

DEMOCRATIC AND POPULAR REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA  
UNIVERSITY OF TLEMCEM  
INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

**ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM  
DISCOURSE IN ALGERIAN SCHOOLS:  
THE CASE OF SIDI-BEL-ABBES**

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN  
LANGUAGES IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF  
MAGISTER IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND TEFL

BY:  
BOULENOUAR, Mohammed Yamin

SUPERVISOR :  
Prof. MILIANI, M.

ACADEMIC YEAR 1995-1996



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## ABSTRACT



As the teaching of English in the Algerian School System is undergoing some noticeable changes, it is essentially important to observe the teacher and learners' behaviours within a classroom.

The purpose of this research is to analyse FL classroom discourse in some schools in Sidi-Bel-Abbes wherein four transcripts representing a sampling from four different observed lessons were analysed so as to ascertain effects of the methodology used in class on the learners' performance.

By adopting a systematic observation, i. e. the observation is based on a system of fixed observation grid, results indicated that the kind of work done in class does not fit the implementation of programmes. Broadly speaking, we have assigned four parts to the whole project.

We start with a discussion of different types of data ( i. e., classroom observation, a questionnaire, and an open interview ) which have been used to analyse FL classroom discourse. Chapter two offers a review of both classroom management and classroom interaction systems. Different approaches to classroom interaction research are examined as well as a brief account on discourse analysis. Next, we comment the data using a macro-analysis of the used pedagogical activities, then examine through a micro-analysis the pedagogical discourse to see if there is a relation between the used activities and the participants' behaviours. The last chapter looks at a number of suggestions as well as recommendations and range of possibilities for teaching strategies, in-service training and chiefly learner training.

In conclusion, this study points to the urgent need to adopt a learning-centred approach not only to improve the learners' linguistic level, but also to allow beginning teachers to gain more from the teaching task.



## ABBREVIATIONS USED



T: Teacher

PP: Pupil

PPS: Pupils

ST: Student

STS: Students

( + ) Short pause

( + + ) Long pause

[ Indicates simultaneous talk occurred

Snake Indicates stress

AHTC: ann has three cats

RU: Read/Understand

COS: Consolidate 2

COM: Communicative Activities

CA: Collective activity

GA: Group activity

PA: Pair activity

IA: Individual activity

S/C: Sinclair and Coulthard

FS: Foundation School

SS: Secondary School

TR: Trainee



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## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Since the 1960's, there has been an important shift in the relationships between teacher and learners within classroom. The rules regulating these two categories are always put into question. For many years the discussions of the methodology of teaching was the central point in the field since learning was seen to be exclusively related to it. It so happens that what goes on in classrooms between teachers and students is not an easy negotiation and that the practice of everyday seldom meets the principles of the pedagogy settled by ministerial circulars. That is why researchers ask many questions about a system and a theory that the majority of people share neither the principles nor the methods.

With the development of new techniques, the pedagogy of language teaching has given more freedom of speech to learners: adoption of the pedagogic game, role-play, group work and learners' awareness when sharing the management of activities, i.e. their learning has greatly modified the structure of a course .

Now, we find ourselves in a period of changes, and, in class, the situation is not very clear yet. Indeed, even if theoretically, pedagogy has undergone a big revolution, the every day practice meets many difficulties to be adapted to the new formulae. Hence, when dealing with a learning situation whose public is made of real beginners either the teacher or the learners have well defined roles .

In this way, the teacher imposes all the decisions of learning for the learners through his authoritarian behaviour. Consequently, he will have too much work and many responsibilities with regard to both his teaching and his learners' learning. On the other hand, the learner automatically accepts all the teacher' s decisions. This is further

evidence that the learner who has less work and responsibilities is not well involved in his learning process .

It is necessary, however, to define first what a learning situation is, what factors take place when distinguishing a given pedagogic situation from another. It should also be noted that necessary activities to the management of a learning situation are taken into account so as to seek the possible division of responsibilities. Briefly, a learning situation could be defined as a state wherein one (or many) individual searches knowledge from a source (i.e., the teacher or a textbook , etc.). These latter detain knowledge the learner can access to .

Within learner training, a learner is provided with WHAT, WHY, WHEN, and WHERE he learns, i.e. the learner chooses his time-table, his pace of learning and the activities to be done on the grounds that learning, is an individual process wherein each learner adds the new knowledge - due to continual exposure - to already existing one . In doing so, he will have the ability to evaluate his own learning by using dictionaries, grammar, and vocabulary guides and human resources, i.e. teachers or leaders in order to best gain insight into his objectives .

Nevertheless, researchers are aware that the role of the teacher is still of paramount importance with regard to the learning process even if new means of learning are easily at hand nowadays .

The most current learning situation is a process where the teacher and learners' collaboration are both included. According to Allwright (1978) the learner who takes up responsibilities towards his learning represents an important contribution to his proper experience. Furthermore the learner feels the necessity to be guided, helped in the choice of activities .

It follows then that the teacher is the main 'agent' of the learning situations wherein he is either autonomous or authoritarian. In the former, the teacher shares both

why .



the responsibilities and the decisions concerning the class and the learners. In the latter, we are facing a teacher who controls, commands, and organizes everything. Finally, these two approaches represent the difference between learning -centred on the learner and learning-centred on the teacher .

If we really wish to enrich learning and teaching within a class, develop a methodology centred on the division of management of activities between teacher and learners, the first thing to do is to try to understand what goes on within a classroom. To this end, interactional analysis can help us in this research .

Within a foreign language class, the situation is somehow special because, in this case, the language of communication represents, at the same time, both the content of the course and also the objective of learning to be reached. Although language is traditionally seen as a code with its syntactic (i.e., sentence structure), phonological (i.e., speech sounds and their patterns), and lexical components, negotiation of meaning depends on certain strategies: grammatical, discursive, and interpretative which interlocuters use. Indeed, as any community, the class also has its own internal laws governed by conventions which are maintained by all the participants' cooperation.

It is worth noting that a foreign language class represents a community whose laws and values are quite similar to those of a given society. In addition, to be fully accepted by the other members of the group, it is necessary for a learner to share the internal laws whose conventions are regulated by tacit rules seldom clearly expressed, but the immediate question that springs to mind is how does a learner behave to maintain this tacit organization? It is perfectly possible for a learner to be admitted within a culture of a foreign language class unless its norms and conventions are known. Indeed, the learner as a member must cooperate so as to be accepted by the other members.

From the moment that language plays a very important role, it would seem too reasonable to focus our study on language used in class. Therefore, the objectives of this project is to attempt to see how the division of work between teacher and learners is realized, who does what, when, how and for how long. For this reason, we wish to locate the signs which reflect the behaviours and define the relations between teacher and learners so as to be able to consider a better division of work and responsibilities in a language-teaching setting.

With these points in mind, the present research was undertaken to observe and analyse four different lessons whose pedagogical approaches centred on the learner usually adopt a directive methodology. We thought it preferable to limit our investigation to those lessons within four different institutions, i.e. a primary school, two middle schools, and a secondary school in order to gain more insights into interactional analysis on the whole and to specifically examine the extent to which pedagogical discourse affects the implementation of programmes.

Finally, analysing foreign language classroom discourse in Sidi-Bel-Abbes would help us to put forward the following hypotheses:

- (1) what goes on in classrooms goes counter to ministerial texts,
- (2) there is a sudden shift from a structural approach ( i.e., 4 th F.S, 8 th F.S, and 9 th F.S ) to a functional one ( i.e., 1 A.S ),
- (3) the failure of pupils relies heavily on the oral skill as opposed to the written one and evidence showed that the implementation of 'mechanical' strategies such as repeating and answering resulted in poor performance.

In conclusion, this study points to the urgent need to consider the variables such as teaching strategies, in service training, and learner strategies to ensure that both teachers and learners realize their potential.



# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **The Educational Setting**

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# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **The Educational Setting**

### **1.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the different types of data that were gathered to analyse foreign language classroom discourse in some Algerian schools in the area of Sidi-Bel-Abbes. The main bulk of the data for this study comes from videoed and audio-recorded classes. These will provide a basis for us to explore classroom management and teacher-student interaction wherein teacher talk represents the most important source of comprehensible language input a learner is likely to receive.

In the first part of the chapter, we look at the present Algerian learning context, the video and audio-recordings and the transcripts used in the present study. In the subsequent sections, we provide an overall view of the four lessons in order to be informed about classroom practices. However, as there is undoubtedly value in supplementing performance data with the teachers' insights as well as intuitions, the audio and video-data were supplemented by ethnographic questionnaires, a teacher's diary and a grid of observation .

### **1.2 General Description of Learning Context**

Not very long ago the teaching of foreign languages aimed at transmitting "educational" and "cultural" values for getting L2 learners to know civilizations of



others. Everybody took for granted that those civilizations can provide a useful vehicle for learners to make explicit their own views on language learning. Approaches designed to promote L2 acquisition were regarded negatively as they focused on usage ( i.e., grammar description and syntax ) wherein frequent use of the learner's mother tongue in the process of learning aimed to provide a truly human ( i.e., both verbal and non-verbal ) education through linguistic and literary studies.

When most Algerian pupils arrive at school, they already possess the spoken Arabic whose linguistic laws ( i.e., grammar, lexis and accent ) help learners to understand each other. There are other mother tongues limited to specific geographical areas like Berber, Targui and Shawi; but the spoken Arabic remains the main vehicle of communication. In addition to these mother tongues, other languages, i.e. classical Arabic and French introduced in primary school are added to the Algerian linguistic context. Because they are also written, both languages<sup>1</sup> are used in educational and economic institutions; however, classical Arabic has become the major channel of instruction throughout the country. This does not mean that French is completely rejected; nor does it mean thorough success of Arabization. It means that the social use (i.e., radio, TV, newspapers and a multi-channel TV recently) of French is still important in Algeria.

However, with the changes that have already come about in the organization of education, the importance of L2 teaching is given priority to train "locutors" in order to be able to handle language transactions or to survive linguistically within a foreign discourse community. Therefore, using L2 as a "tool" became old-fashioned and L2 as an "instrument" has become the new motto in the field of foreign language learning models .

It is worth noting that the linguistic aspect has always been dominated by the political context, either during the days of colonization or after independence. What is mostly striking today is that the pedagogical aspect of foreign languages is almost forgotten when political decisions are taken. Of course, it can be argued that the latter

can be viewed as innovations to implement a change in language/learning; but it is difficult to see any real benefit when teachers who know better the field are "discarded".

It is possible to have a general viewpoint about the decline of French teaching in Algeria yet the National Charter ( 1975: 66 ) states that foreign languages are

**means to facilitate a constant communication with the world, to have access to modern sciences, modern technologies and to encourage creativity in its universal dimensions.**

It is also difficult to deny the growing importance of English as a universal language . During the last two decades its universality has embraced education, industry, trade, computer sciences, etc. Because of its growing importance, English is, therefore part of any curriculum in all Algerian school cycles.

At the same time, it is important to say that the medium of foreign language instruction in all primary school in Algeria is French <sup>2</sup>. This policy has assigned five hours a week in primary schools for the teaching of French, but the promoters of this change knew the consequences: a radical implementation of classical Arabic and a gradual implementation of English as an effective medium of foreign instruction. This has created a major problem, for although Algerian students are called upon to follow their lectures (i. e, mainly scientific ones) in French at university level, a lot of them do not have the required proficiency in the language.

Last but not least is the recent introduction of English as an experience first in the fourth year of the foundation school. Within this framework, the gradual introduction of English as a first foreign language, i.e. at the same level of French took place



effectively at the beginning of the academic year 1993 - 94 throughout some Algerian primary schools (see appendix 12 on page 147).

In sum, the general and intermediate objectives of English teaching consist of two main goals . There is a primary focus on the acquisition of both linguistic competences and practical knowledge so as to provide learners with the tool of information and communication on the one hand, and the training and transformation of intellectual attitudes which will allow learners to know foreign cultures on the other. Thus, students who have completed both a course of basic school and secondary school successfully will possess a valuable linguistic knowledge once they reach university level. In terms of learning, students who know the language will not use the latter appropriately according to communication goals.

### **1.3 The Video and Audio-Recording Data**

Since 1985, the researcher has been working as a trainer in the English section of the I.T.E of Sidi-Bel-Abbes. In the second semester of the academic year 1992/93 (February-June), he managed to record the lesson "Consolidate 2" during the second blocked teaching practice. Prior to this, he made attempts to record steps of lessons which are always of informative and organizational nature. The teacher was a trainee who had already taken part in the first blocked teaching practice of the same academic year as pre-service training. Six groups of trainees transferred to six different middle schools where under the supervision of three trainers. Each Wednesday morning every trainer joined a group in order to observe lessons given by trainees which were followed by debates related to teaching.

The following academic year 1993/94, the researcher was in charge of three groups of trainees in Ibn Zaïdoun Middle School. We met once a week for three hours: two hours to attend sessions with two trainees from each group giving lessons and one hour devoted to a debate. However, thanks to the help of two cheerful assistants, we

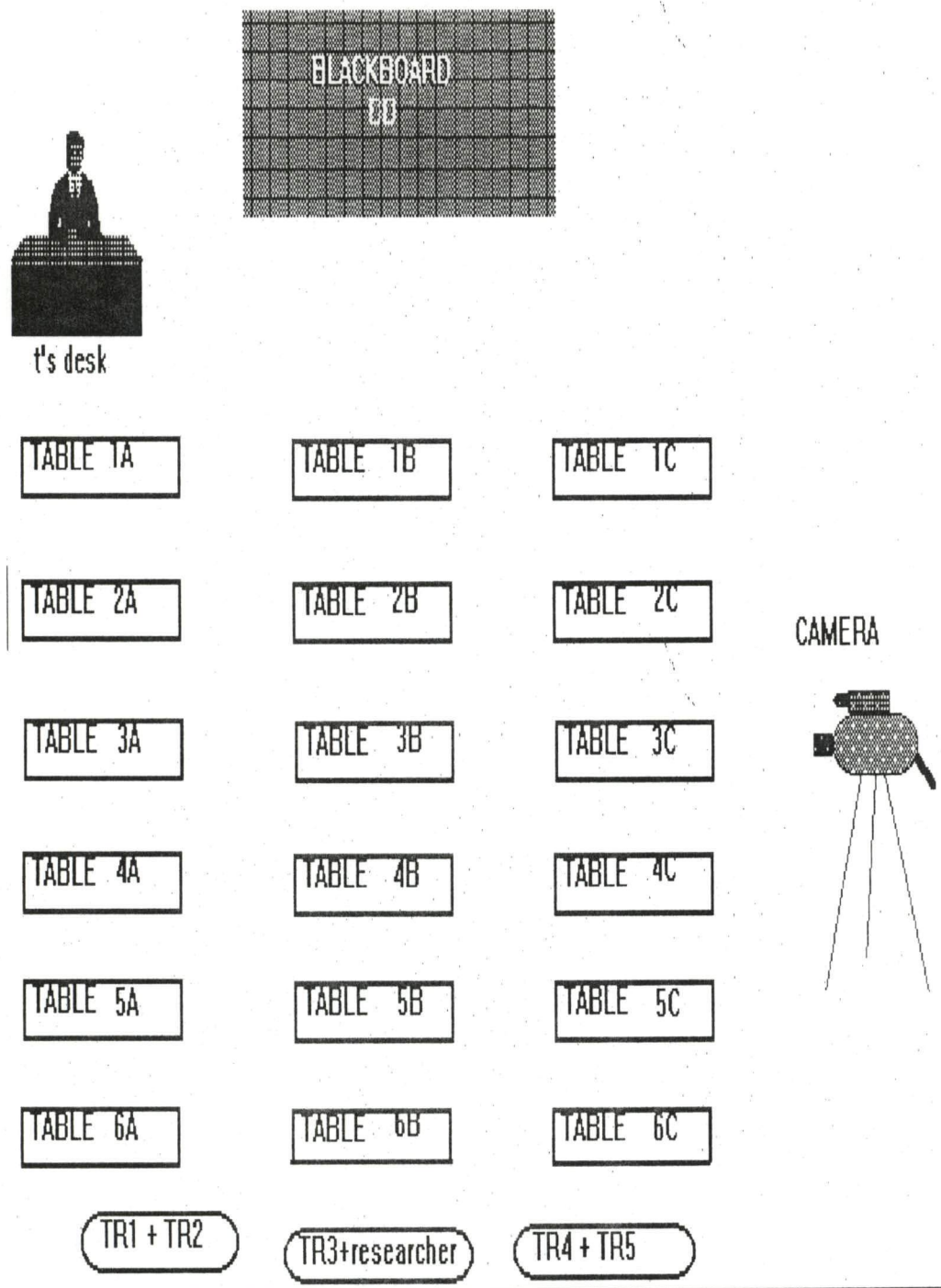
were able to make a film of the lesson " Read/Understand " during the second blocked teaching practice.

Throughout the second semester (February-June 1994), the researcher took three other groups of trainees without altering his initial time-table. However, thanks to the help of a helpful trainee and active pupils we managed to film the interaction which took place during the lesson under study in our research. The researcher made it very clear to the teacher and the pupils that the recording of the class was for his personal use and had nothing to do with their teaching. All the pupils were very cooperative; no one objected to the recording; and after the first few minutes nobody seemed to pay attention to the camera operator. We placed the camera on the mid-left side of the room (see diagram 1.1 on page 11) so as to have a nice view of the entire room. Above all, the researcher wanted the pupils to feel at ease in the classroom and not to be intimidated by the camera.

The results of the present research are also based on the study of interactional behaviours of 4 th year and 1 A.S audio recorded in April 24 th, 1994 and December, 1994 in Mohamed Abdou primary school and Inal Sid Ahmed secondary school, respectively. To facilitate our work, we planned our observation sessions according to the training timetable which was established by the I.T.E. In fact, before the end of each academic year schools of application are provided with the group number, the weekly training hours, and the six-monthly blocked teaching practice.

In general, the slogan " intruders disturb learners " frequently used by teachers does not deserve such importance in order to refuse observers in classroom setting. If observation is considered as a tool which enables beginning and practising teachers





**Diagram 1 1: Plan of classroom during the recording .**

and trainers to observe in the language learning classroom and to learn from the observation of classroom processes, it is, therefore, advisable to mention that observing classroom events has become ' a skill that can be learned and can improve with practice ' (Wajnryb 1992: 1). Rather than rejecting at once any attempt for analysis related to their lessons which they think may destroy their pedagogy, teachers must understand that the skill of observing can help them improve a great number of teaching / learning wherein the ability to refine observation, analysis, and interpretation are constantly involved.

Very often being an observer in the classroom, rather than the teacher, affords me the opportunity to state that both the video and audio recordings of the classes did not interfere with the learners' normal development. Of course, both 4th / 9th-year pupils and 1AS students ignored that the lessons were recorded.

After two or three sessions we placed the tape recorder, which had an in-built microphone, on the last table at the back of the classroom. However, as I noticed that this action made the pupils / students sitting in that specific area not at ease, I discontinued this practice by putting a big schoolbag before the tape recorder in order to hide it. In doing so, I not only managed to record lessons but focused more on field notes. Again, I wanted learners to feel comfortable, to behave normally, and not to fear the tape recorder.

Although strange elements (i.e., a camera or a tape recorder) were present in the classroom, they did not seem to disturb the natural classroom setting. The researcher can state this after having attended similar classes at various school cycles for the past eight years.

Once the tapes were ready, transcripts of the most important steps of the lessons were made. As it can be imagined, recording and mainly transcribing class discourse was time-consuming.



## 1.4 The Transcripts

The transcriptions were made in order to reproduce as accurately as possible all the linguistic contributions of each individual during the observed lesson. However, this sometimes became impossible as many productions overlap, or were said at a very low voice, or were neither directed towards the teacher nor to another learner.

We have, indeed, selected, because of the length of the present study, the most interesting parts from the interactional point of view with regard to our analysis. Thus, the transcripts reproduced in the data appendix are integral reproduction of the observed lessons ( i.e., transcript one, two, three, and four on pages 132-40).

It should be noted, however, that we have dropped on purpose interaction between learner and learner because the core of our research is related to interaction between teacher and learners. Indeed, Sinclair and Coulthard's system is neither designed to handle pupil / pupil nor discussion group in project work (Allwright 1989:160). In addition, to avoid a field which goes beyond our ambitions, such as the phonetic distortions made by the learners, we have decided to transcribe the words according to their equivalents in the target language.

To facilitate the analysis of the discourse used in the classroom, we thought it better to adopt a simple presentation of the transcription under the initial ABAB. This is due mainly to the fact that we are not concerned by the sole analysis of discourse structure within the classroom, but we are concerned with language use among teacher and learners.

Most of the time, it was impossible to identify utterances because of the noise of the background and the distortions produced by persons speaking at the same time. In this case, we have used the code " confusion ".

## 1.5 The School Cycles

The main characteristic of both children and adolescent audiences consist of the nature of their linguistic needs, their degree of motivation<sup>3</sup>, availability and the learning conditions. Their needs correspond to the learning objective which determines the content of teaching. Nevertheless, motivation-the reason to be of learning-varies from one learner to another. Hence, there are two types of availability:the material and intellectual availability. The former is partly linked with the experiences of the academic background with regard to an intellectual practice of the present (interested subject, intellectually stimulated or not). The latter concerns the time which the individual devotes to this learning (at the beginning, at the end of the day, or at night) and the available money to buy the pedagogical material.

Pupils in government Foundation School in, Sidi-Bel-Abbes are children (9-10 years old) in primary schools, adolescents (11-15 years old) in middle schools and pupils (15-17 years old) in first year secondary school are teenagers of the same town (see diagramme 1. 2 on page 16). All of them are affective beings with specific problems, interests, and needs. The former (i.e., children and adolescents) are true beginners in E.F.L while the latter (i.e., former adolescents) have studied English for two years during which they acquired an important stock of linguistic items enabling them to further the learning of English in the secondary school. In addition, both children/adolescents and students' availability is somehow partly linked to experiences of their academic background and also includes factors like fatigue, stress, frustration, demotivation, and anxieties.

Finally, it is worth noting that the three kinds of learners neither share the content nor the objectives of teaching. Paramount importance is given to the teacher who solely follows the process of training as stated by the syllabus.



## 1.6 The Lessons

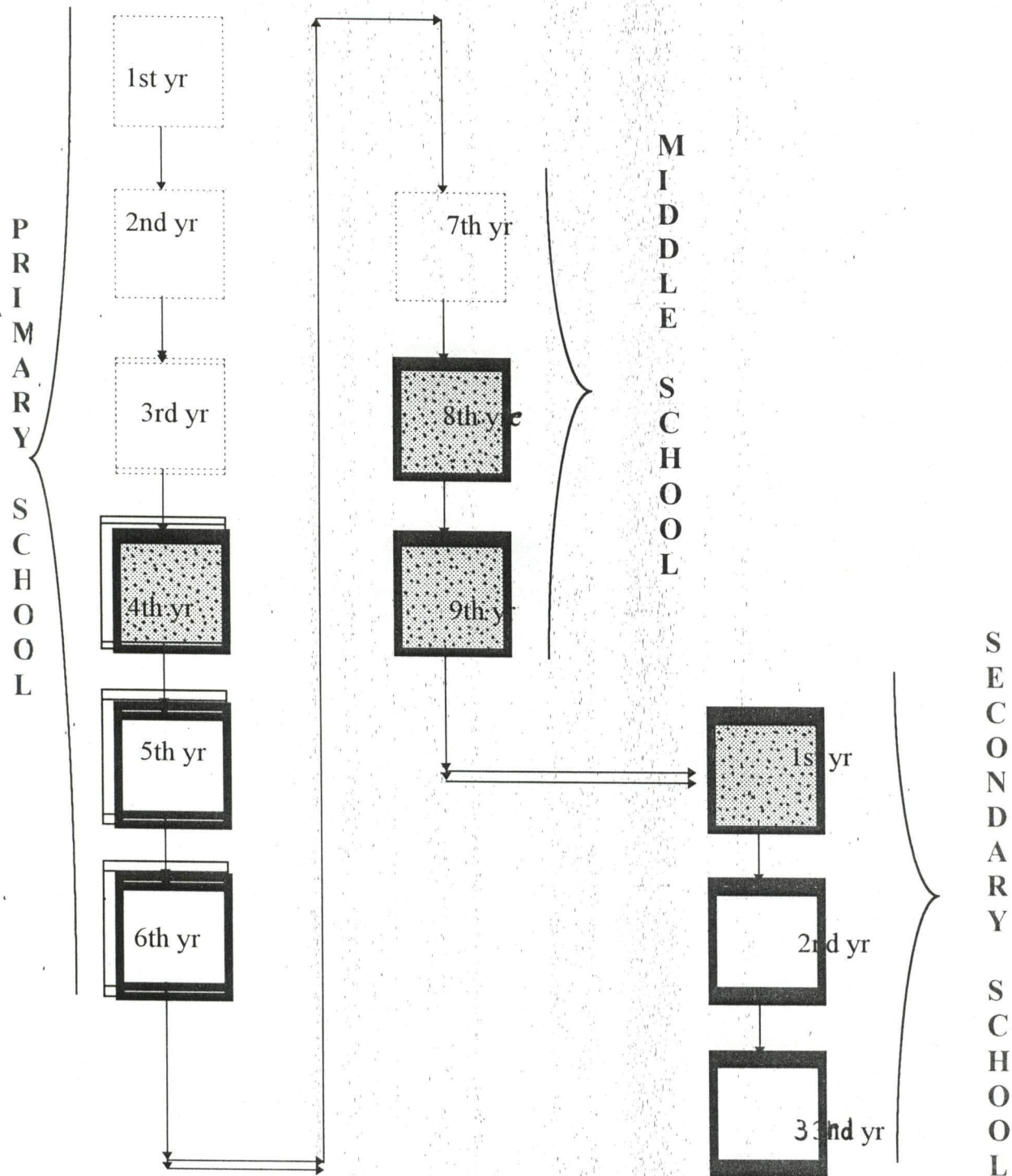
The criterion for the choice of the four observed lessons (see table 1, 1 on page 17) is the following: the researchers wanted to see if the methodology used in the classroom fits the aims of the programmes. For example, the aim of Guidelines (1988-89: 17- a methodology guide for the Foundation School teacher 8/9 AF) are stated as follows

**The general aim of this course ( i.e, Spring 1 and 2 ) is to equip the learners with the minimum language and the basic skills necessary to communicate effectively in simple social and working situation.**

Then, we looked exclusively for lessons of both children and adolescent audiences since our interest aims at pedagogical situations wherein learners have prior educational backgrounds.

In Algeria, English as foreign language is gaining more and more importance. Taught mainly in middle and secondary schools, it has affirmed its presence recently in primary school to compete with French the sole foreign language available to Algerian pupils. We observed the lessons within four state schools: AHTC in Mohamed Abdou Primary School, RU in Ibn Zaidoun Middle School, COS in Sakia El Hamra Middle School, and COM in Inal Sid Ahmed Secondary School.

All the teachers willingly accepted to cooperate with us during both the audio and video recordings. Moreover, they affirmed that they behave as usual in their teaching procedures throughout our observations because no prior specific preparation was done. All in all, the four teachers clearly defined their way of teaching thanks to the materials and techniques they used.



- English used as a 1st foreign language
- English used as a 2nd foreign language
- English selected for the present study

**Diagram 1. 2: English in the school cycles.**



RECORDING	LESSONS	UNIT	FORM	TIME	N. OF LRS
Audio	« ann has three cats »	14	4th yr F.S	1h 45	12
Video	« Read »	14	8th yr F.S	1h	33
Audio	« Consolidate »	14	8th yr F.S	1h	35
Audio	« Communicative Activities	4	1st yr S.S	1h	18

**Table 1 1: The lessons used in the present study .**

### **1.6.1 Lesson : AHTC - Unit 14 - 4th year F.S**

This lesson was recorded in a primary school where English is taught as a first foreign language. The pedagogical approach aims at ' enabling pupils to learn through doing ' (Teacher's Guide 1993: 1) by integrating the four skills.

The main objective of this school is to promote the teaching of English through a modal similar to that used in the lessons of French (i.e., the global method <sup>4</sup> ). One should add that teachers underwent both a two-year training devoted to the teaching of the 8th and 9th year of the middle school and a weak-time training as in-service training meant for the teaching of English in the fourth year of the Foundation School.

The observation of the lesson took place at 3. 30 p.m and lasted till 5. 25 p.m. The twelve pupils surprised us because of their strong will and intelligence during the process of teaching. In spite of fact that the teacher never taught English before, the general atmosphere showed the presence of faith, cooperation, knowledge, and wisdom. In addition, the teacher is very involved in the handling of both the new programmes (i.e., he also taught English with the (5 th year in 1994-95) and the new pedagogical activities.

### **1.6.2 Lesson : RU - Unit 14 - 8th year F.S**

We observed this lesson in a Middle School in Sidi-Bel-Abbes where the so-called communicative approach to the teaching of English is used. The lesson lasted one hour, from 3 p.m to 4 p.m. The thirty three pupils (22 girls and 11 boys) are adolescents (11 - 15 years old) and most of them live in a very poor area of the town.

The teacher who is a trainee lacks a lot of experience and shows a great desire to do her job correctly. The main objective of book 1, i.e. Spring 1 is to allow pupils to use the English language in order to express facts and emotions about themselves and their environment (Spring 1: 20).

### **1.6.3. Lesson : COS - Unit 14 - 9th year F.S**

The Middle School within which we observed this lesson is newly built, but most of the teachers are experienced practitioners. The teacher, a young novice teacher, whose 'know-how' is limited to pre-service training adopts verbal practice as the pivot of her teaching approach. Indeed, though she was not short of ideas on what the lesson itself would consist of, she over-focused the drilling phase as if it were a 'good' interactive activity. It is in the present lesson, however, that the finding of other materials proved problematic for the teacher.

The teacher is also convinced that the structural approach is the 'sole' appropriate method meant for the 9 th-year pupils wherein the latter are urged to develop their own learning through mechanical repetitions. This revealed that some pupils were not interested at all in the lesson as they chatted with their friends or remained surprisingly silent.



Finally, we can say that the teacher is still faced with the difficulty of formulating pedagogical objectives since the written phase was too short and quickly done.

#### **1.6.4 Lesson : COM - Unit 4 - 1A.S**

This lesson was filmed in a secondary school where English is taught as a second foreign language (after French). The pedagogy used with this literary class is the communicative approach, an approach introduced in the 80's throughout Algeria. Teachers try to do their best to use this method within the process of teaching. Once a month teachers meet in order to coordinate their efforts with regard to either evaluating the learners' work or preparing didactic units together.

About 75% of the students are weak and come from both very poor areas of the town and from neighbouring villages. The teacher of this class is very dynamic and has an experience of twenty two years in teaching - ten years as a Middle-School teacher, four years as a trainee, and eight years as a qualified Secondary School teacher. He affirms that the communicative approach is relevant as learners can be given the adequate communication tools to convey messages properly. On the other hand, he states that knowledge of language (i.e., lexis and grammar) is difficult to be grasped by learners because the latter mainly lack exposure once outside the school.

In addition, he is absolutely, convinced that an amount of five hours of English a week is far from catering for the learners' linguistic needs. In sum, the communicative approach alone will not improve the learning of English in this area.

## **1.7 Teacher's Diary and Grid of Observation**

Diaries have also been used in ethnographic studies in order to provide a source of insights into classroom analysis. Indeed, a diary was kept during both academic years 1992-93 and 1993-94. At the beginning, the diary was quite instructured I wrote down my feelings and observations about the class. After a while, I tried to centre it on the area I was interested in: discourse analysis.

Whenever during a class, I noticed that the class was experiencing a problem putting a message across, I made a conscious effort to remember all these elements which, as a result of their nature would not be evident to either the videotaped or audiotaped material (body movement, facial expression, eye contact, etc.).

Thanks to my regular weekly attendances, I managed to construct a grid of observation. After many trials, the initial three column grid, i.e. time, steps of the lesson, and observations respectively gave birth to a four-column grid, i.e. time, spoken discourse, written discourse (use of the blackboard), and observations (see appendix 6 on page 141). The purpose of it was to know the trainees' process of teaching. We found this new way of evaluating teaching performances suitable as it not only helped us to save time, but also to focus on a particular step of a given lesson.

## **1.8 The Questionnaire and the Interview**

Ethnographic observations have been used in recent years in order to substitute other types of data. In the present study two data collection methods to gather information were used. We devised a questionnaire in order to analyse what teachers think of the four types of activity (i.e., CA, GA, PA, and IA) and to identify the approach (es)/method (s) they use in their teaching and those they ignore. Questionnaires are a type of learner report data which sometimes shows the teachers' beliefs and concepts rather than their observation of a specific event. The questionnaire



was designed to be filled out in approximately ten minutes. It is written in English and it stresses the fact that it is anonymous. It contains three questions: two of multiple choice kind and one open-ended question. The purpose of question A is to determine if teachers are aware of the type of teaching activity (i.e., CA, GA, PA, or IA) they use when giving lessons. It has three possible answers which are meant to characterize whether the choice was programmed beforehand or randomly done. Question B is designed in order to find out the teachers' opinion about the approach(es)/method(s) they favour and to state the reason of their choice(s). Question C is meant to find out the approach(es) method(s) teachers use in the teaching process and those they ignore (appendix 7 on page 142).

The second data collection instrument was a teacher interview guide, which contained questions concerning the implementation of a change within educational institutions in order to improve both the trainees' teaching experience and the learners' level. Headmasters - three at secondary school and three at middle school level - three deputy heads, and five teachers - three secondary-school teachers and two middle-school teachers were asked to give their opinion about the introduction of a group of two or three trainees within the teachers' timetable so as to share the process of teaching separately. The interview also focused on specific questions such as those related to the number of pupils/students available within each group, the place and time offered by educational institutions, and the possible results of such experience in the future.

We used these two kinds of instruments in our research despite the lack of former investigators' experiences and sometimes the lack of pedagogical cooperation among teachers. In doing so, we thought that having collected such information might help in the realization of the present research.

In relation to distribution, the questionnaire was distributed to forty six teachers. Out of this number only thirty five copies were processed:

- 5 from primary school,
- 20 from middle school, and
- 10 from secondary school.

It is worth noting that this number of copies represents an interesting sampling for our research. Needless to mention the very small number of teachers who really do not see the reason for answering a questionnaire.

### **1.9 Conclusion**

The researcher sometimes found his dual role, as a trainer and as a researcher a bit difficult since his attention had to be divided into two, without neglecting any of the two aspects. In this chapter the researcher has focused in particular on the video/audio-recording data and the transcripts, suggesting that this is central to the analysis of EFL classroom discourse. In the body of the chapter, an overall view of the four lessons was given. Observations from the teacher's diary as well as the grid of observation and the questionnaire supplemented and enriched the analysis of discourse, which will be discussed in chapter three.

In the next chapter the researcher shall define management and review the extent to which some interactional systems will enable him to undertake the present study.



## NOTES

1. French is no longer the major language used in administrations. It is, indeed, replaced by classical Arabic.
2. English was officially introduced in primary school in 1993.
3. According to Skehan ( 1989 ) there are four sources of motivation. The 'Intrinsic Hypothesis' refers to the inherent interest of the learning activity itself. Another source called the 'Resultative Hypothesis' deals with either success or failure experienced by learners in which motivation is the consequence of success. The 'Internal Cause Hypothesis' concerns the degree of motivation an individual has attained. Finally, the 'Carrot and Stick Hypothesis' either rewards or sanctions a learner's performance through both internal influences and incentives.
4. An oral learning method of a foreign language coined by both l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Saint Cloud ( Pirenc. P. ) and the Phonetic Institute of Zagreb (Caberina, P.). It stems from structures of spoken language and creates dialogue situations for learners. It is global in the sense that signification, intonation, and articulation are closely related within a whole according to the following principles: a recorder announces a sentence while the interlocutors' situation is projected on the screen. Then the pupil not only repeats the sentence but can also control the correction several times thanks to a recorder.

# CHAPTER TWO

## Management and Interaction Systems.

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## CHAPTER TWO

### Management and Interaction Systems

#### 2.1 Introduction

In order to have a clear idea of class management and classroom interactional system, it is necessary to know something about their historical origins, this will be dealt with in the first part of this chapter. First, aspects of class management and the management of activities and acts will be considered, then, both a short historical background and a brief description of some existing interactional analysis systems will be described. Given that class management and classroom interactional systems are intimately related, it is possible to view the process of language teaching which takes place within a classroom between teacher and learners. Finally, the researcher will end up by considering classroom interaction in the wider context of foreign language class discourse.

#### 2.2. Classroom Management

Generally speaking classroom management refers directly to the teacher's domain. Indeed, the latter has always been considered the organizer, the mediator, the judge, and the sole person designed to perform all these tasks in a classroom. To emphasize the above statement, Richards ( 1990 : 38 ) says

**Classroom management refers to the ways in which student behaviour, movement, and interaction during a lesson are organized and controlled by the teacher to enable teaching to take place most effectively.**

Our main interest is to adopt a class strategy which will reach both maximum learning and least possible amount of interference on the part of ~~the~~ the teacher. To put it another way, less intervention from the teacher and much learners' independence are needed. The writer has noticed that learning centred on the teacher hampers the pupils' experience in their contribution to learning. This will, therefore, lead to demotivation and frustration ( Allwright 1978 ).

As the teacher cannot be in charge of all the lesson management responsibilities, it is of paramount importance that all the participants will share the learning situation management. Therefore, learners will be able to gain from their own learning strategies according to their own speed at some stage during the class to reach their objectives. On the other hand, the teacher's task will be devoted not only to organization, but to communication as well, since his collaboration is necessary to facilitate the learning process.

It should be noted, however, that although there is an agreement on the theoretical notion of sharing the responsibilities and determining whether there is either an implicate or explicate division of management activities in a course, needs to be considered objectively. That is why the researcher has attempted to answer the first cumbersome question which is: what kind of activities are necessary to a course management?

In view of what has been said above, it would seem helpful to say that "management activities" means taking all the choices to be selected and decisions to be made into



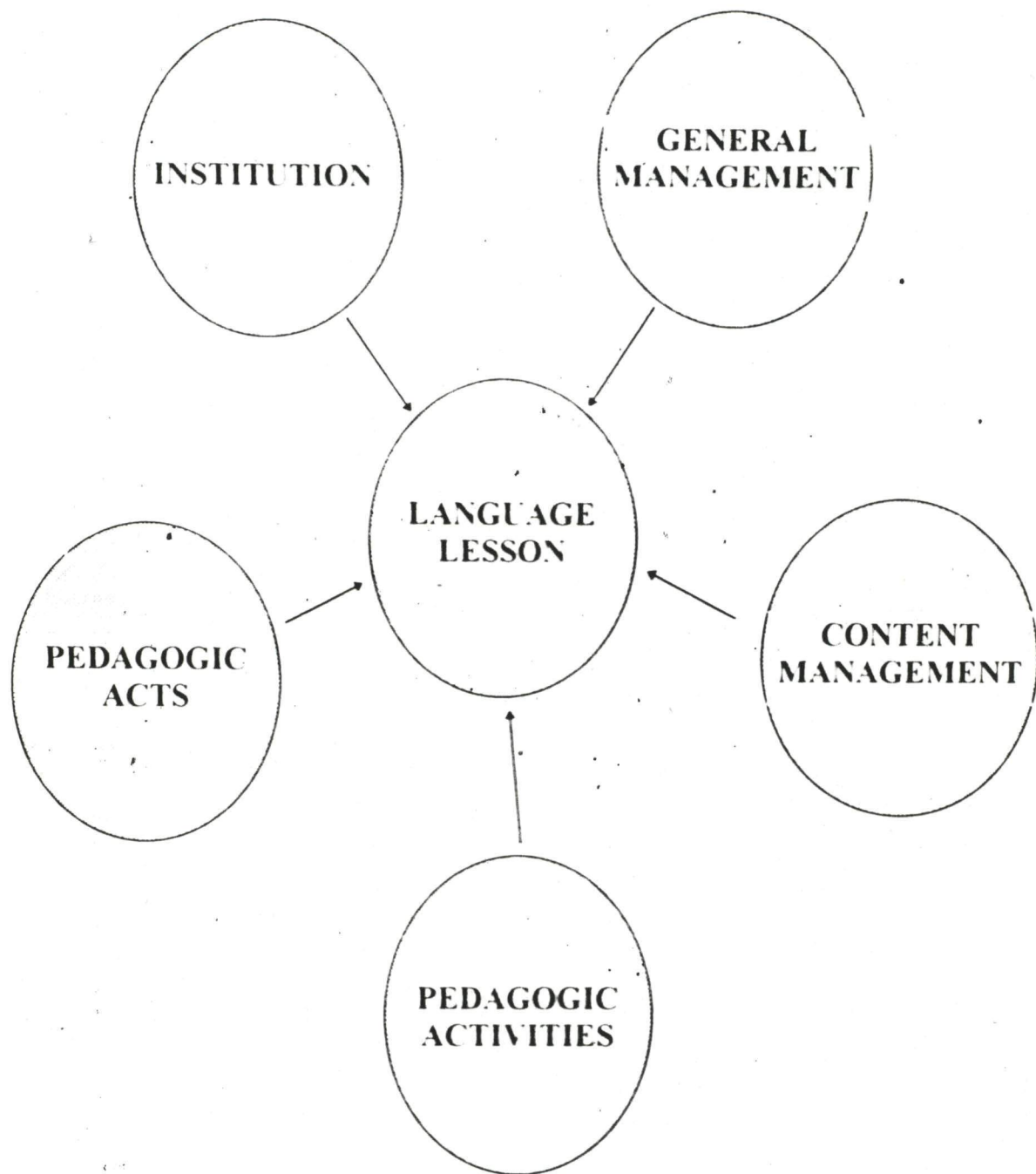
consideration so as to organize a course to reach learning. Both choices and decisions aim at the content of the target language without losing sight of the teacher's supervision in a classroom.

### **2.2.1 Management Activities of a Learning Situation**

Researchers have grouped all the management activities of a language-lesson within five categories: the institution, the general management, the sampling of the target language (or the content management), the pedagogic activities, and the pedagogic acts (refer to diagram 2.1 on page 28).

Prior to the teacher's methodology, there are certain major factors related to the institution to be taken into consideration: the place where learning occurs, the class with all its characteristics (furniture, noise, etc.), timing, the resources of the institution, and the learners' motivation. Special attention will be given first to hierarchical persons who organize lessons according to the available means, then, to the teacher who finds out what teaching method (s) to use, what learning tasks and activities to make use of, and how to use them.

It is very important to distinguish between the activities of general management and the other activities of management because the former characterize the lessons throughout the programme. The general management, then, means the setting of short or long-term objectives to be reached in learning. Therefore the general management includes the teaching techniques to be used, the method, the system of correction, evaluation and control; the determination of the learning strategies to be developed by the learner and the determination of attitudes and general behaviours to be adopted in a classroom such as cooperation, lack of competition, being punctual, participation, etc.



**Diagram 2. 1 : Management activities of a learning situation**

**( Ministry of National Education 1988-89 ).**



It so happens that when researchers deal with the content of the target language (i.e. content management), they tend to restrict it either to the teacher or to the content of the method. Indeed, the latter is "foreseeable" as it can be planned and organized by the participants through the course of pedagogic activities.

But this content makes up only a part of the global content of the target language vehicled in the classroom. That is why, we wish to mean by the concept of "content" anything produced in the target language within the classroom by any participant, at any time, and within any given situation.

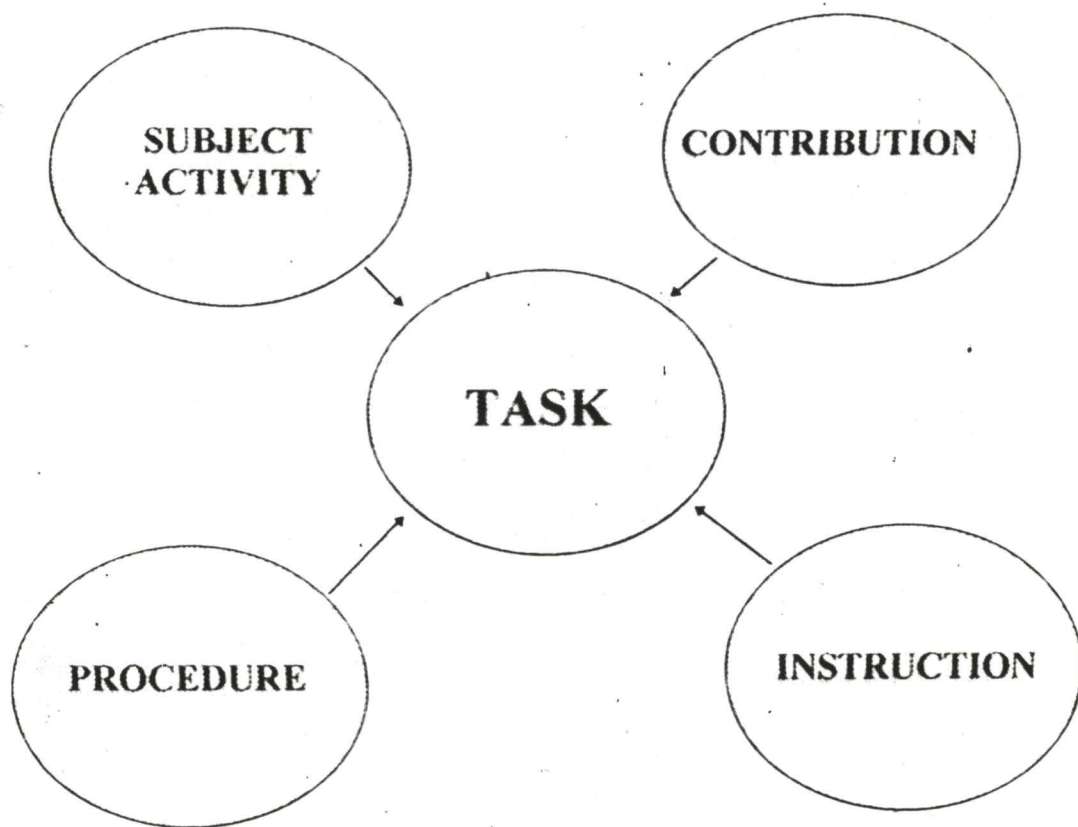
Most teachers agree that learners are exposed to any linguistic productions within a classroom. For example, when dealing with a written text, no one can exactly foresee the elements of the metalinguistic discourse or the real discourse which the learners will encounter while working on the text. Therefore, it is impossible to plan all the questions the learners may ask. Below is a list of the choices related to the management of the lesson content (refer to diagram 2.3 on page 31).

When dealing with the management of pedagogic activities, here again, we are still confronted with the word " activity ". We need to know that pedagogic activity refers to both the learner's and teacher's activity resulting from the practice of the elements of the target language.

The management of pedagogic activities is very important within a classroom because it includes the appropriate kinds of tasks to learners. Richards (1990) defines tasks, or activity structures as activities that assign to attain particular learning objectives. Hence, we can distinguish four different aspects in a task ( refer to diagram 2.2 on page 30) the 'subject activity', i.e. the learner's activity, the linguistic or non-linguistic 'contribution' refers to the material used in an activity (photos, recordings, exercises, etc.), the ' instruction ' is related to the necessary directions for the fulfillment of the conditions

of development of the activity (oral or written), the time limit, and the interaction generated by the activity (collective, group, pair, or individual activity, etc.).

Teachers have to make decisions not only about appropriate kinds of tasks to assign to learners, but also about the learners' level, their psychological conditions, the suitable moment to introduce them, the pacing, i.e. amount of time learners should spend on tasks, the learning strategies recommended for particular tasks, and the materials to be used in completing a task ( Tikunoff 1985: 39-40 ).



**Diagram 2.2 : Four different aspects in a task ( Richards,1990 ).**

It is important to state, however, that within the management of pedagogical acts there are many functions of language in the classroom: language can organize and structure the tasks; it can present and explain the functioning of the target language; it can prompt answers, evaluate, summarize, and simplify. In classroom settings, language may primarily do the work of focusing back on language itself. i.e. language uses language. (SR)

All these pedagogic acts aim at the organization and the fulfillment of learning; therefore, they are included in the management of a learning situation. We do not propose to make a detailed analysis of the activities of management, we shall rather be centring our analysis on the pedagogic activities and acts (refer to diagram 2.4 on page 32).

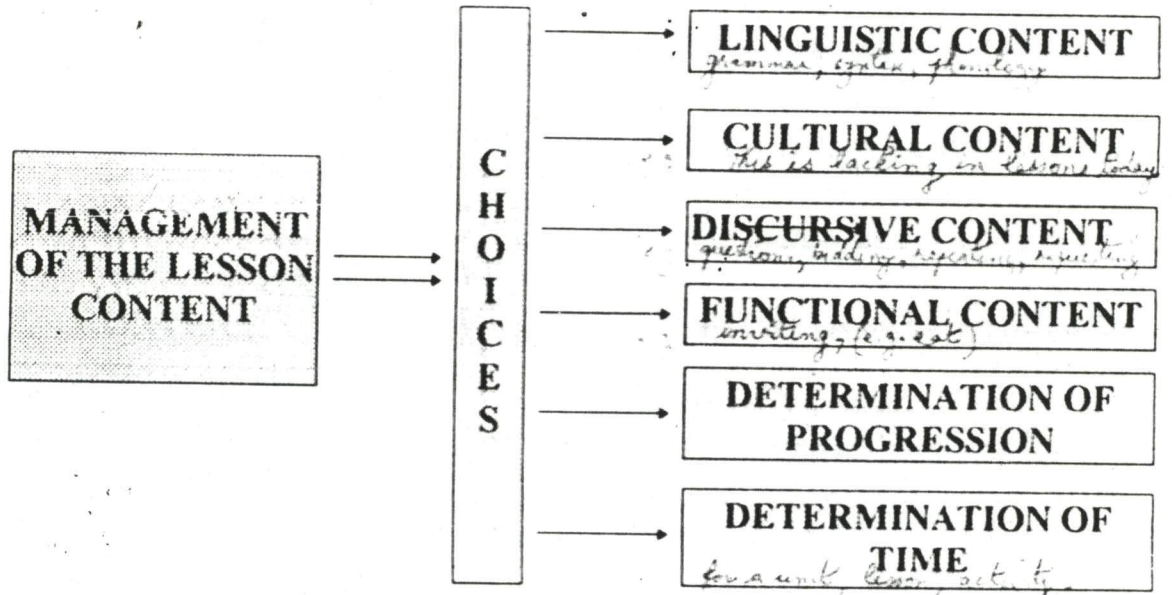
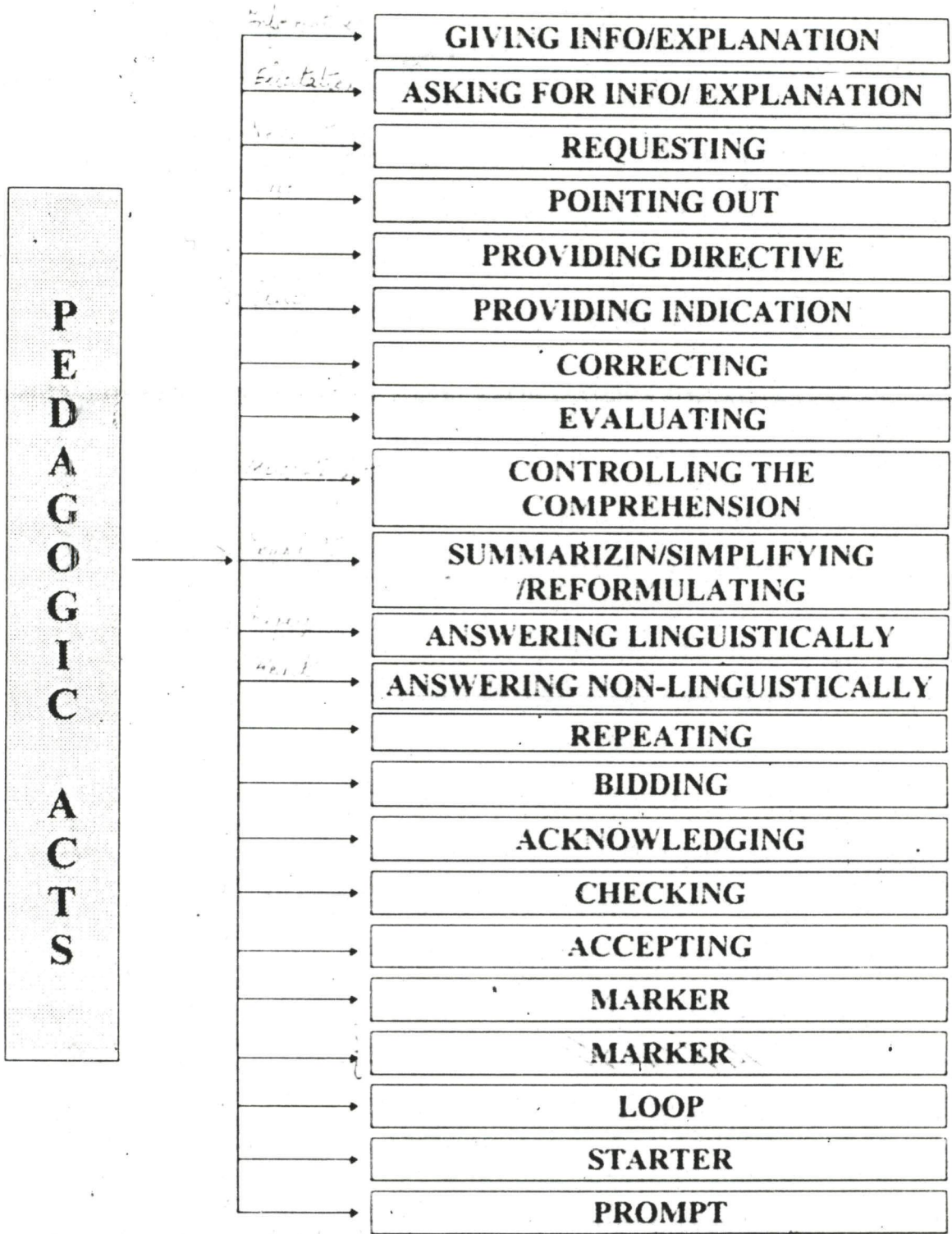


Diagram 2.3 : Choices related to the management of the lesson contents.





**Diagram 2. 4 : Grid of Pedagogic Acts .( Adapted from Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975 ).**

### 2.2.2 Grid of Activities

The grid of analysis selected aims at monitoring interaction between teacher and learners, taking into consideration the roles and functions which contribute to the good work of a given class. Indeed, this grid is conceived so as to give practical aims wherein the profile of an interactional situation is obtained. As minimum technical equipment and time investment are needed, any teacher can have the opportunity to use it alone in his classroom.

The basis of this grid is taken from S/C's acts of classes. We have noticed that the system of 21 acts is neither adequate to a foreign language situation nor to the type of analysis we are handling. Consequently, certain acts were dropped and others added so as to suit our analysis. Thus, we have elaborated a grid of 20 categories of pedagogic acts.

We are aware of the consequences that this categorization represents, i.e. too much generalizing within the analysis. However, because language is too difficult to be put in "boxes" established in advance, many authors have solved this problem by adding to their grid a category called "unclassifiable" for the difficult utterances (S/C "Aside" and Flanders "confusion and silence", etc.). By the same token, we were lucky to classify easily the utterances with the help of specific fieldnotes made during the observation of the lessons.

At the beginning, the questions were put within the same category of our grid, but once we started the analysis, we noticed that the questions were not of the same nature. Indeed, Sinclair and Coulthard's system which aims mainly at the analysis within a real communication situation, also describes one category for the interrogative utterances - "elicitation" where all the utterances needing a linguistic answer are classified. A list of acts with examples taken from the transcripts of the four lessons is provided in appendix 1 on pages 130-131.

## 2.3 Survey of Classroom Interaction Systems

In this section, the researcher proposes to observe both the teacher's and learner's behaviours within a classroom. To reach this aim, first an interaction analysis will be made and 'interaction' will be defined and then, existing interactional systems of analysis will be reviewed.

By interaction ( Holec et al. 1977: 2 ) it is meant ' the set of actions and reactions realized by the turn-takings which constitute the communicative exchange '. The term interaction is quite recent because it was not found in dictionaries before 1976. However, if the word is new, the concept is not. Decoo ( 1980: 2 ) quotes the following

**The problem of interaction defined as a relationship between teacher and learners in the oldest pedagogical documents from Plato to Rousseau.**

Today, interactional analysis, conceived as the study of events taking place within classroom settings between teacher and learners, is becoming more and more important as it not only gives a ' feedback ' to the teacher about his teaching, but also serves as a tool of reflexion in both training lessons and in-service training for future teachers. Such attitude is well stated by Flanders ( 1989: 37 ) with regard to new teachers when he affirms that

**(....), one of the aims of interaction analysis is to discern 'what are the fewest concept and understandings that a person needs in his beginning year (of teaching) that**



would normally take two or three of experience to find out ?'

Yet these last few years, there has been a great interest around the pedagogical aspect of foreign languages. It is worth noting that Moskowitz (1971) was the first who elaborated the most complete interactional system of analysis. This new system, called FLINT (Foreign Language Interaction), is essentially based on Flanders' method of analysis.

### **2.3.1 Approaches to Classroom Research**

Today, there are more than two hundred systems of analysis available whose aim is to observe and analyse the teaching act. Around the 50's, Bales ( 1951 ) was among the first to study interaction systematically within a group of learners. From that time onward, the study of both the teacher's and the student's behaviours have gained a lot of interest, and several systems of analysis have been elaborated by researchers and pedagogues mainly in the USA and England.

Another interactional analysis system is that developed by Flanders in the USA around 1960. His main interest was the focus on the directivity in teaching and the influence of the teacher on the class as a group. This system relies on the use of ten interactional categories: seven for the teacher, two for the learner, and one devoted to "silence and confusion". While collecting data, the observer classifies every three seconds the linguistic production corresponding to a behaviour within one of the ten categories. Finally, he will transcribe them on a matrix of interpretation. However, as Bailey (1990: 19) points out: this system has limited utility because it is teacher centred.

In the early 1970's, Moskowitz ( 1971 ) adapted Flander's sign system and coined the acronym FLINT, which stands for foreign language interaction. She, also, added twelve new categories to the ten already existing ones. In the use of this new system, Moskowitz devoted one category for the non-verbal behaviours and another for the use of the mother tongue in classroom setting. Thus, observers must master twenty two categories of behaviours. However, as Bailey ( Ibid ) points out, this system is purely descriptive in terms of behaviours in a classroom in that too much importance is given to the teacher's role with regard to a learner's.

Another instrument, which is less cumbersome, is Fanselow's FOCUS<sup>1</sup> ( Foci on Communication Used in Settings ) wherein the observer can identify classroom events according to lists of behavioural categories ( Richards and Nunan 1990 ). FOCUS major categories are illustrated in diagram 2. 5 below ( refer to page 37 ). According to Fanselow there are five characteristics of communication: the source and target of communication in which the teacher communicates with the learner(s). The purpose of communication is to solicit, respond, and react. The linguistic, non-linguistic, part-linguistic media, and silence are included in the means which are used to communicate the content. To know the manner in which the media are used to communicate content, Fanselow used the following items: attend, i.e. by listening; characterise, i.e. by labelling parts of speech; present, i.e. by reading aloud; relate, i.e. by making generalisations, etc. Finally, the area of content that is communicated concerns; for example, life, i.e. things related to life such as greeting people ( Wallace 1991 ).

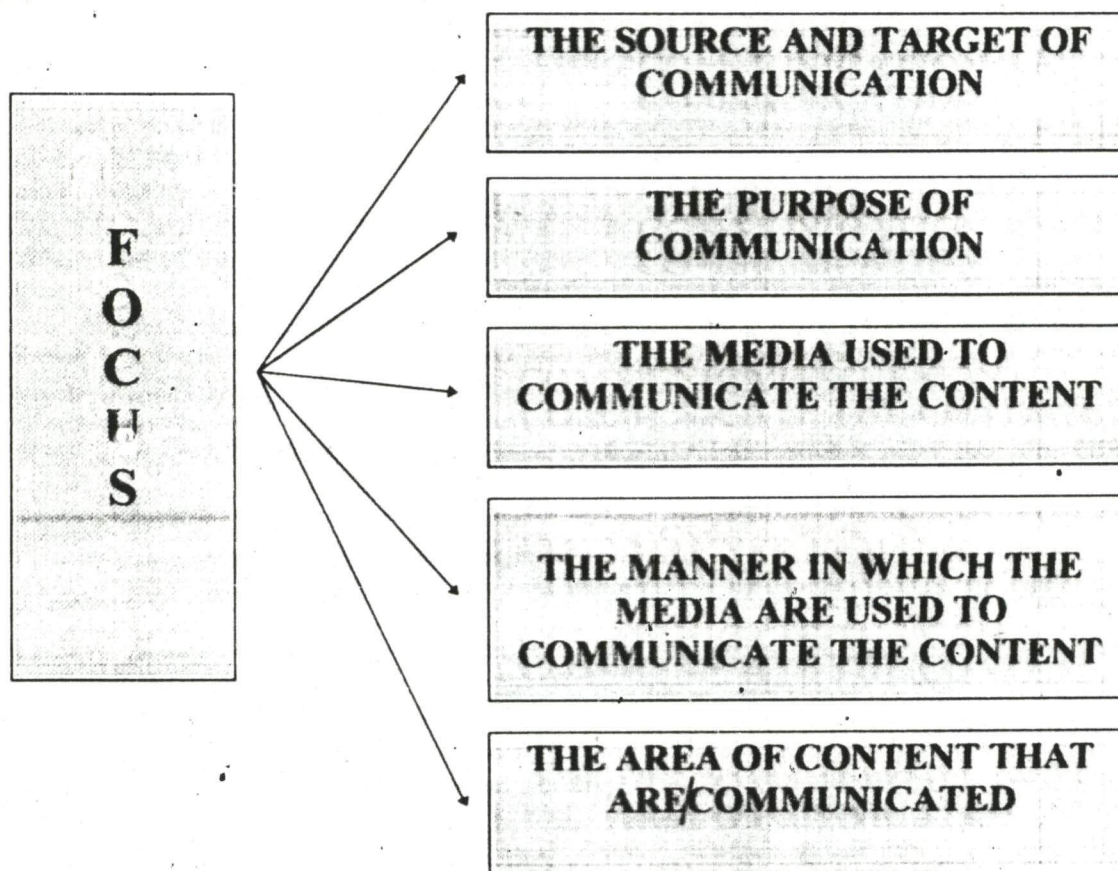
However, this system of observation is distracting for some as it needs special training before use. All in all, one can state that any observation system offers a means through which student-teachers and teachers can use métalanguage, in their discussion when observing their own and others' lessons.

Researchers think that these fixed observation systems do not take into consideration



temporal and spatial content wherein the physical setting is completely ignored. At times it is also difficult to define the boundaries between the categories and other times these systems (because special training is required beforehand) are time-consuming and therefore hamper novice teachers. Finally, it is advisable to give observers the opportunity to devise their own observation systems in order to sharpen their own approach. It would be therefore easier to focus on specific areas while a lesson is in progress (i.e., a ad-hoc approach to classroom observation), as almost no training is needed.

In sum, it is worth noting that using a system-based approach is not enough to observe classroom events. It is advisable to adopt a flexible and eclectic system in which trial and error will provide an important basis for reflection related to a particular area of concern.



**Diagram 2.5 : Five Characteristics of communications used in FOCUS ( Fanselow 1977, 1987 ).**



### 2.3.2 Systems of Analysis Used

Around 1975, Sinclair and Coulthard developed their systems of analysis on the communicative notion of language within a classroom ( Sinclair and Coulthard 1975 ). Since then, their hypothesis based on three traditional and main forms of an utterance: declarative, imperative, and interrogative, has also been used for a bigger unit of language. Thus, understanding both the language work and its function became easy. Indeed, their system is centred on three major points: the function of utterances within the structure of discourse, the control of discourse from one interlocutor to another, and the introduction and conclusion of various topics within the discourse.

According to Sinclair and Coulthard the language used in a given classroom devotes special attention wherein the type of interaction follows formal rules imposed by the learner while talking. However, the same type of utterance may be used for different communicative goals . For example, a declarative utterance may transmit an order as in

T : Number eight is a lion, good.....

PP: Number eight is a lion ....

T ; Repeat Sarah....

PP: Number one is a camel ....

The lessons are on the whole, well-structured but Sinclair and Coulthard wanted to determine from this structuring the part devoted to linguistics on the one hand, and to pedagogy on the other.

Sinclair and Coulthard distinguish four main units within the internal structure of a classroom discourse. They used a rank scale (lesson=>transaction=>exchange=>move=>act) for their descriptive model. The lesson is seen as a set of activities: "frontier" exchanges and

"teaching" exchanges. Then, the exchanges split within "move". The frontier exchanges are made of two moves: the centring and the adjusting in which, for example, " I am going to start by asking you a few very easy questions. " constitute the preliminary part for the organisation and contextualisation of a given teaching ( Wallace, 1991 ). Next, the teaching exchange includes three moves: the opening, the answer, and the renewal. For example, an ' eliciting exchange ' input could be the following ( Ibid: 76 ). refer to table below. Finally, the moves split within ' acts ' which constitute the smallest units of analysis ( refer to diagram 2.6 on page 41 ).

<b>ELICITING EXCHANGE</b>		
<b>MOVE</b>	<b>SPOKEN DISCOURSE</b>	<b>ACT</b>
Initiating	T. Can anyone have a shot, a guess at that one ?	Elicit
Responding	PP. Cleopatra.	Reply
Follow-up	T. Cleopatra. Good girl She was the most famous queen, wasn't she ?	Accept Evaluation Comment

**Table 2. 1: An eliciting exchange ( Wallace 1990 ).**

The acts may include an utterance ( a word, a sentence ). The system defines 21 act classes whose function is simply to show the different changes within discourse. A typical exchange includes the teacher's initiation, followed by the learner's answer. Therefore, the structure of this type of discourse is ' request-reaction ' (Bellack, 1966), i.e. the initiation-the answer, and the feedback. For this reason, the teacher has the absolute control of the content, over the one who speaks, when, for how long, and of the evaluation of the contributions.

All in all, Sinclair and Coulthard believe that their system can be used to analyse nearly all types of interaction between teacher and learners, but it is not possible to analyse with this system the interaction between learner and learners. On the whole, this system is too mechanical and rigid. Even if the classroom environment is too formal, it is recommended to adopt a system where all the data are strictly categorised because language, thanks to its various manifestations, needs a flexible system.

Although Sinclair and Coulthard have claimed that their system can be used in teaching applications wherein observation categories are classified hierarchically, it is to be noticed that their system is rather linguistic ( i.e., sentence=>clauses=>phrases=>words=>morphemes ) than pedagogic. On the other hand, analysing the discourse of English used as a foreign language differs radically from English used as the mother tongue (Hullen and Lorsher, 1989).

Allwright suggests a new system of interactional analysis of the learning situation centred on the problem of the division of responsibilities between teacher and learners. He advocates that a teacher can neither fulfill all the responsibilities of learning nor be entirely and correctly engaged in all the activities of management required by learning situation (Allwright 1978, 1975). The system elaborated by Allwright in 1975 (Allwright 1976) lies on a macro-analysis of the teaching-learning situation. In this analysis, he suggests to examine the three basic elements of a " teaching-learning " situation :



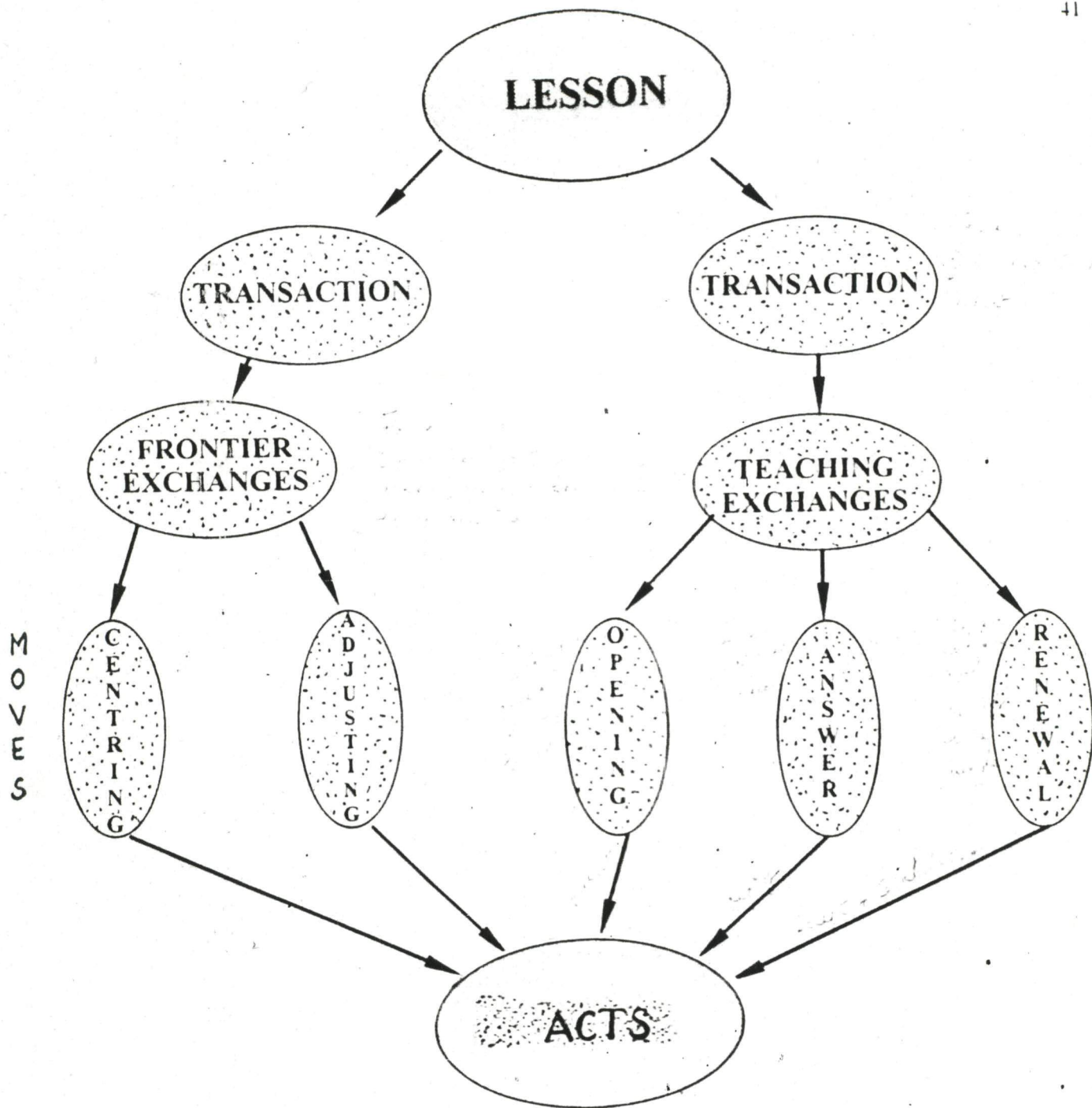


Diagram 2.6 : Internal structure of a classroom discourse  
(Sinclair & Coulthard 1975).

- 1- the sampling of the target language
- 2- the type of supervision practised by the teacher
- 3- the activities of management

In 1978, Allwright submitted a macro-analysis of the activities of management made of a list of 12 activities necessary to the management of a teaching-learning situation. Then, he made the connection between the twelve activities of management and the six major risks of learners which are: frustration, confusion, loss of time, confidence, dependence, and spoon-feeding.

Allwright's work focuses on the learning management within a teaching situation framework with the minimum of risks. This analysis served as the basis of our reflexion during the elaboration of the five categories ( refer to diagram 2.1 on page 28 ) of the management activities of a given learning situation.

## **2.4 Discourse Analysis**

As it was stated previously, the purpose of this study is to analyse the use of verbal interactional behaviours of four English lessons. Even though the researcher is going to follow the psycholinguistic approach to verbal interactional behaviours, the latter will not be examined in isolation, but in the context and situation in which they occurred in the classroom. That is to say focus will be on the foreign-language class discourse. Consequently, a few words about discourse analysis are in order.

For a long time the sentence represented the last linguistic level that could be described. What happened beyond the sentence was considered as unexplorable and unstructured territory. But slowly linguists started to realize that language was indeed

organized above the sentence level and that is how Discourse Analysis came into existence. Roughly speaking then, Corder ( 1980 : 89 ) says that

**I think it is true to say that, in general, language teachers have paid little attention to the way sentences are used in combination to form stretches of connected discourse.**

Such a view of Discourse Analysis was differently expressed by Hatch (1992) when she states that it 'is the study of the language of communication-spoken or written'. Others claim that it is also concerned with the study of the organisation of language beyond the sentence and the social circumstances in which language is used. Yule (1991: 104 ) affirms that Discourse Analysis is to

**( ... ) ask how it is that we, as language users, make sense of what we read in texts, understand what speakers mean despite what they say, recognize connected as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse, and successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation ( ... ).**

Nowadays Discourse Analysis<sup>2</sup> has an extremely important role within the study of language, and research in this area has not only become very popular but has also encompassed different types of discourse, among them classroom discourse. Sinclair and Coulthard ( 1975 ) studied the English used by teachers and pupils in an attempt to examine the function of utterances and the structure of discourse. They used a rank scale<sup>3</sup> ( lesson => transaction => exchange => move => act ) for the



descriptive model (refer to diagram 2.6 in page 41). Sinclair and Brazil (1982) examined a particular aspect of classroom discourse: teacher talk wherein teachers constantly either attract or show learners' attention to the on-going speech in the classroom, control learners' speech either by allowing them to speak or not, check/confirm whether they have understood their learners or not, summarize a given point (either read or said) in teaching, clarify difficult vocabulary expression, correct learners' verbal or written discourse and specify the topic to be dealt with. An interesting aspect of their work is the role of intonation in discourse analysis.

The foreign-language class discourse has also become an important area of research. Cicourel (1985) studied the way in which communication takes place in the foreign language class focussing mainly on the metalinguistic procedures used by teachers and students. Kramsh (1983) also studied several aspects of the foreign-language class discourse proposing finally a typology of pedagogical activities for the learning of interactive discourse.

Researchers think that in discourse analysis participants have to infer meaning from the surface content of the discourse which is not always an easy task. Indeed, to make a clear distinction between a proposition (i.e., a statement about something or other) and an illocutionary act (i.e., refusing, insisting, requesting, and so on), participants have to know both how to negotiate meaning wherein all aspects of the utterances are interpreted, and how to provide their own contributions with regard to the kind of communicative goal. In other words, the process of negotiating meaning between language users must include the knowledge of the language system. In addition, participants have to anticipate the development of discourse, hence the interest in language use rather than language usage. Finally, let us state Stubbs's (1984: 1) definition of the term 'discourse analysis'

Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts.

## 2.5 Conclusion

Since the mid-seventies there have been many studies in the field of foreign language teaching and classroom practice. This chapter has focused on the overall view of management and interaction. To this end, we have suggested that it is useful to analyse the great number of language functions within the classroom. Language helps to organize and structure the task, to introduce the target language and to explain its functioning, to request answers and evaluate, to summarize and simplify. In addition, language helps to "practise" the language classroom settings. It is worth noting that these "pedagogic acts" aim at the learning fulfillment and organisation; therefore, they share the necessary activities for the management of a learning situation. Finally, we have underlined the tremendous importance of taking discourse into consideration in the teaching of foreign languages if student-teachers and teachers wish to gain more insights about classroom events so as to become more creative and aware of methods and techniques of language teaching.

## Notes

1. With the help of FOCUS it is possible to identify either the persons or the material, the kind of pedagogical act, the media through which content is communicated, the manner a content is communicated for example, " relate " can be done by making generalisations, and the field of content to be communicated.
2. Crystal gives a very good definition on the nature of discourse analysis .
3. According to Sinclair and Coulthard ( 1975 ) classroom interactions are based on this rigid pattern regardless of the learners' age and the subject being taught. They called the three-part structure an exchange which was made up of three moves corresponding to speech acts. Sinclair and Coulthard stated that each lesson is made up of a set exchanges called transactions which are explicitly signalled by phrases such as ' OK ', ' right ', ' then', ' now', referred to as framing moves.



# CHAPTER THREE

## ANALYSIS OF ACTIVITIES

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## CHAPTER THREE

### ANALYSIS OF ACTIVITIES

#### 3.1 Introduction

In the present chapter we intend to concentrate on the macro and micro analysis of activities and will be looking at the ways in which the pedagogical activities and the pedagogic discourse are used.

In order to give a global image of the pedagogical activities used in the lesson AHTC, a macro analysis is applied. It is hoped that a close attention given to the type of interaction used in class will help to define whether the work is done individually or collectively. Thus the calculation of the time distribution will give us the opportunity to ask a set of questions either on the positive or negative implications concerning work done in a language class.

The next point that must be examined is the micro analysis in which the pedagogical discourse can be analysed with the help of a grid of pedagogical acts. By the same token, it will be possible to know the type of pedagogical acts which belong to both the teacher's and learner's discourse and their proportions. In this regard, the obtained results will constitute the basis for discussion about the teaching and learning technique used by the participants during the lesson. In sum, its implications and the possible risks, i.e. success or failure will provide us with another perspective with which foreign language teaching / learning can be viewed.

Finally I devised a questionnaire to see what teachers think of the four types of activities, i.e. collective activity ( CA ), group activity ( GA ), pair activity ( PA ), and

individual activity ( IA ) and to mention approach(es) / method(s) they use in their teaching and those they ignore.

We will turn to the macro analysis of " ann has three cats " ( AHTC ) in the next section.

### **3.2. Macro analysis of the lessons**

The concern of this sub-section is to focus our attention on the pedagogical activities used in the four lessons we observed so as to be able to define the type of activity used by teachers.

#### **3.2.1. " ann has three cats "**

The concern of table 3.1 on page 51 is to examine thoroughly the activities used in the lesson AHTC in order to shed some light on the major work done in class. We shall be looking at ways in which the teacher conducted his teaching, what activities he made use of, and how he used them.

It is interesting to remark that the collective activity is by far the most used one, and that only 25,60%, i.e. PA equals 16,50% and IA equals 9%, is left to pair and individual activities. It is important to say that group activity is totally absent. The first comment to make concerns the underlying claim which states that if we require learners to repeat correctly the model through drills or questions-and answers, language will be learnt thanks to the acquisition of automation. Littlewood (1988: 164) asserts that



this productive activity will lead the learners to internalize the system underlying the language, to the point where the system operates without conscious reflection.

In view of what has been said, it would seem helpful to affirm that the objective of this lesson is to focus on the practice of certain « habits » and repetition. Such attitude is quite reflected throughout the activities used in AHTC. First of all, there is the presentation phase where the teacher is engaged in organizing classroom activity. Secondly, there is the practice part in which the learners repeat the teacher's models, ask, and answer questions creating at the same time opportunities for discourse maintenance. And thirdly, there is the production phase which is meant to synthesize the two steps above.

Whatever doubts we might have about the educational value of this type of teaching, we believe, however, that by adapting an authoritarian teaching style ( refer to pie-chart 3.1 on page 52 ) the teacher gives less opportunity to the learners to explore their learning experiences. In addition, the mere act of reducing the pupils' activity often deprives them from triggering off objective reflections.

Despite the fact that the number of pupils is limited, i.e. twelve pupils in the classroom, the teacher did not know how to exploit this opportunity to be highly imaginative and motivating. Beginning learners can appreciate the reinforcement of learning through the integration of tasks to make language teaching more communicative as these tasks provide a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake ( Richards et al 1985 ). That is why most of the classroom time is spent on repeating and practising correct language forms rather than decoding and analysing messages.

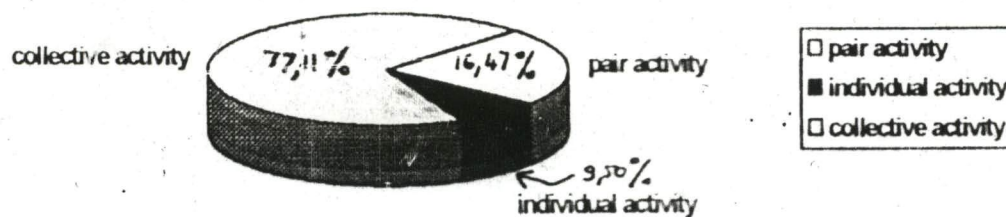
Steps	Activities used	Observations	CA	GA	PW	IA	Apprx. time
1	Introduction	Review of how to express a date	X				2 mns
2	Guessing game	Review of yes/no qqs	X				3 mns
3	T pins photos of animals on bb	pps repeat after the T. good pps' pronunciation	X				6 mns
4	Drilling phase	pps ask each other to practise the interrogative form	X				3 mns
5	T hides the photos & cleans the numbers	*T should have used a code to enable pps to guess the hidden photos *Too many repetitions and boring	X				18 mns
6	Question and answer work Aff form Int form	*To practise places where animals live using yes no qqs - wh qqs *T introduces the spoken form first with the help of pictures *Too many repetitions	X				13 mns
7	Pair work : tasks app free practice	*Pair work is carried on *Self correction			X		14 mns
8	Written work : act 14.2 p 100	Matching pairs *Most of the pps worked well				X	4 mns
9	Correction		X				6 mns
10	pps do act 14.3 p 101, act 14.4 p 101	*Very quick correction bec very easy	X			X	4 mns
11	pps do act 14.5 p 101	*Some pps did not know how to break up the words of the sentence (ssee)	X			X	1 mn
12	pps read loudly the ssee from bb	Good pps' pronunciation	X			X	3 mns
13	Song 1 : Thumbkin Song 2 : Jimmy	No link with the lesson , but pps appreciated the songs	X				8 mns
		<b>Total</b>					85 mns
		<b>Percentage</b>	77.1	00	16.4	9.56	100

**TABLE 3.1 : Characteristics of " ann has three cats " (AHTC).**

This assumption is not totally valid, and step 7 of table 3.1 on page 51 leaves doubt upon the learners' active participation. Indeed, after the teacher's initiation, pair work is carried out as naturally as possible. Pairs were noticed to perform rather meaningful tasks in that pupils not only provided suitable examples but also corrected their friends'.

<i>LESSON</i>		<i>« ann has three cats »</i>
NUMBER OF LRS		12
AMOUNT OF TIME IN	<i>LESSON</i>	1h 25 mns
	CA	1h 30 mns
	GA	-----
	PA	14.00 mns
	IA	07.30 mns

**TABLE 3.2 : Division of time in « ann has three cats »**



**PIE-CHART 3.1 : Amount of time for the type of activity. (AHTC).**



### **3.2.2. Read / Understand / Unit 14 Spring 1**

A quick look at table 3.3 on page 55 will show us that two main activities, used in the course Read/Understand (RU), dominate the global amount of time: 63 % for collective activity and 33 % for the individual activity. The class functions during 49 minutes as a sole group with the teacher. Thus, it is important to notice the total absence of group activity. This means, however, that the learner is always involved in a collective work either with the teacher and other learners or alone.

It is worth noting that the pupil has never the possibility to share his experiences with the others as he does in group activity. As a result, the individual activity is the only moment in the course where the learner is able to make a synthesis of knowledge (refer to table 3.4 & pie-chart 3.2 on page 56). This insufficiency of group activity shows clearly, the inappropriate tendencies of pedagogy today which favour mainly collective work and at lesser degree, individual work. In order to improve the learner's ability to read efficiently, it is advisable for teachers to include group activities in their teaching. Christine Nuttall (1982: 162) said in this respect

**by dividing the class into group you make it possible for students to help one another, and in successful groups the interaction that take places achieves for more than the individuals can work on their own.**

Interaction within a small group is not always easy. In order to have a productive group, teachers should not only prepare their learners to this type of work, but also know the profile, i.e. sex, age, social background, of a given group and how it works. Thus, concentrating efforts to structure the group and redistributing responsibilities between learners and teacher is a must to improve learners' independence in learning.

One important remark which may have contributed to the pupils' learning development is the relatively short amount of time (i.e., 15 mns) devoted to activity one and two. On these two written tasks, the learners did not have to exhibit their knowledge. It seems plausible to conclude, then, that more freedom with the pupils' contributions would enhance their language proficiency.

Very often the teacher is a " possessor " of knowledge. She dominates the lesson from the beginning till the end wherein her exhaustiveness and nervousness become apparent and her learners' demotivation and boredom more tangible. In addition, the teacher neither encourages nor helps slow learners ( mainly those sitting at the back of the classroom ) reach the objectives set before hand.

The lesson is also characterized by the bad presentation adopted during the teaching process. The ordering of the language contents within steps as provided by the teacher is not organized in logical sequences. Instead of developing reading skills, i.e. learners' reading so as to decode and comprehend a written code, the teacher spent her time asking questions and the pupils repeating mechanically language forms (refer to steps 2, 3, 4, and 6 of table 3.3 on page 55).

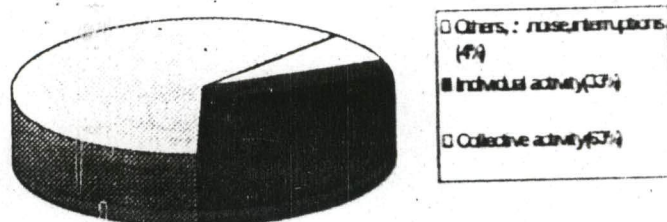
Steps	Activities used	Observations	C.A	G.A	LA	Approx .time
1	Revision and warning up.	T.draws a plan on bb because she forgot the key of her cupboard.	X			5mns
2	Introduction of key-words + question and answer work	Too many repetitions + too much noise.	X			8 mns
3	Question and answer to summarize the passage	T.writes a summary on bb with the pps' help	X			5 mns
4	Revision	T.forgot to introduce Mr. Wilson in step 2	X			3 mns
5	T.reads the text aloud : 1st and 2nd reading	1st reading : normal pace 2nd reading : quick pace	X			4 mns
6	Question and answer work	Comprehension questions : done orally to save time	X			2 mns
7	pps read silently the whole dialogue. Activity 1 : true/false	Some pps have not understood the T's instructions.			X	9 mns
8	Correction	Done on the bb by the pps	X			2 mns
9	pps read silently : Activity 2 p. 116.	Some pps have not understood the T's instructions .			X	7 mns
10	Correction	Quick correction because time is over ( Bell-ring for break-time )	X			2 mns
		<b>Total</b>				47mns
		<b>Noise / confusion</b>				2 mns
		<b>GI Total</b>				49mns
		<b>Percentage</b>	63%	0%	33%	100%

**TABLE 3.3 : Characteristics of read/understand-Spring 1.**



<i>LESSON</i>		<i>« Read / understand »</i>
<b>NUMBER OF LRS</b>		33
<b>AMOUNT OF TIME IN</b>	<i>LESSON</i>	49 mns
	CA	31 mns
	GA	-----
	PA	-----
	IA	16 mns
	Others	2 mns

**TABLE 3.4: Division of time in « Read / Understand ».**



**PIE-CHART 3.2: Amount of time for the type of activity.**

### **3.2.3. Consolidate / Unit 4 - Spring 2**

In the lesson FOS, however, the collective activity (82%) dominates almost the total amount of the lesson time. No doubt that this high percentage is a significant sign of a mimic-memorize and pattern practice view of teaching. By giving the pupils a clear model of the new language, the teacher shows how the latter is formed. At first, the teacher draws the learners' attention by making sure that they all hear and see the

form of grammatical elements. Then, she goes on to repetition drill wherein according to Grant (1992: 35)

**the pupils practise the sounds or grammar of the language, without having to think much, until ( in theory) the language becomes automatic.**

In this way, they cannot only familiarize themselves with the repetition drill, but also focus on accuracy.

It is worth noting that the same procedure is carried out till the writing step, i.e. nearly 2/3 of the lesson time, where the teacher writes a couple of sentences on the board which she had devised beforehand for this purpose. The reason for this is that, as demonstrated in the repetition drill, we suppose that the learners have acquired the basic structures through repetition, and therefore are ready to cope with the new material at will. Through an examination of learners' mistakes with regard to my field notes, we can, however, affirm, that the high percentage of the collective activity is of doubtful value. A second difficulty springs from the teacher's very nature of managerial activities which hamper the learners' improvement. This means that pupils must be given opportunities to share the teaching activity so that they feel confident and willing to use their skill and judgement. Harmer ( 1983: 90 ) is even more explicit when he states that drill work

**if used sparingly and for short periods of time, can be very effective in the language classroom.**

Indeed, learners will gain both competence and confidence when expressing their needs and interests.

It is apparent from the foregoing that the teacher stresses language study rather than language use. By emphasizing the drill of the lesson too much-sticking rigidly to a pattern such as the conditional type 1-the teacher neglects the final phase (refer to step 7 and 8 in table 3.5 on page 60 ) in which the pupils use the language to write. It must be added, however, that an increased attention must be given to the language that has been drilled so as to permit an adequate transfer to take place. Furthermore, it is necessary to teach the learners the connections between language and its use in given situations, since the former are new to the world.

The teachers' contribution with regard to the pupils' writing time is already stated in table 3.5 on page 60. Here again we must add that the pressure of the teaching rhythm does not lead them to use their L2 linguistic resources for evaluating the content of the written activity. At this stage, indeed, the learners are obliged to complete the missing parts of the sentences in a real short time. Therefore, this goes counter to Widdowon's (1984: 61) accurate observation

**the interaction not only facilitates the conveyance of information but also generates the thinking process.**

In this respect the overall lesson as conducted by the teacher neither enjoys nor challenges the pupils. This form of language teaching is, however, similar to RU in that both teachers overuse the lockstep teaching style through the drill work by controlling the content, stages and pace of the lesson. Very often the "consolidate step" takes more than one session because teachers want to deal with all the language exponents existing in the unit.



Effective classroom management is the key to classroom success. In all the activities ( refer to table 3. 6 on page 61 ), two main features dominate the lesson: the collective activity ( 82% ) and the individual activity ( 18% ). In this form of teaching where the rationale of classroom practice affords the extremes, i.e. CA and IA, the teacher is viewed as an authority figure in that he not only initiates and controls practice but also never gives opportunities to learners to express themselves independently of him. In this respect Nolascio and Arthur (1993: 41) assert that

**while pair and group work can be used for tightly controlled practice, its great advantage is that it gives an opportunity for ' free ' activities in which students can determine what they want to say independently of the teacher.**

By working a lot on accuracy activities also called the practice stage of the lesson, the teacher's purpose is mainly to push the pupils to get something right. In doing so, he will be obliged to work with the whole class.

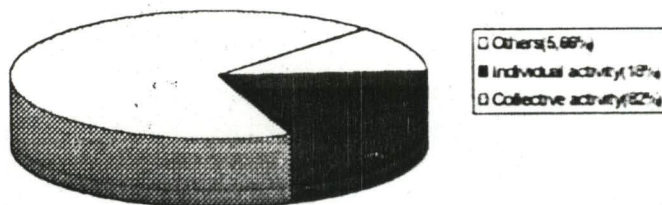
On the other hand, we can notice that less opportunities are offered to the learners to put into practice the language they have learned. That is why the 'production' stage of the lesson is slapdash work. Indeed, how can pupils work freely within a very short amount of time? How can the teacher know whether the core of the lesson has been grasped or not? To be able to evaluate the learners' understanding, we must allow them to use the language within groups or pairs, even if they make mistakes. This is what Byrne (1992: 7) calls "fluency" activities when dealing with the production step of a given lesson.

Steps	Activities used	Observations	CA	GA	PA	IA	Apprx time
1	Lead-in stage	T invites a pp to write the date on bb T writes an ex. with 'if'	X				1 mn
2	Presentation Substitution drill Aff. conditional type 1	Mixture between the patterns SVC & SVO	X				6 mns
3	Presentation Substitution drill Interrogative form Negative form	pps repeat the examples Too long examples	X				4 mns
4	Presentation Substitution drill Double-negative form	Useless bec it is a 'rare' negation (i.e. shan't)	X				14 mns
5	Presentation Semi-guided practice Free practice		X				7 mns
6	Written activity	T writes act. on bb The interrogative form is not included T explains then sets pps to work	X				5 mns
7	pps do activity	T walks around, checks, and explains				X	8 mns
8	Correction on bb	Some pps correct on bb T corrects mistakes from bb	X				4 mns
9	Correction in copybook	Quick correction in pps' copybooks Bell-ring				X	1 mn
		TOTAL					50 mns
		Noise / confusion					3 mns
		GI TOTAL					53 mns
		Percentage	82%	00%	00%	18%	100%

**TABLE 3.5 : Characteristics of consolidate 2 (COS).**

<i>LESSON</i>		<i>« Consolidate »</i>
<b>NUMBER OF LRS</b>		36
<b>AMOUNT OF TIME IN</b>	<i>LESSON</i>	53 mns
	<b>CA</b>	41 mns
	<b>GA</b>	00 mn
	<b>PA</b>	00 mn
	<b>IA</b>	9 mns
	<b>Others</b>	3 mns

**TABLE 3.6 : Division of time in « Consolidate 2 ».**



**PIE-CHART 3.3 : Amount of time for the type of activity.**

### **3.2.4 Communicate / Unit 4 - New lines**

The first comment to make in lesson « communicative activities » concerns the methodology used by the teacher. The overuse of GA (79,25%) and CA (20,75%) shows clearly the type of pedagogical activity adopted throughout the process of teaching (see table 3.7 on page 64). It so happens that the tendencies of the present language



pedagogy tend to favour verbal communicative exchange and request a group interaction in class.

In this way, the teacher not only selects the materials, but also shares the activity where he avoids being a simple spectator. In addition, the teacher behaves as a member of the group who either gives his opinion, or invites the other members of the group to comment, or helps and affords opportunity for judgement. In doing so, learners have the opportunity to express themselves freely and focus on usage because the teacher does not correct his students during such activities. Such an approach underlies the role of group activity ( Nolasco and Arthur, 1993 : 41 ) in what follows

**learner development refers to the process by which we introduce students to the " how " and " why " behind our methodology so that they are able to make full use of the opportunities for learning**

In using this teaching procedure, where the learner controls his learning, it is interesting to notice that both individual and pair work are inexistant (see table 3.8 and pie-chart 3.4 in page 65). The students are thus, engaged in a real communicative exchange during 42 minutes where the degree of informality reflects the amount of difficulty of a given task. Indeed, it is important to notice that most of the student use the mother tongue a lot to communicate between themselves. Therefore, the teacher's hypothesis based on the choice of the communicative activities (i.e., messenger dictation<sup>1</sup>, information gap, and picture gallery) is quite interesting as it motivates both the students' linguistic productions and the students' communicative exchanges. It is hoped that the use of the mother tongue will serve to lessen the learner's frustration with regard to the target language. It is somehow a difficult task to involve students using English in a rather artificial situation among themselves. In this respect, the sole available and required natural means is, undoubtedly, the mother tongue.

In all these characteristics, it is the teacher who always chooses the topic in advance, selects the appropriate class management, conducts the discussion, and reorganises the ideas. Whatever doubts we might have about this type of teaching, the learners have been found efficient during the activities used in class. In addition, we noticed that when the student is autonomous and aware of his responsibilities like in these kinds of «communicative activities», he is inclined to choose the suitable moment to intervene in the discussion. As a consequence, discourse flows and varies throughout the group discussion.

COM is also characterized by a good distribution of teaching tasks (see table 3.7 on page 64). By including a variety of techniques such as messenger dictation, information gap, and picture gallery, the teacher was able to convey his message in an adequate way thanks to the suitable gradation adopted in the lesson. Indeed, the way he moved from one step to another shows clearly his will and wit to be as faithful as possible both to the learners' level and needs.

The overall atmosphere prevailing in this lesson differs a lot from the ones of AHTC or RU and COS in that the learners' noisy interaction and the teacher's avoidance of overt error correction within groups creates "life" conditions where thoughts are expressed and ideas exchanged in a friendly way. In doing so, a realistic environment is established wherein communicative and interactive skills are developed. The flow of a "greedy" communication underlies emulation among students and self-reliance. The most important advantage of this procedure helps learning to take place most effectively because the learners can more or less comprehend their communicative and linguistic needs. Given this view, the consequences of the teaching behaviours which teaching styles have on students cannot only be better understood, but also involve learners to focus on meaning rather than form.

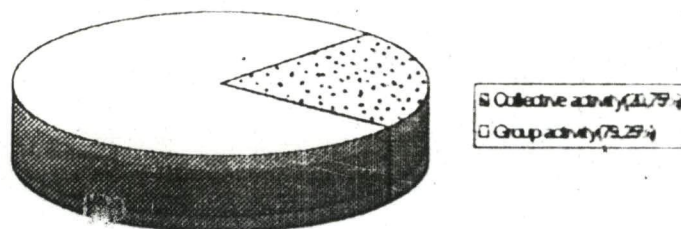
STEPS	ACTIVITIES USED	OBSERVATIONS	CA	GA	PW	IA	APPRX. TIME
1	Introduction Elicitation phase	cooperative atmosphere on the whole	X				4 mns
2	Messenger dictation Information grap	Sts already know the technique . noisy atmosphere the target lge is used - few words expressions either in French or Arabic MT within the groups		X			14 mns
3	Para writing	Good transition made by the teacher T walks around. checks - helps sts use the MT and a bit of the TL		X			16 mns
4	Picture gallery	Sts correct their friends mistakes Margins are necessary in order to help the sts during the correcting phase T walks around & helps		X			12 mns
5	Production on bb - collective correction	Paras are read at the front by individuals A para is chosen then written on bb T & sts correct together the mistakes	X				7 mns
<b>TOTAL</b>			11mn	42mn	0mn	0mn	53 mns
<b>PERCENTAGE</b>			20.75 %	79.25 %	00%	00%	100%

**TABLE 3.7: Characteristics of communicative activities**  
**New/lines-Unit 3.**



<i>LESSON</i>		<i>«Communicative Act»</i>
NUMBER OF STS		18
AMOUNT OF TIME IN	<i>LESSON</i>	53 mns
	CA	11 mns
	GA	12 mn
	PA	00 mn
	IA	00 mns

**TABLE 3.8: Division of time in « Communicative activities ».**



**PIE-CHART 3.4: Amount of time for the type of activity.**

### **3.3 Micro analysis of the lessons**

The concern of this sub-section is to examine the type of pedagogical discourse used in classroom settings in order to know the proportion of pedagogic acts which belong to both the teacher and the learners respectively. Therefore, it will be possible to recognize ~~know~~ the teaching and learning technique used in every classroom lesson.

### **3.3.1. « ann has three cats »**

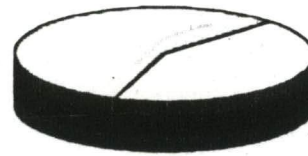
The main aspect of this analysed transcript is the great proportion of the learners' contribution in relation to the teacher's. This is an evidence that the lesson reflects the method used, i.e. «model-repetition-reinforcement». Indeed, the lesson gives priority to listening and speaking (aural-oral) so that the learners listen to a stimulus and repeat it according to the teacher's regular pointing outs.

Clearly, this view is expressed through the pupils' contributions which are limited to the teacher's interventions. Notice that, despite the small number of learners, the teacher points out, acknowledges, evaluates, repeats, and requests. In the present situation, we have a typical example of a teacher who does his job as properly as possible, who uses clear instructions so as to transmit the message adequately and thus, who is self-organized.

The results of table 3.9 on page 67 show us a class where the difference between the teacher and the learners' turns, is ten; that is, a slight domination of the pupils. Such a difference is quite observable in table 3.10 on page 67 and bar-graph 3.1 on page 68 where the number of words is very important: 217 against 105. This group of learners is not only the smallest but also the most active one among the others. The reason for this is that, as explained above, the learners' roles are reduced mainly to repetitions of the teacher's model.

It is worth noting that during the collective activity which represents 74.11% of the lesson time, the class functions as a single group with the teacher. As expected the learner keeps the role of someone who answers and repeats and the teacher, the possessor of "knowledge", is confined to initiating and pointing out. In doing so, the teacher is always in charge of the passage from one activity to another. He not only chooses the kind of activity, but also determines the way it must be undertaken. This procedure of teaching does not leave enough room for the pupils' personal initiatives; that is why they follow almost « blindly » the teacher's instructions.

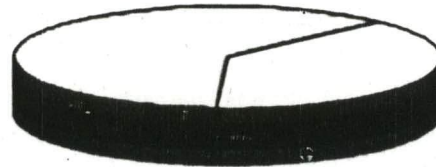
<b>T &amp; LRS</b>	<b>N OF TURNS</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE</b>
<b>TEACHER</b>	42	44,69
<b>LEARNERS</b>	52	55,31



□ teacher(44,69%)  
□ learners(55,31%)

**TABLE 3.9: Number of turn-takings in 94 cues.**

<b>T &amp; LRS</b>	<b>N OF WORDS</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE</b>
<b>TEACHER</b>	105	32, 31
<b>LEARNERS</b>	217	67, 40



□ learners(67,4%)  
□ teacher(32,60%)

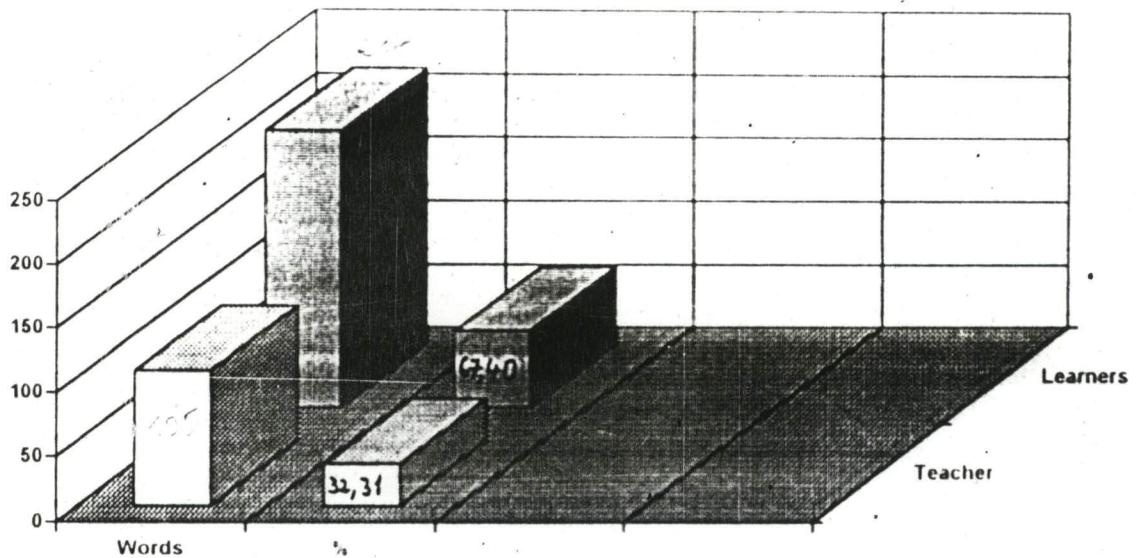
**Table 3.10: Numbers of words in 94 cues.**

The most interesting thing to notice also is, certainly the good pupils' pronunciation. Throughout the lesson, the teacher allows time for pronunciation practice of new words and sentences introduced in the activities. Category 13 of table 3.11 on page 69 shows us clearly that the teacher intervenes seven times throughout the transcript to show what the new vocabulary sounds like. The pupils must understand what they are doing at all times; that is why they took a pleasure to repeat the new expressions from a wide variety of examples.

Another remark is about the slight importance the teacher gives to the pupils' cognitive and physical state. It appears that the rhythm imposed by the teacher throughout the non-stop 85 minutes aims at spoon-feeding the learners rather than



throughout the non-stop 85 minutes aims at spoon-feeding the learners rather than helping them to learn how to rely on themselves. This kind of teaching procedure prevents the pupils from using better like strategies and wanting «greater responsibility for their own learning » (Rebecca 1990: 10)



**BAR GRAPH 3.1: Number of words in 94 cues.**

Finally, it is clear that pupils are not only sensitive to and affected by the need to keep even with the teacher's initiatives, but that interaction patterns within the classroom change with the frequent and great amount of teacher input. In general, the teacher controls the content, steps and pace of the lesson. Nolasco and Arthur (1993: 39) assert that

( ... ) in this form of language teaching the teacher typically takes up a position in front of the class and is responsible for controlling who should speak and when.

ACTS		N. OF CUES = 94	
		T	LRS
1	Providing info / explanation	----	----
2	Asking for info / explanation	----	----
3	Requesting	4	----
4	Pointing out	24	----
5	Providing directive	1	----
6	Providing indication	1	----
7	Correcting	2	1
8	Evaluating	9	----
9	Controlling the comprehension	----	----
10	Summarizing / simplifying / reformulating	----	----
11	Answering linguistically	----	16
12	Answering non-linguistically	----	----
13	Repeating	7	19
14	Bidding	----	13
15	Acknowledging	13	----
16	Checking	3	----
17	Accepting	----	2
18	Marker	1	----
19	Loop	1	----

**TABLE 3.11: Analysis of pedagogic acts in "ann has three cats"  
(Adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard's system, 1975)**

In doing so, the teacher is in a position to decide when to introduce a model, when to judge a student's reply, and when to provide feedback.

### **3.3.2 Read / Understand / Unit 14 & Consolidate / Unit 4**

When looking at table 3.12 on page 71 we first of all notice that this lesson is dominated by the type of repetitive drill exercises ( i.e., repetition of sentence ). Since the drill is on an individual teacher - pupil basis, categories 3, 4, 13, and 15 are mostly used. The following example shows how we have classified what happens in the classroom. The teacher starts .

T: If I eat a lot of sweets, I will get fat . . . you ( T points out )

P1: If I eat ..... euh, euh ..... a lot of sweets, I will get ..... ( PP repeats )

T: Yes ..... ( T acknowledges - interrogates with the hand )

P2: If I eat lot of sweets, I will get fat (PP . repeats ) . etc.

It is particularly interesting to refer to the amount of percentage, which the categories mentioned above state, to have a global view of the kind of method the teacher used in the lesson. Indeed, if we calculate the total percentage, we will get 52,27% of the total number of acts (i.e. . 132 acts). This holds specially true that the teacher spent half of the available time drilling structures in the lesson COS or conducting feedback by getting pupils to ask and answer the questions in the lesson RU. This implies, according to Hubbard et al (1991: 187):

**a stage at which learners are given intensive practice in the new structure, but their production of the language is very carefully guided and controlled by the teacher, so that correct form and meaning are consolidated, and the possibility of error is reduced to a minimum.**

In using this traditional class pattern in the classroom, pupils are not allowed any freedom of choice because the teacher controls every classroom interaction. The diagram below (refer to page 72) illustrates this classroom situation.

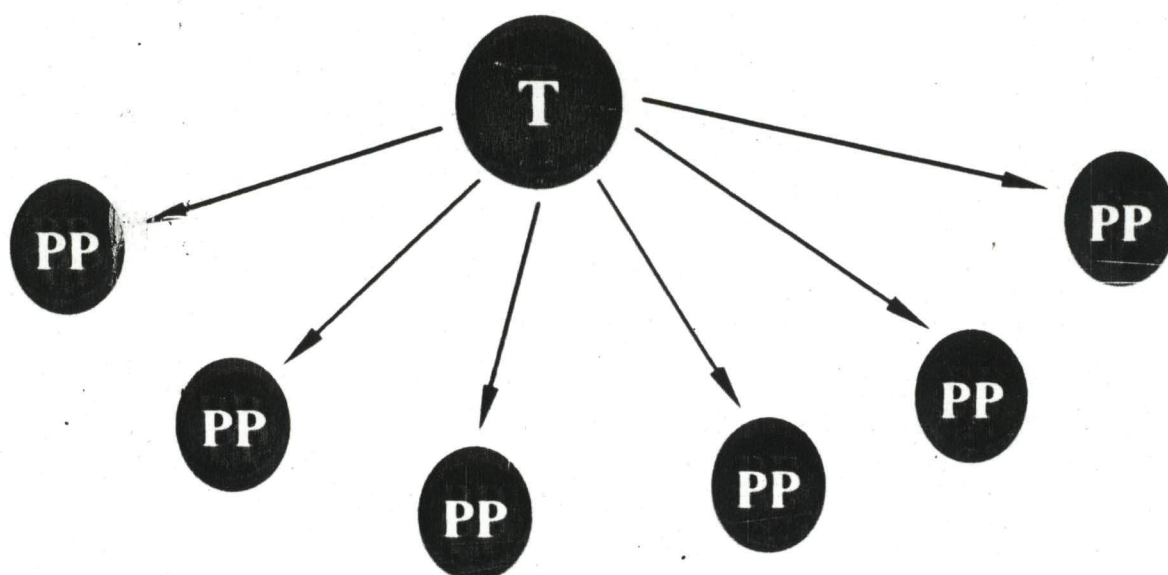
Most crucially, however, is the noisy atmosphere taking place during the lesson. By bidding almost before, during, and after each teacher's initiation, pupils create such a disturbing environment that we can hardly specify whether learning is successful or not. We have the feeling that the learners' tasks is to participate « for the sake of participation » throughout the process of teaching. Whatever doubts we might entertain about the educational value of this procedure, both teachers find it effective in that it provides linguistic needs to their pupils.



In doing so, the teachers are involved in a process of either providing indication, correcting, or evaluating (refer to categories 6, 7, and 8 in table 3.12 below) so as to suit the role of a drill sergeant. That is why they not only control the learners' performances, but check whether they have got the right answer as well.

ACTS		RU		COS	
		52 CUES		53 CUES	
		T	LRS	T	LRS
1	Providing info / explanation	----	----	----	----
2	Asking for info / explanation	----	----	----	----
3	Requesting	2	----	----	----
4	Pointing out	5	----	15	----
5	Providing directive	1	----	----	----
6	Providing indication	7	----	6	----
7	Correcting	4	1	1	----
8	Evaluating	4	----	5	----
9	Controlling the comprehension	----	----	----	----
10	Summarizing / simplifying / reformulating	1	----	----	----
11	Answering linguistically	----	6	----	7
12	Answering non-linguistically	----	----	----	----
13	Repeating	----	15	2	14
14	Bidding	----	9	----	6
15	Acknowledging	9	----	9	----
16	Checking	----	----	----	----
17	Accepting	----	----	----	----
18	Marker	----	----	3	----
19	Loop	----	----	----	----

**TABLE 3.12: Analysis of pedagogic acts in RU & COS**  
**(Adapted from Sinclair & Coulthard's system, 1975).**



**DIAGRAM 3. 1: The traditional class management pattern called "lockstep" (Hubbard et al. 1991: 192).**

Comparing other features of table 3. 12 on page 71, we find that RU and COS typically operate out of both teachers' manners in handling the two lessons. Although the latter are different, one is about teaching a new structure, the other is about the comprehension of a text, they do not differ in the approach in that the teachers' roles are those of drill masters, controllers of the direction and pace of learning, monitors and «greedy» correctors of learners' performances

In order to reduce the amount of mistakes to its extreme, the teachers do not encourage their pupils to initiate interaction. That is why listening to the teacher and imitating him accurately lead the learners to acquire a new form of verbal behaviour much of which does not have equivalents in the learners' native language. It is also important to remark that by providing, indication, correcting, and evaluating (refer to table 3. 12 in page 71) both teachers persist in forming new language habits which are maintained through continuous and frequent repetitions.

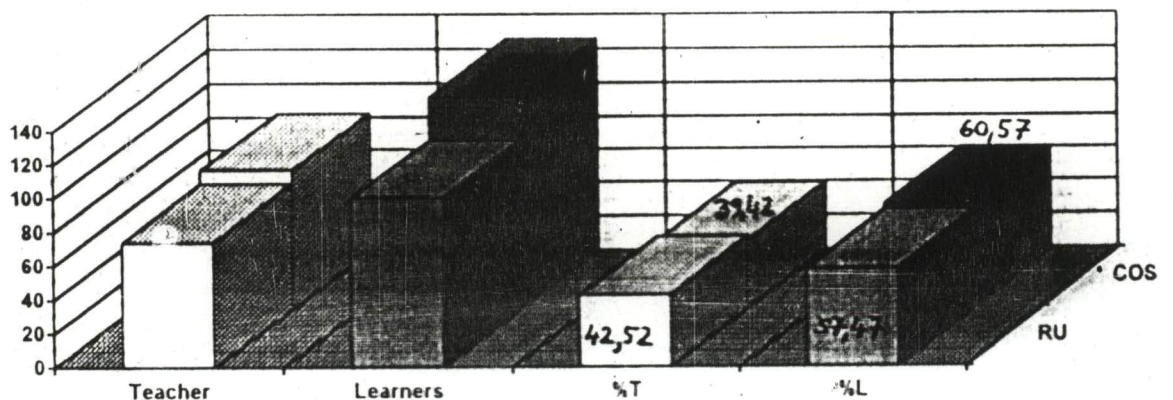
As stated above, grammatical competence alone, i.e. knowledge of structure and lexis, cannot provide the learners with the suitable tools to communicate effectively. Therefore, manipulating languages items in a vacuum must be dropped and replaced by

the pupils' ability to recognize the importance of the language they learn (Hubbard et al.1991: 247).

RU and COS have got, according to table 3. 13 and bar-graph 3. 2 below, similarities concerning the percentage of either turn-takings or words, 55,76%, 51% and 57,47%, 60,57% respectively. It is quite observable that learners in both lessons use more turn-takings and words than their teachers. This procedure resembles the type of teaching process used in AHTC wherein pupils' roles are mostly reduced to repeating either linguistic forms or lexis newly introduced.

LESSONS & CUES N. OF TURNS & %	RU		COS	
	52 CUES		53 CUES	
	T	LRS	T	LRS
NB OF TURNS	23	29	27	26
PERCENTAGE	44,23%	55,76%	50,94%	49,05%
NB OF WORDS	74	100	82	126
PERCENTAGE	42,52%	57,47%	39,42%	60,57%

**TABLE 3.13: Number of turn-takings in RU & COS.**



**BAR-GRAPH 3.2: Number of words in RU & COS.**



### **3.3.3. Communicative activities / Unit 4 - New lines**

The main aspect of this analysed abstract is the great number of acts found in the teacher's category number 3 and the learners' category number 11. It is therefore necessary to state that this sign shows the complete reliance of the question-answer technique. On the other hand, we can also notice that the students' contributions, 22 times as stated in table 3.14 on page 76 are mainly limited to the teacher's requests, 18 times. In addition, it is the teacher who points out, provides directives, and repeats. We are dealing with a teacher who possesses an overt ability to conduct much of classwork through a genuine know-how mixed with a touch of sympathy and good humour vis-a-vis the learners.

The selected passage of this lesson is a step where the teacher conducts question and answer work, in order to pave the way for the "messenger dictation" technique. In doing so, he uses less turns than his students, 46.38% vs 53.62%, but is found to consume nearly the same amount of words, 50.68% and 49.32% respectively (refer to tables 3.15 & 3.16 in page 77). This means according to Richards (1990: 149) that the teacher's main goal is to urge learners to go on

**calling up prior knowledge and using it both to predict  
the new content of a lesson and to "connect" that content  
to more familiar information.**

Another aspect to notice is that the students use only four categories (categories 11, 14, 15, and 17) while the teacher is present in twelve categories as stated in table 3.14 on page 75. Comprehending such difference involves the study of the teaching acts as well as the learners' educational level. This suggests that the nature of COM is, no doubt, the lesson which implements real communication.

ACTS		N. OF CUES	
		T	LRS
1	Providing info / explanation	----	----
2	Asking for info / explanation	----	----
3	Requesting	18	----
4	Pointing out	6	----
5	Providing directive	5	----
6	Providing indication	1	----
7	Correcting	----	----
8	Evaluating	----	----
9	Controlling the comprehension	----	----
10	Summarizing / simplifying / reformulating	----	----
11	Answering linguistically	----	22
12	Answering non-linguistically	----	----
13	Repeating	7	----
14	Bidding	----	8
15	Acknowledging	4	2
16	Checking	1	----
17	Accepting	1	3
18	Marker	3	----
19	Loop	2	----
20	Starter	2	----
21	Prompt	1	----

**TABLE 3.14: Analysis of pedagogic acts in COM**  
**(Adapted from Sinclair & Coulthard's system, 1975).**

By creating the need within students to express themselves through requesting, pointing out, and providing directives (table 3.14 above), students express themselves better. That is why learners can give shape to messages easily when opportunities are offered to them. To put it differently, by designing communicative tasks beforehand, the teacher's priorities were as Nunan states (1989: 10) to

involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.

To make the interaction sound natural, both the teacher and the students either acknowledge or 'accept each other: 4 vs 2 and 1 vs 3 respectively (table 3.14 on page 75). This tendency not only gives the learners opportunities to generate knowledge rather than remain passive consumers of it, but also sharpens their desire to be more autonomous. Similarly, the teacher adopts an approach of a real classroom conductor in that he checks his students' answers once, marks his turn-takings in order to show the movement from a sub-step to another, starts to initiate either a request or the beginning of a task, in the end, he uses loops (two times) when he doubts about the students' answers and prompts to signal the beginning of the "messenger dictation" task. As a result, both the teacher and the learners set a suitable pace which suits the prevailing class environment. The teacher's main concern is to provide an adequate knowledge for his students within the allotted time.

As can be seen from the above, the overall objective of this step is, thus, meant to elicit as much information as possible from students. The teacher uses specific questions in order to arouse interest and participation on the part of the learners. In addition, allotting enough time helps the latter digest the materials introduced wherein they take an active role in class so as 'to make contributions from their own knowledge' (Nolasco and Arthur 1993: 67).

In sum, the teaching process in step one of the lesson reveals the choice of an approach which cultivates the teacher's wit to handle communication as naturally as possible, and the learners' interference to display 'the ability to assume responsibility for one's own affaires' (Legutke and Thomas 1991: 270).

Finally, it is quite probable that the teacher moves from one activity to another during the moments of confusion. Indeed, when the order was given to students to split into groups for the "messenger dictation" technique, too much noise was heard. This teaching strategy is used quite often, so that learners' attention is attracted and focused toward the given task. In doing so, the teacher claps his hands and prompts the students to start quickly.



T : First group ( T uses his hand )

ST: Yes, ...

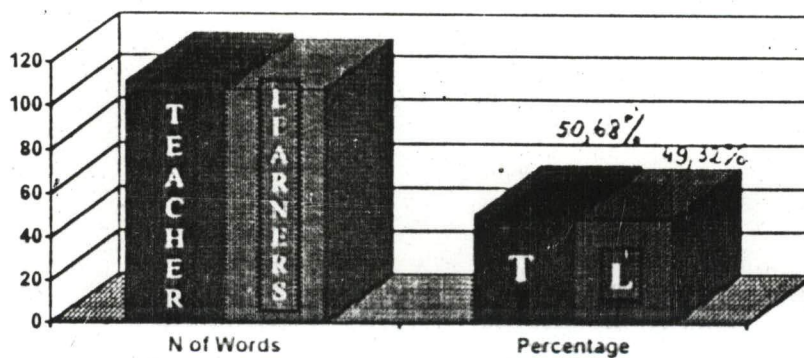
T : Second group ( T uses his hand claps ) ... third group ... fourth group  
 ...okay ? ( T claps his hands ) ... quickly ...

N.OF WORDS & % T & LRS	N. OF WORDS	PERCENTAGE
TEACHER	32	46,38
LEARNERS	37	53,62

TABLE 3.15: Number of turn-takings in 69 cues.

N.OF WORDS & % T & LRS	N. OF WORDS	PERCENTAGE
TEACHER	111	50,68
LEARNERS	108	49,32

TABLE 3. 16: Number of words in 69 cues.



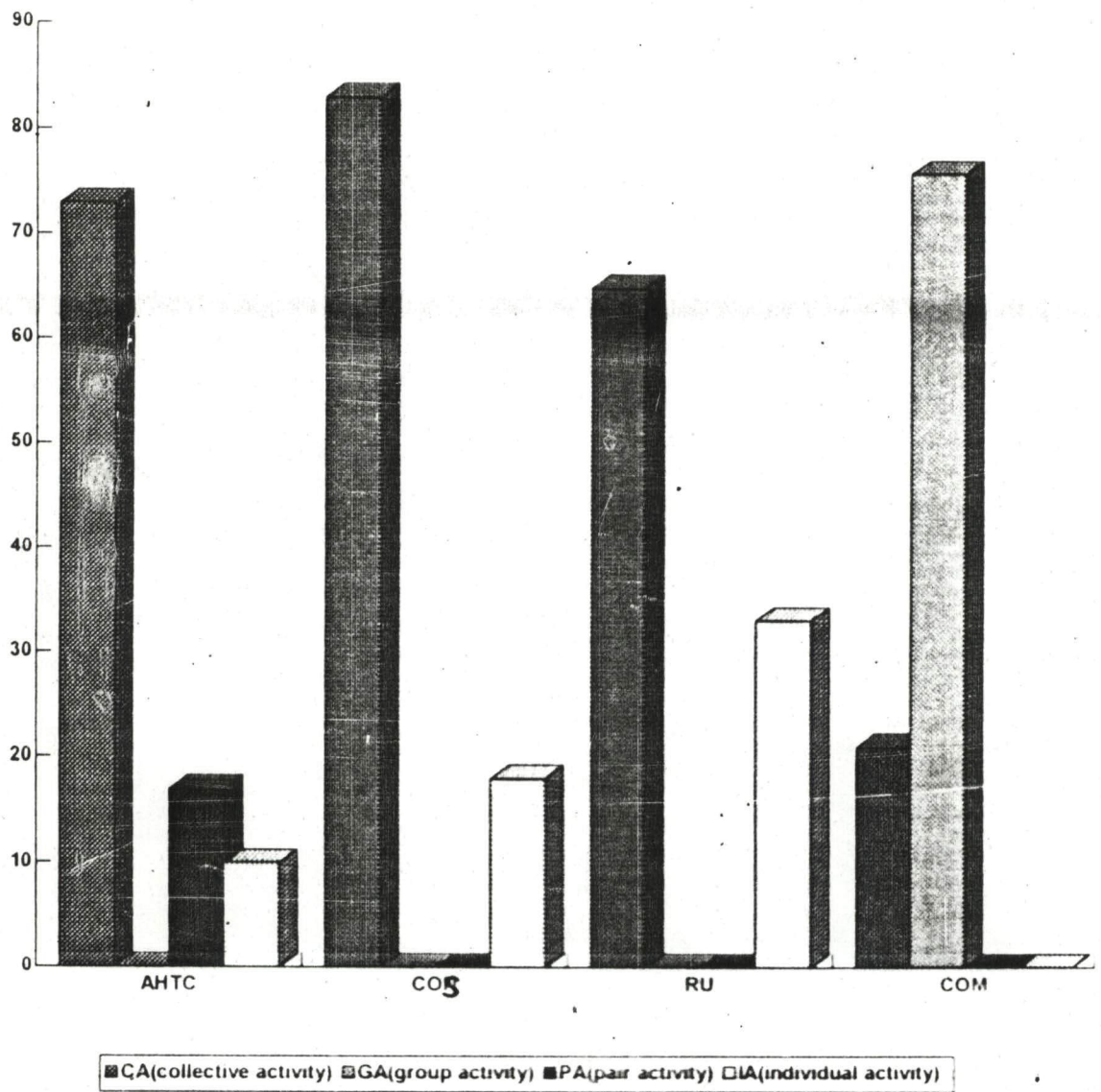
BAR GRAPH 3. 3: Number of words in 69 cues.

### **3.4. Commentary of the results**

This study shows that both the macro and micro analyses can yield interesting results when commenting the four E.F.L transcripts of classroom interaction. Bar-graph 3.4 on page 79 indicates the four kinds of activity, i.e. CA, GA, PA, and IA used within the four lessons and summarizes the main findings of the investigation.

As expected the collective activity used in AHTC, RU, and COS shows a thorough domination of this type of classroom management. Within these three lessons where the audio-lingual approach is used, the teachers control the pedagogic material, the progression, and the structures. In doing so, they stand as "lighthouses" at the front of the classroom, everything begins and converges towards them. This is perfectly noticeable during the teaching process wherein the three teachers behave in a very authoritarian way: they control all and everything and dominate the lesson from beginning to end. Such attitude increases a lot the teachers' interference in regard to the learners' independence whose ratio is lessened too much - respectively 16.47% for PA and 9.50% for IA in AHTC, 18% for IA and 82% for CA in COS and 32.65% for IA in RU.

In view of what has been said above, it would be advisable to suggest that the learner's autonomy is a must to be seriously taken into consideration in the process of teaching / learning so that the students' efficiency will be improved. If individuals were more informed about language and language learning, they would certainly avoid being passive skill-receivers, but rather become active skill-users, so that they will be more able to manage their own learning. Within this framework, Stern (1984: 406) states that



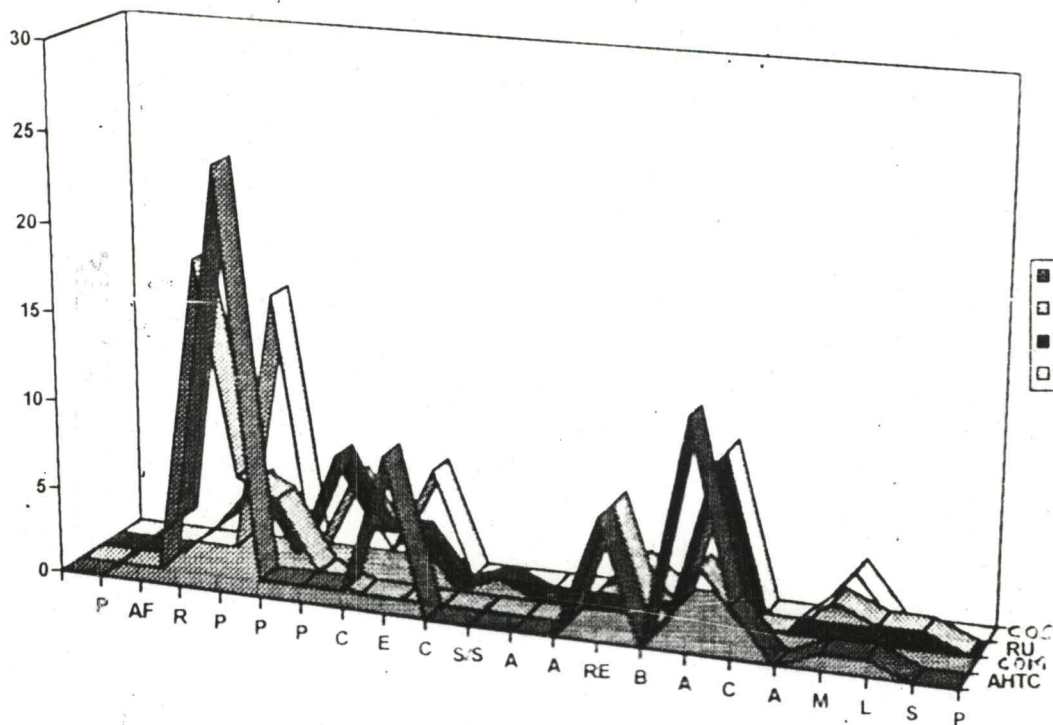
**BAR-GRAPH 3.4: Percentage of CA, GA, PA, IA, in the four lessons.**



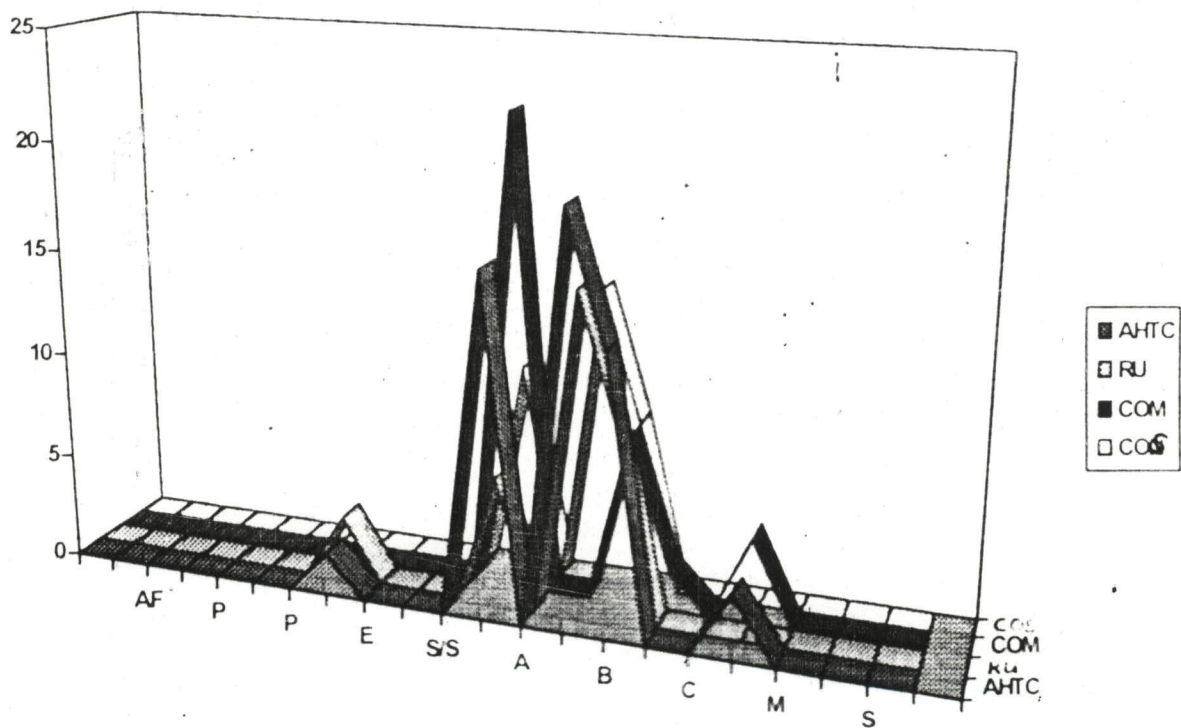
The criticisms of students (...) could be more constructively used if students were induced to reflect about their learning situation so as to identify reasons for their negative or positive reactions towards specific learning tasks and activities.

To demonstrate the preeminence of group activity in the lesson COM, let us relate something we have seen in the class we observed. It is, indeed, the only lesson where the teacher is less directive, the interactional constraints, are not too rigid, and the rules of discourse are more flexible in that the exchange structure is not selected beforehand, there is an equilibrium between both the teacher's and pupils' interventions. The reason for this is that the learners contribute more to the classroom discourse as they use strategies similar to those of natives. For example, the frequency of turn-takings is neither static nor predictable because learners can choose the moment to intervene in the discourse when dealing either with a group or a collective activity. In addition, as mentioned in line graph 3.2 on page 81, it is perfectly possible for the students to speak freely without paying attention to the length of their contributions. Indeed, the highest peak refers to the amount of the learners' linguistic answers recorded in the sample of COM.

The fact that the teacher is, both to a certain extent, the "organizer" and a member of the groups (see diagram 3.2 on page 82) neither reduces his right nor lessens his role. By sharing the activity, for example, during the "messenger dictation" technique, the teacher can help the students in their learning process. This is further evidence that in this case, the activity is 'negotiable' and less 'foreseeable' in that any plan of the lesson will be useless. In this way, the teacher not only becomes free in regard to his obsessive obligations to 'teaching' continuously during the lesson time, but also helps the learner to acquire knowledge freely at his own pace. This is quite noticeable in line graph 3.2 on page 81 wherein the curves show the learners' highest incidences in the following speech acts: answering linguistically and bidding.

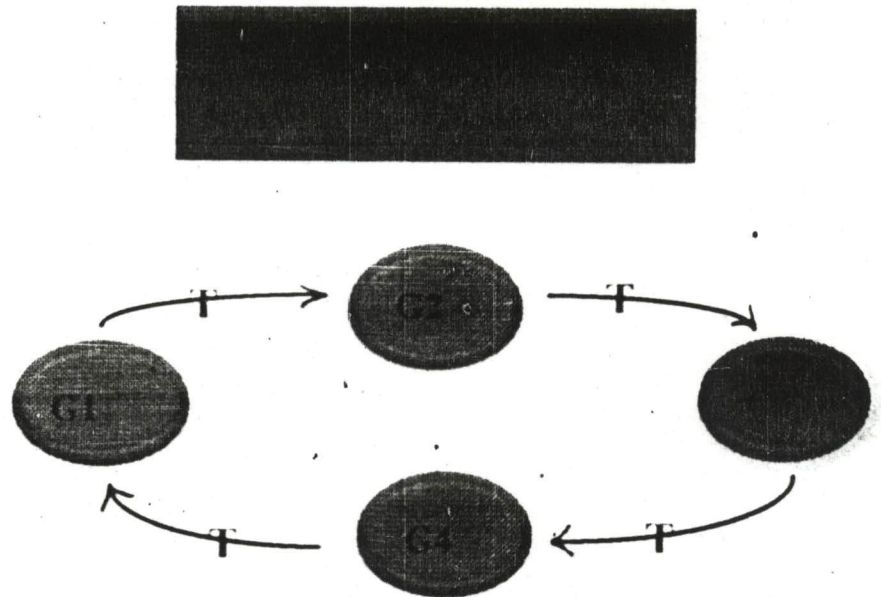


**LINE GRAPH 3.1: Teachers' pedagogic acts in the four lessons.**



**LINE GRAPH 3.2: Learners' pedagogic acts in the four lessons.**

Another noticeable trait of teaching is that teachers in AHTC, COS, and RU are too directive and the interactional situation is very controlled. Consequently, the discursive constraints, i.e. those related to discourse type in relation to a pedagogical situation, are too strong and classroom discourse is very limited. We have already seen that the dominating exchange is related to the classical «question-answer» exchange. The teacher is always under the limelight of the teaching/learning process in that he mainly repeats and points out, corrects and provides indication, evaluates and acknowledges, and marks (refer to line graph 3.1 on page 81). Thus, the learners' role is reduced to listening to and responding to stimuli. Most of the classroom time is devoted to repeating and practising correct language forms rather than decoding and analysing messages.



**DIAGRAM 3.2 : Teacher's movement during the lesson COM.**

The two apparent methods used in teaching are: on the one hand, mimic-memorize and pattern practice based on 'static' tasks (i.e. exercises), such as stimulus-response, memorization, mechanical variations of patterns and rote learning; and on the other, the communicative approach based on the main functions/uses of the English language such as communicative games and role-play activities.

The procedure of teaching discussed above urges us to say that the observed teachers in lessons AHTC, RU, and COS adopt the principles of the «audio-lingual»



approach. Although a high number of the latter claim that they use other approaches in their teaching, a deep study of the questionnaire (in appendix 7: 142) goes counter to what they say. In fact, they cling to the audio-lingual approach. This is in contrast to COM where the teacher is mostly "addicted" to the communicative functional approach in which he deals with the function as the main goal in order to determine the teaching aims/objectives. Hence, in the lessons AHTC, RU, and COS, learners are not encouraged to initiate interaction because this will lead to mistakes, whereas in the lesson COM, they are given confidence to use their innate and creative abilities so as to improve their learning.

In this respect Krashen (1983 : 6) indicates that

**(.....) language learners find it easier if it is practised in precisely these uncontrolled situations, where the learner is more concerned with achieving something through language than with getting the answer right.**

Even if the interaction is different, the way management activities are shared between teachers and learners is similar in the four analysed lessons. Indeed, the teacher controls both the most important part of management and the whole organisation of pedagogic activities. This tendency does not leave room for the learner to share the organisation of pedagogic activities. That is why learners not only naturally consider the teacher as the discourse and class group «leader», but also seek continuously his approval. This shows the dependent state that the learner suffers from in all the pedagogic situations. Generally, the learners' dependence is related to the teacher's directivity. Thus, as soon as the teacher's interference is lessened, the learner's independence or interdependence with the group is improved. In this way, the teacher's domination prevents the learner from his right and his obligation to share the management activities, i.e. the management of his own learning. On the basis of the

collected data, we suggest that teachers interfere less in classes, so that learners will view them differently with regard to the known preconceived role.

### **3.5. Questionnaire :**

As it was stated in 1.8, we constructed a questionnaire to be used during our visits in schools. The purpose of it was to get to know the teachers' beliefs about their use of the four types of activity and the approach(es) implemented in their lessons. It was impossible to give the questionnaire to all the teachers of the area due to reasons beyond our control; therefore, we will discuss the results of the questionnaires in the light of the ones we managed to collect.

In primary school level, five teachers<sup>2</sup> filled out the questionnaire. All of them appeared very willing to cooperate in the research. In question A, in which teachers had the possibility of selecting one, two, three or four different choices, Table 3.17 on page 85 illustrates the relationship between the number of teachers in primary schools and the total number of choices selected by them.

The teachers not only had the possibility of selecting more than one choice, but also of specifying the reason of their choices if they thought it appropriate (refer to question B of questionnaire in appendix 7: 142). As it can be seen in table 3.17 on page 85, choices 'a' and 'c' were the most selected ones. Consequently, in the teachers' opinions, when dealing with a teaching task, they either regularly use the CA or never use the GA. Choice 'c', which points to use of CA, was the most selected as: only choice and first choice. The choice the teachers selected the least was 'a'. So in their opinion they do not practically use GA in their teaching process.

Primary School	Type of Activity	Total Number of Choices Selected		
		a) <i>Never</i>	b) <i>Sometimes</i>	c) <i>regularly</i>
Number of Teachers 'Using'	CA	----	----	5
	GA	5	----	----
	PA	----	3	----
	IA	----	3	2

**TABLE 3.17: The total number of choices selected by teachers in primary school.**

Three out of the five teachers that selected 'b', i.e. sometimes use PA as one of their options added the following: when we minimize our role in conducting the activities, a noisy atmosphere prevails in the classroom. Therefore, we mainly use PA in oral activities to make pupils repeat questions and answers. However, it is interesting to point out that three teachers justified their choices. They claimed that IA is necessary as it helps the pupils to master comprehension and writing better.

Only two teachers selected 'c'. One wrote something completely irrelevant, i.e. 'she cannot see the use of such table in her teaching.', so her answer was not taken into consideration. The other teacher wrote that, when faced with the writing skill, pupils must work alone in order to focus on the mnemonics of the target language, for example, every number is represented by a rhyming word that has an image attached to it so as to develop the memory. This indicates that the teacher in question, and in our personal opinion many others, rely heavily on the written form of the language.

Question C (refer to table 3.18 in page 86) asks ~~students~~ to tick the approach(es)/method(s) they use in their teaching and to put a cross before the approach(es)/method(s) they ignore. All the teachers say that they use both the structural and communicative approach in their teaching. This is from our data and observation, partly true because all the lessons we observed follow the concepts of the structural approach. On the other hand, the five teachers stated that they ignored the grammar-translation method<sup>3</sup>, the audio-lingual approach<sup>4</sup>, the direct method<sup>5</sup>, the silent way<sup>6</sup>, and suggestopedia<sup>7</sup>. This shows the teachers' poor educational background



resulting from the lack of pertinent professional articles and books, and mainly pre-service training.

<b>APPROACH / METHOD</b>	<b>Use</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
1 Grammar-translation		X
2 Audio-lingual		X
3 Structural	X	
4 Direct		X
5 Notional-functional		X
6 Communicative	X	
7 Silent way		X
8 Suggestopedia		X

**TABLE 3.18: Approach(es)/method(s) used in teaching in the primary school.**

In Middle School level, the questionnaire was given in April 1995; twenty teachers filled it out. In question A, the majority of the teachers selected either one or two choices (refer to table 3.19 below). The choices most selected were 'a' and 'c', like in primary school. Item 'a' and 'c' were the most selected; therefore, the teachers in these schools believe that they never use GA, but regularly use CA in their classes. About half of them selected choices 'b', i.e. 11 teachers use PA, and 'c', i.e. 10 teachers use IA. Some of them selected either selected item 'c' (i.e., use of PA) or item 'b' (i.e., use of IA).

<b>Middle School</b>	<b>Type of Activity</b>	<b>Total Number of Choices Selected</b>		
		<b>a) Never</b>	<b>b) Sometimes</b>	<b>c) regularly</b>
<b>Number of Teachers 'Using'</b>	CA	----	----	20
	GA	20	----	----
	PA	----	11	5
	IA	----	6	10

**TABLE 3.19: Relationship between the number of teachers in middle school and the number of choices selected by them.**

In relation to question B, all the teachers think they use CA to transmit the message correctly, to check pupils' comprehension, or to conduct question-answer work. According to the teachers' answers, one can see that GA is not suitable for the teaching task, since all of them claim that the noise made by the pupils will disturb both the classroom setting and classes around.

In addition, it is stated in table 3.19 on page 86 that 11 teachers sometimes use PA for dialogue repetitions or when they want to ensure comprehension on the part of the learners. Half of them regularly use IA so that learners will grasp the written code of the target language, and teachers will rest for a while.

Five teachers claim that they use PA because they feel obliged to include it in their teaching process. It would be extremely enlightening to know when and why they feel that obligation, and whether it is imposed upon them by themselves, the teaching situation, the inspector or by a combination of them. But as always the anonymity of the questionnaire makes this impossible. Last but not least is that some teachers (6) believe that they sometimes use IA whenever time is available. This indicates that IA is mostly set as a homework which will be corrected during the CA of the following lesson.

Twenty teachers answered that they used the structural approach when dealing with question C in which they were asked to give their opinion about either the teacher's using approach(es) / method(s) in the classroom or the teacher's being familiar with them (refer to table 3.20 in page 88). Seven teachers think that they use the communicative approach while three others have chosen the notional-functional approach. These are erroneous answers because according to both the commentary of the results stated in 3. 4. and my being familiar with the field, the majority of the teachers in the Middle School cling to the audio-lingual approach without being aware of it.

There was, as it happens frequently in this type of question, a strange answer: a teacher ticked the grammar translation method as if translating sentences (or word-to-word translations) from the target language to the mother tongue is nowadays officially used in Algeria. Within this context Nolasco and Arthur (1993: 30) state that

the use of the mother tongue to check understanding and provide explanations can be very productive and many students would be very frustrated if they were told not to.

It is important not to deprive learners from a natural means of communication at hand, mainly with beginners.

<b>APPROACH / METHOD</b>	<b>Use</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
1 Grammar-translation	1	19
2 Audio-lingual	----	20
3 Structural	20	----
4 Direct	----	20
5 Notional-functional	3	17
6 Communicative	7	13
7 Silent way	----	20
8 Suggestopedia	----	20

**TABLE 3.20: Approach(es)/method(s) used in teaching in the Middle-School.**

In secondary school level, ten teachers answered the questionnaire. As in the primary and middle schools, most of the teachers were very cooperative. Indeed, in question A, a great number of teachers selected either two or three choices. This shows a difference with the other teachers of primary and middle schools, in which most of them selected one or two items. Table 3. 21 on page 89 shows a detailed analysis of



the relationship between the number of teachers in secondary school and the total number of choices selected by them.

Secondary School	Type of Activity	Total Number of Choices Selected		
		a) <i>Never</i>	b) <i>Sometimes</i>	c) <i>regularly</i>
Number of Teachers 'Using'	CA	---	6	4
	GA	1	2	7
	PA	3	4	3
	IA	---	4	6

**TABLE 3 21: The total number of choices selected by teachers in Secondary School.**

The most selected items in this level were 'b' and 'c' (refer to table 3.21 above). The differences are too important apart from GA where seven teachers use regularly this kind of activity in their teaching, and two of them use it sometimes. It is important to mention that GA is selected only at the secondary school level. One teacher selected item 'a' because he claims that the rooms are not fit for such kind of activity. Four teachers regularly adopt CA in their teaching while six others sometimes deal with it. Out of ten teachers who selected items 'a', 'b', and 'c', three said that they sometimes use PA mainly in "communicative activities" and in "writing" in regard to question B; four said that they sometimes use PA in order to improve learners' abilities to express their thoughts, and the last three reject totally PA as it disturbs and wastes time particularly with present day students.

In this school level also, six teachers give reasons why the teacher regularly uses IA ("that forces students to comprehend and write alone", "if the students read / write English all the time alone, they will master the language", "it's better to learn alone") and four said they use it according to the required task.

In answer to question C, most teachers said that they use both the communicative and structural approach in the teaching. The last approach was introduced because of the new ministerial recommendations which dropped the gap filling section and

replaced it by the by the syntax section. Eight teachers claim that they ignore the "Direct Method", the "Silent Say", and "Suggestopedia" (refer to table 3.22 below). In the end, two used the "Audio-Lingual approach" in their classrooms.

<b>APPROACH / METHOD</b>	<b>Use</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
1 Grammar-translation	----	----
2 Audio-lingual	2	----
3 Structural	10	----
4 Direct	----	8
5 Notional-functional	----	----
6 Communicative	10	----
7 Silent way	----	8
8 Suggestopedia	----	18

**TABLE 3.22: Approach(es)/method(s) used in teaching in the Secondary School.**

### **3.6. Conclusion**

With this study we have analysed four foreign language lessons to see how the division of management activities is organised in a more or less directive methodology. Conscious of the very limited sampling we have observed, it would have been too prententious to affirm that we have reached definitive conclusions. That is why, we can only expose certain aspects of interaction taken from the analysis.

On the whole, we have noticed that there are two kinds of constraints within a class setting: discursive constraints related to the discourse proper of a pedagogic situation, and interactional constraints related to the participants' behaviours. In a course where the interactional situation is too rigid, the discourse itself is very limited. The most important variable, indeed, is the degree of control the teacher has on the class. This fact is not necessarily in relation with the type of method used. We notice, for example, that the lessons AHTC, RU, and COS are more directive as the teacher



spends most of his time asking and making pupils repeat utterances. Hence, less pupils' contributions lead to the absence of strategy uses.

In this way, the dominating exchange is synonymous with the classical exchange "question-answer". The teacher exerts his power by continually asking the pupils and controlling their answers. Being in a position where he always questions, learners can only wait for their turn to give answers. To put it another way, there is a natural tendency from the pupils not only to consider the teacher as the "leader" of the discourse and the class group, but to look for his continual approbation as well. This obviously shows the dependence state that the learners suffer from in any pedagogic situation. Such attitude will certainly deprive the learners from their right and obligation to share the management of the activities and their proper learning.

In lesson COM where the teacher is less directive, the interactional constraints are not too rigid and the discourse rules are more flexible. In this way, learners will both contribute more to the discourse of the classroom and can use their own strategies to converse in the target language. For example, the turn-taking/giving<sup>x</sup> is neither fixed nor scheduled, learners can freely choose the moment to intervene within the classroom discourse.

In lessons AHTC, RU, and COS where the teachers are very directive, the interactional situation is highly controlled. As a result, the discursive constraints are very strong and the classroom discourse is very limited. The teachers regularly question the pupils in order to give them the same amount of turn-taking wherein each learner can foresee his turn.

In relation to the ethnographic questionnaire, the results are similar in both the primary and Middle School, but quite different in the Secondary School. In the former most teachers think that CA and IA suit best teaching English at these school cycles and the proportion of those who use the audio-lingual approach is high. In the latter the



majority of the teachers think that GA and CA are mostly relevant as long as learners benefit from this kind of teaching management.

Virtually very little attention has been paid to what happens in the classroom. However, the data gathered from the questionnaire constitutes very strong evidence that an important number of teachers still use method(s)/approach(es) in the classroom which go counter to the official syllabus.

## NOTES

1. To make group-work activities a smooth and effective way to learn, it is to be thought that "Messenger Dictation" technique can turn many boring teaching procedures into interesting material wherein information is recycled. Indeed, after the learners have learned a particular point in grammar or vocabulary, the teacher can have them make their own sentences. In this activity, the teacher nominates from a group of learners a student to work as a messenger, and another student to be a writer. After completing their paragraphs, the teacher pins the latter on the walls of the classroom. Then, the messenger stands up and goes to other paragraphs in order to see and memorize the sentences the other groups have written. As this activity is limited within time, the messenger has to go back quickly to the writer and dictate the sentences.

2. As the teaching of English in primary school is at its embryonic stage it was impossible to get in touch with a great number of teachers in the area the investigation was made.

3. A method of foreign or second language teaching which makes use of translation and grammar study as the main teaching and learning activities. This method was first used in order to teach classical language like Latin and Greek then, it was used to help students read and appreciate foreign language literature. Finally, promoters of this method thought that with the help of foreign language learning students will improve their intellectual background wherein the mental activity provides success in speaking and writing the native language.

4. A-LM (Audio-Lingual Method) is a language teaching approach (either foreign or second language) based on both structural linguistic theory and behaviourism wherein paramount importance is given to the teaching of the four skills, i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing. This method relies on the use of dialogues and drills but the use of the mother is not allowed. We believe, however, that a major argument can be put forward against A-LM because we depend entirely on our creative construction process rather than imitation once we produce sentences we have never heard before.

5. This method of foreign or second language teaching came as a reaction against the grammar translation method. Its proponents claim that the target language is the sole vehicle of language teaching wherein meanings are related to situations, paralinguistic features, and objects. In addition, grammar rules are not taught deductively so as to allow learners to grasp better. Finally, the speaking skill is given primary importance with regard to both reading and writing in that the latter are always taught once the former has been introduced.

6. To improve the learners verbal participation in classroom settings, Gattegno developed a method of foreign language teaching whose components rely on paralinguistic features (i.e., gesture and mime), wall charts, visual aids, and mainly Cuisiniere rods. The latter are made of wooden sticks of various sizes and colours which can enhance the learners' visualization of concepts and ideas so that they will be able to share orally the process of teaching. (Further reading consult Gattegno 1976 and Richards and Rogers 1986).

7. According to Geogi Lazanov, Suggestopedia is a technique that not only helps learners to relax mentally but maximizes language learning as well in that they get rid of psychological barriers to learning. Broadly speaking, the teacher is asked to create a classroom environment which differs from normal classroom settings wherein students are seated in comfortable chairs arranged in a U-shape plan facing the blackboard so as



to listen to classical music (or soft music) and "contemplate" posters hung on the walls during the teacher's quiet interventions.

8 A conversational exchange consists of a series of exchanges between speakers wherein partners take turns in speaking and listening. Indeed, to be verbally competent means that people know when a speaker has finished so that another speaker can intervene. In addition, simultaneous talk (i.e., overlap) is of paramount importance in classroom settings as it sometimes shows the degree of awareness and competition among learners themselves.

# CHAPTER 4

## SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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## **CHAPTER 4**

### **SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

There is, a general agreement today that a language is best acquired by using it to do things wherein learning involves a direct meaningful exposure through a variety of communicative activities such as role play, games and problem solving activities. Indeed, the best way to ensure that learners are using a language is through situations which make them want to use the language or through a challenge in which they feel motivated to communicate their interest.

In this chapter the researcher shall consider first the kinds of strategies teachers can use in their on-going professional career, and the way in-service training can promote teacher development. We shall then turn to an account of learner strategies, and suggest a possible implementation of learner training in our institutions via a survey undertaken in the area of Sidi-Bel-Abbes. The latter (i.e., learner training) could provide future avenues for research as it has been noticed that self-learning ensures better results with regard to use.

#### **4.2 Teaching strategies**

In order to know what kind of strategies teachers can use in their on-going professional career, let us examine the teacher's strategies in which self-monitoring is seen as one of the best tools for teachers' professional improvement; the use of diaries



in which insights about the teaching task are collected; and drill reduction to avoid boredom and demotivation on the part of the learner

### **4.2.1 Teacher's strategies**

Self-monitoring is the kind of systematic approach used by teachers to observe their teaching in which they will both understand and control better their own behaviour. In this respect, Richards (1990:118) affirms that

**In language teaching, self-monitoring refers to the teacher making a record of a lesson, either in the form of a written account or and audio or video recording of a lesson, and using the information obtained as a source of feedback on his or her teaching.**

Thus, it is advisable to include self-monitoring (or self-observation) in teaching because it aims at improving the teacher's professional side.

Researchers may wonder about the relative growing importance of self-monitoring in teacher's development career today. Indeed, a great number of teachers spend a short time in training; as a result, self-observation is needed to improve performance in the long run. By doing so, teachers will be able to determine the nature of feedback which will help them to inquire about their teaching task. In addition, teachers will not only rely on routine and intuition, but also on critical thinking. Hence, they can view their own teaching and decide what works and what does not in their pedagogical development.

To have an idea of how self-monitoring is carried out, three approaches have been put forward nowadays: personal reflection, self-reporting, and audio or video recordings of a lesson. The first is used to report openly what happened in a lesson. To put it another way, the teacher's reactions and classroom events that took place in a classroom are interpreted in order to be analysed later. A professional growth progress will then be felt thanks to regular critical reflections.

Self-monitoring is designed to provide teachers with a regular assessment of what they are doing in the classroom. In this way, they become more aware of the specified time period and more self-critical about the teaching practice.

The last approach is the recording of lessons which is the most recommended way in self-monitoring. To demonstrate the preeminence of audio or video recordings let us state that classroom events - either all that is said during the lesson or just a set of behaviours - are captured during the process of teaching, i.e. the moment-to-moment processes of teaching (Richards 1990: 124). It could be argued that video recordings are more intrusive than audio-recordings; however, to avoid this drawback, it is advisable to familiarize the students with the equipment before the lesson starts.

#### **4.2.2 Diary studies**

One of the most informative means to equip beginning teachers and teacher educators for the learning course content is the use of diary studies. Bailey (1990:215) defines a diary study as a

**first-person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analysed for recurring patterns or salient events.**

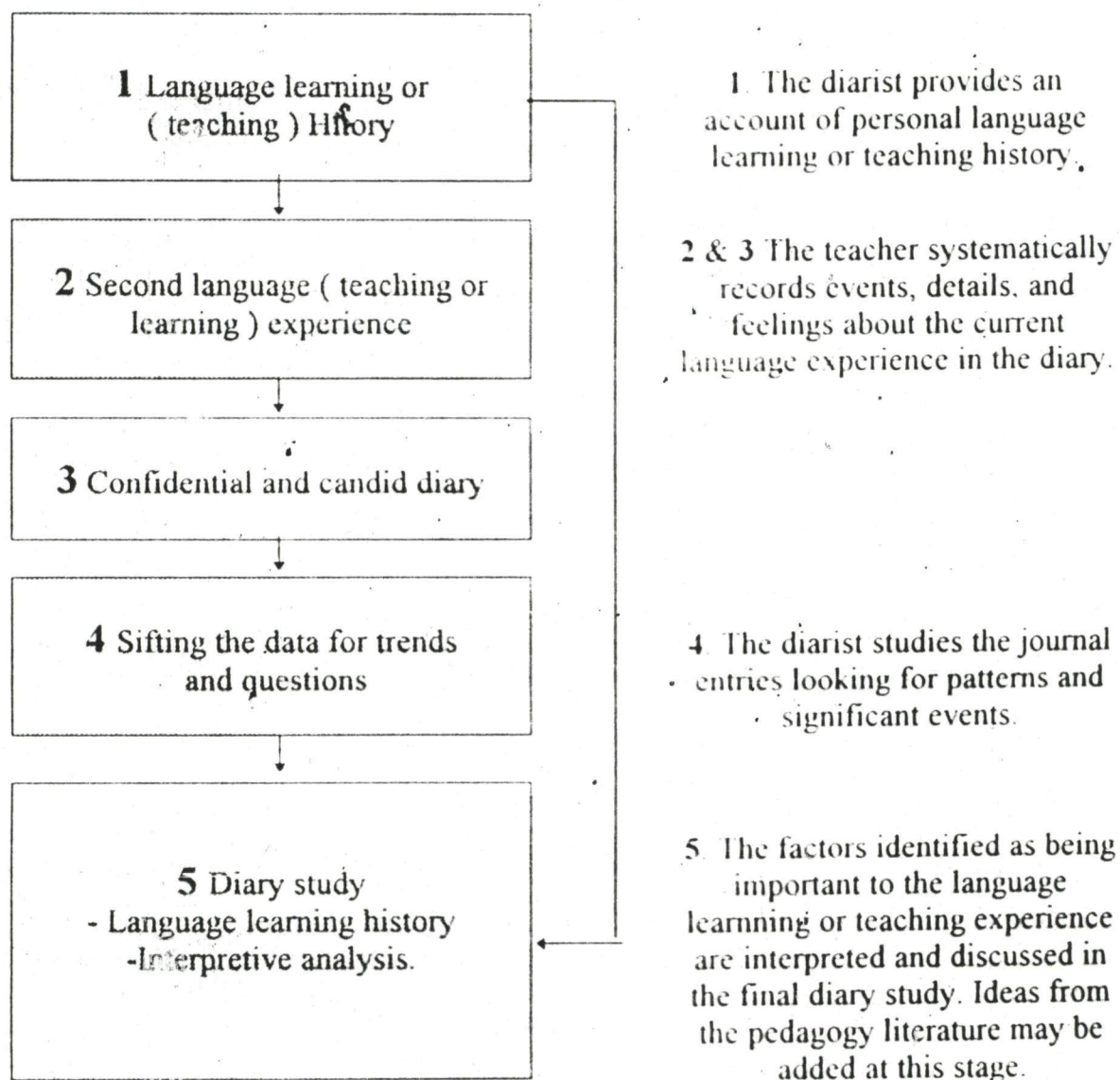
There are, indeed, according to Richards and Nunan (1990: 218) two phases of conducting a diary study:

- (1) making the daily diary and
- (2) analysing the raw qualitative data provided by these entries.

Considered as potential tools for teacher preparation, these first-person accounts of language learning can either be simply kept or analysed in order to give teachers (or teachers-in-preparation) outside feedback related to on-going teaching development. It should be noted, however, that diaries focus on issues related to lesson planning, time management, classroom control group work, and teacher-student interactions as a whole. Thus, teachers will not only be able to generate behavioural changes but will develop self-confidence as well.

As teacher-preparation tool we suggest the flow chart below (refer to page 101 ) in order to mention the steps involved in doing a diary study.





**Flow chart 4.1 Conducting a language learning or teaching diary**  
**(adapted from Bailey and Oschsner 1983: 90 readapted in**  
**Richards and Nunan 1990:219).**

At present, the writing of a diary study involves the suggestions underneath  
 (Richards and Nunan 1990: 220)

- (1) It is essential for a diarist to devote regular time after class to write in the diary,
- (2) the time spent on writing should at least equal the one of class time, and
- (3) while collecting data, worries about grammar, organisation and style must be dropped in order to have fresh recollections.

It so happens that recording everything that happens in a day might prove difficult; therefore, it is advisable to focus the diary entries on aspects of interest. Thus, keeping writing diary entries alone is not enough with regard to classroom events. In fact, to really learn from the data collected, diarists should review the diary entries in order to gain more insights about their teaching task.

### **4.2.3 Drill reduction**

To avoid tedious foreign-language teaching learning, the teacher must explain the rationale of the method through which the learners are being taught. Such explanations delay possible boredom and fatigue. This present situation may arouse inhibition and distastefulness to the point where the learner seeks for a way to escape either by "playing truant" or by being mentally absent when he repeats mechanically, but with his thoughts far away from the work in hand. Consequently, motivation will be fading and interest will be vanishing slowly.

Reduction in the amount of drill will reduce the amount of fatigue which learners may feel because of the over-long repetition of the same type of activity. The teacher must be aware of this important emotional defect by providing variety in the classroom. Rivers (1993: 232) asserts that

(...) the teacher must be sensitive to class reaction and prepared to change the type of activity at the first signs of fatigue.

Clearly to do this adequately, the change needs to be expressed through the type of learning, i.e. from active drill to practice in aural comprehension, or to a question-answer structure related to another type. More mature teachers with clear motivation seek rather to provide change once writing their lessons. Now, the greatest error teachers make in classroom interactions may be the assumption that through memorization, rote learning, and manipulating structures automatically leads to learning on the part of the student.

Teachers must stop disappointing and discouraging their learners' study of the language. One recommendation the researcher can make is that teachers must make the pupils become more aware of what the latter are doing. Another is that the drill must be related to their own interests. It must be added, however, that a touch of humour, a usually essential component of drill session, must be included so as to provide a relaxed atmosphere within classroom settings. It so happens that it is the structure drill that constitutes the brunt of attacks on the grounds that pupils are demotivated and are less able to benefit from this type of work. There are many modifications to be made: but we cannot arrest the forces at work, nor can we turn the clock back. A new pattern of language teaching must take place in our institutions.

In order to increase the effectiveness of the drill, many suitable contexts must be selected to introduce the structure whose contexts must be selected to introduce the structure whose meaning- either structural, lexical, social or cultural - is inductively absorbed, i.e. from its use in such situations. The next step the learner will describe is the relationship between the function of the structure within various situations: if required, the teacher will be able to explain another time. From this analogy the learner will be able to grasp the new element in the new pattern. As a result, fatigue due to



repetitions will be dropped and the reproduction of the new structure within various situations will be guaranteed (Rivers 1993: 233).

### **4.3 In-service training**

To promote innovation in classrooms the scope of training as well as trainer input style must be seriously taken into consideration in our country. Although the question of foreign language instruction is barely beginning, the caution for further improvement in L2 teaching is related to research about the possible aids that learners can gain from training/instructional programmes.

#### **4.3.1 Training**

The first and most common criticism is that training is badly neglected. Our main purpose is to incorporate a set of procedures into in-service programmes in order to promote innovation in the classroom. Secondly, less time must be provided to the input within the lesson(s) so as to give opportunities to teachers to use the new trends in language teaching. Teachers also need information about the implications related to their teaching and about the adaptation of these new ideas which occur in both their personal teaching environments and their teaching styles.

In the case of facilitating the ownership of ideas, as well as promoting innovation in the classroom generated either by the 'trainer-driven approach', Palmer (1993: 170) suggest a model which can be summarized as follows:

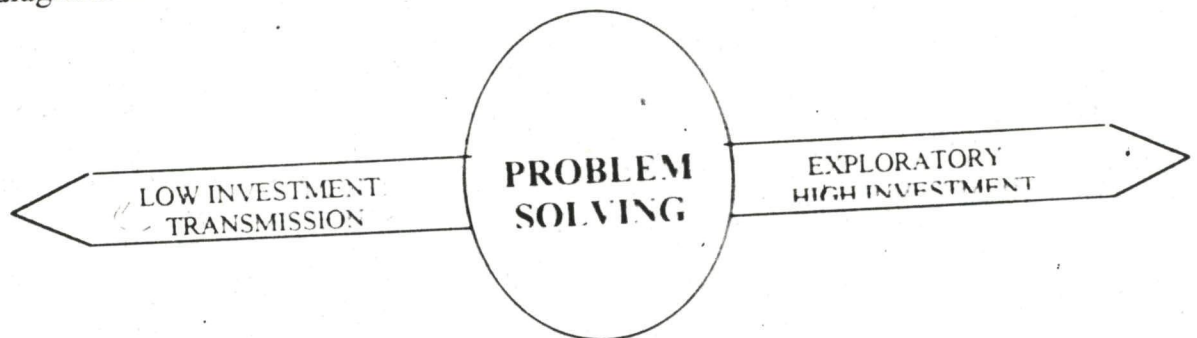
- Selection ( for example, choose an activity from those that have been presented which you like to try )
- Placement ( for example, find a place, in your textbook where this activity might be appropriate )

- Adaptation ( for example, rewrite the activity to suit your syllabus, course-book, student's interest and context, and teaching style )
- Role ( for example, decide whether the activity would supplement or replace something already in the book )

In addition to the set of procedures mentioned above Palmer (Ibid.) puts forward scheduling post-course meetings to examine the effects of innovation. For example, teachers will be willing to make an account about the effect of innovation within their respective classes.

### 4.3.2 Trainer input style

The next point to be examined is the definition of the input style which will serve to lessen a little the terminological confusion in the language-teaching field. Indeed, objectives define the suitable approach to be used by teachers within their lessons. According to Palmer (Ibid.), there exist three major input styles located on opposite sides of a continuum: transmission, problem-solving, and exploratory. The following diagram illustrates Palmer's view.



**Table 4.1 Teacher investment continuum.(Palmer 1993).**

When teachers embrace the first sort of input style, they will provide the input which can either be accepted or dropped by participants. In addition, the teachers are the sole source of information who seek rather pass on information through a one-way model, i.e. the trainer-as-learner approach.

With this second type of style, it is perfectly possible to make both the participants and trainers' ends meet. The former by confronting their personal teaching styles with their teachers', and the latter by sharing their experience and knowledge so as to find solutions to specific problems.

With the third sort of input, the trainer acts as a tutor whose major task is to facilitate the teacher's main pedagogical difficulties. Such attitude will not only improve cooperation among teachers themselves and their trainers, but also promote teacher development.

In-service training must not be regarded as an end in itself. An eclectic adaptation within lessons of the three approaches mentioned above will enable supervisors, trainers, and teachers to enhance language teaching. We suggest, at this level, the need for follow-up meetings in order to evaluate the confrontation of what was done in in-service programmes with the results obtained in classrooms.

#### **4.4 Learner strategies**

To analyse strategies of second language learning and strategies of communication thoroughly is a bit cumbersome because the distinction between one class of strategy and another is frequently not clear-cut and also because some of them have not been used to describe the same phenomenon. However, we will keep our discussion very short since a deep and lengthy analysis of this problem goes beyond the scope of this work.



#### 4.4.1 Strategic competence

It now becomes clear that the pedagogical implications of studying learning strategies are enormous. If in accordance with the latest trends, we believe that the main objective of foreign language teaching is to give our learners all the necessary tools to communicate effectively in the target language, that is to say that foreign-language teaching is not merely teaching about the language or 'passing on new information' (Farch and Kasper, 1980: 55), then strategic competence-which consists of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may compensate when there is a problem in one of the other two competences, i.e. grammatical and sociolinguistic ones-must be included into foreign language objectives as an essential part of communication competence.

Teachers must make their students aware of the strategies of communication that they and their classmates use: we agree with Farch and Kasper (Ibid: 55) when they say

**There could be considerable gains in teaching learners how to compensate for insufficient linguistic resources by using the totality of their communicative resources creatively and appropriately.**

For many years -perhaps one should say centuries- the emphasis on foreign language teaching was on how to develop and improve the learner's linguistic competence wherein the latter has the ability to create and understand sentences as well as to distinguish between sentences and non-sentences of a given language. It is high time an effort were made to integrate the development of strategic competence in the foreign language class.

Simulation activities can create good opportunities for production of spoken language in a classroom. Jones (1982: 5) states that simulations represent 'reality of function in a simulated and structured environment'. To be effective both the physical circumstances, behaviour, and the published material are required. In addition, simulations proved to be useful as they not only make gifted learners work together with less gifted ones but also help those whose experience is on the way of recycling. Simple examples should help to illustrate this point: pairs of pupils/students have to pretend that a robbery took place in a bank and one of the learners will ask questions related to what the thief looks like, how he was dressed, etc.

PP 1 ( Policeman ): Good morning.

PP 2: Good morning.

PP1: Can I help you ?

PP2: Yes, I saw the thief near the bank.

PP1: Can you describe him ?

PP2: He is a tall man with black curly hair and a dark complexion.

PP1: Thank you, sir.

PP2: Not at all. Good bye !

Another activity, in which boredom can be dropped, is the re-telling stories. For example, if a class of 1AS students has been dealing with describing past events (i.e., grammar function focus), the learners can benefit from re-telling a story accurately through attentive listening. The teacher will first split the class within small groups: and then student 1 tells student 2 part of story which he prepared in advance. Student 2 sends the message to student 3, etc. The same procedure is carried on until the last student who will then repeat the whole story.

There are many activities that pupils can perform with learning vocabulary. It is important, nevertheless, to include learning words within games (pairs or groups) so as to be manipulated by pupils either in primary or middle schools. Wordsearches are

easy to do because words intersect, either two words that have the same letter or two words that have the same first letter. For example,

	A				W
I	T		Y		H
S		H	O	M	E
	C		U		R
	A		R		E
A	T				

The above table can be filled up with the help of the following sentences wherein identical letters are given. For example,

1- \_ e \_ i \_ o \_ \_ a \_ ?

2- l \_ i \_ t \_ o \_ e.

A last activity called "Where is it?" could be done with the fourth year of the Foundation School. This oral guessing game helps pupils in formulating questions of their own. A pupil is asked to leave the classroom after he had seen the object selected by his classmates. Before he returns, the rest of the class decides on the place where the object must be hidden. When the pupil is inside the room, he tries to find out its



location by asking yes/no questions followed by prepositions of space such as on, near, behind, under, between, in front of, etc. In this way, the pupil can discover the hidden object by using the process of elimination.

#### 4.4.2 Classroom behaviours

With the help of diaries, self-reports, or recordings of lessons, many classroom behaviours can be examined. These dimensions of teaching relate to classroom management, teacher-student interaction, structuring, grouping, and task design and implementation.

In a well-managed class, expectations for success and motivation are high because opportunity is provided for learners to share the learning tasks and activities. Teachers have to make decisions not only about the amount of occurring teacher-to-student communication in a lesson; but also about the amount of student-to-teacher interaction; the extent to which the learners are engaged in the lesson; and the nature of turn-taking patterns observed within a classroom (Richards 1990).

Structuring relates to the teacher's directions which learners can perceive. For any given activity, a teacher uses clear instructions to help students understand the goals of activities, the relationship between activities throughout the lesson, and how a teacher starts or ends a lesson.

The concept of grouping is central to effective teaching. Also, to speak of this dimension presupposes according to Richards (1990: 40) that

**an effective teacher understands how different kinds of grouping (such as seat work, pair work, discussion, reading circle, or lecture) can impede and promote learning.**

The last dimension of teaching is tasks, or activity structures, which refer to activities that teachers assign to attain particular learning objectives (Ibid). Here, the teacher uses a certain number of tasks relevant to his methodology.

## **4.5 Learner-centred approach**

In order to improve our learners' General English level, great emphasis must be put on a learner-centred approach with awareness of the learner as an individual, focus on both learner autonomy and leaders' preparation.

### **4.5.1 Learner training**

Recent development in language teaching have put forward the notion of learner training. In fact, Ellis and Sinclair (1989: 16) assert that

**Learner training aims to help learners consider the factors which may affect their learning and discover the strategies which suit them best so that they may become more effective learners and take on more responsibilities for their own learning.**

Given that learner training aims at providing learners with WHAT, WHY, WHEN, and WHERE they learn, we felt that integrating fourth-year licence students as leaders would enable learners to see language learning as an active experience involving the use of learner diaries. The researcher suggests for this purpose to split classes into small groups (6 to 8 students) by nominating a leader at the head of each

on the grounds that more advanced learners are, by definition, already successful learners and therefore in less need of 'training' than others. At other times, the teacher of application together with the teacher trainee will set out the aims and objectives of learner training.

Towards a definition of learner training procedures, we may begin by a meeting wherein learners will be given 'What sort of language learner are you?' questionnaire to be filled in the classroom with the leader's help. The second step is to have students complete individual needs analysis, in which leaders help learners to identify and describe their needs in language learning, using a model based on the local environment, described by Ellis and Sinclair. To define class aims and objectives, a classroom U-shape discussion can follow so that the formulation of aim obtained through negotiation with their peers will be valuable.

As a final step, diaries will be introduced via the learner-diary handout (refer to appendices 9 & 10 on pages 144-145). Learners will be asked to write their diaries when the lesson ends and to hand them in at the beginning of the following meeting to the teacher or leader. Through an examination of learners' perceptions with their own, i.e., did learners focus on the objectives of my teaching? The teacher leader will be able to tackle some of the problems met by them. Whenever divergences emerge, teacher/leader will be willing to discuss them with their learners. Within the same framework, Ellis and Sinclair (1989: 10) assert that

**The learner is regarded as an individual whose opinions and beliefs about learning are respected. He or she is encouraged to experiment and to choose and is provided with the necessary tools with which to do this. Learner and teacher are partners in learning; the teacher is the language learning 'expert' and the learner the 'expert' on him or herself.**



In the long run, learners will be perceptive in linking the classroom activities to the learner training. Within this 'internal' negotiated syllabus, i.e. that elaborated by teacher/leader and the school learners, the latter can not only measure their own progress, but also take the initiative in choosing the appropriate tools which best suit their learning needs. Such procedure can encourage school learners to monitor their own learning.

#### 4.5.2 Teacher trainees' preparation

As university teacher trainees are new to self-instruction, we suggest to organize a programme of workshop which will enable them to be familiar with the concept of self-instruction. That is why leaders have to be aware of the necessary changes and task required of the teacher who is helping learners working in a self-instructional mode (Dickinson 1987).

Seen from this perspective, self-instructional learning needs individuals who are willing to guide the school learner to become responsible for his own learning. To put it another way, we need to define what the teacher working in this mood (Dickinson 1987: 122) is

**The ideal helper is warm and loving. He accepts and cares about the learner and about his problems, and takes them seriously. He is willing to spend time helping. He is approving, supportive, encouraging and friendly; and he regards the learner as an equal. As a result of these characteristics, the learner feels free to approach him and can talk freely and easily with him in a warm and relaxed atmosphere.**

In order to provide teachers leaders with the possible types of preparation, there must be a mutual understanding between the helper and the school learner. New frontiers have to be established so as to allow a sincere dialogue based on priorities. The helper will focus his attention on the school learner's needs, requests, and goals. Such priorities will assure the learners what they are doing rather than feel being treated as objects. Taking the learners into such confidence is likely to improve the efficiency of learning.

### **4.5.3 Interview**

The purpose of this section is to obtain as much information from headmasters, deputy headmasters, and teachers. The researcher not only lacked relevant questions to be asked but ignored how to proceed during the interview as well.

To have an overall insight about the possible implementation of learner training, in which students are prepared 'to get the best out of autonomous learning' (Dickinson 1988: 45), in our institutions we undertook a series of recorded face-to-face interviews so as to provoke inhibition the more so. Drawing formal conclusions through direct contacts is tiresome and time consuming, so we resorted to make appointments with two headmasters, three deputy headmasters, and three teachers to collect as much exchange of viewpoints as possible. But we soon realized how difficult it was to use this kind of instrument. Therefore, piloting the open interview first with a deputy headmaster and a teacher was of paramount importance in order to assess its quality. All the same our intention was to undertake a reliable analysis of data collection before any improvements were made. In order to allow interviewees to express themselves verbally, we used this kind of instrument in which a short preparatory meeting with each interviewee was held to explain the topic. In addition, to avoid long pauses, interviewer's probes were used so as to facilitate communication.

Our question was: what do you think of integrating fourth-year students within the teacher's (i.e., teacher of application) timetable to promote learner training? This open question was followed by probes such as: is it feasible? is it possible to have a specific room for each teacher of English? when is it possible to implement learner training? does the learners' number hamper learner training? how long will learner training last?

The answers were more or less similar in that opinions tend to share either teaching conditions or pedagogical concerns. In relation to the former, in which headmasters and deputy headmasters had to express their opinions, the implementation of learner training not only aroused interest but also proved to be feasible, in our institutions. Indeed, instruction aimed to heighten the learner's awareness of foreign language can be easily included in the first-year secondary school teacher's timetable. By doing so, the weekly one-hour TD can take place in rooms in mornings (from 11 a.m to 12 p.m) or afternoons (from 4 p.m to 5 p.m) or even in the local library according to opening hours. Unfortunately having specific rooms for teachers of English made us give up this idea because the number of divisions (i.e., classes) was superior to the one of rooms in each institution. In relation to the latter, in which teachers had to express their opinions, all of them welcomed the learner training concept by showing an overt eagerness to know more about ways of improving the English language in our institutions.

Indeed, the weekly one-hour TD can offer teachers and trainees alike a good opportunity to cater for their students' 'learning focus', skill learning, communication practice and real use or 'planning level (approach to learning), learning plans, techniques of learning' (Dickinson 1988: 50-52).

Teachers affirmed that this particular type of work, if officially inserted in the teacher's timetable, offers learners the possibility to tackle the aspects of language they want to learn. In doing so, students will have the opportunity to work at their own pace far from the pressure of classroom settings. Consequently, the present language



situation, in which the teacher leader creates an appropriate teaching learning environment, will prevent embarrassment and encourage the student's active participation in the learning process. Seen from this perspective it will be easier for foreign language learners to develop new habits than to rectify bad ones. Nunan (1991: 52) notes that

**Learners opinions should be taken into consideration, because only a learner can judge a task from a learner's point of view. Therefore, not only learners should learn; they must also learn 'how to learn'.**

One recommendation we make is that the learner's passive behaviour is no longer valuable because the learner needs self organisation so as to evaluate his learning task.

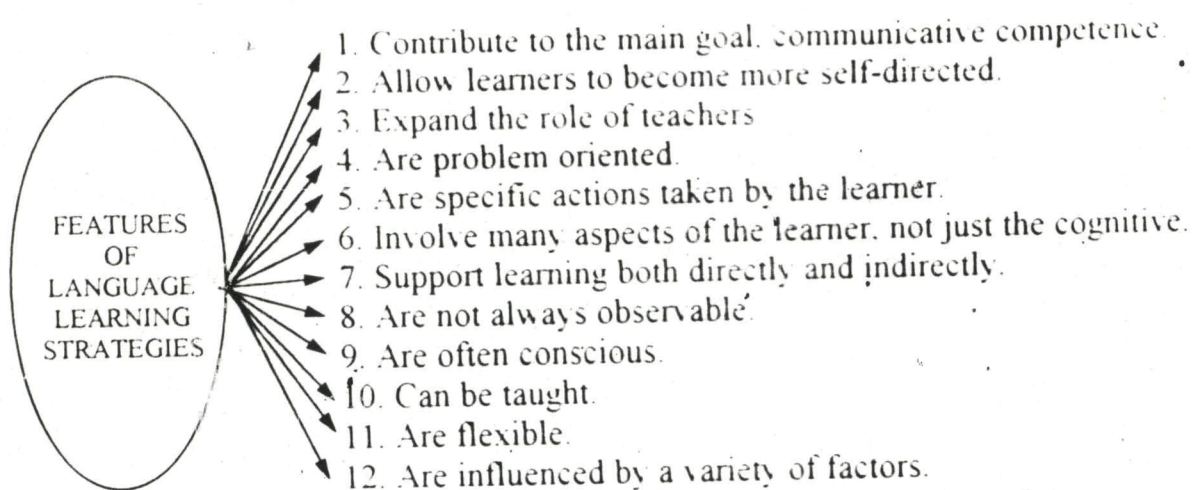
#### **4.6 Conclusion**

In this final chapter, the researcher has looked at some of the kinds of strategies that teachers can use in a teaching programme. Determining in-service training is made complex, not only by the range of factors involved, but also by the choice of the suitable trainer input style to adopt. In addition, from the large body of existing literature related to learning theories, we have focused on learner strategies which have attracted a great deal of interest in recent years. We have also touched on the question of learner training by choosing the appropriate tools which best suit the learners' needs. Finally the researcher has tried to introduce the notion of leader in the language classroom so as to suggest possible ways of redefining learner and teacher roles.

## Notes

1. Learning strategies are specified actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more affective, and more transferrable to new situations. In other words, learning strategies are tools used by learners to solve a problem, to fulfill a task, to meet an objective, or to attain a goal. (For a detailed discussion of learning strategies see O' Malley et al. 1990: 44-54).

2. Social strategies provide increased interaction and more empathetic understanding, two qualities necessary to reach communicative competence. Refer to features of language learning strategies below



### Language learning strategies.

Source: Rebecca L.; 1990; Language learning strategies.

3 Tarone (1981: 65) points out that " the term communication strategies relates to a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. (Meaning structures here include both linguistic and sociolinguistic rule structures) ". This implies that the problem and the

attempt to solve, it will be observable in performance data thus making the researcher's task of identification of communication strategies quite easy.

4. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse.



## GENERAL CONCLUSION

The work herein was undertaken to obtain systematic feedback from teachers and learners' verbal interaction. In all four instructional contexts, i. e. AHFC, RU, COS, and COM, observation has been used for process-oriented research goals. That is, we have analysed four foreign language lessons to provide information about what actually goes on between teachers and learners in both pedagogical and linguistic interactional terms. In addition, we wanted to see how the division of management activities is organised in a more or less directive methodology.

Conscious of the very limited sampling we have observed, it would have been too pretentious to affirm that we have reached definitive conclusions. That is why, we can only expose certain aspects of interaction from the analysis.

First, we discussed the different types of data that were gathered to analyse foreign language classroom discourse wherein audio and video recordings supplemented by an ethnographic questionnaire, a teacher's diary, and a grid of observation represented the main bulk of the data for the present study.

We then reviewed the literature through a brief survey of some approaches to classroom interaction research. Indeed, it is high time researchers took into consideration the new trends in the field of second language discourse to develop a valuable approach to management in the language teaching field.

This is what we have endeavoured to elucidate through the macro and micro analysis of activities used in the pedagogic discourse wherein the way class interaction was done would help us to define the type (i. e. collective individual) of work done in class settings.

On the whole, we have noticed that there are two kinds of constraints within class settings: discursive constraints related to discourse proper to a pedagogic situation, and interactional constraints related to the participants' behaviours. Thus, in a course wherein the interactional study is too rigid, the discourse itself is very limited. In addition, the most important variable is, indeed, the degree of control the teacher has over the class. This fact is not necessarily in relation with the type of methods used. That is why, we notice, for example, that the lessons AHTC, RU, and COS are more directive as the teachers spend most of their time asking and making pupils repeat utterances. Hence, less pupils' contribution lead to the absence of strategy uses.

In this way, the salient exchange is, in this case, the classical exchange 'question-answer'. The teacher exerts his power by continually asking the pupils and controlling their answers. Being in a position where he always asks questions, learners can only wait for their turn to give answers. To put it another way, there is a mutual tendency from the pupils not only to consider the teacher as the 'leader' of the discourse, but to look for his continual approbation as well. This obviously shows the dependence state that the learners suffer from in any pedagogic situation. Such attitude will certainly deprive the learners from their right and obligation to share the management of the activities and their proper learning.

A reasonable general conclusion about the lesson COM is that the lack of interactional constraints not only reduces the amount of rigidity, but made the verbal discourse more flexible. Within this context, the method used by the teacher has proved to be significant as learners contributed a lot to classroom discourse.

Even if interaction is different, the way the activities of management are shared between teacher and learners are similar. We have, thus, proved that teachers not only control the major part of management but are also in charge of the pedagogical activities planning. Drawing on this last observation, one can hypothesize that the learner never shares the decisions related to learning that is the management of his own learning.

The last part is concerned with the possible implementation of learner training in our institutions in order to provide teachers and learners alike with new tools to improve the teaching/learning task. In addition, some teaching strategies and in-service training were put forward so as to be progressively introduced in the overall repertoire of teachers and learners.

If any conclusion is to be drawn from the present study, it is that the current situation of the class must change in order to avoid the management of a given lesson being felt by the teacher as a hard task imposed as a matter of fact (i. e., automatically), but as a pedagogic activity efficiently performed. The teacher must abandon his authoritarian role and his "determination to do everything in class". Indeed, the goodwill of 'controlling' becomes the cause of the teacher's irritability due to the great amount of work he has to do both in class and at home. Moreover, this situation generates boredom and many restrictions for the learner.

Therefore, we think, on the contrary, that the management of a course must be a natural condition of the process of learning. To reach a learning situation where all the activities of management are adequately distributed among the participants, the notion of the teacher has to be reconsidered. To put it another way, we need to drop the idea of a teacher who 'gives' and a learner who always 'takes', specially with real beginners.

Our experience shows that whatever the methodology used in a class, it is usually not what the teacher has proposed to do that takes place. Hence, the lessons rarely happen as the teacher has scheduled. As the teacher cannot plan the nature of the learners' contribution in a class, they can oblige the teacher to change both the content and the strategy in some circumstances.

It is within this framework that our research could progress. One recommendation we make is that it is very interesting to develop this notion of management and to analyse how learners can modify, the course of a lesson and negotiate the content with the teacher. In this way, teachers become more aware of



their pedagogy and more self critical. Trainers, teachers and learners can not only understand better interaction in a classroom and be ready to solve problems related to the organisation of courses but also plan an adequate division of activities of management and responsibilities among participants.

In sum, we hope that all those who are directly concerned with the teaching of foreign languages as investigators, teachers, and course designers will take the question of interaction in classrooms by exploring the relationship between learners' strategies in the classroom and learning outcomes. Given this caution for further research of foreign language instruction in classrooms, real promise for the development of L2 in our country will be ensured.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Pedagogic Activities

#### 1. Giving information explanation

T: Ali...is...from Sidi-Bel Abbes. too...he is a journalist...Ali is a journalist. Yes...

#### 2. Asking for information explanation

T : Yes, you have finished ?...

T : You have understood ?...

PP: Page? page? page?...

#### 3. Requesting

T: Where does he go?...

T: ...where do you live?...where do you live?...

#### 4. Pointing out

T: ...and you?...

T: Yes, you...

T: ... the others...

#### 5. Providing directives

T: Yes, Farida...stand up...

T: You split ... ( + ) ...into ( + ) ...groups of four...

#### 6. Providing indication

T: Very...( 'an intruder gets into the classroom )...

T: If I eat a lot of sweets...I will get fat...

T: ...I eat ... ( the other pupils try to help their friend )...

#### 7. Correcting

PPS: ...to the hotel...miss, miss, miss...

T : The receptionist...

T : Illness...

NB : This category helps us to define who corrects directly the errors taking into account their frequency.

#### 8. Evaluating

This category includes all the 'yes', 'no', 'well', 'yes...very good', 'OK, etc which aim at evaluating an answer or behaviour.

#### 9. Controlling the comprehension

T : Ali...is?

PPS : Journalist...

T : He is? ...from?...

PPS : Sidi-Bel-Abbes...



## 10. Summarizing/simplifying reformulating

T : And...he...he meets...(T shows picture) ...the ...receptionist...the receptionist...yes...

## 11. Answering linguistically

This class of acts includes all the answers given after a request such as 'question-answer' found in any interactional analysis methods. The function of these answers is to prove to the teacher that the learner is able both to use a certain structure and to show that he has understood a lesson.

## 12. Answering non-linguistically

This happens when the learner stands up and writes a word sentence on the board.

## 13. Repeating

We have classified, here, all the utterances repeated by the learners after the teacher's model and correction.

T : He goes...

P : He goes to the hotel...

T : To the hotel ...

P : To the hotel ...

T : ... ( + ) ...yes...you...

P2 : If I eat a lot of cakes, I will get fat...

## 15. Acknowledging

This happens when a pupil answers, after raising his hand and being acknowledged by the teacher.

T : Yes... (with the hand interrogates a boy) ...

T : Algeria...right (interrogates a student by using his hand) ...

## 14 Bidding

This category includes the utterances like 'Sir' 'Miss'.

## 16. Checking

T : Good ... Are you ready? ...

T : What's the matter? Repeat ... you ...

T : Is it correct? ...

## 17. Accepting

T : Is it correct?

PPS : No...

T : Sunny all the year? ... ( with a gesture ) ...

STS : No ...No ...

## Appendix 2: Transcript of lesson AHTC

- T : ( Teacher pins photographs on the bb ) Number five ... yes ... ( then teacher interrogates a pp with the hand )
- PP : Number five is an elephant ...
- T : Very good ... ( T interrogates with the hand simultaneously )
- PP : Number five is an ele... an elephan...
- T : Repeat once more ( T interrogates with the hand ) ... repeat once once more . number five is an elephant ...
- PP : An ...-an ( P prolongs the sound 'n' ) ...elephant ...
- PPS : elephant...
- T : Repeat once more ... number five ( T shows number five on bb ) is an elephant ...
- PP : Number five is an elephant ...
- T : Very good ... ( T interrogates simultaneously another P sitting at the front right )
- PP : Number five is an elephant ...
- T : Yes ... ( T interrogates another P sitting at the front middle )
- PP : Number five is an elephant ...
- T : Okay ... ( + ) number three ( T points at picture number three )
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir, sir, ...
- T : Yes ...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir, ...
- T : ( Raises his hand to look for a P to be interrogated ( + ) )
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir, ...
- T : Hake'm ... number three...
- PP : Number three is a ... ( + )
- PP : ( Another P stands up ) Sir ... ( + )
- T : What's the matter ? Repeat ... you ...
- PP : Number three is a ... is a snake ( mispronounced snake ) ...
- PPS : Snake ? ( PPS correct their friend ) ...
- T : Is it correct ? ...
- PPS : No !
- T : ( Uses his hand to interrogate another P ) ...
- PP : Number five is a snake...
- T : Is a snake ( stresses on snake ) ... ( Then, T interrogates another P using his hand ) ...
- PP : Number three is a snake ...
- T : Yes... ( interrogates with the hand ) ...
- PP : Number three is a snake ...
- T : ( Interrogates a P with the hand ) ...
- PP : Number three is a snake ...
- T : Is a snake... good... now... ( T points by knocking on number one ) yes... ( interrogates with the hand )
- PP : Number one is... ( + ) ... a tiger...
- T : Is it correct ? ...
- PP : No ! ...
- T : Yes...
- PP : Camel... number one...

- PPS : Sir, sir, sir...
- T : Interrogates a P by using his hand )...
- PP : Number one is a camel...
- T : ( Interrogates the P who failed to give a correct answer ) yes, Soufi...
- PP : Number one is a camel...
- T : Repeat Sarah...
- PP : Number one is camel...
- T : ( After having introduced pictures with their respective nouns through repetition, T checks what he has already introduced . T interrogates by using his hand )...
- PP : Number eight is a lion...
- T : Number eight is a lion , good:...
- PP : Number eight is a lion...
- T : Number nine...number nine...Hakem...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir...
- PP : Number nine is a ( - - ) ( inaudible )...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- T : Hein ! ( T interrogates with the hand ) yes...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir...
- PP : Number nine is a cow...
- T : Number nine is a cow...  
Number five ? Number five ?...yes...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- PP : Number five is an...ele...an elephant...elephant...an elephant...
- T : Very good...( interrogates with his hand )...
- PP : Number five is an elephant...
- T : ( Interrogates with his hand )...
- PP : Number five is an elephant...
- T : ( Interrogates with his hand )...
- PP : Number five is an ele...an elephant...
- T : Number four...number four...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- T : Yes, Farida...stand up, please...
- PP : Number four...number four...four is a ... ( - ) ...er... er...horse...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir,...
- T : Is a horse...repeat...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- PP : Number four is horse...
- T : Yes...
- PP : Number four is a horse...
- T : ( Interrogates with the hand )...
- PP : Number four is a horse...
- T : Is a horse...
- PP : Number seven ? ( A P P wants to answer )...
- PPS : Sir, sir, sir, sir,...
- T : Yes...
- PP : Number seven is a tiger...



T : Is a...ti...ger...yes...  
PP : Number seven is a tiger...  
T : Yes... ( interrogates a pupil with the hand )...  
PP : Boumalek... ( inaudible )...  
T : Number seven...  
PP : Number seven...is a tiger...  
T : Is a...ti...ger...

**APPENDIX 3** : Transcript of RU

- T : Yes ( + ) ...so...listen...the con...the conference is finished...and...you're...  
 ( gestures to explain to sleep )...
- PPS : To sleep...
- T : Where does he go ?...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss, miss...hotel...
- T : Where does he go ?...
- PPS : Miss, miss, hotel, miss, miss. ( too much noise )...at a hotel...
- T : Yes...
- PP : He go in a hotel...
- T : He goes...
- P1 : He goes to the hotel...
- T : To the hotel...
- P2 : To the hotel...
- T : Yes...very good...
- P3 : He goes...to...to the hotel...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss, miss...
- T : To the hotel...yes...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss, miss...
- P : He goes to the hotel...
- T : To the hotel...yes...
- PP : He has... ( Inaudible )...
- T : He goes...
- PPS : To the hotel...miss, miss, miss...
- T : He goes...
- P1 : He goes...euh...
- PPS : To the hotel...
- P1 : To the hotel...
- T : To the hotel...yes... ( + )...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss, miss...
- T : He goes...
- PPS : To the hotel...
- T : And...he...he meets...( T shows a picture ) ...the ...the receptionist...the  
 receptionist...yes...
- PP : Receptionist...
- T : He meets...the receptionist...
- PP : He meets the receptionist...
- T : Yes...
- PP : ( inaudible )...the receptionist...
- T : The receptionist...
- PP : The receptionist...
- T : The receptionist...
- PP : The receptionist...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss...
- T : Without miss...yes, stand up...

PP : The receptionist...

T : Receptionist...

PP : Receptionist...

T : Yes...

PPS : The receptionist...

T : ( Interrogates aPP with the hand )...

PP : Receptionist...



## APPENDIX 4 : Transcript of COS

- T : Yes...repeat...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss...
- T : If I eat a lot of sweets...I will get fat...yes you...
- PP : If I eat...euh euh...a lot of sweets...I will get...
- T : Yes...
- PP : If I eat a lot of sweets...I will get fat...
- T : Yes...
- PP : If I...eat a lot sweets, I will get fat...
- T PP: Yes...
- : If I eat a lot of sweets,I will get fat...
- T : Yes, very good...now...cakes...
- PPS : Miss, miss, miss, miss...
- T : Yes... ( uses her hand to interrogate a PP )...
- P1 : If I eat a lot of cakes, I will get fat...
- T : ( Uses her hand to interrogate another P ) yes...you...
- P2 : If I eat a lot of cakes, I will get fat...
- T : Yes... ( uses her to interrogate ) you... ( someone knocks at the door )...
- P3 : room...he he asks the teacher for the brush and goes out )...
- T : Interrogates a PP at the back...
- P4 : If I eat a lot of sweets, I will...get...fat...
- T : I will... get fat...yes... ( uses her to interrogate a PP ) yes...
- P5 : If I eat a lot of cakes, I will get fat...
- T : Now ( T writes the word ' chocolates on the BB ) chocolate... : If I eat a lot of cakes,I will get fat... ( PPS start to laugh as a PP gets inside the room)
- PPS : Yes, yes, miss, yes, miss...
- T : Yes...( she interrogates a PP )...
- P6 : If I eat a lot of chocolate, I will get fat...
- T : Yes, yes...good... ( interrogates another PP ) yes...
- P7 : If I eat a lot of chocolate, I will get fat...
- T : Yes... ( uses her hand to interrogate another PP )...
- P8 : If I eat a lot of chocolate... ( cough )...I will get fat...
- T : Yes... ( interrogates another PP )...
- P9 : If I... ( cough )...If I... ( cough )...eat a lot of chocolate,I...will...get fat...
- T : ( interrogates another PP with the hand ) you...yes... ( inaudible )...
- P10 : If I eat... ( PP unable to finish )...
- T : I eat... ( a PP tries to help him )...
- P11 : ...a lot of chocolate, I will get fat...
- T : ...fat...yes...now... ( T writes on the BB ' an illness ' )...an illness...yes...I will be ill...
- PPS : Miss, miss...
- T : ...I...illness...
- PPS : Miss, miss...
- T : The others...If I eat a lot sweets... ( T uses gestures, i.e. hand, mouth, and lips)...
- PPS : ...I will...
- T : I will get...

- PPS : An illness...miss, miss, miss...  
T : ( interrogates a PP with the hand )...yes...  
PP : If I...eat a ...lot of chocolate...I will...get...  
T : ...I will... ( T writes on the BB ' have ' )...have...  
PP : ...I will have an illness...  
T : Yes... ( interrogates another PP )...  
PP : If I eat a lot of cakes, I... ( cough in the room ) ...I will get ...an illness...  
T : Illness...yes...the others... ( interrogates a PP )...  
PP : If I eat a lot of cakes ( noise in the room )...I will have an illness...  
T : An illness...yes...

## APPENDIX 5 : Transcript of COM

- T : Okay...euh... ( + ) ...where do you live ?...where do you live ?...  
 ST : I live...  
 T : Yes...( interrogates by using his hand )...  
 ST : Sidi-Bel- Abbes...and you...( interrogates a ST by using his hand )...  
 ST : ( inaudible )...  
 T : In ?...  
 ST : ( inaudible )...  
 T : Where ?...  
 ST : Sidi-Bel-Abbes...  
 T : Sidi-Bel-Abbes...and you ?...  
 ST : In Tessala...  
 T : Hein !  
 ST : Tessala...  
 T : Tessala...and you ?...  
 ST : Sidi-Bel-Abbes...  
 T : Where exactly ?... ( interrogates with the hand )...where exactly ?  
 ST : Sidi-Bel-Abbes...  
 T : Where ?...  
 ST : In Sidi-Bel-Abbes...  
 STS : Bel-Abbes...Bel-Abbes...  
 T : Bel-Abbes, Bel-Abbes, Bel-Abbes...  
 ST : ( Inaudible )...  
 T : ( inaudible )...and you ?...  
 ST : Bel-Abbes...  
 T : Bel-Abbes...so...( + )...where is... ( + )...Sidi-Bel-Abbes...( + )...situated ? ( T  
 interrogates a ST by using his hand )...  
 ST : Sir...( noise of chairs )...  
 ST : Bel-Abbes is situated in the north west of Algeria...of Algeria...  
 T : Algeria...right...( interrogates a ST by using his hand )...yes...  
 ST : Bel-Abbes is in the north west of Algeria...  
 T : North west of Algeria...  
 ST : Sir...  
 T : ( Interrogates the same ST by using his hand )...  
 ST : Bel-Abbes euh...is in the north west in...of Algeria...  
 T : What about Tessala ? ( interrogates a ST from Tessala )...  
 ST : Tessala is a...in...the north west of er...Sidi-Bel-Abbes...Sidi-Bel-Abbes...  
 T : And in Sidi-Bel-Abbes...what is the wheather like ?...  
 ST : Sunny...sunny, sir, sir, sir...  
 T : What's the weather like ? ( + ) in Sidi-Bel-Abbes ( + )...  
 STS : Sir, sir, sir...  
 ST : Sunny...  
 STS : Sunny...sir, sir, sir, sir...  
 T : It's sunny ? ...  
 ST : Yes...



- STS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- T : Sunny...all the year ? ( uses a gestures )...
- STS : No...no...
- ST : Yesterday...spring...
- ST : Spring, spring...
- STS : Sir, sir, sir, sir....
- T : When?...
- ST : Yesterday...sunny...
- STS : Sir, sir, sir, sir...
- T : When?...
- ST : Sir...
- T : Yes...
- ST : It is sometimes...euh...very cold...and sometimes...er...sometimes very hot...
- T : Very...( an intruder gets into the classroom )...
- ST : Hot...
- T : (+)...right...okay...( ++ )...( T looks for pins and slips of paper )...( Harhira...be quick, please...the intruder is looking for a book )...do you remember ? ( T pins slips of paper on the walls of the room )...( -- )...yes...
- ST : ( Inaudible )...( noise of chairs around )...
- T : You split...( + )...into...( + )...groups of four...
- STS : Yes...
- T : First group...( T uses his hand )...
- STS : Yes...
- T : Second group...( T uses a gesture )...
- STS : Second...
- T : Third group...( T uses a gesture )...fourth group...( T uses a gesture )...okay?...  
( T claps his hand )...quickly...( too much noise- movements of chairs and students'talk )...good...are you ready?...
- STS : Yes...
- T : One...two...three...( T initiate the message dictation technique and creates sort of competition )...
- ST : ... (use of the mother tongue )...
- T : Shut...okay...( + ) ...one at a time...

**APPENDIX 6: Grid of Observation**

TIME	SPOKEN DISCOURSE	WRITTEN DISCOURSE	OBSERVATIONS
15.09.		<p>Tuesday, April 26th, 1994</p> <p>Unit 4</p> <p>Lesson Read</p> <p>Sidioune Mourad Av.</p> <p>MOSQUE    CASINO    SCHOOL</p> <p>Ben M'Hadji Avenue</p> <p>LIBRARY    HOTEL</p>	<p>T. writes date + unit on bb</p> <p>Then, starts drawing a plan.</p> <p>Revision of the previous lesson.</p>
15.12	<p>Zohair is near the mosque, show him the way to the library...</p> <p>PP1 → PP2 → PP3 → PP4, etc.</p>		<p>T. introduces the topic then asks PPS to show the way.</p>

## APPENDIX 7: Questionnaire

A : Which of the activities below do you use in your teaching ?

TYPE OF ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY		
	Never	Sometimes	Regularly
1. Collective activity			
2. Group activity			
3. Pair activity			
4. Individual activity			

B : Which one ( s ) do you favour ? Why ?

.....

.....

C : Tick the approach ( es ) / method ( s ) you use in your teaching.  
Put a cross ( + ) before the approach ( es ) / method ( s ) you don't know.

APPROACH / METHOD	USE	DON'T KNOW
1. Grammar-Translation		
2. Audio-Lingual		
3. Structural Approach		
4. Direct Method		
5. Notional / Functional		
6. Communicative Approach		
7. Silent Way		
8. Suggestopedia		

## APPENDIX 8: Class/group aims

An example of a set of class group aims drawn up by a class of IAS school learners.  
Our aims: example  
To understand English grammar  
To be able to write in English  
To be able to read newspapers, books, and magazines  
To be able to speak English correctly, etc.



## APPENDIX 8: Class/group aims

An example of a set of class/group aims drawn up by a class of IAS school learners.

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To be able to write in English

To be able to read newspapers, books, and magazines

To be able to speak English correctly, etc.

## APPENDIX 9: Learner Diary: Talking about Daily Work

1. What did you do in class today ? List the activities.

.....

.....

2. What did each activity help you to improve ?

S- Speaking  
 R- Reading  
 G- Grammar  
 V- Vocabulary  
 L- Listening  
 W- Writing

3. Mention the way you learn English

For example, describing a place : S/W

4. Did you reach your goal ( s ) in this course ? Which one ( s ) ?

.....

.....

5. List what you have done ' alone ' outside the school this week.  
 For example, reading English books, etc.

Speaking English  
 Listening to English songs/radio  
 Writing letter( s )  
 Using the library  
 Working with a friend/father, etc.

## APPENDIX 10: Learner Diary

### 1. Activities:

- .1 Tutor + school learners' discussion
- .2 Roleplay
- .3 Discussion-general knowledge

### 2. Helped to improve

- .1 Speaking and vocabulary
- .2 Speaking, confidence in using the language
- .3 Vocabulary, speaking

### 3. Helped to achieve aims, i.e. in appendices 5, 6

### 4. Learning activities outside class :

What do you do in order to improve your language ( check 'yes' or 'no' )

- 4.1 Watching English T.V programmes (yes / no )
- 4.2 Reading newspapers ( yes / no )
- 4.3 Listening to English T.V programme ( yes / no )
- 4.4 Discussing with friends ( yes / no )
- 4.5 Writing a letter( s ) ( yes / no )
- 4.6 Reading books in the language ( yes / no )



**APPENDIX 11: Learner -assessment**

Name: ..... Date: .....  
 How did I do in class today ?

ACTIVITY	GOOD	OK	I MUST TRY HARDER
SPEAKING			
LISTENING			
GRAMMAR			
VOCABULARY			

Vocabulary: I learnt ..... new words in English today.

.....  
 .....  
 .....

Grammar: I learnt

.....  
 .....

Speaking: I learnt how to

.....  
 .....

Give yourself a score out of 10

10 = highest

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

00 = lowest

**APPENDIX 12:** Circular Number 022/122/93.

To introduce progressively (starting from the academic year 1993-94) the English language as the first foreign language (i.e., at the level of French) within some Algerian primary schools, it had been decided what follows:

- 1- Programme: a teaching programme was designed for the fourth year of the Foundation School (i.e., syllabus, pupil's book, exercise copybook).
- 2- Time: the amount of teaching hours is 6 (i.e., 5 hours devoted to teaching plus 1 hour of remedial work).
- 3- Teachers: middle school teachers will be in charge of teaching English in the fourth year of the Foundation School.
- 4- Teachers' timetable: a teacher must be in charge of 2 or 3 forms either in one, two, or even three primary schools located in the same area. In all, a teacher must not only have an amount of 6 teaching hours but also attend 3 hours in the nearest ITE as part of pre-service training.