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Gricean Cooperative Principles in the Algerian Secondary School English Classroom Spoken Discourses

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Glossary

The following definitions are included to clarify the terminology used in the present study:

Classroom Communication: it refers to the interaction that takes place among pupils on the one hand and among the teacher and students on the other hand. Learning is an interaction involving the negotiation of meaning among the pedagogical partners.

Competence: the knowledge and ability that underlie language use (Hymes, 1972).

Cooperative Learning– Students working together in a group, small enough that everyone can participate on a collective task that is being clearly assigned. Moreover, a student is expected to carry out their task without the direct and immediate supervision of the teacher.

Interlanguage: a type of "learner language" that is viewed as an independent social or psychological phenomenon (Phillipson, Kellerman, Selinker, Smith, and Swain, 1991).

Interlanguage pragmatics: "the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of pragmatic and discourse knowledge in a second language" (Kasper, 1989).

Pragmatics: "the study of language use" (Leech, 1983, p. 5).

Pragmatic competence: "a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts, or most prominently the ability to use and interpret nonliteral forms, such as metaphorical uses of language and indirect requests . . ." (Bialystok, 1993, p. 43).

Speech acts: "the minimal unit of speech that has rules in terms both of where and when they may occur and of what their specific features are culturally named acts, such as complaining, apologizing, advising, and so on" (Hymes, 1972).

Teacher Talk: the utterances produced by the teachers in the classroom setting contribute to teacher talk. The teacher has to provide relaxed atmosphere to promote learner elicitation, initiation, and participation. Moreover, it requires a high degree of indirect influence, which offers students' freedom to react, replay, and share opinions.

Locutionary act It is an act of uttering a sentence with a certain sense and reference, which is nearly equivalent to meaning in the traditional sense i.e. 'the act of saying something' (Austin, 1962: 149).

Illocutionary act It is an act of performing some action in saying something. The speaker may be performing the act of informing, claiming, guessing, reminding, warning, threatening, or requesting i.e. 'utterances which have a certain conventional force' (Austin, 1962:149).

Perlocutionary act It is 'what speakers bring about or achieve by saying something. The speaker may be performing the act of thanking, claiming, guessing, reminding, warning, threatening, or requesting by uttering an act' (Austin,
1962: 150).

List of Abbreviations

CP Cooperative Principle

E.F.L: English as a Foreign Language

E. L.T: English Language Teaching

E.S.L: English as a Second Language

F.L: Foreign Language

F.T.A: Face-Threatening Act

I.R.F: Interaction-Response-Feedback

P.P: Politeness Principle

L.2: Second Language

N.S: Native Speaker

N.S.s: Native Speakers

N.N.S: Non-Native Speaker

N.N.S.s: Non-Native Speakers

S.L.A: Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

To date, “discourse analysis” has been deployed in the study of a vast range of verbal and non verbal productions, from politician speeches, to literature and body language. More than ever before, discourse analysis has become the one method to grasp the meaning of what people say and do in different contexts. Thanks to discourse analysis, language, discourse or communication, is no longer conceived in single transmission of message from a sender to a receiver. Communication is rather seen as cooperation where laws are first formulated by Grice. Through this research, we will explore the classroom interaction and the violation of the Gricean cooperative principles. It will be concerned with the extent to which the Grice’s cooperative principles are respected or disobeyed in the Algerian secondary English classroom spoken discourse.

This dissertation starts with the assumption that communication is not a simple transmission of a message by a sender to a receiver. In this research, we have made our own Grice’s each finding that communication involves cooperation without which no meaningful exchange of messages can take place. The second assumption is that the competency based approach cannot be effectively applied if the cooperative principles stated by Grice are not observed in the classroom setting. The last assumption is that success or failure of any teacher begins with his or her ability to communicate.

Classroom observation is, no doubt, the most direct means of gaining insight into teachers’ English language instruction as well as learners’ classroom behavior. To serve this purpose, it also enables us to find a match or mismatch between what teachers claimed to do and what they actually did in their English classes.

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The purpose of this research is to attempt an analysis of classroom spoken discourse with reference to Algerian English teachers in order to investigate the possible causes and the manifestations of aggression in Algerian secondary schools and therefore, compile appropriate recommendations to prevent violence and to promote a positive learning climate and a constructive social experience for learners. The emphasis will be first on the teacher - pupil relationship. It is claimed that of all the factors that affect performance at school, teachers have the most impact on their learners' school experiences. Lack of appropriate language instruction, inadequate curricula, and negative school environments damage children's potential to learn and develop. Therefore, our attention should be directed to the need to deal with causes that affect students' learning such as the impact of classroom discourse on the behaviour of students.

School violence is a big issue, and the problem seems to be getting worse every year. It has become a matter of increasing concern in recent years in our country with the occurrence of dramatic incidents such as the crime which was committed at the University of Mostaganem lately by a student who stabbed his professor in his office. Although these tragic events are rare, it is clear that schools face a serious problem.

A recent study reveals that between 2007 and 2008, 36% boys and 15% girls have experienced at least once a physical aggression at school. The statistics released by the Ministry of Education related to violence in schools show that pupils throughout Algeria, particularly the middle school, had committed more than 300 000 violent acts between 2000 and 2007. It is estimated that 8000 acts of violence were committed against teachers and administrators. According to the National Institute of Statistics 59.764 acts of violence were

witnessed in one year between 2006 and 2007. This dark picture of human interaction at school explains why violence in schools is now the primary concern of educators' nationwide.

Research on violence at school is given much importance because it really affects pupils learning and their learning habits. It can increase the risk of school failure which has become an alarming phenomenon nowadays. In fact, school failure seems to have grown rapidly in number the last few decades. The point to be stressed is that these failures happen among students who have the ability and intelligence to succeed, but who are unable or unwilling to apply these capacities in the school setting.

In recent years, it has been increasingly recognised that schools have to change in basic ways in order to educate children so that they develop the ability to resolve their conflicts constructively rather than destructively and be prepared to live in a peaceful world. To achieve this purpose, one needs to use what one knows about where violence comes from: what factors contribute to the risk of violent behaviour, and what factors protect children against becoming either violent offenders or victims of violence. One also needs to use research evidence regarding effective interventions that reduce risk and enhance protection against violence.

An inappropriate school climate undoubtedly has a negative effect on the students attending the school. In the process of teaching and learning at school, classroom management is of high importance. Good classroom management creates a learning environment in which effective teaching and learning occur while poor classroom management often damages the students' desire for learning and spoils the teacher's passion for teaching no matter how well s/he has prepared for the class.

Classroom management certainly involves discipline, control and punishment to a great extent. In the traditional theory of classroom management, the aim of classroom management primarily means “achieving class control and order” (Doyle, 1979). However, the concept of classroom management has shifted to “establishing a climate for learning” (Everstone and Emmer, 1982). The key assumption that must be made then is that the teacher’s behaviour is the biggest influence on the behaviour of their learners. Duke (1982) in this respect states that “the critical element of the teacher’s role thus shifts from control to management—management of time, space, materials, auxiliary personnel, and students.”This requires teachers to be scrupulous in the management of their own behaviour first and foremost. Having for instance a thorough knowledge of the learners’ age and development will give teachers insights into what is appropriate to expect from them. They can build positive relationships with them. Positive relationships built on trust, understanding and caring will foster students’ cooperation and motivation, and increase their learning and achievement at school. Relationship building is vital for students, who are aggressive, non compliant, shy, withdrawn.

1. Significance of the study or background of the study

Since September 2005, EFL teaching methodology has shifted to the use of the competency-based Approach in an attempt to answer the 21st century needs to focus on some basic life competencies in order to meet the challenges created by an increasingly globalised world. This shift has cast a new light; to the EFL classroom management geared to the creation of a positive climate for learning. Its new emphasis on the ability to communicate requires that classroom interaction change to make the learner to be able to share knowledge and cooperate with others.

In a traditional EFL class, teachers tend to achieve a control over the whole class by strict discipline so that they can convey their instructions to the pupils in order to respond to them. Teachers now are being asked to have a less authoritarian attitude, to be ready to negotiate and discuss with their pupils in order to develop critical thinking. Likewise, students are being asked to explain their reasoning, listen, learn from, and even argue with their peers. These changes mean that classroom discourse is considered to be much more than just a background context for students' learning. It has become an essential social process by which students achieve communicative goals.

At the same time, a change in how we think about the term discourse reflects its social significance**.**Teaching and learning are always mediated through language, so theories of communication, precisely expressed by philosophers like Paul Herbert Grice or Sperber and Wilson who have turned their attention to the practical use of language, could arguably be of intrinsic interest to teachers. They are of relevance not only for insights they can throw into the process of teaching and learning but also for a consideration of what is being taught.

This study will address the issue of classroom interaction with reference to discourse as a means of communication between the teachers and students on the one hand, and the students as peers on the other hand. Classroom language teaching is an occupation which essentially uses language in a social context to promote the learning and teaching of language for use in social contexts. It stands to reason, therefore that findings of pragmatics like those of Grice are applicable to language teaching. Communicative competence is a central competence to teach learners who will use language outside the classroom as a goal that can be attained only and only if students are trained to observe the rules of communication. Being aware of why communication often fails and how it can be more successful is of capital importance for the reflective language teacher.

To sum up, pragmatics has much to tell us about communication in the educational context across the world where communicative competence is elevated as the main goal. In this study, we shall consider Gricean pragmatics and relevance theory in relation to language teaching.

Grice's maxims, which have never intended to be seen as a set of rules to be obeyed, still serve as useful guiding principles for teachers. It is, therefore, generally assumed that communication is successful because interactants adhere to the cooperative maxims. When they don't, the assumption may be that they deliberately violate a maxim in order to convey additional (implicit) information or add some special meaning, i.e., implicature beyond what is actually said.

In the methodological chapter, we shall outline the relevance of pragmatic theory to educational discourse. We shall try to show to what extent the observance of Grice's maxims can foster what today is called cooperative learning. We shall also explore the interrelation between pragmatics and communicative competence in language teaching today.

2. The objective of the study

Language teaching is a difficult process involving many interrelated factors. Since the 1960s, research into classroom discourse has grown rapidly. Since teaching methods do not play a decisive role in language classrooms, the focus has shifted from teaching methods to teachers' talk in classroom process. Just as Ellis (1985, p.143) points out:

> **"Classroom process research, as Gaies calls the study of communication in the classroom, has taken different form. The earliest was interaction analysis… An alternative approach focused only on the language used by the teacher when addressing second language learners. It sought to tabulate the adjustments which occur in teacher talk."**

Teacher talk is particularly important to language teaching (Cook, 2000, p.144). According to pedagogical theory, the language that teachers use in classrooms determines to a larger degree whether a class will succeed or not. Many scholars found out teacher talk makes up around 70% of classroom language (Cook, 2000).Teachers convey knowledge and skills, organize teaching activities and help students' practice through teacher talk. In EFL English classrooms, teachers' language is not only the object of the course, but also the medium to achieve the teaching objective. Both the organization of the classroom and the goal of teaching are fulfilled through teacher talk.

In Algeria, pupils learn English in the classroom. There is no extra-mural practice of the language. Discursive conflicts between teachers and students and among students are important opportunities for observation and analysis under the critical assumption that research theory and practice are interdependent aspects of transformation and social change. Ongoing research studies of classroom processes in which teachers are attempting to share power with students are necessary in order to identify potential points of conflict and to hypothesize resolutions at the classroom and school levels. Studies by academic researchers and action research projects by classroom teachers demonstrate that there is still much to be learned about the complexities inherent in moving from a teacher – centred classroom toward a learner – centred, dialogic, authentic communication – oriented classroom where students share some of the control of the process and outcomes of learning (Buzzelli and Johnson, 2001, Duff, 2002).

These studies indicate that authentic, or dialogic, communication in classroom processes require modification of teachers and students' behaviours and discourse with developing democratic classroom rules, involving the learners in the learning process. The present study strives to contribute to this ever – evolving understanding of discourse based on interactions or conversations in classrooms.

CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The main aim of language is to communicate a message or a meaning to the hearer. The message or meaning is intended by the speaker to be understood correctly by the hearer. If the intended force or effect of the message is misunderstood, this means that the speaker has failed to convey the correct intended impression even if the speech is syntactically and semantically correct. So it is not always possible to communicate messages successfully by just uttering a sentence that has a correct structure or word order and equivalent correct denotative meanings. In many cases it is the connotation associated with the utterance that counts in order to keep the social wheel running on and avoid communication breakdowns through what is generally called the 'communicative principle'. Moreover, speakers have to cooperate in order for communication to be carried out successfully. This is called the 'cooperative principle' which was first devised by Grice (1975). Grice's theory is very much relevant to this study that is why it is important to mention it here since it deals with the performance of speech acts and how to show the intended purpose of the message. Because of its importance, Grice' s cooperative principle along with its four maxims: quantity, quality, manner and relation, has received a great deal of criticism on account of its being too difficult to apply and on the overlap among the four maxims. Among the main criticism addressed to Grice, first, interactants especially those belonging to different cultures do not seem to give these maxims the same weight or value, thus their perception seems to vary cross-culturally. Secondly, it is not always possible to find the four maxims in the same context of situation (Mey, 1998).

The maxim approach relies heavily on Gricean pragmatics in trying to answer the question how people mean more than they say. Arguing that speakers are all rational individuals interested in conveying their message in hand effectively, Grice has proposed

what has been known as the Cooperative Principle (hereafter, CP): “Make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (as cited in Grundy, 1995; Thomas, 1995; Yule, 1997). From this CP, Grice advances four sub-maxims: “quality, quantity, relevance, and manner” and articulates that violation of one or more of these conversational maxim(s) may implicate certain speaker intentions. The main adherents to this view are Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983).

1.1. Pragmatics in the E FL Classroom

Language is essentially a means of communication. People use language to accomplish such functions as ordering, promising, arguing, and so on. However, any communicative function needs to be carried out within a context, which may either be interpersonal or social. In the process of communication the language users are expected to be in possession of two sets of capabilities: They need knowledge of the forms of language for negotiating meaning. In order to clarify meaning, the speakers and hearers should be able to interact.

The term context has two aspects here: social and interpersonal. Social context is important in studies that focus on sociolinguistic aspects of language. Interpersonal context, however, should be studied, according to Levinson (1983), in such sub-disciplines as pragmatics, conversation analysis, and discourse analysis. In the present study interpersonal context plays a critical role.

Needless to say, the definition of the term pragmatics serves as a good point of departure. The purpose of this chapter is to present some of the theoretical background on which research into pragmatics has been based. In the first section, we deal with the

concept of pragmatics, its main characteristics and its underlying areas of study. The next two subsections address two of these areas, namely the speech act theory and the politeness theory, since notions such as directness and indirectness in the speech act we have investigated are directly related to politeness.

Our investigation into pragmatics has helped us to understand why people in a foreign (to us) culture can appear to be saying one thing, while intending another. This means that we can only be enabled to clearly comprehend the discourse going on in EFL classrooms.

Our understanding of language, including language learning, is that it is a two-level process. On the one level is competence in phonetics, syntax and to semantics. On the second level is a comprehension of the context (within which we include the whole of a learner's life and worldview) as the environment. The latter is difficult to acquire in a language school. But it is of capital importance to both teachers and students to be aware of this vast cultural gap in order to bridge it within the classroom and so as to avoid misunderstandings.

If pragmatic competence is vital to successful communication, then it is also fundamental that Algerian English teachers help their learners acquire or at least become more aware of this important aspect of communicative competence. Consider what we mean by this term "pragmatics."

1.2. The concept of pragmatics

The term pragmatics, originally used within the philosophy of language (Morris, 1938), is employed to refer to one branch of a science of signs developed by Peirce and termed semiotics that he divided into three main components, as the diagram below shows, namely syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

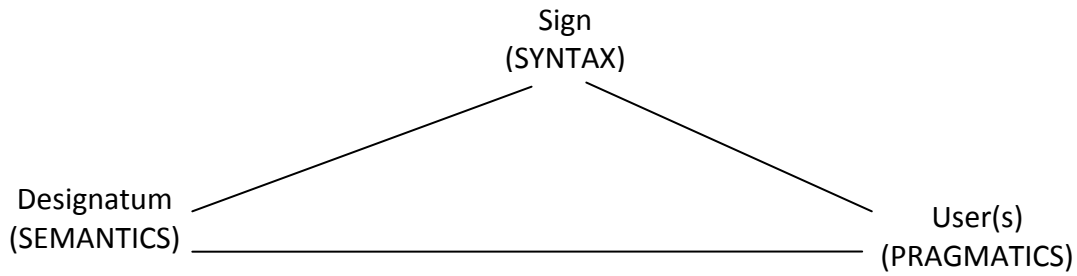


Figure 1.1: *Morris's syntax-semantics-pragmatics trichotomy (Source: adapted from Alcaraz, 1990:114).*

As illustrated in the Figure above, the three interrelated sciences or disciplines of Morris' semiotics consist of syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. The first of the three components, that is syntax, refers to those sequences that are grammatically acceptable, since it involves the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the identification of well-formed sentences. Semantics, which is mainly concerned with the meaning of lexical items, addresses the relationships between literal words and entities in the world. Finally, taking into account that neither syntax nor semantics considers the users, Morris (1938) refers to pragmatics as the semiotic relationship between sign and sign users. In fact, as stated by Yule (1996:4), pragmatics deals with the relationships between linguistic form and the human beings who use those forms.

Although this area originated from semiotics, it was not until the 1970s that the research field of pragmatics, or the study of language in use, came to be regarded as a discipline in its own right in England and France. This fact took place on the basis of the work of a series of philosophers of language such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975), who developed what was to become a science of language of enormous relevance. Until that moment, researchers such as Saussure (1959) or Chomsky (1965) had paid attention only to isolated linguistic forms and structures. Both Saussure's concepts of *langue* and *parole* from the paradigm of structuralism and Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar based on the notions of *competence* and *performance* merely accounted for an ideal grammatical

knowledge shared by native speakers (NSs) of a given language. Hymes pointed out that Chomsky's competence/performance model did not provide an explicit place for sociocultural features in human communication. Hymes (1972) stated that communicative competence referred to the ability to use speech appropriately rather than correctly in different social contexts (Savignon, 1983, 1990; Widdowson, 1978).

Levinson (1983) argues that the interest in pragmatics appeared as a reaction to Chomsky's use of language as an abstract construct, on the one hand, and as a necessity to bridge the gap between existing linguistic theories of language and accounts of linguistic communication, on the other. Levinson (1983) defines pragmatics as the field of study in which linguistic features are considered in relation to the meaning-focused use of the language. This suggests that the study of pragmatics not only focuses on linguistic features, but also looks into the meaning of language use to identify and distinguish two intents or meanings in each utterance or act of verbal communication. One is the informative intent or the sentence meaning, and the other is the communicative intent or speaker meaning (Leech, 1983). Leech subdivides pragmatics into the *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics*. According to Leech, pragmalinguistics refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational and interpersonal meanings.

Kasper (1997, 2000) defines pragmatics as the study of how a speaker uses language in social interaction and its effect on other participants in the communicative event. David Crystal defines it as:

> **"the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (1985, p. 240).**

Crystal has also noted that pragmatics includes those "factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others" (1987, p. 120).

From all the above definitions, we may observe two important characteristics that differentiate pragmatics from any other linguistic disciplines. On the one hand, it puts emphasis on the users of language and, on the other hand, particular attention is given to the context in which these users interact. In this sense, Yule (1996) assumes that pragmatics is primarily concerned with both the study of speaker meaning and contextual meaning.

1.3. Communicative Competence

In the 1970s, a reaction to traditional language teaching approaches began and soon spread around the world as older methods such as Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching did not give satisfaction. The centrality of grammar in language teaching and learning was questioned, since it was argued that language ability involved much more than grammatical competence. While grammatical competence was needed to produce grammatically correct sentences, attention shifted to the knowledge and skills needed to use grammar and other aspects of language appropriately for different communicative purposes such as making requests, giving advice, making suggestions, describing wishes and needs, and so on. What was needed in order to use language communicatively was *communicative competence.* This concept includes knowing what to say and how to say it appropriately based on the situation, the participants, and their roles and intensions. Traditional grammatical and vocabulary syllabuses and teaching methods did not include information of this kind. It was assumed that this kind of knowledge would be picked up informally. Communicative language teaching created a lot of excitement when it first appeared as a new approach to language teaching in the 1970s and 1980s, and language teachers and teaching institutions throughout the world soon began to rethink their teaching, syllabuses, and classroom materials. In planning language courses within a communicative approach,

grammar was no longer the starting point. New approaches to language teaching were needed.

The focus on meaning and purpose through the learners' exposure to authentic language was first introduced in the late 1970s under the influence of the sociolinguistic theory of communicative competence by Dell Hymes. In an effort to interrelate what he believed to be essential to true communicative learning, Hymes (1972) coined the term "communicative competence." Through this term, Hymes was able to emphasize the importance for a language user not only to be able to apply and use grammatical rules but also to form correct utterances and know how to use them appropriately. He argues that communication is not governed by fixed linguistic rules. It is a two-step process in which the speaker first evaluates the social context of the speech and then selects among the communicative options available for encoding his intent. In other words, linguistic competence is not the only element responsible for communication. Rather, an interaction is perceivable between linguistic knowledge and society. The recognition of context as an essential component of the communicative process would then require a definition of communicative competence. While many definitions of communicative competence continue to emerge, Hymes' initial acknowledgement of the role of context in communication serves as a frame of reference in present-day communicative teaching (Savignon 1997). According to Hymes (1974), Chomsky's emphasis on grammatical competence was not to be neglected but instead accompanied by the acknowledgement of meaning in communication determined by a particular speech community and the content of the interaction. In addition to producing grammatically correct utterances, one must also know "when to speak, when not...what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes 1972).

Researchers soon began to recognize that an accurate definition of communicative competence would also need to reflect its multidimensional features. Accordingly, three principal theoretical models emerged, each one acknowledging a set of various subdivisions of competences. Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence by categorizing its components into three main aspects of competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic. Grammatical competence refers to the linguistic knowledge and ability to effectively use the grammatical structures in communication. This competence is largely based on Chomsky's understanding of linguistic competence. It includes knowledge of syntactic, phonological, semantic, and morphological patterns or rules of the language. Sociolinguistic competence refers to utterances which are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors. However, as sociolinguistics is a considerably broad discipline, many researchers use it to refer only to the recognition and use of appropriate varieties of the language. It requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used, including the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction (Savignon, 2002). Strategic competence is the ability to recognize and repair breakdowns in communication and how to bridge the gaps in one's knowledge of the language. (Savignon, 2000, p.45) states: "the strategies that one use to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules-or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention-may be characterized as strategic competence".

In the communicative approach, most researchers agree on the need for the communicative competence to support learning and make the classroom interaction successful. Johnson (1995:161) claims that "classroom communicative competence is

essential in order for the second language students to participate in and learn from their classroom experience."

Pragmatic competence is also important and relevant to this study since effective communication in the classroom is the focal point of this research and promoting effective learning for all the learners its principal aim. This competence entails knowledge of both pragmatic and sociolinguistic conventions to perform acceptable language functions as well as perform these functions appropriately (Bachman 1990).

1.4. Pragmatic competence

Teaching pragmatics entails teaching pragmatic competence. There are a variety of definitions of what pragmatic competence may encompass. The notion of pragmatic competence was early defined by Chomsky (1980) as the "knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes" (p. 224). The concept was seen in opposition to grammatical competence that in Chomsky's term is "the knowledge of form and meaning." Hymes (1972) opposed Chomsky's notions of performance and competence and proposed that communicative competence should be incorporated into language ability. Hymes (1972) pointed out that communicative competence not only deals with grammatical competence, but also sociolinguistic competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) considered pragmatic competence as an important component of communicative competence. The notion of communicative competence has been the subject of discussion for decades (Bachman, 1990; Canal, 1983; Canal and Swain, 1980; Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Hymes, 1972). This model has three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence refers to the learners' abilities to produce grammatically or phonologically accurate sentences in the language used. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the learners' ability to accurately present their sensitivity to linguistic variation within different social contexts. It can relate to non-verbal as to verbal communication. It can be seen, then, that social knowledge is necessary for a FL teacher to select the language forms to use in different settings, and with people in different roles and with different status. It can also relate to knowing when to speak and when to be silent, or what to say in certain circumstances. Part of communicative competence in a foreign language is knowing what is appropriate, what is incongruous, and what might cause offense. Strategic competence, in simple terms, is the ability to successfully "get one's message across." it consists of using communication strategies. These strategies come into play when learners are unable to express what they want to say because they lack the resources to do so successfully. They compensate for this either by changing their original intention or by searching for other means of expression. In Canale and Swain's model, pragmatic competence is identified as sociolinguistic competence and defined as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use. Later, Canale (1988) expanded this definition to include "illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context" (p. 90).

A decade after Canale and Swain's research, Bachman (1990) proposed the language competence model, which contains two main categories with four elements: organizational competence (grammatical competence and textual competence) and pragmatic competence (illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence). Organizational competence refers to knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of using them together in a structured

form of sentences (grammatical competence) and discourse (textual competence). Pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary competence (knowledge of speech acts and speech functions), and sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in sociocultural contexts). In other words, pragmatic competence in Bachman's model refers to the ability to use language to fulfill a wide range of functions and interpret the illocutionary force in discourse according to the contexts in which they are used.

Pragmatic competence encompasses a variety of abilities in the use and interpretation of language in context (Bialystok, 1993). These include a speaker's ability to use language for different purposes (such as greeting, requesting, informing, demanding and so on), the speaker's ability to adapt or change language according to the needs or expectations of the listener or situation, and the speaker's ability to follow accepted rules; the maxims for conversation and narrative.

Within one's own social group, it is normally quite easy to use appropriate language in a variety of communicative settings. This is because language is used in fairly regular ways. One source of this regularity is that members of social groups follow general patterns of behaviour expected by the group. In social settings outside of one's own social group, however, it is sometimes unsure whether the language used is appropriate and whether the interpretations of conversational events are accurate, even when the same first language is shared with the outside group. When speakers from outside a social group use inappropriate utterances, even though syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation are accurate, the inside group notices that the social outsiders communicate in unexpected ways (though it would be rare, of course, for someone other than a language teacher or sociolinguist to label that deficit a problem with pragmatic competence).

Another factor contributing to the regularity of language use derives from the fact that people living in communities share a non-linguistic knowledge and life experiences which often allow interlocutors within these communities to interpret each other's utterances without the need for detailed explanation. A famous and familiar example from textual discourse is that of the children's clothing shop with the sign in the window stating, "Baby Sale—This Week Only!" Because of our pragmatic competence we know without asking that it is not babies which are on sale but rather items for babies. Another personal example is of an African student who studied at the authors' *alma mater* in the United States some 30 years ago. From the airport he took a bus to the small southern town where he would attend college. As he went out the bus, he saw across the street a supermarket with a large sign displaying the words, "WHITE STORE," and assumed that, based on his knowledge, the store was for white people only. In fact "White Store" was simply the name of a chain of supermarkets owned by a family with the surname White.

Pragmatic competence can be defined as an understanding of the relationship between form and context that enables us to express and interpret intended meaning. The ability to do this can be critical to our success as communicators. The consequences of misinterpretation or the inappropriate use of language can range from unfortunate to catastrophic. Interviews have been failed, fortunes ruined, relationships degraded, and. Yet, as Blum-Kulka,House,and Kasper (1989 :10) observe, 'Even fairly advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficits, in that they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value [of utterances]'.

Clearly then, pupils' pragmatic competence should be developed to help them better appreciate and understand how form and context interact to create meaning. The

communicative approach has made communicative competence the goal of language teaching. Successful learning a foreign language is assessed by how well communicative competence is developed by the learner. Kasper (1997) argues that pragmatic is needed to be taught in an EFL classroom setting. He suggests students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence. In this case, the teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners' ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter. As a result, the problems of pragmatic failures can be avoided and a favorable human relationship that is conductive to both teaching and learning in the classroom setting is encouraged

1.5. Role of Pragmatic Competence in the Communicative Classroom

Pragmatic competence is an important component in the communicative process due to its attention to the role of the interlocutors in communication. Widdowson (1978) notes that although students may have learned the rules of linguistic usage; they are often unable to use the language in context. Effective communication can take place only when the message conveyed by the language user is interpreted appropriately and understood by the hearer (Savignon 1997). In response to the various shortcomings of previous methods and approaches, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) then emerged. “As an approach CLT reflected pragmatic competence through the recognition of the interdependence of language and communication. It emphasizes language meaning in addition to language form, placing profound emphasis on contextualized communication in the target language. Through the use of authentic materials and small-group work, learners are given the opportunity to use meaningful, purposeful language related to real-world topics.” (Larsen-Freeman 2000).

More importantly, however, is the acknowledgement of pragmatic competence as an essential component to achieve proficiency in EFL classrooms.

For this reason, this study serves as a contribution to the formation of Algerian teachers of English who are encouraged to exploit the social context of the language classroom more fully, since it reflects what happens in society more generally.

1.6. Factors in Determining FL Pragmatic Competence

1.6.1. The language classroom as a social context

Researchers' attention is now being directed to the social dynamics and discourse of the classroom. What does teacher-learner interaction look like? If language use is essential for the development of communicative competence, then the nature and amount of second language use in the classroom setting needs to be examined closely. Is the aim truly communication, that is, is the focus on the negotiation of meaning, rather than on practice of grammatical forms? What are the opportunities for interaction in the second language? Who participates? Who initiates discourse in the second language? What are the purposes of this discourse (Savignon 1997)?

Questions related to patterns of communication and opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning become all the more convincing as technological advances increase dramatically and alter the nature of such opportunities. E-mail, chat rooms, on-line teaching materials, and video-conferencing are, indeed redefining the concept of ''classroom'' and, with it, the roles of teachers and learners.

The language classroom is a unique discourse community. Pupils and teachers make up a group that shares content knowledge, context knowledge, discourse knowledge and linguistic knowledge. To succeed in being an effective communicator, the teacher needs to

be aware of the various factors that impact human communication; this awareness will help the language user to create authentic communication in the target language and allow pupils to acquire significant experience in using that language. The basic assumption in any verbal and non verbal interaction is that the interlocutors want to communicate ideas, feelings, attitudes, and information to the learners or want to employ speech that relates to the situation. The objective of the speaker is to be understood and for the message to be properly interpreted by the hearer that can be the teacher or the learner. It is in fact the speaker's intention that needs to be communicated to the interlocutor. However, a 'faulty' production could create a piece of spoken discourse that is misunderstood.

1.6.2. The Positive Aspects of Grice's Views of Non-natural Meaning, the CP, and Implicature

The major strength of Grice's views of non-natural meaning and the CP is central both to the production and interpretation of talk. In any reasonable classroom interaction, an interactional code must be established to understand and to be understood.

A second positive aspect of the Gricean perspective is that talk is conceptualized as one particular form among many possible forms of coordinated and cooperative social interaction. The view that talk is embedded in and constitutive of social activity has many important implications, two of which may be noted in the present context. One implication is that an emphasis on the practical nature of talk highlights the for-all-practical-purposes nature of actions and shared understanding (intersubjectivity) in talk. The view that talk is social interaction also carries the implication that, in order to coordinate their talk, participants must share certain assumptions, a certain common ground, about the nature of

their interaction. From this perspective, the mutual assumption that the CP and its rules are being respected, that each participant has the ability to work out implicatures when required, and that each participant can recognize when a flouting has occurred. This, in a classroom learning setting, appeals teachers of taking into account other types of sharing background, such as mutual assumptions about personal, social and cultural knowledge that may need to be included in a model of classroom effective communication.

1.6.3 The Interpersonal Dimension

Stressing the importance of the transactional and interpersonal dimensions in classroom talk, an argument is made for why participants in interactive activities should take into account the interpersonal consequences of their actions and the ways in which they perform them. For this reason, it is important for this study to deal with the relation between transactional and interpersonal orientations in talk.

1.6.4. Relevance of Transactional and interpersonal aspects in the classroom

Participants in classroom need to interact efficiently. For effective learning to happen efficiency is always relative to some rules, and in talk there are efficiencies with respect to transactional and interpersonal orientations. Often, behaving correctly a transactional orientation interferes with the ability to act efficiently with an interpersonal orientation, and vice-versa. For example, suppose S makes a request of A. Transactional efficiency requires brevity, in accordance with a less effort process, and clarity. The result is a direct request, such as ‘be quiet’ a request that might well offend A and leave A with the impression that S is an inconsiderate person. By contrast, interpersonal efficiency requires attributes such as indirectness, vagueness, excuses, apologies, and thanks. The result is a non-Gricean request, such as 'I'm sorry to tell you that you don’t listen to understand. As is clear from these

examples, the two sorts of efficiency are in direct opposition. One way to deal with the conflicting efficiencies is to ignore one dimension at the expense of the other. This, however, may not be feasible. Unless participants can exchange information and bring about changes in the place they share through their action to establishing the kind of interpersonal relationship that will enable educational transaction to take place in an atmosphere of respect, caring, cooperation and motivation. Thus, the transactional and interpersonal dimensions are inextricably connected in communication. The strategy of respected self-interest provides the best way to maximize the achievement of both types of goals for all parties in the educational process that can prevent violence and failure at school. Namely, P. Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of universal principles of politeness in social interaction are to be dealt with in the chapter of review of literature.

1.7. Introducing politeness into the classroom

The notion of politeness, although somewhat difficult to define as a culturally determined phenomenon, exists nonetheless in every speech community. This, in part, has led many foreign language pedagogues to question the significance of pragmatic competence as a component of overall communicative competence. Politeness serves as one essential aspect of pragmatic competence for a variety of reasons. First, its use demonstrates cultural awareness and sensitivity within a particular culture. Second, it allows the speaker to successfully convey his intentions and meaning, assuming his/her intentions coincide with what is regarded as respectful to the culture. This can be accomplished through knowledge of the culture in question as well as awareness of any linguistic forms that may reflect politeness according to a particular culture's social norms. Finally, it allows the student to observe the direct correlation between language and culture. In this way, a

certain linguistic form denoting politeness may be a clear reflection of the cultural values of a particular speech community.

Politeness is often presented to language learners implicitly, basically as things they should or should not say and do when interacting in English. Generally presenting politeness as do's and don'ts according to language structure being taught. Appropriate polite interaction is obviously reflected in speech acts. Therefore, teachers could help students understand appropriate polite communication by presenting the do's and don'ts more explicitly in the form of discussion or debate in relationship to target language structure. In addition to exploring socially appropriate greetings and communicative variables within the context of pupils' own culture, the teacher can also help them understand effective communication in the target language. For example "Hey where are you going?" may be linguistically correct, but not an appropriate polite greeting in English. Understanding polite intercourse and how significantly politeness affects all aspects of day-to-day social interaction within students' own society can lead to deep understanding and awareness of politeness in the target language.

Effect on learners

It is important to help students understand that politeness is bound by culture, context and socially accepted norms within their own language community as it is in the English language community. It is equally essential for a teacher not to alienate students by presenting politeness in such a way that implies criticism or in any way that devalues accepted norms of the students' native culture. "…one of our primary tenets should be the highest respect for the languages and cultures of our students" Brown (2000). With this in mind teachers' should introduce politeness in a non-judgmental manner, in a way that does

not judge or put value on culture's socially accepted norms above the other. Creating a positive non-threatening environment in the classroom for students to discuss politeness in their own culture and in English which Kramsch (1993) describes as a "third culture"or a of the language classroom—'a neutral space that learners can create and use to explore and reflect on their own and the target culture and language'. The emergence of conflicting ideas of appropriateness' within students' own cultural norms can be a positive learning curve for the students. Cultural awareness strengthens mutual understanding and generates constructive relationships based on the acquired rules in a variety of social interactive settings.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Presentation

The main concept of this study which is Classroom Interaction can be explained from different perspectives. Effective interaction can allow learners to understand their teachers and to be understood by them. The interactants will build constructive relationships to maintain social harmony relevant to the foreign language learning. Finally, the main tool of analysis in line with the pragmatic perspective is illuminated, that is, the Gricean Maxims and their implementation in classroom communication analysis.

2.1.1. Understanding Classroom Discourse

Learning and teaching in the classroom take place mostly through interpersonal communication between teachers and pupils. Like the context in which this communication occurs, the relationships between teachers and students are neither fixed nor programmed. Rather they are constructed, negotiated by them as they act and react through verbal and non-verbal behaviors. The management of communication is one of the central tasks of the classroom teacher.

Effective student learning relies largely upon positive management of classroom communication in all its forms and situations. It is said that teaching is communication that is at the heart of the learning process. In other words, the relation between teachers and students can be understood as a process of communication. But what is communication? How does it take place? And what kind of relationship that can be established between teachers and students through communication?

An important tool that an individual not only uses to relate to his or her society but also to build his/her "world" is language. This is a triangular relationship where each factor depends on the other two to connect to that common space, which exists amongst the three

- the individual, the society in which s/he operates and the language s/he uses. This space is where that complex phenomenon called "communication" plays itself. Analyzing this common space in a communication situation where a foreign language is used is the aim of this paper. Placing language in a broader framework of social events facilitates a much wider understanding of language as a means of communication.

The Language Use

Language manifests itself in its use. Theoretically it is important to differentiate language and its use, since it is this separation of the grammatical, structural core from its socio-cultural element, which helps explain problems faced by learners of a foreign language in using that language in certain situations.

It is clear that there is much more to language than grammar, when we apply this separation to the problem of learners who know the grammar of the foreign language well but fail to put the language to use in conversation situations. And in case of the use of a foreign language, how does this "factor other than grammar" affect the capacity of the learner to communicate effectively? What is it then that is not available in the EFL classroom that hampers pupils and their teachers to communicate successfully in the foreign language?

How different is Foreign Language Communication?

While conversing, we draw upon the communicative competence (Hymes 1972) comprising of "our tacit knowledge of the abstract rules of a language" (Schiffrin 1988). Using this knowledge we build sound-meaning correspondences in grammatical structures and employ them in socially and culturally "appropriate" contexts (Schiffrin 1988). According to Gumperz such a competence involves knowledge of the linguistic and other conventions

of communication that a speaker must follow in order to start and sustain the conversational cooperation.

Holding on to the cooperation principle (Grice), speakers begin a conversation with information which is most familiar and proceed towards the less known information. Studies on information structure of sentences have shown that cooperation and coordination at semantic and syntactic levels of language use are needed to complete a communication act.

The ability to converse is what makes humans distinctive. Language is the vehicle by which we communicate with each other with precision. We use language to express our feelings, to make plans, to negotiate, to share experiences, to discuss issues, to maintain relationships, and even to sing songs. The main goal of the class based conversation is to develop the ability to do the above mentioned things in English. It is commonly accepted nowadays that the ability to communicate is the primary goal of foreign language learning (Stern, 1983; Widdowson, 1983; Littlewood, 1984; etc.). All language teachers can ever hope do in the classroom is to prepare pupils for effective communication outside the classroom, in real life. Teacher-fronted lessons tend to be ritualistic and seem to inhibit genuine communication because the instructor does most of the talking and, in such classes students spend too much time just listening. In such circumstances, students tend to become passive and inactive. This way of teaching does not really achieve the goal of communicative language teaching-to develop learners' communicative competence.

We present an analysis of classroom discourse in the Algerian EFL classrooms. This analysis is drawn from research we have conducted, and we provide examples to illustrate various discourse features. We go on to examine correction practices. In our analysis, we

provide two perspectives on these varied discourse strategies: the interpersonal and the pedagogical functions.

2.1.2. EFL Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse analysis is an aspect of classroom process research, which is one way for teachers to monitor both the quantity and quality of students' output. Nunan has pointed that "If we want to enrich our understanding of language learning and teaching, we need to spend time looking in classroom" (Nunan, 1989:76). In recent years, a much greater role has been attributed to interactive features of classroom behaviors, such as "turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning, and feedback" (Chaudron, 1988:10). The background of this lies in the fact that "second language learning is a highly interactive process" (Richard and Lockhart, 1996:138) and "the quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on learning" (Ellis, 1985, cited from Richard and Lockhart, 1996:138). In using discourse analysis to improve classroom interaction, we show how the analysis of teacher and students' classroom talk can illustrate how learning is built interactively.

Classroom interaction and discourse derive from an integration of the teachers' and students' understanding of context and content, and significantly depend on the language employed and their strategic competencies. These reflect the participants' ability to communicate and learn through language, incorporating the negotiation of meaning in the act of communication.

When entering the EFL classroom, Algerian students leave behind the reality created by the people they live with at home or outside the school, and start constructing both a new view on the world and new group relationships. English becomes both a tool for possible encounters in the world outside the classroom and an instrument that creates and shapes the social meaning of the class itself. Through interacting with their teacher and

classmates in English, the students learn not only lexis and grammar structures but also how to use this language in communicating. Through classroom communication and interaction in English, they also create a new group reality and identity. Consequently, we can see EFL learning as being more than a simple language learning task.

The duality of the student's identity as an individual learner on one hand, and a participant to a new learning group relationship on the other, may create tensions between the students' individual learning and the group's learning, and between teacher-controlled and individual-managed learning. These tensions are often augmented in the Algerian context, where teaching is still considered as being a predominantly verbal activity. Most of the Algerian teachers believe they are supposed to lecture, explain more and more, ask questions and ask students to do things. They see their students as having an opposite role to their own – of listening, understanding, answering and responding to the initiatives of the teachers. The everyday educational process and classroom routines are based mostly on teacher – student dialogue, with emphasis laid on public, explicit, verbal expression of knowledge, achieving a close relationship between talking, teaching, and learning (Stubbs 1983, 44).

In this context, EFL teachers are expected to be able to communicate effectively in English in the classroom, to operate in English using its social, organizational, and personal potential fully, within their fixed, institutionalized status, within expected and predictable behavior patterns, acquired through years of schooling. At the same time, they are expected to communicate logically in class, to assume a variety of roles and tasks and negotiate them with their students, as these are brought together by the study of a language to be used for communication outside the classroom. For the successful completion of classroom learning and teaching tasks, in an unstable balance between the instructional and the interactional, each teacher tries to establish a form of creative classroom discourse and interaction, by regularly negotiating and/or suspending social roles. Teacher and students employ and

practise verbal and non-verbal strategies that they think to be appropriate to complete certain communicative and social goals. In the interaction, they produce their own behavior but also they understand and respond to the behavior of others. However, these classroom communication behaviors are to a large extent determined by the teacher's approach to teaching and learning that influences the kind of tasks that the teacher assigns for and during the interaction.

Classroom discourse can be viewed not only in pedagogical terms but also as a social event. It is not only the outcome of the participants' knowledge of English as both usage and use, but also of the interaction of social and cultural structures that exist as a resource shared by the participants. And indeed, quite a lot of genuine social interaction can be generated in the EFL classroom, even when the topic of discussion is the English language itself. This perspective on classroom discourse has been suggested by researchers such as Allwright (1984) and Tsui (1987, 1995) among others.

Coulthard, on his part, (1977, 101) maintains that verbal interaction inside the classroom differs clearly from natural conversation, as the main purpose of verbal interaction in the classroom is to instruct and inform. In the classroom, he says, the teacher chooses a topic, decides how it will be subdivided into smaller units and copes with possible digressions and misunderstandings from the part of the students. In contrast, in natural conversation, topic changes and topic developments are unpredictable and uncontrollable just because participants do not have the same degree of control. As for digressions and misunderstandings, they are dealt with by all contributors to the conversation.

In a recent study of foreign language classroom interaction, Lynch (Lynch 1966) points out that "there are striking similarities between teacher – student interaction and natural conversations (both between native speakers of different levels of proficiency and

between native and non-native speakers).” Also, he shows that “classroom interaction strategies are more important than teacher talk modifications in providing comprehensible input for the students. Not unlike the native speakers in casual conversations, EFL and ESL teachers (native or non-native) use a number of devices to enable their students to understand them better and to avoid breakdowns in communication: confirmation checks, clarifications, comprehension and repetition requests, and decompositions.”

However, as interaction is a two-way process (Tsui 1995, Lynch 1996), “the comprehensibility of the classroom message does not depend solely on the teacher but also on how involved the students are in trying to obtain comprehensible input. Students can do this by using devices such as confirmation checks, clarification and repetition requests – devices similar to those employed for similar purposes by the teacher and by native speakers in natural conversation: The presence of such devices in classroom interaction is a sure signal that the students are actively engaged in the negotiation of meaning.” Such practices are rare in the Algerian EFL classroom, and the limited number of examples that we managed to collect shows that Algerian EFL teachers tend to ignore the interactional, social dimension of classroom talk.

If Algerian EFL teachers can become more aware of these similarities between classroom discourse and natural conversation and better prepared to exploit them skillfully, they may be able to introduce more natural conversational practices in their classrooms. The real challenge is for them to be able to deal with the pragmatic and linguistic irregularity of the classroom and skillfully exploit its inherent naturalness.

In the more unpredictable student-oriented communication, the emphasis is on the interactional, interpersonal process itself, on the way in which each student interacts with the material of the task and negotiates intended meanings with other members of the

group. The focus of such activities is on learning how to learn and how to acquire control over communication. The students can practice language use and also acquire interactive skills. However, irrespective of the teacher's approach to teaching and learning that can be seen in the kind of the lesson planned activities that are favored, classroom interaction is characterized by both situational and linguistic planning and unpredictability and authenticity. These features lead to two types of classroom communication: interpersonal and pedagogical.

In brief, EFL classroom communication serves more than one functions at the same time: English is not only the subject of instruction but also the means through which instruction is achieved and interpersonal bonds are built. Students learn and use English concurrently while interacting as members of a group, even when their FL resources are very limited. Moreover, the language that is taught and used in the classroom is learnt to be used outside it, as the ultimate goal of learning is for the students to be able to use English receptively and productively outside the classroom for purposes that, very often, cannot be foreseen in advance socially, situationally, tactically or linguistically.

2.1.3. Types of communication

The concept of communication needs to be clarified since it is considered as the heart of the matter in this research. Our focus will be on the interactive communication relevant to this study. Conran (1989) discussed three types of communication that may be found in a typical classroom environment with a specific objective effect for each one of them.

2.1.4. Proactive communication

Proactive communication, which is mainly used by the teacher, is seen as and direct. Its purpose is ordering or directing. It is characteristic of structuring a task and producing instructions.

2.1.5. Defensive Communication

It is important to be able to communicate in a manner that is appropriate and effective. Miscommunication or ineffective communication can sometimes lead to defensive communication. People often communicate defensively without knowing it because they don't understand what is or how it occurs. Defensive communication is employed when someone feels threatened. It is not an open form of communication and is neither constructive nor effective. It has the result of closing off communication. "the defensive style of communication is based on a lack of respect for the other and the need to exercise one's power. There are several types of communications that contribute to a defensive communication climate". (Barisoff & Victor, 1998).

2.1.6. Interactive Communication

This type is an indirect and open form of interaction. It is effective in facilitating successful learning by students because it fosters positive classroom climate, and enhancing relationships between teachers and learners. It is based on trust and respect and is important for the achievement of the goals of the classroom discourse. Interaction is in fact of a highly complex nature. That is because the job of a teacher is very different from the job of a teaching-machine, in that the function of a teacher is not solely pedagogical but involves

various other tasks like promoting learning motivation, maintaining classroom discipline and fostering a favorable human relationship that is conducive to both teaching and learning in the classroom setting. It is no exaggeration to say that the degree of success of the pedagogical task depends to a great extent upon the degree of success of the other tasks, which we may refer to as 'para-pedagogical'. There is a possibility of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting with the assumption that the problems of pragmatic failure can be overcome by giving the students the tools to make the processes of pragmatic decision-making explicit.

2.2. The Importance of Interactions

Relationships are often understood in terms of interactions that occur, and often the terms are used interchangeably (e.g., Davis, 2003). For the purpose of this study, it is perhaps more appropriate to view interactions as one aspect of the teacher student relationship and an important vehicle through which that relationship, and its subsequent outcome for students, can be observed.

Teachers spend much of their school days talking to and with children. When one thinks back on their own school experiences and the kinds of things teachers talked about, one is reminded of teachers telling students what to do and when to do it, managing behavior, assessing understanding by listening to children, presenting information, providing feedback, and using talk to scaffold understanding (Mercer, 1995). Cazden (1988) describes several features of classrooms that highlight the utility of talk. First, curriculum is enacted through interactions and serves to connect the cognitive and social domains of learning. Second, classrooms are busy and fast paced, and the majority of talk that takes place is controlled by the teacher. Third, because classroom talk is usually public (others are either part of or privy to interactions that take place between the teacher and individual students)

and participation is expected, spoken language becomes an important aspect in the development of one's individual identity. While students with disabilities are not likely to succeed without appropriate instruction and adaptations, the enactment of the instruction and adaptations that is so essential as well as their social status occurs through talk. For example, a teacher may provide an excellent description of a difficult lesson to understand concept in science. However, if a student is not used to listening, her words may go unnoticed. What does the teacher do to engage a student in the conversation? Do her questions encourage deeper processing or instill fear in those afraid that they may not know the *correct* answer? How do the other students perceive a student who gives an incorrect response to a teacher's question?

Careful study of the ways teachers and students interact, or engage in verbal exchanges together, can shed light on both what happens during learning activities as well as why events occur as they do in individual classrooms. To be sure, talk cannot usually be separated from instruction, and in many cases, it is instruction. However, the focus on talk allows one to analyze how understanding is negotiated. The utility of studying talk in classrooms is further articulated by Wells:

> Discourse is a means, not an end in itself, and verbal information is for the correctness of the way in which it is formulated but for its use means towards the achievement of some larger purpose. What we need to attend to, therefore, in order to understand the role of talk in the classroom, is not so much the talk per se, as the contribution it makes to the activities in which students engage in the "lived-in world" of the classroom, the actual structures of participation, and the function that talk performs – along with other semiotic systems – in mediating the goals of these activities (Wells, 1999, p. 231-232).

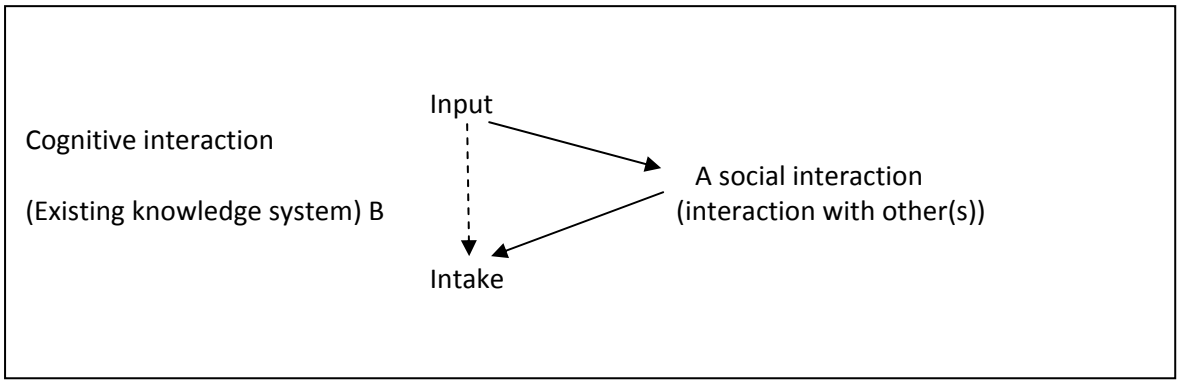
Having introduced the importance of the study of interactions in classrooms, we are going to review part of the large body of research in this area

2.2.1 Classroom interaction and SLA

A common theme underlying different methods of language teaching is that second language learning is a highly interactive process (Richards & Lockhart, 2000:138). In recent years, a great deal of researchers (Allwright, 1984; Ellis 1990; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985) in the field of L2 acquisition reveal to a great extent the importance of classroom interaction that involves both input and output. The Interaction Hypothesis claims that it is in the interaction process that acquisition occurs: learners acquire through talking with others (Johnson, 2002: 95). According to Allwright and Ellis, classroom teaching should be treated as interaction. Now it is clear that the language used in classroom affects the nature of the interaction, which in turn affects the opportunities available for learning, the study of interaction is therefore critical to the study of language classroom learning.

Van Lier (1988) points out: if the keys to learning are exposure to input and meaningful interaction with other speakers, we must find out what input and interaction the classroom can provide… we must study in detail the use of language in the classroom in order to see if and how learning comes about through the different ways of interaction in the classroom. He also points out that interaction is essential for language learning which occurs in and through participation in speech events that is, talking to others, or making conversation (Van Lier, 1988:77-78).

In the following diagram, he suggests that interaction mediates between input and intake. Most important and central is the interaction with others in meaningful activities, but as a complement, and perhaps partial replacement, the learner's cognitive apparatus may also interact directly with the available input or sections.



Ellis (1985) points out: classroom instruction, both in the form of meaningful interaction, and in the form of linguistic rules, may influence the rate of acquisition.

Teachers can influence the kind of interaction that occurs in their own classrooms. Successful outcomes may depend on the type of language used by the teacher and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom.

Fillmore (Ellis, 1985:160) is one of the researchers to have investigated how classroom interaction affects the rate of SLA. Fillmore compared the progress of sixty L2 learners in different classrooms. She found that neither the difference in classroom composition (mixed English-speaking and no-English speaking only) nor the difference in the type of teaching offered ('open' or 'teacher-directed') influences the success of language learning when considered separately. The availability of facilitative discourse types is not entirely dependent on the type of classroom organization adopted by the teacher. Pupils will learn most successfully when they are given ample opportunities to interact in conversation.

So in this sense, we can say that how a lesson progresses and whether it is successful largely depends on the interaction between the students and the teacher.

Classroom interaction is mainly realized by IRF (teachers' initiate-students' respond-teachers' feedback) structure. In this model, teachers often initiate interaction by asking questions. Teachers' questions can not only create more interaction activities, but can prompt students to participate in all kinds of negotiation of meaning. Negotiation makes input comprehensible and promotes SLA. The result of the negotiation of meaning is that particular types of input and interaction result (Ellis, 1985:142). Teachers carry out all their teaching tasks by teacher talk, an understanding of the aspects of teacher talk and their functions in the classroom interaction is, therefore, very important. The research on teacher talk offers an ideal perspective to investigate and understand what is going on in EFL classrooms.

2.2.2 Aspects of Classroom Interaction

The understanding of the role of interaction in the classroom context in enhancing the speaking skill comes from the understanding of its main types: teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction, where negotiation of meaning and the provision of feedback are highlighted. Classroom interaction then involves the verbal exchanges between learners and teachers; however, teachers should know that the learners need to do most of the talk to activate their speaking, since this skill requires practice and experience to be developed. If teachers are advised to reduce their time of talking in the classroom interaction, this does not mean that they have no role to play. They are not only required to involve all of the learners in the interactive activities but they must also apply some of the teaching strategies to get them all to talk.

Classroom interaction involves two main aspects, which are negotiation of meaning and feedback. If these two elements are not available in the classroom, then we cannot speak of a successful learning through interaction. Ellis and Foto (1999:09) say, “Interaction contributes to acquisition through the provision of negative evidence and through opportunities for modified output.” Interaction then is rich of meaning negotiation where the learners can receive feedback from their interlocutors.

2.2.2.1. Negotiation of Meaning

Studies on interaction between learners focus on the interactive discourse between learners engaged in second language learning tasks where negotiation of meaning is the focal point. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) define negotiation of meaning as “the verbal exchanges that occur when the speakers seek to prevent the breakdown of the communication.” They add that negotiation of meaning is the central discourse structure. The learners in the classroom then should make the linguistic output more comprehensible for the other learners in the class, so that they can engage with them in the interaction. However, if there is a lack of comprehension different processes can be focused on to repair the interaction. Mackey Alison (2007: 12-3) asserts that:

> “Through processes of repetition, segmentation and rewording, interaction can serve to draw learners’ attention to form-meaning relationship and provide them with additional time to focus on encoding meaning.”

Repetition involves repeating the students’ exact speech as it is when the others do not understand. Segmentation is another process for repairing a negotiation; the students repeat the utterance by dividing it into linguistic segments with a rising or falling intonation. Therefore, instead of all these terms, clarification can be considered as an umbrella term to cover these processes; the learners in interactions often ask the one who speaks to explain

more if they do not understand, and the latter attempts to modify his output to meet the level of understanding of the whole class. The opportunities of meaning negotiation help the language learners in three main ways. First, as suggested by Long and others, it helps learners to get comprehensible input that is to say it facilitates comprehension. One way in which this takes place is when the negotiation breaks down and learners seek to segment the input into units so that they can understand them. Second, negotiation of meaning provides learners with feedback on how to use the second language. For example, teachers very often correct students' mistakes when they negotiate so that they use the SL accurately. Finally, negotiation of meaning encourages learners to adjust, manipulate and modify their personal output, because a successful negotiation occurs when learners produce outputs that are comprehensible and therefore target-like (Pica 1992-1994 cited in Ellis 2003).

To sum up, in negotiation of meaning the students will focus on the form as well, because negotiation involves feedback and modification to input and output when the students attempt to send again their misunderstanding, which is sometimes due to problems with language use.

2.2.2.2. The Role of Feedback

Feedback on the pupils' achievements is both important and useful in teaching as an interactive process. Effective feedback is a significant regulator of the teaching process. In one way, these information not only provide a significant support to students in their further planning of activities, but also in setting up the objectives of further activities as well. On the other hand, the feedback also serves the teachers to evaluate and thus direct their teaching towards the lesson's objective. For example, if the students do not acquire some concepts,

the teacher can easily detect the problem and give it more time. Feedback has regulatory and formative effect not only by its content (what has been learnt, how much and what is the quality of the knowledge achieved) but also by the way it is provided (the way of communicating and emotional tone). Consequently, both the content and the way of providing feedback either influence the atmosphere in the class so that it stimulates students to think, or demotivate them. Stimulating students to require feedback is very important, as well as pointing out why it is so valuable. The teacher can demonstrate this by giving examples of bad and good feedback to some of students' answers.

Researchers have suggested that oral feedback is one of the key beneficial aspects of interaction which can promote learning in general. According to Mackey (2007: 30) "through interaction that involves feedback, the attention of the learners are paid to the form of errors and are pushed to create modification." In order to develop the speaking skill through interaction, learners must notice the errors and recognize them for correction. Thus, for some researchers attention is very crucial for learning. Feedback may occur from learners, i.e. learners are able to correct and call each other's attention to the errors. In doing so, they very rarely replace their interlocutors' correct form with incorrect form. However, feedback from teachers can be different from the learners' one, because teachers employ many types of correction strategies.

Mackey (2007) suggests two forms of feedback, an explicit and implicit feedback. Explicit feedback is defined as any feedback that states overtly that learners do not use the second language correctly in their speech; it is also called metalinguistic feedback because teachers provide the learners with the linguistic form of their errors. Whereas implicit feedback refers to the corrective feedback that includes requests for clarification or recasts, in other words, teachers rephrase the learners' utterance by changing one or more sentence

components. Recently, many studies have shown that the explicit feedback is more effective than the implicit feedback. This means that in explicit feedback, the teacher draws the students' attention directly to the errors so that the students do not use them again. Whereas, in implicit feedback, the teacher asks students to reformulate their output to be understood and this is an indirect corrective feedback since the teacher does not point the errors directly. In brief, the feedback role of interaction is of crucial Importance. On one hand, students often want to know how they are doing in relation to their peers. On the other hand, teachers should not deal with all oral production of the students and during all the time, they should make decisions when and how to react to the students' errors so that the interactive activity will not break down each time.

2.3. Types of Classroom Interaction

Thurmond (2003) defines interaction as

> **"The learners' engagement with the course content, other learners, the instructor and the technological medium used in the course. True interactions with other learners, the instructor and technology results in a reciprocal exchange of information. The exchange of information intended to enhance knowledge development in the learning environment."**

From this quote we understand that there are four types of interaction: learner-course content interaction, learner-learner interaction, learner-teacher interaction and learner-technology interaction. We shall focus in this research work only on two main types namely teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction.

2.3.1. Teacher-Learner Interaction

This type of interaction as Coulthard (1977) mentions has received a great deal from teachers in a wide range of disciplines. It happens between the teacher and one learner or many other learners, that is to say a teacher takes a part in such interaction. S/he negotiates

with her/ his students the content of the course, asks questions, uses students ideas, lectures, gives directions, criticizes or justifies student talk responses. On the other hand, the students will benefit by drawing on the experience of their teachers on how well to interact in the manner that is most effective.

During teacher-learner interaction, the students seek to demonstrate their speaking and listening skills in front of their teachers and fellow learners that is why the latter should consider her/ his way of interacting which is very crucial in learning and teaching. According to Harmer (2009) teachers should focus on three things when they talk with their students. Firstly, they must pay attention to the kind of language the students are able to understand, i.e. teachers should provide an output that is comprehensible for the level of all the students. Secondly, the teachers must think about what they will say to their students, hence the teacher speech is as a resource for learners. Finally, teachers also have to identify the ways in which they will speak such as the voice, tone and intonation.

2.3.2. Learner-Learner Interaction

Today it is widely that students can learn from and among themselves. Thus, different ways in which they can interact meaningfully have come to be favored in classrooms. Although there are different options for promoting student-student interaction in the EFL classroom, not all of the teachers seem to foster authentic oral communication and, and as a result, hardly suit the communicative lesson.

Many theories of learning maintain that knowledge is actively constructed and skills improved through interactions between learners. Johnson (1995) supports that if learner-learner interaction is well structured and managed, it can be an important factor of cognitive development, educational achievement of students and emerging social competencies. It

can also develop the learners' capacities through collaborative works. So, learners will establish social relationship through this kind of interaction, where the sense of learning community is promoted and isolation is reduced in the classroom.

Naegle Paula (2002: 128) adds that "talking students with their peers about the content of the course is a powerful way for them to reinforce what they have learned." The teachers ought to encourage such type of interaction between learners because it is the fastest and the best way, it makes learners active rather than passive participants.

There is a rich literature to support that there is a link between interaction and learning. It is confirmed that if teachers try to provide opportunities for oral discussion in their classes, encourage learners to initiate topics and put some responsibility on the part of their learners, the class would be enjoyable, and creative. For those students who are either reserved or reluctant to participate in the classroom, the teacher can directly ask them to speak rather than wait for their responses. We may also conclude that language is a sign of creativity and the ability to match form of language to appropriate situation is one realization of this creativity. Through interaction and interpersonal relationships, creative language use (respecting or violating Grice's maxims) plays an important role as the learners engage in discussion to meet the mutual understanding that can enhance them to achieve a shared goal. If we are to claim that our language learning is meaningful, it should be rooted in conversation.

There has always been misunderstanding or problems in communication among the interlocutors within the classroom setting, when interacting. These meaningful problems may diminish provided that classroom setting provides a context for growth and development for participants. It is worth saying that teachers should equip themselves with

efficient competences such as communicative, pragmatic, strategic and interactive competence to prevent conflict, conductive to violence from happening.

2.4. How to make oral interaction in Foreign Language lessons

The social roles of 'teacher' and 'student' govern the characteristics of language and patterns of classroom discourse, usually asymmetrical. An atmosphere of cooperation or negotiation may, however, lead to less asymmetrical interactive patterns. The gap to be bridged is 'FL use' and the limitations students face in their oral proficiency when they engage in whole-class interaction. As for the teacher, it is expected that he or she should be not only 'linguistically competent' and proficient in the language but also able to manage classroom interaction in a way to motivate and favor student's participation in the lessons. As stated in Consolo (2000b), competence in the target language is one of the requisites for a FL teacher so that he or she can encourage students to participate in oral interaction in the classroom and thus contribute to their oral language development. The integration and articulation of the factors that determine the sociolinguistic environment of FL classrooms namely students' needs, cultural aspects, linguistic aspects and psychological aspects, and other aspects like content, elements of motivation, comprehensibility of language by means of listening skills, motivation generated in the classroom environment, the quality of oral production and the opportunities for negotiation of meaning, may provide for desirable conditions to encourage language development.

The numerous factors involved in FL classroom interaction can be a motivation for continuous reflection for EFL teachers to rethink of their way of teaching and thus avoid problems of misunderstandings with their learners within the classroom. Although sociocultural rules usually determine the characteristics of teacher-student interaction, the

teacher's awareness of such rules and factors is essential for him or her to work towards pedagogical achievements.

The roles of the teacher and the learner

One can hardly envisage a language learning situation in the absence of an interaction of the student with his / her fellow students, the teacher and the textbook. Every time the student interacts with any of these sources, she or he makes various hypotheses about what s/he is learning, and accepts or rejects them, trying out new ones. In her or his attempt to learn the foreign language, s/he is dependent on her/his co-interactants, as s/he develops a wide range of strategies which will be tested only in a communicative context. Strategies can be distinguished in three categories: production strategies, comprehension strategies and interactive strategies. We will not explore any of these in the present study. We should only point out the importance of human interaction in the classroom as a condition for successful language learning and intellectual, emotional and social development.

Teachers may fill a variety of roles in carrying out their duties. These can include not only the traditional one of transmitter of knowledge, but also others such as Counselor, social worker, assessor, and manager. As classroom life can be busy and rapidly changing, some teachers may fulfill several of these roles within the same lesson.

Learners may also play different roles during lessons. They are expected to be learners of knowledge, skills, attitudes or behavior. From time to time they may also be deviants, jokers (laughing, creating humor which may lighten or heighten tensions), collaborators, investigators or even servants.

Learners develop greater self-esteem and a greater sense of being valued by their classmates. They develop more positive attitude towards learning, school, and their teachers. They usually learn more in the subjects they study by cooperative learning, and they acquire more of the skills and attitudes that are conductive to effective collaboration with their peers.

If we accept that our goal as teachers of English is essentially to help our learners to be effective communicators, we must inevitably appeal to a theory of language use that attempts to integrate its social, cognitive and linguistics strands. This is precisely what discourse analysis does in trying to discover the system underlying classroom verbal productions.

To succeed in being an effective communicator, the teacher needs to be aware of these various factors that impact human communication .This awareness will help the language user to create authentic communication in the target language and allow pupils to acquire significant experience in using that language. The basic assumption in any oral interaction is that the speaker wants to communicate ideas, feelings, attitudes, and information to the learners or want to employ speech that relates to the situation. In this vein, the objective of the speaker is to be understood and for his or her message properly interpreted by the hearer that can be the teacher or the learner. It is in fact the speaker's intention that needs to be communicated to her or his interlocutor. However, a 'faulty' production could create piece of spoken discourse that is misunderstood.

Negotiation of meaning on which the Algerian English teaching approach is based, requires confidence on the learners' part and sensitivity on the teachers. Consequently, classroom learning has affective and social dimensions. Learners are individuals with positive

and negative feelings about themselves and others. That is why; they shouldn't be pawns in the teacher's game.

One of the important skills of teaching is knowing how to create a positive atmosphere and build constructive relationships between the interactants to promote effective learning. Our concern will be with what the interactants are doing when they use Language, with the actions they are performing as they speak. They for instance accomplish request, compliment, and criticize and so on. But it is not only an individual action; it is also a social action, an action involving other partners. This fact shapes the nature of the activity - people must coordinate with others in order to understand and to be understood (Clark, 1996 a) and its consequences-linguistic actions affect how interactants think and feel about each other.

When people speak, they can alter the behaviors, thoughts, and feelings of others. It is this reciprocal relationship between language and the social context that makes language use a truly social psychological phenomenon. English teachers should be aware how to be careful with their use of language in classroom situations, making sure their instructions are clear, the wording of their questions unambiguous, and so on. In order to communicate successfully, however, spoken or written messages must be appropriate to the social context in which they are produced. It stands to reason that learners need to know the appropriate social conventions. Interacting is a fundamental part of the classroom life and certainly learning to 'become pupils' (Wills, 1983) is very much a matter of mastering an interactional code, the rules of which are regularly acted on by teachers and pupils but rarely explained.

It has been revealed that the classroom should be viewed as a context in its own right, or rather a series of interrelated contexts, jointly created and defined by the participants: the teacher and learners.(see, for example, Johnson, 1995 ; Seedhouse, 1996;

Vanlier,1988). Under their view, any attempt to analyse teacher-and learner-talk starts from the assumption that the verbal behaviour is goal-oriented and governed by certain rules, as is the case for interactants in, for example, a court-room, a doctor's surgery, a restaurant. Accordingly, this study will attempt an analysis of classroom spoken discourse with reference to Algerian English teachers in the secondary school.On this premise, Grice's work on the Cooperative Principle (abbreviated CP) initiated the current interest in pragmatics, which is doubly applicable to language teaching, because classroom language teaching is an occupation which essentially uses language in a social context to promote the learning and teaching of language for use in social contexts. As the discipline par excellence which considers why communication often fails and how it can be more successful, pragmatics is a central competence to teach students who will use language outside the classroom and to teach teachers who will mediate its use for learning inside the classroom. By taking Grice's Cooperative Principle and its associated maxims as the theoretical framework, it is hypothesized that Gricean Pragmatics can be a useful model to apply in the analysis of classroom spoken discourse which is considered to be a complex phenomenon causing problems to the pupils and the teachers alike.

2.5. Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP) and its Maxims

Certainly learning 'to become pupils' (Wills, 1983) is very much a matter of mastering an interactional code, the rules of which are regularly acted on by teachers and pupils but rarely explained. In the light of this, Grice's (CP) and its maxims will further advise Algerian English teachers how to better handle themselves and their students in order to be effective in combating violence in their classrooms by preventing it before it occurs.

Classroom interaction is based on the fact that, as a rule, interactants want to communicate with one another successfully and want to maintain social harmony while doing so. It stands to reason, therefore, that during routine communication the participants are willing and perhaps even eager to cooperate so as to ensure effective communication. On this premise, Grice (1975) developed the cooperative principle for conversation which is concerned with being helpful, avoiding misunderstandings. He sees cooperation as the necessary result of the application of reason to the process of talk. In other words, cooperation according to him is the achievement of reasoning practised at the level of discourse. Grice's cooperative principle claims that a speaker will express himself or herself in such a way as to be maximally cooperative.

Grice (1975) proposed a set of constraints on interaction that he referred to as the Cooperative Principle, which is defined as follows:

> **'Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk-exchange in which you are engaged (Grice, 1975, p. 5)'.**

The CP can be simply restated as cooperate and do what is needed to be said or done at that particular moment in the interaction. Grice went on to propose that the CP consists of the following four maxims as it is illustrated in the following table:

Table 2.1: Grice's Maxims.

QUALITY :	Say what's true Don't say what's false
QUANTITY:	Say enough and no more
RELATION:	Be relevant
MANNER:	Be clear, concise, and to the point

The following is a description of these maxims in more detail: to put it in another way, we assume that in a conversation, all participants, regardless of their cultural

background, will cooperate with each other when making their contributions. Grice then broke this principle down into four maxims, which go towards making a speaker's contribution to the conversation "cooperative".

Grice defines four "specific maxims" or "sub maxims" following the philosopher Kant. These maxims are Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner. He describes these maxims as follows:

Quantity

This maxim relates to the quantity of information provided and the following are the maxims that fall under it:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of exchange).

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

The sides of the communicative exchange expect that the contribution of one side is quantitatively right for the current interaction. More is too much and less is too little for a successful communication (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p.22). when people describe activities to one another they leave out information they feel is important and emphasize information they feel is essential. This economy of communication is an example of speakers obeying Grice's maxims of quantity: speakers should say no more and no less than what is needed.

Quality

This maxim relates to the truthfulness of the information provided. Under it is the following maxims:

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

According to this maxim, participants are expected to provide information they believe to be true and they are expected to avoid providing false information as well as the information which does not have any evidence. For example, “if A needs sugar, B is expected to hand A the sugar but not salt. OR if A needs a spoon, B is expected to give him a real spoon but not a trick plastic spoon “(1975: 47).

Relation

This maxim is related with the relevancy of the information provided and it has a single maxim under it:

1. Be relevant.

The participants are expected to make a contribution to communication that is relevant to the topic at hand and to the situation of the exchange. For example, if B needs a screw driver, A is expected to hand in a screw driver but not a hammer, cassette, keys, etc.

Manner

Grice suggests that the maxims of manner are different from the others in the sense that whereas other maxims are related to “what is said”, manner is related to “how what is said to be said (1975: 46). For example, I expect a partner to make it clear what contribution he is making, and to execute his performance with reasonable dispatch (1975: 48). This maxim relates to “how what is said is to be said” rather than what is actually said (Grice, 1975, p.46) and there are four maxims under it:

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.

2. Avoid ambiguity.

3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

4. Be orderly.

The participants are expected to make a contribution which is clear and comprehensible, avoiding unnecessary repetitions.

In short, these maxims specify what the participants do to carry out the communication "in a maximally efficient, rational, co -operative way". That is, each participant should contribute to the exchange providing sufficient information sincerely, relevantly and clearly (Levinson, 1983, p.102).

Grice's central claim is that producing and understanding/interpreting talk are accomplished through general principles of rationality and through cooperative conduct as specified by the CP. Further, the CP and its maxims have both a regulative and a constitutive aspect. Grice argued first of all that this is how persons should act, that it is rational to act in this way, and that if people do not act this way the coordination required for human interaction is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. Thus, we ought to act and have the mutual assumption that people behave in accordance with the CP. This is the regulative aspect of the CP. But it is also the case that acting in conformity with the CP is what it is to cooperate with others. This is the constitutive aspect of the CP. Accordingly, Grice's claim is that it is rational to so act/interpret, and thus we should act that way; and that behaving that way is what it means to cooperate with others.

The point of exploring the assumptions that participants in talk may make was to help explain how communicative intentions are recognized. The Gricean account is that participants in classroom interaction use the CP and its principles to arrive at the speaker meaning. Grice created the term '(conversational) *i*mplicature' to refer both to the inferential processes that participants use and the result of those processes (i.e., the meaning arrived at). Implicature, which implies inference or a process of reasonable

'guessing' and the resulting outcome, is to be differentiated from a term such as 'deduction' which implies a logical and determinates process with a necessary feedback. The recognition of speaker meaning is, consequently, considered as a reasonable process that in general leads to an effective cooperative learning process.

2.5.1. Conversational Implicature

It has been recognized that generally when we are involved in a conversation, we are cooperating with each other. In other words, when a listener hears an expression, s/he first has to assume that the speaker is being cooperative and intend to communicate more than is said. It is an additional meaning or that something more than what the words mean called an implicature (Yule,1996).

Conversational implicatures have become one of the principal subjects of pragmatics. According to Levinson (1983:97), the notion of conversational implicature is one of the single most important ideas in pragmatics. An implicature is something meant, implied, or suggested distinct from what is said. Implicatures can be part of sentence meaning or dependent on conversational context, and can be conventional or unconventional. Grice, who coined the term “implicature,” and classified the phenomenon, developed an influential theory to explain and predict conversational implicatures, and describe how they are understood.

Grice’s theory of implicature is an attempt to explain how a hearer gets what is meant, from the level of expressed meaning to the level of implied meaning from what is said. In order to explain the mechanisms by which people interpret conversational implicature (Levinson 1983, Yule 1996).

As noted, Grice (1975) argued that participant in talk make implicatures about what is said to determine what is meant. In particular, participants make implicatures to fill-in, amplify, or revise the literal meaning of the words uttered (sentence meaning) in order to arrive at the intended meaning of the words uttered (speaker meaning). A critical aspect of Grice's account is his claim that participants make the implicatures they do in order to preserve the assumption that the CP is being followed. Restricting implicatures in this way allows addressees to determine speaker meaning from sentence meaning; in particular, in any specific occasion of talk **A** (hearer) assumes that the possible meanings being created by **S** (speaker) are restricted to just those that are regular with the CP and its maxims.

There are two types of occasion on which implicatures are drawn. Implicatures are obtained when what **S** says obeys the CP, in this case implicatures strengthen or achieve the communicated meaning in an economical way. In this case, **S** is observing the CP. The second type of occasion on which implicatures are drawn is one in which the exact meaning of what **S** has said is an obvious violation of the CP; it seems to **A** that **S** clearly is aware of this and, yet, **S** seems to be attempting to communicate. Accordingly, **A** tries to interpret what **S** intended to convey, a meaning that is related to the CP as it applies to the speech context as a whole. In this case **S** is, on the surface, exploiting or flouting the CP. Working out an implicature in this type of situation requires that **A** recognizes that S has purposefully violated or flouted the CP. Thus, if **A** fails to recognize the violation as deliberate, **A** may assume erroneously that **S** is being uncooperative.

To make all this clear we present examples of implicatures that involve observing the CP, followed by implicatures that involve the exploitation or flouting of the CP.

2.5.2. Observing the maxims

The first maxim of the cooperative principle is the maxim of **quantity**, which says that speakers should be as informative as is required, that they should give neither too little information nor too much. Some speakers like to point to the fact that they know how much information the hearer requires or can be concerned with, and say something like, 'Well, to cut a long story short, she didn't get home till two.' People who give too little information risk their hearer not being able to identify what they are talking about because they are not explicit enough; those who give more information than the hearer needs risk boring them. The second maxim is that of **quality**, which says that speakers are expected to be sincere, to be saying something that they believe corresponds to reality. They are assumed not to say anything that they believe to be false or anything for which they lack evidence. Some speakers like to draw their hearers' attention to the fact that they are only saying what they believe to be true, and that they lack adequate evidence. The third is the maxim of **relation**, which says that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before. Thus, if we hear 'The baby cried. The mommy picked it up' (Garfinkel 1967), we assume that the 'mommy' was the mother of the crying baby and that she picked the baby up because it was crying. The last is the maxim of **manner**, which says that we should be brief and orderly, and avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

Grice said that hearers assume that, in a normal interaction, speakers observe the cooperative principle, and that it is the knowledge of the four maxims that allows hearers to draw inferences about the speakers' intentions and implied meaning. The meaning conveyed by speakers and recovered as a result of the hearers' inferences, is known as 'conversational implicature'.

2.5.3. Flouting the maxims

Though speakers appear not to follow the maxims, they expect hearers to appreciate the meaning implied. Just as with an indirect speech act, the speaker implies a function different from the literal meaning of form; when flouting a maxim, the speaker assumes that the hearer knows that their words should not be taken at face value and that they can infer the implicit meaning.

2.5.3.1. Flouting quantity

The speaker who flouts the maxim of quantity seems to give too little or too much information. Such as in :

A: Well, how do I look?

B: Your *shoes* are nice …

B does not say that the sweatshirt and jeans do not look nice, but he knows that A will understand that implication, because A asks about his whole appearance and only gets told about part of it. If we look again at the old lady in the sheltered home, in the example that started this unit, we see that she flouts the maxim of quantity when she says, 'Oh yes, you will get other opinions, but that's my opinion.' The interviewer knows that she is not giving all the information that he needs in order to fully appreciate what is being said. This will be why he later asks 'What would the other people say?' The old lady knew that the interviewer would know that she had more information, but maybe she wanted to be pressured for it. It is similar to 'I had an amazing time last night', which invites 'Go on - tell me what happened then!'

2.5.3.2. Flouting quality

The speaker flouting the maxim of quality may do it in several ways. First, they may quite simply say something that obviously does not represent what they think. We saw an incidence of this in Sir Maurice's 'I think you would be happier in a larger - or a smaller - college', which flouts the maxim if he knew that the student would understand what he was getting at, and hear the message behind his words.

Speakers may flout the maxim by exaggerating as in the hyperbole 'I could eat a horse'.

Lynn: Yes I'm starving too.

Martin: Hurry up girl.

Lynn: Oh dear, stop eating rubbish. You won't eat any dinner.

In which 'I'm starving' is a well-established exaggerating expression. No speaker would expect their hearer to say, 'what, you could eat a whole horse?' or 'I don't think you are dying of hunger - you don't even look thin.' Hearers would be expected to know that the speaker simply meant that they were very hungry. Hyperbole is often at the basis of humor.

Similarly, a speaker can flout the maxim of quality by using a metaphor, as in 'My house is a refrigerator in January' or 'Don't be such a wet blanket - we just want to have fun.' Here again, hearers would understand that the house was very cold indeed, and the other person is trying to reduce other people's enjoyment.

The last two main ways of flouting the maxim of quality are irony and joking, and they form a pair. As Leech (1983:144) says, 'While irony is an apparently friendly way of being offensive (mock-politeness), the type of verbal behaviour known as “banter” is an offensive way of being friendly (mock impoliteness).'

Thus, in the case of irony, the speaker expresses a positive sentiment and implies a negative one. If a student comes down to breakfast one morning and says 'If only you knew

how much I love being woken up at 4 am by a fire alarm', she is being ironic and expecting her friends to know that she means the opposite. Sarcasm is a form of irony that is not so friendly; in fact it is usually intended to hurt. Banter, on the contrary, expresses a negative sentiment and implies a positive one. It sounds like a mild aggression, as in, 'You're nasty, mean and stingy. How can you only give me one kiss?' but it is intended to be an expression of friendship or intimacy.

2.5.3.3. Flouting relation

If speakers flout the maxim of relation, they expect that the hearers will be able to imagine what the utterance did *not* say, and make the connection between their utterance and the preceding one(s). Thus, in

A: So what do you think of Mark?

B: His flatmate's a wonderful cook.

B does not say that she was not very impressed with Mark, but by not mentioning him in the reply and apparently saying something irrelevant, she implies it.

Grice thought that flouting the maxim of relation was possible, but many people have disagreed since (see the section below on relevance theory). Whether we observe or flout maxims, our utterances will always be taken as relevant to the preceding co-text.

2.5.3.4. Flouting manner

Those who flout the maxim of manner, appearing to be obscure, are often trying to exclude a third party, as in this sort of exchange between husband and wife:

A: Where are you off to?

B: I was thinking of going out to get some of that funny white stuff for somebody.

A: OK, but don't be long - dinner's nearly ready.

B speaks in an ambiguous way, saying 'that funny white stuff' and 'somebody', because he is avoiding saying 'ice-cream' and 'Michelle', so that his little daughter does not become excited and ask for the ice-cream before her meal.

2.5.4. Violating the maxims

A speaker can be said to 'violate' a maxim when they know that the hearer will *not* know the truth and will only understand the surface meaning of the words. They intentionally generate a misleading implicature (Thomas 1995:73); maxim violation is unostentatiously, quietly deceiving. The speaker deliberately supplies insufficient information, says something that is insincere, irrelevant or ambiguous, and the hearer wrongly assumes that they are cooperating.

If a speaker violates the maxim of quantity, they do not give the hearer enough information to know what is being talked about, because they do not want the hearer to know the full picture. The speaker is not implying anything; they are 'being economical with the truth'.

Needless to say, not all violations of the maxim of quality are blameworthy. In many cultures it is perfectly acceptable to say to a child of five, 'Mummy's gone on a little holiday because she needs a rest', rather than 'Mummy's gone away to decide whether she wants a divorce or not.' A lie that protects is a lie with good intentions, what we call a white lie. If Sir Maurice knew that the young man did not realize that he had failed the interview, and that he would be devastated to be told that, then he is telling a white lie, and covering up the truth to be kind.

In answer to 'How much did that new dress cost, darling?' the wife could have answered violating the maxim of **relation**, in order to distract him and change the topic: 'I

know, let's go out tonight. Now, where would you like to go?' She could have violated the maxim of **manner**, and said, 'A tiny fraction of my salary, though probably a bigger fraction of the salary of the woman that sold it to me', in the hope that could be taken as an answer and the matter could be dropped.

2.5.5. Other forms of non-observance of maxims

Grice listed two other ways to fail to fulfill a maxim: to infringe it and to opt it out. A speaker infringing a maxim or opting out of a maxim is not implying something different from the words or being intentionally misleading.

A speaker infringing a maxim fails to observe a maxim because of their imperfect linguistic performance. This can happen if the speaker has an imperfect command of the language (a child or a foreign learner), if their performance is impaired (nervousness, drunkenness, excitement), if they have a cognitive impairment, or if they are simply incapable of speaking clearly (Thomas 1995:74).

A speaker opting out of a maxim indicates an unwillingness to cooperate, although they do not want to appear uncooperative. They cannot reply in the way expected, sometimes for legal or ethical reasons, and they say so (e.g. 'I'm afraid I can't give you that information'). Examples are a priest or counsellor refusing to repeat information given in confidence, and a police officer refusing to release the name of an accident victim until the relatives have been informed (Thomas 1995:74-5).

The CP is the idea that rational language behavior is “such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction” of the enterprise in which the agent is engaged. These notions imply that speaker and hearer are constantly involved in the

interpretation (usually not conscious) of what each other‘s goal must be in saying what they say.

The maxims are just particular instantiations of ways of being cooperative, all other thing being, equal, compliance with the CP involves conforming to all of them. When people can’t conform to all of them, as Grice discuss, they do their best they can.

The CP is a very general principle which defines, depending on the values shared by participants, any number of maxims instantiating ways of conforming to it –thus Sperber Wilson’s complaint (that Grice might need more than nine maxims) is beside the point:

> **Are there just the nine maxims Grice mentioned, or might others be needed, as he suggested himself? It might be tempting to add a maxim every time regularity has to be accounted for. However this would be entirely ad hoc (Sperber and Wilson 1996; 36)**

Brown and Yule (1983; 32) describe the maxims as “norms speakers operate with”.

All wood et al (1977:37) refer to Grice (1975) as providing an account of “communicative norms which aim at making the exchange of information in a speech situation as effective as possible”. Sperber and Wilson (1986; 162) characterize Grice’s principle and maxims as “norms which Communicators and audience must know in order to communicate adequately,” in contrast to their own principle, which they describe as a generalization about communication. The maxims are described as governing the communicative acts of all (same) communicators. That the maxims are just obvious ways of being cooperative, and not rules that must be learnt, suggest that they may only come to the attention when speech is both encountered and which is hard to reconcile with the assumption that they are being observed and this seems to be the case.

Sperber and Wilson seem to think that purposes of participants in talk exchanges which Grice refers to must be: mutual, cooperative, and of a knowledge-oriented nature. Grice assumes that communication must have ‘a common purpose or set of purposes, or at

least a mutually accepted direction' (Grice 1975:45) over and above the aim of achieving successful communication. It is not meant to deny that this is very often true particularly in conversation. In a talk exchange, a seminar or a book, there may be a mutually manifest purpose or direction. (Sperber and Wilson 1986:161-162).

Grice indicates that he sees discourse as purposive behavior. That is he presumes that participants have goals in participating (apparently since otherwise they wouldn't be participating). Given Grice's (1957) characterization of conventional meaning, for any communication to occur, for each participant to understand what the other meant, each must make assumptions about the other's goals, at least the low – level communicative goals. The sharing of "social and expressive" information in small talk seems to be governed by the same general principles of interpretation that govern the interpretation of other intentional and communicative acts. The cp is most usefully understood as meaning no more and no less _ than 'willing to try to understand the interaction from the other participants' point of view, i.e., to try to understand what their goals and assumptions must be.

Conformity to the maxims is constrained by cultural values, such as deferring to superiors, being indirect or noncommittal (to protect one's "face") belonging to an information elite, protecting the "negative face" of others (e.g., by refraining from making personal references or otherwise imposing, and from assigning blame, etc…). Thus, being cooperative in making one's contribution "such as is required at the stage at which it occurs" to accomplish one's goal(s) may involve following other principles as well, such as:

A. Assigning responsibility for a state of affairs that could be construed as undesirable is counterproductive.
B. Making the addressee unwilling to cooperate (e.g., by making the addressee uncomfortable) is counterproductive.

C. Maintaining social advantage is useful.

What counts as an undesirable state of affairs, as making someone uncomfortable, and as constituting social advantage, are of course defined relatively to a particular culture. Thus, cultures can be expected to differ in the values they assign to various ways of being cooperative, and matters of avoiding offense and losing face can be expected to interact with these, since the behaviors that count as offensive and as contributing to status are well known to be differently in different cultures.

Some writers (CF. Lakoff 1973, Leech 1983, Brown and Levinson 1987) have interpreted the CP and the attendant maxims as constituting a theory of informative behavior, which they see as generally contrasting and/or conflicting with principles governing politeness, apparently assuming that the goals of being polite and being informative tend to conflict. Grice himself implies that "Be polite" ranks as a maxim of the CP along with Quantity, Relevance, etc…

There are, of course, all sorts of other maxims (aesthetic, social, or moral in character).Such as 'Be polite' that are also normally observed by participants in talk exchanges and these may also generate non conventional implicatures. (1975; 47).

The CP would seem to entail politeness whenever the addressee's positive feelings toward the speaker are essential to the speaker's accomplishing her goals. Brown and Levinson (1987) recognize a number of ways in which Grice's "conversational maxims" (Quantity, Quality, Relevance and Manner) are exploited in the service of politeness strategies. More generally, a large measure of what makes any linguistic act polite must be attributed to the assumption that participants are acting in accordance with the CP and the various maxims.

We follow Brown and Levinson's practice in using politeness to refer to whatever means are employed to display consideration for one's addressee's feelings (or face), regardless of the social distance between the speaker and addressee. In so far as being

polite, on this interpretation, involves a wide variety of strategies depending on estimates of the social distance between speaker and addressee, the relative social status of speaker and addressee, and the extent to which the act contemplated is considered to be an imposition in the culture which speaker and addressee are members of, when I refer to “a politeness maxim”, I will have in mind something like maxim B above.

Politeness, according to Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), is trade in a commodity they call face. FACE is defined as consisting of two components, first, the freedom to act unimpeded (negative face) and second, the satisfaction of having one’s values approved of (positive face) (Brown and Levinson 1978; 67). To engage in normal interaction is to risk losing face, since being asked to do something implies disapproval of your not having done it already, and puts pressure on you to act a certain way. Similarly, telling someone something implies that they did not know it already, and drawing attention to what ignorance threatens the face of the addressee, since it may amount to implicit criticism of their values and choices. Just talking to someone constitutes something of an imposition on their time.

Since face is defined in terms of approval by others, and absence of interference from others, maintaining it requires the cooperation of others. It is assumed to be common knowledge that it is impolite to be direct about certain things: making critical remarks, asking personal questions, bossing people about.

Indeed, attaining goals that involve sharing information or inducing action regularly depends on success in keeping the addressee happy and cooperative by maintaining his/her face. Consequently, making one’s contribution such as is required at the stage at which it occurs will involve whatever is necessary to secure the cooperation of the addressee (CF. Maxim B). Thus, maxim B, and such submaxims as “don’t impose”, “offer option”, and “Make the addressee feel good”, follow from the CP in the same way that “Be brief” and “Be

orderly" do. They are additional ways of making your contribution, "such as is required, at the stage at it which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice 1975; 45).

Grice (1975) suggested that when someone makes a statement whose real meaning is different from its surface meaning, there is a reason, an intention, behind the discrepancy; and Brown and Levinson (1978) hypothesized that the principal reason for using politeness formulas is to avoid threatening the "face," or personal dignity, of other participants, and that they are used more often by weaker participants than by stronger.

Why teachers use these discourse strategies, and how they relate them both to the structure of power relationships that they and their students build in classrooms and to the learning process pursued within the same setting.

Students-teacher discourse also has been found to exert a certain degree of effect on a student's progress as he or she grapples with the target language. At the beginning of each lesson, instructions should mediate between the topics previously covered and subsequent tasks to be tackled. Verbal student-teacher interaction plays an essential role in mediating a student into an apprenticeship. These interactions that are based on transmitting information in an authoritative way (Wells, 1992) need to be examined for the impact they have on how students view themselves (Gibbon, 2007). When a student is not provided the necessary opportunities for discourse with the instructor during a given lesson, negotiation of meaning does not occur and fluency is impeded.

Power is one of the fundamental, yet often ignored, aspects of learning through talk in a social context since the "allocation of power affects how people take part in the formulating of knowledge" (Barnes and Todd, 1995, p.166)

According to Brown and Levinson (1978), politeness formulas are used to protect the "face," or public self-respect, of the listener. If the speaker is in a position of authority over the listener, saying "please" or using the conditional makes it less obvious that a command is being given to a person who is required to obey. Inversely, if the speaker is subordinate to the listener, using politeness conceals the fact that the speaker is telling the superior what to do. This understanding of teachers' motivations is echoed by White (1989), who said:

> **Thus, persons higher in status often treat persons lower in status with deference to ease the constraints of their inequity and to encourage a more free-flowing interaction and exchange of ideas . . . . [The teacher] uses deference to reduce the social difference between her and her pupils. (p. 303)**

Such analysis could suggest that teachers use politeness formulas because of their desire to protect the self-esteem of their students. These formulas allow them to avoid a continual emphasis on the strong contribution to the development of power relations that they make as teachers, adults, and possessors of greater knowledge. They might do this either because they wanted to preserve that self-esteem or because they wisely did not want to subdue students' thinking or provoke them to the point of rebellion.

A more subtle version of this analysis, as outlined by Cazden (1988), suggests that teachers do not feel so superior to their students, but in fact live in fear of an outbreak of student opposition, and use politeness formulas to avoid confrontations that they fear they may lose. Cazden recounted an incident in which she approached a student very cautiously, much concerned about his possible loss of face, but discovered with surprise that he was ready to be far more compliant than she expected.

This analysis could also reflect, not the fearfulness of teachers, but their sense that time wasted on putting down student rebellion is time lost from learning. Thus, the motivation for the use of indirect discourse strategies could be efficient to the teachers so as

to control student behavior in the interest of student learning. Sunny Kaminski and Sue Anderson talked about their belief that children do best when they have choices. We understood them to mean that the process of choosing was itself educational, that students show increased commitment to learning activities they have chosen themselves, and that they learn even from their errors, or "approximations," as Ms. Kaminski liked to call them.

Yet, a parallel interpretation could be that student choice is more efficient than teacher imposition--efficient in producing student learning. An alternative analysis could show that time on-task and seriousness of effort were increased by such teacher behaviors as offering choices and using indirect discourse strategies.

If this analysis were adopted, students could quite simply be seen as either collaborating with their teachers, possibly because they had discovered that commitment to learning was one way to have "an interesting day," (Fraatz, 1987, p. 31) or, at other times, promoting their own agenda of freedom from adult control.

Our sense is that this last analysis is oversimplified, reducing complex classroom interactions beyond their lowest terms. Even the most reflective teachers are not planning the smallest details of their daily actions to lead to a single, unified goal. Yet the point remains, the same point made by Mishler (1972), that indirect discourse strategies may be a sign of good teaching.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

After surveying the theoretical framework of the study, we will focus on the methodological issues in this chapter. A detailed account of all the relevant aspects in conducting the research will be presented.

Teacher talk is not only the tool that teachers use to convey knowledge, but the most important means to control the classroom. The research on teacher talk provides us with an ideal perspective to investigate and understand what is really going on in EFL classrooms.

3.1. A Case Study of Teacher Talk

A case study is principally with the interaction of factors and events and as Nisbet and Watt (1980:5) point out' sometimes it is only by taking a practical instance that we can obtain a full picture of this interaction'. Its goal is to concentrate on a specific instance or situation and to identify, or attempt to identify, the various interactive processes at work.

This study is undertaken to find out who violates Grice's maxims in the Algerian Secondary School English classrooms; how are they violated (e.g. related to content or other issues (discipline), the purpose of the violation as perceived by students and teachers and the reactions to it. The goal is to ascertain and to draw implications for its use in the classroom discourse. In order to limit the analysis of the violation of these Maxims, we purposefully restricted this research to a sociolinguistic analysis. The ultimate aim of such research is hopefully to contribute disseminating its findings in educational settings in order to foster understanding of the use of an appropriate speech behavior that enhances cooperation in spoken classroom discourse and most importantly avoid misunderstanding and friction between learners and their teachers.

The research subjects who are studied are 3 English teachers who teach the first year (literary streams), the second-year (literary streams) and third-year (Foreign languages). We

have strong interest in finding out the features of these teachers' talk and the roles they play in the classrooms. Thus in this work, the qualitative method and quantitative methods are used to analyze EFL teachers' verbal cues associated with Grice's Maxims. Hence we are interested by some important features of teacher talk that we associate with the Maxims and their impact on the learners' behavior in the FL setting whether positive or negative.

3.2. Research questions

Although studies of teacher talk are numerous in western cultural settings, such studies of teacher talk in Algerian cultural setting are extremely scarce. So are the features of teacher talk in our country? Do they satisfy the students' expectation? Do they prompt the students' foreign language learning? For such a purpose and for providing some suggestions for Algerian English language teachers, this study seeks to examine teacher/learner interactions in task based settings, to find out what goes on in different contexts of classrooms, and to examine which factors could hinder or motivate meaningful teacher/learner interactions. In other words, the study intends to find out answers to the following questions:

(1) In what ways do teachers, through their choice of violating or obeying the maxims, create opportunities for effective learning?

(2) How can teachers, through their use of language, increase opportunities for learner involvement and cooperation?

(3) What are the students' reactions to the violation of the maxims in the classroom?

(4) Which violations are appropriate (or inappropriate) in the classroom?

3.3. Subjects

3.3.1. Teachers

In this research, 3 English teachers in one of the secondary schools of Algeria situated in Tizi ouzou were treated as subjects. The teachers are all Algerians aged from 29 to 45, and they had at least five years of foreign language teaching experience, each of them is regarded as a good teacher in that school. In the following parts, they are represented as T1, T2, and T3, respectively. T1 is a female teacher with 5 years teaching experience. T2 is a male teacher, who has more than 10 years teaching experience. T3 is also a male teacher at the age of 45; his teaching experience is about twenty years.

3.3.2. Students

A questionnaire was used as a necessary research tool in order to get more complete and detailed data. 95 students studying in the three subject teachers' classes were involved. 38 first year pupils, 32 from the second year class and 35 third year pupils responded to the questionnaire. All the students are Algerians aged from 17 to 20. They had studied English for at least 4 years in middle schools and for one year and two years respectively as secondary school students. They are used to the ritual of language teaching and familiar with the teaching style of their teachers. The average size of each class varied from 35- 40 students.

The sample for the study was drawn from the Form three Classes in one secondary school. The population profile of the selected classes is shown below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: The profile of the classes chosen by Gender and Number.

Form	Male population	Female population	Total population
First year	11	27	38
Second year	14	18	32
Third year	10	25	35

3.3.3. School Textbooks

The required English teaching text books are: ***At the Crossroads*** *(first year).* Each unit consists of four sequences: **listening and speaking**, **reading and writing**, **developing skills**, **consolidation and extension.** It includes, in addition, three sections: a language reference section called **stop and consider** and a series of guidelines for the realisation of a project called **project workshop** and an evaluation section entitled **check your progress**. ***Getting Through*** *(second year).It is organised in eight didactic units. In each unit, you will go through five different stages. These stages are called:* ***Discovering Language****,* ***Developing Skills****,* ***Putting Things Together, Where Do We Go From Here? And Exploring Matters Further****, and New* ***Prospects*** *(third year).* Every unit comprises two main parts with two sequences each. The first part, **Language outcomes**, is divided into **Listen and Consider** and **Read and Consider** that are both close with a rubric entitled **Think, Pair, Share**. The second part of the unit, entitled **Skills and Strategies Outcomes**. This part comprises two sequences **Listening and Speaking** and **Reading and Writing**. They are close with **Say it in Writing** and **Writing Development** rubrics.

3.4. Research methods and instruments

As the purpose of the present study is to find out and describe the typical features of teacher talk when teachers teach their pupils in classroom setting, as a result, methods like an investigation among students and a case study of teachers are utilized. In this sense, this research is naturalistic in nature. Hence, a research method called “naturalistic inquiring” (Allwright & Bailey, 1991) is adopted to investigate what is really going on in foreign language classroom. “Naturalistic inquiry” means that the researcher tries not to intervene in the research setting and does not try to control naturally occurring events, because the research wishes to describe and understand the process rather than to test specific hypotheses about cause-and-effect relationship. Therefore, naturalistic inquiry is holistic, heuristic and low in control. The present study holds the functional features of teacher’s talk.

The feasibility and effectiveness of study must be ensured by the quality of the data gathering and data analysis, that is, the validity and reliability of the research. Validity includes external validity and internal validity. External validity is concerned with generalisability. In this study, the characteristics found across the data from the 3 subjects will serve as a basis for making universal inferences about teacher talk for a wider population of the same background. In this sense, the external validity of this research is assured. Internal validity refers to the extent to which one has really observed what one set out to observe. Classroom observation is the main device in this study. During classroom observation, we observed the teaching sequence without informing the subject teachers in advance. Therefore, the data gathered are representative of the normal practices of the subjects. Additionally, a questionnaire is prepared for the students in the subjects’ classes to respond. Then the two sources of information can be studied correlatively so that we can get

a thorough understanding of the foreign language classroom teacher talk. The reliability of this study is ensured. The following are the methods used in this study.

3.4.1. Classroom observation

One of the main goals in qualitative and quantitative research is to gain a fuller understanding of the particular context in which the phenomenon occurs. To provide a rich description of the particular setting and interactions there, we go to the participants' world and attempt to learn from them. Keeping a written record of what happens as well as collecting other forms of data, however hard we try to stay detached and objective, we becomes a part of the context. For the first few class meetings, it is noticed that the teacher seemed aware of my attendance and observation because s/he occasionally came to me and peeked at my observational notes. However, as time passed, s/he became comfortable with my presence and supportive of me, even photocopying handouts for me prepared for the students and sharing many stories with me.

These EFL classrooms are observed as a sample of Algerian EFL classrooms. The particular classrooms were selected because, after some initial observations, these teachers seemed to be different from each other in instructional strategies and the relationships they have with their pupils. Though the pupils were different in age, academic level, they were similar in socioeconomic family background.

Teacher (T1) is middle-aged, with 5 years of teaching experience. Her class included 38 pupils. Most of them were girls. The learners in (T1) course were considered slightly below the average at the school.

The other classroom belonged to (T2). He was a self-assured experienced teacher, in his late thirties. His class included 32 students, most of them girls. The pupils were classified at the school as average on the basis of former achievements at school.

The teacher of the third classroom was a man in his fifteenth year of teaching. His class included 35 students 60% of them were girls. The class was classified as above the average. The school has a high success reputation in the area, and most of students go to university after passing their baccalaureate exam.

We visited the classes over a period of one month. Throughout this period, an average of (6) English lessons in each classroom were observed, written field notes were taken based on an attempt to analyze teacher-and learner-talk that can start from the assumption that verbal behavior is goal-oriented and governed by certain rules; therefore to understand the nature of classroom discourse we should focus as observers on quality and quantity by recognizing the important relationship between language use and pedagogic purpose. The goal- oriented activities in which EFL teachers and learners are engaged are shaped by and for the work in progress of the lesson; both teachers should take into account the use of the target language according to the task in which they are involved to develop their learners' communicative competence. We also conducted interviews or discussions with the teachers and with six to eight students in each classroom who were pointed out by their teachers as lower achieving (those who generally misbehave) or average in their classes. Excerpts from the pupils' comments that appear in this study represent their views and attitudes towards their teachers' non verbal and verbal behaviors that can be of great support to our research.

3.4.2. Questionnaire

Considering this limitation of contingency and unilateralism of the sample of the three lessons and in order to investigate learners' preference towards teacher talk and their evaluation about their teachers' talk, a questionnaire adapted from Richards, J. & Lockhart (1994:20) (see Appendix) has been designed to collect information on language learners' assessment about their English classes and their teachers' speech on the basis of their usual, normal activities. This questionnaire is composed of 16 items in the terms of the research questions. This questionnaire is not only used as a subsidiary research tool with the aim to reflect from another perspective what the teacher speech really is but also to describe it more accurately and make the research valid. A total of 80 students were asked to respond to the questionnaire and 80 students' data were considered valid and adopted for the statistical analysis.

3.4.3. Interviews with students and English Teachers

The interview is the kind of oral self-report method that attempts to obtain information by asking participants about how and why they use a particular language feature in a given task. This type of instrument refers to a specific speech event that is characterized by a question-answer sequence involving two interlocutors the researcher and the respondent. Thus, the type of procedure arising in interviews is sensitive to participants' responses.

We conducted interviews to a randomly selected sample of fifteen students and five English teachers who work in the selected school. These interviews assisted us to unveil how are the teachers' classroom speech behaviors and attitudes perceived by their pupils as well

as the teachers' perceptions in regards to their colleagues and their pupils to identify the problem on which to carry out case study.

The same interviews were also conducted with ten other English teachers who came, from two other different secondary schools for a pedagogical day to the selected school. Accordingly, we seized the opportunity since two class demonstrations were organized with the teachers designed by inspector of English. During the post observation phase the teachers answered willingly our questions. Most of the teachers agreed that a less authoritarian teacher who cooperates with his/her learners can enhance the students' achievement in English language acquisition but it depended on the language ability of the students. It may work well with good students but not with weak ones.

Some of the positive comments given by these teachers who had adopted cooperative learning are stated below:

- Being cooperative gives the students chances to explore the subject on their own.
- It varies the teaching strategy.
- It makes the class lively.
- The students do not get bored easily when they are given opportunities to participate in the learning process.
- The students have the opportunity to express their ideas and show their talents.
- The activities emphasize on students' active participation.
- Students learn better when they learn from their peers.
- It is more effective and all the students can have their turns

Based on the statements given by the English teachers, it was obvious that this method that encourages negotiation of meaning promotes communication and increases the participation of students. It provides better quality work. The statements are similar to

the finding of Robert Slavin (1985), who shows that cooperative learning provides positive effects on academic achievement as well as social relationship among all students. All students, regardless of their ability level, benefit from the cooperative experiences.

3.5. Analysis of class observation

Grice's maxims could be used as effective guiding principles for EFL teachers. Teachers, as human beings, deliberately flout them, or unwittingly violate them. As observers, the following table could form a useful checklist for much of what can go wrong in EFL classroom interaction. Deliberate and frequent flouting of the maxim of quality, through, for example, a teacher's mockery, may become a norm which helps to define the maxim of quality in a particular situation. We can observe teachers, applying Grice's maxims to their spoken communication with the learners and might also want to consider them as means of making classroom interaction more successful. Additionally, the wording of the Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP) is sufficiently flexible to be applicable to different genres of communication, including classroom communication:

> **Make your conversation contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. (Grice 1975, p. 45).**

We will observe three English teachers' language use when giving instructions or their contributions to classroom interaction that can easily be considered in terms of the maxims of quantity and manner. This will provide a context for the later interpretation and discussions of the possible causes of students' disruptive behaviors and the consequences that it can engender within the educational setting. It appeared regularly in lessons of T1. Students in this class did not respond to the teacher's questions that were meant to stimulate discussions. On occasions where a pupil did answer, the answer was short and

uttered in a quiet tone of voice that may be described as 'mumbling'. Since the response was rarely heard by the whole class, the teacher often had to repeat it aloud. Very Low participation on the part of the pupils was observed since they were not given enough wait time to do the task and respond. Pupils talked about it in the interviews and pointed out to it as a mode of behavior purposely chosen by them as a reaction to the teacher's instructions. Additionally, Pupils in this class were reluctant to talk during classroom discussions but obeyed all the teacher's other instructions; they opened books to read when she so requested and they prepared and turned in papers and tasks she assigned. The pupils didn't know what to do instead of their teacher's explanation. The pupils are corrected immediately by their teacher and sometimes by their classmates. Others are not given a chance to participate. The teacher even rejects a correct answer. The classroom atmosphere was competitive and the teacher encouraged that. It was apparent that some pupils were absent minded and distant from their teacher who was in front of the classroom during the whole session.

In the class of T2. Several times over the period of the field study, pupils were observed arguing with the teacher, expressing disagreement with her perceptions of content, and criticizing her way of evaluating the learners' written work. Unlike "discussing" during classroom lessons, which is a common way of negotiating knowledge and views in schools, "arguing" created pressure on the teacher, caused tensions between her and the class, and indicated a wider sense of pupils' dissatisfaction with the teacher's instructional approach. For example several moves were noted in the following excerpt from the (T2) class (fist year literary stream):

The teacher gave her pupils back their written works after she had corrected them and wrote them a paragraph as a model on the board to be taken down as a correction. One of the pupils who was apparently not happy about his teacher's remarks reacted.

Example1

P: (holding his paper in his hands) this is correct.

T: (raises volume) all right. What's the problem?

P: this sentence is correct. Why you underline it?

T: first time at the secondary school and you know more than me. Good.

P: It is in my book.

T :(loudly) I told you that it is incorrect and that's all.

We noticed the problem is not solved since the teacher did not even dare to understand the problem. It was just after the session had finished that she came to talk about the incident that I understood the problem. Unfortunately the pupil was right since his way of expressing the idea is right. We can conclude that (T2) was not cooperative with her pupil for she did not communicate effectively with her learner. In this case the teacher is not viewed as a facilitator but rather as a purely knowledge-giver. The pupil's request was not answered with apparently irrelevant responses" you know more than me". The quantity maxim is violated not to be cooperative it was previously mentioned but to distort the message and sabotage the communication.

Two related components appear in the student's complaint. One is value- oriented: the pupil points to his and his friends' right to express themselves differently from the teacher, a right she does not seem to respect. Second, there is a practical concern for formal evaluation. The teacher is blamed, in the informal talk we had with the pupils, for not providing them with a fair enough chance for success. In this view, she has a specific model of good writing, but she has not managed to transmit it properly to her pupils to justify her evaluation.

The resistance observed in the classrooms was consistent and repetitive, yet it was not the pupils' only typical element. There was also a great deal of conformity to the school's norms and compliance with instructional routines and procedures, indicated by the teachers. Also pupils in this class carried out all the class requirements. Despite opposition toward the teacher's strategies, which they expressed in the class and in the interviews, the pupils participated in classroom discussions and submitted written work as expected. One could notice a dialectical attitude towards teaching, learning, and the school on the part of the learners. With opposition and rejection, it was clear that in both classes pupils worked to achieve academic goals within the structure and constraints of the educational system.

The pedagogical function tends to prevail in classes of (T1, T2). In these classes, where the pedagogy function seems to dominate, teacher talk addressed to learners often sounds flat, impersonal, primarily aiming at discovering whether knowledge has been comprehended or acquired. Moreover, sometimes the teachers mistake socially while seeming to ignore the student's message, carried away by stereotypical (pedagogical) exchanges, as the following sample shows:

Example2

T: all right + all right + who is absent today? + who is absent today?

P: A. Karim + S. Souad.

T: but where is Achour? He is ill?

P: yes

T: good + all right + what was your homework for today?

We remark that the teacher encouraged transactional relations with the pupils and avoids maintaining interactional ones with them. The teacher's attempt to confine classroom discourse within pedagogic limits is in conflict with the students' attempt to lead talk in a

direction that may become a source of social communication. In example 9, for instance, the teacher's inhibiting remark is very likely to spoil the teacher – student interpersonal relationship.

Example3

T: what was the weather like yesterday compared with the weather that we have today? + Yes? + Hamid

P1: today is warmer than yesterday

P2: I don't think so

T: Farida you're a little bit strange + I think it was warm in the afternoon yesterday

The fact that teachers sometimes fail to seize the opportunity offered by students is most probably a reflection of their fixity of purpose in pursuing pedagogic goals only. Here T2 observed the quantity maxim and he avoids shifting the conversation and goes in details with P2. It appears that the lesson is planned and the objective to be reached is clear. If he was flexible he could have violated quantity to maintain social relationships with his learners and thus establish mutual trust that is one of the fundamental factors of efficient exchange of ideas. Hurting the pupil's feeling when the teacher says "you're a little bit strange" could be avoided if politeness had been given more importance than transmitting the information. The rules of conversational cooperation should not be confused with politeness. In fact, where given the choice between saying the truth and not hurting someone's feelings, speakers will usually opt for the latter, as it was case with (T3) in this instance:

Example4

After the pupil had finished reading out her essay, she waited for the teacher's remarks.

P: (looking at her teacher) how was it?

T: you've got good ideas.

The teacher is not really making his contribution as informative as required thus he is flouting the maxim of quantity deliberately to cooperate in the communication with his pupil. He does this in order not to threaten the pupil's face that is her sense of self worth. Politeness then refers to the way we take speaker's face needs into account. Feedbacks that are made indirectly are often ambiguous and thus open to interpretation, but they can also be considered polite ways to avoid offense and prevent conflict and disruption to occur. The contrast between male and female speech styles suggests women are more prone to speak indirectly(Boxer, 1996) and thus may be more likely to violate the maxim of manner than men, however, they may also perceive this act as not a violation but an appropriate discourse strategy. It was the case where I conducted my research.

In contrast to the previous classroom, T3 in the third classroom, in which no disobedience appeared, often asked his learners questions about the films they have recently watched, for example:"why was the actor so angry….think of kinds of things that make you angry, really angry?" he also asked questions that referred to the students' involvement with the works, their feelings about the film, for example:"do you feel sorry for any of the characters?" "Do you want Elisa to marry Freddy? Also, topics for students' papers allowed pupils to express their feelings and attitudes about the film and relate the works to their life experiences. The teacher put his pupils in a real context and then told them:" I want you to write about yourself:" what do you do when you are angry?" after the time allocated was over, T3 invited the pupils to read out their written ideas. While they were reading out, the other pupils and the teacher were listening. Once the volunteers had finished reading, they were immediately encouraged by the teacher for the effort made and

corrected some mistakes. The teacher walked around ordering pupils to uncover and share their feelings with their friends. The classroom atmosphere was warm and the pupils were eager to participate despite the teacher's authority over the class. We observed that the topic motivates all the learners even the low achieving ones that were helped by both their classmates and their teacher. What is different from the previous teachers is the fact that T3 has been teaching these pupils for three years. So he really knows what to talk about, how to talk and how long to talk. He keeps on promoting peaceful coexistence through actions taken in his classrooms and his teaching practices, behaviors, and beliefs.

Algerian EFL teachers must seek and value students' points of view so misconceptions can be identified and pupils can learn from one another. We understand why (T3) is successful with his pupils. The following excerpt illustrates these good relationships.

Example5

T: good morning everyone

Ps: good morning sir

T: sit down please + sit down + please tell me how are you right now?

P1: fine thanks

P2: how are you?

T: I 'm not too well

P2: why?

T: do you really want to know?

Ps: yes

T: why?

P3: because we'd like to know

Ps: yes

T: find another reason + I want some serious reasons

P4: because we want you to be very fine

P5: we don't want you to be hurt

T: oh thank you I'm not hurt

P6: we are here to help you

T: thank you said very nice + good gentlemen + my nose is clogged and I'm not very well + I have a cold + yes

P7: it's spring

(Third year foreign languages secondary school)

We observed that the classroom is both a social environment where interpersonal communication may take place and a learning environment that must include meaningful interpersonal communication. This positive classroom atmosphere, however, requires the use of affective and social markers in the language. Classroom discourse, therefore, fulfils the parameters of meaningful interpersonal communication to the extent that it is characterized by affective and social micro-functions. The presence of these micro-functions in classroom discourse have to be promoted, exploited and intensified in order to increase the authenticity and naturalness of classroom communication. These functions can be realized as:

- Language that indicates positive attitude towards the students (example 4)
- *We*-code solidarity markers

For instance, teachers encourage solidarity purposefully using sometimes realizations of the affective function, as the following example shows:

Example 6

T: are you ready to work today

P1: no sir

T: why?

P1: I am tired because it is very hot

T: you're tired + who else is tired

Ps: us

T: we + all of us + are you tired

P2: yes

The pupils of this class told us that they make big efforts to improve their English in order not to disappoint their teacher. The other teachers who observed with us admitted that it was really a successful lesson. They all agreed that this kind of classroom demonstration would help them in improving their way of communicating with their pupils.

3.5.1. Data Analysis

Classroom context discourse, like any institutional discourse, has its roots in ordinary conversation whose essential characteristics are interactive choice and the interdependency of contributions (Slade, 1986). Accordingly, Conversation Analysis (CA) sets out to explain the rules which operate to ensure that talk is maintained and sustained across the contributions of, possibly, several speakers. The structure of conversation is present in many contexts, including language classrooms, making a CA methodology an appropriate one:" conversation pervades all human contact in which language use is relevant, including the work place".(Van Lier,1988:270).

The classroom context, under a CA methodology, is regarded as being dynamic. Contexts are not fixed entities which operate throughout a lesson, but dynamic and changing processes which vary from one stage of a lesson to another. Within any one lesson, according to the goals of the participants, there will be frequent changes in the 'micro-context', the specific situations which unfold as the lesson progresses, indicated and influenced by the interaction patterns which ensue. The teacher's use of language is not only an indication of the particular context in operation; it is the principle force in bringing about changes in context. That is, language, as "the vehicle and object of instruction" (Long, 1983:9), reflects and determines what context is in operation.

If we accept that the EFL classroom is a social context in its own right, it is of capital importance to understand the nature of classroom discourse focusing on Grice's Cooperative Principle by recognizing the important relationship between language use and pedagogical purpose. The goal oriented-activities in which teachers and learners are engaged are shaped by and for the work-in-progress of the lesson; teachers and learners adjust their use of language according to the task in which they are involved. According to Willis (1996), two general goals for using task-based activities are communicative effectiveness and second language acquisition. The reasons are that task-based activities give learners confidence, chances for negotiating turns to speak, and engage them using language purposefully and cooperatively.

In the following, we will illustrate some violations of the Gricean maxims that appeared in the three classrooms. This will provide a context for the subsequent interpretation and discussions of the possible causes of students' resistance and the consequences that it can engender within the educational setting.

In terms of Grice's maxims of quantity and manner, it is too easy to conclude that there is too much "teacher talk" and repetition and that the teachers (T1,T2) could usefully consider the maxim of manner "be brief". But quantity and manner also need to be considered in terms of Grice's Principle to which the Maxims are subordinated. Considering the wording of the principle, which refers to making contributions "such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange" might lead to a different conclusion. The "accepted purpose" is deducible from the observed effect in the discourse, which is very broad participation from all the pupils of a very large class. Grice also requires us to consider "context, linguistic and otherwise" and other features of the background situation, including the cultural context in which the discourse is embedded. At this "stage in the discourse" the teachers are observably trying to obtain broader participation. These were mixed ability classes of more than thirty pupils, so there might be other pedagogical reasons in the context that require the teacher not to observe appropriate quantity and brevity**.** These teachers' elicitation style, in terms of both quantity and manner, was unusual. Grice's maxims are not rules to follow blindly, but they do provide the reflective teacher with a useful means of critically examining his or her own interactive behavior since the object was not really achieved. The pupils didn't understand the instructions because the teachers didn't find the appropriate words that can simplify the subject matter and thus convey the message successfully. In terms of quality, the teachers tend to generalize by giving vague explanations. Sperber and Wilson (1995, p. vii) suggest that "individuals must focus their attention on what seems to them to be the most relevant information available". This is necessary to be as efficient as possible using the smallest possible processing effort. The most efficient communication produces maximum effects with the least possible processing effort. To ensure that classroom communication responds

to the requirements of relevance, teachers need to make assumptions about their students' present state of knowledge. The goal of the learners in such courses is often to pass an examination rather than to use the language for their daily communicative interaction (Lightbrown and Spada, 1999).

Analyzing T3, we observed that in terms of quantity Maxim, he was less talkative than the others. The amount of talk that occurred between him and his pupils encouraged interactive classroom. In terms of the Maxim of relation, the topic chosen was relevant to the learners' needs. As a result, they were motivated to be active participants in the learning process. Even though T3 authoritatively walked around giving orders, he did it in a culturally charming way with the students using smiles, catchy phrases to get them on board, and assuming that they knew how to do the task once they were ready to begin. His stories also reminded pupils that although he watched and discussed their behaviors, he was human and supportive. It appeared that he flouted both the Maxims of Quantity and Relation since he talked about his private life which is irrelevant to the subject at hand. He did it to be cooperative with his pupils and hence build good relationships based on trust and caring. This harmonious atmosphere will prevent pupils from misbehaving and trigger them to cooperate with their teacher who showed he liked his pupils and also needed them to help him to achieve the lesson's goal. Learners felt important, kept their identity as pupils, rather than as bad kids as it was stated by some teachers. Therefore they consented to the classroom culture definitions. The teacher exhibited different roles. First, he was the teacher who has a human side. He was a teacher who intentionally sat behind the desk for social distance and authority position, talked about his outside life with them to reduce social distance and gain loyalty and solidarity. Even when talking about pupils and their misbehaviors, he gained their cooperation because he violated the maxim of manner by

using humor for the purpose of learning from mistakes. Pupils trusted him to look out for their best interests. He had high expectations and believed in his pupils. For instance, he told pupils they could probably do a task with their eyes closed. He showed learners that he could not do this without them and being an assistant was very important. He always disclosed respectfully, and he got respect in return. He was successful. Abiding the CP or violating it, he was real in all of his roles. Pupils rarely disobeyed or misbehaved and usually consented quickly to classroom norms and the interactional code set by their teacher. T3 increased social distance and implicitly claimed complete authority over classroom rules to get pupils to stay in class.

3.5.2. Results and discussion

The three teachers, we observed, structured their lessons in a parallel fashion; each class began with a series of greetings, followed by a review of what has been learnt previously, presentation of what will be done in that lesson, and concluded with verifying the practice of the material presented. The general features of classroom discourse within each were also nearly identical in each of the classes. The instructors would present new material, followed many times by questions to verify that the students understood what was being explained. Students would answer questions and the teachers would confirm correct answers or mistakes students had made. The class order was commonly referred to as the Initiation Response Follow- up pattern (**I. R. F**), which is a very common discourse pattern in foreign and second language classes. Additionally, the teachers set up tasks and activities they asked students to perform, giving directions and going over details which were confusing for students. Numerous times all the teachers repeated themselves or echoed utterances the pupils had made for clarification purposes and to verify that other students

had heard and understood what had been said. While the larger mechanisms of the teachers' discourse patterns were similar, there were some differences in more obscure details of the instructors' discourse styles. Most of EFL teachers have often complained about their learners, because they often do not pay attention to the instruction even reluctant to participate actively in speaking class. Actually there are some factors that can influence the learners' involvement in performing the classroom activities; one of them is the activities which are provided by teachers in classroom. Brown (1994:266), states that the activities which are given by teachers may attract students' motivation to involve them in speaking class. Speaking activities which are applied by teacher and students in a classroom are crucial to improve their ability in speaking and to avoid reluctance. Moreover the activities that involve students' feelings and attitudes may give them the satisfaction of expressing themselves.

In addition, a study such as the present one reveals areas where teachers need to direct more attention and adjust their classroom strategies. While language teachers demonstrate common patterns within their classroom discourse, the data collected for this dissertation show that within classroom discourse, there are reliable variations in the instructors' speech as a result of their choice in terms of observing Grice's (CP) and its Maxims or flouting it for one reason or another. As noted when observing the teachers, these differences are:

1) The instructors' ability to understand and anticipate the communicative strategies that can help them to meet their learners for the purpose of learning and communicate effectively with them preventing misunderstandings and conflicts.

2) The instructors' inability to cooperate with their pupils because of their way of organizing their lesson in addition to the kind of rapport they have with their pupils.

We may conclude that the first teacher's failure to observe the maxim of Quantity is due to her wish to observe the CP in some other way. As we have seen, Grice's explanation for the non-observance of the maxim of Quantity in this instance is that the teacher was faced with a clash of maxims. In this instance, T1 found herself unable simultaneously to observe the maxims of Quality and Quantity, which signaled her dilemma by flagrantly failing to give the right amount of information and encouraged her pupils to look for an implicature.

In the second class with T2, we can observe that the teacher flouted the maxims of quality. According to Thomas (1995), flouts which exploit the maxim of quality occur when the speaker says something which is blatantly untrue or for which he or she lacks adequate evidence. In this class, T2 cannot decide for sure whether her explanation is true or not. When she uses the words *I think that we pronounce it this way..*, it shows that she cannot give adequate evidence for this even it was possible for him to be honest with his pupils and thus take a dictionary to check it. Hence exploiting this violation and being truthful, the pupils will trust him and be more cooperative. Having the right ideas is not enough. If the teacher cannot put these points and personality across with clarity, confidence and conviction, s/he is wasting her/his time and energy.

Grice's four basic maxims of the cooperative principle are often unobserved or flouted**.** However, this does not mean that the CP is abandoned. In Grice's analysis, the speaker's flouting of a maxim combined with the hearer's assumption that the speaker has not really abandoned the CP leads to an implicature. Besides the flouts that are necessitated

by a clash between maxims, there are flouts which exploit a maxim while flouting a maxim, the teacher prominently upholds another maxim in order to be cooperative in the communication. This is what happened with T3 who not only succeeded to transmit his message but managed to do it in a harmonious atmosphere in which misunderstanding was avoided and understanding ensured. This is due to the fact that the pupils and the teacher know one another very well. With his experience he knows that priority is given to having trusting relationships with his pupils and then knowing how to deploy specific strategies such as adjusting the level of explicitness to the needs of the pupils. Bygate (1987:34-35) lists a series of strategies for negotiating meaning in spoken interaction, which may be used by the teacher(e.g., announce one's purpose in advance, clarify meaning/intention by summarizing, rephrase, exemplify).

In CLT, classroom performance is managed not just by the teacher, but by all present. Teachers are not seen only as teachers, learners simply as learners, because both are, for good or ill, managers of learning (Allwright, 1984). Instead of being the dominating authority in the classroom, one primary role for the teacher is to facilitate the communicative process in the classroom where students feel secure, unthreatened and non-defensive.

The autocratic teacher discourages learners from developing their own ideas. S/he sets objectives and assigns tasks, creates a dependent atmosphere, maintains her/his own responsibility, criticises, interrupts his/her interlocutors' speech, and embodies aggressive behaviour.The instructor sought to make the students feel confident about the material presented to them. This also reinforced the instructor's confidence in the students to be able to perform the material. By building the students' confidence, he appears less as an authority figure, increasing the solidarity between himself or herself and the students.

3.5.3 Results of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed to investigate the students' preference toward the ideal TT on the aspects: the amount of TT, teachers' questions and teachers' feedback. The questionnaire data, revealing very high percentage in several question items and indicating students' expectation toward the ideal TT, are presented in the following table (Table 3.1) and histograms (Figure 3.1).

The following table reveals the students' expectation toward their teachers talk time during the period of class time (55 minutes).

Table 3.2 The results of the questionnaire about TTT (question 1-2)

Appropriate t (min.)	Less than 20	20-25	25-30	30-35
Students number	16	44	12	8
Percentage	20%	55%	15%	10%

From the raw and percentage result of questionnaire, we can see that most of the students (55%) believe that the appropriate teacher talk time should be less than 25 minutes and (20%) less than 20 minutes. As a result, a considerable number of students (75%) think their teachers talk amount is far more than they expect. Among them, according to the questionnaire, the majority of the informants have a strong desire to minimize TTT and show the strong desire for participation; they expect to have more opportunities to practice the target language according to the last question -- please give your suggestions on your English class. 12 questions are plotted along the baseline, and the numbers are plotted along the vertical axis, the height of each bar corresponds to the number of subjects in the interval.

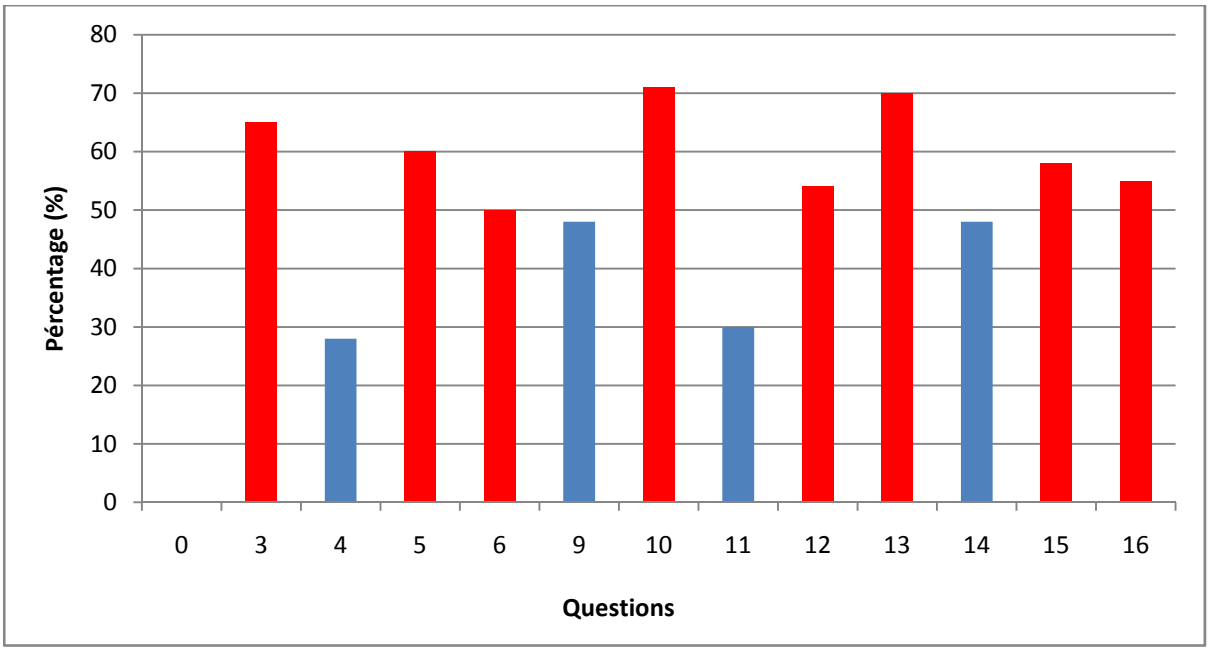


Figure 3.1: An illustration of the students' questionnaire.

Since each question is designed in terms of one particular behavior, the height of each bar shows the number of subjects who prefer it. These language behaviors, which have reached over 50% percentage of subject students' satisfaction, will definitely indicate the majority preferences. The followings are summary of those behaviors and events which are welcomed by the subject students in their classroom learning.

Question 3 I like to listen to teacher's instruction.

Question 5 I like to be asked and answer the questions in class.

Question 6 I like the teacher to give us some problems to work on.

Question 10 I like to be encouraged by teacher's praise.

Question 12 I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

Question 13 I like to be pointed immediately when my answers are incorrect.

Question 15 I like to be given more chances to talking and discussing in class.

Question 16 I like teachers should negotiate with me for correction.

According to the histograms, most of the students like to listen to teachers' instruction and view it as a good learning strategy. But they do not like teachers to explain everything to them." I cannot follow my teacher when he talks for a long time, I find myself thinking outside the lesson" one of the pupils of T1 told us in this respect. This is one of the reasons why pupils switch off in class. Towards teachers' question, 60% of students like to be asked and answer the questions in class (Question 5). 50% of informants like their teacher to give them some problems to work on. 54.5% students like to be volunteers to answer questions, and 75% students like referential questions. All the data support the result of **Table 1** and indicate that most of students have a strong desire for participation.

All the students expect the teachers' praise and 71% of them like to be encouraged by teachers' feedback. When they make mistakes, 70% students hope to be pointed out immediately. However most of them don't like to be corrected directly, 56% of them expect the teacher to give them a clue and correct their errors by themselves or negotiate with them for correction.

According to the outcomes of the questionnaire, it may be worth drawing attention to the fact that almost all the students wanted their teacher to be someone who trust their abilities, cares about them, positively reinforces their right answers, and understandably accept their mistakes, or even utilizes them for further learning. It is clear that the pupils like their teachers to express these positive attitudes when talking with them in the classroom.

In correspondence with the appropriate teachers and pupils amount of talk, we administered statistical analyses based on the classroom observation and the questionnaire.

The findings illustrated in **Table 3.3** are in line with the findings by Cook (2001), in which teacher talk occupied a greater amount of class time. Among the four subject teachers, three teachers' talk time occupy over 67% of the period of the class, only one

teacher, and T3 talk less, occupy 58% of the total class time. Obviously, the result is in contrast with the students' expectation towards TTT. This result shows that most of the teachers are still influenced by Grammar-translation Method which was commonly used for hundreds of years. Teachers dominate the classes and are the centers of the classes while students are totally passive and have few opportunities to speak.

Table 3.3: Amount of teacher talk and student talk and the percentage in the total class time.

Teachers	Teacher talk		Student talk		Other activities	
	t (min.)	%	t (min.)	%	t (min.)	%
T1	30	67	12	27	3	6.7
T2	26	58	14	31	5	11
T3	40	87	5	11	0	0

Note: "other activities" refers to those classroom activities such as reading the text silently, and writing in classrooms, etc., in which neither teachers nor students need to speak.

Through observing the three classes, two phenomena can be observed: in the classes taught by T1, T2 and T3, the more the teacher talks, the duller the classroom atmosphere. Some students are not active and cannot focus their attention on the class. Compared with the two first classes, the atmosphere in T3 class are more interesting and active, there are more communication between students and the teacher. Students participated in teaching activities actively.

The results in the investigation suggest TTT should be minimized. Some teachers believe that children should have a considerable say in what happens in lessons and that assignment, procedures and activities should be negotiated, not imposed.

In terms of the teacher's violation of the maxim of quantity, pupils become passive. Thus as Smith and Laslett (1993) point out, where teachers do not encourage pupils'

participation, the pupils: **"**Not only …perceive themselves as unworthy and unsuccessful, they also tend to perceive adults in authority as potentially uncaring and hostile." (p 57)

To counter the effects of these instances, learners should therefore be encouraged to take up important roles. In discussing communication and management in the classroom, Rayna (2001) further highlights the importance of focusing on the encouragement of the psychological and inner welfare of the children as a route to successful communication and ultimately educational development. Apart from that, there are, also, some challenges that appear in relationship building in the classroom so as to further develop confidence and self-esteem. Rewarding children is very important in facilitating their educational development even in terms of preventing or discouraging negative behavior.

Result research question related to feedback

Providing feedback on performance of the students is probably one of the most commonly conceived classroom functions of teachers. For many years, behaviorist inspired research has found that positive feedback is much more effective than negative feedback in changing student behavior. According to Nunan (1991), positive feedback has two principal functions: to let students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praises. First of all, we try to find out which type of the praise is most frequently used. And then, to investigate the frequencies of the use of four ways of error treatment.

3.5.4 .Types of assessment and their frequency

Table 4.5 presents two types of assessments and the percentage of their use in the total sum of praises. First, “repetition of responses followed by praises” is the most frequently used way by the teachers, amounting to 50%; second, the way of “short and simple praises” which amounts to a percentage of 43.3% is also used significantly. In addition, both of these types of praises are used significantly more often than the type of “praises followed by appraisals”, which only has a frequency of 6.7%. No negative assessment can be found in the classrooms. These findings might suggest that it is very likely that students in this study receive more effective feedback which will increase their motivation and encourage them in using the target language.

Table 3.4: Types of assessments and the percentage in the total sum

Teachers	Positive assessment						Negative assessment	
	Short and simple praises		repetition of Responses Followed by praises		Praises followed by appraisals			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T1	3	1O	5	16.66	1	3.33	0	0
T2	7	23.33	4	13.33	1	3.33	0	0
T3	3	10	5	16.66	0	0	0	0
Totals	13	43.3	14	46.66	2	6.7	0	0

The teachers’ feedback can satisfy the students’ expectation showed in Questionnaire. A majority of students (71%) believe that their teachers usually provide positive feedback to them in classroom while few of them think that the teachers provide negative feedback, which is significantly low. In addition, none of the students hope to be criticized by the teacher.

Error correction

In this part, we aimed to investigate four ways of treating student errors, namely, “explicit corrections”, “asking another student to answer instead”, “providing a clue and expecting self-repair”, and “ignoring and correcting later”. The results are presented as Table 4.6. It can be noted that the frequency of the use of explicit corrections is strikingly high. It is used significantly more often than the other three methods of error treatment.

On the contrary, insignificant use can be found in the method of “providing a clue and expecting self-repair” and “asking another student to answer instead”.

The most striking finding in this part is that the use of “ignoring and correcting later” has been shunned by the teachers in this study. It might suggest that Secondary school teachers in this sample are more likely to interfere and not to give time to the students to make sense of their “mistakes”. Generally speaking, teacher’s immediate and explicit corrections as conventionally delivered breed a dependency relationship between teacher and learners, and this will inhibit them from elaborating further and developing exercises that foster progress and thus inhibit learners’ attempts at using the target language.

Table 3.5: Frequency of error correction and the percentage in the total sum

Teachers	Explicit correction		Ask another student to answer instead		Providing a clue and expecting self repair		Ignoring and correcting later	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
T1	2	10	1	5	1	5	0	0
T2	8	40	0	0	3	15	0	0
T3	3	15	0	0	2	10	0	0
totals	13	65	1	5	6	3O	0	0

The results from the analysis of the data can get support from the questionnaire. The result obtained from Question 13 indicates that 70% students like to be corrected

immediately in the classroom, only a few students (12.5%) express their disagreement. Moreover, a significantly number (56%) of students expect to be given a clue and correct their errors by themselves, that is, they expect self-repair. Therefore, explicit correction and self-repair are deemed as the two most desirable ways of error treatment. Quite different from the teacher, a few students hope teachers to ignore errors and correct them later.

3.6. The impact of the violation of Grice's Maxims on learners' language learning in E FL Classroom

Grice (1975) proposed that conversation be viewed as a cooperative endeavor. What is of more interest and concern to this study, is to attempt to discover what is actually occurring in the classroom and what pedagogy will be more effective with the mechanisms that are already in place to help students to cooperate with their teachers to develop communicative ability in English.

As we have discussed earlier, the amount of teacher talk influences learners' learning and interaction in class. Teachers usually exert their control over students by talking. If teachers moderate their control by obeying Grice's maxim of quantity and thus cut their talk time, the students will be encouraged to contribute more to the discourse. Therefore, excessive teacher talk should be avoided (Nunan, 1991:190) to give learners more opportunities for producing comprehensible output themselves. Harmer (2000:4) points out: "getting students to speak -- to use the language they are learning -- is a vital part of a teacher's job. Students are the people who need the practice, in other words, not the teacher. Therefore, a good teacher maximizes STT and minimizes TTT."

In the present research, the subject students have been studying the target language for at least five years and have certain communicative competence. Moreover, the results of

the questionnaire show clearly that most of the subject students have a strong desire for speaking and talking more in classrooms. But the results of Research Question 1 show that generally there is a predominance of teacher talk over student talk in the classrooms we studied. This result is quite in line with that of Pica & Long's (Chaudron, 1988) study and Zhao's (1998) study, in which teacher talk occupied a great amount of class time. Over-used teacher talk suggests that student talk is neglected. The students have little opportunity to practice and just learn passively. The results in this research imply that the environment in the classroom is not beneficial to the learners' learning. Another question is what the appropriate teacher talk time is. TTT should not be minimized blindly. A classroom with too much TT is certainly not the one that most teachers and students would approve of. Conversely, a class where the teacher seems reluctant to speak is not very attractive either. Successful lessons are the ones where STT is maximized, but where at appropriate moments during the lesson the teacher is not afraid to summarize what is happening, and may even violate the quantity maxim: tell a story, enter into discussion etc. Good teachers use their common sense and experience to get the balance right (Harmer, 2000).

Teachers' feedback and their impact on learner's language learning

Researchers have found that positive feedback is much more effective than negative feedback in changing student behavior. Brophy (1981) provides guidelines for effective praise in his functional analysis of feedback. However, Nunan (1991:197) suggests that much of the feedback provided by teachers often seems to be rather automatic. In a lesson from which a sequence of feedback such as "Good", "Okay", "All right", "Very good", "Right", "What?" was taken, the positive feedback was thought of being made up of short interjections of "Good", "Okey", etc. Meanwhile, negative feedback consisted exclusively of

the teachers' repetition of the student's response with a rising intonation, which reveals that high-achieving students were more likely to be praised following a right answer while low-achieving students were praised much less frequently. Likewise, low achievers were more likely to be criticized for wrong answers. Ur (2000) argued that though positive feedback tends to encourage, very frequent approval will lose its encouraging effect. Negative feedback, if given supportively and warmly, will be recognized as constructive, and will not necessarily discourage.

CHAPTER FOUR

CAUSE ANALYSIS AND IMPLICATIONS

4.1 Cause analysis for the results in the present study

The results of the present study show that the classrooms under this investigation are teacher-dominated classrooms. There are certain reasons for the prevailing of the teacher-dominated classroom talk in Algeria.

4.1.1 Cultural background

The learning situation is not to be separated or isolated from the total context (Reid, 2002:4). In Algeria, both teachers and students have been greatly influenced by the cultural tradition. The relationship between teacher and student is hierarchical. The teacher is directive in making decisions about what goes on in the classroom. That is, the teacher is an authority figure and has great power in controlling the class. The teacher is seen as someone who must know all(to a certain extent that s/he prefers to make mistakes in front of the learners rather than admitting that s/he doesn't know the answer), and present knowledge in class, and the students are constrained to accept what they get from teachers. Within the Algerian tradition, teachers play the role of authority and dominate the class mainly through their talk, while students are passive receivers and more inclined to believe what the teachers say instead of trying to work out their own answers or to solve the problems by themselves. They believe the teacher should be the instructor and knowledge transmitter in class. So they are used to learning by the teachers' instruction. But this does not mean that the situation is eternal. On the contrary, thanks to the internet the world has become a global village. Algerian pupils can easily get to know about what is happening around them all over the world and can communicate with friends from other countries through face book and other mass media. Being aware that their behavior can be altered, EFL teachers have to update their knowledge so that they could understand this new generation of pupils.

4.1.2. Class size

In Algeria, an English class is usually large. What can a teacher do with over thirty five students? In this research, there are more than thirty two students in each class. That will leave no more than about a minute for each student to talk during the average session, so it is hard to arrange the practice of speaking. Besides, certain other rules have to be observed in the classroom setting. For example, one speaker at a time, rather than many at once. The teacher is characteristically unwilling to allow overlapping or simultaneous talk because of the requirement for centralizing attention. The more students a class contains, the more difficult it is for the teacher to control class activities.

4.1.3. Focus on the results of examinations

In Algeria, the educational system emphasizes written examinations. Teachers are struggling for the balance between skill-oriented teaching and test-oriented teaching. Since the results of the examinations are used to assess the teachers' work, and the 4 skills of language learning -- listening, speaking, reading and writing have not been equally reflected in the testing and questions of test mainly are in the form of multiple choice, it seems to train the skills of testing is more important than to train other potentials. In most high schools particularly in third year classes, the content of teacher talk is limited to the examination. The development of both students' communicative competence and pragmatic competence are inevitably beyond the teachers' reach. This is why the testing approach is preferred to the communicative one and competition among pupils is encouraged instead of fostering cooperative learning.

As for the students, they are eager to pass the examination as soon as possible, and hope their teachers adjust the teaching plan according to the final examination which they

have to pass. Therefore, the teaching content which is related to the examination is welcome in class. Teachers always explain more about the examination and neglect to train students' communicative competence. For example, the skills of listening and speaking are always neglected. There is less two-way flow of information in classrooms and teachers always talk too much.

4.1.4 Factors concerned with the learners

It is important to remember the teachers have a certain amount of power in the classroom, but learners also clearly influence the pace and direction of interaction. Learners have their preferences and utilize their own learning strategies and these sometimes run contrary to the teacher's plan. Different students with different personalities do not have identical psychological processes while learning English. Students' needs, motivation and learning factors influence their learning process. TT is inevitably affected by what the students' believe. In Algeria, students are used to the large amount of TT in all kinds of classes because of Algerian culture and background. They are inclined to keep the teacher talking. The students believe that they can learn something through TT, which is supported by the results of questions 3 and 4. Otherwise, they may regard their teachers as lazy or not performing their duties.

4.1.5 Teachers' awareness toward TT

For many years, teachers and educational organizations have been interested in finding the right teaching method, and have not realized the importance of TT on language learning. When teachers prepare their lessons, traditionally, they generally focus on the teaching method, and pay no attention to TT, not to mention the amount of TT, the strategies of questioning and feedback. They restrict their talk to classroom language, fluent

in saying “Let’s look at Page …”, “Please answer the question” …, etc. they do not realize the role of TT in language classrooms. By the same token, the educational organizations always train teachers to find and use the right method, and totally neglect to train them how to talk in classrooms. As a result, many teachers lack the related theories on TT. Chaudron (1988:174) found that the teachers receiving training in question types produced significantly more referential questions than the control teachers following training.

Besides, most teachers have been quite used to the traditional way to teach foreign language, which requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers and the teacher is regarded as an authority who dominates the whole of the class.

4.2. Implications of the research for EFL English teaching.

1. Teachers need to be made more aware of the importance of appropriate language use in the EFL classroom. By considering more closely the link between pedagogic purpose and language use, teachers could be made aware of the need to use language appropriate to their teaching aim, in the same way that they would normally use classroom communicative strategies appropriate to that aim;
2. Teachers need to be discouraged from always ‘filling in the gaps’ in the discourse of the EFL classroom. By doing so, they may be creating a smooth-flowing exchange, but reducing opportunities for interactional adjustments and learning potential;
3. Teachers must be aware of what they constantly say and do in the classroom. They influence their students with verbal and nonverbal cues. How easy it is for teachers to present material and retire to a desk, while students from early levels fend for themselves, struggling with concepts and learning that being uncomfortable is a natural state while at school. They need to free their students and let them be themselves.

Organizing and modeling appropriate interaction should be a classroom habit to allow withdrawn pupils to participate to group discussion and be useful members within the classroom. How can teachers integrate those pupils who are worried of making a mistake that may be the origin of their embarrassment?

General Conclusion

CONCLUSION

From the classes we observed we can conclude that some Algerian EFL classrooms often lack the social and affective features of natural communication. The aggressive *Wrong answer* or *No, no* can hardly be seen as an equivalent of the supportive *I didn't quite hear/understand you*. The role relationship that the aggressive realizations indicate is that of a powerful and distant teacher, who is in the classroom to instruct and scold the careless, inattentive students, whenever it is necessary. The teacher's power stems from a better knowledge of English and from a better mastery of discourse and communication strategies.

This classroom behavior, strongly indicative of the pedagogy function of classroom communication, can be partly explained by the (still) relatively homogeneous structure of the Algerian society, which prompts the students into underestimating the importance of rhetorical skills and the communicative dimensions of discourse. Algerian teachers tend to disregard individuality and the negotiation of social relationships and so do many of their students. Imposition is not uncommon in our EFL classrooms: silence is almost always penalized by both teacher and classmates, verbosity and aggressiveness tend to be imposed on the others and positively assessed. Face-work also tends to be aggressive. All students fear losing face when using English incorrectly or inappropriately. In their native language, they know how to save their own and the other speakers' face, but in English they have fewer avoidance strategies. Moreover, the classroom itself offers fewer avoidance and escape strategies than the natural context. Here the presence of a powerful, if not dictatorial figure – the teacher – makes student face-saving even more difficult.

Algeria has recently launched a series of educational reforms. One of these reforms focuses on the nature of the learning process occurring in all subject areas at all levels of

education, and is considered to be the focal point of all the changes being implemented. This "learner centered approach" requires teachers to change their traditional roles, requiring them to transform themselves from 'tellers' to 'facilitators' and from 'materials users' to 'teaching materials creators' in order to promote learners' constructive self-learning.

Algerian EFL teachers who are required to implement this learner-centered policy find themselves faced with a number of challenges in both the context in which they work and related to the new goals they have to achieve. Traditionally, the Algerian educational system has shaped the teacher into an authoritative transmitter of knowledge. Students are taught to be passive listeners, obedient learners and respectful to teachers. Teachers who are the products of the old educational system may find it difficult to put into practice what is required in the new classroom where learners are the main actors. Understandably, most Algerian EFL teachers still use the teaching methods they were familiar with, namely, a textbook-based, grammar-translation approach where lessons and tests mostly focus on grammar structures, vocabulary, and reading in order to be prepared for university entrance examinations. The results of this study provide valuable feedback for teachers.

The key assumption that teachers must make is that their behavior as teachers is the biggest influence on the behavior of their pupils. This requires them to be scrupulous in the management of their behavior first and foremost. If teachers accept that behavior is everything they do and everything they say, then they also accept that as the central influence in the classroom their behavior must model everything they expect from their pupils in terms of their behavior. They must establish what they want from their pupils by demonstrating this very clearly with their own behavior towards them. They also need to be clear in their own minds just what they do require from their learners, so that they can make it clear to them by all the processes available to them in the classroom.

It is not logic to suggest that we can always avoid confrontation. Reducing disruption is a realistic aim, eliminating it is an impossible dream. Being aware of why pupils behave violently should result in teachers being prepared for that disruption when it occurs, as it inevitably will. As it was said the heart of' any successful Teaching /Learning program is the informed teacher".

Hence, we may conclude that no matter how important and no matter how good the textbook, the method, the physical conditions of the classroom and the materials are, the major components responsible for the success or the failure of the teaching/learning process remain the teacher, his/her personality, his/her habits in class, his/her attitudes and his/her academic knowledge. To understand more the decisive role of the teacher within the classroom, Algerian EFL teachers have to consider what Ginott (1972: 15-16) stated:

> **I have come to a frightening conclusion: I am the decisive element in the classroom. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that makes the weather. As a teacher I possess tremendous power to make a child's life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate, humor, hurt or heal. In all situations, it is my response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated, and a child humanized or dehumanized.**

EFL teachers should exploit Grice's Maxims to create a communicative atmosphere in their English classrooms basing their teaching style on cooperation. In linguistics terms, classroom interaction offers students opportunities to negotiate meaning and, therefore, facilitates the communicative competence development; in pedagogical terms, many researchers hold that significant learning will only take place with the students' full involvement; i.e. the students' participation in classroom interaction. Allright 1984? Tsui 1995); in psychological terms, the teacher needs to develop a close rapport with his/her students and create a supportive atmosphere to encourage learners' participation, and in addition, the students' communicative and cooperative experience in the classroom will

develop their ability in social communication and thus avoid conflicts to emerge from miscommunication between the teachers and their pupils.

A learner's disruptive behavior is a call for help and at the same time is a serious challenge to the survival of the school (as a system). Families, schools and society are composed of people that cannot live without establishing relationships. Thus social systems that are dependent on each other are influenced by each other and have a responsibility to assist other systems to keep healthy. Because the learner is inherently dependent on other systems for his or her own health and survival, other systems like the family and society need to exercise and promote positive behavior in the learner. It is useless, however, if one system, (e.g. the parents) models good behavior but learners are exposed to immoral and corrupt behavior of teachers who come to school unprepared or drunk. Each system therefore needs to maintain its own health and must be able to change in order to positively shape a learner's life.

Educators need concrete strategies to manage the identified causes of disruptive behavior. Such management is central to effective teaching and learning in the school system. Furthermore, a learner's dignity, self- respect and self- esteem cannot develop in an environment where discipline is not maintained.

The key to addressing disruptive behavior lies within a system of theory approach which involves a shift of focus from objects to relationships and from individuals to communities. The learner should always be viewed as part of a system, comprising a group of dynamically interrelated interactive elements. The complete picture of the system resembles a tapestry woven from many factors (e.g. the school, learner, family and society) acting on a virtually unlimited diversity of learners. Individual behavior should therefore always be assessed within the context in which it occurred. Osher et al. (2004) give the

example of the teacher, overwhelmed by a large class, who uses a harsh or loud voice when calling a child's name. That child is likely to internalize the communication as rejection, criticism, failure, and punishment. This can potentially provoke violence. The institution is therefore often unknowingly contributing to the problem of violence.

Through students' attitudes, facial expressions, class participation, complaints or absences, teachers can work out what students think about their teaching style, methodology, personality and characteristics. Test results or simple questions about teaching, feedback from students about teaching, or students comprehension of the language will tell teachers whether their teaching styles suit the students or not. If teachers want to teach better, they need to be prepared and willing to adapt their teaching style to their teaching situation. Research has shown that flexibility is a key to good group management (Dörnyei and Malderez, 1997). Some teachers are authoritarian, others with perhaps a very low quality of leadership. Authoritarian teachers can become obstacles to group development that is necessary for effective communication, because they want to dominate the groups. This attitude may raise some conflict with students, or even hostility, hindering the course of learning.

> **Seen from the perspective of group dynamics, the traditional authoritarian teacher role is undesirable because it does not allow for the group to structure itself organically, nor for the members to share increasing responsibility, and thus it is an obstacle to group development (Dörnyei and Malderez, 1997, pp. 75-76).**

Tolerant teachers, in contrast, encourage students to share their thoughts and opinions with them. They make students feel that it is safe to express their thoughts and opinions. As a result, the teacher and students can establish trustful relationships. To be facilitators, teachers need empathy, acceptance and congruence because students look upon teachers as parents, hearers and responsible. However, this approach is not without risk. If teachers give too much freedom to students, the students will take control of the

session. If this happens, the students may choose not to work hard. A teacher who does not know when to exert control or authority as a responsible will not help students to learn.

EFL teachers had better be flexible in their teaching methods, and know when to intervene in student conflict. They need to know how to set up classroom structures so that pupils can be responsible of their learning. Ideally, the teacher will act as a bridge between students so that they can build a sense of trust in other members of the class. s/he should also be sensitive to their students personal emotional needs, because in the classroom as elsewhere, they may feel anxiety, loneliness, shame, frustration, hostility and so on. At times, students expect teachers or their peers to provide emotional support. If teachers force students to participate or learn in an English class in ways which pupils would not normally choose, teachers will notice that the teaching plans do not work or the students do not learn. In class, both teachers and learners need a sense of security and the protection of their self-image.

Grice claims that communication must have 'a common purpose or set of purposes, or at least a mutually accepted direction' (Grice 1975:45) over and above the aim of achieving successful communication. We can conclude by confirming that learning a language not only involves mastering new information and knowledge to do with the target language but it also involves emotions and personality. Therefore, it may be useful for teachers to know how to maintain cohesiveness, between those who populate the classroom, to attain common goals. Students are formed into groups, and the individuals within the groups influence each other when they learn a language. If problems menace the cohesiveness of the group, the students will not learn the language. It is useful to be able to arrange groups so that the members develop good relationships, socially and emotionally, in carrying out their tasks.

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Appendices

Appendix:

Questionnaire For Students

Class_____ Grade_____ Date_____ Age_____

Gender_____

(Direction: This is just a part of research about how you can learn best in an English classroom, which does no harm to anyone. Please answer carefully and objectively. Help from you will be highly appreciated. Thanks.

1. I like that teacher talk time should be

A .15-20 minutes B. 20 minutes C. 25-30minutes D. 35-40 minutes

2. Now in my classroom, I think teacher talk time is

A. less B. appropriate C. a little more D. much more

3. I like to listen to teacher's instruction.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

4. I like the teacher to explain everything to me.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

5. I like to be asked and answer the questions in class.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

6. I like the teacher to give us some problems to work on.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

7. I like to answer the questions in this way:

A. in chorus B. being named C. volunteer

8. I like this kind of questions

A. with obvious, fixed answers B. without fixed answers

9. I like to be given longer time to think about the questions

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

10. I like to be encouraged by teacher's feedback.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

11. I like the teacher to tell me all my mistakes.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

12. I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

13. I like to be pointed immediately when my answers are incorrect.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

14. I like to practice the new language in class.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

15. l like to be given more chances to talking and discussing in class.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best

16. I like teachers to negotiate with me for correction.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best