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**Improving the Quality of Interaction in the Algerian  
Foreign Language Classes  
Case Study: Third Year Literary Class  
at Zaaticha Secondary School in Biskra**

**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
Magister Degree in the Didactics of English.**

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**Year: 2011**

## Dedication

I dedicate this work

To the memory of my parents

To my husband Ahmidouche, for his patience and encouragements

To my brothers and sisters

To my aunt Fadhma

To my nephews Azize ,Karim,Menad,Amine and Momoh

To my niece Farah

To all my family

To my post-graduate teachers

To my post-graduate friends

To all my friends

## Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank Doctor Derradji Salah ,my supervisor , who provided me with many forms of assistance and whose valuable comments and suggestions and encouragements were of great help in completing this study

I would also wish to thank Doctor Keskes Said who inspired my interest in classroom interaction .This research paper would not have been possible without his immense support ,honesty ,advice and constructive guidance .

I owe a special note of gratitude to Pr. Hacène SAADI for being so patient with my questions whenever I felt frustrated. Many of our ideas and examples are from his lectures in Research Methodology .He is really a model of a great researcher and educator.

I want to thank my post-graduate teachers Dr. Hacène HAMADA ,Dr. Lakehal-Ayat karima and Mr Bouzidi for their valuable knowledge during our post-graduation .

I wish to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my family members,my husband and friends , whose assistance, patience , love and best wishes were a source of inspiration,encouragement and motivation for me .

I especially want to thank my best friends Ouali Chafa ,Chabane Farida,Amel Boudjemaa and Doufene Madjid who largely contributed to the elaboration and completion of this work.

I also want to show my gratitude to my participants for being patient and cooperative throughout the data-collection process.

## Abstract

The purpose of this descriptive classroom-centred research study is to improve the quality of interaction in the Algerian foreign language classes. Its primary aim is to identify the causes of the poor performance in the speaking skill of third year literary class at Zaaticha secondary school in Biskra , concentrating on the learner's classroom speaking opportunities and the quality of interaction that is offered to them . Questionnaires and classroom observation are used as instruments of data collection. The audio-taped data are transcribed and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The major findings of this research reveal that the teacher- learner interaction is dominated by the (teacher initiation-learner response-teacher follow-up) sequence. The data shows how the heavy reliance on this pattern in classroom interaction constrains the learners opportunities to participate in an authentic communication. Drawing from the findings a range of pedagogical implications have been suggested for secondary school teachers. Using simulations, role playing, limiting the use of display questions and increasing interactional feedback strategies will provide learners with more opportunities to use authentic communication and to make learning stimulating and enjoyable.

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## Clarification of Concepts and Abbreviations

### Abbreviations

- **C.B.A:** Competency Based Approach
- **CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching
- **FL** = foreign language
- **IRF:**( teacher initiation-learner response-teacher follow-up)
- **TL** = target language
- **SLA:** Second language Acquisition

### Clarification of Concepts:

- **Authentic communication** (or genuine communication ) :It is defined as follows:

*Genuine communication is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs. (Nunan 1987:137,cited by Cullen,1998 ; Seedhouse ,1996)*

- **Authentic task** is an assignment given to learners designed to assess their ability to apply standard driven knowledge and skills to real world challenges.
- **English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners and Teachers:** are those who are learning or teaching English while living in a community where English is not spoken as a first language.
- **English as a Second Language (ESL) Learners and Teachers:** are those who are learning and teaching English while living in a community where English is spoken as a first language.



•**Language Acquisition and Language Learning:** *Acquisition* is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. *Learning* is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process, which results in conscious knowledge about the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules (Krashen, 1985: 2).

**Note:** In order to avoid any confusion, these two terms are used in this dissertation and sometimes the term *Acquisition* encompasses *Learning* as well.

• **Second Language (L2):** In this dissertation the term refers to any language other than the first language learned.

•**Task** : is primarily meaning-focused activity(ies) with an outcome that demand(s) learners to use their own linguistic resources of the target language in the process to arrive at the outcome.

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## General Introduction

### 1 . Statement of the Problem

A good mastery of a foreign language implies mostly speaking it correctly, fluently and appropriately, i.e. the ability to communicate clearly and successfully using the target language. Proficiency in speaking is attained if learners are able to accomplish basic communicative transactions in English and are completely comfortable when expressing themselves in different authentic conversational situations. The effectiveness of teaching the speaking skill in the foreign language classes depends upon what is being taught and the way it is taught (Widdowson, 1990). All the aspects of the authentic conversational situations are taken into consideration by researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning studies to explain the process and devise the best methods, strategies and techniques to teach the speaking skill within classroom settings.

Teaching the speaking skill is an essential task to be achieved in foreign language learning. Equally important is the assistance of the learner in developing the discourse patterns useful to both understand and express ideas in English. Such a methodology fosters more learners' participation in the process of learning and can reawaken their interest and motivation and the focus of instruction moves to experiencing English as a tool for meaningful communication .

According to our investigation , many learners during their last year in the secondary school in Biskra and even those entering the university to study English have still not mastered the speaking skill .All teachers, either at the university level or in the secondary schools acknowledge the existence of the gap between communicative competence and the years of language instruction among the learners. Spontaneity that characterizes the speaking skill is absent together with a certain level of fluency and accuracy required at this level of learning.



Now many linguists( Allwright ,1984;Littlewood ,1981; Davies, 2000;Thornbury, 2005) and foreign language teachers agree on the fact that students learn to speak in the second language by interacting . Communicative language teaching and collaborative learning serve best for this aim. Communicative language teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. By using this method in foreign language classes, students will have the opportunity of communicating with each other in the target language. In brief, teachers should create a classroom environment where learners have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language learning . This can occur when students collaborate in groups to achieve a goal or to complete a task. Recent communicative approaches have suggested that one goal of English language teaching should be to replicate *genuine* or *natural* rather than *typical* or *traditional* classroom communication.

In the foreign language classroom interaction is very important .In fact, there is a considerable body of research that demonstrates that deep and lasting learning is fostered when learners actively take part with what they are learning and constructing their own understanding of them. Some activities as class discussions, debates, questioning, and explaining do support active learning.

Ellis (1994) defines interaction as when the participants of equal status that share similar needs, make an effort to understand each other.

Long (1983, 1980) points to the importance of the interactional modifications that occur in negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises. In other words, Long's argument is that interactive input is more important than non-interactive input.

In fact, learners need something more than what they are getting in their current learning in order to improve their proficiency in the use of the target language.They need more methods that foster an authentic communication . Developing foreign

language learners' speaking abilities requires the creation of free, oral communicative activities in the classroom, i.e. speaking activities whose objective is to communicate feelings, exchange personal ideas, meanings, and interact autonomously orally in the foreign language classroom (Littlewood 1981, Davies 2000, Thornbury 2005). With this aim, various speaking activities can contribute a great deal in developing basic interactive skills necessary for communication. These activities make learners more active in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful and exciting to them. What is the quality of interaction in the English language classes in Biskra ?

## **2 . Significance of the Study**

The fact that the majority of learners face difficulties when conducting a free conversation in a class or outside with their teachers or with their friends (this concerns the overwhelming majority) is indeed very problematic as a situation. All teachers in the secondary schools in Biskra agree on the poor performance in the speaking skill of the majority of the learners of the literary classes and recognize the existence of a big gap between the learners' communicative competence and the years of language instruction.

## **3 . Aim of the Study**

This research aims at identifying the causes of the poor performance in the speaking skill of the learners in their last year in the secondary school. In particular, we will focus on the learners' classroom speaking opportunities and the quality of interaction that is offered to them. The research is descriptive, as such, the results that will be reached will concern only the studied population (internal validity), which can not be generalized to other classroom contexts (external validity). This will necessitate the carrying out, by other researchers, of similar research in similar classroom settings.

## 4 . Research Questions

This research aims at identifying the main cause of the difficulties that learners face when they perform the oral skill during their last year in the secondary school. In order to reach such an objective, we have devised the following basic questions that we seek to answer throughout this research:

1. Why do most of our learners fail in acquiring the speaking skill when they finish the secondary school courses?
2. What is the quality of interaction that is provided for learners at this stage of learning.
- 3.What is the amount of *genuine* communication in English language classes?
- 4.Is negotiated interaction has a place in the English language classes?

## 5 . Hypotheses

In the present study, our main concern is to find out the elements that are behind the learners' poor performance in the speaking skill during their last year in the secondary school .It is generally claimed that the majority of the learners are not capable to conduct a free conversation in the class or outside when speaking with their friends . In some cases they are not even able to make a correct statement in relation to a given situation. Thus, we advance the two following hypotheses that we seek to verify through this investigation.

**H1):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind the poor quality of interaction would appear to be the dominance of IRF cycle (teacher initiation-learner response-teacher follow-up)

**H2):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind learners' poor performance in the speaking skill would appear to be due to the lack of interaction involving *genuine* communication.

## 6. Population

We have chosen to work with third year literary classes for two reasons : The main reason is due to a long experience as a teacher with this level .The second reason is that English is taught as one of the major subject matters for literary stream classes, which means that teachers are expected to devote more time for speaking activities . To obtain information about the quality of interaction in the classroom we need a random sampling of the school to be taken as a sample to illustrate the problem, always with the random sampling, we select one class to carry the classroom observation .

## 7. Data-Collection and Methodological Procedures

The present study is carried out to investigate the causes of the poor performance in the speaking skill of the learners in their last year in the secondary school, with the aim of revealing the causes, we will focus on the students' classroom speaking opportunities and the quality of interaction that is offered to them. This study can be considered as a classroom-centred research. Classroom centered research (or simply classroom research) is taken by Allright and Baily (2002) as a cover-term for a whole range of research studies on language learning and teaching classrooms. Whatever the interest of the researchers in the language classroom, one common characteristic of classroom research is that it is generally descriptive in nature. It involves observation, recording and transcription (Van Lier, 1983).

The first part of the investigation is carried out with the use of two preliminary questionnaires: One for the students and another for the teachers . What can be retained here is that these preliminary questionnaires are the means with which we have identified our research problem and their use is only limited to the first part of the study. The second part of our investigation, which is the main part, is carried out using another type of data collection procedure which is classroom observation. This

research tool is also the means through which we verify our research hypotheses and try to answer our research questions.

Classroom observation is used as a supplementary technique to collect data in this study. Robson (1993:192) states that

*Observation ,in part, because it can take on a variety of forms,can be used for several purposes in a study. It is commonly used in an exploratory phase typically in an unstructured form...Observation can also be used as a supportive or supplementary technique to collect data that may complement or set in perspective data obtained by other means.*

Dörnyei (2007 :178) stresses the importance of classroom; observation as a tool of research :

*Besides asking questions, observing the world around us is the other basic human activity that all of us have been involved in since baby-hood to learn and gain understanding. From a research perspective, observation is fundamentally different from questioning because it provides direct information rather self-report accounts.*

*The secret of good observation is to create the unusual from the common place( Walker,cited by Stenhouse ,1975,cited by Nunan,1992:91) .*

The main advantage of observational data is that it permits the researcher to see directly into the classroom without relying on what they say. Therefore, there is a certain amount of objectivity in such data comparing to second hand self-report data. Observation is a valuable tool with participants with weak verbal skills. Stating the

different disadvantages of observational data , Dörnyei (2007) argues that only the observable phenomena can be observable. However in classroom learning process so many key variables and processes are mental, so they are unobservable. Moreover, recording a phenomenon does not imply understanding the reasons why it has happened. Another technical issue mentioned earlier with regard to video taping also applies to observation in general is that such tools affect or bias the participants behaviour. *The quality of observational data is dependent on the skill with which the researcher conducts the observation* (Dörnyei, 2007: 186).

The current study conformed to the aim of less-structured observation because we did not use a coding scheme or previously defined categories (Robson,1993). A very structured observation would have given us a very limited view of classroom behaviours .In order to take a full account of classroom interaction of the selected setting; we acted as a passive observer. This role has no interaction with the participants during data collection procedure. Being a passive observer and using audio -recording are useful techniques to be less unobtrusive as possible in order to minimize the effect on the data collected.

## **8. Description of the Study**

This dissertation is an attempt to improve the quality of interaction in the foreign language teaching classes, taking as a case study the third year literary stream pupils at Zaaticha secondary school in Biskra . As such, it aims at identifying the main causes behind the poor performance in the speaking skill by analysing the different aspects of classroom interaction.

The study comprises four chapters. Chapter one is devoted to the nature of the speaking skill and the different components of the communicative competence together with the teaching of the speaking skill within the Competency Based Approach (CBA), since it is the approach adopted in the secondary teaching materials.

Chapter two is composed of two sections: The first one deals with the theoretical issues concerning the concept of interaction. The second section of this chapter is devoted to a more specific aspect of the interaction hypothesis; it concerns classroom interaction.

Chapter three delineates and presents our research methodology, it includes three sections : The first section describes the methods and materials employed .The second section deals with the analysis of the learners 's and the teachers' preliminary questionnaires, these preliminary questionnaires are the means with which we have identified our research problem and their use is only limited to the first part of the investigation .The third section examines the findings related to the two hypotheses which will help us to reveal, and highlight some of the problematic areas of the poor quality of classroom interaction provided to our learners in the secondary school classes.

The fourth chapter includes some practical solutions, and suggestions in the form of pedagogical recommendations to secondary language teachers.

# Chapter One

## Literature Review: Speaking Skill

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# Chapter One

## Speaking Skill

### Introduction

According to Ur (1984:120),

*of all the four skills [...], speaking seems intuitively the most important: People who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing, and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak.*

A good command of the speaking skill in English is a priority for many second language or foreign language learners. Thus, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they have improved in their spoken language proficiency. Speaking is a complex process which needs to be understood in order to be taught and subsequently to be evaluated. Teaching speaking is a very important part of language learning; therefore, it is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking by providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place rather than leading learners to pure memorization. This chapter aims to describe and analyze the characteristics and aspects of the speaking skill. To achieve this aim, we divided it into three main sections. The first section explores the development of the speaking skill in the different foreign language methods and approaches. The second section involves a discussion of the nature of the spoken language in the light of the findings of the related literature. It examines the concept of communicative competence and its components as necessary elements that a foreign language learner must acquire to be a good speaker. The third section deals with the speaking skill within the coursebook designed for teaching English to secondary school learners in Algeria. The discussion's main emphasis is on the approach used and the officially set objectives, principles and aims.

## 1. Teaching Methods and Speaking

The aim of this section is to discuss briefly one of the most fundamental topics that lies at the heart of teaching foreign languages which is methods and approaches in relation to the teaching of the speaking skill. It involves clear definitions of some basic concepts and an overview of the different approaches and methods in relation to the speaking skill since our focus is on 3<sup>rd</sup> year literary classes oral performance.

Continuing in this vein Professor Meliani (1992:1) asserts:

*It is quite common for teachers and even linguists to talk, and write indiscriminately about approach, method and technique without any real distinction between these concepts. The aural approach, the translation approach, the direct method, the pattern- practice techniques, the grammar method are a few examples of the misuse of the mentioned terms.*

To prevent the reader from being lost in a maze of terminology increasingly renewed ( Meliani ,1992:1) ,the starting point of our analysis will be (Richards & Rogers, 2001) distinction between *method* ,*approach*, *design* and *procedure*. In their attempt to define what a method is, Richard & Rogers( 2001) use as a point of departure a three-part distinction made some years ago by Edward Antony's analysis of language-teaching practices using the term *approach*, *method* , and *technique*. However, Richard & Rogers(2001) prefer to modify Antony's terminology and use the word *method* as an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice to encompass within this overall concept these three terms: *approach*, *design*, and *procedure*.

For Richard & Rogers( 2001), the term *approach* refers to theories about language and language learning that outline language teaching practices. Design, however ,is the second level of method analysis which indicates the relationship of theories of language and language learning to both the form and function of level of method analysis is with the objectives of the method, how language content is selected

and organized, i.e. syllabus model, types of learning tasks and activities, and the role of the teacher and role of the learner. The final realization is within procedure which comprises the classroom techniques and practices that are consequences of particular approach and design.

Traditionally, language teaching has mainly been concerned with reading and writing. We analyse, as stated before, the most influential teaching methods in this section in order to have a better understanding of the language teaching theory and its application in the future teaching practice: Grammar-translation method, Direct method, Audio-lingual method, and Communicative teaching method.

### **1.1. Grammar Translation Method**

*Grammar translation method was the traditional way Latin and Greek were taught in Europe* (Richard& Schmidt, 2002:231) .Grammar translation method, just as the name suggests, emphasizes the teaching of second and foreign language grammar( Meliani ,1992) .Its primary focus is on memorization of verb paradigms, grammar rules and vocabulary. Its principle technique is translation of literary texts, however, the reading of difficult texts begins early in the course of study without paying attention to the content and all activities involving oral conversations are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue and vice-versa .Language learners are passive. It is a teacher-centred model. This ancient method has been facing various attacks from reformers because of the frustration felt by the learners because of the endless memorization of grammar rules and the vocabulary and the lack of language practice that can promote the development of speaking skill( Richards,& Rodgers,2001).

At the time of grammar translation method, communicative competence was not the main goal of foreign language teaching. Consequently, such method never emancipates learners from the dominance of first language and often leave school without acquiring the ability to converse in the target language. Despite of the severe

attacks, grammar-translation method is still used because grammar instruction and accuracy based instruction can complement communicative language teaching to raise learner's awareness of the form and structure of the target language( Richards& Rodgers,2001). Thus, thinking about formal aspect of the target language and using translation as a useful technique can only dismiss misunderstanding in the process of foreign language learning and put the learner in an active problem-solving situation.

## **1.2.The Direct Method**

The direct method came as reaction to the grammar-translation method, it is an attempt to use the target language as a means of instruction and communication in the language classroom and try to avoid the use of the first language and the technique of translation ( Meliani ,1992) .The literary language is replaced by the spoken language as the object of instruction. In this method, the learning of languages is analogous to the first language acquisition. Lessons start generally with dialogues integrating modern conversational style in the target language. The material is first presented orally with direct connection with objects and living ideas, the meaning of words or phrases is illustrated by performing the action they represent. The direct method was a first attempt to make the language learning situation one of the language use. Inventiveness on the part of teachers is highly required. New techniques in language teaching such as demonstrations of pictures and objects, spoken narratives, dictation and imitation are widely used ( Richards,& Rodgers,2001). Furthermore this method requires teachers who are native speakers or have native like fluency in the foreign language they teach. Thus, these requirements are difficult to be provided in practice.

## **1.3. The Audio-Lingual Method**

The audio-lingual method reflects the descriptive, structural linguistics of the fifties and sixties. Its psychological basis is behaviourism which interprets language learning in terms of stimulus and response, and reinforcement with a focus on successful error-free learning. Its basic principle is that language learning is a habit

formation. Language learning in the audio-lingual method necessitates the full mastery of the elements or the building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined. However; little or no grammatical explanations are provided because grammar is taught inductively and the skills are then sequenced as follows: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Richard& Schmidt, 2002).

This method uses dialogues as the chief means while presenting the language and stresses certain practice techniques, such as pattern drills, mimicry and memorization of a set of phrases and patters, which the learner has to repeat in the language laboratory so that he can produce them spontaneously in real situations . Listening and speaking were now brought right into the centre of the stage in this method ( Meliani ,1992) .Audio-lingual method is of some great contribution to language teaching by making foreign language learning accessible to ordinary people. It demands no great intellectual efforts of abstract reasoning to learn a language. Despite these contributions to language learning, it was criticized in many ways, Chomsky attacked its theoretic foundation as being unsound both in terms of language theory and language learning. Furthermore, student's failure to transfer the acquired skill to real communication outside the classroom within informal conversations is noticed shortly after.

### **1.3.Communicative Teaching Method**

It is the most recent approach to foreign and second language learning. The main goal is to create a realistic context for language acquisition in the classroom; the communicative competence is the main goal of this approach and develops procedures for teaching the four skills because of the interdependence of language and communication. The activities involve real communication and carry out meaningful tasks( Littlewood, 1981).The main focus is on functional language usage and the ability of learners to express their own ideas, feeling, attitudes, desires and needs( Littlewood, 1981).The communicative approach came under the influence of British applied linguists (such as John Firth, M. A. K. Halliday who saw the importance of

functional and communicative potential of language usage, in addition to the sociolinguistic works of Dell Hymes and W. Labove) and the philosophical work of J. Austin and J. Searle.

The communicative teaching method puts as a primary goal the oral proficiency rather than the mere mastery of structures. Open ended questioning and problem-solving activities and exchanges of personal information are used in language classes. Students work with authentic materials in groups on communicative activities and negotiating meaning (Harmer, 2001). Thus, the language learners act as negotiators and the teacher is expected to be a guide, an organizer, a counsellor or a group process manager.

It goes without saying that the communicative method dominates language teaching all over the world. According to Richards & Rodgers (2001) the communicative teaching method makes language learning and teaching very interesting. It helps learners to develop linguistic competence as well as communicative competence and within informal conversation. (Richard & Schmidt, 2002).

## **2. Describing the Spoken Language**

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994). This section involves a brief description of the nature of the speaking process to highlight the main characteristics of the spoken language. We then analyze the basic components of one of the best known models of language ability which is communicative competence in reference to the kind of knowledge that people need in order to use language in meaningful interaction.

In their introductory part about the spoken language, Celce – Murcia & Olshtain (2000) claim :

*Spoken language, as has often been pointed out happens in time, and must therefore be produced and processed 'on line'. There is no going back and changing and restructuring our words as there is in writing ; then there is often no time to pause and think , and while we are talking or listening , we can not stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms...* (Cook , 1989 : 115,cited by Celce – Murcia & Olshtain, 2000:164).

*For each occasion on which we speak, there are certain requirements we must seek to satisfy .It is our perception of these requirements that lies behind our purposeful utterances: we pursue a purpose that is in some sense imposed upon us by our reading of the present situation vis-à-vis our listener; and our listener's perception of that situation provides a framework within which to interpret what we say* (Brazil, 1995: 31 ,cited by Celce– Murcia & Olshtain, 2000:164).

Unlike writing, spoken language is mainly characterized by its spontaneity and its contingent nature, i.e. each utterance is dependent on a preceding one (Thornbury, 2005).The spoken language takes place in real time (Thornbury, 2005) .Besides, the spoken form of any language is *fundamentally transient* (Hedges, 2000). When a word is spoken, it is related to a particular place and moment .The spoken language is unplanned, dynamic and context dependent.It happens generally in face to face communication.

Bygate's (1987) model of speech, considers the special features of speaking to result from two sets of conditions under which people speak: processing and reciprocity. In terms of processing, speaking requires simultaneous actions: The words are being spoken as they are being decided and as they are being understood. Reciprocity conditions mean that speakers have to adapt to their listeners and adjust what they say according to the listeners' reaction (Luoma, 2004) .The model is more individually than socially oriented.

Similar to Bygate's model, Harmer (2001:271) argues that *the ability to speak fluently presupposes not only knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process information and language on the spot*. Harmer(2001) gives the complete list of the language features which he considers as the necessary elements for spoken production: Effective speakers of any foreign language need to be able to produce fluent connected speech in which sounds are modified ( assimilation) ,omitted (elision),added or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning) .Second, speakers of English should be able to change the pitch and stress of certain parts of utterances, vary volume and speed and use other physical and non – verbal (paralinguistic) means in face to face interaction. These means help in conveying meaning effectively. Third, speech production is characterized by the use of common lexical phrases, especially in the performance of certain language functions. Fourth, negotiatory language is necessary to ask for clarification and to show the structure of their discourse; of their thought or to reformulate what the person is saying in order to be clearer. Finally ,a speaker's productive ability involves the knowledge of language features mentioned above; however , success is also related to the rapid processing skills necessary in any speech production. In other words , *language processing involves the retrieval of words and phrases from memory and their assembly into syntactically and propositionally appropriate sequences* (Harmer, 2001: 271).

When people hear someone speak, they pay attention to what the speaker sounds like almost automatically (Luoma ,2004).On the basis of what they hear, they make some tentative and subconscious judgments about the speaker's personality, attitudes, home, region and native / non native speaker status. Speakers, generally, use their speech to create an image of themselves to the listener. This happens either consciously or unconsciously. Besides, by using a certain speed and pauses in addition to variation in pitch, volume and intonation, they succeed in creating a texture for their talk to convey meaning, i.e. to support and enhance what they are saying.

Speakers do not usually speak in sentences, yet speech can be considered to consist of idea units which are short phrases and clauses connected with *and* , *but* or



*that* and sometimes not joined by conjunctions at all but simply spoken next to each other, with just a short pause between them. What can be said in relation to spoken language is that, the grammar of these strings of ideas units is simpler than that of the written language that contains long sentences and dependent and subordinate clauses. Speakers try to communicate ideas that listeners should comprehend in real time, as they are being spoken and this happens almost automatically and this means working within the parameters of the speakers and listeners working memory. These idea units are usually about two seconds or about seven or eight words long. (Hafe, 1988,cited by Luoma ,2004).

Grammatically speaking, idea units look like the clauses that are encountered in the written language. Yet the way these idea units are structured are slightly different from standard written clauses. Two structures that belong to the spoken language are topicalisation and tails. Topicalisation gives special informational emphasis to the initial element of a clause in informal speech. Topicalisation breaks the standard word order of written language since the aim is to emphasize the topic. Tails in turn, are noun phrases that come at the end of a clause. They are similar to the concept of topicalisation and emphasize the point made at the beginning of the clause. Both topicalisation and tails create an impression of naturalness and interpersonal involvement in spoken language. This gives talk a spoken flavour . These idea units are clauses with a verb phrase, a noun phrase and prepositional phrase, and sometimes without even a verb. The idea units can be started by a given speaker and completed by his interlocutor.

In speeches, lectures, presentations and any other expert discussions or any other spoken language that involve planned speech (Ochs, 1979, cited by Luoma , 2004), speakers prepare and may rehearse their presentation in advance where they can express well through out points and opinions that they may perform many times before. Unplanned speech, however, is spoken on the spur of the moment as a response to other speakers.

Speaking is always defined as a technical term to refer to one of the various skills that foreign language learners should develop and have. Speaking, as a skill, tends to be seen as something that an individual can do. However, speaking *forms a part of the shared social activity of talking* (Luoma, 2004) .In any given spoken interaction, two or more people talk to each other to share opinions or to pass time, or to amuse each other ..., etc. They are involved in a shared activity where each participant is both a speaker and a listener.

In any spoken interaction, people try to convey meaning which is not always clear and explicit. It is important to remember that all what can be said in a given conversation can have one meaning or more. Such exchanges indicate the speaker's attitude towards the topic and towards the second participant or the others and reflect the speaker's knowledge or his views about what might happen next or more. Moreover such type of non explicitness appears in many verbal forms. This openness of meanings is not only a convenience in speech; it is an effective strategy for speakers as well. The main purpose is to avoid committing themselves to a statement or it is an attempt to detect the listener's feeling about the topic and it is an attempt to find out what the listener already knows what he or she is prepared to accept, and what is the best strategy to persuade the listener to accept his opinion. In trying to convey meaning, the speaker begins with such a phrase as to have time to judge the situation and plan how they want to put what they want to say next or think of something else to say. A learner who uses such fixed conventional phrases is perceived as being fluent and is interpreted as a proof of higher level of ability.

Some words, phrases and strategies are also necessary for creating time to speak. These are called fillers or hesitation markers such as *you see* and *you know*, as well as whole expressions such as *that's a good idea*, *that's a good question* or *now let me see*. Repetitions are also used by the speaker to achieve the same purpose, i.e. to keep the floor while formulating what they want to say.

Spoken language is also characterized by the use of very simple and ordinary words. Using them in speech is a marker of highly advanced speaking skill. In speaking, a core of phrases and expressions are often used and contribute to the listener's impression of the speaker's fluency. They help in keeping the conversation going and in developing the relationship between the speakers.

Generic words are used in spoken interaction as well. Such as *this one*, *that one*, *good*...etc. Such words are not precise; they help in making the communication quicker and easier. Generic words are very important for the naturalness of talk. Another common aspect of interactive and relatively informal talk is the use of vague words like *thing* , *thingy* are very helpful to the speaker to go regardless of the missing word and they appeal to the listener to understand it and supply it if they can: they add to the naturalness of the talk and foreign language learners should be rewarded and encouraged in order to use them (Luoma ,2004).

## 2.1.Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence is originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance.

*We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker learner's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situation) (Chomsky, 1965: 4 , cited by Hedge,2000:45).*

For( Hymes,1972,cited by Hedge,2000) Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance cannot describe language behaviour as a whole. Hymes, who is a sociolinguist, argues that linguistic theory must be able to deal with heterogeneous speech community, differential factors and the importance of socio-cultural factors. His main concern is with performance which is the actual use of language in a concrete situation. Hymes believes that it is necessary to distinguish between two kinds of competences: linguistic competence that is concerned with

producing and understanding grammatically correct sentences, and communicative competence that deals with producing and understanding sentences that are appropriate and acceptable to a particular situation (Richard & Schmidt, 2002). Hymes defines the concept of communicative competence as Knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and social meaning of language. This notion of communicative competence includes both the spoken and the written language. He proposes four levels of analysis in language use that are important for understanding the different characteristics of the spoken language. The first level is concerned with the language code; i. e. the grammatical level, the next level is about what is feasible in terms of time and processing constraints. The third level deals with the social and situational dimension of what is appropriate in different language use situations. Finally, the last level is concerned with habits and conventions, some expressions cannot be used although they are correct grammatically (Richard & Schmidt, 2002). In communicative competence, the emphasis is on users and their use of language for communication.

Hymes' theory was firstly proposed for first language analysis but it has been applied mostly in second and foreign language contexts since its introduction. Hymes's notion (1972) is extremely important, it was examined by a number of applied linguists most importantly Canal and Swain (1980, cited by Sadek Mohamed, 2007). The concept was adopted into a model to be applied in the field of language teaching. Consequently, these two authors break it into its basic components, certainly each of these elements is vital for successful oral communication. Canal (1983, cited by Sadek Mohamed, 2007) identifies four components of communicative competence: grammatical, strategic, socio-cultural and discoursal competences.

**Communicative Competence:** It is composed of the following (Richard & Schmidt, 2002).

**1-Grammatical Competence:** It is the knowledge of grammar (morphology and syntax), vocabulary, and the rules of phonology (the right intonation, stress, and rhythm needed in order to convey meaning) .

**2-Discourse Competence** It is concerned with intersentential relationship and it involves structures and discourse markers such as *well, so, but, then, oh, so, because*, etc. Discourse markers connect the individual parts of a discourse.

**3- Sociolinguistic Competence:** The ability to speak socially appropriately. Knowledge of what to say to whom, how to say it, when and where to say it, and why to say it.

**4-Strategic Competence:** Strategic competence is the way learners manipulate language in order to achieve communicative goals.

### **2.1.1. Grammatical Competence**

The first component of the communicative competence is grammatical competence, also formal competence (Richard & Schmidt, 2002), which includes the knowledge of grammar (morphology and syntax), vocabulary, and the rules of phonology. In other words, it is mainly concerned with knowledge of language itself, its form and meaning, it involves a knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure and linguistic semantics (Hedge, 2000). Linguistic competence is an integral part of communicative competence. For Faerch, Haastrup, and Phillipson, (1984, cited by Hedge, 2000) it is impossible to conceive of a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent. Thus, the foreign language learner will be able to use the foreign language accurately with a good mastery of grammatical competence.

### **2.1.2. Discourse Competence**

All the different abilities needed to create coherent written texts and conversations and to understand them are called discourse competence (Hedge, 2000). In other words, discourse competence is concerned with the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meaning to achieve unified written texts or conversations that are longer than simple sentences.

*Knowing how to organize and connect individual utterances, as well as how to map this knowledge on to the turn taking structures of interactive talk, is called discourse competence.*(Thornbury ,2005)

Discourse competence is concerned with intersentential relationships, i.e. it is concerned with the interconnectedness of a series of utterances, words and phrases to form a text, a meaningful whole and helps in interpreting the overall meaning of a text.

### 21.3. Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence is defined by Richards&Schmidt (2002:90) in the Dictionary of Language Teaching &Applied Linguistics as:

*(Also socio-cultural competence), that is, knowledge of the relationship between language and its non-linguistic context, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations, and so forth.*

In other words ,when we try to convey meaning in a conversation, we need more than the linguistic code. In fact, we need as well the socio-cultural knowledge that would fit on with the situation. It refers to the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts. Thus, the language selected can determine the social context of the situation.

Although this is a simplified definition it presents the main characteristics of the concept of sociolinguistic competence which puts a focus on the importance of context in communication .Littlewood (1981 :105) argues that ,

*Learners are sometimes misled by apparent structural or dictionary equivalents in their own language, which causes them to produce socially offensive forms in the foreign language.*

According to Littlewood (1981), an effective speaker in any foreign language needs not only linguistic knowledge but also socio-cultural knowledge. I.e. knowledge *about social values and the norms of behaviour in a given society, including the way these values and norms are realized through language* (Thornbury, 2007:12). This socio-cultural knowledge can be both linguistic and extra-linguistic. For instance knowing whether people in a given culture shake hands is extra linguistic. Knowing what to say when they meet each other is clearly linguistic. Cultural differences may cause misunderstanding or even break downs in communication. In fact, studies of conversational style indicate that differences exist within one culture as well as between different cultures.

#### **2.1.4. Strategic Competence**

Learners need instruction and practice in the use of communication strategies to solve problems encountered in the process of conveying information. These strategies come into play when learners are unable to express what they want to say because they lack the resources to do so. Speakers face problems such as unfamiliarity with the target language vocabulary item or grammatical structure or inability to pronounce a word or phrase. Learners *need to keep the communicative channel open* ( Canale and Swain ,1980:25,cited by Hedge 2000). Littlewood (1981: 65) argues that *When speaking, it is the learner himself who selects the language that is used, to some extent; therefore ,he can compensate for deficiencies in his repertoire, through communicative strategies such as using paraphrase or simplifying his message or change their original intention or they search other means.* This is commonly called strategic competence.

### **3. Teaching of the Speaking Skill within Third Year Official Course Book**

This section looks at teaching of the speaking skill within the coursebook designed for teaching English to secondary school learners in Algeria , in particular

the discussion 's main emphasis is on the approach used , the third year official textbook and the officially set objectives and principles and aims.

### 3.1. The Competency – Based Approach

As mentioned earlier in the first section, since its introduction in foreign language teaching literature in the early 1970's communicative language teaching has gained popularity. It has been widely used in the 1990's as it describes a set of general principles grounded in the notion of communicative competence being the goal of language teaching .Moreover communicative language teaching has continued to develop giving rise to new approaches and methods which continued to make reference to communicative language teaching but takes a different path to achieve the goal of developing the learners' communicative competence.

The 1970's saw the emergence of the Competency Based Education (CBE) which means simply an educational movement that advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills and behaviours learners should possess at the end of the course study.

For Richard & Rogers( 2001:140),

*Competency based education has much in common with such approaches to learning as performance based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. It is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community.*

Most of the methods and approaches' central point is on inputs to language learning; competency Based Education (CBE) by comparison is an educational movement that focuses on the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of teaching programmes. Thus CBE is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situation.



In the 1970's, CBE had been widely implemented as the basis for the design of work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programmes for adults. It has recently appeared again in Australia and some parts of the world and as a major approach to language teaching. By 1986, any refugee in the United States had to be enrolled in a competency-based programme (Auerbach 1996, cited by Richards& Rodgers ,2001) , such programmes were based on a performance outline of Language associated with specific skills that are necessary for individuals to function proficiently in the society in which they live (Grognet and Crandall ,1982, cited by Jack Richards& Rodgers ,2001).

Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is based on a functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language. It seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used. CBLT has for this reason most often been used as a framework for language teaching in situations where learners have specific needs and are in particular roles and where the language skills they need can be fairly accurately predicted or determined. Thus CBLT designers can predict the vocabulary and structures that can be encountered by the learner in certain situations that are central to the learner's life to organize language teaching /learning units

CBLT is also built around the notion of communicative competence and seeks to develop functional communicative skills in learners. CBLT thus shares some features with communicative language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:143).CBLT by comparison is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The central point is on competencies or learning outcomes that underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies, assessment, and reporting.

The competency-based approach is characterized by the following:

- 1- It is action-oriented in that it adjusts language learning to the acquisition of know-how embedded in functions and skills, these will help learners to become an effective competent speaker in real-life situations.

**2** - It is a problem-solving approach: Learners are put in a problem-solving situation in order to make them use all their capacities to overcome these obstacles and problems. A foreign language is best learned when it is used to solve problems through hypothesis testing. Learners learn by thinking because they are trained to use their thoughts to solve the problem in a simulated solution.

**3-** It is social-constructivist: Learning is seen as occurring through social interaction with other people in real life situations outside the classroom. Learning is not just a transmission of predetermined knowledge and know-how to be just within the classroom situation, but as a creative use of the newly-learned knowledge outside the classroom through the process of social interaction with other learners (Arab, Riche, & Bensemane, 2006).

**4-** It is a cognitive approach. It is indebted to Bloom's taxonomy. According to Bloom, cognitive objectives form a hierarchy. The learner must achieve lower order objectives before he can achieve higher ones: knowledge (as lower order objective), comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (as higher ones (Arab et al, 2006).

### **3.2. Speaking skill within the Third Year Course Book**

New Prospects is the last of a series of three course books designed for teaching of English to secondary school learners in Algeria. It complies with the recommendations issued in the official syllabus set down by The Ministry Of National Education (2006). The document's basic principles rest on communicative-language teaching, which engages learners in real and meaningful communication. The word *real* is made clear in this official documents, it means that learners are given opportunities to process content relating to their lives and backgrounds. Moreover, the course book aims to develop both fluency and accuracy.

In this course book, language learning is considered as a developmental process and errors are viewed as part of learning. Grammar is regarded the cornerstone of a good command of English. However, it is not considered as an end in itself, but a means to an end. At the practical side, grammar is constantly translated into language functions

to ensure the learners competencies, students are brought to notice and analyse how English is used within a large number of effective learning tasks. These tasks are aimed to provide opportunities to *interact in classroom and negotiate meaning* using more complex utterances, more fluently and more accurately than in previous years of education, this will enable them to *automatize their knowledge and recall the language acquired with greater control and ease during production*( Arab et al ,2006:59) .Most of these tasks involve the use of inductive learning and are intended to enhance individual learning as well as learning with peers. Thus, teachers should choose among these tasks the most appropriate ones.

## Conclusion

The focus on teaching speaking might have a positive influence on oral performance of the learner in an English language classroom. Therefore, teaching activities in the classroom should aim at maximizing learners' language use. For this purpose, teachers are required to assign each student with a turn or an opportunity to speak in the classroom. However, speaking requires not only knowledge of grammar but also knowledge of inter-sentential relationship structures and discourse markers. In order to communicate effectively, the learner should also understand when, why and ways to produce language and how to gain confidence through risk-taking and practice to achieve communicative goals. However, according to our investigation it has been noted that our learners are not receiving the four components of communicative competence equally. In fact, they are generally given more grammatical competence than discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. It is indeed this ill-balanced English language training that produces learners who are ineffective speakers of the language.

# Chapter Two

## Classroom interaction and Language Learning

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# Chapter Two

## Classroom interaction and Language Learning

### Introduction

Allwright (1984:1) claims that classroom interaction contributes to language development in general and oral skills in particular.

*We cannot claim to know nearly enough about what it is about language classrooms that enable classroom language learners to develop, more or less well, their command of a second or foreign language. And yet our collective experience as professionals does lead us to believe that success, or failure, in classroom language learning typically has something, if not absolutely everything, to do with the nature of the interaction that takes place during lessons. It makes good sense, therefore, for us to want to try to understand the contribution of classroom interaction to language development.*

Many language teachers and researchers ( Allwright ,1984;Littlewood,1981; Davies, 2000 ;Thornbury, 2005)assume that it is only through active interaction, either with the teacher or with other learners in the target language within meaningful context ,can learners build up communicative competence . This research aims at identifying the causes of the poor performance in the speaking skill of the learners in their last year in the secondary school. Thus, our analysis will be on the quality of interaction that is offered to them . In this chapter , we present the review of related literature in two sections: The first section deals mainly with the different hypotheses related to second language acquisition .The second section is concerned with a more specific side of interaction which is the quality of classroom interaction and the value of teacher talk and their contribution to language learning .

## **1. Interaction and Second Language Acquisition**

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) presents a plethora of hypotheses; this indicates mainly a lack of agreement concerning how classroom interaction contributes to the acquisition of new language forms. The objective of this section is to provide an overview of these different hypotheses. It also provides an overall idea on the need for their integration to draw important implications for the language classroom: These hypotheses complement each other and form a more complete picture of language acquisition.

### **1.1. Interaction as an outgrowth of foreigner talk**

Originally, the research on interaction grew out of studies on foreigner talk (FT). In fact, many studies assume that native speakers do indeed modify their input when speaking with non-native speakers in a manner similar to the way caretakers alter their talk to babies; this came to be called *baby talk* (Hall & Verplaatse, 2000:2). The foreigner talk research expanded from simply describing the linguistic features of FT to investigating its role in interaction. Long's (1981, cited by Hall & Verplaatse, 2000) studied the modifications in native speaker (NS) talk to non-native speakers. This comes to highlight the difference between input modification and interactive modifications. Long (1981, cited by Hall & Verplaatse, 2000) claims that interactive modifications are facilitative and necessary for second language acquisition. (Hall & Verplaatse, 2000)

### **1.2. Comprehensible input and second language acquisition**

The early version of the Interaction Hypothesis was closely associated with the input hypothesis. Krashen (1985, cited by Leaver & Willis, 2004:298) believes that, *when learners are exposed to language that they can mostly understand but which still*

*contains forms that they do not know ,they will ,in time ,acquire such new forms naturally from the input they hear and read .* Research theory and practical experience all point to the fact that input is crucial to language learning. Quite simply, input refers to the language that a learner is exposed to ,it forms a prerequisite for learning in that it provides crucial evidence from which learners can form linguistic hypotheses.Comprehensible input is a term popularised by Krashen which refers to the fact that not all the target language to which second language learners are exposed is understandable. Only some of the language they hear make sense to them. According to Krashen , learners will acquire an L2 when they have access to comprehensible input and when their affective filter is low . For Krashen ,only target language input which is understandable but with efforts –and which is slightly more advanced than the second language learner's current level would promote learning. krashen names this type of input 'i+1',where the 'I' represents the learner's current stage of interlanguage development and the '+1' is a type of input that is challenging but not at all overwhelming to the learner . In this case, the input can be acquired with just some efforts.

### **1.3.The Interaction Hypothesis (IH)**

The interaction hypothesis (IH) is a term proposed by Long (1981,cited by Hall& Verplaetse, 2000:298) to refer to the belief that *when learners interact with other speakers of the target language and have communication problem ,the resulting process of negotiating of meaning is likely to lead to the acquisition of new language forms* .Long(1981,cited by Hall& Verplaetse, 2000) believes that language acquisition is strongly facilitated by the use of the target language in interaction. In particular, the negotiation of meaning contributes greatly to the acquisition of the second language. Long's(1981,cited by Hall& Verplaetse, 2000) interaction Hypothesis (IH) is concerned with one kind of interaction, which has become to be known as negotiation of meaning. In fact, Long (1981,cited by Hall& Verplaetse, 2000) emphasizes the primacy of interaction and its role in getting comprehensible input. Long (1983 ,cited

by Allwright and Bailey, 1991 ) proposes a model to account for the relationship between negotiated interactions, comprehensible input, and language acquisition.

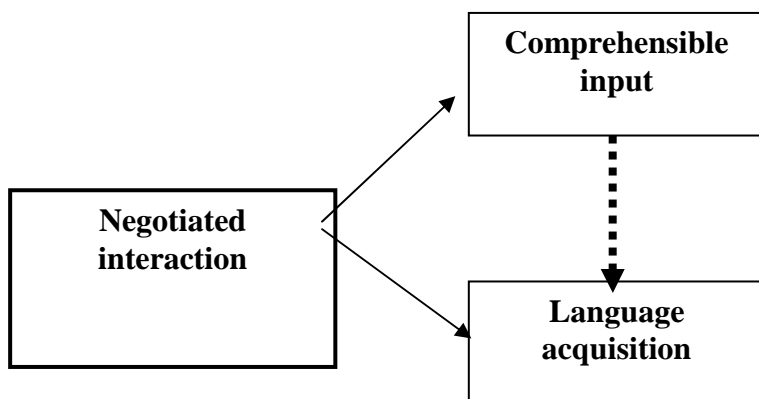


Figure1: An alternative model of the relationship between negotiated interaction and Language acquisition (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:123).

The broken line between comprehensible input and language acquisition in the model above represents the possibility that comprehensible input can help second language acquisition. Long points out as well to the work required to the negotiated interaction that spurs language acquisition. The term *negotiated interaction* refers to those modifications that occur in conversations between a native speaker and second language learner or advanced non-native speaker and less proficient second language learner (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:123). These interactional modifications include a whole range of attempts to understand and to be understood.

Three of the most important processes are:

1-A comprehension check is the speaker's request for information to see if his interlocutors have understood what was said using questions like *do you understand ? Is it clear ? Do you understand it ?* The speaker aims at checking comprehension of the message



2-A Confirmation check is the speaker's request as to whether or not the speaker's understanding of the interlocutor's meaning is correct using questions like *oh ,so you are saying you did live in London*

3-A clarification check is a request for further information on the part of the speaker to understand something said by the interlocutor: *I do not understand exactly what do you mean? Can you say that again? Try to say it in English?*( Allwright and Bailey, 1991:123).

#### **1.4.Importance of output in L2 acquisition**

In the early mid -1980s the research on interaction had been focused on the role of input .By the mid 1980s; however, investigatory concerns were expanded to include the importance of output in interaction. Swain (1985,cited by Hall & Verplaetse, 2000) offered an interesting hypothesis on the basis of her years of study on French immersion programmes in Canada. According to Swain (1985 ,cited by Hall & Verplaetse, 2000), output involves three functions: Noticing, hypothesis testing and reflection. Swain claims that while comprehensible input may be sufficient for acquiring semantic competence in the target language (TL), comprehensible output is needed in order to gain grammatical competence. That is, the learners must struggle with practicing output, which is comprehensible to their interlocutors if they are to master the grammar of the language. This mastery would come about as a result of the negotiation process of interacting. Swain argues that during the time that a learner is required to process input only ,he or she may not need to attend to all features of language to comprehend the content . However, at the point when he or she must produce output, the learner may first notice that a gap of linguistic knowledge exists between what he or she wants to convey and his or her ability to convey it. When the learner attempts production, using what linguistic knowledge available in his or her interlanguage the learner tests out hypotheses about the organization of the language system. Finally, *through the learner's output and the interlocutor's response to that output, the learner can reflect on and ultimately modify his or her language use* (Hall& Verplaetse, 2000:4). Swain argues that language production will help

acquisition because when learners experience communicative failure, they are forced to make their output more precise, coherent, and appropriate. In her recent research, Swain (1985, cited by Ellis, 1990) has supported her claim with empirical evidence concerning output in SLA.

### 1.5. Other Hypotheses

There are other important reception-based theories like the frequency Hypothesis

*The frequency hypothesis states that the order in which learners acquire L2 grammatical features is determined by the frequency of those features in the input; more frequent features are acquired before less frequent (Ellis, 1990:96).*

Ellis (1990) mentioned other important production-based theories like the Discourse Hypothesis (Givon, 1979, cited by Ellis, 1990) and the Topicalization Hypothesis (Ellis, 1984 & Long, 1983a, cited by Ellis, 1990). Each of them has concentrated on a given factor as contributing to second language acquisition. The Discourse Hypothesis proposes that learners only acquire the type of language which they encounter inside the classroom or outside in the different social situations. For example, if learners only have access to the formal language discourse, they will acquire competence to perform only that type of language. Of particular relevance to language teaching is that teachers should provide learners with opportunities to practice in a variety of communicative contexts to help them acquire a full repertoire of linguistic competencies. The Topicalization Hypothesis gives learners the chance to initiate and control the topic of discourse as a way of promoting their language, the collaborative discourse hypothesis points that the process of constructing discourse in two way interaction help learners to produce new grammatical structures .

### 1.6. sociocultural theory

Sociocultural theory was pioneered by Vygotsky (1978 ,cited by Smith, 2001 ) and extended by his colleagues and followers. The core of the theory is the proposition that learning is a complex interaction between biological and psychological development and social interaction. In other words, learning is a social activity. As learners interact with peers, teachers or parents, Vygotsky argues that they are able to advance beyond their present level of development to a higher one. *The conceptual distance between what they can do on their own to and what they can do with assistance* is called by vygotsky the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Smith,2001:1).This view of learning seeks not only to know what learners can do on their own but what they can do in collaboration.

### **1.7.Implications**

These hypotheses complement each other and form a more complete picture of language acquisition .In the field of SLA, the input hypothesis has accorded importance to comprehensible input ,which is crucial to language learning , other theorists have given significance to the negotiation of meaning that has been shown to contribute greatly to the acquisition of the second language ( Long's Interaction Hypothesis. Swain (1985, cited by Ellis,1990) offered an interesting hypothesis that includes the importance of output in interaction. These important reception-based theories together with the production-based theories, despite different points of emphasis, taken as a whole, they have the following important implications for language teachers:

- a) Teachers should provide comprehensible input to their students. If necessary, they need to make necessary modifications to adjust the complexity of their language to suit their students' needs and levels.
- b) Teachers and students must make efforts to negotiate meaning to be understood by each other.
- c) Teachers should give students opportunities to practice the second or foreign language.

d) Teachers need to give learners ample practice in using the language in a wide array of communicative contexts which allow their full performance of language functions.

e) Teachers should give students the chance to initiate and control topics of conversation in classroom interaction .

f) Teachers should provide their learners more opportunities to practice both planned and unplanned discourses as they encounter both in real life situations.

g) Students should be offered opportunities to produce extended discourse.

## 2 . The quality of classroom interaction

Recent communicative approaches have suggested that one goal of English language teaching should be to replicate *genuine* or *natural* rather than *typical* or *traditional* classroom communication . The main purpose of this section is to explore how teacher talk provides or blocks opportunities for the learners' meaningful interaction , i.e. opportunities for genuine communicative language use in second or foreign language classrooms. This section outlines the aspects of classroom interaction that are of relevance to language learning .Furthermore it seeks to analyse the characteristics of the teacher talk that can create opportunities for genuine interaction in the language classroom (Cullen,1998).

### 2.1.Quantity and quality of teacher talk

Cullen (1998:179), describes teacher talk as follows:

*Until comparatively recently ,teacher talk in the EFL classroom was considered to be something of a danger area for language teachers ,and trainee teachers were warned to use it sparingly . 'Good ' teacher talk meant little 'teacher ' Talk since it was thought that too much teacher talking time (TTT) deprived students of opportunities to speak .Interest in teacher talk within the profession has since shifted away from a concern with quantity towards a concern with quality .*

Similarly, Richards & Lockhart (1996 :183) argue that, *an effective teacher talk may provide essential support to facilitate both language comprehension and learner production*. Thornbury 's focal point is put on the extent to which teacher talk supports a communicative environment in the classroom ,he thus introduces the notion of *communicative teacher talk*. Thornbury (1996,cited by Cullen,1998) questions how authentic is teacher talk and how far it shares features of so-called authentic communication outside the classroom.

The words genuine , authentic and natural, as used in second or foreign language research , are not precise sociolinguistic terms. Many writers use them without attempting a definition (Seedhouse ,1996).However Nunan (1987:137,cited by Cullen,1998 ; Seedhouse ,1996) defines authentic communication or genuine communication as follows:

*genuine communication is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs.*

Nunan (1987) attempted to evaluate whether classes that pretended to be communicative really were so by using characteristics of communicativeness such as the ones issued from the precise definition of an authentic or genuine communication

These criteria of communicativeness are taken from what is perceived to constitute communicative behaviour outside the classroom. Nunan (1987:137,cited by Cullen,1998) argues that in many communicative foreign language classrooms , interaction may in fact not very communicative at all. Cullen (1998) claims that attempt to define communicative talk in the classroom must be based primarily on what is or what is not communicative in the context of classroom itself. The fact that genuine communication is characterized by features such as *negotiation of meaning* and *topic nomination by more than one speaker* becomes actually a reason for incorporating them

into classroom discourse and for judging its communicativeness according to whether these features are present or not .

Teacher talk is defined as *the language typically used by teachers in the second language classroom* (Lynch, 1996: 6) .Lynch argues that some teachers see it as a useful device for communicating with students but it must be abandoned with advanced levels . Ellis (1994) refers to the bulk of classroom research that explored the teacher talk and indicates the modifications when addressing the second language learners in the classroom. Ellis argues that Teacher talk has attracted researchers' attention (e.g. Pica and Long ,1986;Downes ,1981) because of its effect on L2 acquisition, it is strongly believed that there is a potential effect of teacher talk on students comprehension and the learning process ( Ellis ,1994). Allwright& Bailey (1991:139) assume that in the classroom *teacher talk is one of the major ways that teachers convey information to learners* . However ,they agree on the fact that teacher talk is far from the language learners will encounter in talking to native speakers.

According to Allwright & Bailey (1987), observation of many different classes shows that teachers typically do between one half and three quarters of the talking done in classrooms .In other words ,teachers tend to dominate classroom speech and that there are few opportunities for authentic communicative language use in such classrooms .This view is shared by Bellack (1966 ,cited by Allwright & Bailey ,1991 ) who assumes that *four classroom discourse moves ...three are usually restricted to the teacher :structuring ,soliciting ,and reacting .Only one ,responding ,is typically the students prerogative* (Allwright & Bailey ,1987:139) . This is well illustrated in this example:

**T:**Ok. Now. A conductor. (Structuring) Pedro, what's a conductor? (soliciting)

**S:** A conductor is the people who is boss in the em (inaudible)for example ,in music .(Responding)

**T:** OK. (Reacting)

(Bellack et al. , 1966,cited by Allwright & Bailey ,1987:98)

Similarly, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975 ,cited by McCarthy (1991) describe a three part exchange in traditional classes, where the teacher makes the initiation(usually by questioning and the follow-up move ( teacher evaluates the student's response with such phrases as *Good, That's right, or No, that's not right* ,while the students were restricted to the responding moves .This is also called the Birmingham type analysis of classroom talk.According to McCarthy (1991) this is still the pattern of communication that is used in large classes where pupils will have the chance to practice only the responding role . Language in the classroom follows a very rigid sequence, and that speaking patterns are highly structured (usually by questioning). This teaching pattern, that is, Initiation-Response- Feedback (IRF) can be seen in every classroom at most educational levels and fail to afford opportunities for authentic communicative language use in second or foreign language classrooms.

- I**     T:     What's the boy doing?  
**R**     S:     He's climbing a tree.  
**F**     T:     That's right. He's climbing a tree.

(Cullen, 2002: 1)

In the IRF exchange, the teacher decides who will participate, when students can take a turn, how much they can contribute

There is a growing body of classroom-based research which supports the conclusion drawn here, that there are comparatively few opportunities for authentic communicative language use in second or foreign language classrooms. Thus Long and Sato(1983:283 ,cited by Seedhouse ,1996:1) report that *ESL (English Second Language ) teachers continue to emphasize form over meaning, accuracy over communication* (1983:283).Kumaravadivelu (1993:12 ,cited by Seedhouse ,1996:1) maintains that

*even teachers who are committed to communicative language teaching can fail to create opportunities for genuine interaction in the language classroom.*

Cullen lists the following features that characterize teacher talk which would be regarded as uncommunicative :

- Exclusive or excessive use of display questions .
- Form focussed feedback ,i.e. by the teacher which only shows interest in the correct formation of the students contribution (rather than the content ).
- Echoing of students response ,when the teacher repeats what a learner has just said for the benefit of the whole class .
- Sequences of predictable IRF(initiation-response-feedback)discourse chains.

(Cullen,1998:18)

However Cullen identifies a number of characteristics of teacher talk that might be seen as communicative:

- The use of referential questions, where the teacher asks the class something to which he does not know the answer and which therefore has a genuine communicative purposes.
- Content feedback by the teacher where the focus is on content or the message rather than on the form .
- The use of modification ,hesitations ,and rephrasing in the teacher's own talk.
- Attempts to negotiate meaning with the students through requests for clarification and repetition ,and giving opportunities for the students to interrupt and do the same .

(Cullen,1998:182)

Cullen asserts that The I-R-F exchange structure as traditionally practiced, with the



teacher providing the great majority of the Initiation moves ,has been the target of some criticism in the communicative language teaching movement ,on the basis is that it fails to give the students opportunities to ask questions themselves,choose themselves topics, and negotiate meaning (Nunan 1987,Thornbury 1996) . In short ,it is associated with a heavily teacher –centred classroom methodology. From an analysis of lesson transcripts, Cullen identifies two basic roles of this follow-up move: an evaluative and a discoursal role . The evaluative feedback function provides feedback to students on their performance.The focus is on form : whether the lexical item or the grammatical structure is acceptable or not .The feedback can be an explicit acceptance or a rejection (e.g. *Good, Excellent , No*) or any other implicit sign. Evaluative feedback co-occurs generally with display questions. The f-move has another role which is the discoursal role that helps to pick up the students response and incorporate them into classroom discourse .The emphasis is on content rather than on form .This type of feedback co-occurs generally with referential questions (the type of question that has no right or wrong answer predetermined by the teacher .

In response to such criticism ,Cullen (2002) assumes that the feedback move supports learning in two different ways :The F-move with the evaluative function supports learning through formal correction ;however, the F-move with the discoursal function supports learning through which the teacher can increase their students'interest and motivation to talk more and thus can make teacher talk as communicative , it provides a rich source of message oriented language input and further initiating moves can be derived (i.e. the focus is on content not on form). Discoursal feedback strategies , as stated by Cullen(2002),play a crucial role in clarifying and building up students' ideas in classroom interaction and in developing a meaningful dialogue between teachers and his students. Therefore,the teacher should choose appropriate feedback for the students' responses : If the teacher gives only evaluative feedback in every exchange in any teacher –initiated classroom interaction ,this will impede the development of communicative classroom dialogues between the teacher and the class . A balance is necessary between these two forms of feedback and making on the spot judgments about which type of feedback is most appropriate when responding to students are necessary

skills teachers need to deploy in almost every lesson .

## **Conclusion**

In recent years ,with the growing acceptance of communicative language learning and teaching techniques , a much greater interest has been attributed to interaction . The background of this lies in the fact that second or foreign language learning is a highly interactive process (Richard and Lockhart,1996).The quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on language learning (Ellis,1985) .Researchers have taken an interest in the role of interaction in interlanguage development ,determining exactly why and how interaction can promote language learning . This implies that language teachers should put emphasis on the quality of their talk . learners' output should be carefully guided ,monitored and assisted by teachers.

Teacher talk is usually seen as one of the decisive factors of success or failure in classroom teaching .Teachers should examine their own classroom,the language they use (for instance the type of questions they ask and the type of feedback they provide to learners )and the kind of interaction they generate. The aim of this study is to raise language teachers' awareness of the complexities of classroom interaction in particular and will enable them to better analyse its quality to provide them with strategies for enhancing pupils' talk and negotiation of meaning . If communication happens among learners or between learners and teacher in an authentic and cooperative manner, this would significantly increase language comprehension and production . it is claimed that peer and group discussions encourage meaningful communication among the learners, cooperative learning fosters active participation, and meaningful communication facilitates the development of second or foreign language learning.

# CHAPTER 3

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## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter outlines the methodology for the present research. The first section describes the methods and materials employed in the study , the participants and location . The research questions and hypotheses are presented. The first section of the chapter describes the data collection procedures as well as the data analysis. The

second section deals with the analysis of the two preliminary questionnaires .These preliminary questionnaires are the means by which we have identified our research problem and their use is only limited to the first part of the investigation .In the third section ,we examine the findings related to the two hypotheses which will reveal and highlight some of the problematic areas of the poor quality of classroom interaction provided to our learners in the secondary school classes.And lastly, the final section includes the conclusion for the current chapter.

## **1.Purpose of the Study**

The aim of the present study is to investigate the sources of the difficulties of learners when trying to speak English in their last year in the secondary school, in order to suggest some practical solutions for teachers. In particular, we will focus on the learners' classroom interaction and classroom discourse .

## **2.Overview of Research Methodology**

The purpose of our study is to analyze the quality of interaction that is provided to our learners at Zaaticha secondary school in Biskra , this study can be considered as a classroom-centered research.

Classroom centred research (or simply classroom research) is taken by Allwright and Bailey (1991) as a cover-term for a whole range of research studies on language learning and teaching classrooms.

According to Allright and Bailey (1991: 2) ,

*Classroom-centred research is just what it says it is – research centred on the classroom as distinct from, for example, research that concentrates on the inputs to the classrooms (the syllabus, the teaching materials, etc) or on the outputs from classrooms ( learners test scores).It does not ignore in any way or try to devaluate the importance of such inputs and outputs . Instead, classroom research simply tries to investigate what actually happens inside the classroom. At its most narrow, it is in fact research which treats classroom interaction as virtually the only object worthy of investigation.*

Classroom research does not view the language classes as the setting for research, but as the object of research. Allwright and Bailey(1991) claim that classroom research 's focus is on describing the greatest possible details or what really happens in the classroom, putting as an aim to identify the phenomena that promote or impede learning(Woods,1996). Examples of issues that have been studied within the field of classroom research include how interaction occurs in classrooms, how teachers respond to learners errors, the type of linguistic input provided in classrooms, the feelings of teachers and learners during or after the lessons, and so on.

Whatever the interest of the researchers in the language classroom, one common characteristic of classroom research in that it is descriptive in nature. It involves observation, recording and transcription (Van Lier, 1988). Since description is the basic tool of classroom-centred research (Gaies, 1983),the principal approaches of studying second language learning & teaching are either observation or introspection or a combination of these two. (Allright and Bailey, 1991).Thus based on the nature and principles of classroom-centred research ,description is the key term to be retained here .Beside ,the data collection approach chosen for the current study is classroom observation .

## **2.1. The Target Population**

We have chosen to work with third year literary classes for two reasons : The main reason is due to our long experience as a teacher with this level .The second reason is that English is taught as one of the major subject matters for literary stream classes ,which means that teachers are expected to have more time for speaking activities . To obtain information about the quality of interaction in the classroom we needed a random sampling of the school to illustrate the problem , always with the random sampling , we selected one class to carry out the classroom observation .

## **2.2. Research Participants**

### **2.2.1.Learners' Sample**

The participants in this research are the learners and teachers of Zaaticha secondary school ,enrolled for the school year (2009/2010).They have four sessions a week ,each session lasts for one hour .Their exact number is 80 learners divided into 2 classes ,one literary and the second is scientific stream. The reason for the choice of the literary class is for the following: English is taught as one of the major subjects for literary stream classes ,so teachers are expected to have more time to deal with speaking activities and students are supposed to have more time to interact with their teachers as well as with other learners in the classroom. Moreover the whole population or the two classes are concerned with the preliminary questionnaires, thus questionnaires are given to all the third year classes.

### **2.2.2. Teacher Sample**

This study concerns also the two teachers who are currently teaching English to third year classes at Zaaticha Secondary School. The two teachers are concerned with the preliminary questionnaire ,but obviously only the teacher of the literary class will be concerned with classroom observation.

## **3. Research Questions**

This research aims at identifying the main cause of the difficulties that learners face when they perform the oral activities during their last year in the secondary school. In order to reach such an objective, we have devised the following basic questions that we seek to answer throughout this research:

1. Why do most of our students fail in acquiring the speaking skill when they finish the secondary school courses?
2. What is the quality of interaction that is provided for learners at this stage of learning.
3. What is the amount of *genuine* communication in English language classes?
4. Is negotiated interaction has a place in the English language classes at Zaaticha secondary school?

## 4. Hypotheses

Throughout the present study, we will attempt to find out the elements that are behind the students poor performance in the speaking skill during their last year in the secondary school .It is generally recognized that the majority of the learners are not capable to conduct a free conversation in the class or outside when speaking with their friends, thus the exclusion of the psychological factors. In some cases they are not even able to make a correct statement in relation to a given situation. Thus, we put forward the two following hypotheses that we seek to verify through this investigation.

**H1):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind the poor quality of interaction would appear to be the dominance of IRF cycle (teacher initiation-learner response-teacher follow-up)

**H2):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind students' poor performance in the speaking skill would appear to be due to the lack of interaction involving genuine communication.

## 5. Data Collection

The first part of the investigation is carried out with the use of two preliminary questionnaires .These preliminary questionnaires are the means with which we have identified our research problem.

Brehob (2001:2 ,cited by Petter & Davis , 2002) defines a questionnaire to be *a form that people fill out, used to obtain demographic information and views and interests of those questioned.*

Kirakowski (1998:2 ,cited by Petter & Davis , 2002) defines a questionnaire in a more structural way as a *method for the elicitation, and recording and collecting information.*( Petter& Davis, 2002 :2)



The second part of our investigation, which is the main part, is carried out using another type data collection procedure which is classroom observation. Classroom observation is also the means through which we verify our research hypotheses, and try to answer our research questions.

Wragg (1999, cited by Dörnyei, 2007) argues that classrooms are very busy places, so observers need to be on their toes. In any classroom observation, two dichotomies are usually offered: *participant* versus *nonparticipant* observation and *structured* versus *unstructured* observation. According to Dörnyei (2007), the *participant* observer, during the research, becomes a full member of the group, participating in all the activities. This is the common form of observation in ethnographic studies. In classroom observation, however, the researcher is usually not or only minimally involved in the classroom activities. For that reason he/she can be described as a non participant-observer.

Cohen et al (2000, cited by Dörnyei, 2007) define *structured* versus *unstructured observation* as follows: Highly structured observation means simply going into the classroom with a specific focus and with concrete observation categories. As Allright and Bailey (1991) warn us, structured observation may easily miss the insights that could be provided by the participant themselves. *unstructured* observation, however, is less clear than the first category. The observer needs to observe first what is taking place before deciding on its significance for the research. Dörnyei (2007) stresses the point that regardless of how sophisticated an observation protocol might be, it will fail to tell the reality of classroom life.

Video recording is an ideal tool for classroom research. Regrettably, introducing video recording in the classroom cannot be considered as being perfect. In fact, video recording does not eliminate all the difficulties encountered when dealing with classroom observation. Mackey and Gass (2005) argue that video recording is a relatively straight forward tool in laboratories, but in classroom it presents a certain

amount of problems ranging from technical issues to ethical issues of how to deal with students if they have not consented to be videotaped.

Zuengler et al (1998, cited by Dörnyei , 2007) provides us with a detailed analysis between the *analyst eyes* and *camera eyes*. He points to the fact that video equipment can enhance our ability to see clearly things happening in the classroom. But they highlight two problems in particular :Literal and figurative blind spots in addition to the distraction caused by the camera. First, by *literal blind spots*: A fixed camera can only see what is pointing at and usually we can not back the camera up far enough to capture the class and the instructor. Second, distraction caused by the camera even in our age when video cameras are common, the process of videotaping may distract the participants and may elicit out of the ordinary behaviour on the part of both the teacher and the students.

Wallace (1998) gives importance to audio taping ,he argues that much interaction can be recorded using a small portable cassette recorder .According to him cheap instruments are more suitable than more sensitive advanced machines and new machines are sometimes more difficult to operate . Small cassette recorder can be very useful since it is intrusive than video recording ,but at the same time more intrusive than real-time observation; however pupils forget the presence of the tape recorder after ten or fifteen minutes and interact normally and unselfconsciously (Richards &Nunan ,1991) .

Adding structure to observation by means of using observation schemes makes our observation more reliable . Its results are comparable across classrooms and overtime. Structured observational categories make the task of documenting the complexity of classroom reality doable, and help to focus on certain key events and phenomena. Thus, coding schemes introduce systematicity into the research process (Wallace,1998). Finally, a more serious concern, also mentioned earlier, with structured observation is that the researcher, by using selected categories, may miss important features in the classroom. The examined categories are preconceived and the

instrument is not sensitive to context specific emergent information (Dörnyei, 2007: 186).

The current study is conformed to the aim of less-structured observation because we did not use a coding scheme or previously defined categories (Robson, 1993), because a very structured observation would have given us a very limited view of classroom behaviours. In order to take a full account of classroom interaction of the selected setting, we acted as a passive observer. This role has no interaction with the participant during data collection procedure. Being an observer as a participant and using audio-recording are useful techniques to be less unobtrusive as possible in order to minimize the effect on the data collected.

## **6.Data Analysis**

In the first part of the present investigation, data has been collected with the use of the learners' and the teachers' preliminary questionnaire just to provide an evidence that third year literary class find difficulties when expressing themselves in English. In the main part of our investigation, our data is collected using classroom observation technique or more exactly, for the purpose of our research our data is collected using audio-recording concentrating on the parts of the lessons where there is classroom interaction, these conversations are transcribed. These transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD) were coded firstly based on IRF model (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, cited by McCarthy, 1991).

One important recent development in the field of classroom research reflects the emergence of classroom discourse as a field of linguistic enquiry. In fact, the use of classroom discourse may supersede the use of the category system. Many researchers, concerned over the potential invalidity of category systems, over the problem that they necessarily have to prejudge what is paying attention to, and over the crude category distinctions that such instruments typically involve, have turned to transcriptions of recorded classroom events as their prime data base (Alwright & Bailey, 1991).

Discourse analysis refers to a variety of procedures for examining chunks of language, whether spoken or written. In the case of classroom research, discourse analysis usually involves the analysis of spoken language as it is used in classrooms among teachers and learners.

Van Lier (1988: 122, cited by Allwright & Bailey, 1991: 62) describes it as :

*an analysis of the processes of interaction by means of a close examination of audiovisual records of interaction. However the term is very broad: it covers many analytic processes, from coding and quantification to more qualitative interpretations.*

The emphasis on stretches of oral discourse in classroom interaction gave birth to other unit of analysis rather than those concepts such as sentences, clauses, or phrases (Terms used in syntactic analysis). Instead, new concepts appeared and discourse analysts, who are mainly interested in the way talk is structured, used terms such as utterances, repair strategies, topic nomination, and turns. These analytic units are highly important in classroom discourse analysis. Discourse analysts, as their database, use transcripts and audio taped or video taped classroom interaction (audio visual records). Some researchers use transcripts and accompanying videotapes in order to record nonverbal channel of communication transcripts.

According to Allwright & Bailey (1991:62), transcripts,

*are written records of interaction in which the researcher copies down, verbatim, the utterances of participants transcripts vary widely in their level of technical complexity, they may use standard orthography or detailed phonetic representations of speech, depending on the research aim of the researcher.*

A transcription is revealed to be a time consuming process but it provides a detailed account of classroom interactions processes. This type of account can be

explored in many different ways ,as an example, Sinclair Coulthard's (1975 ,cited by Allwright & Bailey ,1991: 62) system of analysis of transcripts of British classroom involve a hierarchy of units of interaction, as a starting point, the largest unit, in their system, was the lesson itself, made up of units called *transactions* themselves made up of *exchanges* composed in their turn of moves, made up in their turn, of the smallest interaction units , *acts*, which could be analyzed into smallest linguistic units such as words and phrases.

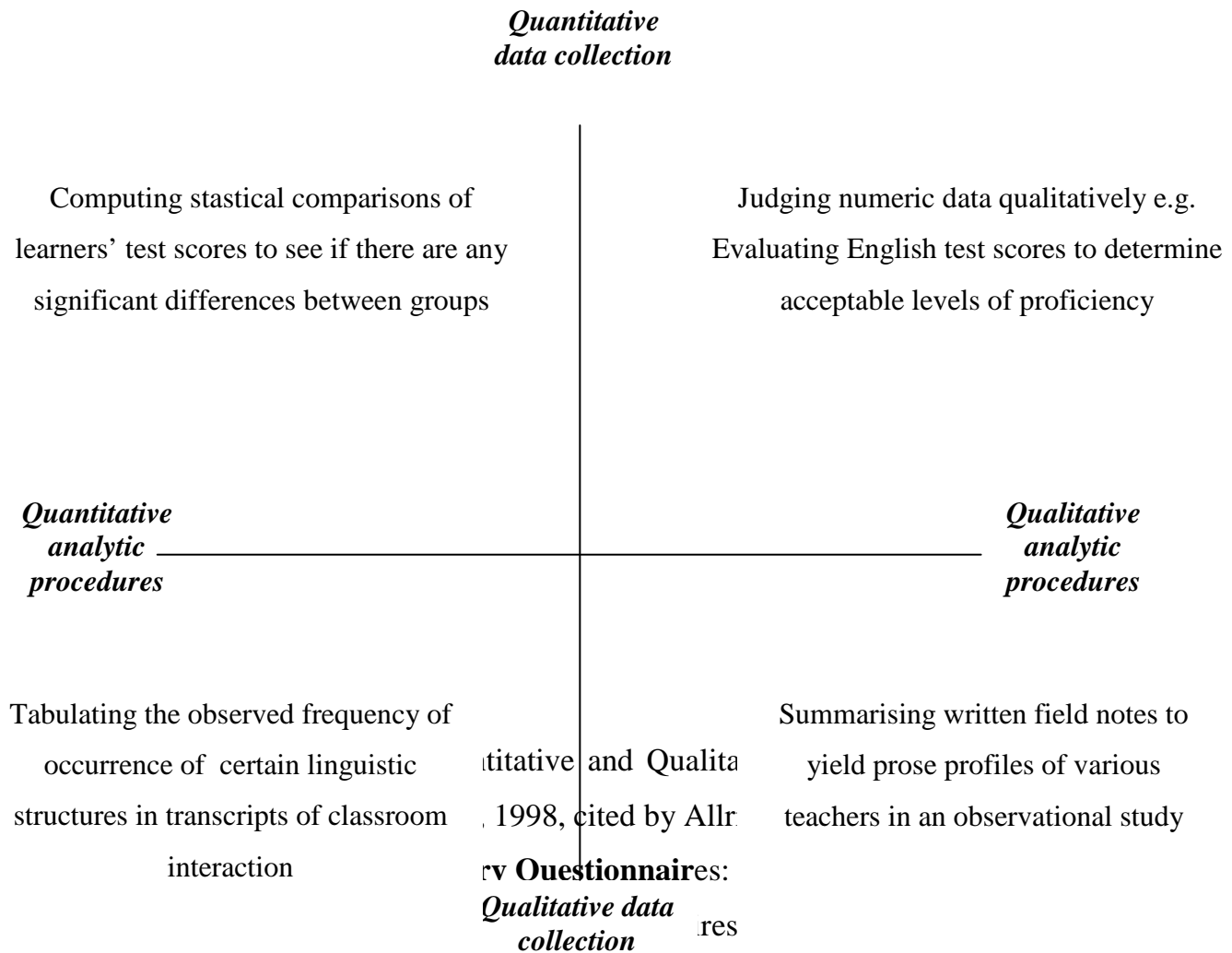
### 6.1.Quantitative Versus Qualitative Issues

The approach for data analysis we selected for this classroom –centred research is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches rather than the rigid adherence to one approach over another(Van Lier ,1988 ,cited by Allright and Bailey,1991) The terms *qualitative* and *quantitative* are applied to both data collection and data analysis phases of any research. The data obtained in an investigation can be quantified, as when the researcher counts the frequency of certain behaviour (hand raising, for instance). Thus, any sort of measurement generates quantitative data. On the other hand, some data are not the result of counting and do not produce numerical information: like for example, diaries, interviews, prose descriptions and classroom transcripts .Given these two types of data, researchers apply the terms qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and data analysis in classroom research.

The collected data can be analysed by counting or measuring (quantitative analysis), or by directly interpreting them by a qualitative analysis (Burns,1999). For example, a transcript of classroom lesson (qualitative data) can be explored by counting all sorts of things – the amount of teacher talk, or of learner talk, the frequency of use of certain words, the number of instances of learner errors, and so on, depending largely upon what interests the researcher (Burns,1999). Alternatively, the lesson transcript could be treated like a literary text, and try to understand it by close textual analysis that need not involve counting at all. The third possibility is that these

two approaches, the quantitative approaches can be combined in any investigation. Even a numerical analysis needs a qualitative interpretation at any stage (Allright and Bailey, 1991).

A combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis is possible at any stage of research as shown in this figure .



for the research problem . verify whether or not any claim or any personal perception merits further inquiry as a full investigation. In other words , the poor level of third year literary classes at Zaaticha secondary school learners is justifiable on the basis of these preliminary questionnaires :

### 7.1. The learners' Preliminary Questionnaire

we have chosen to start our research with a pilot study in the form of two preliminary questionnaires (the Teachers' preliminary questionnaire, and the learners' preliminary questionnaire), which were delivered to learners and teachers in a secondary school in Biskra with the third year literary stream since the problem was first identified with them. The analysis of the two questionnaires reveal that both the teachers and their students agree on the existence of the problem. However, classroom observation will also be used as a tool of research throughout this research in order to investigate the reality of the classroom interaction.

### 7.1.1. Description of the Questionnaire

This questionnaire was distributed to all 3rd year learners (eighty (80) pupils) at zaaticha secondary school in Biskra, just after the first term exam and was answered and returned during that session. The questionnaire is composed of three basic questions: Q 1 asks learners whether they find difficulties or not when they try to express themselves in English? Q 2 asks pupils how they evaluate their oral English? Whether it is good, average or poor.

Q 3 asks the pupils if their level is poor, is it because of the teaching method or they do not have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom and to specify if there are other causes.

### 7.1.2. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Q 1) – Do you find difficulties when you try to express yourself in English?

- Yes
- No

Options	Yes	No	No answer
Number of Learners	95% 76	5% 4	0

**Table 1:**  
**Facing**  
**Difficulties**  
**Speaking**  
**the**

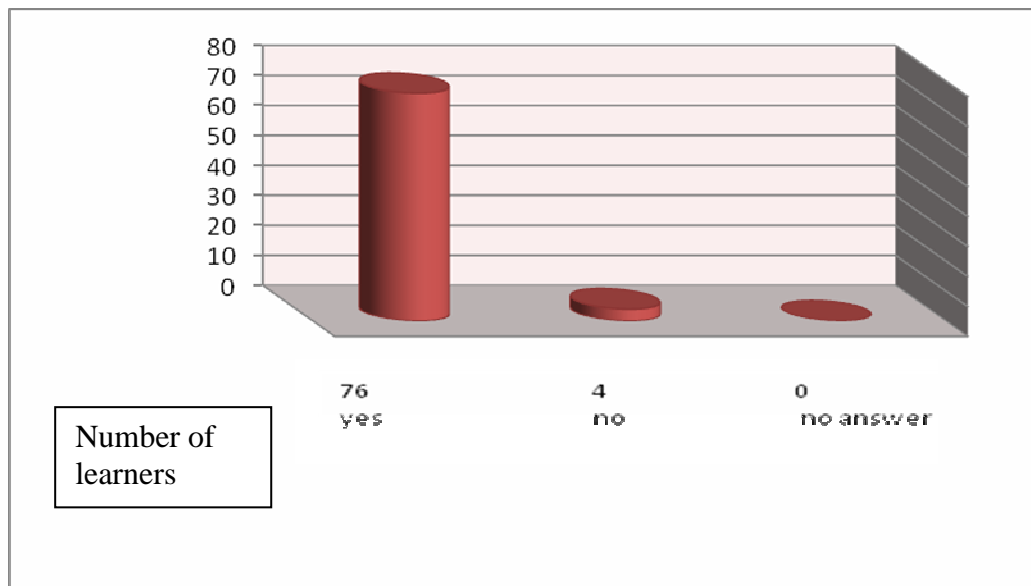
Options	Good	Average	Poor	No answer
Number of students	4	10	60	6
%	5%	12.50%	75%	7.50%

**Learners**

**When**

**English in**

**Classroom**

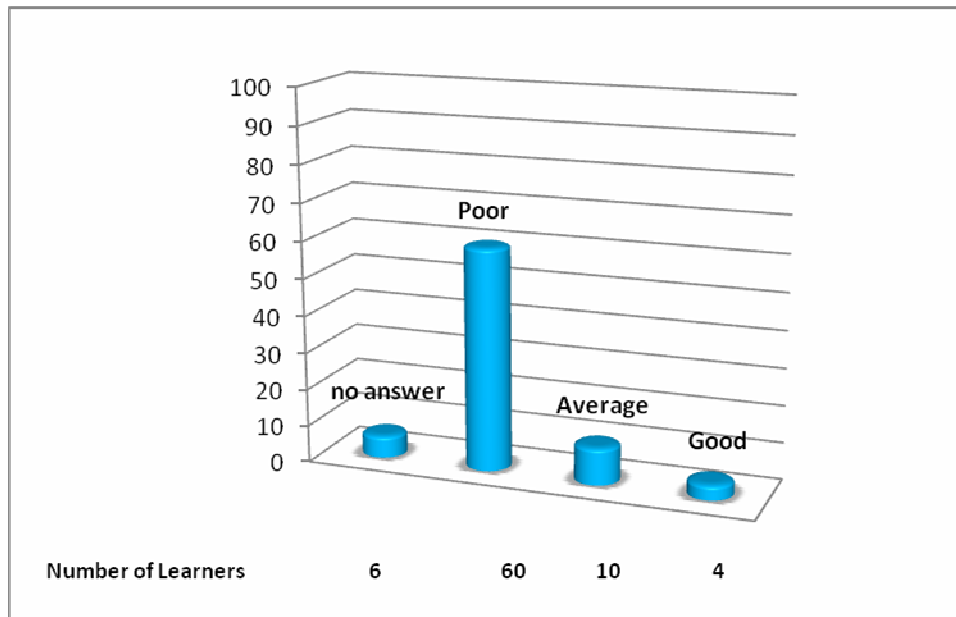


**Graph 1 : Learners Facing Difficulties When Trying to Express Themselves in English**

95 % of the pupils find difficulties when they express themselves in oral English.

**Table 2: Learners' Evaluation of Their Level in English**





**Graph 2 : Learner's Evaluation of Their Level in English**

Q 2) – How do you evaluate your oral English ?

- Good
- Average
- Poor

Only four pupils say that their oral English is good ,ten pupils consider their English as average and 60 pupils think that their English is poor.

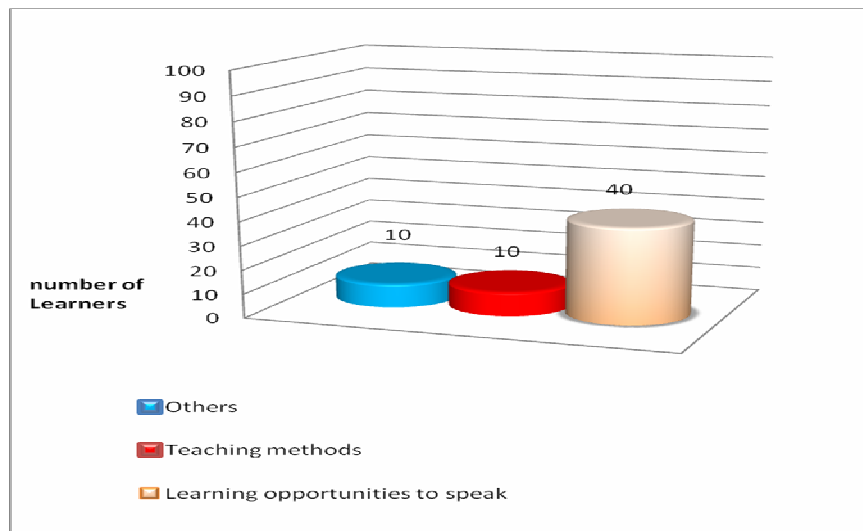
Q 3) – If you your level is poor , is it because of:

- The teaching method
- you do not have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom?
- Other causes ,please specify.

Options	Learning opportunities to speak	Teaching methods	Others
Number of	40	10	10

Learners			
%			

Table 3 : Reasons Behind Learners' Poor Level in Oral English .



Graph 3: Reasons Behind Students Poor Level in Oral English .

This question helps us to understand the reasons behind the poor level in oral English.

Almost all the pupils who consider their level to be poor think that they do not have enough opportunities to speak in the classroom ,in addition to this some of them refer to the way they are taught in the classroom and the teacher dominance in the everyday classes and teachers do not select subject related to their interests and needs and aspirations and they( teachers) do not encourage them to speak in English .Some of them state other reasons like shyness or they do not understand what the teacher says in the classroom , others say they have no time because of the BAC exam .

## 7.2. The Teachers Preliminary Questionnaire

We administered a questionnaire to all third year learners at the secondary school at the end of the first term. As we have mentioned previously, this questionnaire aims at identifying whether there is a problem with the speaking skill

with the third year learners (both literary and scientific streams.

### 7.2.1. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire comprises three (3) major questions, which are all of the close-ended category. Q1 asks the two teachers whether their pupils face difficulties when they try to express themselves in English?

Q2) asks them How they evaluate the level of their pupils in oral English ?

- Good
- Average
- Poor

Q3) asks the two teachers whether their learners have enough opportunities to practise English in the classroom? An open ended question is provided with this third question to let the teachers state other reasons .

### 7.2.2. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

**Q1)** Do your pupils face difficulties when they try to express themselves in english?

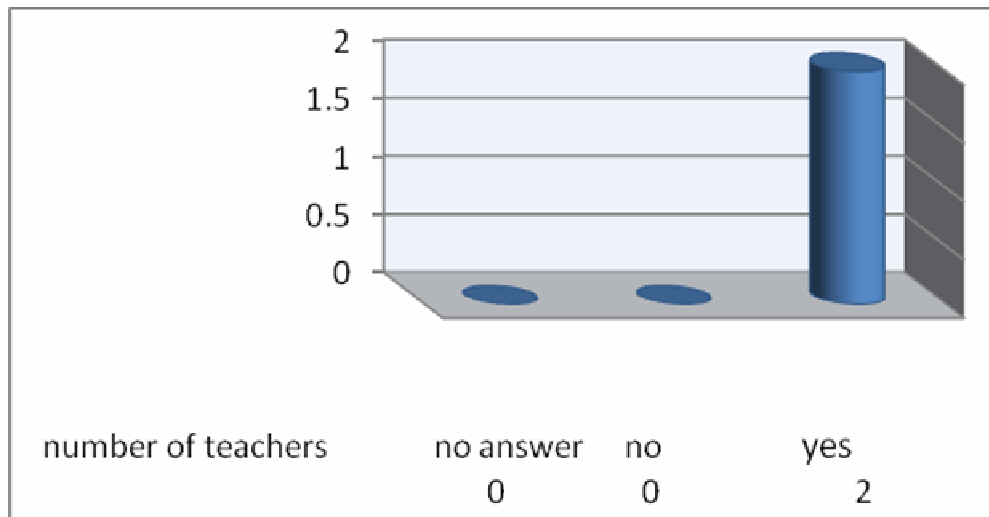
- Yes
- No

Options	Yes	No	No answer
Number of teachers	2	0	0
%	100%	....	....

Table 4 :  
Difficulties in

Learners to Express Themselves in English.

Teachers'  
Getting Their



Graph 4 : Teachers' Difficulties in Getting their Students to Express Themselves in English.

Both teachers (i.e. 100% of them) assume that their pupils cannot express themselves in English.

Q2) Are you completely satisfied with the level of your pupils in oral English ?

- Yes

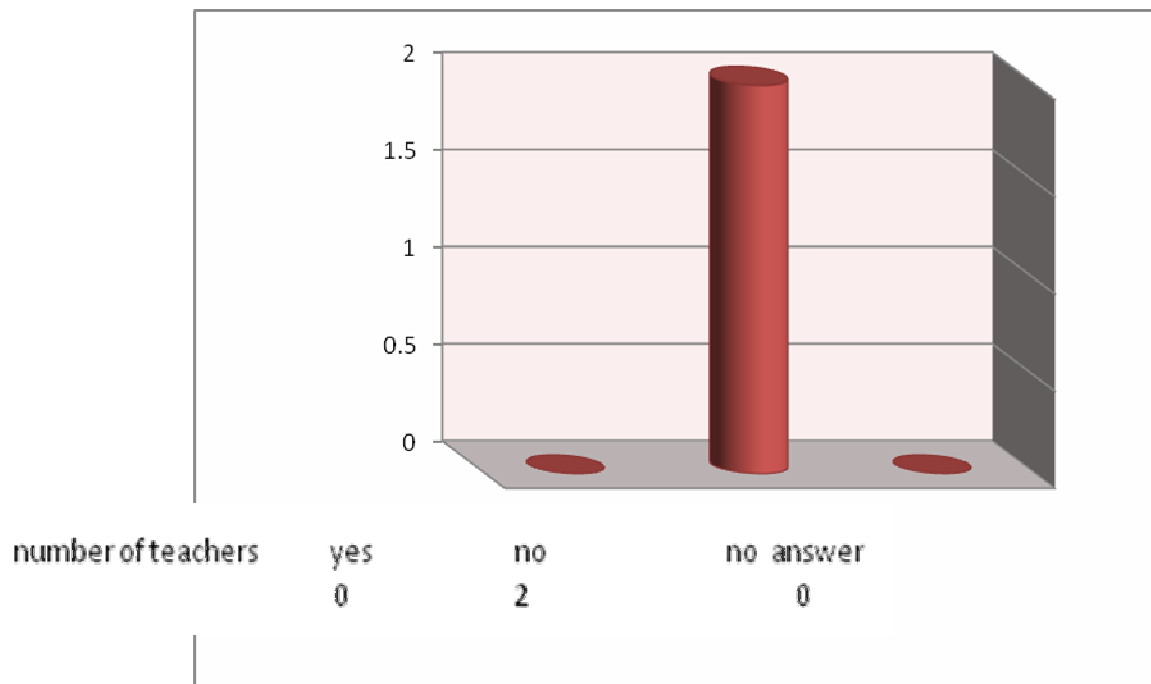
- No

Options	Yes	No	No answer
Number of teachers	0	2	0
%	....	100%	.....

Table 5 :  
Dissatisfaction

Teachers'  
With the

## Level of Their Pupils in Oral English



Graph 5 : Teachers' Dissatisfaction With the Level of Their Pupils in Oral English .

Both teachers (i.e. 100% of them) assume that the level of their pupils is very poor in oral English.

Q 3) – Do your pupils have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom? If your answer is 'No' say why?

- Yes

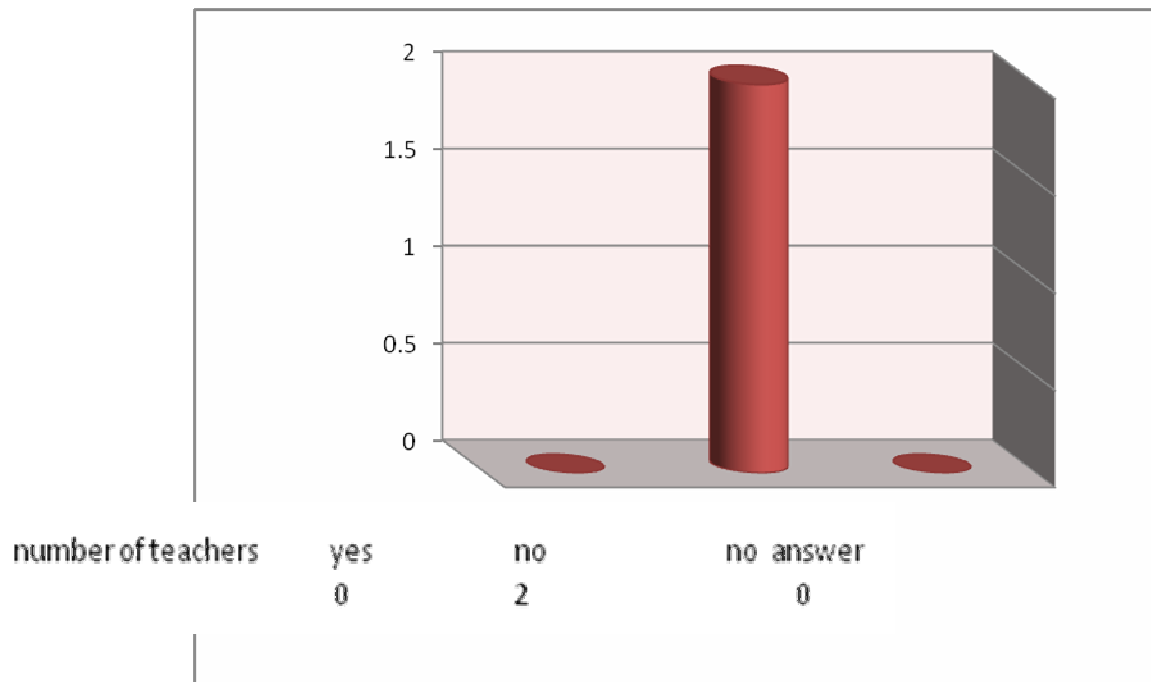
- No

Options	Yes	No	No answer
Number of teachers	0	2	0
%	....	100%	.....

Table 6 :

Teachers'

Difficulties in Providing for Pupils Enough Opportunities to Speak English in the Classroom



Graph 6 : Teachers' Difficulties in Providing for Pupils Enough Opportunities to Speak English in the Classroom .

Both teachers (i.e. 100% of them) agree on the fact that pupils do not have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom as a major source of this problem in addition to many other causes.

Pupils are not motivated enough .

The subjects are very far from their interests and needs.

Classes are overcrowded.

The focus at this stage of learning is on written activities not oral since there are no oral tests both in the BAC exam and in both middle and secondary school exams.

## Conclusion

The analysis of the learners preliminary questionnaires and the teachers' preliminary questionnaire allows us to draw the following conclusions: There is a serious gap in our third year learners ' ability to produce English to communicate their

thoughts effectively .In other words ,this section provides a clear evidence that third year learners are really facing a serious problem. Most of the pupils assume that their oral English is far from being good and they expressed a deep disappointment about their level at this stage of learning although all of them assume that they are highly motivated to learn English .

English in Algeria is a foreign language .In other words ,our learners have no opportunity to interact with native speakers or to use English outside the classroom . The findings and conclusion of this section will certainly help us to focus on the students' classroom speaking opportunities and analyse the quality of interaction to identify the causes of their poor performance in the speaking skill in their last year in the secondary school.

## **8.Analysis of the Observation Data**

This section presents the findings of the classroom observation on the quality of classroom interaction . It is divided into two main parts (1)The dominance of IRF pattern in classroom interaction ,(2)the absence of authentic communication . In this section ,we first present the quantitative results of the occurrence of such features as IRF patterns and important strategies involved in negotiation of meaning . Then ,we provide descriptions and illustrations from classroom discourse .

### **8.1.The dominance of IRF Pattern in Classroom Interaction**

Before starting our analysis we need to restate again our first hypothesis :

**H1):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind the poor quality of interaction would appear to be the dominance of IRF cycle (teacher initiation-learner response-teacher follow-up)

Instead of analyzing the five lessons, the emphasis is put on the parts of the lessons where there is classroom interaction; these conversations are transcribed to

be referred in our study as the transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD) . These five (TTLD) are coded firstly based on IRF model (Initiation-Response-Feedback) (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) as the following example.

I        T:     What's the boy doing?  
 R        S:     He's climbing a tree.  
 F        T:     That's right. He's climbing a tree.

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975,cited by Cullen, 2002: 117)

The Sinclair and Coulthard's model was devised in 1975 and slightly revised in 1992.It is composed of five ranks: lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act. Sinclair and Coulthard identified twenty-two different classes of acts which combine to make the five classes of moves : These are *framing* and *focusing moves*, which combine to make *boundary exchanges* . *Opening, responding* and *follow-up moves* combine to make *teaching exchanges*. A number of these exchanges combine to make transactions, which combine to make the lesson. According to Coulthard : An exchange is formed by at least two moves (initiation and response), and at most by five moves I(R/I) R (F)(F).

Here an example is provided from one of the transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD).

**1-T:** This unit is about ethics in business

What is business? Yes?

What is business?

Is it a person?

What is it? Is it a job!

**2 -L1:** Business, is a job

**3 -T:** Yes Business is a job

(Excerpt from TTLD 2)

In order to count the number of exchanges ,we have adopted Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) term *exchange* for this level of analysis. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) identified eleven types: six free exchanges, and five bound ones. There are six free exchanges, *Teacher Elicit* exchange occurs when the teachers elicit verbal contributions. *Teacher Inform* is employed by the teachers to pass on facts, ideas,



opinions and information. *Teacher Direct* is used when teachers make the learners do but not say something. *The Check exchange* occurs when the teachers assess whether there is any problem preventing the smooth progress of a session. *The learner Elicit* exchange occurs when the learners request information from the teachers.

Of five bound exchanges, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) captured two types of Re-initiation (R/I) exchange which occur when the teachers obtain no response or an incorrect response to their elicitation.

Another two bound exchanges in Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) system: *Listing* which occurs when the teachers delay evaluation until they obtain a couple of candidate answers and *Reinforce* which is designed for the teachers to reinforce directives.

However, we need also to count the number of exchanges that fit perfectly with the IRF pattern that contains an Initiation move, a Response move and an evaluation or follow-up move.

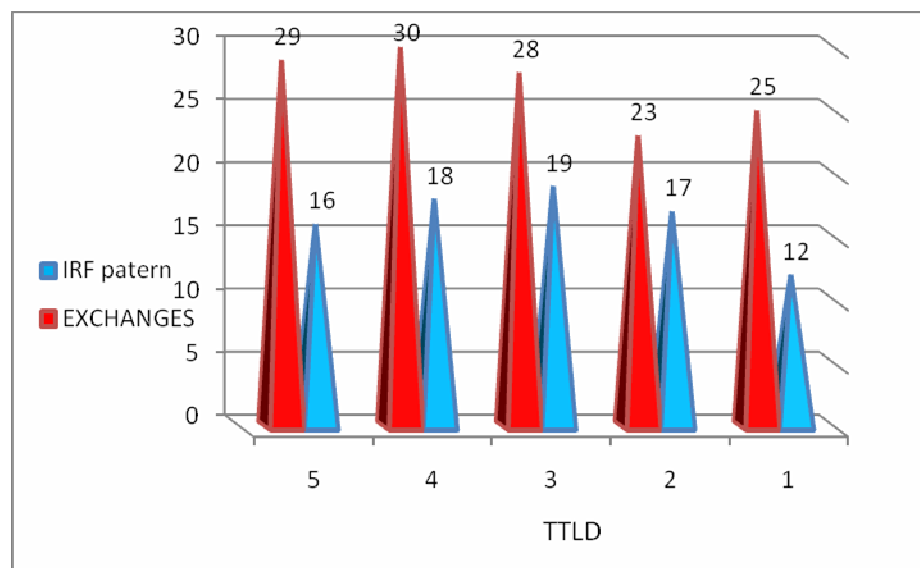
I        T:    What's the boy doing?  
**R**       S:    He's climbing a tree.  
**F**       T:    That's right. He's climbing a tree.

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, cited by Cullen, 2002: 117)

<b>TTL</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Exchanges</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>IRF Pattern</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>16</b>

Table 7: The

Number of Exchanges and IRF Patterns.



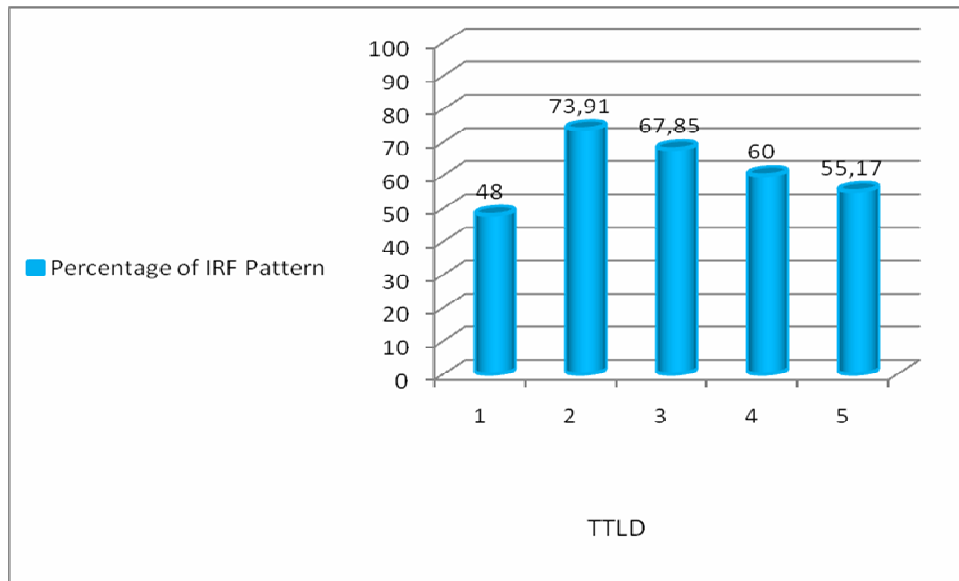
Graph 7 :The Number of Exchanges and IRF Patterns

The chart above shows the number of exchanges and the number of IRF patterns that occurred in the five teacher learner discussions .As can be seen from the chart, there is a consistent trend for the use of IRF exchange compared to other types of exchanges.The figures suggest that almost half of the exchanges(135 exchanges) in the five (TTLD) is of IRF type.

TTLD	1	2	3	4	5
Percentage of IRF patterns	48	73.91	67.85	60	55.17

Table

8 : Percentage of IRF Patterns in the five Transcribed Teacher-Learner Discussions (TTLD)



Graph 8 : Percentage of IRF Patterns in the Five Transcribed Teacher-Learner Discussions (TTLD)

The bar graph illustrates the distribution of the IRF pattern across the five lessons investigated. The vertical axis shows the percentage of IRF exchange and the horizontal axis compares the five transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD). After considering the chart carefully, it can be found that the teacher provided 48% of the IRF sequence in the first lesson, 73.91 in the second, 67.85% in the third one, 60% in the fourth and 55.17% in the last lesson. This demonstrates the dominance of the IRF pattern in the five (TTLD).

Throughout the five transcribed teacher-student discussions (TTLD) the teacher spends all the time asking questions and the learners' oral production is limited to giving short answers. What can be noticed is that the teacher gets different answers he was looking for by applying an interactional control with less regard to the pupils' understanding of the content (Good & Brothy, 1997). The teacher, in almost every exchange in these five transcribed teacher-student discussions TTLD makes all the students' answers conform to the interactional patterns that were established for this lesson and the pupils eventually just comply (Johnson, 1995).

### 8.1.1.CONTROL OF THE CONTENT OF THE LESSON

The teacher clearly dominates classroom communication although he is not aware of this behaviour as many other teachers in foreign language classes ( Good &Brothy ,1997).This teacher is the principal actor .An other fact ,also confirmed in this present research , classroom interaction appears to be dominated by a small set of learners .

The teacher also controlled the content of the lesson through his questions.Maclure and French (1980,cited by Johnson ,1995)argue that teachers use two interactive strategies to indicate to pupils the types of the answers they want .The first strategy ,perforulation as in turn 25 in the third lesson when he says *yes /good providing that* .In turn 18 in the same lesson transcript , *yes* ,your friend says the verb n°1 is *will eradicate* .The teacher uses a second strategy *reformulation* which involves rephrasing the question so that it becomes simple and more specific. In many exchanges ,the teacher reformulates questions as in these examples to help pupils produce answers.

**26 – T:** Yes: Good! It means literature

What do you eat in your region?

What do you prepare in this region?

What do you give to people who come to your region?

**27 - L9:** Couscous

**28 -T.:** So, what is this couscous.

**29 - L1:** Food.

**30 –T:** Yes very good. It is a food

(Excerpt from TTLD 1)

### 8.1.2.Teacher 's Questions

The teacher uses more convergent than divergent questions .these questions help the recall of information rather than generating pupils personal ideas .Most of the time pupils answer with simple words to this type of questions .In other words ,display questions provide limited opportunities for pupils to practice the foreign language in the classroom. These different (TTLD) can be classified as mainly uncommunicative fragments of classroom discourse(Cullen ,1998).The teacher's questions are all display

questions to which the teacher already has the answer. Feedback from the teacher to the pupils' answer is either an acknowledgement that the answer is acceptable or an indication that it needs correction or the answer is not acceptable. The five lessons contain no originality.

### 8.1.3.FEEDBACK

In the language classroom, it is possible to give feedback that develops a dialogue between teacher and class, by picking up students' contributions and incorporating them into the flow of discourse (Cullen, 2002). This type of feedback is *discoursal* rather than simply *evaluative*. As it is exemplified in the following examples from our observation data, where the teacher provided mainly evaluative feedback strategy rather than *discoursal* one.

**19-T:** Good, Trees, air and animals, and then?

what do you find in the environment ?

Do you find other things? Yes; what else. Yes, sir?

**20-L5:** *Paybol, Baybol*

**21-T:** Not baybol but we say people.

**22-L5:** People

**23-T:** Yes, good, people and then?

What do we find also in the environment?

**24-L5:** Vegetables.

**25-T:** Vegetables, good and then?

We can say vegetable or what else?

**26-L2:** Lands.

**27-T:** Lands Ok. So, these are the main things that you can find in the environment. Ok.

According to you is your environment clean or not?

Is it clean?

Is it proper?

Is your environment proper?

**28-L2:** Is not.

**29-T:** No. No, it is not.

(Excerpt from (TTLD 5))

The teacher asks the pupils *What do we find also in the environment ?* in line 22. In line 23, after the learner gives a correct answer which is the following *vegetables*, the teacher provides verbal feedback for her answer that *Vegetables, good and then ?* (line 24). This verbal feedback shows the teacher's evaluation to the pupil's contributions. Thus, it can be concluded that from the beginning to the end of the discussion the

teacher has already known the meaning of the word *pollution*. Therefore, he could evaluate what the pupil said. On the other hand, when the teacher asked for the students' personal information, he gave interactional feedback such as commenting or asking for further information about what the student was talking as follows.

So education serves you to work in the fu(.) In the future.

Is it clear? So, education is the act of learning and acquiring things that will serve you in your fu ()In your future.

For example, you can become what?

What's your dream for the future?

What do you want to become in the future?

**44:L5:** Journalist

**45 – T:** Journalist, good. She wants to become a journalist. Ok, another one.

**46 - L12:** Teacher

**47 – T:** Yes?

**48 – L:** Teacher. Teacher

**49- T:** Teacher and then? Yes?

**50- L5:** Doct

**51 -T:** Doctor. But doctor for literary is not possible. No it is not possible.

You can not do medicine you. Ok, because you are specialized in literature.

That's all. Ok.

**52 - S1:** Mayor

**53 - T:** Mayor. Good. The head of the state or of the town.

Yes, Good. Thank you.

In Example 3, when the teacher asks L2 ? *what's your dream for the future ? what do you want to become in the future ?*, he cannot predict what the pupils will answer because it is a personal information. Since the talking topic was about L2's personal information, the teacher could not evaluate their contributions. This question is a very simple one and the teacher can predict the answer ;therefore ,the feedback provided is evaluative not an interactional one by which the teacher can encourage a student to talk far more and let the discussion move forward.

Moreover, when the teacher asked a question that required information for negotiation or discussion by asking for the students' opinions, explanations, and conjectures, he evaluated just one learner' responses instead of inviting further pupils' contributions as follows:

What is the important one here? You have to create good citizens, or prepare people for life, or create work?  
What is the most important one?

Yes.

**54 - L1:** Prepare people for life.

**55 -T:** Very good. Education prepares you for your life in the fut (.) in the future.

(Excerpt from TTLD 4)

The teacher provided evaluative feedback and all his questions were display questions .

## 8.2.Absence of Authentic Communication:

In order to start our analysis to verify our last hypothesis that seeks to investigate the existence of authentic communication in classroom interaction we need the definition of some basic concepts but before defining them,we have to restate again the second hypothesis:

**H2):** We hypothesize that the main cause behind learners' poor performance in the speaking skill would be appear to be due to the lack of interaction involving *genuine* communication.

What is genuine or authentic communication ?

*Genuine communication is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs(Nunan 1987:137,cited by Cullen,1998).*

### 8.2.1. Negotiation of Meaning

In order to analyze the different features involved in the negotiation of meaning we need to restate again these definitions of the most important strategies involved in negotiation of meaning on the part of the teacher and the learners :

1-A *comprehension check* is the speaker's request for information to see if his interlocutors have understood what was said using questions like *do you understand*

?Is it clear ?Do you understand it ? The speaker aims at checking comprehension of the message

2-A *Confirmation check* is the speaker's request as to whether or not the speaker's understanding of the interlocutor's meaning is correct using questions like *oh ,so you are saying you did live in London?*

3-A *clarification check* is a request for further information on the part of the speaker to understand something said by the interlocutor. *I don't understand exactly what do you mean ? Can you say that again ? Try to say it in English?*

In these five transcribed teacher- learner discussions (TTLD) reported for this paper, the quantitative results show that the frequency of the most important strategies ( clarification requests, comprehension and confirmation checks) involved in negotiating of meaning is very low. An example is provided using (comprehension check )

**7-T:**What are you doing now in the class ?  
What are you doing now in the class?  
Are you eating ? what are you doing in the class?

**8-L2:**Study

**9-T:**When you say we study , what do you mean by the word *study*? (comprehension check ) what does the word *study* refer to ?

**10-L2:** Education.

(Excerpt from TTLD 2)

An other example is provided using *clarification request*:

**25 -T:** Geography. Good what are the things you learn here in your lycee, in your school, Ok? Yes

**26 - L9:** *Philosophish*

**27 - T:** Philosophy, repeat please. (clarification request)

**28 -L9:** Phylosophy.

**29 -T:** Good. Philosophy and then ?

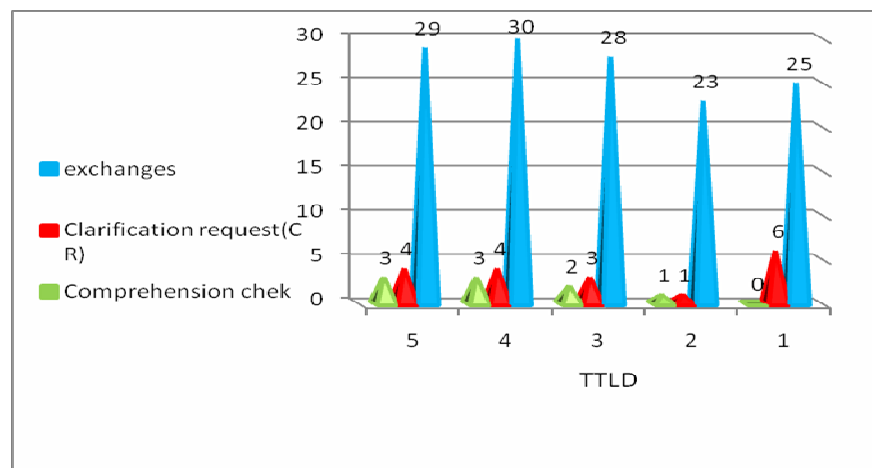
(Excerpt from TTLD 4)

TTLD	1	2	3	4	5
<b>exchanges</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>Clarification request(C R)</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>



<b>Comprehension check</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>
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Table9:TheNumber of Clarification Request and Comprehension Check Strategies used by the Teacher .

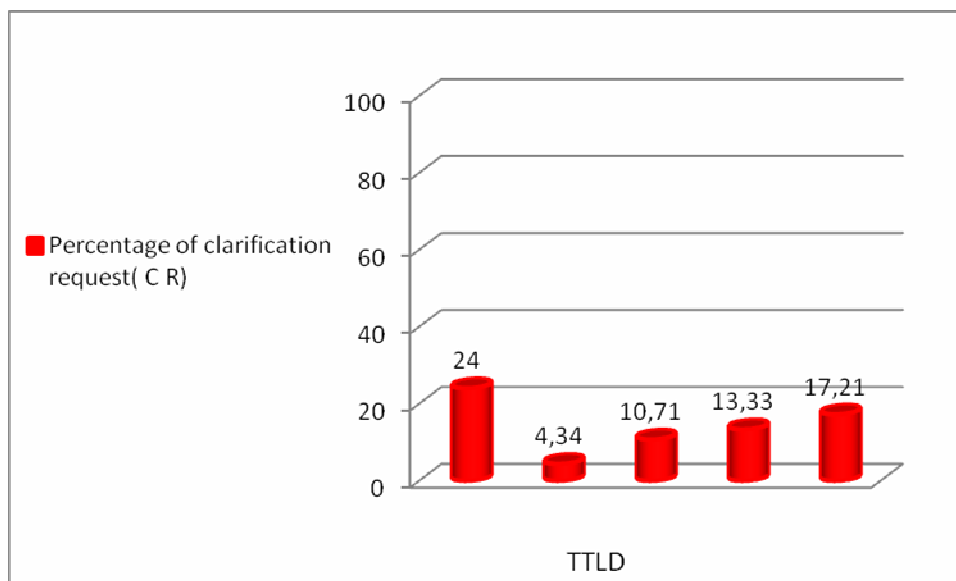


**Graph 9** :The Number of Clarification Request and Comprehension Check Strategies Used by the Teacher .

The following graph displays the occurrence of clarification request and comprehension check strategies in the five transcribed teacher-Learner discussions . As shown in this chart ,the teacher provided more clarification request strategies (18 ).

<b>TTLD</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Percentage of clarification request(CR)</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>4.34</b>	<b>10.71</b>	<b>13.33</b>	<b>17.24</b>

Table 10:Percentage of Clarification Request Strategies Used by The Teacher.

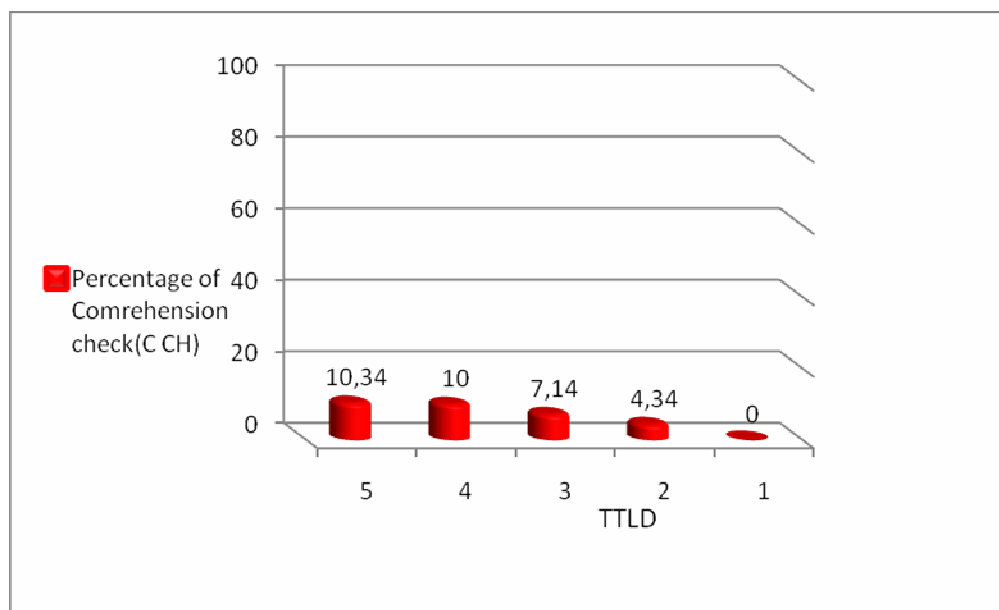


Graph 10 :Percentage of Clarification Request Strategies Used by The Teacher .

The graph above presents the percentage of clarification request strategies in the five transcribed teacher-Learner discussions :24% in the first (TTLD),4.34 % in the second , 10.71 % in the third one ,13.33 in the fourth lesson and 17.21% in the last transcribed teacher-Learner discussion .The frequency of the strategy is low and what can be noted is that they are produced by the teacher not the learners .

TTLD	1	2	3	4	5
Percentage of comprehension check(C CH)	0	4.34	7.14	10	10.34

Table 11: Percentage of Comprehension Check Strategies Used by the Teacher .

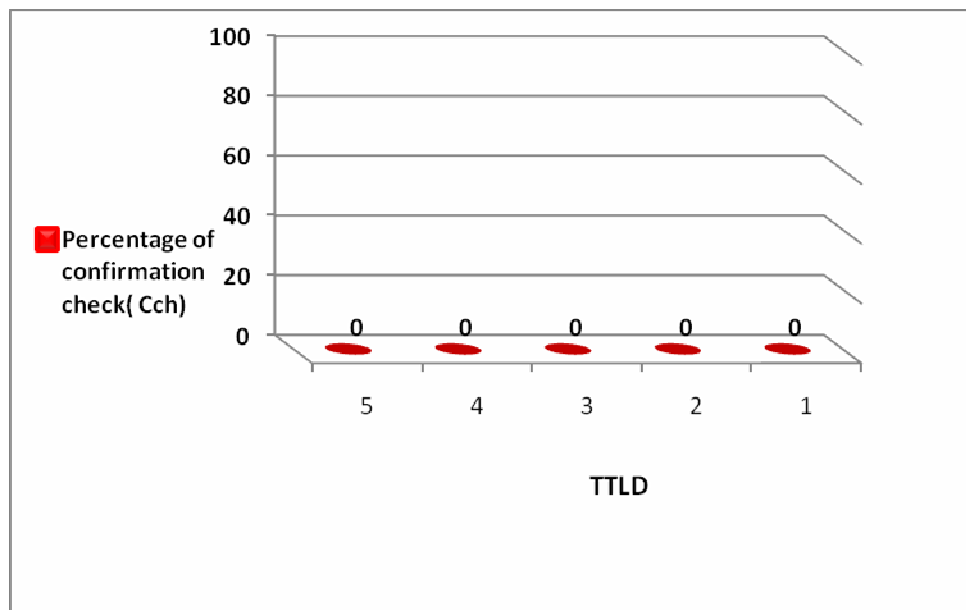


Graph 11: Percentage of Comprehension Check Strategies Used by The Teacher .

In this chart ,we examine the occurrence of the most important strategy involved in negotiation of meaning which is comprehension check strategy on the part of the teacher .The vertical axis indicates the percentage of this strategy and the horizontal axis compares the five transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD) .

TTLD	1	2	3	4	5
Percentage of confirmation check( c ch)	0	0	0	0	0

Table 12 :Percentage of Confirmation Check Strategies Used by The Teacher.

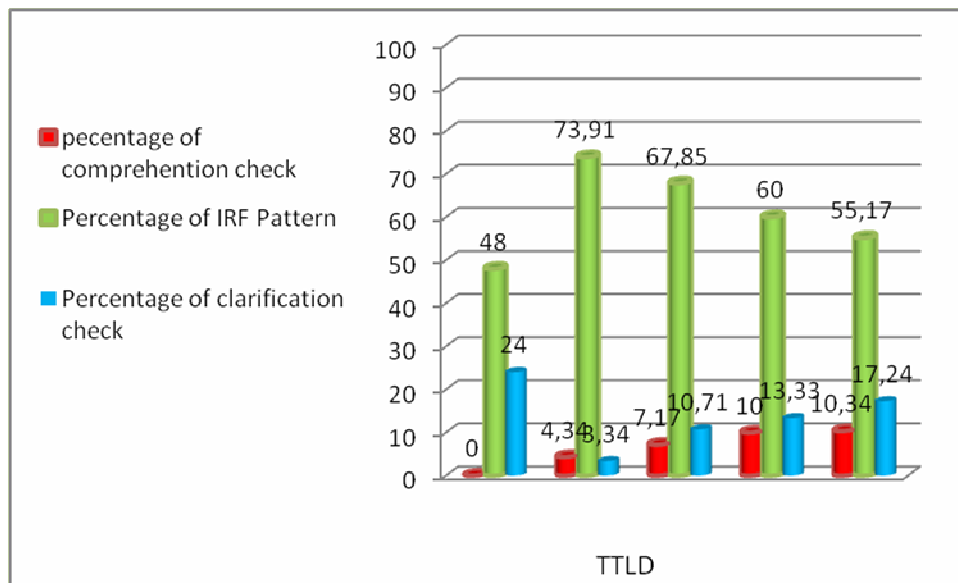


Graph :12 :Percentage of Confirmation Check Strategies Used by The Teacher.

The teacher used no confirmation check strategy throughout these teacher-learner discussions .The above data evidently showed that confirmation check is the less favoured strategy in this study .These findings are of great significance to our investigation ,they provide an evidence of the lack of negotiation of meaning in the data analysed .

TTSD	1	2	3	4	5
Percentage of Comprehension check(C CH)	0	4.34	7.14	10	10.34
Percentage of IRF Pattern	48	73.91	67.85	60	55.17
Percentage of clarification request(C R)	24	4.34	10.71	13.33	17.24

Table 13: Percentage of Clarification Request and Comprehension Check Strategies Used by The Teacher .



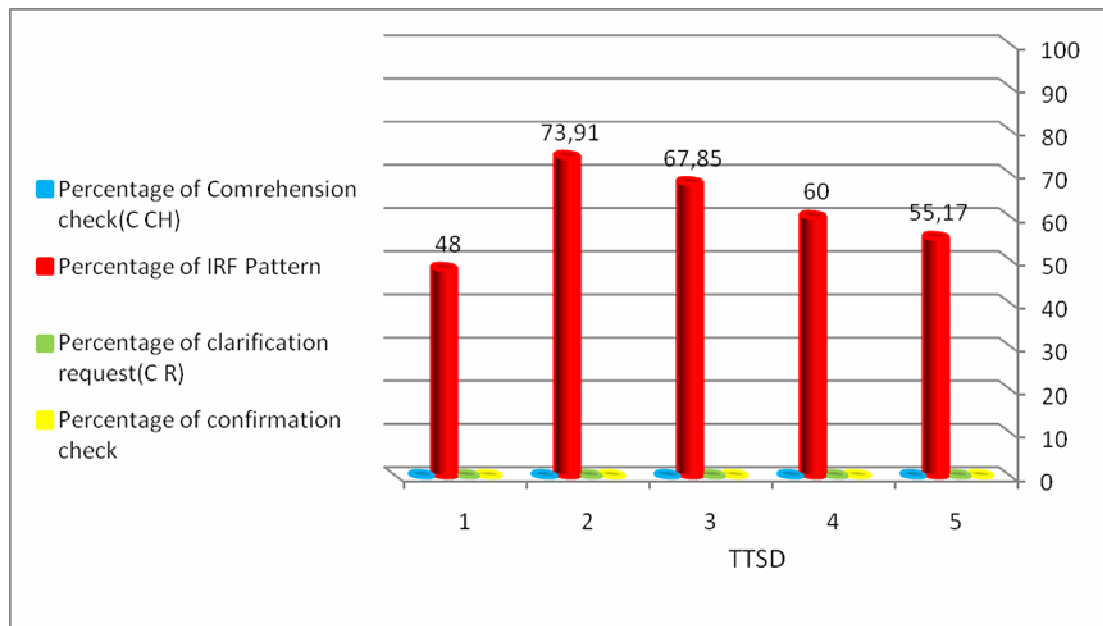
Graph

13: Percentage of Clarification Request and Comprehension Check Strategies Used by The Teacher .

The graph includes all the strategies used by the teacher .It compares the percentage of IRF pattern together with the two strategies involved in negotiation of meaning : clarification request and comprehension check strategies.

TTLD	1	2	3	4	5
Percentage of Comprehension check(C CH)	0	0	0	0	0
Percentage of IRF Pattern	48	73.91	67.85	60	55.17
Percentage of clarification request(C R)	0	0	0	0	0
Percentage of confirmation check	0	0	0	0	0

Table :14: Percentage of Clarification Request , Comprehension Check and Confirmation Check Strategies Used by The Learner .



Graph 14: Percentage of Clarification Request , Comprehension Check and Confirmation Check Strategies Used by the Learner.

The learners, according to this bar chart, didn't use strategies to negotiate meaning in their interaction with their teacher. The learner didn't ask for clarification or check their comprehension of words or information.

A qualitative analysis of the data investigated the long stretches of interaction to see whether we can find characteristics like *topic nomination* and *the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not* that make such talk as communicative (Cullen, 1998). The amount of Learners' talk versus teacher talk in these different TTLD suggests that the teacher is exerting control over patterns of communication. There was no variation in the IRF interactional sequence. There are no instances where the pupils took on, for example, the initiation move or the evaluation part of the sequence throughout the conversations recorded. The sequence was not abandoned to let students interact with one another or to initiate topics of their own. Pupils are not encouraged to ask questions, to control the topic of discussion, and to self-select when to participate. The teacher appears to be rigid with any topic.

shift and does not let pupils to offer their own interpretation .No one is allowed to direct comments to another pupil or to the teacher himself .In addition to this, pupils do not respond directly without a direct nomination from the teacher.

Both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the the five transcribed teacher-learner discussions (TTLD) provide an evidence to our second hypothesis which is the absence of authentic communication in the foreign language classes.

## **Conclusion**

The analysis of the five transcribed lessons allows us to make the following remarks:

In these five transcribed lessons , teacher talk constructs the largest, if not the most significant, part of this language class. Although, teacher talk, as said earlier , is the medium of teaching and a useful tool for evaluating students' response. The different findings of our research reveal a teacher-controlled transmission mode of teaching with the focus on mechanical practice and recalling from memory previously learnt knowledge rather than on meaningful interaction. Learners are afforded fewer opportunities to participate meaningfully in classroom interaction.

Analysis of the five transcribed lessons shows that the teacher-learner interaction is dominated by the teacher-initiated monologic IRF sequence with the I move mainly used to initiate known-information. Questions and the feedback move are used to both evaluate and carry on with more instruction. The data shows how the heavy reliance on the strict IRF pattern constrains the students' opportunities to participate in classroom discourse and to develop genuine interactional and communicative competence that can be used outside the language classroom. This traditional classroom interaction of teacher initiation, student response and teacher feedback(IRF), as identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) inhibits students from taking the initiative and benefiting from alternatives such as peer-feedback.

Furthermore, this pattern blocks the opportunities that can generate authentic communication in which negotiation of meaning occurs. In the IRF sequence the teacher has all the answers to his questions, which have been criticized by Van Lier (1988) as being closed and inauthentic, and no negotiation is necessary.

By contrast, definitions of authentic communication refer to *spontaneity, on the spot information processing or the rapid processing skills, fluent connected speech, negotiatory language cooperation and fluidity*(Harmer 2001). McCarthy (1991, p.30) describes spoken English as a *picture of dynamism, fluidity, variability, mixing and negotiation*. Tsui(1994:5) says that *natural conversation is usually associated with out-of-class talk and occurs spontaneously, without any planning or prompting*. It is hard to imagine that students instructed through this traditional classroom interaction can really develop an oral proficiency and increase in the scope and breath of their discourse and develop confidence in generating output.



## Chapter Four

### Pedagogical

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## **Chapter Four:Pedagogical Recommendation**

In this chapter, we suggest some recommendations for secondary school teachers since at this stage of learning students are shy and lack self confidence, although they have studied English for many years, in addition to the increased pressure to prepare the learners for the official exam .The focus is mainly on the classroom atmosphere and stimulating learners' motivation to make learning, in general and the speaking activities in particular, enjoyable in order to break the monotony of the long teaching programmes. The major issue that emerged from the findings of this research is the lack of authentic communication in the classroom interaction ,thus some activities are suggested,in additions to other useful recommendations for teachers that are direct implications of this study.

### **1.Reviving the secondary school classes**

Teachers and learners can easily settle into a heavy routine as the school year progresses .Therefore, teachers need to vary as many elements of the learning process like:

#### **1.1 Making the teaching materials relevant for learners**

One of the demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that has no relevance whatsoever to their lives. As Brophy ( 1998, cited by Dörnyei, 2001) points to the fact that most schools curricular themes and activities are designed on the basis of what society believes learners need to learn, not on the basis of the learner 's choices. Accordingly, teachers are left with one option: find out what the learner 's goals are and what topics they want to learn about. Such motivational advice offered by the educational literature is, to try to give sense and relevance to the teaching material. Learners will learn if only they regard the material they are taught as worth learning

## 1.2. Maintaining and protecting motivation

Language teachers are constantly faced with the most challenging task, which is how to capture the interest and to stimulate the imagination of their students to motivate them to learn.

### 1.2.1. Making learning stimulating and enjoyable:

If all teachers make the learning process more stimulating and enjoyable, that would help learner involvement in the language class. This assumption is mainly approved by most motivational psychologists to many practitioners; the word motivating would simply equate with the term interesting. Most theoreticians and practitioners agree on the importance of making learning stimulating and enjoyable. However, most research indicates that the classroom climate for learning just reveals the opposite: *unglamorous and drudgery-like* (Dörnyei, 2001). Second, the increasing tension on teachers because of the long programmes and the increased pressure to prepare their learners for official exams, therefore, the real focus becomes the outcome not the process of learning. Third, teachers are required to teach the whole curriculum and certain parts are bound to be less enjoyable for some learners than others. Couington and Teer (1996, cited by (Dörnyei, 2001) indicate that teachers are not in the entertainment business, and it is difficult to expect of them to turn every thing into fun in the classroom. However, an impressive array of motivational strategies have been found to make learning more stimulating, teachers can, pursue three main types of strategies in order to reach this goal:

- ✚ Breaking the monotony of learning.
- ✚ Making the tasks more interesting
- ✚ Increasing the involvement of the students.

These three stimulation goals overlap what breaks the monotony of learning and make the process more interesting. Students, as a result will be involved since learning is enjoyable and stimulating.

### **1.2.1.1. Breaking the monotony of learning**

Even in classes where learning is stimulating and enjoyable that to break monotony we need to vary as many elements of the learning process as possible starting with the language tasks. However, variety must also concern other aspects of the teaching and learning process like:

- The teacher's presentation style.
- The learning materials.
- The excellent of learners involvement.

### **1.2.1.2. Making the tasks more interesting**

These motivating features of task content can help teachers:

- Challenge
- Interesting content
- The novelty element
- The intriguing element
- The exotic element
- The fantasy element
- The personal element
- Competition
- Tangible outcome
- Humor

### **- 1.2.1.3. Increasing the involvement of the learners**

Learners can enjoy a given task if they play an essential part in it. Involving learners in class discussion make learners active participants. Teachers need to select tasks which require mental and/or bodily involvement from each learner. Specific roles and personalized assignment need to be created for every one in the class.

### 1.2.2. Presenting tasks in motivating way

To make tasks more motivating ,teachers need to:

1. Explain the purpose and the utility of task if they want their learners to give their best. They need to see the importance of what they do.

*Every new unit, every venue of instruction, should be preceded by a justification of its presence* (Scheidecker and Freeman, 1999: 140, cited by Dörnyei, 2001, p 79).

2. The teacher need to raise the learner 's expectations of the task (whetting the learner's appetite for learning by asking them to make guesses and predictions about the upcoming task or by pointing the important aspects to be learned.
3. Providing appropriate strategies to fulfil the task. The best way to provide the necessary strategies before any task is by modeling them. The teacher has to demonstrate not to explain. The teacher can pretend to be a learner by playing the roles himself or ask volunteers to act out the guidelines.

### 1.2.3. Setting specific learner goal

The basic question that needs to be addressed is how specific and short term goals can help the learners to evaluate their own performance. The sub-goals can be related to the forthcoming tests exams or competitions but it is a mistake to restrict the short term goals to such official and natural events. Personal goals such as learning ten words each session can energize learning as well. In other words, goal-setting increases productivity.

1. Goals should be clear and specific, measurable, challenging .
2. Goals should have a clear completion date.
3. Short-term goals are as important as long-term goal.
4. Immediate feedback increases student's capabilities and confidence in obtaining the goal.

Mc Combs and Pope (1994: 69, cited by Dörnyei, 2001) provide the ‘ABCD’ device for goals. A goal must be achievable, believable, conceivable and desirable.

### **1.3. Protecting the learner’s self-esteem and increasing their self confidence**

It is the crucial feature of motivational teaching practice although it is often ignored or played down in the classes. The ‘self’ issues (self-esteem, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and self-worth) are particularly sensitive areas in primary/secondary school learning because learners are often in the developmental age and their self-image is an ongoing flux, and doubts and worries about oneself. Of course, looking at these youngsters you would often be unable to tell that behind the confidence and *cool* façade there is shaky ground (Dörnyei, 2001).

Teachers can affect their learner’s self-image in a positive way. These four main strategies can be used by teachers to provide learners with the necessary confidence-building experiences. Teachers can help their learners a lot in their ongoing search for purpose and identity by making them feel that the language classroom is a safe place where their self-worth is protected and where they can gain self confidence.

This can be reached if teachers follow these basic strategies:

1. Providing experience of success.
2. Encouraging the learners.
3. Reducing language anxiety
  - By avoiding social comparison
  - Promote cooperation instead of competition
  - Help them to accept that mistakes are part of the learning process.
- Test should be transparent and pupils should be involved in the negotiation of the final make.
4. Teaching learner strategies – Building the self confidence about one’s ability to deal with various tasks depends so much on the amount of support that can

be provided to them in the process of learning. The teacher can present the various strategies to facilitate their response to various activities. Learners can use these strategies when they feel insecure and the successful application of these devices increases their learning effectiveness and teach them how to cope with the course material.

#### **1.4.Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image**

To help learners to maintain a positive social image:

- Teachers should avoid criticism and the type of corrections that can be interpreted as being humiliating. Learners have often a low opinion of themselves, so they need of being motivated. Their efforts should be recognized and caution is needed when dealing with their errors.
- Teachers should not put pupils in the spotlight without their consent. Many learners have been demotivated after they have been forced to speak in front of the class because of the deep feeling of embarrassment.
- Teachers should avoid disciplining in ways that they might perceive as humiliating.

#### **1.5.Promoting cooperation among the learners**

Encouraging cooperation between learners is a powerful means of increasing student motivation. All studies in the second or foreign language learning are unanimous in claiming that learners develop more positive attitudes toward learning in a cooperative environment. Cooperation fosters class group cohesiveness ,when learners work together they share a common goal regardless of ethnic, cultural, class or ability differences, this can enhance the feeling of solidarity and comradely supportiveness .Cooperative teams are autonomous since they work without the supervision of their teachers most of the time.

#### **1.6.Creating learner autonomy**



Autonomy is a fashionable word in educational psychology. Several books and articles have been written on its meaning in the educational field during the past decade. The concept of autonomy has been best highlighted by the influential self determination theory (Dörnyei, 2001). According to which the learner is free to choose rather than being obliged to behave following the teacher's desire. This principle is a precondition to motivation.

What are the main principles of an autonomy-oriented teaching practice?

- Learners should have choices about the different aspects of the learning process.
- Teacher should give learners positions of genuine authority.
- They should encourage their contributions .
- Allow learners to use self-assessment procedures whenever necessary and appropriate.

## **2. Some Suggested Activities that promote authentic communication in**

**class:** These are some selected activities to encourage authentic communication in secondary classes:

### **2.1. Class Discussions**

In the foreign language classroom , it is essential that the purpose of the discussion activity is set by the teacher before the discussion .The discussion points should be relevant to the purpose, so that learners do not spend their time chatting with each other about irrelevant things. For example, teachers can opt for agree/disagree discussions. In this type of discussions, the teacher can form groups of learners , preferably 4 or 5 in each group, and provide controversial sentences . Then each group works on their topic for a given time period, and presents their opinions to the class. For Ur (1981) *a discussion that works is primarily one in which as many students as possible say as much as possible* .A further characteristic of a successful discussion is

the apparent motivation of the participants .Besides they learn how to express and justify themselves in polite ways while disagreeing with the others. This activity fosters critical thinking and quick decision making. For efficient group discussions, it is always better not to form large groups. Finally, in class or group discussions the learners should always be encouraged to ask questions, paraphrase ideas, express support, check for clarification, and so on.

## **2.2. Information gap activity**

In this activity, learners are supposed to be working in pairs. One learner will have the information that other partner does not have. Each partner plays an important role because the task cannot be completed if the partners do not provide the information the others need. Information gap activities serve many purposes such as solving a problem or collecting information (Harmer, 2001). Also . These activities are effective tools through which all the learners get the opportunity to talk extensively in the target language. Learners will be involved in information exchange, negotiation of meaning; this will result in a lot of genuine communication use of the target language.

## **2.3. Role playing**

Role playing gives the learners an occasion to process knowledge and demonstrate skills in an emotionally heavily loaded context. *It is a form of elaborative rehearsal that causes learners to interact with content and concepts, and, ideally create an episodic memory* (Gregory and Chepman, 2002:103). Learners are given the opportunity to organize the necessary information and then create meaningful situations. They take on the role of a character, perhaps from a story, play, or novel, a historical or political figure. Thanks to these roles, learners are really immersed in real-life situation. While playing the different roles, they get completely involved. Role plays allow

learners to use their verbal and interpersonal skills. Teachers should encourage volunteers who want to participate . Feedback should be positive and constructive . Role play places information and the abstract concepts in contextual learning situation and help comprehension and retention. (Gregory and Chepman, 2002)

When preparing roles plays, teachers need to follow these several guidelines:

- Research the scene well: The scene should be convincing, believable; it shouldn't lack plausibility.

- Explain your purpose clearly. Learners always feel embarrassed at *acting* in front of the class. In order to put learners through such uncomfortable and very intense experience, teachers need to explain their purpose very clearly. Learners need to know why it is important for them to endure such difficult situations and what benefits they can obtain from the experience.

## 2.4.Simulations

Simulations are very similar to role-plays. In simulations, learners can bring real objects to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a learner is acting as a singer, he can bring a microphone. Role plays and simulations have many advantages. First, since they are entertaining, they motivate the learner .Harmer (1984) suggests that such type of activities increase the self-confidence of hesitant learners .Simulations help learners in re-creating within the classroom some of the dilemmas, crises, and problems they have faced in everyday real life situation. On the other hand, learners are engaged in working through imagined, hypothetical situations strongly similar to those occurring in real life. Simulations should be authentic. In order to achieve great success in the educational use .Four points need to be taken into consideration: First, the analysis that follows the simulation is as important as the simulation itself.

Plenty of time must be given to learners to report on their conflicting views and also to give arguments for their views. It is also necessary for learners to know and reflect on such other alternative responses they might have made. Second, whenever necessary the teacher should be ready to add new information, add or delete elements, adjust the timing, change aspects in the tasks, and make other appropriate modification to adapt into the new group. Third, teachers should not use simulation, if they feel uncertain or unfamiliar with the material. Teachers should know the context well enough to respond to all kinds of unprofitable eventualities to be able to respond quickly to new elements.

Brookfield (1991:115) suggests

*Because this kind of learning involves the whole person -intellect, feeling, and bodily senses -it tends to be experienced more deeply and remembered longer ...The realism of many simulations and role plays also means that they are perceived by students as being of genuine significance and relevance, and this is one reason why teachers should consider using them (Brookfield, 1991:115).*

Teachers are advised to use simulations and role play in the learning process if they want their learners to gain a strong emotional connection to their learning, if they want them to regard their school instruction as learning immediate relevance to their lives outside the classroom, and also if they want this school instructions to be recalled long after.

Simulations can provide efficient and effective learning in the classrooms by creating naturalistic environments which maximize the opportunities of creating real communication in EFL classrooms.

### **3. Some techniques to encourage meaningful interaction**

These are important points to be taken into account in the learning process

### **3.1. A distinction should be made between accuracy and fluency practice**

A distinction is often made between accuracy practice and fluency practice. Accuracy practice is intended to establish some correctness in the production of new items immediately after they are presented, or to correct errors later on. Teachers know that errors persist. In fluency practice teachers should try to get learner's attention off the language and encourage them to communicate their feelings, views and experiences. Teachers should not interrupt them to correct errors. On the other hand accuracy practice should not be totally mechanical. Teachers should organize such activities within appropriate context or situation to make it attractive and meaningful. Language forms should be used in quite communicative way. (Davies, 2000)

The way teachers give feedback and correction should be different in accuracy work, when the main focus is on language forms, and in fluency work, when the focus is on effective free communication. In accuracy work, teachers should get their learners used to self-correcting, and assist them when necessary.

There are three basic techniques to help learners to self-correct:

- Repeating the incorrect form with questioning intonation ,
- Giving the correct form or the beginning of it, but not the whole sentence
- Repeating the sentence up to the error. (Davies, 2000)

If the learner fails to self correct, Other techniques can be used with aim of self correction:

- Say sorry?
- Move one hand over the other for wrong word order.
- Point backwards or forwards for past or future tense.
- Give the learner choices so that he can choose one among three items provided.
- Draw an S in the air with a finger if the 'S' is missing.

Teachers should always move from self-correction ,peer-correction and teacher correction.

In fluency work, teachers should not correct the most common errors and then deal with them after the activity has finished or in an other session. Teachers can write sentences with these errors and then get the learners to identify and correct them.

### **3.2.limiting the use of Display questions**

Teachers should limit their use of Display questions to favour an authentic communication in the classroom, they should use referential questions that asks new information (Thornbury 2005) and seek a personal judgment, or opinion, answers, and which all students may have a possibility to respond to.

### **3.3.Increasing the use of interactional feedback strategies**

Teacher verbal feedback follows a student action and shapes future behavior,feedback is an important aspect of every school day and plays a crucial role in teaching and learning process. The primary purposes for providing feedback are to reinforce appropriate student behavior, let students know how they are doing, and extend learning opportunities. Teacher verbal feedback is a compulsory, crucial feature of the classroom ;otherwise,learners cannot know whether the answer is correct or not and learning opportunities can't be extended further.Teacher verbal feedback has two main purposes, the first aim is evaluative.i.e,to let students know how well they have performed. The second one ,however ,is to increase their interest and motivation to talk more. In the first type of feedback , the focus is on the correctness and adequacy of the learner's contributions, on the other hand , the teacher, in the second type of feedback,outside evaluation, correction or criticism,the emphases is on the message . In classroom centered research literature, many researchers classify verbal feedback on the basis of the previously stated functions.(Cullen,2002)recognizes the pedagogical importance of the teacher's feedback in supporting learning, and how teachers can use them to achieve better learning outcomes . Discoursal feedback

typically co-occurs with questions which have a 'referential' rather than a display function (i.e. where there is no right or wrong answer predetermined by the teacher .

Interactional feedback strategies:

1-Reformulation: to repair the students contribution .

2-Elaboration :to add and extend the student's original contribution .

3-Comment : adding a comment to the student's contribution.

4-Repetition :to repeat the students answer to confirm ,question ,or express surprise without relating the form of what the student said.

### **3.4.Limiting the control over the patterns of communication in the classroom**

Teachers should limit their control over the patterns of communication and allow for greater variability so as to generate more opportunities for the students to participate in classroom interaction.

## General Conclusion

The current study is a descriptive classroom centred research which aims at identifying the causes of the poor performance in the speaking skill of the learners in their last year in the secondary school .This research is conducted at zaaticha secondary school in Biskra.The findings from this study are based on classroom observation .The data are analysed by both quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative method analyzed the frequency of the IRF pattern and features of authentic communication in the lessons transcripts .The qualitative method also involved important interpretations in relation to these different findings.

The class observed here revealed a traditional teacher-controlled transmission mode of teaching with the focus on mechanical practice, recalling from memory and knowledge rather than on spontaneous meaningful interaction .

According to the recommendations issued in the official syllabus set down by The Ministry Of National Education (2006), the third year course book's basic principles rest on communicative-language teaching, which should involve learners in real and meaningful communication.In other words , learners should be given opportunities to process content related to their lives and backgrounds. Moreover ,the course book aims to develop both fluency and accuracy to help students acquire a communicative competence .Therefore, teachers should select tasks to provide opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning in classrooms.

It is hard to imagine that students instructed through these patterns of communication can really meet these requirements necessary to achieve the goals of the third year coursebook. Because learners instructed in this mode of interaction do not demonstrate any real time processing of the Knowledge of grammar ,vocabulary



and the rules of phonology . In addition learners' utterances do not involve discourse markers such as *well, so, but, then, oh, so, because*. Besides learners answers do not demonstrate an ability to speak socially appropriately. Moreover learners are not encouraged to use strategies in order to achieve communicative goals. These elements are vital for successful oral communication and they are basic components of communicative competence (Richard& Schmidt, 2002) .

Instead, both teacher and learners, according to the major issues that sprang from this research ,depended on the IRF pattern .The teacher is the authority who controlled classroom communication ,there is no instance where this pattern is broken to favour an authentic communication ,there is no instance where the teacher provided a discorsal feedback to encourage the learners to express themselves freely .Instead of asking the learners to elaborate more on their response or clarify their ideas ,the teacher closed down almost all his patterns of communication with an a short evaluation of the learners response .Thus the teacher blocked all the opportunities for the learners to be involved in a meaningful interaction.

Finally, we conclude with Dufficy's (2005) metaphor. According to him learning is like a journey out into the world .For Dufficy (2005) , teachers should see their learners as companions or active participants as parents behave with children when they take them on excursions into the world . The value of this journey can be measured in the quality of the interaction and experiences the students participate in, and this , in turn, should be assessed on the way they are assisted to learn(Dufficy,2005).

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### **Appendix 1. The Learners' Preliminary Questionnaire**

**Dear learner,**

We would be very grateful to you if you devote some of your time to answer the following questionnaire which is part of a research we are carrying out at the University of SETIF to identify some of the difficulties you encounter with the speaking skill .Your contribution will be highly valued since it ill serve as the basis to

our investigation work. Your answers are confidential .We thank you in advance for your collaboration.

**The questions are the following :**

Please, circle the answer(s) of your choice.

Q 1) – Do you find difficulties when you try to express yourself in English?

- Yes

- No

Q 2) – How do you evaluate your oral English?

- Good

- Average

-Poor

Q 3) – If your level is poor is it because of:

-The teaching method

-You do not have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom?

-Other causes, please specify.....

- **THANK YOU** –

**Appendix 2. The Teachers' Preliminary Questionnaire**

**Dear teacher,**

We would be very grateful to you if you devote some of your time to answer the following questionnaire which is part of a research we are carrying out at the University of SETIF to identify some of the difficulties you encounter with the speaking skill .Your contribution will be highly valued since it will serve as the basis to our investigation work. Your answers are confidential we thank you in advance for your collaboration.

**The questions are the following:**

Please answer by putting a circle, or a cross to the relevant option(s):

Q 1) Do your learners face difficulties when they try to express themselves in English?

- Yes

- No

Q2) Are you completely satisfied with the level of your learners in oral English?

- Yes

- No

Q 3) – Do your learners have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom?

- Yes

- No

-THANK YOU-

### Appendix 3. Transcription Conventions

Ll = Indicating several learners speaking at once

(( )) = Representing researcher's comment

in bold = Denoting original text from the learner's Book or Workbook

{ } = Representing phonetic transcription

*my classmates is lovely* = Erroneous utterances produced by classroom participants are left as they are

Xx = Indicating indistinct utterances

(.) = A brief pause

... = Stopping talking

### **Appendix 3 . Transcribed Teacher- Learner Discussions (TTLD 1)**

**Participants: Teacher:T**

**Learners:L1,L2,L3...,etc.**

**Duration: 20minutes**

**1-T:** Today we start with unit one of your programme which deals with exploring the past.

Now, when you say exploring the past what do you know about the past?

What can we find in the past? When we say past, what do you mean by Past?

The past of people, what do you mean by past of people?

**2-L1:** The life of people

**3-T:** Good, the life of people.

When you say life of people, what do you find in life of people?

What is life characterized by?

**4 - L1:** The work.

**5-T:** Good, we can find the work and then?

Do we find only the work?

Your life is based only on the work?

No, of course, there are many things to do in your life?

So, what else?

**6 -Ls:Xx**

**7-T:** What are you doing now in the class?

What are you doing now in the class?

Are you eating?

What are you doing in the class?

**8 -L2:** Study

**9 -T:** When you say we study, what do you mean by the word 'Study'?

What does the word ' study' refer to?

What do you mean by the word study?

**10 -L3:** Education.

**11-T:** What can you do in your life?

You say work, education .Yes, miss?

**12-L4:** Commerce

**13 -L5:** Trade

**14 –T:** Yes, you said commerce.

**15-L1:**Xx

**16-T:** You have job, you have education

**17-L6:** Industry.

**18-T:** Industry. Ok, and then?

**19-L7:** Beliefs

**20 –T:** Beliefs, very good, ok. So you believe or you practice ok.

In your life, you have beliefs, and then?

**21 - L1:** Building

**22 - T:** So, in your life, you can work, you can educate, you can build, and then?

You can believe.

There are so many things to do in your life?

**23 - L8:** Culture.

**24 – T:** Yes, of course. Yes, we practice culture.

What do you mean by culture?

When you say culture of Algeria or of a region, what do you find in your culture?

**25 - L2:** Poems

**26 – T:** Yes: Good! It means literature

What do you eat in your region?

What do you prepare in this region?

What do you give to people who come to your region?

**27 - L9:** Couscous

**28 -T.:** So, what is this couscous.

**29 - L1:** Food.

**30 –T:** Yes very good. It is a food

So, in life, you find work, you find beliefs, you find culture. Life in the past is based on these things.

Ok, when you say life here, do you know another word that summarizes all these things that you can find in someone's life?

Give me the name to this?

**31 - L10:** Civilization

**32 – T:** Yes, good, what do you mean by the word civilization?

Who can give me the definition?

What is civilization according to you? Yes; miss.

**33 - L11:** Civilization is the state of human in society with education, culture, traditions and arts.

**34 - T:** Civilization is the state of people in society with their beliefs, culture, customs and traditions and arts of course.

Now, another question: Do you know some old or ancient civilizations?  
Do you know some, or can you give me an example or some examples about the ancient civilizations. Yes, miss.

**35 - L1:** Greek civilization.

**36 -T:** Repeat.

**37 – L1:** Greek civilization.

**38 - T:** Yes, the Greek civilization. This one is the old civilization. Good, another civilization.

**39 - L3:** The Egyptian civilization.

**40 -T:** Good, The Egyptian civilization. Yes?

**41 – L12.** *Simen*

**42 - T:** Sumerian, good, the Sumerian civilization, and then?

What about you the Algerian people?

What is your ancient civilization?

**43 - L13:** Chinese

**44 – T:** Chinese. No, Chinese is the civilization of the Chinese people, but you, Algerian and Arab & Muslim people,  
What is their old civilization?

**45 - L3:** The Islamic civilization.

**46 - T:** Very good, it is the Islamic civilization.

Ok, yes. Thank you very much. Then, now, open your books on page 15 you have

### Activity one

**Look at the map below and answer the questions that follow:**

The first question:

**What ancient civilizations are represented in the map?**

Give me these old civilizations that are represented in the map.

The first civilization, what is it?

**47 - L1:** Greek civilization.

**48 - T:** The ..., Good, so your friend said the first one is the Greek civilization.

Yes, of course, on the map, there are many ancient civilizations ,the first one we said is the Greek civilization.

The second one what is it?

The second civilization, yes Miss.?

**49 - L14:** The Egyptian

**50 - T:** The Egyptian civilization. No, the third one ?

**51 - L2:** Sumerian.

**52 -T:** The

**53 - L2:** *Sumer*

**54 -T:** The Sumerian civilization and then?

Go to the next. Which one is the oldest ?

Which one?

**55 - L15:** The Greek civilization.

**56 -T:** The Greek civilization, are you sure?

Yes?

**57- L 1 :** The Sumerian

**58- T:** Yes, the oldest one is the Sumerian civilization.

Why do you think these civilizations first flourished in these areas, along the rivers?

Why?

What is the reason?



Why, for example, the Egyptian civilization flourished on the Nile valley?

Why?

Yes?

Because?

**59- L1:** because rivers and water that make the land fertile.

**60- T:** Yes, good, because you have here rivers and water that help people to do agriculture

Is it clear?

My next question now is what is your definition?

Who can give me the final definition of the word civilization?

**62 - L2:** The civilization is the state of ...

**63- T:** We don't say "the civ" civilization in general, Ok?

**64- L2:** Civilization is the state of human in society with education, culture and tradition

**65-T:** Thank you .

#### **Appendix 4. Transcribed Teacher- Learner Discussions (TTLD 2)**

**Participants:**     **Teacher:T**

learners: **L1, L2, L3..., etc.**

**Duration: 30minutes**

**1-T:** This unit is about ethic in business

What is business? Yes?

What is business?

Is it a person?

What is it? Is it a job!

**2 -L1:** Business, is a job

**3 –T:** Yes Business is a job.

Now, what about ethics, when you say ethics, what do you mean by the word ethics?

Because you have a job and when you do this job you must respect the ethics,

Ok, what is the meaning of the word ethics?

**4 -L2:** Ethics is the set of moral values practiced in business.

**5-T:** Ethics is a set of moral values, who can give me examples of ethics. Do you know some examples?

**6 -L3:** Teaching

**7-T:** Examples of ethics not jobs, ethics.

**8 -L3:** Honesty

**9 -T:** Honest very good, you have honesty and then? Hein? Yes? Yes Miss ?

**10 -L4:** Morality

**11 -T:** Good you have much; and then there are many ethics. Yes?

**12-L5:** Right

**13-T:** To be right, Ok and then, to be?

**14 -L6:** Legal,

**15-T:** To be legal, good.

So, in general 'ethics in business' means to be honest, to be legal and to be serious and strict in business.

Now do you know other jobs that do not respect these ethics?

Give me some examples of jobs.

Ok, jobs that are based on the moral values

Yes, Miss?

**16 -L1:** Control in exams.

**17 -T:** Yes, what does it mean when you say exam, what is it?

Where do you find exams? In?

**18 -L1:** Teaching

**19 -T:** Teaching, good Teaching another job another job .

What are the jobs you know?

You have only teaching in the life. Hein?

Give other jobs, do you know other jobs?

Yes?

**20-L1:** Journalism

**21-T:** Journalism; good journalism and then?

**22 -L7:** Sports

**23 -T:** Good and then?

**24 -L2:** Medicine

**25 -T:** Medicine, good and then?

**26 -L7:** Architecture,

**27 -T:** Architecture, Architecture good.

**28 -L8:** Law

**29-T:** Law good. Law, yes good.

So, these are some examples about business. Ok. Job that you can do in your life and that require to respect these ethics

Now, give me the adjectives of the word ' Ethics ', ethics ' is a noun, what is the adjective?

**30 -L1:** Ethical

**31 -T:** Now, what is its opposite?

What is the opposite of 'ethical '? Yes miss?

**31 -L9:** Unethical

**32 -T:** Unethical Good, so these are, ok, our concern of this unit. Open your books go to page 46 you have exercise N°1

Which of the practices bellow do your regard as morally acceptable or ethical, and which ones are morally wrong

Which of the practices bellow do your regard as morally acceptable or ethical, and which ones are morally wrong (unethical)?

Justify your answer.

First, who can read the first practice or practice A

Yes, miss.

**33- L1: (.) Bribing i.e, under-table payment for corrupt officials to win public contracts or favours.**

**34 - T:** Yes, this one is it ethical or unethical.

**35- L1:** Unethical.

**36- T:** Yes, Bribing is not ethical. It is not good. Ok. It is clear? It is immoral .Now; practice B who can read practice B?

B?

Yes, miss?

**37 - L9: 'Whistle blowing ', i .e.revealing confidential information to the police or to a newspaper that your company, for example, is breaking health and safety regulations.**

**38 - T:** Is it moral or immoral?

**39 - L9: Moral.**

**40- T:** Yes, another one, another pupil to read practice C.

Yes; you?

Yes, read C.

**41 - L10: Spending money on lobbying, i.e. trying to persuade politicians to pass laws favourable to your particular industry.**

**42 – T:** Yes, this one is moral or immoral immoral?

**43 -L10: Immoral.**

**44 –T:** Yes. Now, who can read practice D?

Another one to read practice D.

Ok, who can?

Yes? Other pupils please, try to speak, yes?

Another one ? Yes miss?

Yes, read.

**45- L11: D. False accounting, i.e.using all available procedures including deception to hide the true financial position of your company.**

**46- T:** Now, this one is it moral or immoral?

**47-L11: Immoral.**

**48- T:** Yes, another one to read.

Yes you, the last one, and the last practice.

**49 - L12: E.Militating in an anti-corruption association /society.**

**50 –T:** Yes, is it moral or immoral?

**51- L12: Moral**

**52-T:** Yes, it is moral because when you make an association or a group, ok here, when you do this in order to stop corruption and to defend ethics. I think it is something good, it is something moral, it is acceptable, and it is right. Yes, thank you.

I want someone now to give me the definition or to explain me in one sentence what do you understand by the word 'Ethics in business'.

Who can give me now or who can tell what the meaning of 'ethics in business'?

Yes, who can give a definition of the word ethics in business? Yes, what is?

Yes, miss?

**53- L1:** Ethics is a set of moral values practiced in business.

**54-T:** Practiced in business, yes, these set of moral values are practiced in business, of course. So, thank you.

### **Appendix 5. Transcribed Teacher- Learner Discussions (TTLD 3)**

**Participants:** Teacher:T

learner :L1,L2,L3...,etc.

**Duration:30minutes**

**1- T:** Let's move to the grammatical point mentioned in the following sentence.

**We will eradicate corruption providing that we act now.**

I repeat again we will eradicate corruption providing that we act now

In the sentence, please, how many subjects are there? How many subjects?.

**2- L1:** There are two subjects.

**3-L2:** There are two subjects

**4 -T:** Good. Where is the first one? Where is the second one?

**5- L1:** The first one "We, the second one "We".

**6 – T:** Yes, how many verbs do you hear in this sentence.

How many verbs, please?

Your friend says: there are two subjects?

Yes, another one, how many verbs?

Yes Miss, how many verbs do you hear in this sentence.

**7- L2:** Two verbs.

**8 – T:** Two verbs.

Where is the first one?

**9 - L2:** *Will....we will decate.* ((Erroneous utterances produced by classroom participants are left as they are))

**10 – T:** Eradicate.

**11 - L2:** *Will decate.*

**12 –T:** Repeat, you correct: we will eradicate

**13 - L2:** Will decate.

**14 –T:** We will eradicate.

Yes you repeat eradicate! Eradicate!

**15 –L1:** Eradicate.

**16 –T:** Yes, eradicate.

The second what is it?

**17 - L3:** act.

**18- T:** Yes, your friend says the verb n°1: is " will eradicate"

The verb n° 2: is "will act"

If we come to analyse the tense here, what are the tenses are present in the sentence, the first tense what is it?

We will eradicate. Yes.

**19- L3:** Simple future.

**20-T:** Simple future. Now, the verb act which tense is it? Act!!

**21- L4:** Present.

**22 - T:** Which present?

Yes which present, please you repeat

**23- L4:** Present simple.

**24 – T:** Yes. Good. The second verb is in the simple present

So here in your sentence there are two verbs: Simple future and simple present.

Ok, now which word is used to connect between sentence one and sentence two.

What is the word used here?

Yes miss.

**25 -L1:** Providing that

**26 –T:** Yes, good " Providing that".

So, we will eradicate corruption providing that we act now.

Now according to you what is the meaning of this word "Providing that"?

What does it mean? What does the word "providing that" mean?

**27 - L1:** Conditional.

**28 - T:** Yes, it means conditional, ok.

Do you know other words used in sentences to express conditional?

By which word can you replace "Providing that"?

**29- L2:** If

**30-T: By** "if" Very good. We replace it by "if."

Now, can you replace this word?

Can you repeat this sentence with "if"?

**31 - L1:** We will eradicate corruption if we act now.

**32-T: Yes,** we will eradicate corruption if we act now.

So, "Providing" of course expresses conditional.

Now, here after this sentence, you have another sentence.

Who can read sentence N° 2?

Someone to read this sentence.

Yes, can you read sentence n°2?

**33- L5:** The chances of eradicating corruption.

**34 -T:** Of eradicating.

**35 - L5:** Will increase as long as our countries are committed to fighting it.

**36 - T:** Yes, good. Now, here you have another word what is it?

What is this word?

**37 -L1:** As long as (not clear).

**38- T:** What is the second word used to express conditional?

**39 -L1:** "As long as"

**40 -T:** "As long as", ok.

So what do you say now as conclusion, please.

What are the words used to express conditional?

Give me a note, a general note?

What do you say?

**41-L1:** conditional type one "if+ simple present gives simple future.

It is also expressed with 'providing that 'or 'provided that ' and 'as long as'

**42-T-** Good, so here, your friend says that it is conditional type one. Because type one is used with what? If+

**43 - L1:** If + simple present.

**44 - T:** Give what? The result?

**45 -L1:** Simple present

**46 –T:** Yes. If is used with simple present. The first action is in the simple present. The second action or the result, your friend says it is in the future.

So , If + simple present gives you future.

So, we say conditional type one is used with "if " "providing that "or "as long as"by using the first action in the present and the second action in the future.

Yes I want someone of you to give me a sentence or an example using one of these words in conditional type one. Who can give me one sentence, just a simple sentence.

Yes, you listen to my sentence.

I will go to the university providing that, I succeed in my BAC exam. Is it clear? It means if there is no BAC exam, I cannot go to the University. Of course

Yes, someone of you now to give me one sentence. Who can give me one example using "if "providing"or "as long as "it doesn't matter. But we respect only conditional type one. Yes?

**47- L1:** *I will travel in London.*

**48 –T:** To London.

**49 - L1:** To London providing that I speak English.

**50 - T:** Yes, good. I will travel to London providing that I speak English. It means you speak your English, then, you will travel. Why? Because people who live in London speak English, ok. Their native language is English. Thank you.

Now you listen to the next sentence, I read it and you try to concentrate. Ok.

**Citizens had better stop shrugging their shoulders at bureaucratic abuse.**

Look at this sentence or you listen again.

So when you say "had better" what's the meaning of this word "had better".

I repeat, I give you my personal example:

Pupils had better revise their lessons to get good results.



Here "had better" . What is it expressing in your opinion? Yes, miss!?

**51 -L1:**It is expressing the wish.

**52 – T:** The wish? It is a wish? "Had better" is it expressing a wish?

Yes?

It is not expressing a wish?

No, what is it expressing please?

**53 -L 2:**Advice

**54 –T:** Advice, good. Your friends says this word " had better" here in this sentence expresses advice. It means to give a piece of advice to someone.

Do you know other words that can be used to give a piece of advice or how can you advise your friend. With which words?.

Yes, your friend says with the word?

**55 - L3:** Should

**56 -T:** Good, and then?

**57- L4:** Ought.

**58 – T:** Ought to, and then? Of course with what?

**59- L1-** "Had better".

**60-T:** "Had better".

Now, look at the verb that comes after these words, after " had better" which tense is it? Which tense ?

What is the tense of the verb used after the expression " had better"?: Had better stop!

Stop is it future?, is it past? What is it?

**61 - L7:** Order

**62 – T:** It is order. No. yes Miss?

**63 - L1:** Infinitive

**64 –T:** Infinitive, so the verbs used with "had better", " should", "ought to" are in the infinitive and are used to express advice. Now; you. Can you give me one sentence?

Using one of these words: "had better", or "should" or "ought to" + infinitive.

Who can give me one sentence, it is very easy. You listen to my sentence for example:

Pupils had better listen to their teacher to understand the lesson.

Yes, now you. Can you give me another sentence?

**65 - L1:** The people had better stop cheating in exams.

**66 – T: Pupils** not people ,but pupils.

Pupils had better stop cheating in their exams. Why? Because cheating is not good.

Ok. It is not a legal way. It is illegal way of succeeding; and something that is not legal, it is not moral. It is clear? Thank you.

## **Appendix 6 . Transcribed teacher- learner discussions (TTLD 4)**

**Participants:** Teacher:T

learner: L1, L2, L3..., etc.

**Duration:** 30minutes

**1 –T:** We start with unit 3 which deals with 'Education in the word',

Ok when we say Education in the word it means the different educational systems in each country ,is it clear?

Now, when we say education, what do mean by education, please.

Who can explain me the word "Education"?

What is the meaning of "Education"?

Education, yes, miss?

**2 - S1:** Education is based on the act of learning

**3 –T:** Yes, another one to repeat. Who can say more?

**4 - L2:** Education is the act of learning or acquiring many things in life.

**5 –T:** Yes, Education is the act of learning or acquiring many things in life.

Ok. So what are the different things you can learn in your life?

Yes, you learn what?

**6 -L3:** Art

**7 – T:** Yes, you can learn?

**8 - L3:** Art

**9 –T:** Art . Good, when you say art ,what do you mean by art?

**10 -L4:** Painting.

**11 –T:** Painting. Good and then?

**12 - L5:** Music.

**13 –T:** Music. Yes, what can you learn in your life?

What are the things you can learn in your life or you can learn at school in the secondary school.

Yes?

You learn what?

**14 - L6:** English

**15 – T:** Yes?

**16 - L6:** You learn English.

**17 –T:** Yes, you learn English and then?

**18 - L7:** *Français*

**19 – T:** Yes, we say in English we say!!

**20 - L7:** French.

**21 –T:** Yes, please .

**22 - L7:** French

**23 - T:** French and then?

**24 - L8:** Geography.

**25 –T:** Geography. Good what are the things you learn here in your lycee, in your school, Ok? Yes

**26 - L9:** *Philosophish*

**27 – T:** Philosophy, repeat please.

**28 -L9:** Philosophy.

**29 -T:** Good. Philosophy and then ?

**30 -L10:** Mathematics

**31 - T:** Mathematics, and then?

**32 - L11:** Literature .

**33 – T:** Literature yes. Good. In general, these are the things you learn

Ok. Of course, when you learn these things, what can you do with them in the future?

What can you do with these things in the future?

What can you do with your education in the future? What are you going to do with your education?

When you finish you study. Ok

. What can you do?

**34 -L1:** Develop

**35 – L2:** Develop

**36-T:** Develop. You can develop what?

**37- L1:** The world.

**38 – T:** The world, and then?

Develop your?

39- P4: Xx

**40 -L3:** Country

**41 – T:** Yes, your country

Ok with what? With what can you develop, with sleeping?

With what?

**42 - L1:** With working

**43 - T:** with working. Good.

So education serves you to work in the fu(.) In the future.

Is it clear? So, education is the act of learning and acquiring things that will serve you in your fu ()In your future.

For example, you can become what?

What's your dream for the future?

What do you want to become in the future?

**44:L5:** Journalist

**45 – T:** Journalist, good. She wants to become a journalist. Ok, another one.

**46 - L12:** Teacher

**47 – T:** Yes?

**48 – P:** Teacher. Teacher

**49- T:** Teacher and then? Yes?

**50- L5:** *Doct*

**51 -T:** Doctor. But doctor for literary is not possible. No it is not possible. You can not do medicine you. Ok, because you are specialized in literature. That's all. Ok.

**52 - L1:** Mayor

**53 - T:** Mayor. Good. The head of the state or of the town.

Yes, Good. Thank you.

The next question, please. In your opinion, what is the most important thing about education: Is it to create good citizens, prepare people for life or create a work force?

What is the most important thing about education: Is it to create a good citizen, prepare people for life or create a workforce?

What is the most important thing or the most important aim of education?

You have given three.

What is the important one here? You have to create good citizens, or prepare people for life, or create work?

What is the most important one?

Yes.

**54 - L1:** Prepare people for life.

**55 - T:** Very good. Education prepares you for your life in the fut (.) in the future.  
Is it clear?

What are the different educational systems in Algeria? What are the different educations you have in the Algerian system?

First, when you start your studies where do you go?

**56 - L3:** Primary school. To primary school.

**57- T:** Primary school, it means primary education. Second?

**58- L13:** Middle school

**59 - T:** Yes, middle school or intermediate education N°3 ?

**60 - L1:** *Lycee school*

**61 -L9:** Secondary school.

**62 - T:** Yes, secondary school or secondary education. So, the Algerian educational system is composed of three steps. First, you have Primary education.

Second, intermediate education. Third, secondary school education.

Now, when you finish secondary school education where do you go?

Yes, miss?

**63 - L8:** University

**64 - T:** Repeat

**65 - L8:** University

**66 -T:** Yes, you go to the university. So this one also is another step of education.

How do you we call this education?

You call it ?

**67 - L1:** High education

**68 - T:**High education, where do you have this education ? Where?

**69 - L1:** University.

**70 -T:** At the university. It is clear now the meaning of education.

Yes, thank you.

## **Appendix 8 .Transcribed Teacher- Learner Discussions (TTLD 5)**

**Participants:**     **Teacher: T**

**Students: L1, L2, L3..., etc.**

**Duration: 30minutes**

**1 - T:**Now we move to a new unit, which is about nature

So, I have a question here please

When you say nature?

What do you mean by nature?

What is the meaning of nature or give me another synonym to the word "nature"?

Yes?

**2 - L1:** (xxx)

**3 -T:** You say nature or?

**4 -L1:** *Ill*

**5 -T:** *Illness. Not ill.*

You say nature or you can say also!

**6 -L2:** *Univerment*

**7 -T:** Not univerment, but we say environment , correct please.

**8 -L2:** Environment

**9 -T:** Good, environment.

What do you find in the environment?

What is in the environment?

**10-L3 :** Oxygen.

**11 -T:** Oxygen, good.

**12 -L4:** *Waren, waren* (a word without meaning)

**13-T:** What is it ?

**14 -L4:** *Waren*

**15 -T :** Water yes you you repeat- correct

**16 -L4:** Water

**17-T:** We find water. Ok. Yes, you, please.

**18-L2:** Trees and air and animals.

**19-T:** Good, Trees, air and animals, and then?

what do you find in the environment ?

Do you find other things? Yes; what else. Yes, sir?

**20-L5:** *Paybol, Baybol*

**21-T:** Not baybol but we say people.

**22-L5:** People

**23-T:** Yes, good, people and then?

What do we find also in the environment?

**24-L5:** Vegetables.

**25-T:** Vegetables, good and then?

We can say vegetable or what else?

**26-L2:** Lands.

**27-T:** Lands Ok. So, these are the main things that you can find in the environment.

Ok.

According to you is your environment clean or not?

Is it clean?

Is it proper?

Is your environment proper?

**28-L2:** Is not.

**29-T:** No. No, it is not.

Why?

What is the problem with your environment?

**30-L2:** Pollution.

**31-T:** There is a problem, yes which is pollution. Good

So, do you know what pollution is?

What is this pollution, please?

Is it a person; is it an animal or what is it?

How can we find this pollution?

Yes?

**32-L1:** Cars.

**33-T:** Yes, Pollution cars. Is it correct?

We say pollution is a car. Hmm yes? Who can correct? What causes this pollution?

What causes this pollution? Or what are the factors that causes pollution? Yes, miss  
you repeat.

**34-L1:** Cars.

**35-T:** Cars. Good.

Your friend says that cars cause pollution and then; another factor.

Yes, another factor?

What causes pollution?

**36-L6:** Man

**37-T:** Man. Good another?

What causes pollution ?

Yes, sir?

**38-L5:** Radio -activity?

**39-T:** Radio activity. Hein?

what do you mean by radio-activity?

What causes pollution?

Yes miss.

**40-L2:** Carbon dioxide.

**41-T:** Carbon Dioxide or Co2 .Good.

Ok, another, what do you find in your street, for example, when you leave your  
school?



Ok?

What do you find on the ground ?

? You find ? what is it?

What causes pollution again?

Yes ?

**42-L8:** Rubbish,

**43-T:** Rubbish, yes.

So, all these are the main factors that cause the problem of ?

**44 -Lls:** Of pollution!

**45-T:** Yes, of pollution, good.

Now, do you think, pollution is dangerous or not.

Is it dangerous for people and animals, and nature or not?

Yes or not?

**46-L5:** Yes, very dangerous.

**47-T:** Yes, it is very dangerous.

Ok. What are now the results?

What are now the main consequences of pollution?

What can pollution do for nature and for people?

Ok, the first consequence please what is it?

.Yes, sir?

**48-L9:** Difficult of breath.

**49-T:** Of breathing, we say breathing it means taking air.

Some children, can not take the air easily, they take it with difficulty.

Why? Because of CO<sub>2</sub> of carbon dioxide and?

And?

**50-Ll:** Smoke

**51-T:** And Smoke, yes. Another consequence, please? WHO can give me another consequence. You have difficulty of breathing. Two. Number two?

**52-L2:** Skin cancer.

**53-T:**Yes, your friend says we have another consequence which is Skin cancer.

What is Skin cancer?

**54-L2:** Consequence ((not clear)).

**55-T:** Yes, but what is it?

**56-L2:** It is a disease.

**57-T:** Yes it is a disease. Skin cancer is a disease.

Ok. Another consequence?

Another consequence?

Yes, Sir?

This one is very dangerous

. It means what?

**58-L5:** Death

**59-T:** Death, very good. People die when there is pollution. Is it clear ?

people die. Plants die, animals die . Nature dies. Ok. And then,  
when you have pollution you say there is carbon dioxide and what is missing here ?

You said that pollution is caused by Carbon dioxide.

What is it? Yes, what is it in chemics or I mean Chemistry?

**60-L5:** *Is gaz*

**61-T:** Is a gaz, very good, there is a lot of.

Or you have the abundance of the gaz Carbon dioxide emission and which gaz is  
absent here?

Because there is a gaz which is very good for your health and it is absent, what is this  
gaz which is absent in nature?

Yes, miss?

**62-L2 :** Oxygen.

**63-T:** Oxygen. Good. So the absence of Oxygen and the presence of Carbon dioxide  
gives or causes pollution. Is it clear?

**Appendix 9** .Levels ,Ranks and Structures of The System of Classroom  
Interaction Discourse Analysis by Sinclairand Coulthard(1975,cited by  
Hannah,C. PDF book: 3)\*.

Rank: Lesson	Rank: Transaction	Rank: Exchange	Rank: Move	Rank: Act
Lesson	Transaction	Exchange Type	Move Type	Classes of Act
" Structure"	" Structure"	Boundary	<b>Framing Move</b>	Marker*

Un unordered Series of transition	Preliminary Medial Terminal	Exchange " Structure" Frame* Focus*	" Structure" Head* qualifier	Silent Stress
			<b>Focusing Move</b> " Structure" Signal Pre-head Head* Post-head	Starter Marker Metastatement* Conclusion* Comment*
		<b>Teaching Exchange</b> " Structure" Limitation* Response Feedback	<b>Opening Move</b> " Structure" Signal Pre-head Head* Post-head select	Starter Marker Elicit* Direct* Inform* Check* Prompt Clue Bid Nominate
			<b>Answering Move</b> " Structure" Pre-head Head* Post-head	Acknowledge* Reply* React* Comment
			<b>Follow- up Move</b> " Structure" Pre-head Head* Post-head	Accept Evaluate* Comment

\* See Web site : <http://dspace.lib.niigatau.ac.jp:8080/dspace/bitstream/10191/1977/1/KJ00004026347.pdf>

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## Résumé

Le but de cette étude descriptive est d'améliorer la qualité de l'interaction dans l'enseignement de l'Anglais dans les classes de 3AS lettres en Algérie. Notre objectif principal est l'identification de la source des difficultés de ces apprenants à s'exprimer correctement en Anglais, en se concentrant sur la qualité de l'interaction qui se déroule en classe. Cette étude est basée sur l'observation des pratiques conversationnelles et un corpus est présenté. Ces données enregistrées sur bande audio sont transcrites et analysées à la fois quantitativement et qualitativement (une analyse combinée). Les résultats révèlent l'existence d'une difficulté certaine dans l'interaction en classe entre l'enseignant et les apprenants qui diminue les possibilités de générer une communication authentique entre les élèves ou entre l'élève et l'enseignant. En se basant sur ces résultats une série d'implications pédagogiques ont été proposées pour les enseignants du secondaire. L'utilisation des simulations, des jeux de rôle, et l'augmentation des stratégies interactionnelles pourront fournir aux apprenants beaucoup plus d'occasions de recourir à la communication authentique et rendra l'apprentissage stimulant et agréable.

## المخلص

الغرض من هذه الدراسة الوصفية هو تحسين نوعية التحوار في الأقسام النهائية في الطور الثانوي لدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية، الهدف الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة يتمثل في البحث عن أسباب عدم وصول التلاميذ في نهاية هذا الطور إلى كفاءات لغوية واتصالية جيدة وتعبير سليم في كل السياقات الممكنة . لهذا السبب قمنا بتحليل كمي نوعي لمجموعة تسجيلات لأحاديث في القسم بين التلميذ والأستاذ في ثانوية الزعاطشة في ولاية بسكرة.

النتائج التي تمكنا من التوصل إليها تقرر وجود عائق حقيقي في نوعية التحوار الذي سجل بين الأستاذ و التلميذ تكشف عن تهيمن الأستاذ في القسم و هذا فيما يخص اختيار المواضيع و أيضا في طرح الأسئلة: التلميذ كان له دور واحد فقط و هو إجابة عن الأسئلة بعبارة أخرى التلميذ ليس له دور في اختيار المواضيع و لا في طرح الأسئلة بنفسه للأستاذ أو لزميله و كانت أسئلة الأستاذ لا تتطلب توسع عميق من طرف التلميذ بل هي تتطلب أجوبة بسيطة بمعنى آخر هذا النوعية من التحوار يمنع التعبير النوعي السليم.

انطلاقا من هذه النتائج ننصح باستخدام نشاطات جماعية تشجع التعبير الحرفي في القسم و لعب الأدوار إلى جانب طرح أسئلة تتطلب من التلميذ التعبير عن أحاسيسه و تجاربه في الحياة بصفة عامة إلى جانب الاهتمام باحتياجات التلاميذ لجعل التعلم ممتع و مسهل .