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Dedications

This humble work is dedicated:

To my precious parents,

My father Laziz and mother Yamina

To my sweetest sisters Nawal, Narimen, and Liza

To my lovely brothers Hakim and Ghani

Special dedication for my closest friends especially Djoudja and Rabah

To all the people who I love and who love me

To all the students of the graduating class of second year Master 2017/ 2018

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To my beloved parents,

My mother Massouda and father Ahcene

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To my lovely sister Lobna

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Abstract

Abstract

The present study is concerned with the notion of power and ideology in teachers' classroom discourse. It attempts to investigate whether teachers' language use at the department of English at Mouloud Mammeri University reveal power relationships, and how their use of language reflect ideological beliefs. The study adopted Norman Fairclough's (2001) approach to critical discourse analysis, mainly the concept of textual analysis, as an analytical framework. To carry out the research, classroom observations were conducted with five teachers. Questionnaires were also distributed to 90 third year students. The two data collection tools allowed us to gather the corpus that consists of qualitative as well as quantitative data. Hence, study adopted the mixed method approach where the qualitative data is analysed through qualitative content analysis, and the quantitative data is analysed using the rule of three. The results show that the language used by teachers in their classrooms reflects ideological beliefs; moreover, teachers' use of language in some occasions reveals the exercise of power on students while interacting linguistically.

Key words: *Power, Ideology, Teachers' Classroom Discourse, Critical Discourse Analysis, Textual Analysis.*

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

- **CDA:** Critical Discourse Analysis
- **CL:** Critical Linguistics
- **CLS:** Critical Language Study
- **ELT:** English Language Teaching
- **ESL:** English as a Second Language
- **QCA:** Qualitative Content Analysis
- **SFG:** Systemic Functional Grammar
- **SFL:** Systemic Functional Linguistics
- **SV:** Subject/ Verb
- **SVC:** Subject/ Verb/ Compliment
- **SVO:** Subject/ Verb/ Object

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General Introduction

Introduction

1. Statement of the problem

Language is not only a means of communication, but also it conveys the way we see identity, our knowledge, values, beliefs, and ourselves. Indeed, Foucault (1972: 219) sees language use, in other words, discourse as *“a group of statements which provides a language for talking about a way of representing the knowledge about a particular topic at a particular historical moment...discourse is about the production of knowledge through language”*. Along the same vein, Fairclough (1995) believes that language use can express unequal relations of power, that is, language and power work together. Language use, in teaching and learning situations, plays an essential role. In fact, teachers’ language is considered, as the most prominent factor that enables the students to acquire good communication skills. Thus, in teaching contexts as the classroom, the notion of power in teachers’ language use seems plausible.

Wodak (2001) claims that language is not powerful on its own, it gains power by the use, that is, powerful people make it a powerful language. Indeed, words do not produce or interpret themselves; people engaged over some matters are responsible of that. The concept of power in teachers’ use of language calls to investigate how this power is linguistically expressed by teachers and presented in classrooms. From this perspective, teachers’ language is a powerful classroom tool to convey and construct meaning. Henceforth, it is credible that while using a language, teachers convey their thoughts (Dangel and Durden, 2010).

In fact, teachers interact linguistically with students according to some assumptions that Fairclough calls common-sense assumptions or ideology which he believes that it is close to power, because it depends on the nature of power relations which underlie the conventions, in other words, ideology and power goes hand in hand, language has crucial role in the ideological process. It is the linking element between individual’s knowledge of the world and

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their social practices since it mediates individual's thought and behaviour (Fairclough, 2001). Therefore, language may reflect ideology and thus be used not only as a means of communication but also as an instrument of power and control, that is, in language use unequal relation of power are constructed and reproduced.

Many researches have been conducted on the issue of language, power, and ideology. For example "*Language and Power in the ESL Classroom*" (2001) conducted by Bonnie Jo Bustrum at the Grand Valley University, USA dealing with power and language which aims to explore the issue of language and power in teachers-students relationship from multicultural perspective, that is students from different countries and cultural background. The results obtained from this study was that not all the students-teachers relation demonstrate power relations. To our knowledge, after researches we have found no studies that investigate the ideological representations in teachers' use of language in classroom as well the demonstration of power in their language. This lack of studies make the research worth conducting since it attempts to cover this issue which shows how power is manifested in teachers' language, and how ideology is presented in their discourse.

2. Aims and Significance of the Study

This dissertation is concerned with the notion of power and ideology in teachers' language. The objective of the study is to analyse the language used by teachers of the department of English at Mouloud Mammeri University of Tizi-Ouzou in classrooms by using Fairclough's model of CDA. Indeed, this research has the purpose of demonstrating how language can reveal ideological beliefs and power relations in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT), particularly teachers' use of language in classrooms. Therefore, the present study aims to raise the awareness that language use, in ELT context, can reveal ideologies and those power relations

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3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To conduct the research about the notion of power in teachers' use of language, the following study aims at answering the following research questions:

Q1: Does teachers' use of language reveal any power relationships in the classroom?

Q2: How does teachers' use of language demonstrate their ideological beliefs?

In an attempt to answer the above questions, one hypothesis is suggested for each question:

H1: Teachers' use of language demonstrates power relationships.

H2: teachers' use of language demonstrates ideological beliefs through vocabulary and grammar.

4. Research Techniques and Methodology

In order to answer the research questions of the study, the research opted for mixed Method Approach. That is to say, we use both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection and data analysis. For the data collection tools, the research uses classroom observation with an observational scheme and questionnaires designed for third year students of the department of English at Mouloud Mammeri University of Tizi-Ouzou. The data obtained from the questionnaires are examined by using the rule of three for numerical data, and by using qualitative content analysis following Fairclough's approach of CDA (2001) for the qualitative data obtained from the classroom observational scheme.

5. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation follows the traditional complex model. It consists of a general introduction, followed by four chapters, and a general conclusion. The general introduction is

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devoted to introduce the present study. It includes the statement of the problem, aim and significance of the study, research questions and hypotheses, research techniques and methodology, and the structure of the dissertation. The first chapter is entitled “**Review of the Literature**”. It consists in reviewing the theoretical framework under which the study will be conducted. The second chapter called “**Research Methodology**” describes the procedures of data collection and data analysis. The third chapter named “**Presentation of the Findings**” provides the results gathered. The last chapter, which is “Discussion of the Findings”, discusses and interprets the results; thus, brings answers to the research questions. Finally, the general conclusion provides a summary of the main points of the study, and suggests some recommendations for further research.

Chapter 1: Review of the Literature

Review of the Literature

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the review of the main theoretical frameworks to be used in this study. The first part is concerned with the presentation of the key concepts in relation to our subject. In the second part, we will introduce Critical Discourse Analysis and the main approaches of it. In the final point, we will present the theory on which this research is based which consists of Critical Discourse Analysis proposed by Norman Fairclough (2001) to analyse the discourse used by teachers.

1. Discourse Analysis

The concept of discourse analysis was first introduced by Zelling Harris in 1952 as a way of analysing connected speech and writing (Paltridge, 2006). It has two main interests: the examination of language beyond the level of sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour. Harris examined the first of these in most detail, in order to provide a way for describing how language features are distributed within text and the ways in which they are combined in particular kinds and styles of texts (ibid).

In fact, the term ‘Discourse Analysis’ has a wide range of meanings which cover a wide range of activities (Brown and Yule, 1985). It is a multidisciplinary field. That is, it is used to describe a diverse interrelated activities and disciplines as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics and computational linguistics (ibid). The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use (Brown and Yule, 1983). Therefore, it cannot be restricted to the description of the linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions that those forms are designed to serve in human affairs (ibid). In fact, while some linguists may concentrate on determining the formal properties of a language, a discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for (ibid).

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2. Discourse and Text

Both terms ‘discourse’ and ‘text’ are used interchangeably. In other words, synonymously (Nunan, 1993). Despite the fact that both terms are used as synonyms, there are some differences between them. For Crystal (1992) a discourse is a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, and narratives.

A text is a piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse of a given individual or politician identified for purposes of analysis. It is often a language unit with a definable communicative function, such as a conversation and a poster (Crystal, 1992). In the same sense, Nunan (1993) argued that the terms text and discourse are interchangeable.

3. Classroom as Context

The term ‘context’ is important while dealing with discourse analysis (Nunan, 1993). For Brown and Yule (1983) a context refers to the environment or circumstances in which language is used. Indeed, context refers to the situation giving rise to the discourse, and within which the discourse is embedded (Nunan, 1993). In fact, Nunan argues that there are two types of context. The first is the linguistic context or the language that surrounds the stretch of discourse under analysis. The second is the non-linguistic or experiential context within which the discourse takes place. The non-linguistic context includes: the type of communicative event (for example, joke, story, lecture, greeting); the topic; the aim of the event; the setting; including location time and physical aspects of situation; the participants and the relationship between them, and the background knowledge and assumption underlying the communicative event.

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Language classroom as a context of language education is seen as mediation between language, teachers, and linguistic theory (Widdowson, 1999). In contrast, some scholars such as Elsa Auerbach (1995), suggests that we should understand the social and ideological relations within the classroom and their relation to larger world outside. According Auerbach (1995: 9)

Pedagogical choices about curriculum development, content, materials, classroom processes, and language use, although appearing to be informed by a political professional considerations, are, in fact, inherently ideological in nature, with significant implications for learners socioeconomic roles. From this point of view, the classroom function as a kind of microcosm of the broader social order (ibid), in other words, the political relations in the world outside the classroom are reproduced within the classroom.

That is to say, all the choices that are related to classroom are ideological, and the political relations of the outside are reproduced within the classroom.

4. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

4.1. Definitions and History

4.1.1. Definitions

CDA studies discourse and contexts in the public sphere. That is, it analyses the relation between discourse and sociocultural developments in cultural domains allowing to highlight the traces of cultural and ideological meanings (Hoepfner, 2006). Wodak (2001) sees CDA as fundamentally concerned with analyzing opaque relations as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language.

According to Van Dijk (1998), CDA is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inquiry (interrogation) and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts. In the same line, Wodak

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(2001a) maintains that CDA explores social inequalities and how people obtain and maintain power in society.

Van Dijk (2001) explains that CDA is multidisciplinary in nature. It is a type of discourse analysis that primarily studies how social power abuse, dominance and inequality are reflected in discourse taking into account the social and political contexts. It is not considered as a theory or a method because of its ability to adopt various theoretical standpoints and because of the variety of uses to which it has been applied (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002, Cited in Hoepfner, 2006).

CDA can be best defined as “a *shared perspective and doing linguistics, semiotics, and a discourse analysis*” (Van Dijk, 1993b:131). That is to say, CDA is best viewed as a shared perspective encompassing a range of approaches. It does not have a unitary theoretical framework or methodology; it is a multidisciplinary approach to language analysis. To have a clear stance regarding the concept of CDA, Fairclough (1993:135) defines it as follows:

Discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a)discursive practices, events and texts, and(b)wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes : to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power ; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

In other words, CDA considers that there is a correlation between linguistics production and social variables, which incorporate power relations and struggles.

4.1.2. History

CDA originates from various roots starting from the Frankfurt School to Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Huckin et al, 2012; Van Dijk, 2001). In fact, CDA is considered to have its parental roots in Critical Linguistics (CL) that emerged during the 1970's (Van Dijk, 2001). CDA and CL both share common features. For instance, both

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analyze discourse critically, and both assert that all discourses are ideological with ‘*no arbitrariness of sign*’ (Hamersley, 1997 Cited in Tan and Renugah, 2015). This means that there is always an ideology that influences the writer’s or speaker’s choice of words (Fowler, 1991 Cited in Tan and Renugah, 2015). Furthermore, contemporary CDA is derived from not only SFL and CL but also from other theories such as Foucault’s concept of power/knowledge (1972) considering that power is driven from knowledge.

As it is already mentioned, CDA is founded on two main assertions: (a) discourse reflects ideologies (Fowler, 1991 Cited in Tan and Renugah, 2015), and (b) those ideologies are hidden and viewed as reproduced for the benefits of the group in power in society (Fairclough, 2001). Therefore, one of the prominent aims of CDA is to “*uncover the opaqueness or power relationships*” (Fairclough, 1995).

4.2.Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis

According to Fairclough, (1995); Wodak, (1996); and Van Dijk, (1998), CDA has eight principles:

1. Language is a social practice through which the world is represented.
2. Discourse uses a form of social practice in itself and signifies other social practices such exercise of power, domination, prejudices, resistance, etc.
3. Texts acquire their meanings by dialectical relationship between text and social subjects, writers and readers.
4. Linguistic features and structures are not arbitrary.
5. Power relations are produced, exercised, and reproduced through discourse.
6. Discourse is historical in the sense that texts attain their meanings by existing in specific social, cultural and ideological contexts, time and space.
7. CDA not only interprets texts but explains them also.

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8. All speakers and writers work in specific discursive practices stemming from special interest and aims.

5. The Notion of Ideology in Language Use

The notion of ‘ideology’ is widely used in the social sciences. The interest on ideology is developed within Marxist and Neo-Marxist theories of capitalist societies (Tollefson and Yamagamin, 2013: 70). Fairclough (2001: 70) defines it as “*the implicit philosophy in the practical activities of social life*”. He adds that ideology is the familiar common sense world of everyday life, a world that is based on assumptions and expectations that are taken as truths and common sense.

The term ‘ideology’ would seem to refer not only to belief systems but also to the question of power. It has to do with legitimating the power of dominant social groups or class (Van Dijk, 2003: 05). Fairclough (2001) argues that ideological elements do not have specific location in texts. They can be found in both the form and the content of the text.

6. The Notion of Power in Language Use

CDA maintains that language is not powerful on its own. It gains power by use (Wodak, 2001). In fact, Wodak refers to language indices power. Power does not drive from language, but language can be used to challenge power, to subvert it. In this sense, Blackledge (2005) believes that CDA is centrally interested in language and power because it is usually in language that discriminatory practices are enacted and in language that unequal relations of power are constituted and reproduced. According to Foucault (1972) power is referred to as power/knowledge, because in discourse, power and knowledge work together, that is, knowledge provides power.

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7. Approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis

7.1. Teun Van Dijk's Sociocognitive (1988) Model of Critical Discourse Analysis

Among CDA practitioners, Teun Van Dijk, one of the most prominent figures, in the late 1990s. He suggests an approach to CDA, which has three fundamental concepts: (a) *Social analysis* deals with the identification of context or what is called as 'overall societal structures', that is to say, the social surroundings or environment which consist of beliefs, customs, and behaviors which constitute the social norms. (b) Discourse analysis is concerned with the text itself (syntax, lexicon, local sentences, topics, semantic structures, etc.) that is linguistic description. (c) And cognitive analysis related to the mental representation, understanding thoughts, and experiences linked to the social norms of the producer. These make this approach different from other approaches in CDA. Indeed, Van Dijk believes that sociocognition connects between society and discourse. In other words, it is as "*a mediator*" (Seyholislami, 2001: 4). He defines sociocognition as "*the system of representations and processes of group members*" (Van Dijk, 2001). To put it differently, the shared norms of a society are connected to discourse through the producers' representations.

It is important to know that mental representations are often related to the '*US*' versus '*THEM*' Relations where the discourse includes *positive self*-representation and *negative others* representation (Van Dijk, 2001). For instance, the minority ethnic group as emigrant who constitutes the '*THEM*' are represented negatively; whereas, the local group or the '*US*' are represented in positive way. Van Dijk is a significant representative of this approach. Most of his critical works focus on the reproduction of ethnic, prejudices, and racism in discourse and communication.

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7.2. Ruth Wodak's (1996) Sociological and Historical Approach of CDA

Wodak and her group of researchers in Vienna constructed their model of CDA on sociolinguistics in Berstenian tradition, and on the ideas of Frankfurt school, specifically those of Habermas (Wodak, 2001). Wodak (1996) conducted various studies on institutional communication and speech barriers in courts, schools, and hospitals. She carried out a work on various social issues such as sexism, racism, and anti-Semitism (discrimination against Jews). Wodak and her colleagues developed a research method called '*discourse historical approach*' in 1990 (Sheyholisami, 2001). The main feature of this approach is that it tries to make connection between background information and the analysis and interpretation of written or spoken texts. For instance, Wodak's study of anti-Semitism relying on historical approach, in which the word historical approach is a crucial term, since historical context has a significant impact on structure, function, and context of the anti-Semitic utterances (Wodak et al, 1990). This approach can be used to analyze the indirect prejudiced utterances, and to identify and expose the codes contained in prejudiced discourse.

7.3. Fairclough's (2001) Approach to Critical Discourse Analysis

Norman Fairclough (1989), another figure of CDA, elaborates the third main approach. Influenced by many former theorist such as Halliday with his SFL, Foucault, Gramsci, and many others (Sheyholisami, 2001), Fairclough claims that his approach (early called critical language study) focuses on the relationships between socio-cultural change and discourse change. He claims that the main aim of his work is to raise awareness to dominance of one group of people over another group through language use (Fairclough, 2003).

Fairclough's (2001) model of CDA considers discourse as a social practice inspired by Halliday SFG. It implies the notion that language is part of society. According to him, language is crucial part of social life, and the relationship between language and society is a dialectical one (it

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affects and is affected by the society). This relation is, in fact, realised due to three main factors: “*social event (text)*”, “*social practice (orders of discourses)*” and “*social structures (languages)*”. Mostly influenced by Foucault’s ideas, Fairclough (2003) defines the relationships between power and language (social power and ideology). For him, the way that people produce and interpret language is controlled by power. In this sense, he argues that the manner people produce and interpret language is affected by their experiences of the world, and experiences are affected by social organisations, which, in turn, are influenced by power (2001). As illustrated by Fairclough (2001), the traditional type of consultation between doctors and patients embody ‘common sense’ assumptions, which treat authority and hierarchy as natural, the doctor knows about medicine and the patient does not; the doctor is in the position to determine how a health problem should be dealt with and a patient is not. It is right that the doctor should make a decision and controls the course of consultation and the treatment, and that the patient should comply and cooperate.

7.3.1. Fairclough’s Three Dimensions of Discourse

According to Fairclough (1989: 24), language is practised within society. Moreover, “*Discourse refers to the whole processes of social interaction of which a text is just a part*”. Therefore, he insists that critical analysts should not only focus on the texts, production and interpretation, but also look into the interrelationship among texts, production processes, and their social context. In this respect, Fairclough (2003) has developed three-dimensional models of CDA. He argued that every communication is first a text (speech, writing, visual image) and that text is discursive and practised within society. Fairclough (1992a cited in Burns, 2001: 13) describes text as having three dimensions:

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1. Description

According to Fairclough (1989: 26), “*description is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of text*”. In other words, linguistic features of the text (form) are to be explored in the descriptive dimension for the sake of clarification and understanding, i.e. it is the selection of vocabulary and grammar. Vocabulary means the word choice and the grammar is the grammatical features. Fairclough (1997: 198) says, “*During the process of CDA it is of a great importance for researchers to explore and explain the hidden ideologies*”. In other words, to analyse how linguistic items are built together to constitute a text.

2. Interpretation

According to Fairclough (1989:26): “*interpretation is concerned with seeing the text as a product of process of production, and as resource in the process of interpretation*”. The relationship between discourse and its production and consumption should be interpreted at the level of this stage, because discourse is no longer a text but a discursive practice. Therefore, the attention should be given to speech and intertextuality. This stage corresponds to discourse practice (Fairclough, 1992). According to Fairclough (2001), interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction. Furthermore, it deals with the relationship between discursive process of production, interpretation, and the text.

3. Explanation

Fairclough (1989: 26) says, “*Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social determination of the process of production and interpretation, and their social effect*”. This stage cannot be analysed unless reference to historical, social, and cultural context are taken into account. It is at this stage that information of power, ideology

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and language will be investigated and explained (Fairclough, 1995). This dimension corresponds to the sociocultural practice (Fairclough, 1992). In fact, explanation deals with the relationship between the process (production and interpretation) and the social conditioning. It has to do with the relationship between discourse and sociocultural reality.

Fairclough conceptualised his three dimensional analytical framework for analysis of any texts and discourses. It divides discourses into three distinct aspects (as illustrated in figure 1 below): the physical text written or spoken, the discourse practice and sociocultural aspects.

- **Text:** the descriptive level , as the first level of analysis , it is linked to the linguistic analysis in terms of grammar , vocabulary , semantics , sound system and cohesion above the sentence level (Sheyholislami , 2001) .
- **Discourse practice :** this dimension is related to production , distribution (readership , audience) and consumption (interpretation) of texts ; Furthermore , it is related to the comparison of a group of similar texts , thus , leads to rise the notion of intertextuality (Faiclough, 1992). Intertextuality is defined by Fairclough (1995: 16) as “*basically the property a text has of being full of snatches of other texts, which may be demarcated or merged in, and which a text may assimilate, contradict, ironically echo, and so forth*”.
- **Sociocultural practice:** it focuses on the relationship between discourse and sociocultural reality. It is concerned with the impact of social structures on discourse practice. In Fairclough’s terms (2001: 22), it is “*concerned with the relationship between [discourse practice] and context –with the social determination of processes of production and interpretation, and their social effects*”. That is to say, structures and practices of the social sphere (how the world works) affect the way texts are generated and consumed, by doing so; social structures are encoded in the linguistic properties of these texts.

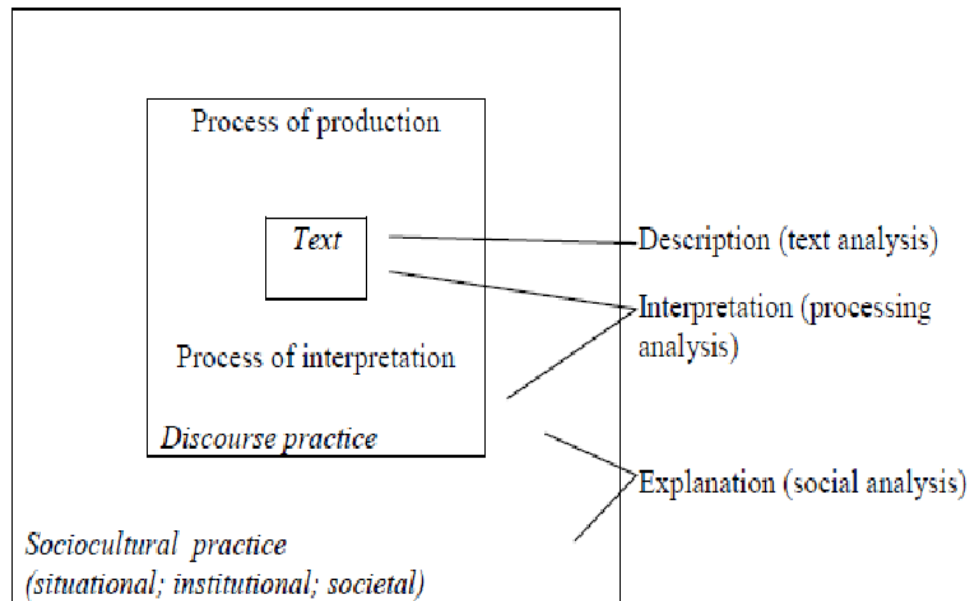


Figure 1.1: Fairclough's Model of the Three Dimensions of discourse (Fairclough, 1995: 98)

7.3.2 Text and Textual Analysis

Textual analysis is concerned with the description of language, in other words, the analysis of linguistic features. Language has a number of features that makes its analysis really complex. Therefore, Fairclough (2001) has divided these features into three main categories: *vocabulary*, *grammar*, and *textual structures*. Fairclough (2001) argues that these three categories are related to the social reality by means of three types of value. *Experiential value* is concerned with the text producer's experience of the natural and social world (contents, beliefs and knowledge). *Relational value* is concerned with the social relationships that are enacted via the text in the discourse. *Expressive value* is concerned with the producer's evaluation of the reality (attitudes towards subjects and social identities).

1. Vocabulary

This category shows how ideological representations of the world are encoded in vocabulary (Fairclough, 2001). In fact, the analysis of texts is made by asking questions such as *what experiential, relational, or expressive values* do words have. (ibid). Experiential

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values are linked to some stylistic devices such as *synonyms*, *antonyms*, and *metaphors*, which can reflect ideological values (Fairclough, 2001). Relational values are concerned with how word choice helps to create and identify social relationships between participants (ibid). Expressive values of text focus on persuasive language, which shows the attitudes towards a given aspect in the text. Thus, bringing an ideological reflection (Fairclough, 2001:98). Indeed, these attitudes (negative or positive) are clearly shown through the representation of the *Self* and the *Other* in texts and discourses (*US* and *THEM*). The *US* is attributed to the positive values and the *THEM* to the negative values (Van Dijk, 1998).

2. Grammar

The analysis of grammatical structures just like vocabulary involves looking at the experiential, relational, and expressive values (Fairclough, 2001). The experiential values have to do with: 1) the type of the process or the choice of voice (active or passive voice). 2) Sentence connections, that is, the role of connectors in linking sentences, and coordination and subordination in complex sentences (Fairclough, 2001). The relational values focus on modes and sentences (declarative, imperative, and grammatical questions), modality and the use of pronouns. They determine the participants' position and the difference between them (ibid). The expressive values are related to the use of expressive modality, which is different from relational modality (Fairclough, 2001) in the sense that expressive modality is about the individual evaluation about the world whereas the relational modality depends on the social relationship between the producer and the receiver involved a speech event (ibid)

3. Textual Structures

It is the final element, and it deals with the overall architecture of the text (Fairclough, 1992). It is made by asking questions like what relational and experiential values have the organisational features. (Fairclough, 2001) particularly at the level of dialogue (conversations,

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lessons, and interviews) and monologue (speeches and news articles). Fairclough (2001) believes that this category can obviously show how power relations are maintained and how ideologies are reflected in the organisational features of text and talk. Relational values are related to different ways in which one can control the contributions of others in a conversation such as interruption, enforcing, explicitness, controlling topic, and formulation (Fairclough, 2001). Moreover, it is also related to turn taking system that can reveal power relationship between the participants (ibid). Experiential values have to do with the text order and structures, which reveal and determine different ideologies (Fairclough, 2001).

In fact, this research will be based on CDA, more exactly Fairclough's model. The study aims at analysing teachers' discourse and investigating whether they exercise power through their discourse, and how their language in the class reflects ideological beliefs. CDA as claimed by Blackledge (2005) is centrally interested in language and power. In the same line, Wodak (2001) argues that the concept of power is indispensable part of CDA. Wodak (2001) states that power, history, and ideology are three indispensable concepts of CDA. This is why this research has as analytical framework the elements of CDA above.

Conclusion

This chapter is concerned with reviewing the main concepts of the research and the theoretical frameworks on which the study is based. First, it has introduced the main concepts of the study and stressed their relevance and contribution to the analysis of how teachers' use of language reflects ideological beliefs and if it reveals power relationships. Moreover, it provides an overview of the theoretical framework of this dissertation that is Critical Discourse Analysis with emphasis Fairclough's model of CDA.

Chapter 2: Research Methodology

Research Methodology

Introduction

As its name denotes, this chapter deals with the research design of the current study, that attempts to explore the issue of power and ideology in teachers' discourse in the classroom with third year students at the level of the department of English at MMUTO. To reach the objective mentioned previously, the adoption of mixed- methods approach appears to be suitable. It combines qualitative and quantitative procedures for both data collection and data analysis. Therefore, the chapter is composed of three main sections.

The first section is concerned with the description of the Mixed-Methods research. The second section presents and describes the data collection tools. The third section explains the procedures of data analysis. The study opts for qualitative analysis to analyse the data gathered through the observational scheme by using the Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA). Besides, the rule of three is adopted for analysing the quantitative data obtained from students' questionnaires.

1. Research Method

The mixed method study involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process. In other words, mixed method research involves the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods or paradigm characteristics (Johnson and Christensen, 2004 cited in Dornyei, 2007). This method is used in our study in order to collect and analyse the data gathered both qualitatively and quantitatively through using classroom observation and questionnaire.

2. Procedures of Data Collection

2.1. Classroom Observational Scheme

Observation allows researchers to gather information about any given topic, and generally involves watching participants' behaviour. According to Dornyei (2007), observation provides direct information rather than self-report account, and thus, it is one of the three basic data sources for empirical research.

Observational scheme is called also observational schedule or protocol. It has a range of systemic categories which allow the observer to read events quickly by lengthy open-ended comments. In fact, Richards et al (1996:12) hold that “*observation involves visiting a class to observe different aspects of teaching*”. During the classroom observation, the role of the observer should be limited only to data gathering for academic purposes.

Our classroom observation is carried out in the department of English at Mouloud Mammeri University. We observed 10 tutorials from May 7th, 2018 to May 20th, 2018 with third year students. We observed 10 lectures with five teachers, two lectures with each teacher. During the observation, we have used observational scheme that is composed of three items. Vocabulary, grammar, and textual structures have been taken into consideration.

2.2. Students' Questionnaires

The present study does not rely only on the data gathered by classroom observation; it includes another type of data collection tool, which is questionnaire. It is defined as “*any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting among existing answers*” (Brown, 2001: 06). Many researchers use questionnaires as an instrument for collecting data because of its efficiency in terms of (a) research time, (b) research effort, and (c) financial

Research Methodology

resources as maintained by Dornyei (2003: 09). It means that the questionnaire can collect a huge amount of information from a large number of respondents in a short period of time.

Our investigation has taken place at the department of English at Mouloud Mammeri University of Tizi-Ouzou. It involves the participation of third year students. The questionnaire contains seventeen (17) items which are closed-ended questions. The questions require the participants to choose from a range of predetermined alternative responses. Indeed, the study used questionnaire as data collection tool in order to check the data gathered through classroom observation and to make it more reliable.

The questionnaire was piloted with a group of ten (10) third year students on June 7th, 2018. Since the questions are simple and easy for the students, it was distributed for 120 students but only 90 questionnaires are collected.

3. Procedures of Data Analysis

3.1. Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA)

In the present research, the qualitative content analysis (QCA) is found to be the most appropriate method to analyze and interpret the teachers' discourse in order to find out how ideological beliefs are reflected in their use of language. It is used to interpret the data gathered via classroom observation by categorizing them following Fairclough's model of CDA (2001).

QCA is defined by Hsiehand and Shannon (2005: 1278) as "*one of numerous research method useds to analyze text data*". Mayring (2000) considers it as "*an approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step models, without rash quantification*".

3.2.The Statistical Analysis: the Rule of Three

For the analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaires, the rule of three was used. The rule of three is widely used in social sciences when dealing with statistical analysis. Indeed, we use this rule to determine the percentages. It converts data into statistics and then into graphs. It is simple and easy to use. The rule of three formula conceptualized as:

Formula $\% = f/N \times 100$ where % is percent, F= frequency, and N is Numbers of callers

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the methodology on which this study is based. It is divided into three main sections. The first one is concerned with the description of the research method. The second one deals with the procedures of data collection, which include classroom observational scheme and questionnaires, designed for students. It includes their definition and the context and participants of the investigation. The third section is devoted to the presentation of the data analysis procedures. We have explained how the collected data are interpreted and analysed using qualitative content analysis for the data of classroom observation, and the rule of three for the data of the questionnaires.

Chapter 3: Presentation of the Findings

Presentation of the findings

Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the presentation of the results gathered from the classroom observation and questionnaires. The chapter is divided into two sections: the first one is related to the presentation of the data gathered via classroom observation, and the second one is about the presentation of the finding gathered by questionnaires designed for students.

3.1.Results of the Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is the first tool employed in this study. The observation started from 7th May to 20th May with third year students. Since the study aims at investigating whether teachers exercise power in their classrooms, and how their language reflect ideological beliefs, classroom observational scheme is used which consists of the three concepts relying on Fairclough' s textual analysis. In fact, the later is based on the analysis of linguistic features where the focus is on vocabulary, grammar, and textual structures which reflect three values: experiential, relational, and expressive. In fact, what have been observed is the language used by the teachers in the classroom in relation to vocabulary, grammar, and textual structures. In other words, the researchers have tried to classify each linguistic feature according to the value which reflects. After observing ten (10) lectures with five (5) teachers, we gathered a corpus of some linguistic features. These features are presented in the tables below, and are classified according to the values they reflect relying on Fairclough's model of textual analysis.

3.1.1. Results of Teachers' Use of Vocabulary

In order to analyse vocabulary in teachers' language, we have relied on some lexical aspects proposed by Norman Fairclough (2001) within textual analysis namely: synonyms, antonyms, and metaphors that reflect experiential values. Formal and informal language

Presentation of the findings

express relational values, and expressive values which is reflected in the use of positive and negative attitudes, and the use of persuasive language.

Experiential values		
Synonyms	Antonyms	Metaphors
Free, liberty, rights, autonomy Ordinary people, common people Writer, educated, readers	Agree, disagree Western world, Eastern world Civilized, uncivilized	No metaphors

Table1: The Experiential Values of Vocabulary

The table one presents some lexical types, including synonyms, antonyms, and metaphors that are used in teachers' classroom language. These lexical types represent experiential values. It is worth to mention that in all the classrooms observed, there are no metaphors used.

Relational values	
Formality	Informality
Yes, please I shall May I We can Sir please	Close the door Yes, read it Go ahead You' re right

Presentation of the findings

Table2: The Relational Values of Vocabulary

The table two presents the word choice in teachers' language which demonstrates relational values.

Expressive values
Persuasive language/ Positive/ negative attitudes
The book you should read
The world-wide language
That is not an interesting article
An empty curriculum

Table3:The Expressive Values of vocabulary

The table three shows the persuasive language used by teachers that have positive/negative attitudes, in fact this vocabulary aspect have an expressive value.

3.1.2. Results of Teachers' Use of Grammar

Agency deals with both process use (action, event, attitudes), and the individual producing an experience. Though, the choice of certain processes is most of the time ideological (Fairclough, 2001: 102).

Experiential values	
SVO	They wrote the textbook
	I will explain the lessons
SVC	The book is complicated

Presentation of the findings

SVC	It is easy
	The course is long
SV	Many students succeeded

Table4: Teachers' Sentence structure.

The table four presents the sentence structure (SVO, SVC, and SV) in the teachers' language which reflects experiential values.

The English sentence takes three forms. It can be either declarative, imperative, or takes the form of a question. Every form takes a particular structure that is different from the other.

Relational values	
Declaratives	<p>I will be absent.</p> <p>I will explain that next time.</p> <p>It is complicated.</p>
Interrogatives	<p>Can you read the passage?</p> <p>How can you explain more?</p>
Imperatives	<p>Stop talking!</p> <p>You read!</p> <p>Do that exercise!</p>

Table5: Teachers' Sentence Form.

Expressive modality has to do with speaker/ writer evaluation of the truth, that is, the view of world. It can be expressed by modal auxiliaries verbs like may, might, and must....., but also by various other formal features including adverbs and tenses (Fairclough, 2001: 105).

Presentation of the findings

Expressive values	
Modal auxiliaries	Others
This course could be a little bit complicated It must be done last year You are a student of English, you should be aware of this	It is possible that this book is helpful The post graduate students have the capacity to work in distinct employments

Table6: The Expressive Modality in Teachers' Language

This table demonstrates the expressive values of the teachers' language, which are expressed through the use modal auxiliaries and other linguistic features.

3.1.3. Results of Teachers' Use of Textual Structures

Fairclough (2001) believes that textual structures deal with the overall architecture of the text at the level of dialogues and monologues. For him, these categories can obviously show power relation. In fact, this category looks at the relational values reflected in different ways in which one can control the contribution of other; it includes interruption, enforcing, explicitness, controlling topic, and formulation (Fairclough, 2001: 113).

Relational values	
Interruption	Let me help you Thank you, let met carry on
Turn Talking System	What do you think about that Who can tell us the answer

Presentation of the findings

Enforcing explicitness	Can you explain more Can you be more clear It is up to you to tell us
Controlling topic	Stay on the topic Can you explain the topic Concerning this topic
Formulation	Can you reformulate Can you say it differently

Table7: The Textual Structures in Teachers' Language

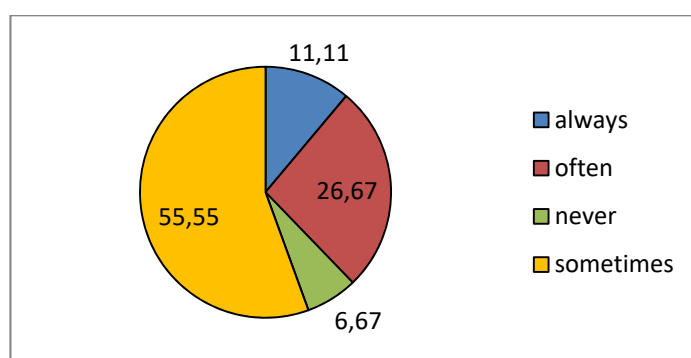
This table shows the different techniques that teachers use in classroom while interacting linguistically, these techniques have a relational value.

3.2.Results of Students' Questionnaires

The questionnaire is the second tool used in this research. It was designed for third year students of the department of English at MMUTO. It contains seventeen (17) questions. We have distributed 120 questionnaires to the students, but only 90 handouts have been collected.

3.2.1. Teachers' Use of Vocabulary

Question 1: how often do your teachers use synonyms and antonyms while teaching?



Presentation of the findings

Diagram 1: Teachers' Use of Synonyms and Antonyms.

The pie chart shows that most students answered that teachers use synonyms and antonyms on certain occasions; however, about (11.11%) answered that their teachers use them always. Few students (6.67%) answered that teachers never use synonyms and antonyms. These aspects of vocabulary have experiential values.

Question 2: do your teachers use metaphors in the classroom?

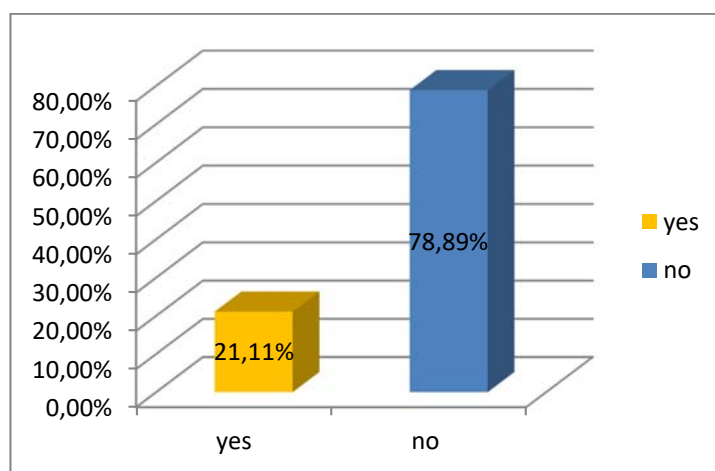


Diagram 2: Teachers' Use of Metaphors.

This histogram presents the answers of students about teachers' use of metaphors. It seems that most teachers do not use metaphors while teaching according to students, about (78.89%) students answered by 'no'. Metaphors are part of vocabulary that shows the experiential values.

Question 3: is the language used by your teachers formal or informal?

Presentation of the findings

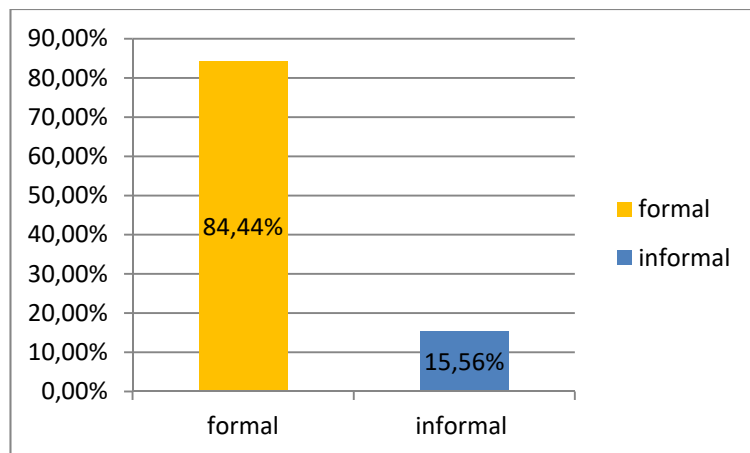


Diagram 3: Formality and Informality in Teachers' Language

This graph aims at demonstrating the word choice of teachers. (84.44%) of students answered that teachers use formal language. The others said that they use informal language (15.56%). The word choice, that is, the use of formal or informal language is another element of vocabulary which has relational values.

Question 4: how often do your teachers use persuasive language while teaching?

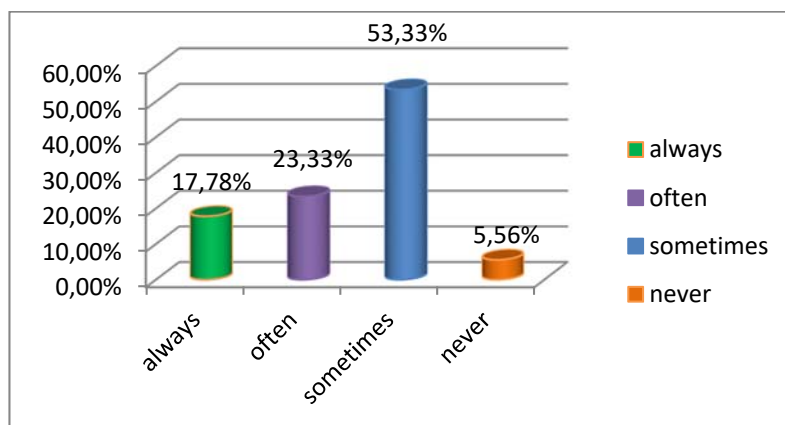


Diagram 4: Teachers' Use of Persuasive Language

From diagram five, the researchers notice that the majority of students see that teachers use persuasive language sometimes (53.33%). A minority (just 5.56%) see that teachers never

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use persuasive language. The use of persuasive language is an aspect of vocabulary which demonstrates expressive values.

3.2.2. Teachers' Use of Grammar

Question 5: while teaching, what type of sentences do your teachers use?

This histogram aims at showing the process used by teachers. According to (73.34%) of students, teachers use active sentences. (24.44%) of students see that teachers use passive voice and (2.22%) see that teachers use both active and passive voice. This aspect of grammar shows the experiential values.

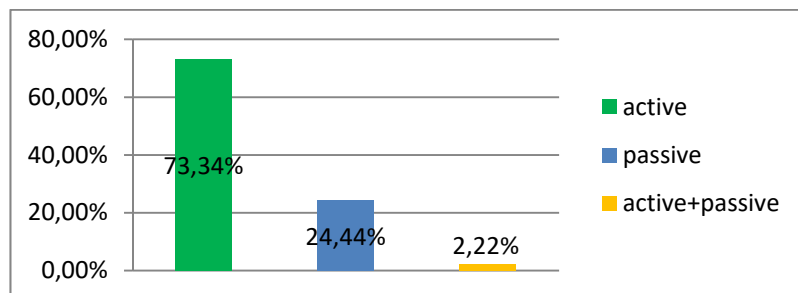


Diagram 5: The Type of Process Used by Teachers

Question 6: which type of simple sentences do your teachers use mostly?

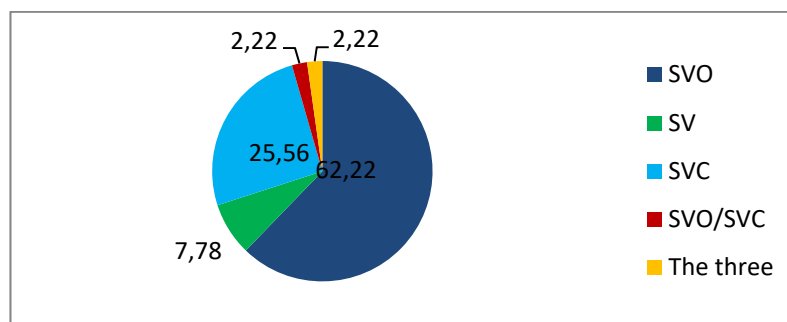


Diagram 6: Type of Simple Sentences Used by Teachers

The above pie chart demonstrates that most students (62.22%)+ see that teachers use SVO. (25.56%) of students choose the answer SVC, and just (7.78%) of them choose SV.

Presentation of the findings

(2.22%) answered by SVO+SVC, and the same number answered by choosing the three choices.

Question 7: what mode of sentences do your teachers use while teaching?

Type of sentences	Declarative s	Imperative s	Interrogative s	Declaratives + imperatives	Declaratives + interrogative s	total
Number of students	58	3	17	2	10	90
Percentage s	64.44%	3.33%	18.90%	2.22%	11.11%	100%

Table 8: Sentence' Modes of Composition Used by Teachers.

Table height (8) shows that the majority of students (64.44%) see that teachers use declarative sentences. (18.90%) select 'interrogative'; whereas, only (3.33%) have answered 'imperatives'. (11.11%) have chosen two answers: 'declaratives' and 'interrogatives'; while, (2.22%) have opted for 'declaratives' and 'imperatives'. The mode of sentences which is an aspect of grammar demonstrates the relational values.

Question 8: how often do your teachers modal auxiliaries?

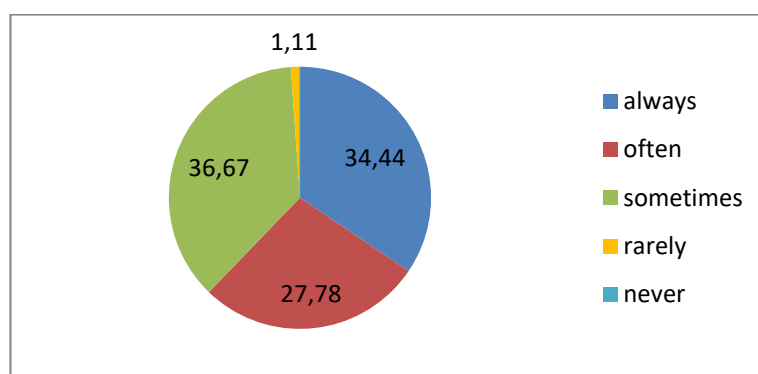


Diagram 7: Teachers' Use of Modal Auxiliaries

Presentation of the findings

This diagram aims at showing teachers' use of modal auxiliaries. We notice that around (34.44%) of students answered by 'Always'. (36.67%) have chosen 'Sometimes'; while, (1.11%) answered by 'Rarely', and no one answered by never

Question 9: how is modality expressed by your teachers?

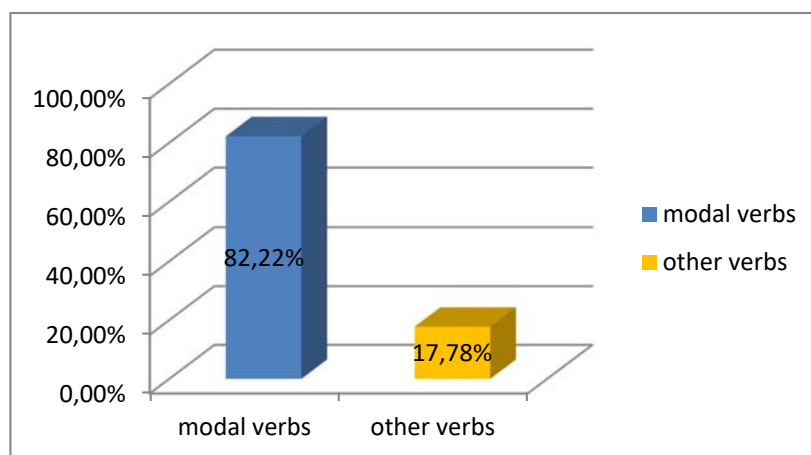


Diagram 8: Teachers' Expression of Modality.

This bar chart shows that (82.22%) of students see that teachers express modality by using modal auxiliaries, and just (17.78%) answered by 'Other Verbs'. The expression of modality is another aspect of grammar that shows the expressive values.

Question 10: how often do your teachers use the pronouns 'YOU' and 'WE'?

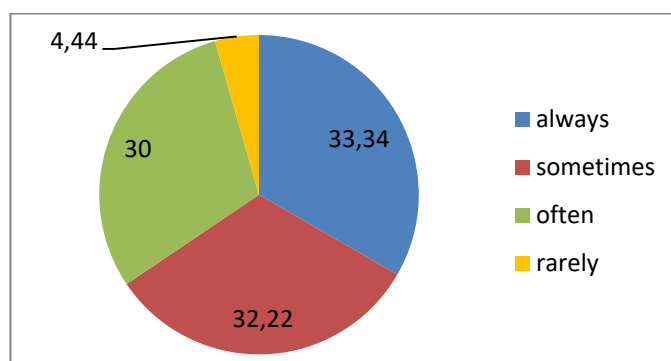


Diagram 9: Teachers' Use of the Pronouns 'YOU' and 'WE'

Presentation of the findings

The above pie chart presents how often teachers use pronouns ‘YOU’ and ‘WE’. It shows that most students (33.34%) see that teachers use these pronouns always. About (32.22%) answered by ‘Sometimes’, (30%) answered by ‘Often’, and just (4.44%) answered by ‘Rarely’.

Question 11: when your teachers use the pronoun ‘WE’, to whom they are referring to?

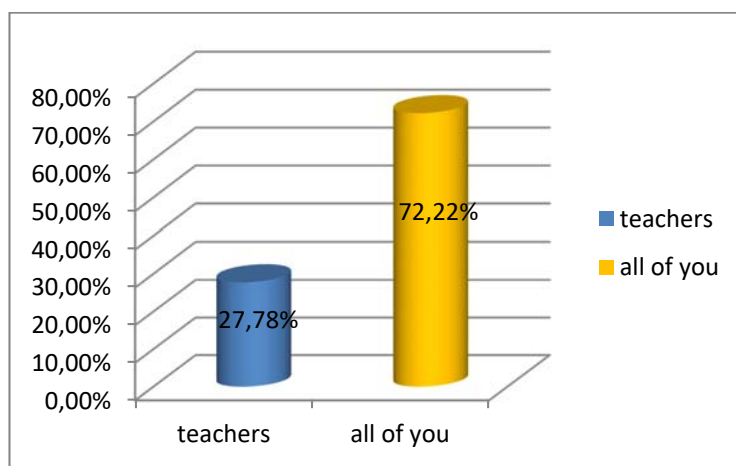
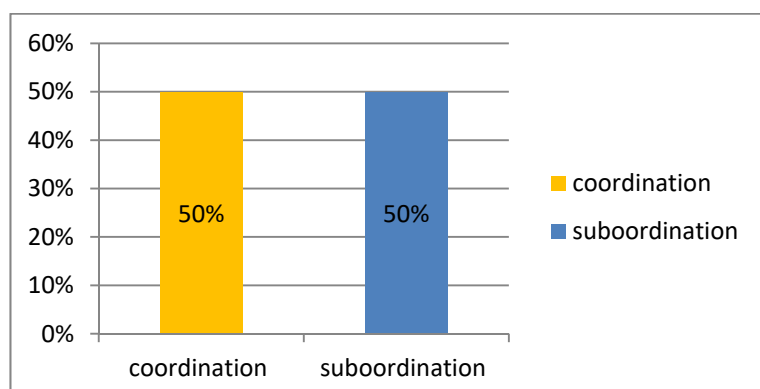


Diagram 10: The Representation of the Pronoun ‘WE’

The graph 11 deals with the representation of the pronoun ‘WE’. It shows that teachers while using the pronoun ‘WE’, they refer almost of the time to teachers and students (72.22%) see that; however, just (27.78%) see that teachers refer to themselves when using this pronoun.

Question 12: what type of complex sentences do your teachers use?



Presentation of the findings

Diagram 11: Type of Complex Sentences Used by Teachers

This histogram indicates that teachers use both subordination and coordination, and this reflect the experiential values.

3.2.3. Teachers' Use of Textual Structures

Question 13: in your classroom, do you speak only when your teachers ask question to you?

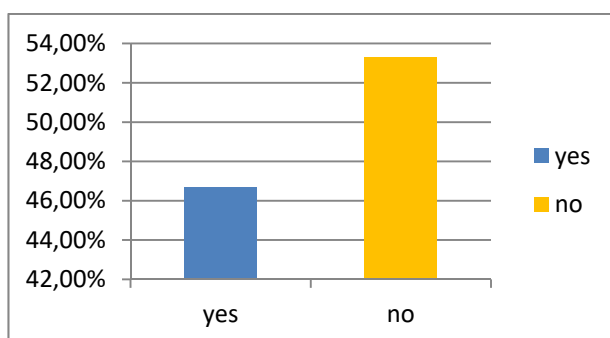


Diagram 12: The Contribution of Students in the Classroom

The diagram (13) shows how students contribute in the classroom. The question asked was: do you speak only when your teachers ask question to you?(46.67%) answered by 'Yes', and (53.33%) answered by 'No'.This is an element of textual structures that reflect the relational values.

Question 14: in your class, how often your teachers interrupt you?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Total
Number of students	05	19	33	33	90
Percentages	5.55%	21.11%	36.67%	36.67%	100%

Table 9: Teachers/ Students' Interruption in the Classroom.

Presentation of the findings

The table above shows how often teachers interrupt students in the classroom, and this is an aspect of textual structures that has relational values.

Question 15: when you speak in the classroom, do your teachers ask you to be more clear?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Participants	15	11	35	21	08	90
Percentages	16.67%	12.22%	38.89%	23.33%	8.89%	100%

Table 10: The Teachers' Demand for Explicitness

This table shows how often teachers ask students to be more clear. It is a way of showing relational values.

Question 16: in your classroom, how often your teachers formulate your sayings?

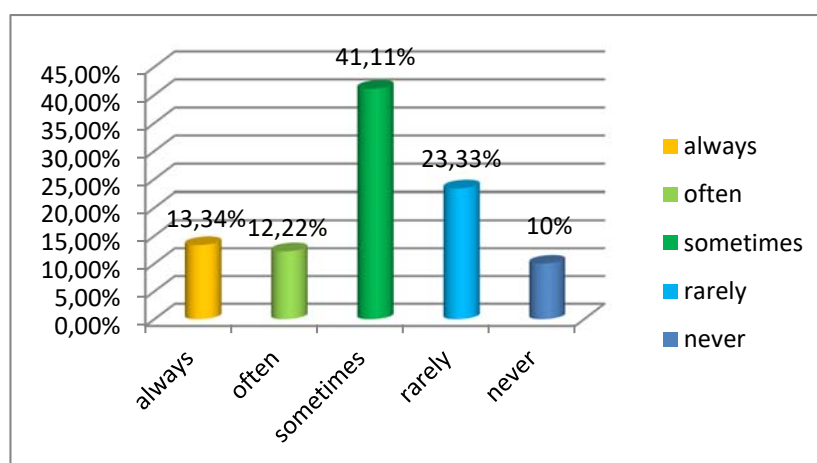


Diagram 13: The Teachers' Demand for Formulation

The graph 13 represents how often teachers formulate the sayings of students. It shows that around of (37) students answered by 'Sometimes', (21) students answered by 'Rarely', (12) answered by 'Always', (11) answered by 'Often', and only (9) answered by 'Never'.

Question 17: in your classroom, how often your teachers ask you to be relevant to the topic?

Presentation of the findings

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Participants	14	13	20	25	18	90
Percentages	15.56%	14.44%	22.22%	27.78%	20%	100%

Tables 11: The Teachers' Demand for Relevance

The table above shows how often teachers ask students to be relevant to the topic.

Conclusion

This chapter deals with the presentation of the findings gathered via classroom observation and questionnaires designed for third year students of the department of English at MMUTO. The results of the classroom observation are presented in form of tables; while, the results of the questionnaires are presented in form of diagrams since they are numerical data. These results will be discussed and interpreted in the following chapter.

Chapter 4: Discussion of the Findings

Discussion of the Findings

Introduction

This chapter discusses the main results presented in the previous chapter which were obtained from classroom observation, and questionnaire submitted to third year students in the department of English at MMUTO. The data gathered from the two methodological instruments will be discussed and interpreted relying on Fairclough's approach to CDA (2001), mainly his concept of textual analysis, which consists of description, interpretation and explanation. This study takes as it concerns the description stage in terms of vocabulary, grammar and textual structure. The chapter is divided into two main sections: The first one is concerned with the discussion of the results gathered through classroom observation. The second deals with the discussion of the results obtained by the questionnaires. This chapter aims to provide answers to the research questions asked in the general introduction and tries to confirm or infirm the advanced hypotheses.

1. Discussion of the Results of the Classroom Observation

1.1.Vocabulary

We have relied in our examination of the vocabulary used by teachers in the classroom on the lexical types suggested by Fairclough (2001) which include synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, hyponyms, euphemistic expression, metaphors, and formal/informal language. In our corpus gathered from the classes observed, the main types that are identified are: synonyms, antonyms, formal/informal language, and persuasive language. In his approach to CDA, mainly his concept of textual analyses ,Fairclough (2001) believes that this category clearly shows ideological representation of the word which are encoded in it, and this can be realised through asking about the values that these lexical types have. In fact, accordingly words have three values: experiential, relational, and expressive. Experiential value is about how the text producer's experiences the natural or social world (Fairclough, 1989: 112), the relational value is the social relationship between the producer of the text and its recipient

Discussion of the Findings

(Fairclough, 1989), the expressive value is about the producer's evaluation of the reality it relate to (ibid). Correspondingly, the lexical items identified in teachers' vocabulary have the three values as suggested by Fairclough.

As previously mentioned, ideological beliefs can be identified through associating the values that words reveal. In fact, while speaking teachers use some lexical types such as synonyms and antonyms, which reflect experiential value. As presented in table one (1) in the results chapter, teachers use synonyms that reflect their experiences or view about the topic being discussed. For instance, synonyms such as '*common people, ordinary people*' may be associated with capitalist ideology, because it signals to students that there are other people that are not ordinary or common, in other words, by these synonymous expression teachers are possibly refer to social classes which are associated with capitalism. In addition, sometimes teachers use expression such as '*educated , writers, readers*' as synonyms to portray one category of people, and this reflect the teachers social world or experiences. Furthermore, teachers use words as '*free, liberty, rights, autonomy*' in some occasion, which are associated with syndicalism. Actually, these synonyms are ideologically determined. In other words, these synonymous expressions are ideologically contested, their semantic meaning are related to syndicalism.

Besides the use of synonyms, teachers sometimes use antonyms as demonstrated in table one (1) in the results chapter. For example, the expressions '*western world and Eastern world*' are used as antonyms, by the two items teachers may mean that there are two worlds, the advanced world or countries, such as the European and united states of America ,which is referred to as the Western one. In the other hand, undeveloped world, as the third word including African and some Asian countries, which is described as the Eastern world and that is possibly, could be associated with some ideologies. As well, antonyms as '*civilized people and uncivilized*' are used to display some categories of people or ethnic group by being

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civilised whereas the others by being uncivilized, according to some norms such as the colonialist view about the local people of the colonies they colonized. The two items have an experiential value that reflect the teacher experiences of the social world, and could be ideologically oriented. In fact the use of antonyms, as well synonyms reflect the teachers' background and experiences about the social context. This echoes with Fairclough's view that experiential values explore how words are used in a text or discourse to encode ideologies (2001: 94).

There are some other elements that have been identified in teachers' language, that are related to social reality. These elements are associated with social context by means of relational values. As argued by Fairclough (2001), words are likely to have relational values, which constitute the relationship between the producer of texts and its recipient. In fact, teachers sometimes use formal language by using some expressions as presented in the table two (2) in the previous chapter. Such expressions like '*yes, please*', '*I shall*', '*we can*', and '*sir please*' depict the social relationship between the teachers and their students. Indeed, formality in teachers' language demonstrates the formality of the situation, and this is evident, because in this context politeness is opted for regarding the social status and position of teachers.

In addition to formality, teachers sometimes use informal expressions as '*close the door*', '*yes, read it*', and '*go ahead*'. Actually, these expressions have also relational values that depict the social position and status that allows teachers to use informal language. This ability to use both formal and informal language, that is, word choice in teachers' use of language demonstrates the social relationship between them and students, which goes with Fairclough's (2001) concepts of language and social life. He argues that language use is affected by power and control, since language is part of social life, that is, the relationship between language and society, that is, language is influenced by society, and society is shaped

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by language. In our contexts, the social position of teachers influence their language use, which is characterized by power.

Furthermore, teachers' use of vocabulary has expressive values. The latter is what Fairclough defines as "*the producer's evaluation of the reality it relates to*" (2001: 93). It includes some vocabulary aspects such as the use of persuasive language along with positive and negative attitudes as shown in table three (3). These aspects are what Fairclough calls exhibition and humiliation, because expressive value is the use of vocabulary to show either exhibition, incarceration, and humiliation in the text or discourse, and such values are embedded with word choice (2001: 98).

Teachers use persuasive language as '*the world wide language*' to describe the English language. Indeed, teachers consider English as the language of the globe, and as the best language in the globe, which constitutes a positive attitude. Going further, expressions such as '*the best book you should read*' demonstrates a positive attitude toward the book being discussed, which could be also as persuasive expression, that is, to convince the students that the book is the one they should read. In other words, the book is represented as a good one. Thus, both examples go with Fairclough's concept of expressive values that words have, which deal with the producer's persuasive language to evaluate and signal attitudes toward an aspect in the texts, which are in their turn ideologically significant.

Accordingly, teachers use negative expressive values. Some expressions that signal negative attitudes. For instance, '*that is not an interesting article*' constitutes a negative representation of the article discussed, and shows that the article is not important and not instructive. Moreover, another expression used by teachers is '*an empty curriculum*', which could be a negative expressive value about the curriculum. In other terms, teachers are possibly evaluating the curriculum as being clear of the target skills or purposes, or they may mean empty of what is necessary. Teachers' use of both positive as well as negative values

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reinforces Fairclough's claim that the expressive values that the words have are ideologically significant, since these evaluations are always influenced by different ideology

1.2. Grammar

A text is characterised by its grammatical features, and this makes it meaningful and chronologically ordered. According to Fairclough (2003: 22), there are "*causes-factors which cause particular text or type of text to have features it has*". This means that the grammatical characteristics that a given text has, have to do with happenings and relationships in the world in which people, animals, or things and their spatial and temporal circumstances and manner of occurrence are involved (Fairclough, 2001). In order to analyse the teachers' language at the grammatical level, our analysis focuses on three categories suggested by Fairclough in his book "*Language and Power*" (2001) namely agency as it deals with experiential values; sentences modes as they have relational values, and expressive modality.

Agency has to do with the choice between types of process and social actors' participation in the creation of particular social event. It is according to Fairclough (2001: 101) concerned with the type of process and the participants who create an event. In English, a sentence has three main types (SVO, SVC, and SV); that expresses three main processes: action, event, and attribution. The action involves the agent and the patient, an event involves an animated or unanimated participant, and the attribution involves one participant.

Fairclough (2001) states that the agent is ideological. That is to say, when making it animated (clear and visible), it takes the position of the doer and responsible for the action, and in the case of making it unanimated (invisible like in passive voice), its responsibility becomes unclear, and it provides less information.

Once applied to teachers' classroom discourse under study, it is noticed that all sentences are in active voice where the Agent is animated. That is, teachers want to expose the identity of the doer of the action, and also they make the agent responsible for the action

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or the doing. As illustrated in table four (4) in the finding chapter, teachers use SVO sentences as '*they wrote the textbook*'. Here, the teacher used the pronoun '*they*' that refers to the people who wrote the textbook, so the agent is animated. We may deduce that the teacher excludes himself/ herself as well as the 'US' from writing the textbook, and attributes it to 'THEM'. Here the teacher may mean by the pronoun '*they*', a particular group or individuals. Likewise, the agent is animated in the sentence '*I will explain the course*'. Here again the teacher used the pronoun '*I*'. The agent's visibility signifies it is given identity. '*I*' in the sentence refers to the teacher who attributed the explanation to himself/ herself.

In addition, teachers sometimes use SV sentences such as '*many students succeeded*'. Here the teacher involves an event, that of success. The agent in this sentence is animated, clear and visible. The teacher speaks about an event that is the success of students. In fact, the choice of grammatical forms of a given text or discourse, as it is argued by Fairclough, have experiential values. Indeed, he believes that the choice or the possibilities of choices between process types are ideological (2001). That is, the ideological belief always influence our choice in language use.

According to Fairclough (2001), a sentence can be in three modes of composition: declarative, imperative, and grammatical question. In the three modes, both the addresser and the addressee have different positions. In the declarative mode, the speaker has the position of the provider of information; whereas, the listener is the receiver of information. In the imperative mode, the addresser is asking or complaining for something, and the addressee is in the position of compliant actor; while in the grammatical question, the addresser again is in the position of asking for information, and the addressee is a provider of information (Fairclough, 2001).

The different positions of the participants are of a high importance because they provide information about the relationship between them. For instance, being in the position

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of a compliant actor indicates a position of powerlessness and weakness. Indeed, asking for action or providing information in imperative as well as grammatical question indicates the position of power. Nonetheless, being in the position of an information provider may indicate both position of power or powerless depends on the context and the interpreter's assumptions (Fairclough, 2001).

The results obtained from the classes observed shows that teachers use the three modes, but the dominant mode is the declarative as demonstrated in table five (5) of the previous chapter. Teachers use sentences like 'I will be absent' and 'I will explain that next time', and that signifies that the teacher is in a position of information provider. Indeed, the teacher declares information like his absence, and that explanation will be for next time. This information are furnished by the teacher; that is to say, one may assume that the knowledge and social status make him/ her in powerful position, or as information provider. In addition to the declarative mode, teachers during the class use the imperative mode such as '*stop talking!*', '*you read*', and '*do the exercise*'. Such mode signals that teachers ask for an action or in other cases ask for information. Indeed, the status and the position of the teacher allow him/ her to ask or complain for something.

The other mode that is used by teachers is grammatical question. Fairclough (2001) distinguishes two types of question: 'WH question' and 'yes/no question' that may show weakness or power. In fact, teachers ask questions such as '*can you read the passage?*' This question is a demand for an action for the students. In fact, this question demonstrates the powerful position of the teacher. Besides, questions such as '*how can you explain more*' as illustrated in table five (5), constitute an asking for information. It also demonstrates the position and the status of teachers. In fact, the three modes have relational values, as previously mentioned. This has to do with the social relationship between the producer of a text and its recipient (Fairclough, 1989).

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Moreover, it is noticed that teachers during the classes use different modal verbs along with other forms such as adverbs to express modality. According to Fairclough (1989), these forms have an expressive value, which he defines as the producer's evaluation of the reality it relates to. Indeed, as shown in table six (6) in the previous chapter, teachers use modal verbs as well as other expressions that express an attitude and evaluating certain truth or reality. For instance, in the sentence '*it must be done in the previous year*', here the '*must*' have the meaning of certainty. The teacher may want to express his/her conviction about the topic or aspect being discussed. That is, he is affirming to the student that he/ she is certain that the aspect or the topic talked about must be done in the last year. Additionally, another sentence saying that '*you are a student of English you should be aware of this*'. Here '*should*' expresses obligation, the teacher in this context, is evaluating the student level and he is convinced that they are obliged to know some aspect of English language that they do not know. Besides, the modal verb in this sentence '*this course could be little bit complicated*', '*could*' here expresses possibility. Indeed, the teacher is evaluating the course as being difficult for the students. As previously mentioned, this evaluation could be influenced by ideological beliefs.

In addition to modal verbs, teachers sometimes use different forms and expressions to express the concept of modality (see table six (6) in the results chapter). As in the sentence, '*it is possible that this book is helpful*'. Here, the expression '*it is possible*' have the same function of the modal verb '*can*' which expresses probability. In other terms, the teacher evaluates the book and he/she may mean that it can be useful for them. Another form that has been identified during the classes observed is: '*the post graduate students have the capacity to work in distinct employments*'. In this sentence, the expression '*have the capacity*' can be replaced by the modal verb '*can*' which expresses possibility. In fact, the teacher may mean by this expression that the postgraduate students can work in different employments, and that

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is an evaluation of the students concerned. The use of expressive modality in the classroom has an expressive value, which constitutes an evaluation or representation of reality, this goes with Fairclough's notion of the expressive values, which can be ideological (2001). That is, ideology has always an impact on our evaluation of the world and hence on language use.

1.3. Textual Structure

Fairclough (2001) argues that textual structure deals with overall architecture of a text, which can reveal relational as well as experiential values, particularly at the level of dialogues and monologues. He believes that this category shows clearly how power relation is maintained, and how ideologies are reflected in the organisational features of text and talk. Relational values are related to the various ways by which one can control the contribution of the other in the conversation such interruption, enforcing explicitness, and formulation (Fairclough, 2001). Moreover, they are also related to turn taking system, which can reveal power relationships between participants (ibid).

During the classes we observed, the students cannot take turn only when a question is addressed to them. As demonstrated in table seven (7), the teacher uses such questions to allow students to speak: '*who can tell as the answer?*' and '*what do you think about that?*'. These questions are not only a request for information, but also may be a permission to take turn in the discussion. This goes with Fairclough's concept of turn taking system, which he believes that it is a system that is operating, and it depends on power relationship between participants. That is, it has to do with social status, position, and class, it became as a 'norm' for interaction (2011: 112). In our context, the social status and position as well as knowledge give teachers the ability to be in power.

In addition, Fairclough (2001) argues that the relation between language and society is a dialectical one. In the same line, he claims that language use is affected and controlled by

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power. Indeed, Fairclough (2001) claims that power in discourse is characterised in terms of the more powerful participant putting in constraints of less powerful participant. There are various devices, which are used for doing this. Indeed, Fairclough suggests four devices that enable controlling the contribution of the other. It includes interruption, enforcing explicitness, controlling the topic, and formulation (2001).

In fact, during the classes we have observed, some teachers control the contribution of students through interruption. As demonstrated in table seven (7), teachers use expressions like *'let me help you'*, *'thank you, let me carry on'* to interrupt students to carry on, or in order to control their contribution. In the same sense, teachers use also another device to control the contribution of students which is enforcing explicitness. Indeed, sometimes teachers ask students to be more clear or unambiguous and push them to speak. Enforcing is clearly shown in sentences such as (see table 7) *'can you explain more'*, *'can you be more clear'*, and *'it is up to you to tell us'*. To continue with, controlling topic is another technique used by teachers to control the contribution of students. As it is argued by Fairclough (2001), topics of an interaction may be determined and controlled by the more powerful participant, who is in a position to specify the nature and purposes of an interaction as its beginning. As illustrated in table seven (7), teachers use sentences like *'stay on the topic'*, *'can you explain the topic'*, and *'concerning our topic'* which show that teachers sometimes control the contribution of students by controlling the topic.

Likewise, another technique that is used to control the other's contribution is formulation, which is defined by Fairclough (ibid) as rewording of what has been said or it is wording what may be assumed. Indeed, formulation has the purpose of checking understanding, or reaching an agreed characterization of what has been transmitted in the interaction, but it can also have the aim to control (2001). Indeed, teachers use the formulation technique to control students' contribution. Most teachers use sentences *'can you*

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reformulate’, ‘*can you say it differently*’ by which teachers check students understanding on one hand, and control their contribution, on the other hand. The four techniques are used by teachers to control the contribution of students. This echoes with Fairclough’s notion of power and language. He argues that language is affected and controlled by power (2001).

2. Discussion of the Results of Students’ Questionnaires

Questionnaire is the second tool used in this study. It is designed for third year students in order to collect more data that will help us to answer the research questions.

2.1.Vocabulary

Concerning the use of synonyms and antonyms by teachers, diagram one (1) in the previous chapter demonstrates that (6.67%) of participants have answered by ‘never’, (11.11%) have said ‘always’, (26.67%) have replied by ‘often’, and (55.55%) have answered by ‘sometimes’. In fact, according to Fairclough, these items have experiential values, which reflect the producer’s experience of the social and natural world. Indeed, (55.55%) of students replied that their teachers use synonyms and antonyms during the class. In fact, the use of two or more expression as synonyms mean that the teacher see them sharing a given perspective. According to Fairclough such use reflect the producer’s thought, ideas, and experiences, which are most of the time socially shaped and may be ideologically significant. Moreover, experiential values are also represented through the use of metaphors. In fact, metaphors according to Fairclough (2001: 99) are a means of representing one aspect of experience in terms of another, which have different ideological attachments. The diagram two (2) shows that most students (78.89%) see that teachers do not use metaphors; while, (21.11%) answered that their teachers do not use metaphors. As synonyms, metaphors also have an experiential value, since it reflect the social experience of the producer, in other words, the teachers portray a given aspect from the view or the dimension as it represented by the others.

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This echoes with Fairclough (2001) concept of metaphors he argues that metaphors have an experiential value which are most of the time ideological.

In addition, the word choice, that is, the use of formal or informal language is another element in vocabulary that demonstrates the relational values. In fact, diagram three (3) in the previous chapter shows that according to the most students (84.44%), teachers use formal language and (15.56%) see that teachers use informal language. According to Fairclough (1989), word choice depends on, and helps create social relationship between participants. In this context, that is, classroom teachers use both and informal language, the teachers' use of formal language reflects the formality of situation, which is classroom that is a formal context. Furthermore, the teachers ability to be either formal or informal reflect the social their social status that is characterized by power.

Another aspect in vocabulary, which has expressive values, is the use of persuasive language. The diagram four (4) in the results chapter demonstrates that (5.56%) students see that teachers never use persuasive language, (17.78%) answered by 'always', (23.33%) have said 'often', and (53.33%) have opted for 'sometimes'. In fact, according to Fairclough (2001) persuasive language could be along with either negative or positive value. Here the teachers' use of persuasive language may mean that his/she is arguing about a given aspects along with positive or negative attitudes as well as he/she is evaluating these aspects. In fact, this goes with Fairclough (2001) notion about the expressive value that a text have which is ideologically shaped.

2.2.Grammar

Diagram five (5) in the findings chapter shows the process used by teachers. It demonstrates that most students (73.34%) see that teachers use the active voice, (24.44%) students answered by passive voice, and two (2.22%) students see that they used both active and passive. Indeed, the teacher use of active voice means that they made the agent visible or

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responsible of the action and this reflects the social experience. In other words, the teachers focus on the agent or the doer of the action not on the action itself, and this choice between different grammatical processes, according to Fairclough (1989), have an experiential value that can be ideologically significant.

In addition to the type process, the type of simple sentences shows also experiential values. Diagram six (6) in the results chapter demonstrates that most students (62.22%) see that teachers use SVO. According to Fairclough (1989), the use of SVO expresses an action that involves two participants, an agent and patient, the agent acts upon the patient in some way. (25.56%) of students answered by SVC. It expresses an attribution, which involves one participant (Fairclough, 1989). (7.78%) see that teachers use SV that expresses an event. The latter also involves one participant. Such choices to highlight or background the agent may be ideologically significant (Fairclough, 1989). Indeed, teachers' choice about choosing either highlighting an action or backgrounding is in some occasion affected by ideology.

Moreover, other elements in grammar demonstrate relational values as the table height (8) in the previous chapter shows that the majority of students (64.44%) see that teachers use declarative sentences. It means that teachers take the position of a giver of information, and students the position of receivers. (18.90%) of students select 'interrogative'. That is to say, the teachers are asking for information, and the students take the position of a provider of information. The table height (8) shows that only (3.33%) have answered by 'imperative'. Here the teachers are again asking for an action, and the students are compliant actors. These different positions of participants are important since it provides information about the relationship between them, which is characterized in some occasion by power. In fact, these three modes have relational values (Fairclough, 1989). This means that the social relationships between teachers and students is clearly demonstrated in teachers' use of

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language. In fact, the powerful status of teachers is reflected in the use of declarative mode by which they are the providers of information.

Besides, the use of pronouns 'YOU' and 'WE' is another element that expresses relational values. Diagram nine (9) in the previous chapter demonstrates that (33.34%) of students see that teachers use these pronouns always. 'WE' refers to the producer as well as the receiver, however, the pronoun 'YOU' refers only to the receivers. In addition to this, diagram ten (10) shows that teachers while using the pronoun 'WE', they refer to themselves as well as students (65 out of 90 students see that). It means that teachers have the authority to speak for students and this can clearly show power relation. This shows that pronouns in English have relational values that have to do with the social relationship between the participants involved in a speech event (Fairclough, 1989).

Moreover, grammar features have an expressive value, which is marked by the use of modal auxiliaries, and other forms such as adverbs. In fact, diagram seven (7) demonstrates that (36.67%) of students see that their teachers use modal auxiliaries sometimes. Around (34.44%) answered by 'always'; while, (1.11%) answered by 'rarely', and no one answered by never. In addition to this, diagram eight (8) shows that (82.22%) students see that teachers express modality by using modal verbs; however, (17.78%) see that they use other forms. Factually, modality can be expressed by modal auxiliaries or other forms such as adverbs, indeed, modality have to do with the assessment and evaluation, teachers use of modal verbs and other forms to express modality reflect their evaluation of the topic being discussed or talked about, and this evaluation is most of the time influenced by different ideologies. As argued by Fairclough (2001) modality in language use is related to modal verbs and other expressions with the same functions that have an expressive value, which according to him is an evaluation of the reality that the producer is related to, and this evaluation is effected by ideology.

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Regarding the use of complex sentences in teachers' language, diagram (11) in the previous chapter demonstrates the use of subordination and coordination in teachers' use of language. The students answered that teachers use subordination in complex sentences as well as coordination. In fact, (50%) students answered that their teachers use subordination. Likewise, the other (50%) answered that teachers use coordination. Indeed, Fairclough (2001) argued that complex sentences combine sentences together in various ways. A distinction is commonly made between coordination where the component simple sentences have equal weight and subordination where there is a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. He claims that the main clause is more informationally prominent than the subordinate clause. In the same vein, Fairclough (ibid) believes that sentence combination is not only a matter of values (experiential, relational, and expressive), but also it has to do with the relationship between text and context. That is to say, some formal features (grammatical features) point outside texts to its situational context. In the context of teaching, sometimes teachers in some occasions highlight an information and in others they do not, it depends on the context and situation.

2.3. Textual Structures

The results of diagram (12) shows that (46.67%) of students do not speak only when their teachers ask them questions, while (53.33%) speak only if their teachers ask them questions. This demonstrates that (53.33%) do not take turn in the interaction only if they are addressed. This echoes Fairclough's (2001) notion of turn taking system in which he explains that power relationships between participants in conversations are clearly shown through the contribution in a speech event where the powerful participant controls the speech more than the powerless ones.

Table nine (9) shows that (5) students see that their teachers always interrupt them, (19) of them see that they often interrupt them, (33) of students answered by 'sometimes', and

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the same number answered by 'rarely'. Interruption according to Fairclough (2001) is a device by which the powerful participant could control the contribution of the powerless. Indeed, this technique of controlling the text (conversation or monologue) demonstrate power relationship in language. In this context, the social status and position of teachers allows them to control the contribution of the student.

Table ten (10) in the previous chapter shows how often teachers ask students to be more clear. We notice that (8.89%) of students said that teachers never ask them to be more clear, (12.22%) answered by 'often', (16.67%) have said 'always', (23.33%) for 'rarely', and (38.89%) represents 'sometimes'. In fact, enforcing explicitness is another device to control the contribution of the other in a speech or conversation (Fairclough, 2001). Indeed, this technique is used by the powerful participant (teachers) which are in a position that allow them to set the topic of the speech for the powerless participants, and what gives them this position is social status and in this context knowledge.

The results shown in diagram (13) demonstrate that (13.34%) students answered that their teachers always formulate their sayings, (23.33%) of them answered by rarely, and (10%) respond by 'never', however (41.11%) students said that their teachers sometimes formulate their sayings. Formulation is a technique for controlling the contribution of others (Fairclough, 2001). Fairclough (ibid) believes that formulation is a device by which powerful participants check the powerless participants' understanding, and is a technique used for reaching an agreed characterization of what has transmitted in the transaction or interaction (ibid).

Table (11) shows that (15.56%) of students are asked to be relevant to the topic, while (14.44%) answered by 'often', however (22.22%) of students respond that sometimes they are asked to be relevant, (27.78%) answered by 'rarely', finally (20%) of them say that they are never asked to be relevant. In fact, Fairclough (2001) sees controlling the topic as a way by

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which the powerful participants control the powerless contribution in a conversation. Indeed, Fairclough argued that this technique tells the power relations within a conversation.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the main results obtained from the classroom observation, and the questionnaires submitted to third year students of the department of English at MMUTO in order to answer the research questions stated in the general introduction. The analysis of the results based on Fairclough's approach to CDA (2001) shows that teachers' language shows in some situations ideological beliefs and demonstrates power relations. The analysis of teachers' language use is conducted in relation to the descriptive level; that is, investigate how the linguistic items are built together to explore the hidden ideologies.

Thus, the results obtained confirm the two hypotheses suggested in the general introduction. The first one is that teachers' use of language reveals relations of power in the classroom. The second one is that teachers' language demonstrates ideological beliefs through vocabulary and grammar.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The present study has investigated the presence of ideology in teachers' language in the classroom as well as the concept of power relation in their language use in the classroom. As presented in the previous chapters, the dissertation sets two main objectives. As the first objective, it aims to investigate how teachers' language reflects ideological beliefs. Then, as a second objective, the dissertation aims to investigate whether teachers' language reveals power relations. For doing so, the study adopted CDA to explore the presence of ideology in teachers' language, and to find out whether their language reveals power relation while interacting. Indeed, this study relied more on Fairclough's approach to CDA.

On the basis of the corpus gathered from the two data collection tools, questionnaire has been submitted to third year students at the department of English in MMUTO, as well as classroom observation, which has been conducted with 05 teachers. We studied and analysed the teachers' language, particularly some linguistic features suggested by Fairclough's (2001) CDA. The collected data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively in order to confirm or infirm the two hypothesis suggested in the general introduction. The first one states that teachers exercise power on the students while the second states that teachers' language reflect ideological beliefs through grammar and vocabulary.

To sum up what has been said in the discussion chapter consisting of two parts. The first one discusses the results obtained from the classroom observation which was divided into three categories. The first category deals with analysing the teachers' language at the level of vocabulary by identifying some lexical features suggested by Fairclough mainly synonyms, antonyms, formal/informal language, and persuasive language along with negative/positive attitudes. The second category consisted in analysing the teachers' language at the level of grammar relying on three grammatical aspects mainly; agency, sentence mode, and modality. The third category of the classroom observation is examining some organisational features of teachers-students interaction, which were suggested by Fairclough in what he calls Textual

General Conclusion

structure. The second part of the discussion chapter consists of analysing the results obtained from the questionnaire submitted to third year student. In fact, the questionnaire was based also on Fairclough's textual analysis. It consists of 17 questions which target the vocabulary and the grammar used by teachers in classrooms as well as some interactional convention that are used when teachers interact with the students.

Based in the outcome of the two previous chapters, it is found that teachers grammar and vocabulary reveals the three values (relational, experiential, and expressive) claimed by Fairclough (2001). Indeed the linguistic features analysed in this study reveals in some occasion teacher's ideological beliefs, and that is shown through the three values. Therefore, this leads as to the confirmation of the research hypothesis stated that teachers' language reflect ideological beliefs through grammar and vocabulary.

While teachers interact with students in classroom, they obey to some interactional conventions or what Fairclough calls textual structures (2001). Indeed, teachers sometimes use some devices to control the contribution of students. It has been noticed also that while interacting some of students do not take turn in the speech if they are not selected. This evokes Fairclough's notion of power. He claims that power relations can be shown through two main options; turn taking system and ways in which one can control the contribution of others. This confirms the second hypothesis assuming that teachers' language in classroom reveals power relations

While conducting this research, we faced to main limitations. The first one is that we could not select sufficient linguistic items while conducting classroom observation because of the time factor, since we opted these linguistic items during the teachers' classroom talk. The second one consists in space limitation. As it can be noticed, the topic of the current study is in somehow wide; therefore, unlikely there have been some aspects and information that are not dealt with due to the restricted number of pages for master dissertation.

General Conclusion

For this purpose, we recommend future researchers, who may be interested in conducting a research on the present topic, to use different methodologies. Furthermore, the present dissertation has dealt with power and ideology in teachers' language use in classroom, it is hoped that further studies around the same topic would be conducted in relation to students textbooks, and speaking sessions.

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Appendix 01: Classroom Observational Scheme

Classroom Observational Scheme

1. Vocabulary:

1.1. Teachers' use of synonyms

1.2. Teachers' use of antonyms

1.3. How do teachers use persuasive language?

1.4. Does the persuasive language used by teachers demonstrates positive or negative attitudes?

2. Grammar

2.1. Do teachers use active or passive voice?

2.2. What are the modes of sentences used by teachers?

2.3. How modality is expressed in the language used by the teachers?

3. Textual Structures

3.1. How is turn taking managed while interacting?

3.2. The ways by which teachers control the contribution of students:

- Interruption

- Enforcing Explicitness

.....
.....

- Controlling the Topic

.....
.....

- Formulation

.....
.....

Appendix 02: Students' Questionnaire

Students' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of a study which aims at exploring the issue of teachers' classroom discourse .

You are kindly requested to answer the following questions by ticking off the appropriate box. Your answers will remain anonymous and confidential. Thank you for your precious collaboration.

1. How often do your teachers use synonyms and antonyms while teaching?

.Always ☐

. Often ☐

.Sometimes ☐

. Never ☐

2. Do your teachers use metaphors in the classroom?

.Yes ☐

.No ☐

3. What type of language that your teachers use?

.Formal ☐

.Informal ☐

4. How often do your teachers use persuasive language while teaching?

.Always ☐

.Often ☐

.Sometimes ☐

.Never ☐

5. While teaching, what type of sentences do your teachers use?

.Active ☐

.Passive ☐

6. Which type of simple sentences do your teachers use often?

.SVO ☐

.SV ☐

.SVC ☐

7. What type of sentences do your teachers use while teaching ?

.Declaratives ☐

.Imperatives ☐

.interrogatives ☐

8. How often do your teachers use modal auxiliaries?

.Always ☐

.Often ☐

.Sometimes ☐

.Rarely ☐

.Never ☐

9. How is modality expressed by your teachers?

☐

☐

.By modal verbs

.By other verbs

10. How often do your teachers use the pronouns 'You' and 'We'?

.Always

.Often

.Sometimes

.Rarely

11. When your teachers use the pronoun 'We', who they are refer to?

.Teachers (themselves)

.All of you (you and the teachers)

12. What type of complex sentences do your teachers use?

.Subordination

.Coordination

13. In your classroom, do you speak only when your teachers ask you?

.Yes

.No

14. In your class, how often your teachers interrupt you?

.Always

.Often

.Sometimes

.Rarely

15. When you speak in the classroom, do your teachers ask you to be clearer?

.Always

.Often

.Sometimes

.Rarely

.Never

16. In your classroom, how often your teachers reformulate your ideas?

.Always

.Often

.Sometimes

.Rarely

.Never

17. In your classroom, how often your teachers ask you to be relevant to the topic?

.Always

.Often

.Sometimes

.Rarely

.Never