom. On one hand, Moreover, the range of psychological problems such as shyness and anxiety lower the degree of how motivation towards participation in group/cooperative works in the assigned oral tasks/activities. On the other, fear of making mistakes in another problem that calls for the need from teachers to render positive feedback and correct their mistakes by the end of the presentation or whatsoever to make them relaxed and willing to engage more.

Although they are willing to communicate in English, second students abstain from using it outside the classroom boundaries. Therefore, the teacher's role is crucial in inviting students to do so through fieldwork, home assignment and advice so that they will improve their level intrinsically. On one hand, students' use of the TL needs to be fostered by the teacher inside and outside the classroom. This is with the teacher's encouragement and positive feedback after their oral presentation. On the other, they avoid using the mother tongue instantly or ask for their teachers' help, but instead they attempt to use different strategies on their own to transmit communication messages.

Regardless to the students' awareness about the relevance of culture in promoting their linguistic competence, they still need to improve on their vocabulary and pronunciation so as to be able to communicate effectively among the group (i.e. students are aware that linguistic competence is the key to communicative competence). Additionally, they strongly believe that such competence will be acquainted when teachers:

- Provide comprehensible input in terms of the level of activities and even the used TL needs to be adjusted to their level of assimilation.
- Implement culture lessons to provide more knowledge and tolerance of the TL and L1 culture
- Exposure to a variety of speech events to become familiar with the different linguistic manifestations and various functions (speech acts)

Lastly, students are aware that TL conversation is not an obligation in communication; nevertheless, teachers should expose them to real-life communication exchanges by natives and get them acquainted with the different techniques that ensure the good use of the TL not only academically speaking, but in real contexts (how to take turns, how to overlap,...etc)

4.2 Discussion of the Teachers' Interview

Thanks to their considerable experience in the tertiary domain, teachers have provided thorough and in-depth answers. The data yielded from the teachers' viewpoints revealed quite substantial outcomes concerning the relationship between both variables under study. Therefore conclusions can be stated as follows:

- EFL learners' level of communication in English in terms of ideas' construction is average and needs further improvement.
- The variation of activities in OE is relatively important in the creation of a challenging and motivating atmosphere for students.
- The sum of productive and receptive skills should be incorporated in OE courses to foster EFL learners' overall language proficiency; namely listening in which the majority of students face more difficulties and hence become unable to speak appropriately.
- CLT needs to be adapted in EFL contexts of teaching in order to grant students more creativity in a more learner centred classrooms.
- Being eclectic is one key element in meeting the students' needs and learning styles.
- Students' psychological problems need to be solved and controlled through the introduction of a variety of interaction patterns, constructive feedback and positive comments.
- Tolerating EFL students' errors/mistakes is rather maintained to ensure semantic appropriacy.

- Communication strategies are importantly useful to be taught to students to reduce L1 use.
- Being knowledgeable, experienced and well versed in EFL teaching. This is required so as to teach conversation building techniques and not avoid creating further confusion among students.
- Speech acts teaching should be reconsidered in OE classrooms due to the meaning they add to the structural and functional TL use.
- Despite their awareness that culture is an indispensable part of the TL, teachers find it quite challenging to present culture lessons in OE sessions.
- The insufficiency of the allotted time, ill-equipped classrooms in terms of ICT's and the non availability of language laboratories at the local level hinder the fact of bringing a more real-life aspect to the classroom on one hand and a misbalance in distributing opportunities on students.
- EFL Students need to add on the knowledge presented in the classroom through further reading and extensive listening to native speakers' material.

4.3 Discussion of the Classroom Observation

The number of attended sessions and relevant remarks taken in relation to the observed elements of the various checklist sections led to a number of relevant conclusions related to our research work at hand:

- The division of instructional groups into sub-groups maximizes EFL learners' interaction in the classroom in terms of seating arrangement (U shape, circle) and setting group/pair work for the classroom activities/tasks.
- The friendly-like atmosphere incites learners to engage more and lower psychological problems such as shyness, stress and anxiety.
- Peer teaching grants EFL learners not only responsibility for their own learning but also, being in charge of most of the classroom talk and interaction (i.e. teacher's intervention is kept to the minimum)
- Being at the learners' level of expectancy (not facilitating and not complicating too much) encourages students' involvement.
- Sequencing the time distribution during the OE course leads to equal opportunities of using the TL.
- Communicative activities create a challenging and fun atmosphere in the classroom.

- The constant minimum use of L1 by the OE teacher urges the EFL students to follow the same path and form a habit which empowers them to use the TL.
- Classroom discussion is linked to the degree of knowledgeability through readings for instance about the topic at hand.
- The manner of reciprocating in different situations is limited in terms of language structures; therefore teachers need to teach them speech acts.
- Proper conversation techniques are not fully met despite preparation for role plays at home.
- Second year students have a certain amount of strategic competence when being unable to converse in English (paraphrasing)
- Enriching vocabulary through the different language games or presentations by peers.
- Assignments given to be prepared at home such as role plays, language games, lessons... etc motivate students rehearse using the TL.
- The lack of electricity hindered the presentation of authentic material (in terms of culture) to students.
- Breakdown of communication interventions are adjusted to the nature of error/mistake itself. As a result, this leads to construct students' self confidence through positive feedback.
- Body language, visuals and questions (CCQ/ICQ) are important in keeping the students' alert and rendering instructional material more comprehensible.
- Despite the OE teacher awareness to the importance of the socio-cultural aspect of the language, he did not deal with such courses.
- The instructional material is in harmony with the students' progression through tasks.
- Comments and evaluation assessments (head nods, smiles...etc) are effective in encouraging students to produce the TL.
- Peer error correction is fruitful provided it is maintained in a professional manner.

Conclusion

In conclusion to the above, the triangulated instrumentation enabled drawing relatively a considerable number of results related to the current variables under study from a pedagogic point of view. First, second year students are exposed to the TL culture through content-based courses and this is considered insufficient due to its importance in constructing their communicative competence. Moreover, teachers need to incorporate such an aspect of the language from a discourse based teaching theory that provides EFL learners with the

opportunity to have full acquaintance with the TL from its practical rather than theoretical use by natives in real-life situations. However, this would be hurdled by the lack of authentic materials and limitations of the allocated time to OE courses. In terms of classroom interaction, the EFL learners' needs and motivation would/should be met when both parts collaborate in making the teaching-learning process more effective. On one hand, this can be achieved by reducing the gap between expectations and willingness to acquire the TL through creating a strong bond among teachers and learners to lower the psychological constraints for further development and involvement. On the other, providing positive feedback, varying language activities, interactional patterns and finally being alert and conscious that any TL is a matter of intrinsic motivation and mutual collaboration among peers and teachers to reach the ultimate levels of language mastery and competence.

General Conclusion

The present research work emphasized the role of discourse studies encompassing the teacher's role in the execution of the syllabus and providing an adequate classroom atmosphere to enhance second year students' oral proficiency at the level of the English Division at MKU, Biskra. Correlating the findings from the theoretical and the field work parts, the research questions on whether the pedagogic conditions, already mentioned, through the implementation of a discourse-based teaching approach (SAT) favour the enhancement of EFL students' communicative competence were given relatively appropriate answers. Moreover, the research hypotheses proved on one hand the fact of being solely linguistically competent is insufficient to guarantee the command over the functional and socio-cultural use of the TL as the final objective in the FL classroom. On the other hand, the introduction of a SAT to enable EFL students become interculturally active social interactants is conceptually present in terms of teachers' beliefs and assumptions yet its core practices need further reconsiderations.

The following work is laid out under three chapters. The first one is sub-componential comprising two parts entitled the concept of communication and communicative competence respectively. The second chapter as well is comprised of two parts namely: the concept of discourse analysis and classroom discourse analysis. Both of them give a thorough review of the different literature about the variables under study. The third chapter includes the analysis of the sum of devised instruments to obtain relevant data: a semi structured students' questionnaire, a semi structured teachers' interview and a classroom observation along with the proposal of further recommendations.

The sum of obtained findings reveals that despite the considerably acceptable level of EFL students in both language ability and communication skills, they asserted their constant needs to enrich vocabulary and pronunciation. Therefore, teachers still need to focus further on a variety of deficiencies in terms of overall language competence needs so that to prolong their abilities to use the language both efficiently and contextually in whatsoever situation. Furthermore, teachers should alter the ways in which they present and deal with communicative based activities and attempt to adjust them through exposing EFL learners to a variety of discourse patterns in different situations. These, in turn, should reflect naturally spontaneous conversations among native speakers through authentic material implementation (video/audio/scripted). This is all with the aim to work on the deficiency related to their listening skill and the difficulties they face while interacting with an audio/video material.

It was remarkably obvious from the questionnaire findings that students are aware of the route to meet fluency in terms of linguistic competence, communication skills and socio-cultural rules in enabling them to generate appropriately correct language. However, the views by teachers about the use of such aspects from a discourse analysis based activities such as turn taking, opening/closing sequences in conversations and speech acts formulation are reported to be never dealt with or taught implicitly through the different classroom practices within role plays, simulations or classroom discussion or debates. Such practices were reflected in the classroom observation sessions where the nature of the presented instruction, in terms of practice, was existent as a framework, but the rationale in building EFL students' overall discourse awareness was completely absent. This is particularly in terms of classroom tasks/activities which lack the different varieties of language functions, speech events, genres and discourse types that occur outside the classroom.

Another relevant finding from the students' questionnaire is their strong belief that teachers should maximize their talking time through participation which was relatively common practice in the OE sessions. However, they argued that their non frequent participation is due to shyness. Therefore, teachers should take such psychological factors into consideration and break those negatively perceived inhibitions and barriers through group and cooperative work. Additionally, EFL students held the belief that conversing fluently in the TL is an obligation. The latter is a good point that urges teachers to build upon for further plans to boost their motivation through positive feedback and communication strategies acquaintance to make them almost experience a real-life situation in the classroom confines. The teacher's role and the implementation of CLT are perceived to favour communication in EFL contexts. This is enclosed within a variety of principles from which students believe that a teacher should be a facilitator, error tolerant, a positive comments provider and a motivator as well. Nevertheless, such beliefs were considerably fulfilled during the observed sessions but teachers need further training and experience so as to put such theoretical assumptions into application.

Concerning the classroom atmosphere, the teachers revealed the insufficiency of the allocated time to OE courses and the nature of overcrowded classrooms. This was partially referred to by the students who strongly endeavour that their exposure to the TL is quite insufficient so as to promote their overall language proficiency level. Therefore, all of the given findings in terms of beliefs, assumptions and practices cannot meet fruitful realisations and outcomes unless the above conclusions and conditions are fully met.

In summation, this study is fruitful and useful as it brings both insights for teachers and raises EFL students' awareness about the importance played by discourse studies when communicating. Therefore, recognizing the best practices that ensure such an objective to be fulfilled and having proper knowledge of English as a TL rather than knowledge about it. Eventually, this would help future research to be undertaken from a functional realm and attempt to come up with the most relevant application to the already presented shortcomings.

General Recommendations

With regards to the analysis of the obtained data, a number of recommendations are put forward:

- The time allotment to the sessions devoted to build proper use of English such as oral expression need to be taken into consideration.
- Implementing culture lessons in OE sessions.
- Collaboration among teachers of content-based courses of culture and oral expression to bridge the gap between theory and practice.
- The reduction of the huge number of students in the classrooms.
- ICT tools and language laboratories should be made available to teachers by the administration.
- Organize in-service training seminars for teachers with respect to teaching intercultural communication skills.
- Design a specific course devoted to intercultural communication in the early tertiary level.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Students' Questionnaire (First Draft)

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

English Division

Students' Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is dedicated to collect relevant data to our Master research work entitled 'Discourse Studies in Enhancing EFL Learners' Communicative Competence' at the English Division of Biskra University. Through this brief data collection tool, your answers will be helpful in giving fruitful insights on the nature of classroom interaction practices under a perspective of discourse studies which brings about practical implications that serve as a pedagogical tool in helping both teachers and learners to achieve better outcomes with regard to the teaching/learning processes. This is not a test so there are no right or wrong answers. Hence; it is with great pleasure and gratitude that we appreciate your precious collaboration to the validity of this research at hand by giving your personal opinion. Be assured that all of your provided answers will be kept in the strictest confidentiality.

You are kindly requested to put a tick (✓) in the corresponding box to indicate your chosen option or make full statements whenever needed.

Section One: Students' Background information

1. Gender

(a) Male		(b) Female	
----------	--	------------	--

2. Learning English at University is a personal choice

(a) Yes		(b) No	
---------	--	--------	--

✓ Please, briefly explain why?

.....
.....
.....

3. You are learning English because (You may tick more than one answer)

(a) You want to get a job in which you can work with an international organization or for a global company.	
(b) You want to get good marks in English and improve your level for further studies.	
(c) You want to be able to communicate freely in English with people from different countries.	
(d) You want to learn about lifestyles, customs along with the ways of thinking in foreign countries such as England and America.	

✓ Other reasons (Please, specify)

.....
.....

4. How do you consider your level of ability in English?

(a) Basic (lower): very limited vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation is heavily influenced by the mother tongue.	
(b) Basic (Upper): a limited number of common words and expressions with a survival level knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and faulty pronunciation.	
(c) Intermediate (lower): reasonable and restricted fluency having many problems with words, grammar and pronunciation.	
(d) Intermediate (Upper): comfortable fluency in familiar topics but still with some difficulty with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.	
(e) Advanced: able to converse fluently and naturally on most topics with little difficulty with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.	

5. What are the skills in which you think you are still not performing at?(You may tick more than one)

(a) Speaking	
(b) Writing	
(c) Listening	
(d) Reading	

Section two: Learners' attitudes towards using English for communication

1. Do you think that the time allocated to oral expression classes is sufficient to enable you to become communicatively competent in English?

(a) Yes		(b) No	
---------	--	--------	--

2. If your answer is "Yes". How often do you participate in the classroom?

(a) Not at all	
(b) Rarely	
(c) Sometimes	
(d) Often	
(e) Always	

3. Being silent in an oral expression class is due to (You may tick more than one answer)

(a) Boredom	
(b) Shyness	
(c) Fear of making mistakes	

✓ **Other reasons (Please, specify)**

.....

4. Which of the following activities do you think are helpful in making you use English effectively? Please, rank them from 1 to 5 (1: extremely helpful 2: very helpful, 3: somewhat helpful, 4: slightly helpful, 5: not at all helpful)

(a) Theatre games (improvisation, role playing, storytelling...)	
(b) Problem solving tasks	
(c) Transformations	
(d) Discussions	
(e) Information-centred tasks	

✓ **Other activities (Please, specify)**

.....

5. When doing a classroom activity (from the above ones) in the oral expression session, how often do you use the mother tongue?

(a) Not at all	
(b) Rarely	
(c) Sometimes	
(d) Often	
(e) Always	

6. When you fail to express yourself in English. What are the strategies that you use? (You may tick more than one)

(a) Ask for the teacher's help.	
(b) Paraphrase the word in mind using synonyms, expressions...etc	
(c) Use the mother tongue.	
(d) Use body language (gestures, mime, ...etc) and other techniques (drawings ...)	

✓ Other strategies (Please, specify)

.....

.....

.....

7. What does “to be fluent in English” mean to you? (You may tick more than one)

(a) To have a good mastery of various grammar patterns and vocabulary.	
(b) To have good communication skills.	
(c) To be aware of the social and cultural rules of the English language to sound more appropriate when using the language.	
(d) To have a good mastery of grammatical patterns, vocabulary, socio-cultural rules of English and use them in meaningful communication.	

8. When doing a classroom activity, you prefer :

(a) Solo work	
(b) Pair work	
(c) Group work	
(d) Open class work	

9. Does your teacher encourage you to use English inside and outside the classroom setting?

(a) Yes		(b) No	
---------	--	--------	--

10. What are the reasons that prevent you from using English outside the classroom?

(a) No support to use English in the home environment.	
(b) Lack of exposure to English as it is not used at large outside the classroom.	
(c) Shortage of vocabulary due to the lack of reading books.	
(d) Lack of motivation to use English.	
(e) The negative attitude towards English as a foreign language with regard to our religion.	

11. What kind of classroom material does your teacher use in his/her oral expression sessions? (You may tick more than one)

(a) Realia (objects: stamps ...etc)	
(b) Printed texts (poems, newspapers,... etc)	
(c) Visuals/Images (photographs, posters, ...etc)	
(d) MultiMedia material (audiotapes, DVDS, ... etc)	

✓ Other materials (Please specify)

.....

Section Three: Learners' difficulties in oral expression sessions

1. When listening to different tasks presented by your teacher, what are the difficulties you encounter? (You may tick more than one)

(a) Having trouble understanding spoken instructions.	
(b) Having trouble understanding informal language.	
(c) Having trouble understanding the subject matter of a talk, i.e. what is being talked about.	
(d) Having difficulty in participating in large/small group discussions	

✓ **Other difficulties (Please, specify)**

.....

2. What are the interactional areas that you would like to improve on in your English? (You may tick more than one)

(a) General listening comprehension.	
(b) Participating and communicating effectively with peers in small group discussions or collaborative works (such as conversations).	
(c) Formulating coherent sentences (to describe objects or situations, for instance)	
(d) Knowledge of vocabulary	

3. To which extent are these activities difficult? Please, rank them from 1 to 4 (1: not at all difficult 2: not really difficult 3: quite difficult 4: very difficult)

(a) Listening to songs, T.V programs... etc	
(b) Listening to native speakers conversations.	
(c) Watching video tapes about the English people's culture.	
(d) Watching video tapes about daily English conversations.	

4. Do you think that above activities enable you to form not only grammatical but also socio-cultural appropriate sentences in English?

(a) Yes		(b) No	
---------	--	--------	--

✓ **Please, justify your answer (in both cases)**

.....

5. When making mistakes/errors, your teacher corrects you by?

(a) Inviting other classmates to correct the mistakes/errors.	
(b) Leaving the mistake/error uncorrected in order not to interrupt the flow of communication till he/she finishes.	
(c) Stopping the student, correcting his mistake/error and asking him to carry on.	

✓ **Other ways (Please, specify)**

.....

Section Four: Discourse Studies' implications on the classroom interaction between teachers and learners.

Please indicate your opinion about the following statements by circling only one single comment.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

1. The teacher adjusts his talk in order to meet the level of the learners.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

2. The teacher should maximize opportunities for learners' classroom participation through discussions.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

3. The teacher should implement sessions that tackle the English culture so that learners create a bond with the target society.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

4. Learners should be exposed to authentic language (conversational situations) to become aware of the different linguistic structures and utterances which are appropriate in English. Hence, build on their competence.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

5. The teacher should teach learners strategies to help them overcome communication difficulties in the real world.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

6. Perfect conversation in English is not an obligation for communication.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

7. The teacher provides feedback after learners succeed in conveying meaning and accomplish communicative objectives.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

8. The teacher sets activities of how to use linguistic forms in specific situations (giving advice, making a request, suggesting...) to make learners aware of the different strategies used by native speakers.

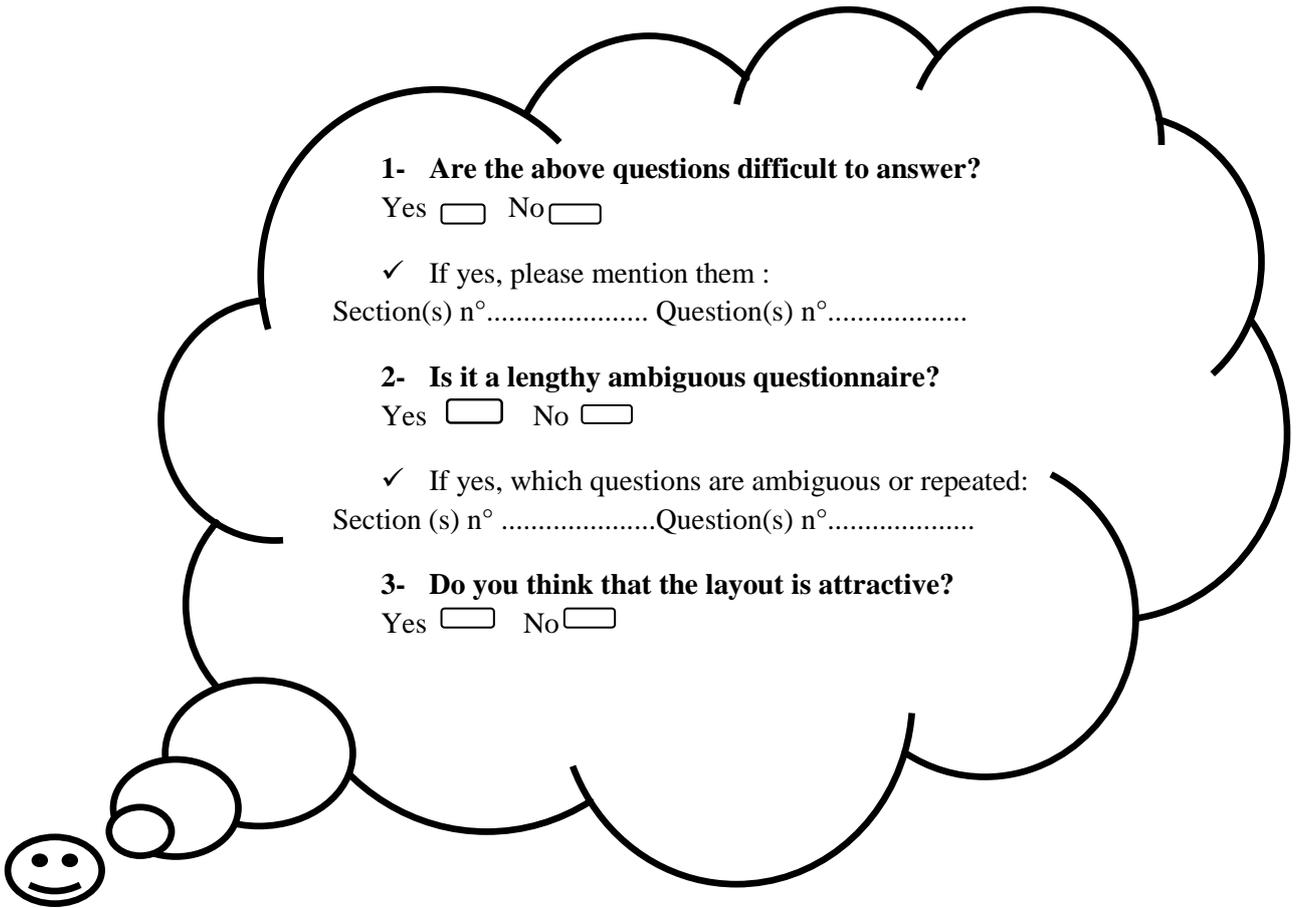
Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

9. The teacher provides learners with situations and asks them to perform role plays to see whether they use appropriate utterances or not.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree

10. Dealing with topics that cover the culture of the English society would improve on learners' intercultural communication skills.

Strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree



1- Are the above questions difficult to answer?

Yes No

✓ If yes, please mention them :

Section(s) n° Question(s) n°.....

2- Is it a lengthy ambiguous questionnaire?

Yes No

✓ If yes, which questions are ambiguous or repeated:

Section (s) n°Question(s) n°.....

3- Do you think that the layout is attractive?

Yes No

Thank you so much for your precious cooperation.

Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire (Final Draft)

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

English Division

Students' Questionnaire

The following questionnaire is dedicated to collect relevant data to our Master research work entitled “**Discourse Studies in Enhancing EFL Learners' Communicative Competence**” at the English Division of Biskra University. Through this brief data collection tool, your answers will be helpful in giving fruitful insights on the nature of classroom interaction practices under a perspective of discourse studies which brings about practical implications that serve as a pedagogical tool in helping both teachers and learners to achieve better outcomes with regard to the teaching/learning processes. This is not a test so there are no right or wrong answers. Hence; it is with great pleasure and gratitude that we appreciate your precious collaboration to the validity of this research at hand by giving your personal opinion. Be assured that all of your provided answers will be kept in the strictest confidentiality.

You are kindly requested to put a tick (✓) in the corresponding box to indicate your chosen option or make full statements whenever needed.

P.S. Only oral expression teachers are concerned.

Section One: Students' Background information

1. Gender

(a) Male (b) Female

2. You are learning English because (You may tick more than one answer)

(a) You want to get a job in an international organization or company (British Petroleum, Sonatrach ...)	
(b) You want to get good marks in English and improve your level for further studies.	
(c) You want to be able to communicate freely in English with people from different countries.	
(d) You want to learn about lifestyles, customs along with the ways of thinking in foreign countries such as England and America.	

✓ Other reasons (Please, specify)

3. How do you consider your level of ability in English?

(a) Basic (lower): very limited vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation is heavily influenced by the mother tongue.	
(b) Basic (Upper): limited vocabulary, grammar and faulty pronunciation.	
(c) Intermediate (lower): reasonable fluency having many problems with words, grammar and pronunciation.	
(d) Intermediate (Upper): comfortable fluency but having some difficulty with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.	
(e) Advanced: able to converse fluently and naturally with little difficulty with	

vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

Section two: Learners' attitudes towards using English for communication

4. Do you think that the time allocated to oral expression classes is sufficient to enable you to become communicatively competent in English?

(a) Yes (b) No

5. How often do you participate in the oral classroom?

(a) Not at all	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Often	<input type="checkbox"/>
(e) Always	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Being silent in an oral expression class is due to (You may tick more than one answer)

(a) Boredom	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Shyness	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Fear of making mistakes	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. What does "to be fluent in English" mean to you?

(a) To have a good mastery of various grammar patterns and vocabulary.	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) To have good communication skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) To be aware of the social and cultural rules of the English language to sound more appropriate when using the language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) All of the above	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. How do you consider your communication abilities?

(a) Weak	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Average	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Good	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) advanced	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. In what interactional areas, would you like to improve on in your English? (You may tick more than one)

(a) General listening comprehension.	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Participating and communicating effectively with peers in small group discussions or collaborative works (such as conversations).	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Formulating correct and meaningful sentences. (to describe objects or situations)	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Knowledge of vocabulary and pronunciation.	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. Does the knowledge about culture enable you to form correct and coherent sentences in English?

(a) Yes (b) No

11. When doing an oral classroom activity, you prefer :

(a) Solo (individual) work	<input type="checkbox"/>
(b) Pair work	<input type="checkbox"/>
(c) Group work	<input type="checkbox"/>
(d) Open class work	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. Which of the following activities do you prefer to practise in the oral expression module?
(You may tick more than one)

(a) Theatre games (monologues, role playing, storytelling...)	
(b) Problem solving tasks	
(c) Conversations and dialogues	
(d) Discussions	
(e) Information-centred tasks (information gap activities)	

13. What kind of classroom material do you think it enhances more communication? (You may tick more than one)

(a) Realia (objects)	
(b) Printed texts (poems, newspapers,...)	
(c) Visuals/Images (photographss, posters, ...)	
(d) MultiMedia materials (audiotapes, DVDS, overhead projectors)	

✓ Please justify your answer.

.....
.....
.....

Section Three: Learners' difficulties in the oral expression sessions

14. What are the skills in which you think you are still not performing at?(You may tick more than one)

(a) Speaking	
(b) Listening	

15. What are the difficulties you may encounter in the oral expression class? (You may tick more than one)

(a) Having trouble understanding spoken instructions.	
(b) Having trouble understanding informal language.	
(c) Having trouble understanding the subject matter of a talk (topic)	
(d) Having difficulty in participating in large/small group discussions	

16. Which of the following activities are difficult? Please, rank them from 1 to 4 (1: not at all difficult 2: not really difficult 3: quite difficult 4: very difficult)

(a) Listening to songs, T.V programs... etc	
(b) Listening to native speakers conversations.	
(c) Watching video tapes about the English people's culture.	
(d) Watching video tapes about daily English conversations by natives.	

17. What difficulties you encounter when preparing your oral presentation (role-play, conversation ...)

(a) Forming grammatically correct sentences	
(b) Deciding which sentence is more socially and culturally appropriate (correct)	
(c) Both of them	

18. When you fail to express yourself in English, you ... (You may tick more than one)

(a) Ask for the teacher's help.	
(b) Paraphrase the word/expression in mind using other synonyms or change it.	
(c) Use the mother tongue (Arabic)	
(d) Use body language (gestures, mime, ...etc) and other techniques (drawings ...)	

19. What are the reasons that do not allow you from using English outside the classroom?

(a) No support to use English in the home environment.	
(b) Lack of exposure to English as it is not used at large outside the classroom.	
(c) Shortage of vocabulary due to the lack of reading books.	
(e) Lack of motivation to use English.	
(f) The negative attitude towards English as a foreign language with regard to our religion.	

20. How does your teacher correct your mistakes/errors in communication?

(a) Invites other classmates to correct your mistakes/errors.	
(b) Leaves the mistake/error uncorrected in order not to interrupt the flow of your communication till you finish.	
(c) Stops you; corrects your mistake/error and asks you to carry on.	

Section Four: Discourse Studies' implications on the classroom interaction between teachers and learners.

21. Please indicate your opinion about the following statements by putting a (✓) in the appropriate column.

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The teacher modifies his language in order to meet the learners' level and make them familiar with English.					
1. The teacher should increase the learners' talking time through discussions.					
2. The teacher should present lessons about the English culture to make learners know more about its society and improve on their communication skills worldwide.					
3. Learners should be exposed to real life conversations by natives to become aware of the appropriate use of English sentences in real life communication.					
4. The teacher should teach communication strategies to his learners to help them overcome communication problems in the real world.					
5. Conversing fluently in English is not an obligation for a good communication.					
6. The teacher comments on learners especially when they succeed in making their oral presentations meaningful and communicative to motivate them in the future.					
7. The teacher make learners form sentences such as (giving advice, making a request, suggesting ...) to enable them to become aware of the use of English in real life situations (as it is the case for natives)					

Thank you so much for your precious cooperation.



Appendix C: Teachers' Interview

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

English Division

Teachers' Interview

The research work at hand entitled “**Discourse Studies in Enhancing EFL Learners' Communicative Competence**” aims at reflecting on the role played by discourse studies in creating a foreign language learning environment that encourages EFL learners towards their oral proficiency in English. Furthermore, it shows how discourse studies serve as a tool in not only helping teachers investigate their own teaching practices but also at understanding interactions among EFL learners and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts.

Your contribution will be of a great help to our research. Hence, I will be graciously thankful if you can answer the following questions:

- 1- How do you describe your learners' level with regards to communicating in English?
- 2- Do you present a variety of activities to develop your learners' oral proficiency? Give examples
- 3- In your opinion, which of the following language skills favour more communication: speaking, listening or both? How?
- 4- In what terms, do you think that the implementation of CLT in EFL contexts enables learners to develop communication skills?
- 5- How should the role of an oral class teacher be in order to meet EFL learners' communicative needs?
- 6- What are the difficulties that your students may encounter when conversing in English?
- 7- How do you manage communication breakdowns among your learners?
- 8- Do you teach your students techniques of how to build a proper conversation in English? If yes, how does it affect them?
- 9- Do you motivate your students to use different speech acts in the classroom?
- 10- In what ways do you think that knowledge about the FL culture enables the students to communicate more in English?
- 11- Do you implement culture courses in your oral class? If yes, what classroom tasks do you prepare for your learners and how do you present them?
- 12- Is the classroom atmosphere sufficient to promote your learners' communicative competence? Why?
- 13- What materials do you use to bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world?
- 14- Can you evaluate the use of ICT tools and language laboratories at the English division with regard to the oral expression module?
- 15- In relation to our research work, what can you suggest in order to improve the classroom interaction vis-à-vis the achievement of more communicative outcomes?

Follow-up questions

- 9- If so, how can you evaluate your students use to such patterns?
- 12- How do you encourage you students to use the language outside the classroom?

Thank you so much for your precious cooperation

Appendix D: Classroom Observation

Mohamed Khider University-Biskra

Department of Foreign Languages

English Division

A classroom observation checklist

Teacher: Observer: Group n°:

Number of students: Date: Time: Module:

Rating Scales: A-Well Observed B-Fairly Observed C-Not Observed

General classroom elements	Degree of achievement		
	A	B	D
Section One: Classroom Atmosphere (learning environment)			
1- The physical setting is clean, organized, spacious, light and comfortable so that learners can interact and speak with each other			
2- The seating arrangement favours effective communication skills			
3- (T) reviews previous session's course.			
4- (T) summarizes the course content and objectives that will be dealt with today.			
5- (T) connects the course content that will be dealt with their prior learning experience and knowledge.			
6- (T) provides a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for students to participate naturally through tasks.			
Section Two: Methods and Lesson Presentation			
1- Material is presented at the students' level of comprehension			
2- Invites class discussion			
3- The allotted time to the lesson is smooth, sequenced and logical.			
4- Incorporates in the lesson tasks that tackle collaboration and interaction consistent with foreign language learning			
5- Utilises communicative centred activities (role plays, dialogues...)			
6- The methods are appropriate to the age and ability of learners			
Section Three: Making the content comprehensible			
1- The teacher uses body language, realia, visual aids along with technological devices to communicate meaning to students.			
2- The teacher introduces topics that deal with the socio-cultural environment of the target society to enable the students to be more aware about their social conventions and norms.			
3- The teacher selects and adapts instructional material for learners' developmental level.			
4- The teacher checks the students understanding and adjusts their progress in the lesson using instruction checking questions and concept checking questions.			
Section Four: Learners' interaction in the classroom.			
1- Learners give opinions, provide suggestions and share ideas using L2 either with the teacher or with other classmates when doing oral tasks.			

2- Learners express willingness to speak and know how to introduce / end a topic when dealing with a topic discussion.			
3- Students know how to respond/reciprocate in situations like: greeting, inviting...etc			
4- Students know how and when to take the floor in oral conversations when participating in the classroom (overlap, gaze and intonation)			
5- Learners hesitate and express themselves in a difficult way in the classroom by using L1 transferred expressions/non verbal behaviour.			
6- Students speaking ability is developed through classroom interaction progress.			
7- Learners show readiness and motivation to work with peers and feel comfortable within the group.			
8- Students deduce meaning of new and difficult words/expressions from classroom interaction and exchange.			
Section Five : Teacher – students interaction			
1- The teacher gives equal opportunities for the students to interact with him during the classroom oral tasks.			
2- The teacher encourages students to speak in English during and outside classroom practices.			
3- The teacher maintains the students’ interest and motivation by providing challenging communicative tasks.			
4- The teacher exposes the learners to authentic situations in order to make them aware of authentic language.			
5- The teacher uses English as a medium of all interactions to maximise the practice and use of the foreign language			
6- The teacher intervenes when there is a breakdown of communication			
Section Six: Feedback			
1- The teacher uses assessments (evaluation statements) to encourage students to use the language.			
2- The teacher uses various forms and strategies of correction and rendering feedback to the students (implicit/explicit)			
3- The teacher comments on each oral performance of the students			
4- The teacher gives feedback immediately to the students			
5- The teacher provides the opportunity for the students to correct others.			

Appendix E:

Transcription Conventions for Classroom Data

Hhh	Audible laughter
Italics	Arabic words
S	Identified students using numbers (S1, S2, S3, ...etc)
SS	Several students at once or the whole class
T	Teacher
“ ”	English translation
(())	Doubled parentheses to describe non verbal action (e.g. pointing)
.	Period, end of sentence
...	Uncompleted talk
xxx	Uncertain hearing (e.g. noise)

Adapted from 'Questioning in the Saudi EFL University Classroom Student Perspectives and Teacher Practices', Alshenqeeti, 2014, p.266)

Résumé

La réalisation d'un niveau acceptable en termes de communication est une condition préalable à tout apprenant en langues étrangères. La présente étude vise à examiner le rôle de l'analyse du discours dans l'amélioration de l'Anglais comme langue étrangère sur la compétence communicative des apprenants à partir d'un point de vue pédagogique et pratique. En plus du rôle de l'enseignant et des programmes pour permettre aux étudiants de maîtriser et d'utiliser la langue dans une communication interculturelle. Pour réaliser les objectifs recherchés, une méthode qualitative descriptive par triangulation a été poursuivie. Ceci englobait trois instruments principaux pour rassembler les données: un questionnaire distribués aux étudiants, une entrevue avec les enseignants et l'observation en classe en prenant le cas des étudiants de deuxième année filière d'Anglais à l'université de Biskra avec un échantillon de 116 étudiants sur l'ensemble de la population. Cette étude a été utilisée pour assurer la validité des données et saisir l'importance de l'analyse du discours sur diverses dimensions. Les résultats obtenus révèlent en dépit que l'Anglais comme langue étrangère, les étudiants jouissent d'une compétence acceptable en termes linguistiques mais ils restent peu compétents au niveau communicatif. En plus les tentatives faites par les enseignants à mettre en œuvre la théorie des actes de langage pour leurs apprenants, néanmoins cela reste nettement insuffisant en raison de nombreuses contraintes. Enfin, un certain nombre de recommandations sont proposées afin de permettre aux étudiants d'atteindre le niveau demandé en termes de compétence.

Mots-clés : l'analyse du discours, la communication, la théorie des actes de langage.