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College of Arts

Faculty of English Language and Literature

The Use of Speech Acts by English Language
University Lecturers: An Analytical Case Study in the
Kingdom of Bahrain

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of MA in Applied English Language Studies

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Master's Degree in Applied English Language Studies

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the correlation between speech acts as a linguistic variable and age as a social variable in the field of pedagogy. It aimed to identify the types and determine the frequency of speech acts performed by EFL university lecturers of different age groups in relation to students' attitudes. A sample of three younger and three older lecturers were selected in addition to a sample that consisted of their students. The qualitative methods of recordings and observations revealed that the lecturers performed the speech acts of stating, explaining, asking, commanding, requesting, refuting, confirming, warning, promising, thanking, apologizing and encouraging. These types were then categorized according to Searle to conclude that the age of the lecturer did not affect the types of illocutionary acts they performed as both younger and older lecturers performed directives, representatives, expressives and commissives. Regarding the frequency, younger lecturers performed directives and expressives at a higher rate than older lecturers, whereas the older lecturers performed representatives more frequently than younger lecturers. However, both performed commissives at the same rate. This led to the conclusion that the age of the lecturers does affect the frequency with which they perform illocutionary acts. Finally, insight into students' attitudes was gained by distributing a questionnaire to the students of the six observed lecturers. It was found that most students did not have any age preference when responding to questions and accepting commands and requests from their lecturers. However, among those who did have a preference, more students preferred the speech acts to be performed by younger lecturers. Therefore, it was concluded that more students had a positive attitude towards being asked questions and given commands and requests by younger lecturers than by older lecturers, as they perceived younger lecturers to be more approachable, relatable and polite.

Keywords: Speech Acts, Frequency, Age, Students' Attitudes

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis, which I submitted to the University of Bahrain, is a result of my own work and my own research. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not currently considered for any other degree at any other university.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

This introductory chapter of this study presents the contextual information that serves as the backdrop for this research and the theoretical background that serves as the foundation upon which this research is built. This chapter also provides details regarding the aim of this research and the questions it tackles.

1.1. Contextual Background

1.1.1. Language, Communication and Meaning

Language is the core of human communication. Communication can occur verbally, non-verbally, in written form and in visual form. The factor that determines their label as ‘modes of communication’ is their ability to effectively convey meaning. Accordingly, language itself is a means of communication as it occurs in spoken and written form. The goal of using language is to communicate, yet successful communication occurs only when meaning is transferred between speaker and listener. As such, meaning is an essential element of communication and of using language. Without meaning, language is an incoherent sequence of arbitrary sounds (Riemer, 2010). However, meaning is not only conveyed through language. As stated previously, there are different modes of communication through which meaning is conveyed, some of which do not require features of language like sounds and words, such as sign language, while others do not require language at all, such as symbols and illustrations. This research focuses on the type of communication that uses language to convey meaning, otherwise referred to

as verbal communication. Verbal communication involves the use of language in the form of words, whether spoken or written, to express feelings and experiences and to generally communicate (Jones & LeBaron, 2002). It is the most common form of communication as people typically interact with each other through the use of spoken and written language. In contrast, nonverbal communication occurs when messages are transmitted between speaker and listener through nonverbal cues such as body language, facial expressions and eye contact. As stated by Jones and LeBaron (2002), “when people talk, they also locate their bodies, assume various postures, direct their eyes and perhaps move their hands” (p. 499), all of which add meaning to the verbal utterances. Consequently, verbal and nonverbal communication are not independent of each other; they unite in expressing a full meaning which would not be wholly conveyed without either of them. To illustrate, when speaking, the pitch and tone of a speaker’s voice also play a part in shaping the meaning of an utterance. For instance, although the utterance *you watched it* is a declarative sentence, it can be inferred as a question when uttered using a high pitch and intonation, thereby shaping the meaning of the utterance and the intention of the speaker. Meaning is thus transmitted through verbal and nonverbal communication, as it is not conveyed only through the words uttered. This relates to the concept that there are levels of meaning.

In verbal communication, meaning occurs on two levels: sentence level and utterance level. Sentence meaning refers to the principle that meaning is compositional in that the meaning of a sentence or utterance derives from the meaning of the individual words that make up or *compose* the sentence or utterance. This principle can be illustrated through a novel sentence such as *My TV stealthily walked into the kitchen to eat the remaining sun*, whereby

the sentence is nonsensical, yet it can be understood by virtue of knowing the meaning of the individual words it consists of. However, despite it being accurate that the meaning of a nonsensical utterance can be understood from the meaning of the words, there are external factors, such as the aforementioned nonverbal cues, that shape meaning. Another major factor in determining the meaning of an utterance is the context in which it is used. Janssen and Partee (1997) argued that the principle of compositionality assumes that meaning derives in isolation, which is incompatible with reality. They argued that meaning should be studied in context and not in isolation. Context can be defined as the “physical location and social circumstances in which a particular example of language use occurs” (Mayor & Allington, 2012, p. 6). Accordingly, utterances are interpreted differently based not only on the time and place in which they were uttered but also on the relationship between the interlocutors. In this way, the same utterance could have different meanings in different contexts. Therefore, in contrast to sentence meaning, the second level of meaning, utterance meaning, refers to the meaning that a sentence or utterance has according to the particular circumstance and context within which it was used (Riemer, 2010). In this case, meaning is not necessarily derived from the dictionary definition of the words uttered, but from the manner in which they are used in that specific context. This level of meaning is more realistic because people do not use words in a literal sense on every occasion, but often use them metaphorically or ironically. Hence, sentence meaning is related to semantics, which is the study of the meaning of words, while utterance meaning is related to pragmatics, which is the study of language use within its context. This research takes both into consideration but focuses more on pragmatics as it examines the function that utterances have within a specific context.

1.1.2. Language, Identity and Age

Language is not only a means of communication, but also serves to index an individual's identity. Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015) defined *identity* as fluid aspects of an individual or a group that are constructed through social behavior. This relation between an individual's identity and their social behavior leads to the formation of a social identity, which Kroskrity (2000, p. 111) defined as an individual's "linguistic construction of membership in one or more social groups or categories". Consequently, it is through language and the way they use it that individuals can either associate themselves with people they are similar to or dissociate themselves from people they are different from. For instance, the way people speak, in terms of their dialects and accents, index certain details about the speaker such as their ethnicity and place of origin. Furthermore, the linguistic choices speakers make often reflect their views, values and even cultural background. In these ways, as stated by Kroskrity (2000, p. 111), "language and communication are critical aspects of the production of a wide variety of identities expressed at many levels of social organization". This relationship between language and society is the concern of the field of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguists examine language use by people in various social contexts to gain insight into how different aspects of people's social identities, such as their age, gender, race, status etc., influence how they communicate and use language. This influence of social factors on language use results in the phenomena of linguistic change and linguistic variation. The former refers to permanent changes that occur in a language's features and meaning diachronically. These changes could be semantic, phonological, syntactic or orthographic as the changes occur in the form of a word's meaning, pronunciation, grammar or spelling. The second phenomenon, linguistic variation, refers to differences in the way people speak the same

language, that can be found synchronically. Furthermore, Gumperz (1971) explained that, in sociolinguistics, the interplay between language and society is studied in terms of linguistic and social variables. Linguistic variables are features of language or linguistic features that vary among individuals; they include aspects of language use such as pronunciation and diction. However, social variables are social factors that influence language and lead to linguistic variation; these include facets of individuals' social identity, such as their age, gender and ethnicity. Hence, studies in the field of sociolinguistics examine the correlation between linguistic and social variables.

One such social factor that affects the linguistic choices that people make and the way they use language is age. Age is a social variable, similar to gender and culture, that also plays a part in shaping a person's identity. Llamas et.al (2006) explained that age is a crucial factor in an individual's social behavior as it determines whether a person can drive a car, get a job, or even get married. Age also shapes the way people perceive the world around them; children and adults have different perceptions of the world, and these perceptions are "mediated through language" (Llamas et.al, 2006, p. 69). As mentioned previously, social behavior and social identity influence linguistic construction, yet it is age that shapes what individuals can and cannot do in a social sphere, thus shaping social behavior and social identity, which in turn shape language. As such, age plays a critical role not only in the way people behave socially, but also in the way they use language and communicate with others. With age come different life experiences that form different identities, which in turn lead to differences in language use. Consequently, as people grow older and communicate and interact with different people in different contexts and situations, the way they speak undergoes slight changes. One

example is from a psychological study by Pennebaker and Stone (2003), which explored the link between language use and aging. They found that with increasing age, the use of negative words, first-person pronouns and past tense verbs decreased while the use of positive words and future tense verbs increased. They asserted that this was due to the changes in personality and identity that occur as individuals grow older and attain higher cognitive complexity. Hence, language is a reflection of the self, and if the self is evolving and changing with age, then so will language. Other than this psychological study, linguistic research has been conducted that focused on the relationship between age and language, whereby they examined language use by people at different stages of life: childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age. In the field of sociolinguistics, age is studied in relation to the phenomena of linguistic change and linguistic variation. Regarding the age of childhood, studies like Payne (1980), Chambers (1992) and Roberts and Labov (1995) have investigated and found evidence of linguistic variation among children, most often in phonological form, as they acquire language through their interactions with the children and adults around them. Llamas et.al (2006) asserted that children understand that age is a factor in communication and that it affects their linguistic behavior as they speak differently to people of different ages. In terms of adolescence, it has been shown to be the age at which linguistic innovation and change occur, especially in their word choice, as they build their own vernacular (Eckert, 1998; Chambers, 2003). It is during adolescence that people begin building their own social identity, as they transition from childhood to adulthood. Research into language use during adulthood has shown that it is during this period when linguistic variation decreases and when a more standard variety is adopted. Eckert (1998) posited that this conservatism is due to adults'

entrance into the labor market where a standard variety is expected to be used in institutional sectors. Lastly, the consensus by studies on old age, such as Edwards (1992), appears to be that old age begins at the age of 60, which is the expected age of retirement. Such studies found that those who were above 60 began to deviate from the standard variety, which Eckert (1998) claimed is due to them not working and not being part of the same social network, thereby losing the need to speak in the standard variety. The present research is concerned with speakers in the adulthood stage. However, it divides adults into younger and older adults, in which the younger adults consist of speakers under the age of 35, while the older adults are middle-aged and above, though still under 60. Additionally, studies often focus on linguistic change as they take as their sample a group of speakers of a certain age and analyze their language. Then, they revisit the study after an amount of time has passed, such as two decades, to analyze people of the same age to investigate any changes that occurred in the way people of that age group speak. Llamas et.al (2006) stated that “when the speech of the ‘young’ is compared with the speech of ‘older’ speakers, age-correlated differences can reflect language change in progress or age grading” (p. 94), where the former refers to changes in language that occur over time, while the latter refers to changes that occur in the speaker’s life as they grow. As such, when studying language in correlation to age, it should be considered that as individuals progress through their lives, changes occur in their relationships, place of residence and their family and employment status among others, all of which influence their identity and thus their language (Eckert, 1998). Llamas et.al (2006) admit that the relationship between the changes in linguistic behavior and people’s progression through life is not well understood in sociolinguistics and that further studies need to

explore how people of different age groups use language, which this study aims to do.

1.1.3. Language in Teaching

As it is the primary mode of human communication, language has a pivotal role in many aspects of human life. It is prevalent in the 21st century as it is utilized in music, movies and social media. It is also employed in academic fields as research and studies are conveyed through language. One such field in which language is prevalent is pedagogy, in which teachers and lecturers use language as the medium of instruction. Language is used by teachers not only to instruct, convey information and explain concepts, but it is also used to interact and communicate with students by asking questions, giving commands and providing them with feedback. As such, language is a crucial element of any classroom, as it is the means through which teaching and learning occur. Due to it being a vital aspect of teaching, the language used by teachers has been coined Teacher Talk (TT). TT can be defined as the language used by teachers during their instruction, which consists of giving instructions, asking questions, requesting etc. According to Starr (2017), TT encompasses everything a teacher says in the classroom, including their word choice and tone in addition to the content and context of their language use. The form of the language used by teachers is different from other uses of language in that it consists of a slower rate of speech that involves pauses between utterances as well as repetitions of the same statements and questions (Chaudron, 1998). These characteristics of TT arise due to the need for teachers and lecturers to ensure that the students are comprehending and understanding the lesson. As such, the context of the classroom and the students' needs shape the type of TT. However, in all cases, TT is utilized by teachers and lecturers to increase

student engagement and participation. However, despite it being used to increase engagement, a teacher's role is to moderate the amount of TT because it is not necessarily the case that a higher amount of TT corresponds to higher student engagement. Conversely, studies like Xiao-Yan (2006) have found that a higher number of TT results in a lesser amount of student engagement, as the teachers take over the lesson by over-explaining without giving students the opportunity to respond and interact. Accordingly, it was found that students have a negative response towards their teachers' high amount of TT. Other than the amount of TT, students respond differently to the language use of their teachers and lecturers. The way in which a teacher uses language to interact with students shapes and influences the students' attitudes towards that teacher. Consequently, given that age affects the linguistic choices people make and the way they use language, then teachers and lecturers of different ages use language differently during their TT, which in turn affects the way students view their lecturers. Ultimately, TT, and language in general, are important aspects of teaching not only because they are the medium of instruction, but also because they have the potential to positively impact students' learning by motivating and empowering them.

1.1.4. Language and Teaching in Bahrain

This research is conducted in the Kingdom of Bahrain, where Arabic is the official language and is spoken as the native language of the population. However, Bahrain has become a diverse and multicultural society, where English has become widely spoken by Bahrainis as their second language. Thus, despite Arabic being the native language of Bahrainis, the ethnic diversity of Bahrain has raised the acceptance level of English being used. As the native language, Arabic is the main language used in governmental sectors

and national media in addition to being the language used as the medium of instruction in state schools. However, due to the global status of the English language as a lingua franca and its prevalent usage in academic and commercial fields, it is a compulsory subject at all educational levels in Bahrain and is the medium of instruction in private schools and universities. To shed more light on the context of this study, it is conducted at a private university, where English is used by the lecturers to instruct students and interact with them, and where students are expected to speak and write in English. More specifically, the participants of the study are English as a Foreign Language (EFL) lecturers and students, all of whom are non-native speakers of English with Arab origins. In this study, the former are observed to analyze their language use while the latter are surveyed to elicit their preferences.

1.2. Theoretical Background

As stated previously, teachers and lecturers use language to make statements, ask questions, give commands, advise etc. These can be viewed as acts that teachers perform through language. In his *Speech Act Theory*, Austin (1962) referred to such acts as speech acts. He posited that the utterances that individuals produce serve two functions: constative and performative. The former refers to the function that utterances serve when they describe things. The example of the constative function of utterances that Austin (1962) provided was statements that can either be true or false. Declarative sentences such as *I have an iPhone* serve a constative function as they merely describe reality in some way, whereby the statement can be truthful or untruthful. In contrast, the performative function of utterances refers to the speaker's performance of an action in making that utterance. Austin (1962) stated that

performatives occur when the speaker is not *describing* what they are doing but *doing* it. In other words, Austin's theory states that when people make utterances, they are *doing* things through their speech rather than merely *saying* things. Searle (1969) supported this theory by stating that "all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts" (p. 16). Accordingly, uttering a simple word like *hello* to someone constitutes the act of greeting the hearer. In this way, performatives differ from constatives in that they cannot be judged as being true or false. It also means that the essence of communication is that humans perform actions through the string of sounds they produce. Moreover, Riemer (2010) added that "we do not just use language to talk about or describe the world; we *do* things with language in order to manipulate and induce transformations in it" (p. 108). Hence, to relate to the example of a lecturer performing speech acts, a lecturer who tells the students to *read this section* is performing the act of commanding, whereby the utterance induces a transformation in the behavior of the students as they begin reading that section.

Austin (1962) elaborated on the speech act theory by stating that each utterance consists of three types of acts: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. A locutionary act refers to the production of an utterance, i.e., the act of saying something. In other words, a locutionary act is "the act of expressing the basic, literal meanings of the words chosen" (Riemer, 2010, p. 109). For instance, the lecturer's utterance of *read this section* constitutes a locutionary act, whereby the action performed though it is a command; the action that is performed through an utterance is what Austin termed an illocutionary act. Accordingly, the locutionary act can be regarded as the act *of* saying something whereas the illocutionary act can be regarded as the act

in saying something (Austin, 1962). Furthermore, the intention of the speaker when making a locution is referred to as the illocutionary force behind the locution, which in the case of the example would be to order the students to read the section. While these two acts focus on the speaker's perspective in communication, the perlocutionary act refers to the consequential effect of the illocutionary act on the listeners. The effect on the listeners can be in the form of them doing or saying something or simply feeling or thinking in a certain way as a result of the illocutionary act performed by the speaker. To return to the previous example of a lecturer, the illocutionary act of commanding the students to read the section could cause the students to obey and begin reading the section, thereby serving as the perlocutionary act of the utterance as it influenced the actions of the listeners.

As stated previously, context plays an important role in determining meaning in communication. In the case of speech acts, context, including the status of the speakers and their relationship, determines the illocutionary force and the inference by the listener. Due to the unpredictability of human communication and the difficulty of accurately assessing a speaker's intention, Austin (1962) proposed that illocutionary acts can be better interpreted through the use of Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs). He introduced the notion of explicit performatives, which are performative utterances that consist of performative verbs that serve to explicitly indicate the illocutionary force behind the locution. For instance, the locutions *I promise you* and *I warn you* explicitly state that the speaker is promising and warning respectively. However, one issue is that speakers do not typically speak using explicit performatives. In addition, locutions with a clear illocutionary force could be made in an inappropriate situation. To emphasize the importance of context,

the sociologist Bourdieu (1991) provided an example of a soldier giving an order to his captain, whereby the illocutionary force is clear yet inappropriate to the context. To rectify this, Searle (1969) formulated four felicity conditions that illocutions must conform to in order to be successful and appropriate. The first condition is referred to as propositional content, wherein the contents of the locution must be sensible and achievable by the speaker. For instance, a speaker cannot make a promise on behalf of another individual; the promise should be about a future act that the speaker commits themselves to. The second condition is the preparatory condition, which states that prerequisites exist that make the utterance likely to occur in a conventional situation. The third condition is the sincerity condition, which requires the speaker to be honest and genuinely be willing to fulfill the act they perform. The fourth condition is the essential condition, whereby by producing the locution, the speaker is obligated to carry out the act. The issue with requiring these felicity conditions to be met is that speech acts, and human communication in general, are not always directly and explicitly conveyed. Searle (1975) elaborated on this issue by explaining that, in many cases, there is no correspondence between the form of the utterance and the function it is intended to serve. Searle referred to these as indirect speech acts. This can be illustrated through an utterance like *Isn't it cold in here?*, which is in the form of an interrogative sentence. However, its function is not necessarily to ask a question; the speaker could intend to indirectly and politely request another person to turn off the air conditioner. In this way, despite the locution being in the form of a question, the illocutionary force behind the locution is that of a request. The concept of indirect speech acts is related to the aforementioned notions of sentence meaning and utterance meaning, whereby the sentence meaning or literal meaning of the utterance *Isn't it cold in here?* is as a yes/no question,

whereas the utterance meaning depends on the context of the utterance and the intention of the speaker. Similar to how the meaning of an utterance differs from the literal meaning of the words uttered, the illocutionary force differs from the literal meaning of the locution. Furthermore, in some cases, different locutions can be used by a speaker to achieve the same illocutionary force. For instance, to build on the previous example, a speaker could say *Can you turn off the AC?*, which would have the same illocutionary force as *Isn't it cold in here?* despite it being a different locution. Conversely, the same locution can serve different functions (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). *Isn't it cold in here?* can be a question, a complaint or even a request for something other than to turn off the air conditioner, such as to pass the blanket. Ultimately, to reiterate, TT consists of speech acts performed by the teacher or lecturer during their instruction. Thus, the context of the classroom and the relationship between instructor and student influences the illocutionary act and subsequent perlocutionary effect of TT; this serves as the backdrop of this study.

1.3. Research Problem

Based on Basra and Thoyyibah (2017), Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) and Haidari (2023b), the speech acts performed by teachers and lecturers during their TT have an effect on students. Consequently, students have their own preferences and attitudes towards those speech acts, such that if students have a negative reaction or perception towards their lecturer's speech acts, they will be less willing to engage with the lecturer and participate in the lesson. Furthermore, since age is a factor in the way people communicate, then it follows that lecturers of different ages could potentially use language differently in the classroom leading to students reacting differently to lecturers of different ages. Thus, given the prevalent use of speech acts in the classroom,

it becomes crucial that lecturers perform appropriate illocutionary acts that have the intended perlocutionary effect on the students. The types of illocutionary acts and the frequency with which they are performed contribute to the students' willingness to participate in the lesson and their attitude toward their lecturer. This research takes age as its social variable and speech acts as its linguistic variable, thereby serving as the study's independent and dependent variables respectively. It investigates the extent to which younger and older lecturers differ in their performance of speech acts in addition to the students' perception of the speech acts performed by their lecturers in relation to their age group.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The following are the objectives of this research:

1. To investigate the extent to which younger and older lecturers differ in their performance of speech acts and, by extension, their interactions with students.
2. To identify the types and frequency of speech acts based on Searle's (1979) classifications.
3. To determine students' attitudes towards their younger and older lecturers' speech acts to shed light on whether they prefer speech acts when performed by younger or older lecturers.

1.5. Significance of the Study

In terms of the significance of this study, achieving these objectives enables it to contribute to the literature by specifically investigating the use of speech acts in relation to the age of the speakers. In the current literature, speech acts have been examined in various contexts such as in political speeches

(Alinezhad & Nemati, 2019), social media (Ramanathan et.al, 2020) and in everyday communication in the case of apologizing (Chamani, 2014). In the field of pedagogy, studies like Zayed (2014), Basra and Thoyyibah (2017), Azhari et.al (2018), Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) and Suryandani and Budasi (2022) have studied speech acts in relation to TT. However, these studies conducted a case study of a single lecturer with no correlation being drawn between their speech acts and a social variable. In response to that gap in the literature, Haidari (2023b) conducted speech act analysis of university lecturers in correlation to their gender. However, a gap in the literature still exists for studies that relate speech acts as a linguistic variable with age as a social variable. This research contributes to the literature and fills that gap by determining the correlation between a lecturer's age and the speech acts they perform during their TT in addition to considering students' perspectives by determining their attitudes towards lecturers of different ages. This study also sheds light on whether EFL university students in Bahrain prefer the speech acts of younger or older lecturers, which could help universities in Bahrain make decisions on the age group of lecturers they hire.

1.6. Research Questions

To effectively achieve these objectives, the following research questions are tackled:

1. To what extent do the types of illocutionary acts performed in English by EFL university lecturers in Bahrain differ between younger and older lecturers?
2. To what extent does the frequency of illocutionary acts performed in English by EFL university lecturers in Bahrain differ between younger and older lecturers?

3. To what extent do students' attitudes to the illocutionary acts differ between younger and older EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?

1.7. Scope of the Study

In terms of the scope of the study, the social variable that is measured is age. However, it should be noted that there are other social variables, such as gender and ethnicity, that might also shape the participants' speech acts, but that are outside the scope of this research. This should be taken into consideration when reading the results.

1.8. Definition of Terms

Speech Acts: actions that are carried out through speaking. Austin (1962) explained that when people make utterances, they are *doing* things through their speech rather than merely *saying* things. *Linguistic Variation*: defined by Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015, p. 410) as "a term used to describe the different linguistic forms which can be used to express the same denotational meaning". *Social Variable*: social factors that influence language and lead to linguistic variation; these include facets of individuals' social identity, such as their age, gender and ethnicity. The social variable studied in this research is age. *Linguistic Variable*: linguistic features that vary among individuals; they include aspects of language use such as pronunciation and diction. The linguistic variable studied in this research is speech acts.

In the speech act theory, there are three types of acts that are present in every utterance. *Locutionary Act*: according to Austin (1962), a locutionary act refers to the production of an utterance, i.e., the act of saying something. *Illocutionary Act*: Austin (1962) defined it as the action that is performed through an utterance. These can include the acts of greeting, promising,

asking etc. *Perlocutionary Act*: Riemer (2010, p. 430) stated that in Austin's speech act theory, a perlocutionary act is "the act of producing an effect in the hearer by means of the utterance". Searle (1979) developed a framework to classify illocutionary acts based on five functions. *Declaratives*: illocutionary acts that result in a change in a state or situation in the real world (Yule, 1996). *Directives*: illocutionary acts that require someone else to do something (Searle, 1979). They include the acts of commanding, asking and requesting. *Representatives*: illocutionary acts that represent and state the speaker's views and beliefs (Searle, 1979). They include the acts of asserting, stating and informing. *Expressives*: illocutionary acts through which the speaker's emotions are expressed. They can be "statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow" (Yule, 1996, p. 53). They include the acts of thanking and apologizing. *Commissives*: illocutionary acts that commit the speaker to a future act. They include the acts of promising, warning and refusing.

Teacher Talk: Starr (2017, p. 29) explained that "Teacher-Talk is everything that a teacher says in the classroom. This includes content, context, tone and vocabulary". This research aims to identify the five functions of illocutionary acts as present in *Teacher Talk*.

1.9. Organization of Thesis

This research is divided into six chapters. This introduction serves as the first chapter, as it presents the contextual background, theoretical background and details related to the research. It provides details regarding the context surrounding this research, an overview of the linguistic theory that the research is based on, and it provides details on the research problem being tackled as well as the objectives of this research and its research questions.

Chapter two further explains the theoretical framework adopted in this research. It also presents a review of the literature in the form of studies that were previously conducted and that are pertinent to this current research.

Chapter three provides details regarding the methods and procedures implemented in this research. It describes the research approach of the study, its sample and it explains the methods and procedures of data collection and analysis and the reasoning behind their selection.

Chapter four highlights the findings and results of the data collection process in the form of figures and tables.

Chapter five serves as a discussion and analysis of the findings of this research. It also tackles and answers the research questions. Additionally, it relates the results of this research to those of the previous studies.

Chapter six outlines the conclusions that were reached in this research as a result of the analysis. It also details the limitations of the research, before providing recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Chapter Two

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical framework that serves as the basis for data analysis in the present study. It also showcases relevant studies that are concerned with similar concepts as the present study and those that applied the same theoretical framework. The chapter begins with an explanation of different theoretical frameworks that can be adopted to classify and categorize illocutionary acts, before discussing Searle's (1979) classifications of illocutionary acts as the theoretical framework adopted in this research and how the illocutionary acts were analyzed through Conversation Analysis. Subsequently, the studies in the literature review are divided into thematic subsections including the relationship between language and age and their relationship in the context of teaching and learning. Next, the focus shifts to studies conducted on speech acts in various contexts, before delving into speech acts within the context of teaching and how they impact students. Finally, studies that implemented speech act classifications such as that by Searle (1979) in the context of EFL classrooms are reviewed.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

After the conception of the speech act theory by Austin (1962), several linguists and philosophers developed taxonomies and frameworks through which illocutionary acts can be identified and classified. One example of such a taxonomy was developed by Bach and Harnish (1979), who proposed four types of illocutionary acts: constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgments. First, they defined constatives as illocutionary acts through

which speakers express their beliefs and intentions as well as the desire to convince the hearer of having the same belief. Constatives consist of acts such as informing, describing and asserting. Second, directives are illocutionary acts through which the speaker expresses their attitudes towards an action with the intention that the hearer performs that action by means of the utterance. Examples of directives include requesting, asking and advising. Third, commissives refer to utterances that indicate the speaker's intention that this utterance obligates them to a future act, such as the acts of promising and offering. Finally, acknowledgments “express feelings regarding the hearer or, in cases where the utterance is clearly perfunctory or formal, the speaker's intention that his utterance satisfy a social expectation to express certain feelings and his belief that it does” (Bach & Harnish, 1979, p. 41). They include acts such as greeting, accepting and rejecting.

The theoretical framework applied in this study is the categorization of illocutionary acts proposed by Searle (1979). Searle further elaborated on the speech act theory by categorizing illocutionary acts into five types based on their functions: declaratives, directives, representatives, expressives and commissives. First, declaratives occur when the locutions lead to a change in a state or situation in the real world (Yule, 1996). One example is when a wedding officiant utters the phrase, *I now pronounce you husband and wife*, thereby changing the status of the individuals involved. Thus, the illocutionary force behind the locution led to a change in their status as husband and wife. Second, directives occur when the speaker expresses what they want to be done. Directives are locutions that *direct* the addressee, and they require someone else to do something. Examples of directives include the illocutionary acts of commanding, ordering, requesting or suggesting for

someone to do something. Moreover, directives also include asking someone questions or giving them advice. In all cases, directives involve listeners who take action as a result of the locution, such as the aforementioned example of a lecturer telling their student to *read this section*, which is requiring students to perform an action. Third, representatives occur when the locutions represent the speaker's views and beliefs. Representatives come in the form of assertions, claims or statements of facts and opinions, and they consist of the speech acts of informing, stating and explaining, such as the locution *Science is interesting*. Fourth, expressives are locutions that relay the speaker's emotions. They include expressions of joy or sadness, likes or dislikes or any locutions that express how the speaker feels, and they can occur in the form of the speech acts of thanking, praising, congratulating or apologizing. Lastly, commissives refer to the illocutionary acts that commit the speaker to a future act and reveal their intention behind something they plan to do in the future. Commissives consist of the speech acts of promising or warning, where the utterance of the locution commits the speaker to a future action, such as the locution *I will call you after my meeting*. These five categorizations of illocutionary acts serve as the theoretical framework upon which the data in this research are analyzed.

The taxonomy proposed by Bach and Harnish (1979) was not adopted for this research because it viewed illocutionary acts through the lens of the speaker's attitudes and intentions, and more crucially, on the hearer's recognition of the speaker's attitude and intention, wherein the perlocutionary effect only occurs when the hearer "forms the corresponding attitude that the speaker intended him to form" (Bach & Harnish, 1979, p. 39). Thus, Bach and Harnish (1979) classified illocutionary acts based on the different types of attitudes that they

believed speakers could have, which could be viewed as being extralinguistic. In contrast, Searle (1979) built his taxonomy according to the linguistic functions of the utterances. That is, Searle's focus was more linguistic in nature, as the illocutionary acts are classified based on the functions they serve during the conversations. Searle's taxonomy was selected and adopted for this research because it offered a clearer distinction between the types of illocutionary acts, which made it simpler to distinguish between and classify different illocutionary acts in accordance with the context. Conversely, it would have been vaguer and more ambiguous to adopt Bach's and Harnish's taxonomy due to not only the need to identify the speaker's attitude, but also due to the need for the hearer's to also recognize the speaker's attitude and intention.

One taxonomy that is similar to that by Searle (1979) is that by Alston (2000). Alston proposed a taxonomy that also had five categories to classify illocutionary acts: exercitives, assertives, directives, commissives and expressives. Alston (2000) admitted that their taxonomy was highly influenced by Searle's and that they are modifying it. One such modification included replacing Searle's declaratives with exercitives, which are defined as illocutionary acts that intend to produce a conventional effect. The reason for not adopting this framework in this research is because the definition of exercitives is open to interpretation and overlaps with other categories because it is in the nature of illocutionary acts to produce an effect in the hearer, which is what Austin (1962) termed perlocutionary act. Another modification made by Alston (2000) was changing representatives to assertives. Alston defined assertives as utterances through which the speaker puts forth a proposition as true. The argument against this is that assertives rely on the sincerity

condition, whereby the speaker is assumed to be speaking truthfully. In contrast, Searle's representatives are utterances that represent the speaker's view, regardless of whether they are true or not, which is a more direct and clearer way of classifying illocutionary acts. Thus, this is another reason for adopting Searle's (1979) taxonomy over Alston's (2000).

While the illocutionary acts in this research are classified according to the framework proposed by Searle (1979), they are analyzed and identified through the framework of Conversation Analysis (CA) that was developed by Sacks et al. (1974). CA is adopted in this research to analyze lecturers' utterances and to identify their illocutionary acts in accordance with their usage within the context of the classroom. In this way, CA is used alongside Searle's (1979) framework to identify and classify illocutionary acts.

2.2. Literature Review

2.2.1. Language and Age

Masruddin et.al (2023) examined the role of age in language use and communication in terms of the politeness strategies speakers employ. The aim of the research was to determine the extent to which age impacts the linguistic choices people make, taking into consideration the age of the speaker and listener. The researchers applied Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework to identify the politeness strategies used. According to this framework, there are four politeness strategies that speakers can adopt: bald on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record. First, the bald on-record strategy occurs when the speaker has no regard for saving their face or not threatening the listener's face, instead, they directly and explicitly state their message. Second, positive politeness refers to speakers' avoidance of

threatening the listener's positive face by making statements that do not harm the listener's self-esteem. Third, negative politeness occurs when speakers avoid imposing things on the listener by making their statements less forceful through apologies or hedging devices. Finally, the off-record strategy is the most indirect and thus the politest strategy. It occurs when speakers completely avoid any face threatening statements, wherein they resort to implying their meaning which requires the listener to infer it. Data was collected by providing 15 participants with a questionnaire, through which the participants were presented with different situations that would require them to communicate using one of the politeness strategies. The situations included social interactions with friends, strangers, coworkers and parents. The findings showed that, when interacting with friends of the same age, the participants tended to use positive politeness and a casual and informal speech style. However, if those friends were younger or older than the speaker, they used positive politeness to a lesser extent and instead adopted negative politeness more often to save their own and the listener's face. Furthermore, when communicating with strangers, the participants used negative politeness, especially with older strangers, although they used it less with strangers of the same age as they adopted positive politeness with them. Lastly, with both coworkers and parents, it was found that power dynamics played a role in the interactions. Those in a superior position, parents and employers, preferred to use positive politeness when interacting with their subordinates, whether children or employees. Conversely, the latter two tended to adopt negative politeness when communicating with their superiors as the employees used a formal speech style with their employers. Masruddin et.al (2023) concluded by highlighting the pattern that people who engaged with older listeners, whether friends, coworkers or strangers, preferred to use

negative politeness, whereas when they engaged with people of the same age, especially friends and strangers, they adopted a positive politeness strategy.

Bashir (2022) explored the correlation between the age of speakers and their performance of the speech act of requesting. The aim of the study was to examine the politeness strategies speakers of different ages adopt when requesting based on the framework of politeness strategies developed by Brown and Levinson (1987). To collect data, the researcher selected a sample of 168 participants that included 83 males and 85 females of different professions who were divided into three age groups: 18 to 30 years old, 31 to 45 years old and 46 to 60 years old. The participants completed a discourse completion test that placed them in scenarios in which they would have to perform the speech act of requesting, including situations where they would request from a friend, their boss and a subordinate. The findings indicated that when requesting from friends, participants of all three age groups used the bald on-record strategy the most, which suggests that they tend to be direct and straightforward with people they have a close relationship with. However, the results varied in proportion as 46.2% of the oldest age group preferred bald on-record, while only 35% of the younger and middle-aged groups preferred it, as they also tended to adopt off-record as their second strategy to use with friends. In terms of requesting from their boss, all age groups employed a negative politeness strategy with similar proportions, so as to avoid making forceful requests with their bosses. Lastly, when the scenarios required participants to request from their driver, all age groups selected a bald on-record strategy as their first strategy. However, the youngest age group employed this strategy at a significantly higher proportion. Therefore, Bashir (2022) concluded that age does not influence the request strategy speakers

adopt. The results indicate that other social and contextual factors, such as power relations and social status, have a bigger influence on the speech act of requesting, as the participants appeared to adopt negative politeness with seniors and bald on-record with friends and subordinates.

2.2.2. Language and Age in Teaching

Martin and Shoho (2000) explored the relationship between the age of teachers and their classroom management style. The study aimed to investigate the extent to which classroom management perceptions of teachers of different ages differ based on the hypothesis that age could be a factor in affecting teachers' perceptions of the style of classroom management to adopt. Subsequently, the study aimed to determine the correlation between the age of the teacher and their perception of classroom management styles. The researchers define classroom management as consisting of three dimensions: instructional management, people management and behavior management. They suggested that these dimensions reflect a teacher's classroom management style in terms of their instruction, communication and discipline. First, instructional management includes completing the material within the allotted time, monitoring students' seating arrangements and the procedural instructions given to students that form the classroom atmosphere. Second, people management refers to the relationship that a teacher has with their students and the way they interact with their students. Lastly, behavior management involves the rules that teachers establish to manage students' behavior and prevent misbehavior inside the classroom. To represent teachers of different ages, the researchers selected as their sample a mixture of student teachers, novice teachers with alternative certification (AC) and experienced teachers who were traditionally certified (TC). Data was collected from 388

participants, whose ages ranged from 21 to 58 years old, through a questionnaire that presented the participants with statements and a scale to determine their perceptions towards the three dimensions of classroom management. The study found that there lacked a significant correlation between the age of teachers and their perception towards instructional and behavioral management. In other words, regardless of age, most teachers agreed on issues related to instructing and disciplining students. However, it was found that there was a link between age and people management in that younger teachers focused more on building positive teacher-student relationships than older teachers did. Martin and Shoho (2000) stated that the findings suggest that as teachers become older, they become stricter in the dimension of people management, which, according to the researchers, could be due to life experience or teaching experience.

Martin and Smith (1990) investigated the influence of the age and gender of teachers on students' perception of teaching ability. The researchers collected data by surveying ten seventh graders by showing them pictures of 13 male and 13 female teachers of three different age groups: young, middle-aged and old, where the photographs consisted of young male, young female, middle-aged male, middle-aged female, old male and old female teachers. Subsequently, the students were asked to rate and evaluate the teachers' abilities in terms of their organization, classroom management, motivation of students, imagination and communication skills. The findings revealed that, according to the students' perception, the age of the teachers was not a factor in their motivation of students, communication and competency. However, the students perceived that the middle-aged teachers were more effective in the areas of organization and imagination. Furthermore, the findings also revealed

that gender was only a factor in the area of organization as the students perceived that the female teachers were more organized than their male counterparts. Martin and Smith (1990) concluded that there is no correlation between the age and gender of teachers in terms of teaching ability, but that students generally perceived that female teachers and middle-aged teachers were more effective teachers.

Shah and Udgaonkar (2018) investigated students' perspectives on the gender and age of their teachers with the aim of uncovering the impact of gender and age on the teaching and learning process. In doing so, a questionnaire was given to a sample of 75 students to elicit their preferences regarding the gender and age of their teachers as well as the reasoning behind their preferences. First, in terms of gender, it was found that 44% of the participants preferred female teachers, whereas only 27% of the participants preferred male teachers. The remaining 29% of the respondents were neutral, suggesting that the gender of the teacher makes no difference for them. The higher number of students who preferred female teachers commented that they do so because they perceive female teachers as being polite, hardworking and sincere. Second, regarding the age of the teachers, the findings showed that 44% of the students preferred young teachers, while 43% of them preferred older teachers, thus indicating that there is no significant difference between the preferences towards either age group. Additionally, 13% of the students responded that age is not a factor for them, as they had no age preference. Finally, the findings suggested that factors beyond gender and age have bigger importance to the students. The students commented that the teacher's explanation, knowledge of the subject matter and classroom management outweigh their gender and age preferences. Therefore, Shah and Udgaonkar

(2018) concluded that despite having a clear preference for female teachers and a slight preference for younger teachers, there are other factors that take precedence over gender and age in relation to students' perceptions.

Joye and Wilson (2015) explored the factors that influence student evaluations of undergraduate students. More specifically, they aimed to examine how the gender and perceived age of the professors affect student evaluations in terms of teaching effectiveness, rapport with students and academic performance. To this end, the researchers collected data from a sample of 308 undergraduate participants by showing them four images of a young adult male, young adult female, older adult male and older adult female instructors taken from stock images found on the internet. The viewing of the images was accompanied by the same lecture in audio form, as the participants were quizzed on the content of the lecture to measure their academic performance. Data was collected from the quiz results and from a questionnaire given to the participants, in which they evaluated the teaching effectiveness of each professor on the basis of them encouraging questions, being organized, explaining concepts and having good rapport with students. Regarding teaching effectiveness, the results indicated that students rated male professors as being more effective than their female counterparts, whether young or old. However, it was shown that younger professors were viewed as being more effective teachers than older professors. In terms of building student rapport, female professors and young professors were viewed as being more supportive and having stronger relationships with students. Finally, pertaining to their academic performance, it was found that students achieved the highest grades on the quiz with the older female professor, which did not align with their perceptions of teaching effectiveness. Joye and Wilson (2015) concluded that factors such as gender

and age are likely to influence students' evaluations of their university professors.

Bassey (2016) conducted a study on the effect of the age of university lecturers on their teaching effectiveness according to students' perception. The study aimed to gain insight into students' perception of whether the age of their lecturers impacts their effectiveness in teaching. To achieve this aim, data was collected through a questionnaire in the form of a student evaluation form that was distributed to 3,800 undergraduate students at a Nigerian university. The questionnaire asked students to evaluate the teaching effectiveness of lecturers of four different age groups: 20-30 years-old, 31-40 years-old, 41-50 years-old and above 51 years-old. Bassey (2016) found that the students preferred the teaching methods and classroom management style of lecturers who were above 51 years old as they believed that those lecturers employed more effective teaching methods and management skills. Similar results were found in other areas such as communication skills, subject knowledge, the ability to motivate students and assessment methods, which suggests that the younger the age of the lecturers, the less preferable they were in teaching effectiveness according to the students. Bassey (2016) concluded that age was a large factor in teaching effectiveness as with age comes more experience, more training and thus better ability. The results of Bassey (2016) are compared to this study's findings when determining whether the students in Bahrain also prefer the methods employed by their older lecturers.

2.2.3. Speech Acts

Chamani (2014) investigated the use of speech acts by Iranian men and women. More specifically, the research was concerned with the performance of the act of apologizing. The research aimed to find a correlation between the

gender of the speaker and their act of apologizing to determine if gender affects the speech act and whether there are gender differences in the way Iranian men and women apologize. In addition to gender, the research also aimed to examine the effect of other social variables like social distance and social status on the apologies of men and women. The data, which was in the form of 500 apology exchanges, was collected through ethnographic observations as the researcher noted down the exchanges as they naturally occurred in real-life situations around her. The researcher adopted a framework developed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) to analyze the apology exchanges and determine the strategies used to express apology. Through this framework, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) suggested that, to express their apology, people utilize one of five strategies upon recognizing that they have committed an offense. The first strategy is to explicitly state their apology through a performative verb like *I apologize*. Second, they attempt to explain and justify their offense by providing a reason. Third, individuals can accept the blame and take responsibility for the offense they committed. The fourth strategy is to offer a solution to rectify the problem they caused, while the fifth strategy is to promise that they will not commit the same offense again. In addition to the recorded apology exchanges, Chamani (2014) also provided participants with a form to collect information regarding their social distance and social status. Chamani (2014) found that the frequency with which men and women performed the act of apologizing was similar, indicating that gender did not influence the frequency of apologies. Additionally, it was found that both men and women utilized the same strategies in conveying their apologies. Social variables other than gender, such as relative power and social distance, also affected the use of apologies. The findings suggested that women apologized more frequently to their female friends and to people of

higher social status, whereas men apologized more to male strangers and to people of lower status.

Anyanwu and Abana (2020) conducted speech act analysis of public speeches delivered by three African presidents (Buhari, Akufo-Addo and Ramaphosa) during the Covid-19 pandemic. The aim of the research was to investigate how these presidents used language to convey information regarding the pandemic to the general public. To achieve this aim, the researchers analyzed their speeches to identify the constative and performative utterances the presidents produced, to then identify the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts of those utterances in addition to the felicity conditions they met to realize those utterances. The researchers defined constatives as utterances that involve declarative sentences that can be judged as being either true or false, and performatives as utterances that either explicitly or implicitly perform an action. The findings showed that the three presidents produced both constative and performative utterances, through which the former was used to inform the audience of what they have achieved, while the latter was used to perform the illocutionary acts of commanding, requesting, directing, appealing and informing the public on issues regarding Covid-19 and its effects. Furthermore, the analysis revealed that the presidents made promises related to ways they will support the citizens, which had the perlocutionary effect of comforting them. Additionally, in terms of the felicity conditions, it was found that the presidents adhered to the sincerity and essential conditions, as the researchers believed that the presidents were sincere in sending their condolences and were committed to taking the necessary steps to combat Covid-19. Anyanwu and Abana (2020) concluded that the findings are suggestive of the way politicians characteristically use language.

Ramanathan et.al (2020) conducted speech act analysis of the tweets produced by the Malaysian Prime Minister Najib Razak and the Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi, who utilized the social media application *Twitter* as a platform to share their political agendas during their election campaigns in 2013 and 2014 respectively. According to the researchers, the discourse of these two Prime Ministers was selected due to their active presence on Twitter and their reliance of it as a way of disseminating their ideas and political stances in their pursuit to persuade and convince the public to vote for them. The aim of the study was to analyze the tweets produced by Razak and Modi in order to identify the illocutionary acts performed through those tweets in accordance with Searle's (1979) categorization. The data collection process included gathering a total of 714 tweets by both candidates during their campaigns. The study found that the two dominant illocutionary acts performed by both candidates were commissives and directives. The former were conveyed through performative verbs such as *promise* and *committed* in addition to lexical choices such as *pledge* and *will*, which, according to the researchers, express to the citizens that the candidates were committed to bringing change and creating a better future. Pertaining to the latter, it was found that directives were expressed through commands that were given by the candidates to the citizens. These included words like *vote*, *share*, *follow* and *give*. Ramanathan et.al (2020) suggested that the directive illocutionary acts served to demonstrate the authority of the candidates and to influence voters to follow their instructions. The researchers concluded that their study provides insight into how the language use of political figures is crucial in establishing their power and authority, even in social platforms like Twitter.

Alinezhad and Nemati (2019) investigated the use of speech acts in political speeches. Their study aimed to identify the types of speech acts performed by the selected politicians, before classifying them based on Searle's (1979) classifications, to then determine the percentage of use for each classification. To achieve these aims, the researchers collected and analyzed 24 speeches by four politicians from the US, UK, UAE and China, each of whom was representing their respective country in the United Nations during their speeches. Regarding the study's findings, the researchers found a total of 1878 instances of speech acts being performed, of which, 818 (43.55%) were commissives. This suggests that almost half of the acts performed by the politicians were ones that committed them to a future act, such as by making promises. The second and third most common speech acts were expressives and representatives with 22.25% and 20.13% respectively. These three speech acts add up to 85.93% of the total speech acts performed during these political speeches. This indicates that a large part of political speeches involves making statements, most of which are about a future commitment, while some of which are to express opinions and make assertions about the political sphere. Lastly, the least performed acts were directives at 7.67% and declaratives at 6.40%, which suggests that the politicians did not give many orders or commands to the audience and that they did not make many statements that would change the status of a situation. These findings led Alinezhad and Nemati (2019) to conclude that the modern political world does not accept politicians who have dictatorial authority, through which they can order people around and use their authority to make declarations. Instead, politicians aim to build rapport and peaceful connections with the public to get their support, which they achieve through commissives and expressives rather than through directives and declaratives.

Rashed (2020) conducted a pragmatic analysis of EFL classes at Baghdad University to investigate the performance of the speech act of request by EFL students. The study aimed to examine the types of requests performed by the students as well as the pragmatic functions of those requests. Classroom observations and video recordings were employed as the methods of data collection in order to collect instances of real requests performed by the students within the classroom. A total of 28 lessons were observed among five EFL classrooms, wherein the student participants' native language was Arabic. The findings showed that students performed direct requests at a significantly higher rate than indirect requests. The most common sub-type of direct requests used by the students was the imperative request, through which the students utter the request in the form of an imperative sentence. In terms of the indirect requests, it was found that students tended to use the preparatory sub-type, which prepared the hearer for the request about to be indirectly performed. Rashed (2020) suggested that the higher rate of direct requests was due to the students having a good relationship with each other, leading to a higher acceptance level for directness. On the other hand, Rashed (2020) also suggested that the indirect requests were a result of the students' Arabic culture, where indirect requests are seen as being more polite. In terms of the pragmatic functions of the requests, the researcher found that the students commonly made requests for clarification, to express their needs, to ask for permission, to ask for confirmation and to ask for help. Ultimately, Rashed (2020) concluded that EFL teachers should emphasize the need for students to perform requests inside the classroom to improve their pragmatic competence and to perform requests more appropriately in real situations outside the classroom.

2.2.4. Speech Acts in Teaching

El-Dakhs et.al (2019) conducted pragmatic analysis of TT by university lecturers in Saudi Arabia, in which they aimed to examine the realization of the speech act of criticizing as done by university lecturers when they interact with their students in the classroom. The researchers defined an individual's act of criticizing as an expression of dissatisfaction or disapproval of another individual's actions that serves as a negative evaluation of that action in hope of improving future actions. In this case, criticism occurs when a teacher gives negative feedback to a student due to their action not adhering to classroom or institutional standards. To this end, the researchers aimed to investigate the manner in which university lecturers perform the speech act of criticizing in terms of the strategies they adopt when doing so. Furthermore, the study aimed to determine the extent to which the social variables of gender and teaching experience affect the lecturers' act of criticizing. In terms of data collection, a sample of 60 university lecturers were selected. The sample consisted of 30 male and 30 female lecturers of different nationalities and ethnicities with a wide range of ages and teaching experience. The data was collected by presenting the participants with ten role-play scenarios which place them in hypothetical situations that lecturers tend to be in with their students, such as being absent, attending a class late or submitting an assignment late. The participants were required to react to the situations as they naturally would. The responses were categorized as either being direct or indirect strategies of criticism, where the former refers to the explicit mention of the problem caused by the students' actions, while the latter refers to the teacher implying that a problem has been caused due to the students' actions. The results of the role-plays revealed that the lecturers preferred to criticize using indirect strategies as 53.3% of the responses were indirect criticisms.

Additionally, the most common function of the indirect strategies was to demand change from the students, while the least common function was to give them a hint. On the other hand, the lecturers who employed direct strategies tended to explicitly show the students the consequences of their actions, whereas they less frequently gave a negative evaluation or disapproval, which suggests that even the lecturers who employed direct strategies of criticism tended to be less extreme. However, it was found that the lecturers were more likely to adopt direct criticism when the situation was more severe, such as when a student plagiarized or cheated. Moreover, pertaining to the gender of the lecturers, it was found that male lecturers tended to be more direct by giving negative evaluation, while female lecturers were more indirect by demanding change. It was also discovered that teaching experience had minimal impact on the directness of criticism, except for certain situations where the more experienced lecturers tended to give more hints to students who missed deadlines. Ultimately, El-Dakhs et.al (2019) concluded that the lecturers attempted to provide criticism to their students while still maintaining a positive teacher-student relationship, as indicated by the higher amount of indirect criticism.

Armistany and Zamzani (2019) investigated the functions of speech acts that are produced by teachers. The aim of the study was to determine the frequency of the different functions that speech acts served during the classroom interactions that occur between teachers and students. To determine the function of the speech acts, the researchers adopted Searle's (1979) classification. The method of data collection employed in this study was observation, as it enabled the researchers to take note of the teachers' speech acts during the learning process. The results of the observations showed that

the teachers performed all five functions as classified by Searle. Armistany and Zamzani (2019) stated that the teachers performed representatives by stating facts and by complaining; they performed directives by commanding the students and giving them advice; they performed expressives when they greeted the students and by praising them for answering correctly. The teachers were also found to perform commissive illocutionary acts by promising students and offering them something. Lastly, the least performed function by the teachers was declarative, through which the teacher made an utterance that changed the status of the classroom from noisy to quiet. In contrast, the most frequently performed function was that of directives as the teacher was observed as giving commands more often than any other act. Armistany and Zamzani (2019) concluded their study by recommending that in order to facilitate a more engaging classroom environment, teachers should maintain their higher use of directives as they functioned to give students opportunities to think and respond to questions asked by the teacher.

Haidari (2023a) conducted a case study of five primary school teachers in Bahrain to analyze the speech acts they performed during their TT. The aim of the research was to identify the different types of illocutionary acts the teachers performed in addition to the frequency with which they performed each type. The study also aimed to determine if the age of the students influenced the types and frequency of the illocutionary acts. Through the qualitative methods of observation and recording, in addition to adopting Conversation Analysis, it was found that during TT, the teachers performed the acts of asking, encouraging, requesting, refusing, warning, commanding and stating. Subsequently, through the use of Excel, the act of commanding was identified as being the most frequently performed illocutionary act at

46%, with asking and stating following it at 17% and 16% respectively. Haidari (2023a) concluded that the age of the students did not influence the types of illocutionary acts performed as the teachers who taught students of different ages performed the same types of illocutionary acts. However, it was found that the age of the students did affect the frequency, as the teachers performed the acts of encouraging and warning more frequently with younger students, whereas they made more statements with older students.

2.2.5. Impact of Speech Acts on Students

Zayed (2014) examined the practice of speech acts by both EFL students and teachers in Jordan. Through classroom observations of 30 female teachers and over one thousand students, the practice of the speech acts of apologizing, complimenting, thanking, greeting and requesting were observed and analyzed to determine the pragmatic competence of both students and teachers. Zayed referred to pragmatic competence as the usage of appropriate speech acts that are relevant to the context and culture of the speakers in addition to having the appropriate response to such speech acts. The findings showed that the act of apologizing was the least performed act as it only occurred once by a teacher during the observations. It was also revealed that the acts of complimenting and greeting were always initiated by the teachers, where the students' role was to respond as "clichés that are memorized without recognizing their real functions" (Zayed, 2014, p. 4). It was also found that teachers performed the acts of thanking and requesting at a higher rate than the students, though both sets of participants lacked pragmatic competence in these and other speech acts. This led Zayed (2014) to conclude that the "Jordanian EFL classroom does not provide the students with the chance to learn English speech acts. Teachers themselves are unable to use many forms

and responses of the speech acts” (p. 5) and that the focus should be on the functions of language to enhance pragmatic competence.

Alzebaree and Yavuz (2017) studied the performance of the speech acts of requesting and apologizing by male and female Kurdish EFL students. The aim of the research was to compare the strategies used by these students when requesting and apologizing with those of native speakers to then determine the pragmatic competence of the male and female EFL students. The researchers defined pragmatic competence as the ability to communicate appropriately in social circumstances. Hence, the research investigated Kurdish EFL students’ ability to communicate appropriately as measured in comparison to native speakers of English. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was employed to collect data from 83 students and 14 native speakers, in which the participants were required to place themselves into conversational circumstances that require them to apologize or make requests. The researchers adopted two frameworks as part of their data analysis: Trosberg’s (1995) framework was used to classify requests and Olshtain and Cohen’s (1983) framework was used to categorize the apology strategies. Firstly, according to Trosberg (1995), there are three types of requests: direct, conventionally indirect and indirect. When there is a direct relationship between the form and function of the utterance, it is called a direct request. In contrast, an indirect request occurs when there is no explicit indication from the form of the utterance that it is a request. Thus, indirect requests are interpreted through contextual clues surrounding the interlocutors. However, a conventionally indirect request is one in which the speaker’s intention differs from the literal meaning of the utterance. Second, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) proposed that apologies can be conveyed by explicitly expressing them, by

providing an explanation, acknowledging responsibility, offering a solution or by promising not to repeat it. Accordingly, Alzebaree and Yavuz (2017) found that, in terms of requests, the EFL students utilized direct requests more frequently than native speakers did. Additionally, in terms of apologies, it was found that the students and native speakers alike tended to use the strategy of offering an explanation for the offense they committed. Among the students themselves, it was found that female students made more indirect requests, whereas the male students made more direct requests. Moreover, regarding the act of apologizing, both male and female students relied on explaining and justifying their offense as their main strategy, though the female students used the other strategies more often than the male students did. In concluding the study, the researchers stated that the EFL students possessed the pragmatic competence to appropriately perform the speech acts of requesting and apologizing.

Nasmilah (2023) conducted a quantitative study in the form of correlational analysis. The aim of the study was to examine the correlation between TT in an EFL classroom and students' attitudes toward TT. The study adopted the framework developed by Ahmadi (2002) which defined attitude on the basis of three components: cognitive, affective and behavioral. First, the cognitive component refers to an individual's thoughts, beliefs and knowledge about an object or a concept that shapes their attitude toward it. Second, the affective component is the aspect of an individual's attitude that is determined by their emotions and feelings toward an object or concept. Finally, the behavioral component of one's attitude is associated with the way they act and react toward something when dealing with it. Accordingly, the study was concerned with how TT in the EFL classroom relates and shapes students' attitudes in

terms of these three components. The researcher collected data by distributing a questionnaire to a sample of 160 students from two high schools in Indonesia. The questionnaire was designed to present the students with ten statements through which a score was given to reflect the respondents' attitude. The results of the questionnaire revealed that only one student out of 160 had a negative attitude toward TT in their EFL classes, while the remaining 159 students had a positive attitude toward their teacher's use of English and their learning of English. In terms of the three components of attitude, it was found that students scored the highest points in the cognitive component as the majority were in consensus that learning English and their teacher's use of it is useful for them because they are required to speak English as it is a global language. Furthermore, regarding the affective and behavioral components, the students had positive attitudes in both components as they acknowledged their desire to learn English, which influenced their behavior as they paid more attention in their English classes. Nasmilah (2023) suggested that the teachers themselves and their language use also played a part in shaping students' positive attitudes before concluding that the study affirmed the importance of TT in achieving learning outcomes, which is only successful when learners have a positive attitude.

Wirza and Sholihah (2020) examined the types of TT and the resulting speech acts performed by an EFL teacher in addition to the acts that led to students' participation. It also investigated the students' perception towards the types of speech acts performed by their teacher. The research was in the form of a case study of one EFL teacher in Indonesia along with 36 middle school students. Data was collected through six classroom observations that were videotaped and transcribed. This was to achieve the first objective of identifying the types

of speech acts and the participation level of the students. To achieve the second objective, interviews were conducted with the teacher and students to capture the students' perceptions of their teacher's language use and speech acts. The findings showed that the teacher employed two types of TT: instructional talk and management talk, which, according to the researchers, contributed to an active classroom where the students were given ample opportunities to participate. The study found that within these types of talk, the teacher was frequently asking, instructing, explaining, correcting in addition to, at a lower rate, advising, encouraging and praising students. These serve as the speech acts that were performed by the teacher during the observations. Pertaining to the students' participation, it was found that the acts that generated the most engagement were explaining and asking. The findings suggested that the students participated the most when a discussion was initiated by the teacher as he/she was explaining and when directly asking the students a question. Furthermore, the responses from the interview indicated that the students had a positive perception and attitude toward their teacher's TT and their act of initiating classroom discussions. Wirza and Sholihah (2020) concluded by recommending that EFL teachers should adopt student-centered approaches to increase student participation.

Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) conducted speech act analysis of classes in which English was used as the medium of instruction. The rationale behind the research was to explore the communicative issues that occur when teachers of different disciplines must teach the content of their subject in English. The objective of the research was to determine the types and frequency of speech acts performed by teachers using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in addition to their implications on students' learning and

engagement. To achieve these objectives, the researchers conducted a case study of four teachers who employed EMI when teaching different subjects such as Biology and Mathematics. To collect data, the researchers observed and video-recorded each participant twice to capture the speech acts they perform and the effect those acts have on students during their learning process. The recorded videos were then transcribed before adopting discourse analysis to examine the classroom interactions that occurred between teachers and students as well as to identify the types of speech acts the teachers performed during their instruction based on Searle's (1979) classifications of speech acts. In addition, another set of data was collected by interviewing the teachers to elicit their perception of the speech acts they performed. The researchers discovered that none of the teachers performed declarative speech acts during their instruction. However, the findings showed that the most common speech act performed by the teachers were representatives (42.85%), as the majority of the class consisted of the teachers providing students with factual information and descriptions as they were in the process of instructing the students. Following that, the teachers performed directive and expressive speech acts at 25.8% and 21.65% respectively. This reveals that after providing facts, the teachers asked students questions in addition to commanding and requesting them to do things. It was also observed that two of the teachers, who have more teaching experience, performed directives more frequently than the two participants with less teaching experience. Pertaining to the expressive speech acts, it was found that the teachers would often thank and praise the students, though they also were seen to apologize for making mistakes. Lastly, commissive speech acts occurred with 9.6% frequency, often towards the end of the class when the teachers inform the students of what they will accomplish in the following lesson. Moreover, from

the interviews, it was discovered that the teachers struggled with presenting their content in English due to their low proficiency, as they experienced challenges in using the appropriate terminology and to spontaneously communicate in English with their students. Finally, pertaining to the impact of the speech acts on students' engagement, it was found that the students were more engaged and active participants in the lessons delivered by the two teachers who used more directives, since those teachers asked more questions, which led to the students being more involved in the learning process.

Azhari et.al (2018) investigated the use of speech acts by EFL teachers in their TT and their interactions with students in the classroom. The researchers aimed to identify the types and determine the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by the teachers. They also aimed to determine students' level of communicative and pragmatic competence based on their performance of speech acts, thus not only examining the students' ability to communicate in English, but also the appropriateness of their speech acts within their context. In this case study, data was collected through observations of the three EFL teachers, whose ages ranged from 27 to 40, during their TT and through recordings of the teacher-student interactions as well as the student-student interactions inside and outside the classroom. Based on Searle's (1979) categorizations, the study revealed that both sets of participants performed directives, representatives, expressives and commissives, with directives and representatives being the dominant acts at 43% and 42% respectively while expressives and commissives were less frequently used at 12% and 3% respectively. Furthermore, it was found that the students correctly but inappropriately used these acts, leading Azhari et.al (2018) to conclude that they possessed communicative competence but lacked pragmatic competence,

and that EFL teachers should pay closer attention to developing students' ability to communicate accurately and appropriately in various contexts.

2.2.6. Speech Act Classifications in EFL Classrooms

Milal and Kusumajanti (2020) investigated the use of representative speech acts by an EFL teacher. The aim of the study was to identify the types of representative acts the teacher performed and the functions they served in the teaching and learning process. To collect data, the researchers conducted a case study in which a male EFL teacher was observed and video-recorded to capture the teacher-student interactions that occurred during the lesson. The video of the observation was transcribed to identify the representative acts performed by the teacher, which are statements that describe the state of affairs as believed by the speaker. The findings revealed that the teacher performed a plethora of representative illocutionary acts that included informing, explaining, describing, exemplifying and announcing a topic. Hence, one function of the representative acts was to inform students by giving them information that was new to them. Another function was to explain concepts by clarifying the meaning of terms and rephrasing sentences. In addition, the act of exemplifying served the function of elaborating on a concept by providing examples that clarify its meaning. Moreover, representative acts were employed at the beginning of the lesson to announce the topic of the lesson, and they were used at the end of the lesson to conclude and summarize the lesson by restating and repeating the facts that were established through the explanation. Milal and Kusumajanti (2020) concluded that the performance of these representative acts in EFL classrooms do not only develop students' linguistic skills but also their cognitive skills. They also

concluded that the use of such representative acts reflects the general view of teaching as the transfer of ideas from a teacher to students.

Suryandani and Budasi (2022) examined the use of directive speech acts in EFL classrooms by conducting a case study of one male and one female teacher. The researchers stated that they were interested in focusing only on directive speech acts because they play an important role in classroom interactions as teachers often perform them by giving students instructions and commands. The aim of the study was to investigate the types of directive speech acts performed as well as analyzing their functions as performed by the EFL teachers. In terms of the types, the researchers adopted Ibrahim's (1993) theory that classified directive speech acts into *questions*, *requestives*, *advisory*, *permission* and *prohibitive*. To determine the function of the acts, the researchers followed the framework developed by Amalsaleh et.al (2014), which posited that directive speech acts serve the functions of *instructing*, *threatening*, *eliciting*, *advising* and *attention-getting*. The instruments employed to collect data were observations and recordings, which took place inside the classrooms during the teaching and learning process. The findings showed that almost half of the directives performed by the teachers were questions at 46.95%, and that the most common function of directives was to elicit responses from students to have them take an active role in their own learning and to promote critical thinking.

Faturrochman et.al (2021) conducted speech act analysis of the utterances produced during TT in a high school EFL classroom. The objective of the study was to identify the types and frequency of illocutionary acts performed by the teacher. To collect data, the researchers applied observations, recordings and interviews as their instruments. The observation aimed to

examine the teacher-student interaction in the classroom, while the recording was used to transcribe the TT to be analyzed. The collected data were analyzed according to Searle's (1979) classifications of illocutionary acts. Lastly, the interview was conducted with the teacher to gain insight into their reasoning behind their speech acts. The findings showed that directives were the most commonly performed illocutionary acts as 53.68% of the teacher's utterances consisted of asking questions as well as giving requests and commands to the students. Representative acts were the second most commonly used illocutionary acts with 42.1%. This suggests that a significant portion of the teacher's utterances (95.78%) consisted of directives and representatives. Furthermore, the observed teacher only produced two expressive acts and one commissive act, with no declarative acts. Regarding the interview, the participant commented that the main reasoning behind the high number of directives was to encourage students to use the target language by responding in English. One additional finding was that the utterances that were observed as being produced by the teacher surmounted to 30.35% of all the utterances produced during the lesson, which indicates that student talk was significantly higher than teacher talk as the students spent much time speaking. Faturrochman et.al (2021) concluded that the participant was successful in encouraging students to participate through their use of directives.

Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) conducted speech act analysis of a 25-year-old, female EFL university lecturer in Indonesia. The research aimed to investigate the frequency of the illocutionary acts used by the teacher in accordance with the five categories of illocutionary acts proposed by Searle (1979), which served as the study's theoretical framework and instrument of data analysis. The data was collected through observations of the teacher, through which it

was found that 70% of the observed utterances by the lecturer were directives, as she frequently asked questions and gave commands. Furthermore, 21% of the lecturer's TT consisted of representatives, as she provided students with information through her explanation, while the remaining 9% consisted of expressives at 6% and commissives at 3%. The researchers concluded that the teaching culture in Indonesia requires teachers to ask many questions and that, in the case of their study, it helped in improving students' productive skills. Although the researchers did not focus on drawing a correlation between the teacher's illocutionary acts and their age, the age of the participant was stated, which makes the findings viable to be compared to this study's findings, as the 25-year-old teacher is part of the younger age group.

Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) conducted a case study of a 24-year-old EFL university lecturer in Indonesia. By employing observations as their main instrument, they aimed to determine the frequency of the speech acts that were performed by the lecturer based on the five classifications of speech acts proposed by Searle (1979) as well as their effect on students' learning process. Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) found that 57% of the lecturer's utterances were representatives, as the lecturer presented students with facts and statements. Additionally, it was found that the second most frequently performed illocutionary act was directives at 40%, as the lecturer asked students questions and gave them commands, followed by expressives at 2% and commissives at 1%. It was concluded that the higher frequency of statements over questions was due to the students' low level of English proficiency, which required the lecturer to elaborate on his instructions and provide further explanations. Despite the absence of an explicit correlation between their

findings and the lecturer's age, the findings are a point of comparison to this study's findings as their 24-year-old lecturer is part of the younger age group.

Haidari (2023b) conducted speech act analysis of university lecturers in Bahrain. The study aimed to determine the extent to which male and female EFL lecturers differed in the types and frequency of illocutionary acts they performed to draw a correlation between the gender of the lecturers and the speech acts they performed. It also elicited the students' attitudes towards the speech acts performed by their male and female lecturers. Haidari (2023b) employed a mixed-methods approach as data was collected through observations of a sample of one male and one female university lecturer and through a questionnaire that elicited students' preferences and attitudes. Through Conversation Analysis, the researcher identified the illocutionary acts performed by the lecturers as being those of stating, commanding, requesting, asking, warning, encouraging, thanking and promising. Upon identifying the illocutionary acts, Excel was employed to determine their frequencies in relation to Searle's (1979) classifications. Haidari (2023b) found that the female lecturer tended to perform directives such as asking and commanding, while the male lecturer tended to perform more representatives such as stating. Pertaining to students' attitudes, the questionnaire revealed that students had a more positive attitude towards speech acts performed by female lecturers than male lecturers, leading the researcher to conclude that it was due to the female lecturer's tendency to perform expressives such as thanking and encouraging.

2.3. Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical framework adopted in the present study. It also presented previous studies that are relevant to the present study. As

evident in the literature review, a gap exists as the literature lacks studies that examine the correlation between speech acts as a linguistic variable and age as a social variable. The current study contributes to the literature by investigating the effect of age on the speech acts performed by EFL university lecturers in addition to providing insight into students' attitudes towards the speech acts performed by lecturers of different age groups. Lastly, it also contributes to the literature through its context as the study is conducted in Bahrain.

CHAPTER THREE

Methods and Procedures

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Methods and Procedures

This chapter presents details regarding the methods and approaches employed in this research in the process of collecting and analyzing data. The first section states the research approach implemented in this study. The second section provides information related to the sample of the research. The third section explains the methods of data collection and the instruments applied to gather data in this research. The fourth section provides details regarding the procedures of data collection and the measures taken to ensure proper research ethics. Finally, the fifth and sixth sections present the methods of data analysis and their procedures respectively. The qualitative instrument for data analysis used in this research is Conversation Analysis (CA), while the quantitative instrument used is Microsoft Excel.

3.1. Research Approach

The research, which is in the form of a case study, adopts a mixed-methods approach of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and data analysis. The qualitative instruments used for data collection were observations and recordings, while the quantitative instrument was a questionnaire.

3.2. Sample

There were two sets of participants in this research: university lecturers and university students in Bahrain. Pertaining to the lecturers, the target population was all the university lecturers in Bahrain, however, the accessible

population was the lecturers at a private university in Bahrain where the researcher was permitted to conduct the observations. From the accessible population, a sample of six lecturers was selected and divided into two age groups. Three of the lecturers were below the age of 35 (younger) while the other three were above the age of 40 (older). These age groups were selected to find discrepancies in TT between younger lecturers who are in their late twenties and early thirties and older, middle-aged lecturers who are in their forties and fifties. As such, a purposive sampling method was employed to select lecturers based on their age. However, in some cases, convenience sampling was also used to account for cases where a potential participant could not be observed due to scheduling conflicts. The sample consisted of female EFL lecturers who are non-native speakers of English with an Arab origin, thus limiting the effect of other social variables like gender, culture and subject matter. The following table lists the sample of six lecturers who were selected as participants in this study. Note that the participants were labeled P1-P6 according to their increasing age.

Table 1

List of participants and their ages

Participant Number	Age
Participant 1 (P1)	25
Participant 2 (P2)	28
Participant 3 (P3)	34
Participant 4 (P4)	41
Participant 5 (P5)	45
Participant 6 (P6)	46

In terms of the students, the target population was all university students in Bahrain, while the accessible population was the students at the university where the observations took place. The sample consisted of the male and female EFL students whose lecturers were observed. A purposive sampling method was used as the students whose lecturers were observed were selected, since the questionnaire was based on the observations. A total of 117 students responded to the questionnaire and they serve as the sample of this study.

3.3. Methods of Data Collection

Data was collected in this study through qualitative instruments in the form of recordings and observations, and a quantitative instrument in the form of a questionnaire.

3.3.1. Observation

The research consisted of a case study of university lecturers. As such, data was collected through observations of the lecturers during their lectures. Observation was selected because it provided the researcher with the ability to examine lecturers of different age groups during their naturally occurring TT. Furthermore, observations allow for the lecturers' speech acts to be identified within the context of the classroom as the lecturers interact with their students, to then be categorized based on their context of use. Through observations, the directness and indirectness of the illocutionary acts were able to be identified in addition to their perlocutionary effect on the students.

3.3.2. Recording

The data required for this research was in the form of utterances and illocutionary acts performed by lecturers during TT. Therefore, recording was selected as an instrument because it enabled the researcher to have a record of

every utterance that occurred by the lecturer, which allowed the researcher to take note of every locution and illocutionary act performed before identifying their types. A combination of observation and recording led to a more accurate categorization of illocutionary acts as it took into account both the sentence meaning and utterance meaning within the context of the classroom.

3.3.3. Questionnaire

The other set of data collected for this research was the students' attitudes. To collect this data, a questionnaire was employed. A questionnaire was selected due to its adequacy in eliciting people's perceptions and attitudes. It enabled the researcher to present students with questions for which their response revealed their attitude toward the illocutionary acts performed by lecturers of different age groups. The questionnaire consisted of a total of 13 questions. It began with general questions about the participants such as *What is your gender?*. Then, the participants were asked more specific questions that served as the data required to tackle the research objectives. All of the questions were in the form of multiple-choice questions that enabled the participants to select options that reflected their attitudes towards the speech acts performed by younger and older lecturers.

3.4. Procedures of Data Collection

Upon receiving consent from the participant lecturers, a convenient date was agreed upon for the observations to take place. The observations were conducted during face-to-face lectures that took place on the university campus. During the observations, the researcher acted as a distant observer who did not participate in the lecture nor interact with the students. Instead, the researcher recorded the locutions produced by the lecturers, the

illocutionary acts they performed and the perlocutionary effect they had on the students in the classroom. A total of six lectures were observed, each of which lasted for two hours, resulting in a total of twelve hours of teaching. Pertaining to the recording, upon the completion of the observations, the researcher listened to the recordings to note down every utterance to then categorize them based on the categorization of speech acts proposed by Searle (1979).

As for the questionnaire, it was prepared after the observations had been completed so as to present students with relevant statements and questions that were based on the speech acts performed by the lecturers. The questionnaire was sent only to the students whose lecturers were observed. The questionnaire was created using Google Forms due to its simplicity, adequacy and accessibility. A link to the questionnaire was sent to the observed lecturer who then sent it to their students once the lecture was completed.

3.4.1. Research Ethics

In the process of data collection, research ethics were ensured by taking certain measures. First, in terms of the lecturers, each participant was approached and asked to be observed for the purpose of research. The six participants read and signed a consent form (see Appendix A) that explained the procedure of the research. Thus, the participants gave their consent to have their lectures observed and audio-recorded. Additionally, the name of the participants as well as the university they lecture at and the courses they teach are not disclosed in the study, which ascertains their anonymity. The only personal information disclosed in this research is the age of the participants, since it is an essential variable of the research. Second, regarding the

questionnaire, the students who attended the observed lectures were asked to answer the questionnaire at the end of the session. The student participants were not required to provide any personal information within the questionnaire, such as their names, age and email addresses.

3.5. Methods of Data Analysis

There were two methods of data analysis utilized in this research, each of which served a different purpose: CA and Microsoft Excel.

3.5.1. Conversation Analysis (CA)

CA is a framework formulated by sociologists Sacks et al. (1974) to analyze naturally occurring conversations within their context. CA aims to provide insight into the structure and organization of conversations. In other words, CA analyzes the structure and organization of conversations in their context (Peplow, 2016). For clarification, despite its name, CA does not only analyze conversations, but any instance of interaction and communication between individuals. In terms of structure and organization, Sacks (1992) asserted that conversations are governed by certain procedural rules or *rules of conversational sequence*, wherein people partaking in conversations naturally take turns to form a back-and-forth communication. Depending on the context of the conversation and the relationship and level formality between the interlocutors, the number of interruptions could increase or decrease, thereby determining the flow and structure of the conversation. Another element of the conversational sequence is what Sacks termed *adjacency pairs*, which are units of speech that belong together and follow one another, such as a greeting followed by a return greeting and a question followed by an answer. Liddicoat (2021) claimed that in CA, conversations are viewed as activities “through

which speakers accomplish things in interaction” (p. 4). To elaborate, Sacks’ proposition that conversations are composed of pairs of greetings or questions is aligned with the notion of speech acts in that people perform actions through their speech. Therefore, CA is an adequate and relevant method of analyzing speech acts. In this research, CA was adopted during the observation period. It was selected for the reason that it enabled the researcher to analyze the interactions taking place between the lecturers and their students to then identify the speech acts they performed within the context of the classroom. Consequently, CA allowed the researcher to observe and record locutions and their illocutionary force in addition to their perlocutionary effect on the students.

The illocutionary acts observed through CA were categorized according to the theoretical framework proposed by Searle (1979). The illocutionary acts performed by the lecturers were analyzed according to the context of the lecture in which they were performed, and subsequently categorized as representative, directive, expressive, commissive and declarative. To elaborate, the illocutionary acts performed by the lecturers that were in the form of statements of facts or opinions were categorized as representatives; the acts that required the students to perform tasks, such as commanding, requesting and asking, were categorized as directives; the acts through which the lecturers expressed their emotions, such as thanking and apologizing, were categorized as expressives; the acts through which the lecturers committed to a future act were categorized as commissives; the acts through which the lecturers changed the status of students were categorized as declaratives. These categorizations served as the theoretical basis for this research.

3.5.2. Microsoft Excel

The second instrument of data analysis was Microsoft Excel. It was employed to analyze the data quantitatively. Excel was selected because it allowed the researcher to store and organize the illocutionary acts identified through CA before calculating their frequencies. Excel also allowed the researcher to present and display the frequencies of the illocutionary acts in the form of clear charts to be used as figures in the study.

3.6. Summary

This chapter provided details regarding the methods and procedures that were applied during this research. Firstly, the sample consisted of six university lecturers and their students. Secondly, to collect data, recording and observation were the main instruments that were utilized to record the lecturers' utterances and identify their illocutionary acts, while a questionnaire was employed to gain insight into students' attitudes towards their younger and older lecturers' illocutionary acts. Finally, in terms of data analysis, CA and Microsoft Excel were used to identify the functions of illocutionary acts and calculate their frequencies respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Chapter Four

Results

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the results of the data collection process. First, it presents the data that was collected through the observation and recording of the six participant lecturers. This qualitative form of data is presented quantitatively through tables and charts to tackle the first two research questions regarding the types and frequency of illocutionary acts performed by the younger and older lecturers. Second, this chapter also presents the data gathered from the questionnaire that was distributed to the second set of participants: the students of the observed lecturers. The findings from the questionnaire provide insight into students' attitudes, which serve to answer the third research question of this research.

4.2. Types of Illocutionary Acts

As stated previously, CA was applied during the observations of the lecturers to examine their TT and to identify and classify the illocutionary acts they performed during their lessons. By observing the classroom interactions taking place between the lecturers and their students, a total of 12 types of illocutionary acts were found, as shown in the table below.

Table 2

Types of illocutionary acts

No.	Types of illocutionary acts performed by all six participants
1.	Asking questions

2.	Explaining
3.	Stating
4.	Requesting
5.	Commanding
6.	Warning
7.	Thanking
8.	Apologizing
9.	Promising
10.	Encouraging/Giving affirmation
11.	Confirming
12.	Refuting

As shown in Table 2, the lecturers performed various illocutionary acts during their lessons. The list presents all the acts performed by all six participants overall. Hence, not all of the acts were performed by all six participants. For instance, some of the participants did not perform the act of warning during the lecture observed while other participants did. As such, this list accounts for the overall illocutionary acts, while the discrepancies between the acts performed by the younger and older lecturers are discussed in section 5.2 below. More importantly, the list in Table 2 provides insight into the way teachers and lecturers use language as well as the things they *do* through language. It reveals that during TT, lecturers ask students questions, explain concepts, provide statements of facts, request and command students to do things in the classroom in addition to providing students with feedback, whether positive or negative.

Subsequently, these illocutionary acts were classified according to Searle's (1979) classifications to find that the participants performed directives, representatives, expressives and commissives, with no declarative acts being performed by any of the six participants. Accordingly, the acts of asking, requesting and commanding were classified into directives. The acts of explaining, stating and refuting were classified as representatives. The acts of thanking, apologizing, confirming and giving affirmation were classified as expressives. Lastly, the acts of warning and promising were classified as commissives. Based on these categorizations, the frequency of each category was calculated, as presented in the next section.

4.3. Overall Frequency of Illocutionary Acts

This section provides the overall frequency of illocutionary acts performed by all six participants from the 2971 locutions that they produced. This provides insight into the general use of illocutionary acts by EFL lecturers regardless of their age.

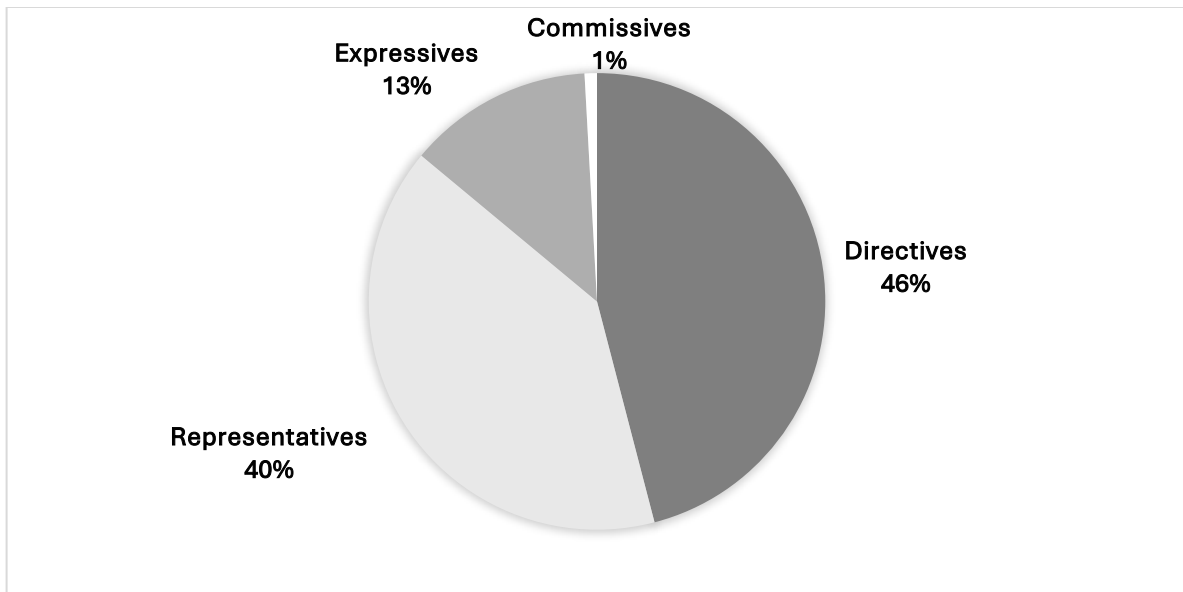


Figure 1

Overall frequency of illocutionary acts

Figure 1 presents the overall frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by the six participants as categorized based on Searle (1979). As shown in Figure 1, the most frequent category of illocutionary acts performed by the participants was directives at 46%. This indicates that a large part of teaching involves interacting with students by asking questions, requesting and commanding. Representative illocutionary acts were the second most common category as 40% of the locutions functioned to explain concepts or make factual statements during the lesson. As such, directives and representatives add up to comprise 86% of all the locutions produced during the observed lessons, which indexes the role of explaining and directing in TT. Beyond explaining and directing, the TT of the participants also consisted of expressive illocutionary acts as 13% of the illocutionary acts were in the form of giving affirmative feedback. Expressives also came in the form of thanking and apologizing, where the former occurred when students

responded to commands, while the latter occurred when the participants made errors. Lastly, the least performed category of illocutionary acts was commissives. Commissives refer to commitments to a future act, such as warnings, which are not typical features of lecturing at the university level. Thus, only 1% of the total utterances were commissives, as they have an insignificant role in the act of teaching.

4.4. Frequency of Illocutionary Acts per Participant

This section provides the frequency of illocutionary acts performed by each individual participant. As noted in section 3.1, P1 is the youngest of the participants, while P6 is the oldest of the participants. Having presented the types of acts performed by all participants in the previous section, this section provides insight into the rate with which each participant performed illocutionary acts during their TT.

4.4.1. Younger Lecturers

4.4.1.1. Participant 1 (P1) (25 years old)

The frequency of the directive, representative, expressive and commissive acts performed by P1 during the observation is presented in the table below.

Table 3

Frequency of illocutionary acts by P1

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	201	51%
Representatives	97	25%
Expressives	93	23%
Commissives	4	1%

Total	395	100%
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As shown in Table 3, directives were the most common illocutionary acts performed by P1 as over half of the utterances (51%) produced by her during the lesson were directing students through questioning, requesting and commanding. It was observed that questions like “what do you think?” and “what else?” were repeatedly asked by P1 to elicit varied responses from her students, while the requests and commands were used to have students accomplish necessary tasks by saying “Can you put it in a sentence?” and “read this passage”. In all cases, the perlocutionary effect of these requests and commands was in the form of students’ actions as they did what their lecturer asked of them.

Moreover, representatives and expressives were performed at a close rate to each other with 25% and 23% respectively, which suggests that P1 gave students feedback almost as much as she explained and made statements. The representative acts were used to inform and clarify parts of the lesson or activity to the students through locutions like “in the audio, there were two people talking about their jobs”. Regarding the expressives, they were used to give affirmative responses to the students as P1 often said “perfect” and “good job”, which had the perlocutionary effect of encouraging the students to participate more often.

Lastly, out of 395 utterances, only four were commissives. Commissive acts were only observed as being used at the end of the lesson as P1 was informing students of future lessons, as highlighted through locutions like “we will continue with this on Wednesday”. Otherwise, commissives had a minimal role in the classroom as they were not performed until the end of the lesson.

4.4.1.2. Participant 2 (P2) (28 years old)

The following table provides the frequency of the directive, representative, expressive and commissive illocutionary acts performed by P2.

Table 4

Frequency of illocutionary acts by P2

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	380	49%
Representatives	284	37%
Expressives	100	13%
Commissives	4	1%
Total	768	100%

Table 4 shows that almost half of the utterances by P2 were directives as 49% of the utterances observed during the lesson were questions, requests and commands. Hence, directives were the most frequently performed illocutionary acts. The questions asked by P2 were used to check students' understanding, as shown in locutions such as "where is the verb in the sentence?", and to check their progress through utterances like "are you done?". Furthermore, commands were not only used to give students tasks such as "do the rest of the questions", but also during the explanation part as well through locutions like "look at the verb". The resulting perlocutionary effect of the questions was the oral responses by the students answering them, while the effect of the commands was in the students' behavior as they followed P2's commands.

The second most common illocutionary act performed by P2 was representative acts at 37%. Representatives were used during the lesson to

explain new concepts to the students and to make factual statements to inform students of the key points of the lesson. Examples of P2's representative illocutionary acts include “gerunds are verbs that act as nouns” and “when we talk about gerunds, we are referring to concepts and ideas”.

The third most frequently performed illocutionary act was expressives at 13%, while the least performed act was commissives at 1%. Expressive acts were most performed to confirm students' responses through locutions like “yes, ok” and “yes, past simple”, and to provide students with positive feedback to their responses through utterances like “excellent”. These expressive acts had the perlocutionary effect of making the students feel positive about engaging with P2. Lastly, commissive acts were used to inform students of the following lessons as P2 was observed as saying “tomorrow, we will start unit 6” and “after tomorrow, we will have the quiz”.

4.4.1.3. Participant 3 (P3) (34 years old)

Table 5 shows the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by P3 during the observation.

Table 5

Frequency of illocutionary acts by P3

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	266	60%
Representatives	79	18%
Expressives	90	20%
Commissives	9	2%
Total	444	100%

As shown in Table 5, P3 performed directives at a significantly higher rate than any other illocutionary act as 60% of the utterances she produced consisted of questioning, requesting and commanding. P3 tended to use questioning as a way to encourage the students to share their ideas by asking questions like “do you have anything to add?” and “do you all agree?”, which had the perlocutionary effect of successfully eliciting responses from students. This indicates that the act of asking questions does not only serve to test students’ understanding, but it also promotes student participation. She also elicited responses from students by commanding them to “explain it” and to “elaborate”. Additionally, P3 also promoted active listening when a student was answering as she made requests like “can you listen to her please?”.

Expressives were the second most frequently produced illocutionary act at 20%, while representatives were the third most common with 18% of the utterances being statements. Thus, P3 produced more utterances that served to provide feedback than she did to make statements. P3 frequently expressed her gratitude by saying “thank you” to the students when they answered correctly or when they finished reading after she asked them to. She also showed emotions by saying “wow” and “I love your answers” in response to student participation. The perlocutionary effect of these expressives was that the students found it easy to interact with P3 as they were not afraid to participate and make mistakes. Pertaining to the representatives, P3 often made statements related to the topic of discussion found in the book, such as “because medicine is more advanced, people live longer”. She also utilized representatives to remind students of previous lessons by making statements such as “we explained the meaning of this word last class”.

Finally, commissive acts were the least performed illocutionary act at 2%. However, it was found that P3 performed several acts of warning as she warned the students that “I will change my attitude with you” after they scored low marks in their quiz. Other commissive acts included informing students of something she will do, such as “I will give you your marks at the end” and “I will send you the question in the group”, both of which functioned as commitments to future acts.

4.4.2. Older Lecturers

4.4.2.1. Participant 4 (P4) (41 years old)

The following table presents the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by P4 during the observed lesson.

Table 6

Frequency of illocutionary acts by P4

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	96	33%
Representatives	174	60%
Expressives	20	7%
Commissives	0	0%
Total	290	100%

Table 6 reveals that one noticeable feature of P4’s TT was that she performed no declarative or commissive acts. She produced no utterances that served to warn the students, nor did she produce utterances that served to inform students of a future act she will perform. This suggests that commissive illocutionary acts are not guaranteed to be performed during a lecture. Hence,

of the three types of illocutionary acts P4 performed, expressives were the least performed illocutionary acts at 7%. The low number of expressives were mostly in the form of confirmation to students' questions and responses through the locution "yes, of course" and in the form of providing positive feedback to students' answers by saying "excellent".

A significant amount (60%) of the utterances produced by P4 were representative speech acts. The majority of the lesson consisted of P4 explaining concepts and providing factual information related to the lesson. Much of P4's TT consisted of providing factual information related to the topic, such as "it involves mixing standard English with non-standard varieties" and "proper English was a symbol of the dominating English system". Moreover, despite being performed at a significantly lower rate, directive illocutionary acts were the second most common acts performed at 33%. Most of the directives were in the form of questioning as P4 had a low number of requests and commands. P4 asked questions that invited students to insert their input during the explanation through utterances like "why is it innovative?" in addition to questions that tested their previous knowledge, such as "what is the role of the critical lens?". The perlocutionary effect of the higher number of representatives and lower number of directives was that the student engagement was low as P4 tended to explain the lesson without asking many questions or giving many commands.

4.4.2.2. Participant 5 (P5) (45 years old)

The table below presents the frequency of the directive, representative, expressive and commissive illocutionary acts performed by P5.

Table 7*Frequency of illocutionary acts by P5*

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	188	37%
Representatives	298	58%
Expressives	20	4%
Commissives	5	1%
Total	511	100%

As shown in Table 7, P5 performed representative illocutionary acts at the highest rate as 58% of the utterances she produced consisted of statements and explanations. A large portion of the lesson involved P5 explaining new concepts to students and reminding them of concepts they have studied before. This was shown through locutions like “syntax is the study of the way sentences are constructed” and “the components of a sentence are called constituents”. Representative illocutionary acts were also utilized by P5 to give examples to students to reinforce a point she explained, as highlighted in locutions like “one example is *the lesson was explained by the teacher*” and “for example, *in the morning* is a phrase”.

P5’s second most frequently performed acts were directives at 37% as she asked students questions and gave them commands, although she did not make any requests during the observed lesson. Alongside her explanations, P5 gave commands to students to focus their attention on the part being explained, as P5 often made locutions like “look at these examples” and “look at this sentence”. Following her examples, P5 asked questions to elicit responses from students through locutions such as “is there a subject here?” and “what

type of adverb is this?”. Additionally, P5 performed directives by asking students questions that are routinely part of TT such as “is it clear?” and “do you understand the difference?”, the perlocutionary effect of which was the students responding with *yes* or *no*.

The representative and directive illocutionary acts that P5 performed combine to comprise 95% of the locutions produced in her TT. This indicates that the majority of the lesson involved the lecturer explaining the lesson and asking questions. It also means that the expressive (4%) and commissive (1%) illocutionary acts together add up to 5%, which means they were insignificant parts of her lesson. Despite the low number of expressives, it was found that P5 occasionally provided feedback by answering “yes” to student questions and by saying “very good” to student responses. In regard to the commissive acts, P5 did not perform the act of warning, although she produced an explicit performative by stating “I promise you that we will do this revision”.

4.4.2.3. Participant 6 (P6) (46 years old)

The following table presents the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by P6 as classified according to Searle (1979).

Table 8

Frequency of illocutionary acts by P6

Category of Illocutionary Act	Frequency	Percentage
Directives	234	41%
Representatives	259	46%
Expressives	66	12%
Commissives	4	1%
Total	563	100%

The most frequently performed illocutionary act by P6 was representatives at 46%, which was closely followed by directives at 41%. This indicates that P6 balanced the use representatives and directives without either one of them significantly overtaking the other. In addition to performing representatives to explain concepts and make statements, P6 also utilized representatives to relate the lesson to the students' personal lives. This is illustrated through locutions such as "you all have different perceptions based on your different backgrounds" and "as a child, you were always being judged for your language" that were uttered in relation to a lesson about judging language. Representatives were also used to inform students of important things, as shown in locutions such as "Chapter 4 might be in the midterm". Regarding directive illocutionary acts, questions were asked by P6 as a form of facilitating discussion among the students. This is shown through locutions like "is this creative?" and "what makes it political?". The perlocutionary effect of such directive acts was highlighted in the high number of responses they generated as the students shared their opinions and interpretations on matters related to the lesson. Furthermore, P6's act of commanding also served to elicit responses from the students through locutions such as "give me a few examples" and "take a guess", all of which had the perlocutionary effect of involving the students in the learning process.

The two least performed illocutionary acts by P6 were expressives at 12% and commissives at 1%. Most of the expressive acts were used to give students positive affirmation for their responses in the form of locutions like "good on you" and "you are right". Additionally, during the discussions, P6 expressed her own opinion by saying "I would disagree with you in that" in response to

a students' answer, the perlocutionary effect of which was to extend the discussion through the student's response to her statement. In terms of the commissive acts, only four of the 563 utterances consisted of a future commitment as P6 informed the students that she will upload the slides in addition to warning them about losing marks for incorrect punctuation.

4.5. Frequency of Illocutionary Acts per Age Group

Upon presenting the frequency of illocutionary acts performed by each individual participant in the previous section, this section compiles the frequencies of P1, P2 and P3 and those of P4, P5 and P6 in order to provide insight into the frequency of illocutionary acts performed by the younger lecturers and the older lecturers. Doing so serves as the basis for answering the second research question of this study, which aimed to determine the extent to which the frequency of illocutionary acts varied between younger and older lecturers.

4.5.1. Younger Lecturers

The following figure illustrates the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by P1, P2 and P3, who have been grouped together to represent the younger lecturers.

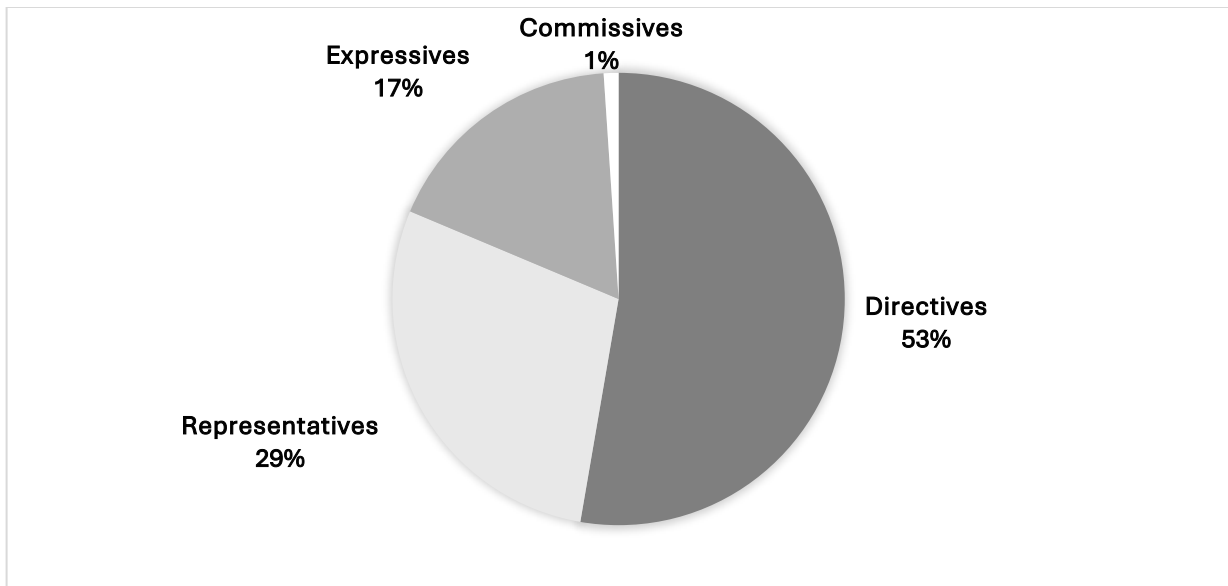


Figure 2

Frequency of illocutionary acts by younger lecturers

Figure 2 showcases the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by the younger lecturers. As shown in Figure 2, the younger lecturers most frequently performed directive illocutionary acts as over half of their locutions (53%) were directives. This suggests that a large portion of their lessons consisted of them interacting with their students in some way, either by asking them questions, requesting things from them or giving them commands. Despite being the second most frequently performed category of illocutionary acts, representatives were performed at a significantly lower rate than directives with only 29%. This suggests that the younger lecturers spent more time interacting with their students than they did explaining and making statements. The third most commonly performed category of illocutionary acts was expressives at 17%. Accordingly, as part of their interactions with their students, the younger lecturers tended to produce expressions that reflected their emotions and feelings, which they did through their feedback.

Finally, commissives were the least performed illocutionary acts at only 1%. Of the three younger participants, P3 was the only one to perform the act of warning, while all three of them made commitments to future acts.

4.5.2. Older Lecturers

Figure 3 below shows the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by P4, P5 and P6, who serve to represent the older lecturers.

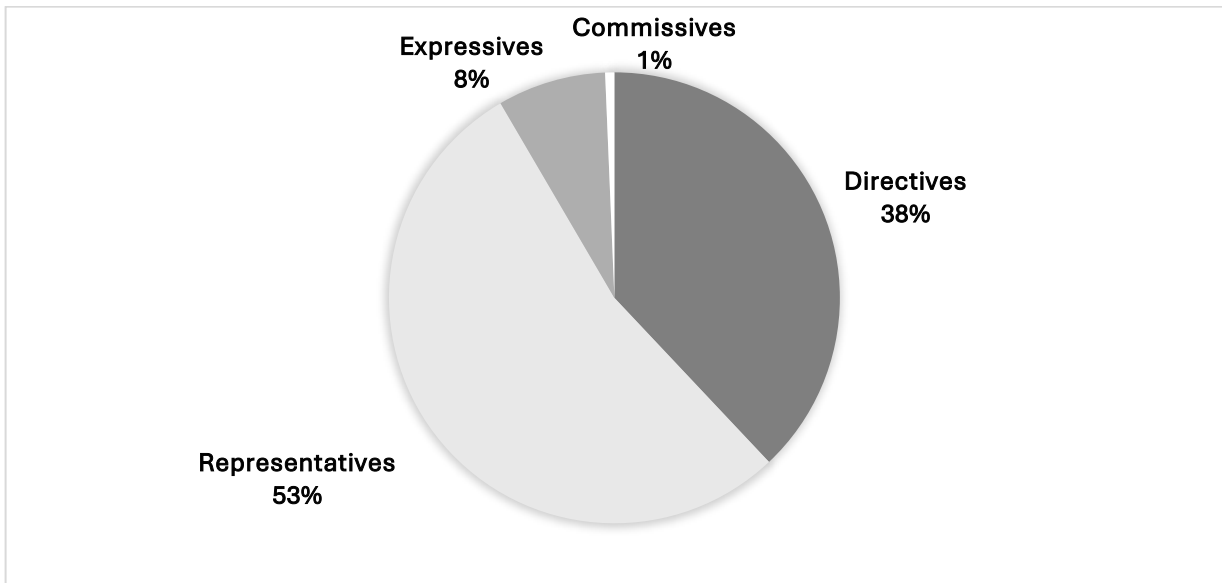


Figure 3

Frequency of illocutionary acts by older lecturers

Figure 3 presents the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed by the older lecturers. Figure 3 reveals that 53% of the illocutionary acts performed by the older lecturers were representatives. This signifies that the older lecturers most frequently performed the acts of explaining and stating during their lessons, which consisted of them speaking and the students listening to them. The second most frequently performed category of illocutionary acts by

the older lecturers was directives at 38%. Therefore, despite being performed less frequently than representatives, a significant portion of the older lecturers' TT consisted of asking the students questions as well as commanding and requesting from them. The two least performed illocutionary acts were expressives and commissives at 8% and 1% respectively. These indicate that the older lecturers gave feedback and made commitments at a much lower rate than they explained concepts and directed the students. The discrepancy between the two most frequent and two least frequent categories of illocutionary acts highlights the area of teaching that the older lecturers perceive as valuable.

4.6. Students' Attitudes

This section of the findings presents the results of the questionnaire that was distributed to the students of the six lecturers who were observed. The presented findings were gathered from the responses by a total of 117 male and female undergraduates. The section is divided into four subsections, each of which presents students' attitudes and perceptions towards different aspects of their lecturers' behavior in relation to their age group, which together tackle the third research question of this research. Note that the options presented to the students specified that *younger* refers to lecturers below the age of 35, while *older* refers to lecturers above the age of 40. This detail was removed from the figures presented in this section to make it more presentable.

Pertaining to the students' attitudes towards the illocutionary acts performed by their lecturers, the questionnaire asked students to share their preferences on three types of illocutionary acts: asking, commanding and requesting. These three illocutionary acts were included for two reasons. Firstly, the questionnaire would have been very long if all twelve observed illocutionary

acts were included. Therefore, to make the questionnaire succinct, these three illocutionary acts were selected because the findings of the observation revealed that these directive acts were the most frequently performed acts by the six participants. Secondly, although explaining and stating were more frequently performed by the lecturers, they were not included in the questionnaire because they do not require students to respond or react, whereas directives do so by their nature. Consequently, the students were asked for their preferences in relation to their lecturers' acts of asking, commanding and requesting as they are integral parts of the teacher-student interaction and relationship.

4.6.1. Age and Communication Style

The first question posed to the students was a general one that served to gain insight into the students' perceptions of the communication styles of their younger and older lecturers. The question asked was *do you prefer the communication style of younger or older EFL lecturers?*

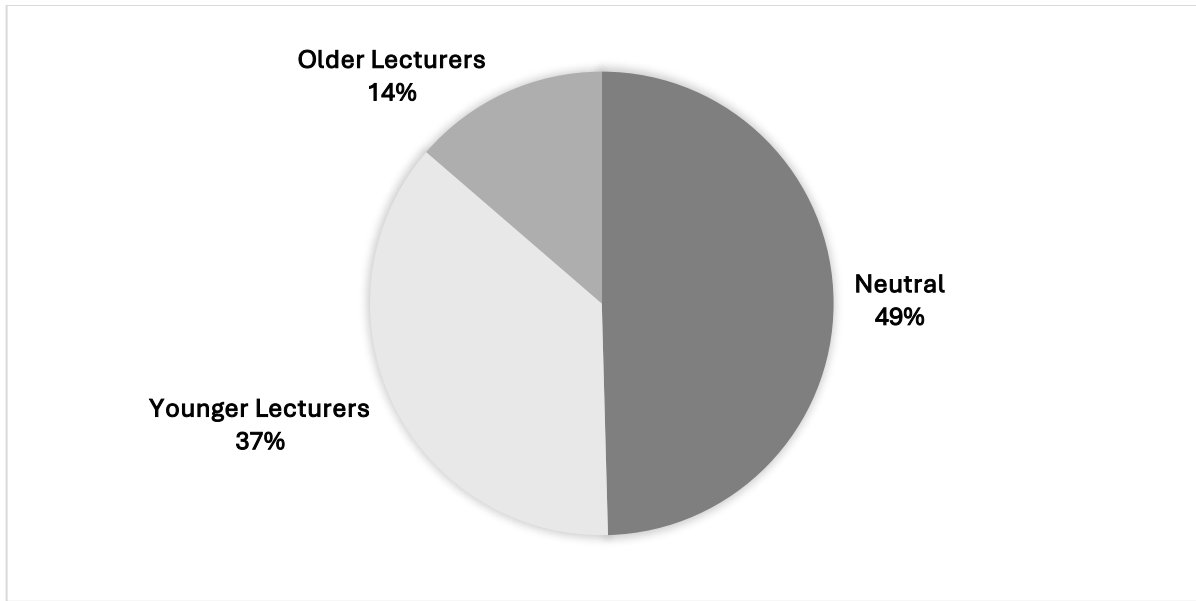


Figure 4

Students' attitude towards communication style

Figure 4 illustrates the students' preference regarding the communication style of their younger and older lecturers. Figure 4 shows that almost half of the respondents (49%) stated that they have no particular preferences in relation to the communication style of their younger or older lecturers. This indicates that, to the majority of the students, the age of their lecturers does not impact the communication style that they prefer. However, for those of whom the age of their lecturers does affect their preference, more students preferred the communication style of younger lecturers than older lecturers. Only 14% of the respondents preferred the communication style of older lecturers, while 37% of them preferred the communication style of younger lecturers.

4.6.2. Age and Questioning

The second question served to gain insight into the students' attitude towards being asked questions by their younger and older lecturers. The question was

framed as *are you more willing to respond to questions asked by younger or older EFL lecturers?*

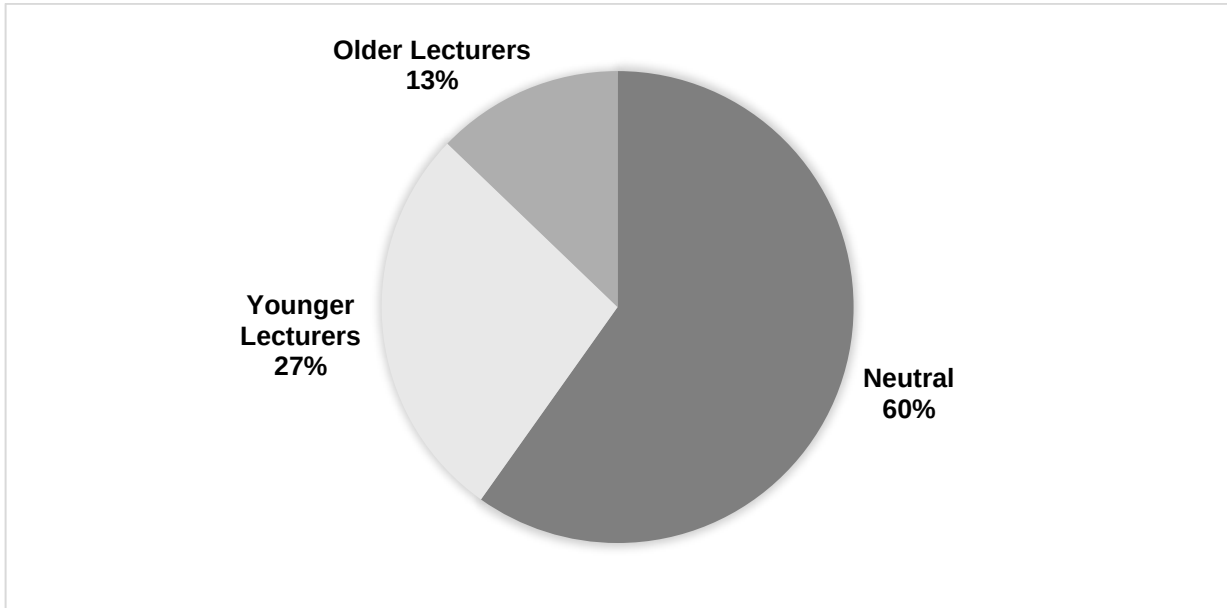


Figure 5

Students' attitude towards questioning

Figure 5 is an illustration of the students' attitude toward the illocutionary act of questioning and their willingness to respond to questions from younger and older lecturers. As shown in figure 5, the majority of the respondents (60%) stated that, in terms of responding to questions, it does not make a difference to them whether the lecturer who asked the question is younger or older. This indicates that when students are asked questions, their willingness and decision to respond to the question is not determined by the age of their lecturer. In other words, the perlocutionary effect of the act of asking questions on students is not shaped by the age of the lecturers. However, the remaining 40% of the students stated that the age of the lecturer is a factor in their

willingness to respond to the question. Of those 40%, 27% were more willing to respond to questions asked by younger lecturers, whereas 13% were more willing to respond to questions asked by older lecturers. Accordingly, among the students for whom the age of the lecturer affects their willingness to respond to questions, more students preferred to be asked questions by younger lecturers than older lecturers.

This question was followed by another question that presented the participants with reasons in the form of statements. This was done to get an understanding of why students have the attitudes they do towards the illocutionary act of asking. The students were asked to select the reasons why they would be more willing to respond to questions asked by younger or older lecturers. The following figure presents the students' reasons for selecting younger and older lecturers respectively.

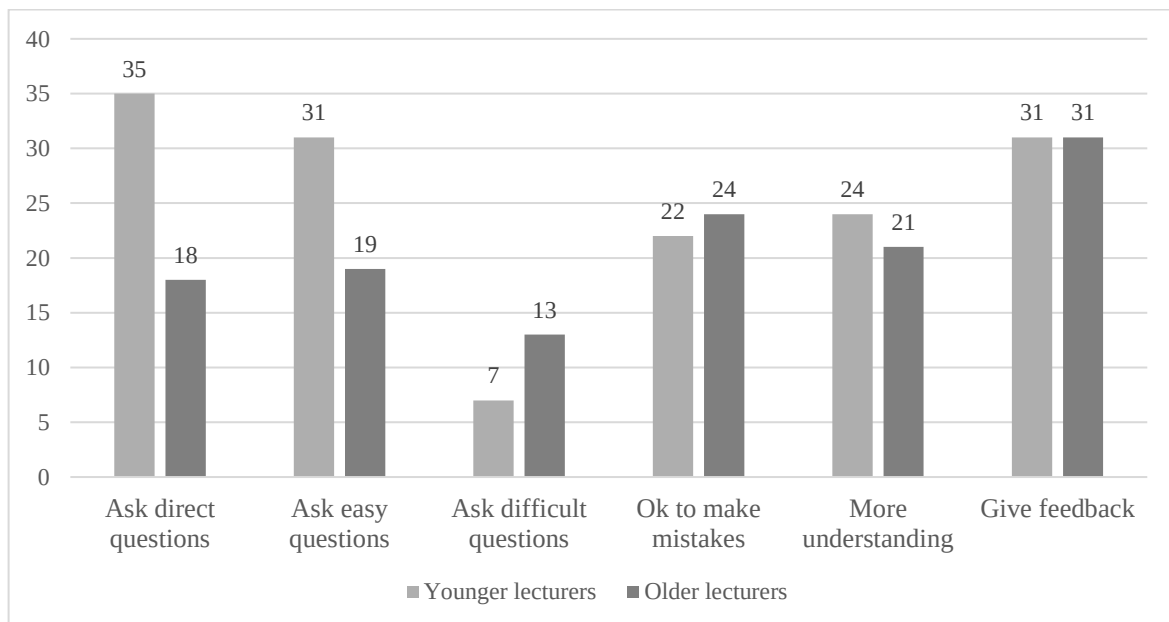


Figure 6

Students' reasons for responding to questions

Figure 6 provides information regarding the reasons why the students believe they are more willing to respond to questions by either younger or older lecturers. As illustrated, the biggest reason the students are willing to respond to questions asked by younger lecturers is that they believe that younger lecturers ask more direct and straightforward questions as 35 of the total respondents chose that reason. With 31 selections each, the second and third reasons for preferring to be asked questions by younger lecturers were that they ask easier and simpler questions and that they give feedback and provide help when the students are answering those questions. This notion of providing support is also found in the fourth and fifth reasons as 24 and 22 students respectively believed that younger lecturers are understanding and accepting of student errors, which leads to students being more willing to respond to their questions.

On the other hand, the biggest reason the students are willing to respond to questions asked by older lecturers is that they provide feedback and support students when they are answering as 31 of the students selected that reason. The second reason for responding to questions by older lecturers was that the students were not afraid of making mistakes with older lecturers as 24 students selected that reason. Next, the third reason, with 21 selections, was that the students perceived the older lecturers as being understanding of varied student responses. Lastly, the students who stated that they are more willing to respond to questions asked by older lecturers did so because they perceive older lecturers as asking easier (19) and more direct (18) questions.

These findings reveal students' perceptions of the illocutionary act of asking as performed by their younger and older lecturers. They also reveal students'

attitudes in terms of the reasons that shape their willingness to respond to questions posed during the lectures.

4.6.3. Age and Commanding

The next question presented to the students was regarding their attitude towards and acceptance level of being given commands and orders from their lecturers. The question posed to the students was *are you more willing to accept commands/orders from younger or older EFL lecturers?*

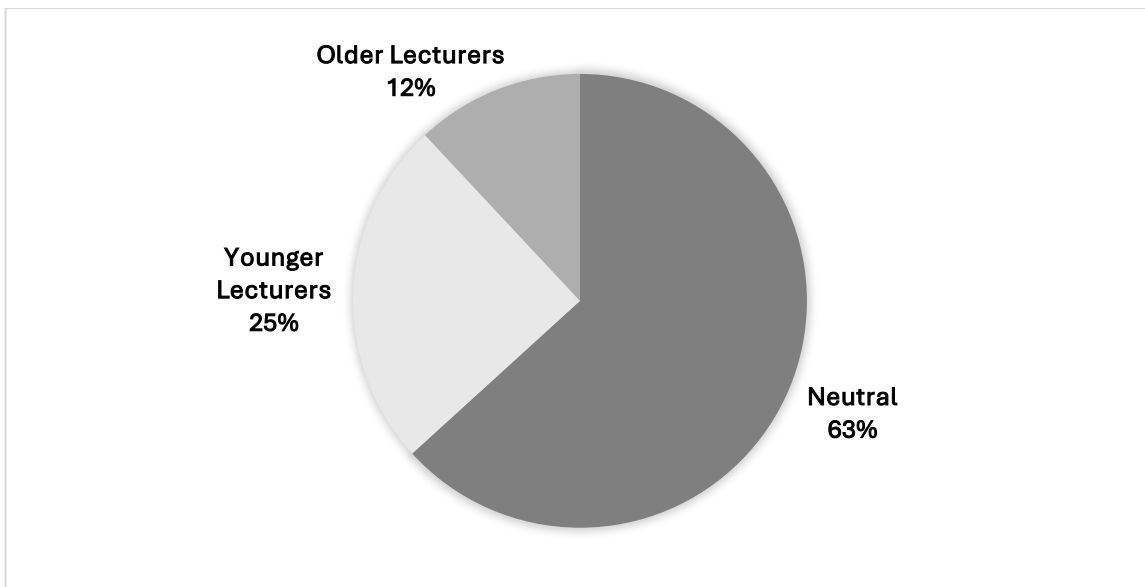


Figure 7

Students' attitudes towards commanding

Figure 7 reveals the students' attitudes in relation to the age of their lecturers and their performance of the illocutionary act of commanding. As shown in Figure 7, for 63% of the respondents, the age of the lecturer has no bearing on their level of acceptance of being given commands. This suggests that when

they are given commands by lecturers, they have no preference on whether the lecturer giving the command is younger or older. Conversely, 37% of the respondents stated that the age of the lecturer does impact their willingness to accept commands. This implies that, for these students, the perlocutionary effect of commands is shaped by the age of the lecturer. In other words, whether they follow the command or not is determined by their perception of their younger or older lecturers. 25% of the total respondents preferred to be given commands and orders from younger lecturers over older lecturers, whereas the remaining 12% preferred commands given by older lecturers. As such, apart from the 63% of students for whom the age of the lecturer had no impact on them, the students who preferred to be given commands by younger lecturers were double those who preferred to be given commands by older lecturers at 25% and 12% respectively.

Following this question, the students were presented with possible reasons for accepting commands from younger and older lecturers. Their responses shed more light on how the students perceive the illocutionary act of commanding and their attitude towards that act when performed by their younger and older lecturers.

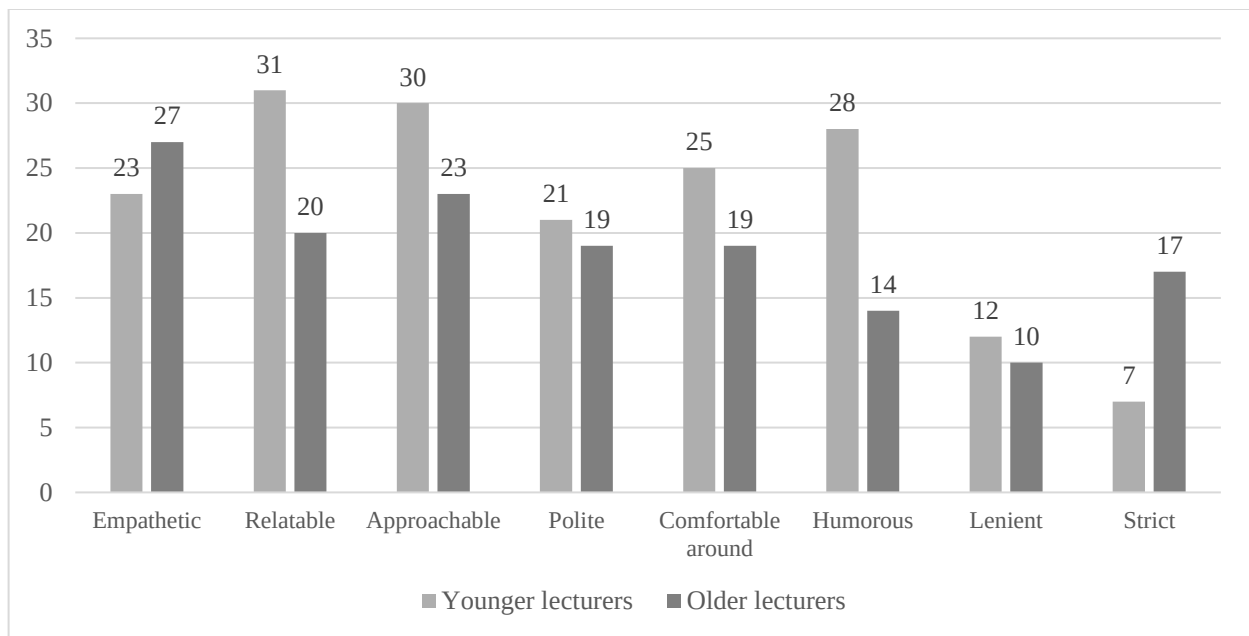


Figure 8

Students' reasons for accepting commands

Figure 8 presents the students reasons for preferring to be given commands from younger and older lecturers. Figure 8 reveals that the most prominent reasons for accepting commands by younger lecturers were that the students found them relatable (31) and approachable (30). The students perceived the younger lecturers as being closer to their age, which made them relatable and easy to connect with. Furthermore, the students perceived younger lecturers as being approachable and easy to talk to. Another reason for accepting commands from younger lecturers, according to the students' responses, was that the younger lecturers had a similar sense of humor (28). These reasons indicate that the students were willing to accept commands from a lecturer with a likeable personality. This was also shown in the fourth reason, which was that the students felt more comfortable being around (25) their younger lecturers as they found them to be empathetic (23) and polite (21). These

reasons added together made students more willing to accept commands from younger lecturers.

Regarding the older lecturers, the biggest reason for students' acceptance of their act of commanding is that they perceived older lecturers as being more empathetic and understanding, which 27 of the respondents value as a factor in accepting commands. Other reasons that the students selected for accepting commands from older lecturers were that they found older lecturers as being approachable (23), easy to connect with (20) and polite (19). However, 17 of the students answered that they perceive older lecturers as being strict. Thus, the lecturers' strictness is another reason the students are willing to accept commands. This suggests that students also consider their lecturers' tone and behavior with them as factors that determine their willingness to follow their lecturers' commands. Hence, the personality and the strictness of older lecturers are the reasons behind the students' acceptance of commands.

Consequently, it is the students' perceptions of their younger and older lecturers that shape their attitudes towards the illocutionary act of commanding and their willingness to accept being given commands in the classroom.

4.6.4. Age and Requesting

The final part of the questionnaire required students to provide their opinion on whether they are more accepting of receiving requests from their younger or older lecturers. The question that the students were presented with was *are you more willing to accept requests from younger or older EFL lecturers?*

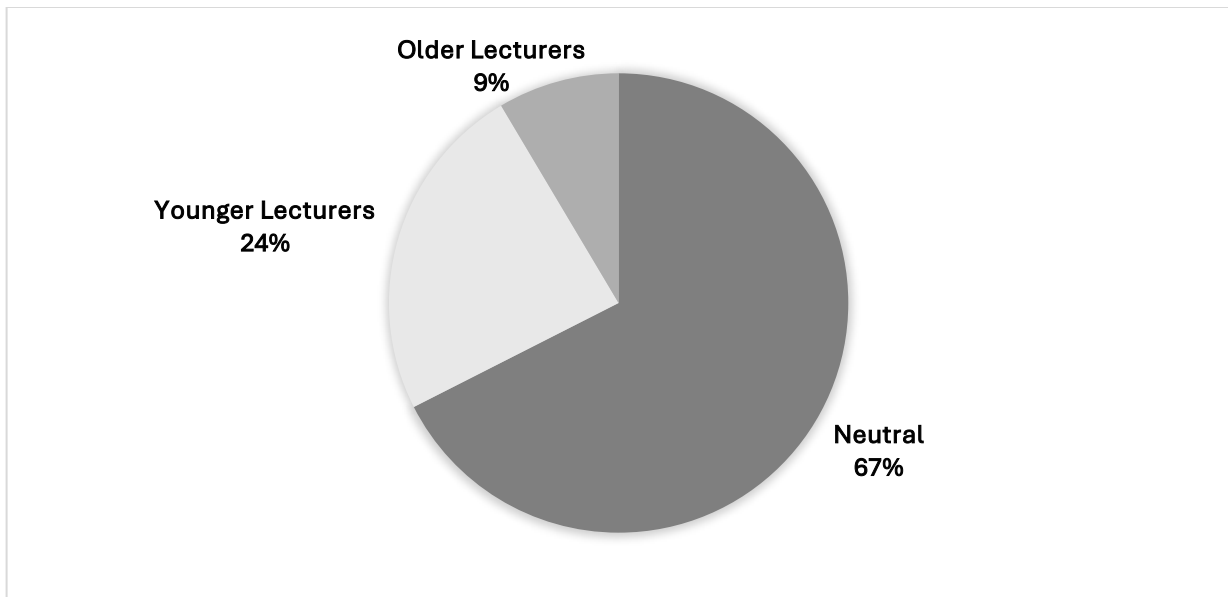


Figure 9

Students' attitudes towards requesting

Figure 9 illustrates the students' attitudes towards illocutionary act of requesting in relation to the age of their lecturers. As shown in Figure 9, the large majority of students (67%) did not believe that the age of the lecturers is a factor in determining their likelihood of fulfilling their requests. According to these students, the illocutionary act of requests by lecturers is independent of the age of the lecturer as it makes no difference to them whether the lecturer is younger or older. As a result, according to these students, the perlocutionary effect of requests is shaped by factors other than age. Only 33% of the respondents believed that the age of their lecturers plays a role in shaping their reaction to receiving requests. Of the 33%, 24% of the students stated that they are more willing to accept requests given by younger lecturers, whereas only 9% of them were willing to accept requests from older lecturers. In this case, there is a significant difference between those who believe that age is a factor and those who do not. Furthermore, among those who perceive age as

a determining factor, there is a significant difference between those who prefer younger lecturers and older lecturers at 24% and 9% respectively.

Having shared their preferences over receiving requests from younger or older lecturers, the students were required to select potential reasons for their willingness to accept requests from the lecturers of different age groups.

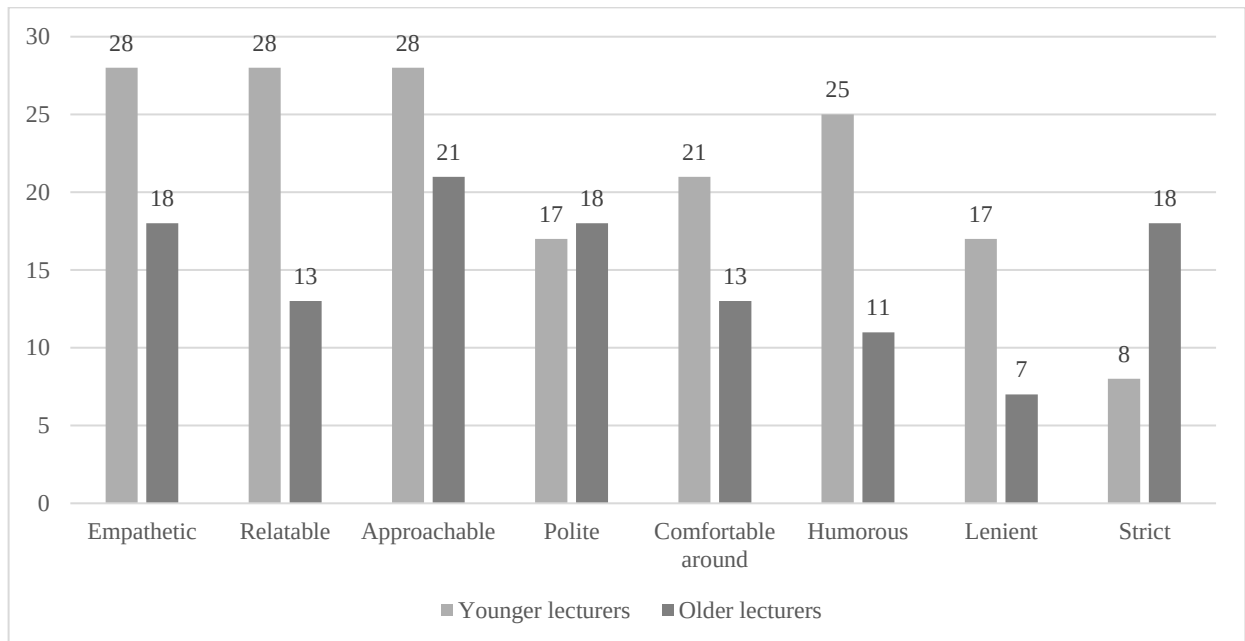


Figure 10

Students' reasons for accepting requests

Figure 10 showcases the reasons behind the students' willingness to accept requests from their lecturers. Figure 10 reveals that 28 of the students perceived younger lecturers as being empathetic, relatable and approachable, which were the three biggest reasons they are willing to accept requests from them. This indicates that students look for positive qualities in their lecturers and that they perceive younger lecturers as possessing those qualities. Beyond

those qualities, a good sense of humor was another reason they prefer to receive requests from younger lecturers as 25 students selected that reason. Moreover, 21 students stated that they felt comfortable around younger lecturers and 17 of them perceived younger lecturers as being polite and lenient. In terms of the latter, it suggests that students prefer and are more open to accepting requests with younger lecturers who are more lenient and less serious. The selection of these reasons indicates that the students prefer to receive requests from lecturers with whom they feel no pressure and with whom they can easily interact.

Regarding the older lecturers, the most frequent reason given by the students who preferred to receive requests from them was that they are approachable, as 21 students gave that response. With 18 selections each, the second and third reasons for accepting requests from older lecturers were that they are empathetic and polite. This suggests that students look for qualities of empathy and politeness when considering accepting requests, which signifies that if the lecturer is often polite with the students, they are more willing to accept and fulfill their requests. However, 18 students also stated that one reason for accepting requests from older lecturers was because they viewed older lecturers as being strict. Therefore, the level of strictness and seriousness also determine whether students are willing to fulfill requests from their older lecturers.

Ultimately, the way the students perceive their younger and older lecturers in terms of their personality and behavior determine the students' attitude towards the illocutionary act of requesting as performed by their lecturers.

4.7. Summary

The findings chapter reported on the results gathered from the observations, recordings and questionnaire. The first section of the findings presented a table listing the twelve different types of illocutionary acts performed by all six participants. It was found through the conversation analysis of the observations and recordings that the six participants performed the acts of asking, requesting, commanding, explaining, stating, thanking, apologizing, warning, promising, refuting, confirming and giving affirmation. This information was presented in relation to the first research question regarding the types of illocutionary acts performed by EFL lecturers.

The second section of the findings provided details regarding the frequency of illocutionary acts as performed by each of the six participant lecturers. These details were presented in tables in the form of the categories developed by Searle (1979): directives, representatives, expressives and commissives, with no declarative acts being observed. Alongside each category, the frequency with which they were performed and the percentage it weighed were given. Upon presenting the findings of each individual participant, the results of P1, P2 and P3 as well as those of P4, P5 and P6 were compiled into two groups of younger and older lecturers respectively. This was done to tackle the second research question regarding the variation in frequency of illocutionary acts between younger and older lecturers.

The third section of the findings presented the results of the questionnaire that was distributed to the students of the six observed lecturers. The results were illustrated in charts to show the varied responses given by the students. The responses revealed the students' attitudes towards the illocutionary acts of asking, commanding and requesting as performed by their younger and older

lecturers. In addition, the responses to the questionnaire also discovered the reasons behind the students' attitudes and perceptions.

CHAPTER FIVE

Analysis

Chapter Five

Analysis

5.1. Introduction

This chapter serves as a discussion and analysis of the findings presented in the previous chapter. It also provides answers to the research questions posed in this study, and it places the findings of this study within the current literature by comparing the results with those of the literature. The first section of the chapter discusses the relationship between the age of lecturers and the illocutionary acts they perform. It is divided into two subsections, each of which tackles one research question. The first subsection analyzes the role of age in terms of the types of illocutionary acts performed by lecturers, while the second subsection analyzes age in relation to the frequency of illocutionary acts performed. The second section of this chapter analyzes the results of the questionnaire to tackle the third research question regarding students' attitudes towards the illocutionary acts performed by younger and older lecturers. This section is further divided into subsections pertaining to each of the three illocutionary acts and into a fourth subsection that discusses the patterns found within the students' attitudes.

5.2. The Role of Age in the Performance of Illocutionary Acts

This section analyzes the extent to which the age of the lecturers played a role in the types and frequency of the illocutionary acts they performed. This section is divided into two subsections, one that focuses on the types of

illocutionary acts and another that focuses on the frequency of illocutionary acts.

5.2.1. Types of Illocutionary Acts

This subsection targets the first research question of this study regarding the extent to which the types of illocutionary acts vary between younger and older lecturers.

Table 2 in section 4.2 provided a list of the twelve different types of illocutionary acts performed by the six lecturers who were observed. The list was compiled by collecting all of the illocutionary acts that were observed overall. The same illocutionary acts were observed as being performed in different studies that were conducted in varied teaching contexts including EFL classrooms and science classrooms as well as contexts that included primary, secondary and university level students being taught by teachers of different ages and genders. For instance, Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) discovered that EFL teachers asked questions, gave commands and provided explanations through facts in addition to warning and encouraging their students. Similarly, Armistany and Zamzani (2019) found that teachers stated facts, asked questions, gave commands, made promises and encouraged and complimented students. Also, Milal and Kusumajanti (2020) only investigated representative illocutionary acts and also found that teachers perform the acts of stating, explaining, informing and describing. Additionally, Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) found that EFL teachers performed the illocutionary acts of stating, asking, commanding and promising. Faturrochman et.al (2021) also found that high school EFL teachers asked questions, gave commands, made requests, explained concepts and stated facts. Similarly, Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) found that the Biology and Mathematics teachers they

observed performed the illocutionary acts of stating, explaining, commanding, requesting, thanking and apologizing. Additionally, Haidari (2023a) and Haidari (2023b) also found that teachers of different ages and genders performed the illocutionary acts of stating, thanking, promising, warning, encouraging, asking, commanding and requesting. Similarly, one consistent pattern that was found in this present study was that all of the six participants, both younger and older, performed the illocutionary acts of asking, stating, explaining, commanding, confirming and encouraging by giving affirmation. That all teachers in this present study and in these various and diverse studies performed these illocutionary acts suggests that these acts are essential and fundamental aspects of TT. It also suggests that the very act of teaching constitutes these acts; the act of teaching involves asking students questions, making statements of facts, explaining concepts, giving students commands to perform tasks and activities in addition to responding to their inquiries and providing them with feedback. This notion that these illocutionary acts are essential elements of teaching emphasizes the conclusion that age is not a factor in determining the type of illocutionary acts performed by lecturers.

However, it was not the case that all of the six participant lecturers performed each of these twelve acts. To elaborate, analyzing each participant's types of illocutionary acts reveals that there were some illocutionary acts that were not performed by some of them. For instance, the act of warning was only performed by P3 and P6, while none of the other four participants were observed to perform the act of warning with their students. To add on, the act of requesting was not performed by P5, while the act of refuting was not performed by P3, P4 and P6. Furthermore, in terms of the act of thanking, every participant apart from P4 and P5 performed it. On the other hand, of the

six participants, P1 was the only lecturer not to perform the act of apologizing during the observation. The other five participants tended to apologize upon making a mistake such as calling a student by the wrong name. Lastly, as shown in Table 6, P5 was the only participant who did not perform the acts of warning and promising, suggesting that she did not perform any commissive illocutionary acts. Consequently, pertaining to the role of age, no concrete correlation can be determined between the age of the lecturers and the type of illocutionary acts they performed. For instance, as stated, P3 and P6 were the two lecturers who performed the act of warning. However, the former is a younger lecturer while the latter is an older lecturer. Moreover, despite the fact that the two lecturers who did not perform the act of thanking were both of the older age group (P4, P5), P6 performed the act of thanking, which offsets the notion that the lecturers of the older age group did not thank their students. As a result, there is no consistent pattern that could lead to the conclusion that lecturers of a certain age group performed certain illocutionary acts while the other age group did not, which leads to the conclusion that the age of the lecturer did not influence the type of illocutionary acts performed.

In terms of the categories of illocutionary acts, one consistent pattern was that all of the six participants did not perform declaratives. This pattern of not performing any declarative illocutionary acts is in line with the findings of previous literature as studies such as Basra and Thoyyibah (2017), Azhari et.al (2018), Santosa and Kurniadi (2020), Faturrochman et.al (2021), Haidari (2023a), Haidari (2023b), Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) also found that the teachers they observed and conducted case studies on did not perform any declarative illocutionary acts. This indicates that declarative illocutionary acts are not an element of TT since these studies found consistent results despite

being conducted on teachers of different disciplines, ages, genders and ethnic backgrounds.

Conversely, the same studies found that teachers and lecturers of different ages all performed directive, representative, expressive and commissive illocutionary acts. Similarly, in this present study, since P4 did not perform any commissives during her observation, it means that the consistent pattern was that all of the six lecturers performed directive, representative and expressive illocutionary acts. This indicates that these three categories of illocutionary acts are features of TT and that the act of teaching itself requires teachers to perform representatives by explaining, to perform directives by directing students through questions and commands and to perform expressives by giving feedback to students. Analyzing the different ages of the teachers in these studies emphasizes the lack of impact of the age of the lecturer. Of the aforementioned studies, Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) and Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) involved participants who were 25 years old and 24 years old respectively. Additionally, Azhari et.al (2018) involved participants whose ages ranged from 27 to 40 years old, while the participants in Haidari (2023b) were 28 and 44 years old. In addition to those, the participants of this present study consisted of lecturers between the ages of 25 and 46. However, despite the diverse ages, all of the participants in all of these studies performed similar types of illocutionary acts during their TT.

Thus, in directly addressing the first research question, it can be concluded that the types of illocutionary acts performed by teachers and lecturers do not differ among lecturers of different age groups. In other words, the same types of illocutionary acts are performed by lecturers of different ages, both in the current study and in the literature. The six participants in the current study

performed the illocutionary acts of stating, explaining, asking, commanding, confirming and encouraging despite being of different age groups, indicating that the act of teaching itself requires for these illocutionary acts to be performed, regardless of the age of the lecturer. Furthermore, even though not all six participants performed the acts of requesting, thanking, apologizing, refuting, warning and promising, the acts were still performed by both younger and older lecturers, which reinforces the notion that the age of the lecturer does not determine the type of illocutionary act they perform. Moreover, in terms of the categories of illocutionary acts, it can be concluded that lecturers of different age groups consistently performed directive, representative, expressive and commissive illocutionary acts, and that neither younger nor older lecturers performed declarative illocutionary acts, which further solidifies the notion that lecturers follow patterns when teaching, regardless of their different ages.

5.2.2. Frequency of Illocutionary Acts

This subsection tackles the second research question posed in this study regarding the extent to which the frequency of the illocutionary acts differs between younger and older lecturers.

5.2.2.1. Overall Frequency of Illocutionary Acts

In terms of the overall frequency of illocutionary acts as performed by all six participants, Figure 1 showed that the most frequently performed illocutionary acts were directives (46%), followed by representatives (40%), expressives (13%) and commissives at 1%, with no declarative acts being performed. These frequencies indicate that the lecturers focused on *directing* their students by asking them questions and giving them commands, while a second

focal point was on informing the students by explaining and stating things to them. Additionally, to a lesser extent, the lecturers also expressed their emotions by thanking and encouraging students and by occasionally apologizing to them. This signifies the important role of teacher feedback in the classroom, since the third most common category of illocutionary acts performed by the lecturers after explaining and directing was expressives.

When compared to previous studies, the order of the overall frequencies aligns with Azhari et.al (2018) who also found that teachers most frequently performed directives (43%), followed by representatives (42%), while the present study found these categories performed at 46% and 40% respectively. Azhari et.al (2018) additionally found that expressives were the third most commonly performed illocutionary act at 12%, followed by commissives as the least performed act at (3%), which are similar to the present study where expressives were performed at 13%, followed by commissives at 1%. In this way, not only does the order of frequency in the present study align with Azhari et.al (2018), but so do the rates themselves.

Comparing these findings to that of Faturrochman et.al (2021) reveals a similar pattern in the order of frequency as they also found that directives were the most frequently performed illocutionary acts at 53.68%, followed by representatives as the second most frequent at 42.1%. Similar to this present study, directive and representative illocutionary acts comprise the majority of the acts performed by the teachers in the classroom, with expressives and commissives being formed at a significantly lower rate. The participants in both the present study and Faturrochman et.al (2021) performed representatives at similar rates at 40% and 42.1% respectively. However, in the latter study, the participants more frequently performed directives at

53.68% in comparison to this study's participants who performed directives at 46%. The lower rate of directives by this study's participants can be found in the higher rate of expressives. Ultimately, despite minor differences in the frequency percentage, the order of frequency of the participants of both studies is in alignment.

Basra and Thoyyibah's (2017) findings also align with the present study's findings in terms of the order of frequency, but not in terms of frequency percentages. Both studies found that the participants most commonly performed directives, followed by representatives, expressives and commissives in that order. However, Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) found that 70% of the illocutionary acts performed by their participant were directives, whereas this study's participants performed directives at 46%. Furthermore, due to the higher rate of directives by the participant in their study, they found a significantly lower rate of representatives at 21% when compared to this current study where the participants performed representatives at 40%. As a result of the higher frequency of directives and representatives, both studies found that expressives and commissives were the least performed illocutionary acts.

Comparing to the findings of Haidari (2023b) reveals that a similar order of frequency was found in his study. The participants in that study performed directives most frequently at 56%, followed by representatives at 30%. The two least performed illocutionary acts were expressives and commissives at 12% and 2% respectively. Thus, the order of frequency is similar to the findings of this present study. In terms of frequency percentages, the participants of both studies performed expressives and commissives at almost the same rate as the present study's participants performed them at 13% and

1% respectively. However, there are differences in the frequency percentages regarding the directives and representatives. The participants in Haidari (2023b) performed directives at a higher rate (56%) than the participants in the current study (46%), whereas they performed representatives at a lower rate (30%) than the participants of the current study (40%). These comparisons indicate that a similar order of frequency can be found among EFL lecturers, despite the variance in frequency percentages.

However, the findings of the present study do not align with the findings of some of the previous studies found in the literature. For example, Santosa and Kurniadi (2020) found that the participant in their study most frequently performed representatives, and not directives, as 57% of their locutions were statements of facts and explanations. Only 40% of their locutions were directives, which were the second most commonly performed illocutionary act. This contrasts with the findings of the current study, which found that directives were the most commonly performed illocutionary act at 46%. Thus, the frequency of directives between the participants of the previous study and this current study are close at 40% and 46% respectively. However, a bigger discrepancy is found in the rate of representative illocutionary acts as Santosa and Kurniadi's (2020) participant performed them at 57% frequency, whereas the participants of the current study did so at 40% frequency. Another difference in the findings of the two studies is in terms of the frequency of expressives as their participant performed them at a rate of 1% frequency, while the current study's participants tended to express emotions and provide feedback more frequently as 13% of their locutions were expressives.

Moreover, the four participants in Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) also performed representatives most frequently, which were followed in frequency

by directives. However, despite the difference in order of frequency when compared to the present study, the rate at which representative illocutionary acts were performed did not vary as the participant in the previous study performed representatives at 42.85% frequency and the participants in this present study performed them at 40% frequency. This indicates that even though the two sets of participants did not follow the same order of frequency, their TT consisted of a similar amount of explaining and stating. A bigger discrepancy is found between the two studies in relation to directive illocutionary acts. In the previous study, directives were the second most commonly performed illocutionary acts at 25.8%, whereas in the current study, directives were the most frequently performed illocutionary acts at 46%. This suggests that teachers in different contexts do not always ask questions, give commands and make requests at the same rate. Alongside the lower rate of directives, the participants in Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) performed a higher rate of expressives at 21.65%, which does not align with the current study's participants who performed expressive illocutionary acts with 13% frequency.

Ultimately, the teachers in all studies consistently had directives and representatives as the two most frequently performed illocutionary acts, indicating that the act of teaching requires for the directive and representative illocutionary acts to be performed more frequently than expressives and commissives. In the same vein, all of the studies found that expressives were the third most frequently performed, while commissives were the least performed illocutionary acts, which emphasizes the minimal role of the acts of warning and promising during TT.

5.2.2.2. Younger and Older Lecturers

In answering the second research question directly, this subsection discusses the extent to which younger and older lecturers varied in the frequency of the illocutionary acts they performed. Similar patterns and differences were found between younger and older lecturers in the order of frequency and the frequency percentages of the illocutionary acts they performed.

First, in terms of the order of frequency, as shown in Figure 2, the most frequently performed illocutionary acts by the younger lecturers were directives, followed by representatives, expressives and commissives in that order. In contrast, Figure 3 shows that the older lecturers performed representatives the most frequently, followed by directives, expressives and commissives. Accordingly, the younger and older lecturers showed similarity in that for both sets of lecturers, the third and fourth most frequently performed illocutionary acts were expressives and commissives respectively. This similarity between the two groups indicates that regardless of the age of the lecturers, expressives and commissives have a less important role in an EFL classroom. On the other hand, the two groups of lecturers also showed one difference in the order of frequency. For the younger lecturers, directives played a more crucial role in the classroom as they were their most performed category of illocutionary acts, whereas for the older lecturers, representatives were the most performed category. As such, this also means that representatives were the second most frequently performed by the younger lecturers, while directives were the second most frequently performed by the older lecturers. This indicates that the younger lecturers gave more priority to directing students by asking and commanding them, whereas the older lecturers focused more on delivering information to the students by explaining

and stating. To add on, analyzing the order of frequency by the six participants individually also showed that each individual lecturer of the younger age group performed directives the most, while each individual lecturer of the older age group performed representatives the most. This difference suggests that the age of the lecturer did make a difference in terms of directives and representatives as the younger and older lecturers consistently differed in the order in which they performed these two categories. However, it is also the case that the age of the lecturers did not influence the order in which they performed the categories of expressives and commissives. Therefore, it can be concluded that the age of the lecturers had a slight influence on the order of frequency with which EFL lecturers performed illocutionary acts in the classroom.

Second, many differences were found regarding the frequency percentages of the categories of illocutionary acts. Firstly, Figure 2 shows that the younger lecturers performed directives at a rate of 53%. In contrast, directives were performed by the older lecturers at a rate of 38%, as shown in Figure 3. This suggests that the younger lecturers asked questions, gave commands and made requests at a higher rate than older lecturers, which indicates that they were more focused on interacting with their students than the older lecturers were. Next, the younger lecturers performed representative illocutionary acts at a significantly lower frequency (29%) than the older lecturers did (53%). This aligns with the findings of Haidari (2023b) who also found that the older lecturer performed representative illocutionary acts at a higher rate than the younger lecturer, while the younger lecturer performed directive illocutionary acts more frequently than the older lecturer. This signifies that the younger lecturers in the current study spent a lesser amount of their TT on explaining

concepts and making statements, whereas the older lecturers dedicated most of their TT to delivering knowledge and information to their students. Analyzing these differences shows that over half of the locutions produced by the younger lecturers (53%) served to direct students through questions, commands and requests, whereas over half of the locutions produced by the older lecturers (53%) served to deliver information to the students through explaining and stating. This difference between the lecturers of the two age groups sheds light on the aspect of teaching that they value. Younger lecturers value the interactions they have with their students, whereas the older lecturers value the transfer of knowledge to their students. This aligns with Martin and Shoho (2000) who explored the relationship between the age of teachers and classroom management style. They found that younger teachers paid more attention to and spent more time on building positive teacher-student relationships and people management than the older teachers did. The higher frequency of directive illocutionary acts by the younger lecturers in the present study also indicates a similar focus on people management, which the older lecturers paid less attention to. Despite aligning with the findings of Martin and Shoho (2000), the findings of the present study do not align with those of Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023), who found that the older teachers who had more teaching experience tended to perform directives more frequently than the teachers with less teaching experience. The opposite was true in the case of this present study as the younger lecturers with significantly less teaching experience performed directive illocutionary acts more frequently than their older counterparts.

Furthermore, the influence of this difference between the younger and older lecturers in the frequency of their directive and representative illocutionary

acts was evident in the amount of student engagement. The observations of the six lecturers revealed that the younger lecturers elicited a higher level of student participation than the older lecturers did. This is due to the higher frequency of directives, which function to get students more involved in the learning process by asking them questions and giving them commands to perform tasks and activities. Conversely, the higher frequency of representative illocutionary acts by the older lecturers resulted in the students passively listening to the explanations rather than interacting with their lecturers and participating during the lesson. In other words, it is the nature of directive illocutionary acts to involve others as directives were defined as speech acts that require someone to do something. In this case, they required students to either respond to questions or complete activities, which resulted in students being more involved. Contrastingly, it is the nature of representative illocutionary acts to have a one-sided communication as the speaker sends messages to the listener, which in this case are the lecturers and their students respectively. As a result, the older lecturers had a higher amount of TT than the younger lecturers who gave students more opportunities to speak. Ultimately, the age of the lecturers shaped the frequency of the illocutionary acts performed, as the younger lecturers consistently performed directives at a higher frequency than older lecturers, while the older lecturers consistently performed representatives at a higher frequency than younger lecturers. This difference between the two age groups resulted in the differences in the amount of student engagement generated during the lectures. Thus, it can be concluded that the age of the lecturers indirectly influenced student engagement as the students were given more opportunities to participate and share their interpretations with younger lecturers than with older lecturers.

Beyond the directive and representative illocutionary acts, both younger and older lecturers performed expressives as their third most frequent illocutionary act. However, a big difference lies in the frequency with which they performed them. 17% of the illocutionary acts performed by the younger lecturers were expressives, whereas the older lecturers performed expressives at a rate of 8%. This means that the younger lecturers performed twice as many expressives as the older lecturers did, indicating that the younger lecturers tended to express their emotions through their locutions by thanking, apologizing as well as praising and encouraging their students at a higher rate than older lecturers. This is also related to the aforementioned finding by Martin and Shoho (2000) where it was found that younger lecturers tended to have a more positive teacher-student relationship, as the acts of thanking and encouraging create a sense of camaraderie among the lecturer and students. The difference in frequency also implies another difference between the younger and older lecturers. While younger lecturers tended to show emotion, older lecturers tended to be more serious by focusing on the task at hand, which was to deliver information, rather than building a relationship with the students. Additionally, the lower rate of expressives by the older lecturers is linked to the lower rate of directives. This is because when students respond to questions or follow commands and requests, their lecturers thanked them and gave them affirmation, however, since the older lecturers did not perform a high rate of directives, they were not presented with opportunities to thank and encourage their students. Therefore, the difference in student engagement among younger and older lecturers also influenced the frequency with which they performed expressive illocutionary acts.

Another dimension of the use of expressives is that of politeness. The acts of thanking and especially of apologizing are viewed as polite acts to perform. Hence, the higher frequency of expressives by the younger lecturers implies a higher degree of politeness by them. Through the acts of thanking and apologizing, the younger lecturers adopted the negative politeness strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). They stated that apologizing is a face threatening act by the speaker as it serves to admit that a mistake was made, but it is also a face-saving act for the listener. The observations revealed that both the younger and older lecturers apologized when making a mistake, thus employing the negative politeness strategy with their students. This conflicts with the findings of Masruddin et.al (2023) who found that speakers only used negative politeness with their seniors and not their subordinates. In contrast, the present study found that, despite being in an authoritative position relative to their students, the lecturers of both age groups adopted negative politeness.

Another aspect of politeness has to do with making requests when interacting with people. The conversation analysis of the observations revealed that the younger lecturers performed the act of requesting 27 times, whereas the older lecturers made requests only five times. This difference in the number of requests highlights a difference in the manner in which the younger and older lecturers interacted with their students. Despite giving more commands, the younger lecturers often made requests when requiring students to perform tasks such as reading by using the word *please*. The use of requests by the younger lecturers is also related to the negative politeness strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). They stated that negative politeness occurs when speakers avoid imposing things on listeners by making their statements

less forceful through the use of hedging device like *can*. Both the younger and older lecturers made requests to their students by using *can*, such as by saying *can you please read this part?*, which indicates that both sets of lecturers employed the negative politeness strategy. However, the younger lecturers tended to do so more frequently. In addition to the act of requesting, the younger lecturers also performed the act of commanding more frequently than the older lecturers. The directness of a command is linked to the bald-on strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), which stated that this strategy occurs when the speaker does not intend to save their face or avoid threatening the listener's face. Thus, despite being more polite than the older lecturers by making more requests, the younger lecturers also tended to employ the least polite strategy by giving more commands than the older lecturers did. Both sets of lecturers gave commands more frequently than they made requests, which suggests that they were more direct with their students. However, one could argue that the act of teaching necessitates for more commands to be given. Also, a large number of the commands they made included phrases such as *go ahead* and *look at this*, which are not impolite. As a result, it cannot be concluded that one group of lecturers was more impolite than the other, but it can be concluded that by making more requests, the younger lecturers tended to adopt a more polite strategy more frequently than the older lecturers did. Moreover, in both cases, whether by younger or older lecturers, the fact that they adopted the negative politeness strategy with their students conflicts with the findings of Bashir (2022), who found that those in senior positions do not use negative politeness when making requests to their subordinates.

Finally, in terms of the frequency percentages, one similarity between the younger and older lecturers was in the frequency with which they performed commissive illocutionary acts. Both the younger and older lecturers performed commissives at a rate of 1%. In other words, only 26 of the 2971 illocutionary acts that were observed to be performed by the six lecturers were categorized as commissive illocutionary acts. This indicates that the acts of warning and promising have a minimal role to play inside a university classroom. Regardless of the age of the lecturers, only a few of their utterances consisted of committing to future acts. These commissive illocutionary acts were performed towards the end of the lecture, when the lecturers would inform the students of what the next class entailed. This point aligns with Lestari and Mutiaraningrum (2023) who also found that the commissive acts performed by their four participants often occurred at the end of the lessons.

Another similarity in frequency is related to declarative illocutionary acts. It was found that none of the six lecturers, whether young or old, performed declarative acts. Similar to commissive acts, the nature of the act of teaching does not require lecturers or teachers to perform declarative acts. These acts are not crucial aspects of the teaching process, unlike directive and representative illocutionary acts. When comparing to studies that conducted speech act analysis in the context of political speeches, such as Anyanwu and Abana (2020), Ramanathan et.al (2020) and Alinezhad and Nemati (2019), it becomes evident that commissive and declarative acts have a more important role to play in political contexts than they do in pedagogical contexts as all three studies found that commissives were frequently performed by politicians as they made promises to the public audience. For instance, Alinezhad and Nemati (2019) found that the politicians in their study performed commissives

at a rate of 43.55%, which is significantly higher than the 1% frequency by the lecturers in the present study. The politicians in their study also performed declarative acts at a rate of 6.4% as opposed to the 0% frequency by the participants in the current study. These differences reveal that the lower frequency of commissives and declaratives by the participants in the current study are not related to the age of the lecturers, but to the context of pedagogy, which by its nature does not necessitate the performance of these two categories of illocutionary acts.

Ultimately, to answer the second research question, it can be concluded that there are differences in the use of speech acts by younger and older lecturers. In the previous section, it was stated that the age of the lecturers did not influence the type of illocutionary acts they performed, however, these differences in frequency indicate that age does influence the use of speech acts because the age of the lecturers appears to influence the aspect of teaching which they deem valuable. Because younger lecturers prefer to have a positive relationship with their students, they perform a higher rate of directives and expressives, whereas the older lecturers tended to focus on delivering the lesson, as indicated by the increased frequency of representative acts. However, the age of the lecturers did not influence their performance of commissive and declarative illocutionary acts as the lecturers of both age groups performed those acts at the same exact rate.

5.3. Students' Attitudes

This section is further divided into subsections that together tackle the third research question of the study regarding the extent to which students' attitudes towards the illocutionary acts performed by their younger and older lecturers differ. Since the questionnaire asked students about the three illocutionary acts

of asking, commanding and requesting, each subsection tackles one of these illocutionary acts. The final subsection presents the patterns that were found across the responses to all three illocutionary acts.

5.3.1. Students' Attitudes towards the Act of Asking

In terms of the students' attitudes towards their younger and older lecturers' act of asking questions, Figure 5 showed that the majority of the respondents (60%) provided a neutral response, indicating that they have no age preferences that would influence their willingness to respond to questions inside the classroom. As discussed in the previous section, the act of asking, and directives in general, is a routine aspect of TT that is performed by teachers in different teaching contexts. Hence, students expect that their lecturers will ask questions, which increases the acceptance level towards being asked questions, regardless of the age of the lecturer. This finding aligns with a previous study by Haidari (2023b), which also found that students were more agreeable and provided a neutral response in terms of the illocutionary act of asking. However, of the remaining 40% of respondents, 27% stated that they are more willing to respond to questions by younger lecturers, while only 13% did so with older lecturers. This suggests that students have a more positive outlook towards being asked questions by younger lecturers than by older lecturers. The reasons the students gave to justify their preference revealed that they perceive younger lecturers as asking more direct and easier questions. They also perceived them as being more understanding than older lecturers. Accordingly, the students' attitude towards being asked questions by younger lecturers is positive because they view their questions as being more comprehensible. For those who had a positive attitude towards being asked questions by older lecturers, the biggest reasons were that they give feedback

and provide support to them as they are answering. Consequently, it is not necessarily the age of the lecturers that is shaping the students' attitudes, but the associations they make with younger and older age groups that shape their attitudes. In other words, it is because they attribute certain characteristics to younger and older lecturers that they have the attitudes they do. In addition to the reasons given by the students, the empirical data from the observations suggest that another reason for their willingness to respond to questions by younger lecturers over older lecturers is because the former perform expressives and encourage students by giving affirmation more frequently, which makes students more willing to interact with them and share their answers. Conversely, the older lecturers performed less expressives and had less interactions with students, which could factor into students' attitudes not being as positive as they were with younger lecturers. Thus, despite the majority's neutral preference, more students have a positive attitude towards being asked questions by younger lecturers than older lecturers, though their reasoning is not only determined by the age of the lecturers itself but also by the associations they make with the different age groups.

5.3.2. Students' Attitudes towards the Act of Commanding

Regarding the students' attitudes towards their younger and older lecturer's act of commanding, Figure 7 reveals that most of the students (63%) had no preference between younger or older lecturers. This indicates that the students generally do not associate the act of commanding done by their lecturers with the age of those lecturers. Similar to the act of asking, having lecturers tell students to perform a task or accomplish something is an expected aspect of the teaching process regardless of the age of the lecturer, which increases the acceptance level of being given a command in the classroom and results in a

neutral attitude towards it. This finding does not align with that of Haidari (2023b) who found that the majority of the students had a preference towards being given a command by female lecturers over male lecturers. This difference indicates that while most students do not consider the age of the lecturers as a factor in shaping their attitude towards being given commands, they do consider the gender of the lecturers, as a higher number of students in Haidari (2023b) had a positive attitude towards the act of commanding by female lecturers than those who had a neutral attitude. However, the present study showed that 37% of the students do consider the age of the lecturers in relation to the act of commanding. Of those 37%, 25% stated that they are more willing to accept commands from younger lecturers than older lecturers. This indicates that students have a more positive attitude towards being given commands from younger lecturers. In terms of their reasoning, the students stated that they have a positive attitude towards receiving commands from younger lecturers because they are relatable, approachable and humorous, while those who had a positive attitude towards the act of commanding by older lecturers did so because older lecturers are empathetic and approachable. These reasons indicate that the students' attitudes and preferences are shaped by the personality traits they value in their lecturers. More students had a positive attitude towards younger lecturers because they perceive them as possessing the qualities and personality traits that they prefer. Consequently, it is not only the age of the lecturers by itself that students consider, but the behavior of the different age groups. Furthermore, one reason the students selected both younger and older lecturers was that they perceive them as being polite. It was stated in the pervious section that younger lecturers were observed as employing more polite strategies that were proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). This increased politeness by younger lecturers could

have been another reason for the students' more positive attitude towards younger lecturers. Related to the notion of politeness is the use of expressive illocutionary acts. The younger lecturers' higher frequency of expressives could have also influenced students' attitudes as more students stated that they are willing to accept commands from younger lecturers than older lectures. It was also noted previously that the younger lecturers focused more on building positive teacher-student relationships, which could have made students more willing to accept commands from an individual they feel closer to. To conclude, although the majority had a neutral preference and attitude towards the act of commanding, more students had a positive attitude towards younger lecturers than those who did so towards older lecturers, the reasons for which were based on the personality and behavior they perceived to be associated to the age of their lecturers.

5.3.3. Students' Attitudes towards the Act of Requesting

Pertaining to the students' attitudes towards the act of requesting by their younger and older lecturers, the majority of the respondents (67%) had a neutral attitude towards the act of requesting, suggesting that it did not make a difference to them whether the lecturer making the request is young or old. The high percentage of students with a neutral response indicates that students generally do not have a preference in relation to the act of requesting since the act itself is socially viewed as being polite, as opposed to commands, thereby increasing the level of acceptance to receiving requests. Similar to the act of commanding, this finding is also in conflict with the findings in Haidari (2023b) where it was found that more students had a preference towards accepting requests by female lecturers than a neutral preference. This difference also implies that students are more likely to consider the gender of

their lecturers in relation to the act of requesting than they are to consider the age of the lecturers. However, 33% of the participants in this current study do consider the age of their lecturers in relation to the act of requesting. Only 9% of the respondents stated that they are more willing to accept requests from older lecturers, whereas 24% of them are more willing to accept requests from younger lecturers. Thus, more students have a positive attitude towards the illocutionary act of requesting as performed by younger lecturers than older lecturers. Regarding the reasoning behind their attitudes and preferences, a significantly higher number of students stated that younger lecturers are empathetic, relatable and approachable, which makes them susceptible to accepting requests from them. The same reasons were given by those who had a positive attitude towards being given requests by older lecturers, though they were fewer in number. Similar to the illocutionary act of asking, the students also stated that the politeness of the lecturers is a factor in their acceptance of the lecturers' requests. As stated previously, the younger lecturers were found to perform the act of requesting more frequently than the older lecturers, which suggested that the younger lecturers used politeness strategies more frequently as well. This variation in the number of requests and use of politeness strategies justifies the significant discrepancy in the percentage of students who were more willing to accept requests by and have a more positive attitude towards younger lecturers. Moreover, the higher number of expressives also contributes to the view of younger lecturers as being more polite. Additionally, the aforementioned positive teacher-student relationship built by younger lecturers also influences the attitude that students have towards accepting requests from their younger lecturers. In conclusion, similar to the previous illocutionary acts, the number of students who had no age preferences significantly outweighed those who considered the age of the

lecturer as a factor that shaped their attitude towards the illocutionary act of requesting. However, among those who considered the age of their lecturers, a larger number of students had a positive attitude towards the act of requesting as performed by their younger lecturers than older lecturers. Similar to the act of commanding, the reasons provided by the students were related to the personality and behavior of their lecturers, suggesting that students have a positive attitude towards speech acts performed by younger lecturers not only due to their age, but also due to the attributes and characteristics they perceive the younger lecturers as possessing.

5.3.4. Patterns in Students' Attitudes

Analyzing the responses from the students to all three illocutionary acts revealed certain patterns in their attitudes. First, one consistent pattern that was found was that the majority of the students gave a neutral response to all three illocutionary acts, which emphasizes the notion that in most cases, students do not have a preference for younger or older lecturers in relation to the specific acts of asking, commanding and requesting. It also indicates that the age of the lecturers is not a determining factor for students when forming judgements of their lecturers. Instead, the reasons that they selected for preferring younger or older lecturers suggested that there are other factors such as the lecturers' personality and behavior that students value more than their age. However, the responses to the questionnaire revealed that the students perceive that younger and older lecturers have different personality traits, which then shape their attitudes towards the illocutionary acts they perform. In relation to the lecturers' personality traits, one pattern that was found was that most of the students perceived the younger lecturers as having the positive personality traits such as being humorous and approachable, while

they perceived the older lecturers as having the negative personality traits such as being strict. This aligns with Martin and Shoho (2000) who found that older teachers tended to be stricter in their communication with and management of students.

Furthermore, for those students who did have a preference, one pattern that was found was that the students preferred younger lecturers in the performance of all three illocutionary acts, indicating that students had a more positive attitude towards younger lecturers than older lecturers. The number of students who preferred younger lecturers in each of the illocutionary acts doubled the number of students who preferred older lecturers. The closeness in age between the younger lecturers and the undergraduates made the lecturers more relatable to the students, which, in addition to their support and personality, made the students more willing to respond to and accept their questions, commands and requests. On a more practical level, the preference for younger lecturers across the three illocutionary acts could be due to their communication style and their more frequent use of expressives, which leads to a more supportive classroom environment and a more positive teacher-student relationship, as evident by the higher number of student engagement. This finding aligns with Joye and Wilson (2015) who found that students at an American university viewed younger lecturers as being more effective teachers than older lecturers as well as being more supportive and friendly. The reasons provided by the students in the present study indicate similar perceptions of younger lecturers. However, these findings contradict those of Bassey (2016) who found that students at a Nigerian university preferred the teaching methods and classroom management styles of older lecturers as they viewed older lecturers as being more effective teachers. Since the three studies

were conducted in three different countries, the contradictions suggest that there is no universal preference for either younger or older lecturers as different students from different teaching contexts have their own preferences. However, these differences in opinions indicate that students do have preferences and that they form judgements of their lecturers based on a variety of criteria such as teaching effectiveness, communication style and personality.

In terms of the three illocutionary acts themselves, one pattern was that students preferred younger lecturers at similar percentages as 27% of students preferred them for the act of asking, 25% did for commanding and 24% did for requesting. However, despite the closeness in percentages, this suggests that among the students who preferred younger lecturers, they were more willing to respond to their questions than they were to accept commands and requests from them. Similarly, the students who preferred older lecturers did so at a percentage of 13% for asking, 12% for commanding and 9% for requesting. This similarly indicates that among those who preferred older lecturers, they were more willing to respond to questions than to accept commands and requests. This drop in acceptance level for the acts of commanding and requesting aligns with Haidari (2023b) who also found that students preferred to be asked questions by their male and female lecturers instead of being given commands or requests. The similarity in these findings highlights that regardless of the gender and age of the lecturers, students have a more positive attitude towards being asked questions and a relatively more negative attitude towards the illocutionary acts of commanding and requesting.

Despite some of the students' negative attitude towards commands and requests, the higher number of neutral responses to these illocutionary acts indicate that the majority of students have no preferences in relation to the age of their lecturers and the illocutionary acts they perform. This is supported by the data gathered during the observations of the six lecturers. During the observations, it was noted that the students were willing to respond to their lecturers' questions, commands and requests, regardless of whether they were younger or older. This act of responding by the students is related to the concept of politeness. Masruddin et.al (2023) found that, in the power dynamics of interactions, people tend to be more polite to those in senior or superior positions. In this context, the students are subordinates to their lecturers, and thus, it would be impolite for them to reject their lecturers' commands and requests, which made them inclined to respond to their lecturers due to their superior position and not necessarily due to their age. Hence, accepting their lecturers' questions, commands and requests is an attempt to avoid a face threatening move, which is a sign of politeness, and which explains the high number of neutral responses.

To answer the third research question directly, it can be concluded that the majority of students had no preference in terms of the age of the lecturers who perform the illocutionary acts of asking, commanding and requesting, as their responses to the questionnaire were mostly neutral. However, for those who had a preference, the number of students who are more willing to accept questions, commands and requests from younger lecturers outweighed those who selected older lecturers, which implies that students have a more positive attitude towards the illocutionary acts of asking, commanding and requesting when performed by younger lecturers than older lecturers. In addition, the

reasons provided by the students for preferring younger or older lecturers suggested that students perceive younger lecturers as having certain qualities and personality traits such as empathy, relatability, approachability and humor, which made the students more susceptible to accepting these illocutionary acts. Thus, it can be concluded that students had a more positive attitude towards younger lecturers due to the qualities they perceive them as possessing. These personal qualities and traits are possessed by younger people in general and are reflected in these younger lecturers. Thus, it can be concluded that, due to their age, younger lecturers are more preferred by undergraduate students. Finally, it can also be concluded that students preferred to be asked questions by their younger and older lecturers instead of being given commands and requests, implying that they have a more positive attitude towards the illocutionary act of asking than the acts of commanding and requesting.

5.4. Summary of Analysis

This chapter provided the discussion and analysis of the findings of this study. The first section discussed the role of age in relation to the types and frequency of illocutionary acts performed by lecturers. It was concluded that the age of the lecturers did not influence the types of illocutionary acts performed, as lecturers of different age groups in this study and previous studies performed similar illocutionary acts. However, the age of the lecturers did influence the frequency of the illocutionary acts since younger lecturers performed directives and expressives more frequently than older lecturers, as they focused on building positive relationships with their students by interacting with them by asking them questions and encouraging them. Contrastingly, older lecturers performed more representatives than younger lecturers due to

their focus being on delivering information to the students through statements and explanations.

The second section discussed the students' attitudes towards their younger and older lecturers' acts of asking, commanding and requesting. It was concluded that despite the fact that most students did not have a preference for either younger or older lecturers, more students were more willing to accept questions, commands and requests from younger lecturers than older lecturers. The reasons provided by the students highlighted that students form their judgements based on the personal qualities that they perceive their lecturers have. Their positive attitudes towards younger lecturers were a result of their perception that younger lecturers have the personality types they prefer in lecturers.

CHAPTER SIX

Conclusion

Chapter Six

Conclusion

The final chapter of this research presents the conclusions reached along with the limitations of the study and recommendations for further research to be conducted on speech acts in the field of pedagogy.

6.1. Overview of Research

The research problem raised in this study was that the speech acts performed by lecturers affect students and shape their attitudes and willingness to interact with their lecturers, and since age is a factor in determining how people use language, then it followed that lecturers of different ages used speech acts differently. Consequently, this research examined the use of speech acts by EFL university lecturers of different age groups in Bahrain. The aim of the study was to investigate the correlation between the age of the lecturers and the speech acts they perform. It focused on analyzing the types of speech acts the lecturers performed in addition to the frequency with which they performed each of the five categories of speech acts as proposed by Searle (1979). The study did not only focus on the speech acts from the lecturers' perspective, but it also aimed to gain insight into students' attitudes towards those speech acts as performed by younger and older lecturers. Therefore, to tackle these aims, the following were the research questions posed in this study:

1. To what extent do the types of illocutionary acts performed in English by EFL university lecturers in Bahrain differ between younger and older lecturers?
2. To what extent does the frequency of illocutionary acts performed in English by EFL university lecturers in Bahrain differ between younger and older lecturers?
3. To what extent do students' attitudes to the illocutionary acts differ between younger and older EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?

To address the first two research questions, a sample of six EFL university lecturers were selected and divided into two age groups: younger lecturers, who were 35 years old and below, and older lecturers, who were 40 years old and above. Through the use of observations and recordings as the main instruments of data collection, their lectures were observed and recorded to gather a total of 2971 utterances. Subsequently, by applying Conversation Analysis, the utterances were classified based on the functions they served within the context of the classroom to determine the type of illocutionary act. It was thus found that the six lecturers performed the illocutionary acts of asking, stating, explaining, requesting, commanding, refuting, thanking, apologizing, confirming, warning, encouraging and promising. In answering the first research question, it was concluded that the age of the lecturers had no impact on the type of illocutionary acts performed as it was found that lecturers of different age groups, both in the present study and previous studies, performed the same types of illocutionary acts, leading to the conclusion that these illocutionary acts are essential elements of TT and of the skill of teaching and that lecturers and teachers are required to perform these acts regardless of their age.

Pertaining to the second research question, Excel was employed to calculate the frequency of each category of illocutionary acts based on Searle's (1979) categorizations. Differences were found in the frequency with which younger and older lecturers performed illocutionary acts in terms of the order of frequency and frequency percentages. First, in relation to the order of frequency, it was found that the third and fourth most frequently performed acts by both younger and older lecturers were expressives and commissives respectively, while they both did not perform any declarative illocutionary acts. However, they had differences in the category of acts they most frequently performed. The younger lecturers most frequently performed directive illocutionary acts, followed by representatives, whereas the older lecturers most often performed representative illocutionary acts, followed by directives. Furthermore, relating to the frequency percentages, the younger lecturers were found to perform directives at 53% frequency, whereas the older lecturers performed them at rate of 38%, which indicated that younger lecturers valued the socializing aspect of teaching, as they focused more on interacting with students by asking them questions, giving them commands and making requests. In contrast, the older lecturers focused more on the target and objective of teaching, which is to achieve learning outcomes. As such, they were found to spend more time delivering information to the students by making statements and explaining concepts rather than socializing with them, as indicated by the higher frequency of representative illocutionary acts at 53% frequency in opposition to the younger lecturers who had a lower frequency of representatives at 29% frequency. Moreover, despite being the third most frequently performed act by both younger and older lecturers, the frequency percentage of expressives varied between them. Younger lecturers performed expressives more frequently than older lecturers at 17% and 8%

respectively, as they expressed their emotions by thanking, apologizing and giving students positive affirmation. Lastly, both younger and older lecturers performed commissives at a rate of 1%, suggesting that the act of warning and promising are not major elements in the act of teaching, especially in university classrooms. These findings led to the conclusion that the age of the lecturers does influence the frequency with which they perform illocutionary acts as younger lecturers focus more on building positive relationships with their students by interacting with them through directives and expressives, whereas older lecturers focus more on delivering the lesson through representatives.

In addressing the final research question regarding the students' attitudes, a questionnaire was distributed to the students of the six observed lecturers, which collected a total of 117 responses. The questionnaire focused on gaining insight into the students' attitudes towards the three most frequently performed illocutionary acts: asking, commanding and requesting. It was found that, in large part, students do not have a preference in relation to the age of the lecturer performing these acts as the majority of the responses to all three illocutionary acts were neutral. However, among the students who did have a preference for age, one pattern that was found was that more students had a positive attitude towards receiving the three illocutionary acts from younger lecturers than older lecturers. The questionnaire also provided insight into the reasons behind the students' preferences, which justified their attitudes. These findings revealed that students preferred younger lecturers because they perceived younger lecturers as being empathetic, approachable, relatable, polite and humorous. However, similar reasons were given among those who preferred older lecturers, which indicates that students in general

form their judgements and attitude not only on the age of the lecturers in isolation, but also on the personal qualities that they perceive their lecturers as possessing. Therefore, it was concluded that while most students had no preference in relation to the age of their lecturers, more students had a positive attitude towards the speech acts performed by younger lecturers than older lecturers because more students perceived younger lecturers as having the personal qualities they look for in their lecturers.

Ultimately, this research revealed that the style of teaching adopted by younger lecturers affects the frequency of their speech acts, which leads to them having a better relationship with their students, which then leads to more students having a preference for younger lecturers. The observations also revealed that students participated more with the younger lecturers as a direct result of the higher number of directives and expressives performed by the younger lecturers, which leads to the conclusion that the frequency of speech acts performed by younger lecturers generated more student participation, leading to a more active and livelier classroom environment. It can also be concluded that the age of the lecturers and the personal qualities they have at that age influenced their teaching style and the frequency with which they performed directives and expressives.

The implication of this research is that it contributes to the current literature by providing insight into the use of speech acts inside an EFL university classroom in correlation to the age of the lecturers as a social variable. It also contributes to the literature by providing insight into the students' attitudes towards those acts in relation to the age of their lecturers. On a practical level, the implication of this research is for lecturers, especially older lecturers, to incorporate more directives and expressives into their lectures and to reduce

the frequency of representatives as the research found that that leads to higher student engagement. Since this research also provided insight into students' attitudes, the implications are for lecturers of all ages to be more empathetic and polite with their students and more approachable to them, as these are the characteristics the students in this study valued about their lecturers. On a macro level, one result that could arise from this research is for younger lecturers to be given more opportunities to teach at the university level, as this research found that they build positive relationships with their students and that their students perceive them as being relatable and comfortable to be around.

6.2. Limitations of the Study

The major limitations of this research concern the sample and their representativeness. Firstly, regarding the first set of participants, given the nature of the research as a case study, only three younger and three older lecturers were selected. A larger pool of lecturers would have provided more generalizable findings in relation to the correlation between speech acts as a linguistic variable and age as a social variable. Therefore, the findings are representative of the sample of this research but not the target population. Secondly, in terms of the second set of participants, one limitation was that not all of the students of the observed lecturers responded to the questionnaire. Another limitation was that the respondents to the questionnaire consisted only of EFL students from one university in Bahrain. Therefore, the findings are representative of the sample and are not generalizable to students of other fields and of other universities in Bahrain.

6.3. Recommendations

Future research that examines the relationship between speech acts as a linguistic variable and age as a social variable should be conducted, both in the field of pedagogy and other domains. Pertaining to the field of pedagogy, given that this study investigated students' attitudes, further studies should investigate students' academic performance in relation to the speech acts performed by their teachers. Such a study would provide insight into tangible effects of speech acts on student learning and achievement. Similarly, this study mentioned that students participated more with younger lecturers, however, further research should be conducted that aims to more deeply focus on examining the level of student engagement in classrooms taught by younger and older teachers and to observe whether the way students interact with their younger and older teachers differs. Furthermore, in an attempt to eliminate gender as a social variable, this study only observed female lecturers. Further studies could observe male lecturers or even find correlations between speech acts and both age and gender as social variables.

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Appendix A

Consent forms signed by each of the six participants to be observed and audio-recorded for the purpose of this research.

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature _____

Participant's Initials _____

Participant's Age _____

Date: _____

Figure 11

Consent Form Signed by P1

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature Satwattant

Participant's Initials SA

Participant's Age 28

Date: 11/03/24

Figure 12

Consent Form Signed by P2

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

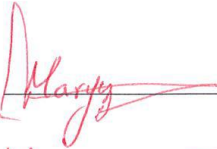
Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature



Participant's Initials



Participant's Age



Date:



Figure 13

Consent Form Signed by P3

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature _____

Participant's Initials _____

Participant's Age _____

Date: _____

Figure 14

Consent Form Signed by P4

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature 

Participant's Initials SB

Participant's Age 45

Date: 07/04/2024

Figure 15

Consent Form Signed by P5

Research Participation Consent Form

I am currently conducting my master's thesis, which requires observing and recording university lecturers. Your participation in this study is valuable to the success of the study. Please be assured that your identity and your organization will remain anonymous. All data collected during this study will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Study Procedures: the researcher will enter your lecture as a distant observer who will not have an active role during the lecture.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to provide the following information:

1. Initials: Please provide your initials as a unique identifier for your participation in the study. This will be used to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.
2. Age: Please state your age in years.
3. Date of Observation:

Consent Statement: I hereby approve my participation in this research conducted by Hadi Haidari, and that I will be observed and audio recorded as long as the obtained data is used for research purposes only. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.

Participant's Signature F. A.

Participant's Initials F. A.

Participant's Age 46

Date: March 17th, 2024

Figure 16

Consent Form Signed by P6

Appendix B

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 1 during observation.

Table 9

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P1

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	Do you have the book ready? (x2)	Asking
2	Are you ready? (x3)	Asking
3	Where would you like to work?	Asking
4	What is your dream job?	Asking
5	What about you? (x6)	Asking
6	What type of job?	Asking
7	Is it this? (x3)	Asking
8	Which one would you prefer? (x2)	Asking
9	Do you prefer the second one?	Asking
10	Would you wear this?	Asking
11	Is it better to work from home or office?	Asking
12	Would you choose to travel or stay?	Asking
13	Is it better to have a company phone?	Asking
14	What is the answer? (x2)	Asking
15	Should I repeat? (x2)	Asking
16	Did they say anything about their salary?	Asking
17	What about the clothes they wear to work?	Asking
18	Are you sure?	Asking
19	What did they say in the listening?	Asking
20	When do you use them?	Asking
21	How about the first example?	Asking
22	Is this what you mean?	Asking
23	What about the examples?	Asking

24	Is this an example?	Asking
25	What else? (x9)	Asking
26	Do you do this?	Asking
27	Are there any other rules?	Asking
28	What do you do when you drive? (x2)	Asking
29	Do we have more examples?	Asking
30	Is it clear? (x3)	Asking
31	Do you have any questions? (x3)	Asking
32	Was that it?	Asking
33	Did you write anything else?	Asking
34	Did you get the answer? (x3)	Asking
35	How many did you get correctly? (x2)	Asking
36	Anything else? (x3)	Asking
37	What about the things they wear?	Asking
38	Did they talk about that?	Asking
39	What did they say at the end of the listening? (x2)	Asking
40	Does this work?	Asking
41	Do they have to do it now? (x2)	Asking
42	Where do they work?	Asking
43	Did they buy it?	Asking
44	Does he work? (x2)	Asking
45	Which one is it? (x3)	Asking
46	Why do you think this is the answer? (x2)	Asking
47	Do you agree? (x4)	Asking
48	This was easy, right? (x2)	Asking
49	What is a rule you must follow? (x2)	Asking
50	What do you think? (x6)	Asking
51	Did he say what they had to do?	Asking
52	Why do think this is true? (x2)	Asking
53	Are you on the same page?	Asking

54	Is this true?	Asking
55	Why though?	Asking
56	Was it the same way before? (x2)	Asking
57	What are the differences between them then and now? (x2)	Asking
58	What do these differences tell you? (x2)	Asking
59	Are the changes good or bad? (x2)	Asking
60	Would you change anything?	Asking
61	What would you change?	Asking
62	Who would like to read?	Asking
63	What does that mean? (x2)	Asking
64	What do you understand from reading this? (x2)	Asking
65	Didn't we cover this before?	Asking
66	Why do you disagree?	Asking
67	Do you have any extra points to add? (x2)	Asking
68	How did it become this way?	Asking
69	What did we say about this in the last class? (x2)	Asking
70	Did you understand your mistake? (x2)	Asking
71	What type of word is that?	Asking
72	What is a gerund? (x2)	Asking
73	Where is the gerund? (x2)	Asking
74	What other examples do you have? (x2)	Asking
75	Can you read this? (x2)	Requesting
76	Can you give an example?	Requesting
77	Can you put it in a sentence? (x5)	Requesting
78	Can I see what you wrote?	Requesting
79	Can you read until the end of this part?	Requesting
80	Can you keep going?	Requesting
81	Please write on paper.	Requesting
82	Can you say that again please?	Requesting
83	Can you finish reading this part? (x2)	Requesting

84	I need you to open the book. (indirect)	Commanding
85	Go to page 94.	Commanding
86	Open your books.	Commanding
87	Give me another example.	Commanding
88	Imagine that you are preparing for a new job. (x2)	Commanding
89	Listen to the audio and take notes.	Commanding
90	Take out a piece of paper and a pen.	Commanding
91	Tell me what your answers are.	Commanding
92	Listen carefully.	Commanding
93	Think of an example.	Commanding
94	Give me an example using <i>can</i> and <i>can't</i> .	Commanding
95	Put it in a sentence. (x2)	Commanding
96	Listen again.	Commanding
97	Take notes on the working conditions.	Commanding
98	Make sure you either write <i>have to</i> or <i>don't have to</i> .	Commanding
99	Tell me again. (x3)	Commanding
100	Match the sentences on the left to those on the right. (x2)	Commanding
101	Work on this question together.	Commanding
102	Use the prompts to write your answers.	Commanding
103	Get creative.	Commanding
104	Discuss issues related to health and lifestyle.	Commanding
105	Write some advantages and disadvantages.	Commanding
106	Give me one advantage.	Commanding
107	Use some of the points we just discussed.	Commanding
108	Look at the first two paragraphs.	Commanding
109	See if the points are similar to what we discussed.	Commanding
110	Discuss together.	Commanding
111	Share your answers with the rest of the class.	Commanding
112	Read this passage. (x2)	Commanding
113	Underline any gerunds you find. (x3)	Commanding

114	Circle the word before it.	Commanding
115	Tell me when you finish,	Commanding
116	Focus here.	Commanding
117	Look at the answers.	Commanding
118	Go back to the green box.	Commanding
119	Let me have a look.	Commanding
120	Look at the example sentences.	Commanding
121	Use your own ideas.	Commanding
122	Give me your own answers. (x3)	Commanding
123	Complete the sentence using a gerund.	Commanding
124	Study unit 6.	Commanding
125	Ask me any question.	Commanding
126	It is page 91.	Stating/Explaining
127	Let us start with the first question.	Stating/Explaining
128	They are talking about work-life balance.	Stating/Explaining
129	We have a grammar lesson on using can and have to.	Stating/Explaining
130	We will learn when to use it.	Stating/Explaining
131	Now we have five sentences.	Stating/Explaining
132	We will read these sentences and tick the ones we agree with.	Stating/Explaining
133	You said you prefer to have a higher salary and work long hours.	Stating/Explaining
134	We will listen to two people talking about their jobs.	Stating/Explaining
135	We will check the answers together.	Stating/Explaining
136	I am going to start the audio now.	Stating/Explaining
137	The first speaker was not kind.	Stating/Explaining
138	We can check the answers.	Stating/Explaining
139	We have two mistakes.	Stating/Explaining
140	We will now move back to question B.	Stating/Explaining
141	We will now move to the focus box at the bottom.	Stating/Explaining
142	We have words like <i>can</i> , <i>cannot</i> , <i>have to</i> and <i>don't have to</i> .	Stating/Explaining
143	We use <i>can</i> and <i>cannot</i> to talk about permission.	Stating/Explaining

144	That is the first thing we need to remember.	Stating/Explaining
145	For example, <i>you can smoke in this room.</i>	Stating/Explaining
146	This means that it is ok to smoke.	Stating/Explaining
147	Another example is <i>you can't smoke in this room.</i>	Stating/Explaining
148	This means that it is not ok to smoke.	Stating/Explaining
149	You do not have a choice.	Stating/Explaining
150	We use <i>have to</i> and <i>don't have to</i> to talk about rules.	Stating/Explaining
151	Again, we use <i>can</i> and <i>can't</i> to talk about permission and choice.	Stating/Explaining
152	But for <i>have to</i> and <i>don't have to</i> , we use them for rules. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
153	I will give you an example. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
154	You cannot cheat in the exam.	Stating/Explaining
155	You can drink coffee in the class.	Stating/Explaining
156	Here, we are talking about permission. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
157	You can say <i>I can't play games on my phone in class.</i> (x2)	Stating/Explaining
158	When you say you can't do something, it refers to ability.	Stating/Explaining
159	You have to wear a seatbelt.	Stating/Explaining
160	Here, you have no choice.	Stating/Explaining
161	We have to stop at a red traffic light.	Stating/Explaining
162	We should start doing some activities.	Stating/Explaining
163	Let us move to question 3.	Stating/Explaining
164	In the audio, there were two people talking about their jobs.	Stating/Explaining
165	They said in the first company that the staff have to work early.	Stating/Explaining
166	Here, we used <i>have to</i> .	Stating/Explaining
167	The first answer is already given. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
168	They said women have to wear skirts. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
169	But men have to wear suits. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
170	We are going to continue listening to the audio.	Stating/Explaining
171	He also made one comment at the end.	Stating/Explaining
172	He said they can use the gym at work.	Stating/Explaining
173	Let us read them first. (x2)	Stating/Explaining

174	We have four prompts.	Stating/Explaining
175	Employees can take a short break.	Stating/Explaining
176	We can also say that employees don't have to go to work every day.	Stating/Explaining
177	We will move to the second section.	Stating/Explaining
178	We will now do question 5.	Stating/Explaining
179	We have two questions.	Stating/Explaining
180	Medicine and technology are much more advanced nowadays.	Stating/Explaining
181	We can add this to the advantages.	Stating/Explaining
182	Let us move to the disadvantages.	Stating/Explaining
183	People are not spending time with family.	Stating/Explaining
184	Education is better now.	Stating/Explaining
185	You can communicate with people far away.	Stating/Explaining
186	We will now move to the next page.	Stating/Explaining
187	It says that people live longer now than they did before.	Stating/Explaining
188	It is a very good point.	Stating/Explaining
189	It means being overweight.	Stating/Explaining
190	We mentioned something similar to this earlier.	Stating/Explaining
191	Here, they are specifically talking about work-related activities.	Stating/Explaining
192	We can now move on to the writing skills.	Stating/Explaining
193	I will give you two minutes to answer this question.	Stating/Explaining
194	You can discuss different topics.	Stating/Explaining
195	Let us go through it very quickly.	Stating/Explaining
196	We use them in a similar way to nouns.	Stating/Explaining
197	They can be either subjects or objects.	Stating/Explaining
198	It is on page 98. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
199	We have done this in the class.	Stating/Explaining
200	You will find the answer in the green box.	Stating/Explaining
201	I am not sure what you mean.	Stating/Explaining
202	Gerunds come at the start of the sentence. (x2)	Stating/Explaining

203	I will give you an example.	Stating/Explaining
204	<i>Going</i> is the gerund.	Stating/Explaining
205	Here are some examples.	Stating/Explaining
206	I can't hear you. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
207	It is your turn to give me examples.	Stating/Explaining
208	It needs to be a sentence.	Stating/Explaining
209	We have finished unit 6.	Stating/Explaining
210	No, not this.	Refuting
211	Ok. (x32)	Confirming
212	Yes. (x6)	Confirming
213	Yes, ok. (x6)	Confirming
214	That's nice. (x7)	Encouraging
215	Me too, yes.	Confirming
216	Good. (x5)	Encouraging
217	Ok, perfect. (x6)	Encouraging
218	Perfect. (x12)	Encouraging
219	Great job. (x4)	Encouraging
220	Thank you. (x7)	Thanking
221	That's a good answer. (x3)	Encouraging
222	Exactly.	Confirming
223	We will continue with this on Wednesday.	Promising/Committing
224	And next week, we will start unit 7.	Promising/Committing
225	I will see you on Wednesday. (x2)	Promising/Committing

Appendix C

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 2 during observation.

Table 10

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P2

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	How are you today? (x2)	Asking
2	How is the first day of Ramadan?	Asking
3	Is it easy so far?	Asking
4	Do you remember what we covered?	Asking
5	What about the chapter?	Asking
6	What was it about?	Asking
7	Say that again? (x5) (indirect)	Asking
8	It was about the future, right? (indirect)	Asking
9	What did we take in unit 1?	Asking
10	We took this as an example, right? (indirect)	Asking
11	What about the present simple?	Asking
12	What about the future tense?	Asking
13	Where is the main verb in here?	Asking
14	What about “is”?	Asking
15	What is it? (x3)	Asking
16	Is it a verb or noun? (x2)	Asking
17	What about in the past?	Asking
18	What is this word exactly?	Asking
19	What about “was”?	Asking
20	How can we switch these two sentences to the future?	Asking
21	Are you sure? (x13)	Asking
22	Why not? (x3)	Asking
23	Where is the verb here?	Asking

24	What about “will”?	Asking
25	Why am I telling you this?	Asking
26	What is it indicating?	Asking
27	What about if I said, “she was studying”?	Asking
28	It means it is in the past, right? (indirect)	Asking
29	What about “will study”?	Asking
30	Do you get it? (x3)	Asking
31	Is it easy? (x7)	Asking
32	Do you need to take notes?	Asking
33	What was the grammar rule?	Asking
34	<i>Played</i> is in the past, right? (indirect)	Asking
35	What are regular verbs?	Asking
36	Verbs that take <i>-ed</i> , right? (indirect)	Asking
37	What about irregular verbs?	Asking
38	What about the word <i>put</i> ?	Asking
39	What about the word <i>go</i> ?	Asking
40	What about the word <i>write</i> ?	Asking
41	What about the word <i>dance</i> ?	Asking
42	Is it clear? (x3)	Asking
43	What about the verb?	Asking
44	Any sentence with <i>-ed</i> ? (indirect)	Asking
45	So, both give the same meaning, right? (indirect)	Asking
46	What about unit 2?	Asking
47	Do you need me to say it in Arabic?	Asking
48	All good? (indirect) (x8)	Asking
49	What does the present simple form mean?	Asking
50	What is the criterion for present simple verbs?	Asking
51	The verb remains in the base form, right? (indirect)	Asking
52	What about if I said <i>they</i> ?	Asking
53	They go, right? (indirect)	Asking

54	What about the present continuous?	Asking
55	Are you with me?	Asking
56	Do you remember the present perfect?	Asking
57	When do we use the present perfect?	Asking
58	What happens here?	Asking
59	What is the meaning of <i>future</i> ?	Asking
60	What do we use to talk about the future?	Asking
61	Can I say <i>I will watching this film</i> ?	Asking
62	Which one are you going to choose?	Asking
63	Why?	Asking
64	Why did you pick <i>going</i> ?	Asking
65	Why is it incorrect?	Asking
66	What do we use to talk about a routine?	Asking
67	When do we use <i>has</i> ?	Asking
68	What about <i>have</i> ?	Asking
69	Do you have any questions? (x4)	Asking
70	Why are you sitting at the back?	Asking
71	Are you done? (x8)	Asking
72	Did I show you how the exam will be?	Asking
73	Who wants to read the first part?	Asking
74	Can you tell me where to find the topic sentence?	Asking
75	Is that the topic sentence?	Asking
76	From the topic sentence, what are we talking about?	Asking
77	What do we mean by that?	Asking
78	What does it mean in this context?	Asking
79	We all know what clinics mean, right? (indirect)	Asking
80	What about rural areas?	Asking
81	Who wants to continue reading?	Asking
82	What does technology mean?	Asking
83	Can I say that this is a piece of technology?	Asking

84	What about the projector?	Asking
85	Is that a piece of technology?	Asking
86	What about your bags?	Asking
87	What is the difference in use between the projector and the bags?	Asking
88	Did you get it? (x5)	Asking
89	Did you get the difference?	Asking
90	What do you mean? (x2)	Asking
91	Do you think this applies to everything we've invented?	Asking
92	Does a pen count as technology?	Asking
93	Alright? (indirect) (x21)	Asking
94	Did you get the meaning?	Asking
95	Do you remember the small device?	Asking
96	They can do it like that, right? (indirect)	Asking
97	Who wants to read from here?	Asking
98	No one wants to read? (indirect)	Asking
99	Did you understand the passage?	Asking
100	What does <i>scientist</i> mean?	Asking
101	It is people who work with science, right? (indirect)	Asking
102	What transportation do they currently use?	Asking
103	And maybe even cars, right? (indirect)	Asking
104	But then what about the past?	Asking
105	What does <i>injured</i> mean?	Asking
106	From the passage, how do you know that this is in the present?	Asking
107	What does <i>these days</i> refer to?	Asking
108	What else? (x3)	Asking
109	What about the word <i>modern</i> ?	Asking
110	What do these words indicate?	Asking
111	Do we have anything that indicates that this is in the past?	Asking
112	What phrase does the writer use to show extra information?	Asking
113	What is the indicator that this is in the past tense?	Asking

114	The answer is <i>was</i> , right?	Asking
115	Why did you say it is in the past tense?	Asking
116	What does <i>a wide range of</i> mean?	Asking
117	It means variety, right? (indirect)	Asking
118	A rural area, right? (indirect)	Asking
119	So far, how do you feel about unit 5?	Asking
120	Can you see it?	Asking
121	What do you think the person is requesting?	Asking
122	What is the speaker requesting here?	Asking
123	Have you started answering?	Asking
124	What was the answer?	Asking
125	How do you feel about the chapter?	Asking
126	It was easy, right? (indirect)	Asking
127	It is long, right? (indirect)	Asking
128	What is the right answer?	Asking
129	Why is this the answer?	Asking
130	The word always means it's a routine, right? (indirect)	Asking
131	Do you have any questions in regard to the midterms?	Asking
132	What about the quiz?	Asking
133	Are you practicing?	Asking
134	Is that it?	Asking
135	Do you have an exam on Sunday?	Asking
136	How is Ramadan treating you?	Asking
137	Shall we start?	Asking
138	Looking at the picture, what do you think the unit is about?	Asking
139	What are the different associations that you have with fruits?	Asking
140	What do you think about? (x2)	Asking
141	Do you think the chapter is about comparing?	Asking
142	Do you think it is about having a healthy lifestyle?	Asking
143	Does that make sense?	Asking

144	What do you see in the picture? (x2)	Asking
145	What about those, what are they?	Asking
146	What comes to your mind when I say healthy lifestyle?	Asking
147	What else? (x5)	Asking
148	What do you do in order to have a healthy lifestyle? (x3)	Asking
149	What does a diet include?	Asking
150	What does a healthy diet include?	Asking
151	Does being healthy only require eating healthy food?	Asking
152	Sleeping is a factor, right? (indirect)	Asking
153	Do you eat healthy?	Asking
154	Do you exercise on a daily basis? (x3)	Asking
155	Do you sleep well?	Asking
156	How many hours do you usually sleep?	Asking
157	What do you think? (x2)	Asking
158	Do you all agree?	Asking
159	Do you cycle to work?	Asking
160	Is it bad?	Asking
161	Do you agree or disagree?	Asking
162	What does <i>memorize</i> mean?	Asking
163	What about going to the gym?	Asking
164	Do you eat fresh fruit?	Asking
165	It is bad, right? (indirect)	Asking
166	What can we eat then?	Asking
167	Do you really eat that?	Asking
168	What are verbs? (x2)	Asking
169	What are actions?	Asking
170	Something you do, right? (indirect)	Asking
171	What am I doing here?	Asking
172	Where is the verb in the sentence? (x3)	Asking
173	It is <i>reading</i> , right? (indirect)	Asking

174	This is the action happening, right? (indirect) (x2)	Asking
175	Is this the verb?	Asking
176	Why is this the verb? (x2)	Asking
177	What about the second sentence? (x2)	Asking
178	Do we have a verb?	Asking
179	That was your answer, right? (indirect)	Asking
180	What was the action happening in the first sentence? (x2)	Asking
181	Where is the action?	Asking
182	What is the difference between the two sentences?	Asking
183	What about here?	Asking
184	Is that right? (x2)	Asking
185	What is it?	Asking
186	What are nouns?	Asking
187	They are names, right? (indirect)	Asking
188	Is it a noun?	Asking
189	What do we mean by <i>concepts</i> ? (x2)	Asking
190	You said that verbs are actions that are happening, right? (indirect)	Asking
191	I am just referring to the concept of reading, right? (indirect)	Asking
192	Concept is an idea, right? (indirect)	Asking
193	Should I erase it?	Asking
194	Where can I find the verb?	Asking
195	There is an action happening here, right? (indirect) (x2)	Asking
196	What about the word <i>cooking</i> ?	Asking
197	What about as an idea?	Asking
198	Is there a verb? Is there something happening?	Asking
199	Do you get the concept?	Asking
200	Do you get the idea?	Asking
201	This is an action, right?	Asking
202	Are you ready?	Asking

203	Which one?	Asking
204	What about you, what do you think?	Asking
205	Is it the first or second? (x3)	Asking
206	What about the second word?	Asking
207	In the first one, she is actually performing the action, right? (indirect)	Asking
208	Where is the gerund here?	Asking
209	What about number four?	Asking
210	Can you remind me of what we covered yesterday?	Requesting
211	Can you mute your phones?	Requesting
212	Can you tell me the sentence?	Requesting
213	Can you give me a sentence?	Requesting
214	If you have any questions, please go ahead and ask. (x2)	Requesting
215	Can you read it?	Requesting
216	Remind me very quickly.	Commanding
217	Remind me of what we covered in unit 1.	Commanding
218	Keep this in mind. (x2)	Commanding
219	Take some time to write this down.	Commanding
220	Go to page 82.	Commanding
221	Read the passage.	Commanding
222	Read it again. (x2)	Commanding
223	Take some time to read. (x2)	Commanding
224	Discuss what you read.	Commanding
225	Look at the following three questions.	Commanding
226	Try to answer them.	Commanding
227	Take another five minutes to read and answer the questions.	Commanding
228	Keep in mind that you have a reading question in the midterm.	Commanding
229	Do that.	Commanding
230	Google the word technology.	Commanding
231	Find the meaning of technology. (x2)	Commanding

232	Mute your phones.	Commanding
233	Try to fill them in with the correct words.	Commanding
234	Don't check the answer.	Commanding
235	Look at this statement.	Commanding
236	Look at the sentence.	Commanding
237	Take some time to work on it.	Commanding
238	Start studying for the midterm.	Commanding
239	I want you to sit in pairs. (indirect)	Commanding
240	I want you to focus on another thing. (indirect)	Commanding
241	I want you to do the same for the following sentences. (indirect)	Commanding
242	I want you to focus with me here. (indirect)	Commanding
243	Keep in mind that it is not the same.	Commanding
244	Don't tell me that you didn't have time.	Commanding
245	Take your time. (x4)	Commanding
246	Keep in mind that the readings are brought from magazines, journals and newspapers.	Commanding
247	Read and answer the questions.	Commanding
248	Read it again.	Commanding
249	Keep in mind that when you read, you read to understand.	Commanding
250	You have to be careful when answering. (indirect)	Commanding
251	Keep in mind that there are many versions of the exam.	Commanding
252	Try to answer each and every question.	Commanding
253	Make sure you are alert.	Commanding
254	Practice for the quiz.	Commanding
255	If you hear your name, say present.	Commanding
256	Try to sleep more.	Commanding
257	Try to sleep in the evening instead of the morning.	Commanding
258	Don't worry.	Commanding
259	I want you to say whether they are good or bad. (indirect)	Commanding
260	Do the rest of the questions.	Commanding

261	Answer these questions according to your opinion.	Commanding
262	I want you to think of the definition of a verb. (indirect)	Commanding
263	I want you to tell me where the verb is. (indirect)	Commanding
264	Focus on the content here.	Commanding
265	Look at the translation.	Commanding
266	Look at the verb.	Commanding
267	Look at the word.	Commanding
268	Look at the four sentences and identify the gerund.	Commanding
269	Look at the meaning of the first word and the second. (x2)	Commanding
270	Answer number three.	Commanding
271	Tell me the difference between the first and second words. (x2)	Commanding
272	They said it's not going to work.	Stating/Explaining
273	I will just switch this on.	Stating/Explaining
274	This is good because it gives you some time to revise.	Stating/Explaining
275	This is what you need to know.	Stating/Explaining
276	It has the same meaning.	Stating/Explaining
277	It indicates that this happened in the past.	Stating/Explaining
278	So, this is the verb.	Stating/Explaining
279	This is what we covered yesterday.	Stating/Explaining
280	You need to know that these are all helping verbs.	Stating/Explaining
281	It indicates that it is happening now, in the present.	Stating/Explaining
282	So, we have main verbs and helping verbs.	Stating/Explaining
283	It helps us know when this action is taking place.	Stating/Explaining
284	<i>Was</i> is for the past.	Stating/Explaining
285	<i>Is, Are, Am</i> are for the present.	Stating/Explaining
286	<i>Will</i> is for the future.	Stating/Explaining
287	It is a verb that helps the main verb.	Stating/Explaining
288	I summarized the whole unit.	Stating/Explaining
289	This makes it easier for you to study later on.	Stating/Explaining
290	We can use these to indicate that the action happened in the past.	Stating/Explaining

291	We covered two types of verbs: regular and irregular.	Stating/Explaining
292	Once you add <i>-ed</i> to a verb, it means it's a regular verb.	Stating/Explaining
293	It means you have to change the word.	Stating/Explaining
294	We want to make it past tense.	Stating/Explaining
295	You guys are inventing new words.	Stating/Explaining
296	It remains the same.	Stating/Explaining
297	Let me think of something.	Stating/Explaining
298	This is how you define whether the verb is regular or irregular.	Stating/Explaining
299	This is something we covered in unit 1.	Stating/Explaining
300	I am just repeating it to make it easier for you.	Stating/Explaining
301	I need the verb to end with <i>-ed</i> .	Stating/Explaining
302	In unit 2, we spoke about the present.	Stating/Explaining
303	In unit 2, we covered two types of present tense.	Stating/Explaining
304	The present simple is used to talk about general things and routines.	Stating/Explaining
305	The verb remains in the base form.	Stating/Explaining
306	We use this tense when we talk about things in general.	Stating/Explaining
307	This is for the first part.	Stating/Explaining
308	In the present simple, the verb remains in the base form. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
309	In the past simple, we had regular and irregular verbs.	Stating/Explaining
310	The present continuous is for things that are happening now. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
311	I am using <i>-ing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
312	One criterion for the present continuous is using <i>-ing</i> . (x2)	Stating/Explaining
313	We are just revising at this point.	Stating/Explaining
314	There is nothing new.	Stating/Explaining
315	We now go to unit 3.	Stating/Explaining
316	In unit 3, we studied the present perfect.	Stating/Explaining
317	It is for something that happened in the past, but the consequences for which still occur in the present.	Stating/Explaining
318	An example is <i>I have eaten breakfast</i> .	Stating/Explaining

319	We need to have <i>has</i> or <i>have</i> .	Stating/Explaining
320	This is one criterion.	Stating/Explaining
321	The verb needs to be in the past participle form.	Stating/Explaining
322	We also covered another tense.	Stating/Explaining
323	We use <i>will</i> to predict.	Stating/Explaining
324	The verb remains the same.	Stating/Explaining
325	This is similar to the present simple.	Stating/Explaining
326	It needs to be in the base form. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
327	This is the summary of units 1 to 5.	Stating/Explaining
328	I left one lesson.	Stating/Explaining
329	I am assuming you all already know it.	Stating/Explaining
330	It was extremely simple.	Stating/Explaining
331	This is why I keep telling you that the rules are important.	Stating/Explaining
332	They will give you four options.	Stating/Explaining
333	Continuous means it is happening now.	Stating/Explaining
334	We have one indicator in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
335	Therefore, the verb needs to be in the base form.	Stating/Explaining
336	This is how you are going to be asked.	Stating/Explaining
337	We know that we use <i>has</i> or <i>have</i> for the present perfect.	Stating/Explaining
338	It is a bit confusing, but you need to know the rule.	Stating/Explaining
339	They will give you options and you will need to pick.	Stating/Explaining
340	This is how you will be tested.	Stating/Explaining
341	I am not sure if you will get the marks immediately.	Stating/Explaining
342	So, we have covered the first three parts of unit 5.	Stating/Explaining
343	It was very easy.	Stating/Explaining
344	We will now do the writing section on page 82.	Stating/Explaining
345	You will sit in pairs.	Stating/Explaining
346	Then, we will discuss them together.	Stating/Explaining
347	I will switch on the lights.	Stating/Explaining
348	I assume that you are done reading.	Stating/Explaining

349	I am not going to put you in groups today.	Stating/Explaining
350	The title of this passage is <i>comparing and contrasting health services</i> .	Stating/Explaining
351	It is very short.	Stating/Explaining
352	We will go with you first.	Stating/Explaining
353	It is the opposite of cities.	Stating/Explaining
354	It could be a village or the countryside.	Stating/Explaining
355	It is places that are not inhabited by many people.	Stating/Explaining
356	I will not make the reading long.	Stating/Explaining
357	I think you missed a line.	Stating/Explaining
358	Technology is things that humans invented for you to use.	Stating/Explaining
359	They are tools that serve a purpose.	Stating/Explaining
360	It does not matter if they are advanced or not.	Stating/Explaining
361	This is what I found.	Stating/Explaining
362	It is something that people invented for humans' needs.	Stating/Explaining
363	That is high-tech and this is low-tech.	Stating/Explaining
364	That is the difference between the two.	Stating/Explaining
365	So, technology does not only refer to phones and devices.	Stating/Explaining
366	The only difference is that one is more advanced.	Stating/Explaining
367	It has to have scientific knowledge.	Stating/Explaining
368	There was some use of technology.	Stating/Explaining
369	This is not necessary nowadays because we have more advanced technology.	Stating/Explaining
370	They mentioned three things.	Stating/Explaining
371	They compared and contrasted health centers in the present and the past.	Stating/Explaining
372	In the past, because they lacked medicine, they died easily. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
373	You can easily just drive to the hospital now.	Stating/Explaining
374	Let us answer question three now.	Stating/Explaining
375	We are talking about things happening now, in the present.	Stating/Explaining

376	We already answered that.	Stating/Explaining
377	One hundred years ago, there was the use of technology, but it was basic.	Stating/Explaining
378	We said that <i>was</i> is used in the past.	Stating/Explaining
379	Let us look at the following sentence.	Stating/Explaining
380	Nowadays, doctors use a wide range of technology.	Stating/Explaining
381	We do not have <i>-ed</i> in this word.	Stating/Explaining
382	This is the verb we are looking at.	Stating/Explaining
383	The previous sentence was in the past, but this sentence is in the present.	Stating/Explaining
384	<i>Use</i> is in the present simple tense.	Stating/Explaining
385	It is a routine, something that happens regularly.	Stating/Explaining
386	We have four sentences and four phrases.	Stating/Explaining
387	This will take you one minute because it is easy.	Stating/Explaining
388	You don't need more time than that.	Stating/Explaining
389	Let us answer it together. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
390	You have the opposite answers.	Stating/Explaining
391	The rural area is the countryside.	Stating/Explaining
392	Now, we are going to do the following activity.	Stating/Explaining
393	We have statements that we need to match their requests.	Stating/Explaining
394	Here, the person is indirectly requesting.	Stating/Explaining
395	I see that you guys are about to fall asleep.	Stating/Explaining
396	You got all the answers correctly.	Stating/Explaining
397	We are now done with unit 5.	Stating/Explaining
398	You were supposed to start studying weeks ago.	Stating/Explaining
399	We have finished everything.	Stating/Explaining
400	This is the summary of the grammar lessons.	Stating/Explaining
401	These are the rules, but you have to learn how to use them.	Stating/Explaining
402	This is a question from a previous exam.	Stating/Explaining
403	The exam is for 60 minutes.	Stating/Explaining

404	I get to see how long you take to finish it.	Stating/Explaining
405	The first part of the exam is the reading.	Stating/Explaining
406	It is around one page long.	Stating/Explaining
407	The questions are very random.	Stating/Explaining
408	They are testing your knowledge after reading.	Stating/Explaining
409	It is not something I can teach you.	Stating/Explaining
410	This is something that I have noticed.	Stating/Explaining
411	They will ask you about what the pronouns mean.	Stating/Explaining
412	We have a total of ten questions on the reading passage.	Stating/Explaining
413	Each question carries one mark.	Stating/Explaining
414	This is the reading section.	Stating/Explaining
415	It is not related to anything we have studied.	Stating/Explaining
416	It is something external.	Stating/Explaining
417	We did not study the same rules.	Stating/Explaining
418	These are related to the previous book.	Stating/Explaining
419	This is something we have studied.	Stating/Explaining
420	If you don't get it correctly, you lose a mark.	Stating/Explaining
421	I know its Ramadan and I know it's difficult, but you can do it.	Stating/Explaining
422	This is another example about robots.	Stating/Explaining
423	This is another example.	Stating/Explaining
424	These are random topics.	Stating/Explaining
425	They are trying to test your reading skills.	Stating/Explaining
426	We have 30 questions, each carrying one mark.	Stating/Explaining
427	I had a student who did not answer two questions.	Stating/Explaining
428	We are covering a new lesson today.	Stating/Explaining
429	I want to make sure our class does not clash with your exams.	Stating/Explaining
430	I am assuming it is not you.	Stating/Explaining
431	No one was participating yesterday.	Stating/Explaining
432	We are about to start unit 6. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
433	Yesterday, we finished unit 5.	Stating/Explaining

434	Let's think of ways to make our lifestyle healthy.	Stating/Explaining
435	So, eating healthy and sleeping well are part of a healthy lifestyle.	Stating/Explaining
436	There are a lot of benefits to sleeping at night.	Stating/Explaining
437	The topic of this chapter is healthy lifestyle.	Stating/Explaining
438	The vocabulary in this chapter is about healthy habits.	Stating/Explaining
439	In terms of grammar, we are going to learn about gerunds.	Stating/Explaining
440	We are going to look at some sentences.	Stating/Explaining
441	Its hard to do that in Bahrain due to the weather.	Stating/Explaining
442	In Europe, people go around on cycles, which is really healthy.	Stating/Explaining
443	The brain is like a muscle. It needs to be active.	Stating/Explaining
444	I don't have the time to exercise.	Stating/Explaining
445	The topic is all about food and it Ramadan.	Stating/Explaining
446	In order to have a healthy lifestyle, you need to eat and sleep well.	Stating/Explaining
447	You need to exercise as well.	Stating/Explaining
448	You also have to cut sugary food and fast food.	Stating/Explaining
449	So that moves us to today's grammar lesson.	Stating/Explaining
450	One example is the sentence <i>I am reading the book.</i>	Stating/Explaining
451	In the English language, we have something called gerunds.	Stating/Explaining
452	Verbs are actions.	Stating/Explaining
453	I am going to give you two sentences.	Stating/Explaining
454	So, it is the verb because it ends with <i>-ing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
455	This took me some time to develop.	Stating/Explaining
456	It makes sense and is grammatically correct.	Stating/Explaining
457	According to your answers, this is the verb.	Stating/Explaining
458	I like how you changed your answer.	Stating/Explaining
459	You said that <i>reading</i> is the verb.	Stating/Explaining
460	You said that this is the verb.	Stating/Explaining
461	In this sentence, there is someone actually doing the action.	Stating/Explaining
462	In English, we cannot start the sentence with a verb. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
463	That's what we call a gerund. (x2)	Stating/Explaining

464	Let's agree that this is the verb.	Stating/Explaining
465	In different sentences, they act differently.	Stating/Explaining
466	If you have taken this course before, then you know what gerunds are.	Stating/Explaining
467	Gerunds are verbs that act as nouns. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
468	I will write this down.	Stating/Explaining
469	I am going to explain this in depth now.	Stating/Explaining
470	We do not have a similar concept in Arabic.	Stating/Explaining
471	This is the first point.	Stating/Explaining
472	<i>Reading, writing, swimming</i> are all verbs. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
473	In this sentence, the verb does not act as a verb.	Stating/Explaining
474	Nothing happened in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
475	It refers to the concept of reading.	Stating/Explaining
476	That is what we call a gerund.	Stating/Explaining
477	Gerunds are verbs that act as nouns in certain contexts.	Stating/Explaining
478	Another thing is that they end with <i>-ing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
479	The first rule is that they are verbs. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
480	The second rule is that they end with <i>-ing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
481	They come in different places in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
482	They can be either the subject or the object. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
483	In the previous example, it was as a subject.	Stating/Explaining
484	By subject, we mean it is at the beginning of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
485	We started the sentence with <i>reading</i> , so it is a gerund.	Stating/Explaining
486	It is the subject of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
487	It is all about the place of the gerund in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
488	When we talk about gerunds, we are referring to concepts and ideas.	Stating/Explaining
489	We are not referring to performing an action.	Stating/Explaining
490	That is the difference between verbs and gerunds.	Stating/Explaining

491	When we use gerunds in a sentence, we are not referring to the action, but the idea.	Stating/Explaining
492	In this sentence, I am not talking about reading as an action.	Stating/Explaining
493	It is not an action; therefore, it acts as a noun.	Stating/Explaining
494	There are three things you need to understand.	Stating/Explaining
495	First, gerunds are based on verbs. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
496	They act as nouns in the sentence. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
497	When verbs are put in a different context, they can become gerunds.	Stating/Explaining
498	They need to be identified as verbs.	Stating/Explaining
499	I am not sure.	Stating/Explaining
500	The difference is that there is no action happening.	Stating/Explaining
501	When I say <i>I am reading</i> , there is an action.	Stating/Explaining
502	But here, in this sentence, there is no action happening.	Stating/Explaining
503	It is just the concept of reading in general.	Stating/Explaining
504	Number three, they need to end with <i>-ing</i> . (x4)	Stating/Explaining
505	These are three rules that you need to keep in mind. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
506	This takes us to your question.	Stating/Explaining
507	I will use the same example.	Stating/Explaining
508	It is the same thing.	Stating/Explaining
509	That's why it acts as a noun.	Stating/Explaining
510	In terms of terms of the type of word, it's a verb.	Stating/Explaining
511	If it does not end with <i>-ing</i> , then it is not a gerund.	Stating/Explaining
512	The slides repeat what we just said.	Stating/Explaining
513	So, it is no longer an action happening, but it is a concept.	Stating/Explaining
514	As we said, it can be the subject at the beginning of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
515	<i>Swimming</i> here is the subject.	Stating/Explaining
516	<i>Swimming</i> here is the object.	Stating/Explaining
517	We still have another way of using gerunds.	Stating/Explaining

518	Here again, I am not referring to the act of climbing, but the ideas of it.	Stating/Explaining
519	I will give you one minute to answer the question.	Stating/Explaining
520	I feel you are confused.	Stating/Explaining
521	When we use a present continuous verb, it means the action is happening now.	Stating/Explaining
522	Both of them have <i>-ing</i> . (x3)	Stating/Explaining
523	In order for it to be considered a gerund, it must have <i>-ing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
524	It is not a pattern.	Stating/Explaining
525	Not really.	Refuting
526	No, you are not targeting the right answer.	Refuting
527	No, we have the answer.	Refuting
528	No, it's not.	Refuting
529	No, not really.	Refuting
530	No, it's not like that.	Refuting
531	Ok. (x18)	Confirming
532	Ok, that's good. (x2)	Encouraging
533	Yes, past simple. (x2)	Confirming
534	Excellent. (x9)	Encouraging
535	I like that you said noun.	Encouraging
536	Its ok. (x2)	Confirming
537	Yes, of course.	Confirming
538	Yes, ok. (x10)	Confirming
539	Alright. (x17)	Confirming
540	Yes. (x22)	Confirming
541	Ok, sure. (x3)	Confirming
542	Ok, thank you.	Thanking
543	Yes, it can mean that.	Confirming
544	Sorry. (x5)	Apologizing
545	Thank you for translating.	Thanking

546	Exactly. (x2)	Confirming
547	Thank you so much.	Thanking
548	Yes, excellent.	Encouraging
549	Good job	Encouraging
550	We will hopefully be able to finish unit 5 today.	Promising/Committing
551	I will see the results after the midterm.	Promising/Committing
552	Tomorrow, we will start unit 6.	Promising/Committing
553	After tomorrow, we will have the quiz.	Promising/Committing

Appendix D

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 3 during observation.

Table 11

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P3

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	Is that ok? (x5)	Asking
2	How is life? (x2)	Asking
3	Do you remember the listening we did before?	Asking
4	Do you remember Hitoshi speaking about Japan? (x2)	Asking
5	What did he say?	Asking
6	What else did he say? (x2)	Asking
7	Is that fair enough?	Asking
8	Do you remember the main idea of the listening? (x2)	Asking
9	What were they talking about? (x2)	Asking
10	What does it mean? (x3)	Asking
11	Are you following me?	Asking
12	What is the life expectancy in Japan?	Asking
13	Do you understand the meaning of <i>commute</i> ?	Asking
14	Do you understand what I want you to do? (x2)	Asking
15	Did you get my question?	Asking
16	What else? (x7)	Asking
17	You will be writing facts, right?	Asking
18	What do we use when we write facts?	Asking
19	Are you doing this?	Asking
20	Are you done? (x5)	Asking
21	What did you say? (x3)	Asking
22	What are you doing?	Asking
23	Do you not know what to do?	Asking

24	Did you understand? (x3)	Asking
25	What is the difference between you two? (x2)	Asking
26	What are the similarities between you two?	Asking
27	What about you? (x2)	Asking
28	What's next?	Asking
29	That was simple, right? (indirect)	Asking
30	What about that?	Asking
31	You said <i>used</i> right? (indirect)	Asking
32	Can you do that in Bahrain? (x2)	Asking
33	Why can't we? (x2)	Asking
34	Would you do that?	Asking
35	Why? (x2)	Asking
36	All good? (indirect)	Asking
37	Do we understand the question?	Asking
38	Is it clear?	Asking
39	What is the meaning of <i>aspect</i> ? (x2)	Asking
40	What does it mean when I say <i>positive and negative aspect</i> ?	Asking
41	Do you think people live longer now? (x2)	Asking
42	Do you agree with this statement? (x3)	Asking
43	Do you all of you agree? (x4)	Asking
44	Do you think all of these contribute to our life expectancy?	Asking
45	What do you mean by that?	Asking
46	So, you do not agree with this? (indirect)	Asking
47	Because of what? (indirect)	Asking
48	Do you mean now or before?	Asking
49	Why do think this is the case? (x2)	Asking
50	Exercise plays a part, right? (indirect)	Asking
51	You wanted to say something? (indirect)	Asking
52	Do you have anything to add? (x5)	Asking
53	So, are we not smart?	Asking

54	What do you disagree with? (x2)	Asking
55	What are the positive and negative aspects of life? (x2)	Asking
56	What about it?	Asking
57	Is that a positive thing or a negative thing? (x2)	Asking
58	Do you think technology is affecting us negatively?	Asking
59	Is that it?	Asking
60	Have you ever heard stories of Bahrain in the past?	Asking
61	Don't you agree? (x4)	Asking
62	Why do you think they are like this? (x2)	Asking
63	What are they?	Asking
64	Is this enough? (x2)	Asking
65	Why did the writer use <i>however</i> here?	Asking
66	We used this before, right? (indirect)	Asking
67	Do you not watch documentaries?	Asking
68	Do we understand what is processed food? (x2)	Asking
69	Do you think that is a processed food?	Asking
70	What if we did it this way?	Asking
71	Who wants to start?	Asking
72	Who here likes that?	Asking
73	What is the natural state?	Asking
74	Do we understand what is processed food now?	Asking
75	You know what I mean, right? (x3)	Asking
76	Do you want to read?	Asking
77	What do I mean when I say <i>caused</i> ?	Asking
78	Did you say something?	Asking
79	What do I mean with <i>obesity</i> ? (x2)	Asking
80	Why did the writer use <i>ate</i> instead of <i>eat</i> ?	Asking
81	Do we understand this part?	Asking
82	Who can continue reading? (x3)	Asking
83	When I say <i>nowadays</i> , what tense is that?	Asking

84	You got it, right?	Asking
85	How was it in the past?	Asking
86	Do you remember when I said that last time?	Asking
87	Do you think this is the reason we feel more stressed? (x2)	Asking
88	Is that the reason you feel more stressed? (x2)	Asking
89	What is this?	Asking
90	Don't you feel that days finish fast? (x2)	Asking
91	Alright? (indirect)	Asking
92	Don't you do this?	Asking
93	Who does this? (x2)	Asking
94	You really don't do that? (indirect)	Asking
95	What about you guys? (x3)	Asking
96	What do I mean if I say <i>I used to</i> ? (x2)	Asking
97	Does it mean that I am still doing it?	Asking
98	What kinds of subjects do we have?	Asking
99	How many times have I repeated this lesson?	Asking
100	Do you remember infinitive verbs?	Asking
101	What is an infinitive verb? (x3)	Asking
102	What is the difference between the infinitive and gerund?	Asking
103	Did you get it?	Asking
104	What is the form of it?	Asking
105	How can I use it? (x2)	Asking
106	Can you read this for me please? (x3)	Requesting
107	Can you listen to her please? (x2)	Requesting
108	Come again. (x2)	Commanding
109	I want you to compare your country to Japan. (x3) (indirect)	Commanding
110	I want you to do the comparison. (x2) (indirect)	Commanding
111	Say that again. (x6)	Commanding
112	Explain it. (x2)	Commanding
113	Explain it in English. (x2)	Commanding

114	Give me six sentences.	Commanding
115	Divide them into three about you and three about Japan.	Commanding
116	Compare your life to his. (x2)	Commanding
117	Don't use transitional words.	Commanding
118	Don't mention anything beyond the points mentioned.	Commanding
119	Do not use mobile phones.	Commanding
120	Continue with the activity.	Commanding
121	Leave your mobiles.	Commanding
122	Think for yourself.	Commanding
123	Stop using AI.	Commanding
124	Be more specific.	Commanding
125	Try to write more about you.	Commanding
126	Say something. (x2)	Commanding
127	Talk to me.	Commanding
128	Go ahead. (x5)	Commanding
129	Focus.	Commanding
130	I want you to listen to her. (indirect)	Commanding
131	Read yours.	Commanding
132	I want you all to listen. (indirect)	Commanding
133	Read the sentence again.	Commanding
134	Imagine if Bahrain had the perfect weather.	Commanding
135	Don't blame the weather.	Commanding
136	I want you to talk and discuss. (indirect) (x2)	Commanding
137	Think about it.	Commanding
138	Look at the board.	Commanding
139	Start using this word from now on. (x2)	Commanding
140	Speak more.	Commanding
141	Elaborate. (x2)	Commanding
142	Say it in English.	Commanding
143	Tell me. (x4)	Commanding

144	Continue. (x2)	Commanding
145	All of you will read in this class.	Commanding
146	Explain this part for me.	Commanding
147	Read from here. (x2)	Commanding
148	Analyze it.	Commanding
149	Google it. (x3)	Commanding
150	Give me the definition of processed food.	Commanding
151	Give me an example of processed food.	Commanding
152	Give me an example. (x3)	Commanding
153	Start reading.	Commanding
154	Do me a favor, pause when you read.	Commanding
155	Pause when you reach a full stop.	Commanding
156	Start using the word <i>nowadays</i> .	Commanding
157	Use words like <i>whereas</i> and <i>however</i> .	Commanding
158	I want someone to explain this for me. (indirect)	Commanding
159	Forget about the other part.	Commanding
160	Explain this sentence for me.	Commanding
161	Be honest.	Commanding
162	Leave it for now.	Commanding
163	Don't answer.	Commanding
164	Stop giving them the answers.	Commanding
165	Don't talk.	Commanding
166	Check your phones. I sent it to you.	Commanding
167	Give me a presentation about one lesson.	Commanding
168	We will continue chapter 6 today.	Stating/Explaining
169	I have your papers here.	Stating/Explaining
170	We will do the listening again now.	Stating/Explaining
171	So, we will do the listening one more time.	Stating/Explaining
172	You seem a bit lost.	Stating/Explaining
173	I will repeat my question again.	Stating/Explaining

174	He said <i>I have to commute</i> .	Stating/Explaining
175	You will have the quiz before the midterm.	Stating/Explaining
176	You can compare between the positive and negative points.	Stating/Explaining
177	At least someone is paying attention. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
178	After checking your quiz papers, I have decided to do this.	Stating/Explaining
179	You can write it in either way.	Stating/Explaining
180	That's one of the answers.	Stating/Explaining
181	I know you can do it.	Stating/Explaining
182	The ideas are there.	Stating/Explaining
183	We will start with you.	Stating/Explaining
184	You did that in the quiz as well.	Stating/Explaining
185	You used the same word.	Stating/Explaining
186	It is not common.	Stating/Explaining
187	You can say <i>I use</i> .	Stating/Explaining
188	We don't go walking because we are lazy.	Stating/Explaining
189	Your mindset will change.	Stating/Explaining
190	This is sadly the case.	Stating/Explaining
191	We will start with discussion now.	Stating/Explaining
192	It's going to be fun.	Stating/Explaining
193	We have finished the writing part; we are now discussing.	Stating/Explaining
194	We explained the meaning of this word last class.	Stating/Explaining
195	Let us start discussing it in general.	Stating/Explaining
196	Nature also has a major impact.	Stating/Explaining
197	We will now move to question B.	Stating/Explaining
198	I know you said it, but let's do that again with new ideas.	Stating/Explaining
199	Because medicine is more advanced, people live longer.	Stating/Explaining
200	We are more stressed because we don't see nature.	Stating/Explaining
201	You can still do this.	Stating/Explaining
202	You can look at this from both ends.	Stating/Explaining
203	Sometimes, we tend to exaggerate.	Stating/Explaining

204	We need to really think about it. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
205	It is something to think about.	Stating/Explaining
206	We will move to the reading now.	Stating/Explaining
207	This part of the paragraph is related to what you said earlier.	Stating/Explaining
208	I want someone to read this section.	Stating/Explaining
209	It says that young people are less healthy than their parents.	Stating/Explaining
210	He used it to show contrast.	Stating/Explaining
211	You said you didn't agree with this statement.	Stating/Explaining
212	We do know about them.	Stating/Explaining
213	It says that young people have more money.	Stating/Explaining
214	I highly doubt that.	Stating/Explaining
215	It is the food that we eat every day.	Stating/Explaining
216	It is any food that has changed from its natural state. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
217	It differs from one place to another. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
218	We are done with this part now.	Stating/Explaining
219	In the past people ate less processed food. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
220	You are going with the literal meaning.	Stating/Explaining
221	The writer says that the pace of city life is faster.	Stating/Explaining
222	The days go by so fast.	Stating/Explaining
223	That is what I mean.	Stating/Explaining
224	In city life, the day is really fast.	Stating/Explaining
225	If you travel, you feel life is slower. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
226	So, now we know what that means.	Stating/Explaining
227	Smart phones mean that work never stops. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
228	This is the last part. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
229	We keep checking our phones even when we are out with our friends.	Stating/Explaining
230	I can talk about the past without using <i>used to</i> .	Stating/Explaining
231	But, using <i>used to</i> means that I stopped doing it.	Stating/Explaining
232	It is no longer happening.	Stating/Explaining

233	In terms of structure, we start with the subject.	Stating/Explaining
234	After the subject comes the verb.	Stating/Explaining
235	I have explained all of this before.	Stating/Explaining
236	I am giving you hints.	Stating/Explaining
237	I sent you the slides.	Stating/Explaining
238	That is going to be your homework.	Stating/Explaining
239	Thank you. (x18)	Thanking
240	Good luck.	Encouraging
241	Alright.	Confirming
242	Yes. (x16)	Confirming
243	Ok. (x22)	Confirming
244	Sure. (x2)	Confirming
245	Excellent. (x5)	Encouraging
246	Good job. (x2)	Encouraging
247	Absolutely.	Confirming
248	Of course. (x2)	Confirming
249	Great.	Encouraging
250	Sorry. (x3)	Apologizing
251	Exactly, yes.	Confirming
252	Yes, excellent.	Encouraging
253	I love your answers. (x2)	Encouraging
254	Great point.	Encouraging
255	That's interesting.	Encouraging
256	It is good to hear all your viewpoints.	Encouraging
257	I like it. (x5)	Encouraging
258	Great reading.	Encouraging
259	Wow.	Encouraging
260	Personally, I agree.	Confirming
261	I like the way you think.	Encouraging
262	Leave your phone. I'm serious.	Warning

263	I will change my attitude with you.	Warning
264	I won't let you leave the classroom.	Warning
265	I will give you your marks at the end.	Promising/Committing
266	I will start using this from now on.	Promising/Committing
267	I will come back to this part. (x2)	Promising/Committing
268	We will do this next class.	Promising/Committing
269	I will send you the question in the group.	Promising/Committing

Appendix E

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 4 during observation.

Table 12

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P4

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	Do you have this paper?	Asking
2	What is it about?	Asking
3	Did you read it?	Asking
4	What specific questions did we study?	Asking
5	What was the specific genre we analyzed?	Asking
6	What do we make judgements on?	Asking
7	What specific question did we study?	Asking
8	What are some other factors that affect how judgement is made?	Asking
9	Who are <i>the Movement</i> ?	Asking
10	Why did they decide to take action?	Asking
11	Who did they take action against?	Asking
12	What were the main topics they addressed?	Asking
13	What is sociolinguistics? (x2)	Asking
14	What is elitism and what is its relationship to sociolinguistics?	Asking
15	How was judgement made?	Asking
16	What are some other factors?	Asking
17	What else?	Asking
18	Does it matter?	Asking
19	What do you mean? (x2)	Asking
20	Is it standard British English or is it vernacular?	Asking
21	What is the context of this specific word? (x3)	Asking
22	What do you mean by that?	Asking
23	What is the name of the scholar who proposed this?	Asking

24	What does the centripetal force do?	Asking
25	Where does it move?	Asking
26	Is it towards the centripetal or centrifugal?	Asking
27	Why? (x3)	Asking
28	What is this?	Asking
29	What does that indicate? (x2)	Asking
30	What do you understand from this? (x2)	Asking
31	What is the meaning of this phrase?	Asking
32	How do we view creativity here?	Asking
33	What lens did they apply?	Asking
34	Why do we focus on the context?	Asking
35	Why is the context important?	Asking
36	What does that reveal?	Asking
37	What is the role of the critical lens?	Asking
38	Is the language appropriate?	Asking
39	Does it solve a problem or create more problems?	Asking
40	What do you think is the result of the book?	Asking
41	Would it create more problems or support them?	Asking
42	What is the meaning of vernacular?	Asking
43	What does language do here?	Asking
44	Can we apply this here?	Asking
45	Can't we apply it?	Asking
46	How can we apply it?	Asking
47	What is creativity? (x2)	Asking
48	Was the language novel?	Asking
49	Was it innovative?	Asking
50	Why is it innovative?	Asking
51	Do you view it as a high quality work?	Asking
52	Is it high quality in terms of themes of language?	Asking
53	What are the main themes of the book?	Asking

54	Was the method or the language appropriate?	Asking
55	How was the book received?	Asking
56	What is only received negatively?	Asking
57	Is it a positive or negative comment?	Asking
58	What was it criticized for? (x2)	Asking
59	How do you describe its language?	Asking
60	Is diversity appreciated?	Asking
61	Can we consider another factor in making this judgement other than social factors?	Asking
62	Does the race of the author matter?	Asking
63	What is his origin?	Asking
64	Do you remember the multiple varieties of English?	Asking
65	What is the <i>death of the author</i> ?	Asking
66	They were notions proposed by whom?	Asking
67	What does that reflect?	Asking
68	What is the role of cultural capital in making judgements?	Asking
69	What is cultural capital?	Asking
70	Did we discuss that in previous sessions?	Asking
71	Can you help me in defining modernism in literature?	Requesting
72	Can you read this?	Requesting
73	Raise your voice.	Commanding
74	Raise your voices please (indirect command) (x2)	Commanding
75	I want you to sit in front. (indirect)	Commanding
76	Can you summarize their points? (indirect)	Commanding
77	Fill in this mind map.	Commanding
78	Tell me what it is about.	Commanding
79	Remind me of the factors.	Commanding
80	Have a look at this page from the book.	Commanding
81	Tell me what you have noticed.	Commanding
82	Remind me of the themes.	Commanding

83	Think deeply about the political factors.	Commanding
84	I want you to focus on language mixing. (indirect)	Commanding
85	I want you to focus on this book as a case study. (indirect)	Commanding
86	First, we will start with a summary of what we studied in chapter 4.	Stating/Explaining
87	This is something that we studied before the midterm.	Stating/Explaining
88	There is a specific genre we are analyzing.	Stating/Explaining
89	Chapter 4 is about judgement making.	Stating/Explaining
90	We made judgements on the language of literary works.	Stating/Explaining
91	You need to start with sociolinguistics as the main term.	Stating/Explaining
92	It studies the relationship between society and language.	Stating/Explaining
93	That was one of the questions we studied.	Stating/Explaining
94	We also need to define modernism in literature.	Stating/Explaining
95	Today, we will focus on language mixing. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
96	We need to investigate how language mixing is viewed in different contexts. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
97	Language mixing is a phenomenon discussed by writers.	Stating/Explaining
98	It involves mixing standard English with non-standard varieties. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
99	This has been a topic of concern among scholars.	Stating/Explaining
100	They want to see how judgement is made related to this linguistic phenomenon.	Stating/Explaining
101	There are factors that affect how judgement is made.	Stating/Explaining
102	The personal attitude of the critic is also a factor.	Stating/Explaining
103	There are personal, social and political factors.	Stating/Explaining
104	When we talk about social factors, we highlight the context.	Stating/Explaining
105	The context is very important.	Stating/Explaining
106	All of these factors contribute to the way judgement is made.	Stating/Explaining
107	You have to thoroughly discuss these factors in relation to language mixing.	Stating/Explaining

108	We will focus for now on one book.	Stating/Explaining
109	You will find it as Reading C in your textbook.	Stating/Explaining
110	It is a reading written by the same author.	Stating/Explaining
111	This is the name of the author.	Stating/Explaining
112	<i>Londonstani</i> is the name of the novel.	Stating/Explaining
113	It is a book that received scholarly attention.	Stating/Explaining
114	These linguistic features are why the book has been criticized. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
115	Now, we are trying to answer a specific question on language mixing.	Stating/Explaining
116	First, we need to define the context. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
117	The context consists of who wrote the text and when.	Stating/Explaining
118	Then, you identify the different linguistic features.	Stating/Explaining
119	We just mentioned some linguistic features.	Stating/Explaining
120	One linguistic feature we talked about is language mixing.	Stating/Explaining
121	Language mixing was seen in the use of standard British English alongside other varieties.	Stating/Explaining
122	They could include swear words and impolite colloquial terms. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
123	The main theme of the book has also been criticized.	Stating/Explaining
124	The lines that have been highlighted refer to cultural practices.	Stating/Explaining
125	It refers to acts by those living in poor neighborhoods in London.	Stating/Explaining
126	The characters are boys who have faced a lot of cultural challenges.	Stating/Explaining
127	They live in a society that combines a lot of different cultures.	Stating/Explaining
128	It says that people are trying to stick a label on them.	Stating/Explaining
129	They no longer know what their identity is.	Stating/Explaining
130	Identity issues is one of the major themes this book addresses.	Stating/Explaining
131	Identity is about more than just the culture; it is also about the language.	Stating/Explaining

132	It involves an interrelation between culture and language.	Stating/Explaining
133	This word has to be highlighted.	Stating/Explaining
134	A lot of labels have been imposed on these boys.	Stating/Explaining
135	They are struggling to form their own identity.	Stating/Explaining
136	Here is the summary of the book.	Stating/Explaining
137	The author said that he wanted to write it in a way that people would find engaging.	Stating/Explaining
138	The author himself struggled in choosing the proper code to write the book in.	Stating/Explaining
139	He couldn't rely on the use of proper English.	Stating/Explaining
140	We said this in chapter one.	Stating/Explaining
141	We talked about the centripetal and centrifugal forces.	Stating/Explaining
142	It was Bakhtin who proposed the notion of these forces.	Stating/Explaining
143	He said that language is going through constant tension between these forces.	Stating/Explaining
144	We said that there are a lot of standardized and non-standardized languages.	Stating/Explaining
145	The book reflects this issue that was raised by Bakhtin.	Stating/Explaining
146	This is how we relate our discussion with those notions.	Stating/Explaining
147	The book was highly criticized.	Stating/Explaining
148	It was criticized for the linguistic features.	Stating/Explaining
149	Even the scenes of the book have been criticized.	Stating/Explaining
150	The scenes were violent and improper.	Stating/Explaining
151	They raised concerns about social norms.	Stating/Explaining
152	This is an example of a phrase that turned into an idiom.	Stating/Explaining
153	I highlighted this phrase so that you would remember it.	Stating/Explaining
154	You will need it as an example.	Stating/Explaining
155	This is one of the colloquial Irish phrases.	Stating/Explaining
156	The phrase is used to address someone who makes a mistake because of poor eyesight.	Stating/Explaining

157	It can also symbolize something else.	Stating/Explaining
158	It is related to one of the areas of London.	Stating/Explaining
159	We are focusing on the issues in London.	Stating/Explaining
160	The characters in the book reflect those issues.	Stating/Explaining
161	Here, we are highlighting the linguistic features.	Stating/Explaining
162	We are also referring to their cultural and social backgrounds.	Stating/Explaining
163	We mentioned some struggles related to language and culture.	Stating/Explaining
164	They are trying to regulate them through some tools.	Stating/Explaining
165	They were imposed by the cultural and linguistic systems.	Stating/Explaining
166	They were trying to escape these systems.	Stating/Explaining
167	Proper English was a symbol of the dominating English system.	Stating/Explaining
168	In the second paragraph, you can write about other issues raised in the book.	Stating/Explaining
169	You can mention these systems and how they symbolized dominance.	Stating/Explaining
170	Cultural and identity issues are also major themes of the book.	Stating/Explaining
171	We are done with linguistic features and move to other issues raised in the book.	Stating/Explaining
172	The language of the book is a mixture of London street talk and even American.	Stating/Explaining
173	It was perhaps to reflect the metropolitan nature of their society.	Stating/Explaining
174	They were not exposed to American vernacular.	Stating/Explaining
175	Perhaps they learned that from the society.	Stating/Explaining
176	There is reference to native languages of former British colonies.	Stating/Explaining
177	The point is that the slang they used wasn't random.	Stating/Explaining
178	They were governed by rules.	Stating/Explaining
179	These are the main features of creativity.	Stating/Explaining
180	The author came up with a language nobody really use.	Stating/Explaining
181	It reflects their identity issues.	Stating/Explaining
182	It is not a real language.	Stating/Explaining

183	The author constructed the language based on real standardized and non-standardized languages.	Stating/Explaining
184	We do so by applying the textual lens.	Stating/Explaining
185	We are trying to find out the textual features of the book. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
186	We apply the three lens framework.	Stating/Explaining
187	When we understand the context, we will understand why the author constructed this unique language.	Stating/Explaining
188	The identity of the boys is reflected in their language. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
189	The role of the critical lens is to evaluate the values embedded in a text.	Stating/Explaining
190	We use the critical lens to judge appropriateness. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
191	You need to mention in your essay that the book was highly criticized.	Stating/Explaining
192	It was criticized not only for its language, but also for its themes.	Stating/Explaining
193	Such a theme would not be accepted by critics. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
194	Some of the scenes were violent and impolite.	Stating/Explaining
195	The characters tried to escape any system imposed on them.	Stating/Explaining
196	They went against the linguistic and cultural norms.	Stating/Explaining
197	<i>Londonstani</i> is a case study of literature written in vernacular.	Stating/Explaining
198	It means street language that is embedded with slang.	Stating/Explaining
199	There is a reference to the notion proposed by Bakhtin.	Stating/Explaining
200	It is different from the two forces.	Stating/Explaining
201	Language here reflects the beliefs and interests of a social group.	Stating/Explaining
202	This notion was also proposed by Bakhtin.	Stating/Explaining
203	Every age group has their own linguistic system.	Stating/Explaining
204	We have mentioned three notions by Bakhtin.	Stating/Explaining
205	It is innovative because the author constructed it.	Stating/Explaining
206	Identity issues were addressed in a unique way through the characters.	Stating/Explaining
207	This is one of the themes that have been appreciated by critics.	Stating/Explaining

208	Even the themes can be seen as high quality.	Stating/Explaining
209	Perhaps this is the only method he thought could represent the society.	Stating/Explaining
210	It was received negatively.	Stating/Explaining
211	Now, we will have a look at other judgements made by other critics.	Stating/Explaining
212	Vernacular writing can also be creative in other ways.	Stating/Explaining
213	I don't think this is clear.	Stating/Explaining
214	It was viewed as the biggest British-Asian novel.	Stating/Explaining
215	It stands with this specific category of society.	Stating/Explaining
216	It makes them feel stronger.	Stating/Explaining
217	You can see that this is a positive comment made on the book.	Stating/Explaining
218	It highlights specific features of the book.	Stating/Explaining
219	Again, the book is being described as being high quality.	Stating/Explaining
220	It does not mainly reflect cultural habits of Indian society.	Stating/Explaining
221	These are not the main themes of the book.	Stating/Explaining
222	It uncovers hidden realities of society.	Stating/Explaining
223	I need you to read these reviews because they serve as examples of positive feedback.	Stating/Explaining
224	The book was criticized for its language.	Stating/Explaining
225	The author was Asian-British, so he wasn't a native speaker of British English.	Stating/Explaining
226	He came from a minority group of former British colonies.	Stating/Explaining
227	This reminds me of something we covered already.	Stating/Explaining
228	Here we find the themes of politics and colonization.	Stating/Explaining
229	The varieties were labeled as part of the inner and outer circle.	Stating/Explaining
230	Eliot was not a native speaker of any of these languages.	Stating/Explaining
231	He applied the method of language-mixing.	Stating/Explaining
232	Here is another author who was criticized as well.	Stating/Explaining
233	He was criticized for language mixing.	Stating/Explaining

234	He was an academic as well.	Stating/Explaining
235	He wanted the critics to overlook his ethnic background.	Stating/Explaining
236	He wanted critics to read his work through the <i>death of the author</i> approach.	Stating/Explaining
237	It has been adopted as an approach to analyze literary works.	Stating/Explaining
238	It involves reading the book without considering the author.	Stating/Explaining
239	As we just mentioned, these authors were viewed as creative.	Stating/Explaining
240	So, language mixing was found in the works of prominent literary figures.	Stating/Explaining
241	Here is a list of works based on language mixing.	Stating/Explaining
242	There are two different views on the same linguistic phenomenon.	Stating/Explaining
243	They were positively received for their originality.	Stating/Explaining
244	You need to compare between two literary figures.	Stating/Explaining
245	It is better to start with defining sociolinguistics.	Stating/Explaining
246	You need to define language mixing as a linguistic phenomenon.	Stating/Explaining
247	We studied two examples.	Stating/Explaining
248	We can also compare between Eliot and Diaz.	Stating/Explaining
249	You can come to my office to get your marks.	Stating/Explaining
250	Excellent. (x6)	Encouraging
251	Yes. (x8)	Confirming
252	Sorry. (x3)	Apologizing
253	Alright.	Confirming
254	Yes, of course. (x2)	Confirming

Appendix F

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 5 during observation.

Table 13

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P5

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	Do you have a class after this?	Asking
2	What time is your class?	Asking
3	Is that ok? (x17)	Asking
4	What do I mean by that? (x2)	Asking
5	What is syntax? (x2)	Asking
6	What is a sentence? (x3)	Asking
7	What is a subject? (x2)	Asking
8	What is a predicate? (x2)	Asking
9	How many levels are there?	Asking
10	How many morphemes are there in this word?	Asking
11	How many phonemes are there in this word?	Asking
12	How many clauses are there in this sentence?	Asking
13	Why? (x2)	Asking
14	Why is it called a noun phrase?	Asking
15	Why is it called a verb phrase?	Asking
16	How many phrases are there in this clause? (x2)	Asking
17	Is this clear? (x10)	Asking
18	Are you sure?	Asking
19	So far so good? (x2)	Asking
20	What are the three things in common with all these definitions?	Asking
21	It has to be complete, ok? (x2) (indirect)	Asking
22	What do we mean by the meaning of a sentence?	Asking
23	What do you think?	Asking

24	Is this a meaningful sentence?	Asking
25	What do we mean by sentence constituents? (x2)	Asking
26	What are constituents?	Asking
27	What is the communicative function of sentences?	Asking
28	You understood that, right? (indirect)	Asking
29	Where can you hear an informal exchange like this?	Asking
30	Do you remember that? (x5)	Asking
31	Can you write the same way you speak?	Asking
32	What do we mean by orthographic criteria? (x2)	Asking
33	Can we change the order of the phrases? (x2)	Asking
34	Can we start with the verb phrase?	Asking
35	Do you remember adverb phrases?	Asking
36	What type of adverb is this?	Asking
37	Can we move the words inside the phrase? (x2)	Asking
38	What is the conclusion then?	Asking
39	Do you know what an object is?	Asking
40	What happens if we remove the subject from the sentence?	Asking
41	Are they correct English sentences without the subject?	Asking
42	What does that mean? (x2)	Asking
43	How can we tell that a certain word is the subject of the sentence?	Asking
44	Who is the agent of the action here?	Asking
45	Is this the subject here?	Asking
46	Do you understand the difference?	Asking
47	Where is the action here?	Asking
48	What do we mean by imperative?	Asking
49	Is there a subject here?	Asking
50	Is it the subject of the sentence?	Asking
51	What is the subject here?	Asking
52	Do you remember the SVO structure?	Asking
53	Is there an auxiliary here?	Asking

54	Where is the verb here? (x3)	Asking
55	What about this one?	Asking
56	Is it a main verb or auxiliary?	Asking
57	What is the function of the predicate?	Asking
58	Are they the only ones?	Asking
59	What are these two types of verbs?	Asking
60	What is the function of this word?	Asking
61	What kind of verb is it?	Asking
62	What kind of object is this?	Asking
63	Can you say that?	Asking
64	How can we differentiate between the direct and the indirect object?	Asking
65	Why is it complex?	Asking
66	What did they do in the sentence?	Asking
67	Does this word describe the first or second word? (x2)	Asking
68	What is the function of this word in the sentence?	Asking
69	Who is the adjective about?	Asking
70	Are these the only verbs in English?	Asking
71	Do we have an object here? (x2)	Asking
72	What are these? (x3)	Asking
73	Can we expand the subject and predicate?	Asking
74	Is there a limit to the words I can add in the subject position?	Asking
75	What elements can be removed from this subject?	Asking
76	Can we expand the predicate?	Asking
77	What is an adverbial of manner?	Asking
78	Do you have any questions? (x5)	Asking
79	Are you happy with your marks?	Asking
80	Bear with me today.	Commanding
81	Do this activity as revision for the quiz.	Commanding
82	You need to provide examples. (x5) (indirect)	Commanding

83	Keep this as an example. (x2)	Commanding
84	Keep in mind the building.	Commanding
85	Be careful. (x2)	Commanding
86	Keep your questions for now.	Commanding
87	Look at this. (x4)	Commanding
88	Look at this sentence. (x5)	Commanding
89	Try to analyze the sentence.	Commanding
90	Look at these examples. (x6)	Commanding
91	Try to understand. (x2)	Commanding
92	Keep this in mind. (x2)	Commanding
93	Look at the subject. (x4)	Commanding
94	Spot out the subject.	Commanding
95	Imagine this sentence without the subject. (x2)	Commanding
96	Look at the second sentence.	Commanding
97	Look at the indirect object here.	Commanding
98	Look at this question. (x2)	Commanding
99	Give me an example of adverbs of manner.	Commanding
100	Look at these words. (x2)	Commanding
101	I want you to differentiate between them. (indirect)	Commanding
102	Please do the exercises in the book.	Commanding
103	Study well for the quiz. (x3)	Commanding
104	Explain it. (x2)	Commanding
105	Don't tell me its word class.	Commanding
106	We need to finish Unit 9 today.	Stating/Explaining
107	I will be moving fast.	Stating/Explaining
108	Unit 9 is included in your quiz.	Stating/Explaining
109	The quiz will be after the break. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
110	We have to finish units 10, 12 and 13.	Stating/Explaining
111	Unit 13 is a long one.	Stating/Explaining
112	We have about four classes to finish them.	Stating/Explaining

113	I need to finish the rest of the syllabus.	Stating/Explaining
114	Last class, we finished units 7 and 8.	Stating/Explaining
115	They were the shortest units.	Stating/Explaining
116	Everything is updated on the system. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
117	We are now in week 9.	Stating/Explaining
118	Unit 9 is called syntax 1.	Stating/Explaining
119	Your quiz is on Sunday.	Stating/Explaining
120	It includes definitions and writing.	Stating/Explaining
121	The other type of question will be to discuss and explain.	Stating/Explaining
122	It includes units 7, 8 and 9.	Stating/Explaining
123	We have finished units 7 and 8.	Stating/Explaining
124	Today, we will do unit 9.	Stating/Explaining
125	It is out of ten marks, and it is very important.	Stating/Explaining
126	This is the activity that I you can do as revision.	Stating/Explaining
127	These are things that you already know.	Stating/Explaining
128	We will just place them into linguistic frames.	Stating/Explaining
129	Syntax is the study of the way sentences are constructed.	Stating/Explaining
130	The components of a sentence are called constituents. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
131	These constituents are related to each other. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
132	They are not just put together randomly. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
133	The different parts of a sentence have a relationship. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
134	The grammar here is from a different perspective from what you know.	Stating/Explaining
135	In unit 7, we looked at the word and how we construct word formation.	Stating/Explaining
136	We moved from the words in general to looking at the different types of words.	Stating/Explaining
137	Now, we need to use words to construct sentences.	Stating/Explaining
138	We understand sentences in terms of blocks, just like a building.	Stating/Explaining

139	Floors in the building consist of apartments that consist of rooms; it is the same with sentences.	Stating/Explaining
140	This is how we are going to view sentences.	Stating/Explaining
141	Morphemes are made up of smaller constituents called phonemes.	Stating/Explaining
142	So, we start from phonemes, then morphemes, then words, phrases, clauses and then sentences.	Stating/Explaining
143	This is the smallest and this is the largest constituents.	Stating/Explaining
144	The word has three morphemes.	Stating/Explaining
145	The same applies to the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
146	Sentences consist of clauses. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
147	Clauses consist of phrases. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
148	Phrases consist of words. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
149	When we study syntax, we look at these levels.	Stating/Explaining
150	Words the basic minimum units we study in syntax. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
151	This is the major block. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
152	Each clause has a number of phrases and a number of words.	Stating/Explaining
153	<i>The girls cooked</i> has two phrases.	Stating/Explaining
154	This is what we call a noun phrase and verb phrase.	Stating/Explaining
155	It is called a noun phrase because the main word is a noun.	Stating/Explaining
156	It is called a verb phrase because the main word in the phrase is a verb.	Stating/Explaining
157	The word <i>and</i> is just a conjunction to connect the clauses together.	Stating/Explaining
158	The first phrase is here.	Stating/Explaining
159	This is what we mean when we say that the words in a sentence are not randomly put together.	Stating/Explaining
160	They are put together because they relate to each other in a certain way. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
161	The clause is a part of a sentence that contains a verb.	Stating/Explaining

162	The phrase is a smaller part of a clause.	Stating/Explaining
163	For example, <i>in the morning</i> is a phrase.	Stating/Explaining
164	For it to be a clause, it should contain a verb.	Stating/Explaining
165	A clause can also be a sentence on its own.	Stating/Explaining
166	If the sentence has one verb, it means it has one clause. Two verbs means two clauses.	Stating/Explaining
167	A sentence has to be complete in meaning.	Stating/Explaining
168	The meaning of a sentence can be a statement, question or command. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
169	The sentence must be meaningful and make sense.	Stating/Explaining
170	Here are examples of meaningful sentences. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
171	This is a proverb, but it is a meaningful sentence.	Stating/Explaining
172	It is a grammatically correct, but it does not make sense. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
173	These three sentences don't make sense.	Stating/Explaining
174	All of these could be definitions in your quiz.	Stating/Explaining
175	Sentences combine in specific ways according to grammatical rules to convey meaning. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
176	If they combine but don't convey meaning, they are useless.	Stating/Explaining
177	We will take them one by one.	Stating/Explaining
178	We use sentences to convey messages and communicate.	Stating/Explaining
179	Even if they are short, there is a function.	Stating/Explaining
180	It is a very short and informal clause, but you can understand what they mean.	Stating/Explaining
181	There is a communication function behind sentences. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
182	The orthographic criterion is the written form of sentences.	Stating/Explaining
183	We have tools that help us when speaking, but not writing.	Stating/Explaining
184	Intonation, pauses, stress, facial expressions and gestures help us convey messages in speaking.	Stating/Explaining
185	We can't apply these in writing.	Stating/Explaining
186	This is why we have writing rules.	Stating/Explaining

187	English sentences must be structured and punctuated properly. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
188	Here lies the main difference between English and Arabic.	Stating/Explaining
189	Full stop and capital letters are the basic rules of punctuation. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
190	This is what we mean by orthographic criteria.	Stating/Explaining
191	These are our tools when writing.	Stating/Explaining
192	Another important criterion is word order.	Stating/Explaining
193	One of the important rules when writing sentences is word order.	Stating/Explaining
194	English is a language that has a strict word order.	Stating/Explaining
195	Changing the order of these phrases changes the meaning.	Stating/Explaining
196	<i>Last night</i> is an adverb phrase.	Stating/Explaining
197	So, other than noun and verb phrase, we have adjective and adverb phrase.	Stating/Explaining
198	The words together make an adverb of time. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
199	They function as an adverb phrase.	Stating/Explaining
200	Word classes look at the types of words, but how they function in a sentence is syntax. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
201	The function of words is really important in syntax. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
202	We will now move the words around in the phrase.	Stating/Explaining
203	We cannot move them around. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
204	Words have a very strict order inside the phrase. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
205	These are the main differences in word order.	Stating/Explaining
206	This is why English is referred to as an SVO/C language. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
207	In declarative sentences, the positions of subjects, verbs and objects are fixed.	Stating/Explaining
208	They occur in this fixed order. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
209	I am sure you know that already.	Stating/Explaining
210	We already studied this before.	Stating/Explaining
211	This is not in the book. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
212	The subject could be the doer of the action. (x2)	Stating/Explaining

213	The subject could also be the surface subject. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
214	In this case, the subject does not do anything.	Stating/Explaining
215	In the passive sentences, the subject is not the doer of the action.	Stating/Explaining
216	This is because it comes in the subject position.	Stating/Explaining
217	One example is <i>the lesson was explained by the teacher</i> .	Stating/Explaining
218	You should know this by now.	Stating/Explaining
219	The object is the affected participant.	Stating/Explaining
220	The complement is anything that completes the meaning of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
221	In syntax, we look at these in a different way from what you studied previously.	Stating/Explaining
222	A sentence must have a subject and a predicate.	Stating/Explaining
223	Objects and complements are optional. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
224	For example, <i>birds fly</i> has no object or complement.	Stating/Explaining
225	It is still a complete English sentence.	Stating/Explaining
226	A sentence must be meaningful.	Stating/Explaining
227	A written sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop, question or exclamation mark.	Stating/Explaining
228	Subjects and predicates are important parts of a sentence.	Stating/Explaining
229	We cannot have a sentence without them.	Stating/Explaining
230	Each of the sentences we saw had a subject.	Stating/Explaining
231	The subject here is the word underlined.	Stating/Explaining
232	The subject can be one word or more than one word.	Stating/Explaining
233	If we remove the subjects from these sentences, they will not be meaningful.	Stating/Explaining
234	In terms of structure, we should have both a subject and a predicate.	Stating/Explaining
235	The criteria of a sentence are not met when I remove the subject.	Stating/Explaining
236	We have two types of subjects in a sentence: the agent and the surface.	Stating/Explaining

237	This is the subject of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
238	He is the doer of the action in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
239	The three subjects in these examples are agents; they did something.	Stating/Explaining
240	Although this word is in the subject position, it is not the agent.	Stating/Explaining
241	This shows more in the passive voice. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
242	Sometimes, the subject is also the affected participant.	Stating/Explaining
243	Here, it is not an agent; it is just the surface subject.	Stating/Explaining
244	The sentences here are about states, not actions.	Stating/Explaining
245	They are all subjects.	Stating/Explaining
246	The subject is an obligatory constituent in the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
247	It is a component of a sentence that we cannot omit.	Stating/Explaining
248	All sentences must have a subject.	Stating/Explaining
249	The subject of a sentence determines the form of the verb.	Stating/Explaining
250	If the subject is singular, the verb is singular.	Stating/Explaining
251	If the subject is plural, the verb is plural.	Stating/Explaining
252	The subject and verb must agree in number.	Stating/Explaining
253	We call this subject-verb agreement.	Stating/Explaining
254	Imperative sentence means a command.	Stating/Explaining
255	<i>Stop talking</i> is a sentence.	Stating/Explaining
256	These are commands.	Stating/Explaining
257	The subject is implied and hidden. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
258	This is the only type of sentence where the subject is not there. It is hidden.	Stating/Explaining
259	I just wanted to make this point clear.	Stating/Explaining
260	This is a common mistake students make.	Stating/Explaining
261	This is what we mean when we say the subject determines the form of the verb.	Stating/Explaining
262	We use this especially in the present simple.	Stating/Explaining
263	This doesn't show in the past simple.	Stating/Explaining

264	The subject is not always the first word of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
265	Here the first word is an adverb of time.	Stating/Explaining
266	The subject changes its position in a question.	Stating/Explaining
267	For a question, the structure is VSC.	Stating/Explaining
268	If we have two words as the verb, we put the subject in the middle. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
269	You cannot say <i>are playing the children</i> .	Stating/Explaining
270	You say <i>are the children playing</i> .	Stating/Explaining
271	This is the only case where we do a subject-verb inversion.	Stating/Explaining
272	The predicate is everything that comes after the subject. (x3).	Stating/Explaining
273	The rest of the sentence after the subject is the predicate.	Stating/Explaining
274	The function of the predicate is to tell us something about the subject.	Stating/Explaining
275	It gives information about the subject.	Stating/Explaining
276	It can consist of only one word. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
277	This word is the predicate here. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
278	It can also consist of more than one word.	Stating/Explaining
279	The underlined words are the predicates.	Stating/Explaining
280	These are not the only predicates.	Stating/Explaining
281	There are two types of verbs.	Stating/Explaining
282	We have transitive and intransitive verbs.	Stating/Explaining
283	Intransitive verbs do not require an object to complete the sentence. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
284	These verbs do not take an object, so we call them intransitive verbs.	Stating/Explaining
285	This is a complete English sentence without an object.	Stating/Explaining
286	These examples all have intransitive verbs.	Stating/Explaining
287	We also have verbs that require an object.	Stating/Explaining
288	Without an object, they make no sense.	Stating/Explaining
289	This is an incomplete sentence in structure and meaning.	Stating/Explaining

290	Transitive verbs are of three types. (x3)	Stating/Explaining
291	Monotransitive verbs need at least one object. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
292	We call this one object a direct object.	Stating/Explaining
293	We will now describe these words in terms of function.	Stating/Explaining
294	The word class is a noun, but the function is the subject.	Stating/Explaining
295	This is a monotransitive verb.	Stating/Explaining
296	This is the direct object.	Stating/Explaining
297	The predicate here is divided into the verb and object.	Stating/Explaining
298	The verb <i>repair</i> needs an object.	Stating/Explaining
299	Without the object, the sentence is incomplete.	Stating/Explaining
300	Another type of transitive verb is ditransitive.	Stating/Explaining
301	It means that it needs two objects. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
302	One of the objects is direct, while the other is indirect. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
303	This sentence requires a second object.	Stating/Explaining
304	Sometimes, it can be confusing to differentiate between them.	Stating/Explaining
305	The indirect object is usually a noun referring to a person. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
306	You can differentiate between the direct and indirect object in this way.	Stating/Explaining
307	The third type of verb is the complex-transitive verb.	Stating/Explaining
308	It requires a direct object and an object complement.	Stating/Explaining
309	The complement can be a subject or object.	Stating/Explaining
310	When I say object complement, it means it completes the meaning of the object.	Stating/Explaining
311	This word becomes the object complement because it is describing the object.	Stating/Explaining
312	There are also linking verbs.	Stating/Explaining
313	They are the words that link the subject to the subject complement.	Stating/Explaining
314	Subject complements explain the subject.	Stating/Explaining
315	These are linking verbs.	Stating/Explaining

316	They are not transitive or intransitive verbs.	Stating/Explaining
317	They are verbs to be.	Stating/Explaining
318	The subject complement is an obligatory constituent.	Stating/Explaining
319	In this sentence, there is no need for a complement. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
320	Sometimes, the linking verb is followed by an obligatory adverbial.	Stating/Explaining
321	Adverbial comes from adverbs.	Stating/Explaining
322	Again, in syntax, we are looking for the function, not the word class.	Stating/Explaining
323	Places and times are shown through adverbials.	Stating/Explaining
324	Here, adverbials are obligatory.	Stating/Explaining
325	Obligatory means that we cannot omit them from the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
326	This diagram shows the types of verbs that occur in the predicate.	Stating/Explaining
327	We have one last part left to finish.	Stating/Explaining
328	We can expand the subject and the predicate.	Stating/Explaining
329	These are examples of how the subject can be expanded.	Stating/Explaining
330	We can expand the subject, but they have to make sense.	Stating/Explaining
331	They are not obligatory; the only obligatory word is the head noun.	Stating/Explaining
332	They do not make sense without the head noun. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
333	All of this is called the noun phrase.	Stating/Explaining
334	That is because the head word in the phrase is a noun. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
335	The subject can be expanded in three ways.	Stating/Explaining
336	We can add words before the head word.	Stating/Explaining
337	We can add words after the head word.	Stating/Explaining
338	We can also add words before and after the head word.	Stating/Explaining
339	This is how we can expand the subject.	Stating/Explaining
340	We can also expand the predicate.	Stating/Explaining
341	We can do so by adding adverbs or prepositional phrases.	Stating/Explaining
342	The function of these prepositional phrases is as adverbials.	Stating/Explaining

343	Some adverbs and prepositional phrases are optional.	Stating/Explaining
344	This explains why they are placed in brackets in these examples.	Stating/Explaining
345	You can omit this word because the adverbial is not obligatory.	Stating/Explaining
346	The function of the whole phrase is as an adverbial.	Stating/Explaining
347	Removing them won't affect the structure or meaning of the sentence.	Stating/Explaining
348	You can be asked about these in the quiz.	Stating/Explaining
349	No.	Refuting
350	No, that's wrong.	Refuting
351	Ok. (x5)	Confirming
352	Very good. (x7)	Encouraging
353	Yes. (x7)	Confirming
354	I'm so sorry.	Apologizing
355	I will hopefully finish unit 13 in one go.	Promising/Committing
356	I will keep this activity for next class. (x2)	Promising/Committing
357	We will study this again in unit 10.	Promising/Committing
358	I promise you that we will do this revision.	Promising/Committing

Appendix G

List of locutionary and illocutionary acts performed by Participant 6 during observation.

Table 14

List of Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts by P6

Sentence No.	Locutionary Act	Illocutionary Act
1	What is it? (x5)	Asking
2	Is that ok? (x14)	Asking
3	What is sociolinguistics?	Asking
4	Is that the only part?	Asking
5	What do you think about this? (x4)	Asking
6	Why do you believe that? (x2)	Asking
7	Why did you say that? (x4)	Asking
8	What made you say that? (x2)	Asking
9	What do you know about it?	Asking
10	Does anyone else want to share your thoughts? (x2)	Asking
11	What does she mean? (x2)	Asking
12	Will you feel good?	Asking
13	Is that right? (x4)	Asking
14	How can you judge it?	Asking
15	How do you consider something to be political? (x3)	Asking
16	What would that be?	Asking
17	Are they related to each other? (x2)	Asking
18	How are they related to each other?	Asking
19	What do they do?	Asking
20	What else can you add? (x2)	Asking
21	How do you consider something as being creative? (x2)	Asking
22	How can a person be creative? (x2)	Asking
23	Are you creative?	Asking

24	How is it different?	Asking
25	Does evaluation have an impact? (x2)	Asking
26	Do you think teachers have power? (x2)	Asking
27	Do you have power in the classroom? (x2)	Asking
28	Do you know how it works? (x2)	Asking
29	What about these? (x2)	Asking
30	Do you think they are different?	Asking
31	What do you think? (x2)	Asking
32	Did they start this way? (x2)	Asking
33	What about him? (x2)	Asking
34	What is needed to reach this elite level?	Asking
35	What makes it political?	Asking
36	What does it result in? (x2)	Asking
37	Is that correct? (x7)	Asking
38	How do you feel about being judged? (x2)	Asking
39	Have you come across this term before? (x2)	Asking
40	What characteristics do you associate with British English? (x2)	Asking
41	Is that real?	Asking
42	Anyone else? (x3)	Asking
43	Who was the one who did it? (x2)	Asking
44	Do you remember that? (x2)	Asking
45	Do they use the language?	Asking
46	Do you know them?	Asking
47	Did everyone agree with them? (x2)	Asking
48	Were the people in support? (x2)	Asking
49	What does it mean? (x3)	Asking
50	Why do they use this form of language?	Asking
51	What is the mistake? (x3)	Asking
52	Is there anything missing? (x2)	Asking
53	Why is that? (x4)	Asking

54	Is it? (x3)	Asking
55	Is this the one? (x2)	Asking
56	Can I say that? (x2)	Asking
57	Do you understand? (x3)	Asking
58	Is this creative? (x5)	Asking
59	Do you agree? (x2)	Asking
60	What do you see? (x2)	Asking
61	Are they as creative as each other? (x2)	Asking
62	Will you keep that in mind?	Asking
63	Do you have any idea about this? (x2)	Asking
64	What does it stand for? (x2)	Asking
65	What are they used for? (x2)	Asking
66	Does anyone know about them? (x3)	Asking
67	Does this apply to others as well?	Asking
68	What did he do? (x2)	Asking
69	Do you have a guess? (x2)	Asking
70	Was he treated the same way?	Asking
71	Who is he? (x3)	Asking
72	Where is he from?	Asking
73	Did you read it? (x2)	Asking
74	Was it criticized? (x3)	Asking
75	What did he say? (x2)	Asking
76	Who are they? (x2)	Asking
77	Did it work? (x2)	Asking
78	Were they in support of them?	Asking
79	Did you get it? (x7)	Asking
80	Can you all check your groups please?	Requesting
81	I would like you to please fill in the survey. (x2)	Requesting
82	Put that in mind with everything we are doing today.	Commanding

83	I want you to have that in mind when answering questions. (indirect)	Commanding
84	Look at the statement at the top.	Commanding
85	Don't worry.	Commanding
86	Sit down here. (x2)	Commanding
87	Tell me your answer. (x2)	Commanding
88	Go ahead. (x7)	Commanding
89	Tell me. (x2)	Commanding
90	Tell me when.	Commanding
91	You need to make sure you state what you know is right. (indirect)	Commanding
92	Study all of it.	Commanding
93	Stick to that thought.	Commanding
94	Think about it in a political way.	Commanding
95	You need to accept it.	Commanding
96	Say it again.	Commanding
97	Don't memorize any of this. (x3)	Commanding
98	Just tell me the story.	Commanding
99	Look at this slogan.	Commanding
100	Do this.	Commanding
101	Turn it into a full stop.	Commanding
102	Be careful with that.	Commanding
103	Look at this one now.	Commanding
104	Look at the first word in every line.	Commanding
105	You need to refresh. (indirect)	Commanding
106	Start learning.	Commanding
107	Read it.	Commanding
108	Give me a few examples.	Commanding
109	Tell me one thing.	Commanding
110	You need to remember this word. (indirect)	Commanding

111	Take a guess.	Commanding
112	You need to address the two aspects. (x2)	Commanding
113	Look at this guy.	Commanding
114	Give me another one.	Commanding
115	Watch the movie.	Commanding
116	Look at this.	Commanding
117	Look at yourselves.	Commanding
118	Raise your hands.	Commanding
119	Upload your presentations.	Commanding
120	I am going to start chapter 4.	Stating/Explaining
121	Chapter 4 might be in the midterm.	Stating/Explaining
122	The total will be three questions from chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4.	Stating/Explaining
123	You will be required to answer two questions.	Stating/Explaining
124	You will be lucky to get a question from chapter 4 because it's easy.	Stating/Explaining
125	This is the last chapter from this book.	Stating/Explaining
126	The book on moodle is the same.	Stating/Explaining
127	I know you have a lot of questions about the midterm.	Stating/Explaining
128	I have no idea as I don't have access.	Stating/Explaining
129	We have to focus on the main questions that I have given you.	Stating/Explaining
130	There are some questions that are more dominant than the others.	Stating/Explaining
131	The chapter is about language.	Stating/Explaining
132	It's about creativity and politics.	Stating/Explaining
133	This time, it is related to the politics of value.	Stating/Explaining
134	These are the four themes that the chapter is going to address.	Stating/Explaining
135	I will be explaining them as we move on.	Stating/Explaining
136	The first thing we need to know is the definition of sociolinguistics.	Stating/Explaining
137	It is related to society. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
138	And you are part of society.	Stating/Explaining

139	The social context is all your beliefs, values and norms.	Stating/Explaining
140	We are addressing linguistics in a social context.	Stating/Explaining
141	It is the descriptive study of all aspects of society on your language.	Stating/Explaining
142	It involves your cultural norms, expectations and context.	Stating/Explaining
143	All these aspects are interrelated in the term sociolinguistics.	Stating/Explaining
144	This is the core of this chapter. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
145	It is worth a lot. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
146	He is relating the point to the lesson.	Stating/Explaining
147	This is not part of the book.	Stating/Explaining
148	I am trying to make you understand the concept.	Stating/Explaining
149	You just judged it based on your beliefs.	Stating/Explaining
150	You put a value on it based on your knowledge and expectations.	Stating/Explaining
151	This is the core element of this chapter.	Stating/Explaining
152	Everything we will be reading will be judged by its value.	Stating/Explaining
153	As your teacher, I am going to judge your paper.	Stating/Explaining
154	I am going to judge your paper against the criteria I have. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
155	It is not a personal judgement.	Stating/Explaining
156	Anything you write will be creative in its own way.	Stating/Explaining
157	This happens to any literary work.	Stating/Explaining
158	This is a potential question for the exam.	Stating/Explaining
159	You will need to give specific examples.	Stating/Explaining
160	The examples you give are the same as in the book.	Stating/Explaining
161	These are the things you need to consider.	Stating/Explaining
162	You need to identify the two things as well.	Stating/Explaining
163	Let's move on to some more questions.	Stating/Explaining
164	It needs to have some sort of power.	Stating/Explaining
165	Politics can also be found at home.	Stating/Explaining
166	Parents establish rules to run the house.	Stating/Explaining
167	Everyone has their own opinion.	Stating/Explaining

168	It is relevant to power.	Stating/Explaining
169	It depends on your background.	Stating/Explaining
170	It depends on how you define creativity.	Stating/Explaining
171	Someone who is creative can accomplish things in a short period.	Stating/Explaining
172	That is another point to mention.	Stating/Explaining
173	I will continue with your point.	Stating/Explaining
174	Evaluating your paper has an effect on you.	Stating/Explaining
175	We spoke about a teacher's role.	Stating/Explaining
176	That is one way.	Stating/Explaining
177	You do have power and you can make changes.	Stating/Explaining
178	It is when you put your genuine feedback.	Stating/Explaining
179	No one will see that.	Stating/Explaining
180	They need to know.	Stating/Explaining
181	You will continue dealing with the same issue. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
182	This is part of the chapter.	Stating/Explaining
183	This is what you spoke about.	Stating/Explaining
184	You also made judgements based on the questions we had.	Stating/Explaining
185	Some of the questions are the same.	Stating/Explaining
186	There are changes that can be made.	Stating/Explaining
187	There are different versions.	Stating/Explaining
188	There are criteria upon which judgements are made.	Stating/Explaining
189	This value is called the politics of appreciation.	Stating/Explaining
190	That would determine whether it is something creative.	Stating/Explaining
191	It is used to show whether you are appreciated or not.	Stating/Explaining
192	We are done with that. Let's move on.	Stating/Explaining
193	This is everything we have spoken about up to this point.	Stating/Explaining
194	I enjoyed this image when I was creating the slides.	Stating/Explaining
195	I tried to find a clearer image.	Stating/Explaining
196	I wasn't expecting that to be an answer.	Stating/Explaining
197	Each of them has a different specialization.	Stating/Explaining

198	They come from the elite society because of power.	Stating/Explaining
199	The president has political power.	Stating/Explaining
200	He is one of richest men on earth.	Stating/Explaining
201	They reached this level based on their knowledge.	Stating/Explaining
202	Knowledge is not enough, they had skills.	Stating/Explaining
203	These skills are needed to be creative.	Stating/Explaining
204	They each reached this elite status because of their creativity.	Stating/Explaining
205	Each of these people was influenced by their culture and society.	Stating/Explaining
206	We call this cultural capital.	Stating/Explaining
207	This notion describes what we just talked about.	Stating/Explaining
208	Cultural capital involves their skills, norms and behaviors that people acquire in society.	Stating/Explaining
209	It gives them economic and social status and power. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
210	The accumulation of cultural capital is one cause of upward mobility.	Stating/Explaining
211	Our discussion revolves around having those things.	Stating/Explaining
212	The next part discusses your judgements.	Stating/Explaining
213	Let us read these lines.	Stating/Explaining
214	We all believe in things that we do not want to question it.	Stating/Explaining
215	Politics here is not necessarily to do with government and countries.	Stating/Explaining
216	It has to do with your own beliefs.	Stating/Explaining
217	You have your own beliefs.	Stating/Explaining
218	You have a certain ideology, and if I judge it, I may shape that image you have.	Stating/Explaining
219	It depends on your ideologies and your social conflicts.	Stating/Explaining
220	As a child, you were always being judged for your language.	Stating/Explaining
221	These are related to the social context.	Stating/Explaining
222	It is not the job of the linguist to correct anyone.	Stating/Explaining
223	It is normal in schools, but not from a linguist.	Stating/Explaining

224	I tend to correct people's language.	Stating/Explaining
225	I was not aware that I was doing this.	Stating/Explaining
226	This is what we just spoke about.	Stating/Explaining
227	We were told to speak British English.	Stating/Explaining
228	It could be about the accent.	Stating/Explaining
229	It could be about the vocabulary.	Stating/Explaining
230	This is related to what you studied in the previous course.	Stating/Explaining
231	English was the language of the poor people.	Stating/Explaining
232	They used English as a dialect.	Stating/Explaining
233	All of these affected the English language.	Stating/Explaining
234	The language changed because of these factors.	Stating/Explaining
235	The Queen changed it from vernacular to a standard language.	Stating/Explaining
236	They started colonizing countries and spreading the language.	Stating/Explaining
237	We will have a look at all the different parts.	Stating/Explaining
238	It has to do with spelling, grammar and the use of jargon.	Stating/Explaining
239	This is what British English is about.	Stating/Explaining
240	I am going to show you something for you to understand the story.	Stating/Explaining
241	I will go to the slides.	Stating/Explaining
242	He believes that children naturally produce language.	Stating/Explaining
243	It is called the language acquisition device.	Stating/Explaining
244	To him, language can only be creative because of a person's cultural background.	Stating/Explaining
245	Another creative language aspect is when you are creating an artificial language.	Stating/Explaining
246	The movie had a special language that was created by linguists.	Stating/Explaining
247	This is according to the book. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
248	This is the next stage.	Stating/Explaining
249	To him, even textspeech is creative.	Stating/Explaining
250	It is creative because it has to do with your social background.	Stating/Explaining
251	All of these come under two umbrellas.	Stating/Explaining

252	The traditionalists believe that English is based on proper syntax, semantics and phonology.	Stating/Explaining
253	The traditionalists are about following the rules.	Stating/Explaining
254	We also have the progressivists.	Stating/Explaining
255	They believe that there is no need for grammar and spelling.	Stating/Explaining
256	This started in the 1960's.	Stating/Explaining
257	That is when they started to diminish the role of grammar and spelling.	Stating/Explaining
258	He criticized the progressivists.	Stating/Explaining
259	He believed that the English language got corrupted.	Stating/Explaining
260	He brought back the traditional approach.	Stating/Explaining
261	He was also criticized.	Stating/Explaining
262	He was not successful.	Stating/Explaining
263	This is the speech he gave in his proposal.	Stating/Explaining
264	Everything I said is in these slides.	Stating/Explaining
265	Let's fix the mistake. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
266	This is your job as linguists.	Stating/Explaining
267	I still cannot see any change.	Stating/Explaining
268	There are no grammatical rules that are followed here.	Stating/Explaining
269	This is because it's an advert and they want to be creative.	Stating/Explaining
270	They are doing this to catch your attention.	Stating/Explaining
271	You all have different perceptions based on your different backgrounds.	Stating/Explaining
272	For some, this is considered creative.	Stating/Explaining
273	Because he is a poet, his work is considered creative.	Stating/Explaining
274	This is what this section covers.	Stating/Explaining
275	We need to address a few approaches and theories that are relevant.	Stating/Explaining
276	Linguistic innovation varies based on your surroundings, social status, perspectives etc.	Stating/Explaining

277	These are some of the positive and negative comments on this slogan.	Stating/Explaining
278	The same thing applies to textspeech.	Stating/Explaining
279	I might keep you longer to finish this chapter.	Stating/Explaining
280	The next term you need to know is conlang.	Stating/Explaining
281	They are constructed languages.	Stating/Explaining
282	These are examples of invented languages.	Stating/Explaining
283	They are mainly used in science fiction and fantasies.	Stating/Explaining
284	You have seen them in movies.	Stating/Explaining
285	They do have their own complex symbols and systems.	Stating/Explaining
286	They also have a wide range of vocabulary items.	Stating/Explaining
287	They have their own set of phonological and grammatical rules.	Stating/Explaining
288	They receive little critical applause.	Stating/Explaining
289	They are not being valued as creative.	Stating/Explaining
290	They appear in certain in certain genres only.	Stating/Explaining
291	He is a linguist at MIT.	Stating/Explaining
292	This is outside the book.	Stating/Explaining
293	He has been known for writing his novels in both English and Spanish.	Stating/Explaining
294	He would say one line in English and a few in Spanish.	Stating/Explaining
295	The whole novel is like that.	Stating/Explaining
296	It would be challenging to understand the book if you do not know Spanish.	Stating/Explaining
297	I am going to show it to you now.	Stating/Explaining
298	It is in your books.	Stating/Explaining
299	This was the whole idea behind this writer and his shift.	Stating/Explaining
300	When he writes in both languages, he is showing his social background.	Stating/Explaining
301	Yet he is being criticized for that.	Stating/Explaining
302	They are judging him based on his race and not his writing.	Stating/Explaining

303	They didn't judge him based on his cultural capital.	Stating/Explaining
304	This is the second example.	Stating/Explaining
305	We have a few more examples of works that used different varieties of English.	Stating/Explaining
306	These three books were written in mixed languages.	Stating/Explaining
307	This is the basis of his claim.	Stating/Explaining
308	He is a 20 th century poet.	Stating/Explaining
309	He was awarded the Nobel Prize.	Stating/Explaining
310	He is very well-known for writing <i>The Waste Land</i> .	Stating/Explaining
311	He is a member of the modernists of the 20 th century.	Stating/Explaining
312	It is a very frequent question.	Stating/Explaining
313	He wrote it in around 5 languages.	Stating/Explaining
314	They found it creative.	Stating/Explaining
315	Spanish was Diaz's mother tongue.	Stating/Explaining
316	When he used his mother tongue in addition to English, he was criticized.	Stating/Explaining
317	Eliot learned all these languages.	Stating/Explaining
318	That is one of the reasons why he was not criticized.	Stating/Explaining
319	This is what your classmate just told us.	Stating/Explaining
320	That is why he is judged differently.	Stating/Explaining
321	Here, we have more on Eliot.	Stating/Explaining
322	They considered this as part of his cultural capital.	Stating/Explaining
323	They treated Diaz in the opposite way.	Stating/Explaining
324	This is another example. (x2)	Stating/Explaining
325	This is a comparison between the two.	Stating/Explaining
326	These are the two levels of cultural references.	Stating/Explaining
327	The common people are not considered modernists.	Stating/Explaining
328	His name is over there.	Stating/Explaining
329	I am covering all the reading just to be on the safe side.	Stating/Explaining
330	I am covering everything.	Stating/Explaining

331	He wrote a book where he mixed English with his Punjabi knowledge.	Stating/Explaining
332	He is found to be inferior to the others.	Stating/Explaining
333	He is not from the elite although he has the same cultural capital.	Stating/Explaining
334	This is another aspect that you need to address.	Stating/Explaining
335	People who had the talent but not the origin were not taken seriously as creative authors.	Stating/Explaining
336	The way they were judged was not based on what they wrote.	Stating/Explaining
337	It was based on other aspects.	Stating/Explaining
338	The same thing is with the novel <i>The color purple</i> .	Stating/Explaining
339	It is about how the African Americans suffered.	Stating/Explaining
340	This is the whole aspect of this novel.	Stating/Explaining
341	He is British-Asian.	Stating/Explaining
342	These are parts of what he has written.	Stating/Explaining
343	I mentioned this already.	Stating/Explaining
344	He was criticized for it because it was not considered Classical English.	Stating/Explaining
345	Because it was the language of the poor and the vernacular.	Stating/Explaining
346	He is the one who won the Nobel Prize.	Stating/Explaining
347	This new wave was criticized by John Carrey.	Stating/Explaining
348	We are still talking about mixing English with other languages.	Stating/Explaining
349	It was done by three famous English writers.	Stating/Explaining
350	These three were not criticized at all.	Stating/Explaining
351	We go back to the same notion of cultural capital and their origin.	Stating/Explaining
352	He is against the modernist movement because it is affecting the language.	Stating/Explaining
353	He criticized them for writing novel English, using unconventional and difficult language.	Stating/Explaining
354	Others thought it was really creative.	Stating/Explaining
355	That is another aspect that was discussed.	Stating/Explaining

356	There are many reasons why they wrote using those languages.	Stating/Explaining
357	This is a potential question.	Stating/Explaining
358	This is the last part of this chapter.	Stating/Explaining
359	They are a group of English poets and novelists from the 1950's.	Stating/Explaining
360	They did not want to continue the path of the modernists.	Stating/Explaining
361	They called themselves the movement.	Stating/Explaining
362	There could be a question to compare between the modernists and the movement.	Stating/Explaining
363	They come from the working classes.	Stating/Explaining
364	They wanted to stick to their origins.	Stating/Explaining
365	They were against the radical changes happening to the English language.	Stating/Explaining
366	They did not succeed because they were from the minorities.	Stating/Explaining
367	Another aspect was that they had some of the modernist features.	Stating/Explaining
368	They gave us two sides of the argument.	Stating/Explaining
369	That is all for chapter 4.	Stating/Explaining
370	Thank you so much. (x2)	Thanking
371	Thank you. (x3)	Thanking
372	Ok. (x15)	Confirming
373	Good. (x7)	Encouraging
374	Yes. (x9)	Confirming
375	Yes, absolutely. (x6)	Confirming
376	Very good. (x5)	Encouraging
377	Good on you. (x5)	Encouraging
378	Sorry guys.	Apologizing
379	Excellent. (x2)	Encouraging
380	Exactly. (x3)	Confirming
381	Wow! (x4)	Encouraging
382	I would disagree with you in that.	Disagreeing
383	You are right. (x3)	Confirming

384	If you separate your sentences with commas, instead of full stops, I will not give you marks in punctuation. (x2)	Warning
385	We will talk about that at the end.	Promising/Committing
386	It will be in the slides that I will upload on moodle.	Promising/Committing

Appendix H

Figures of the questions presented to the students in the questionnaire.

Q1:

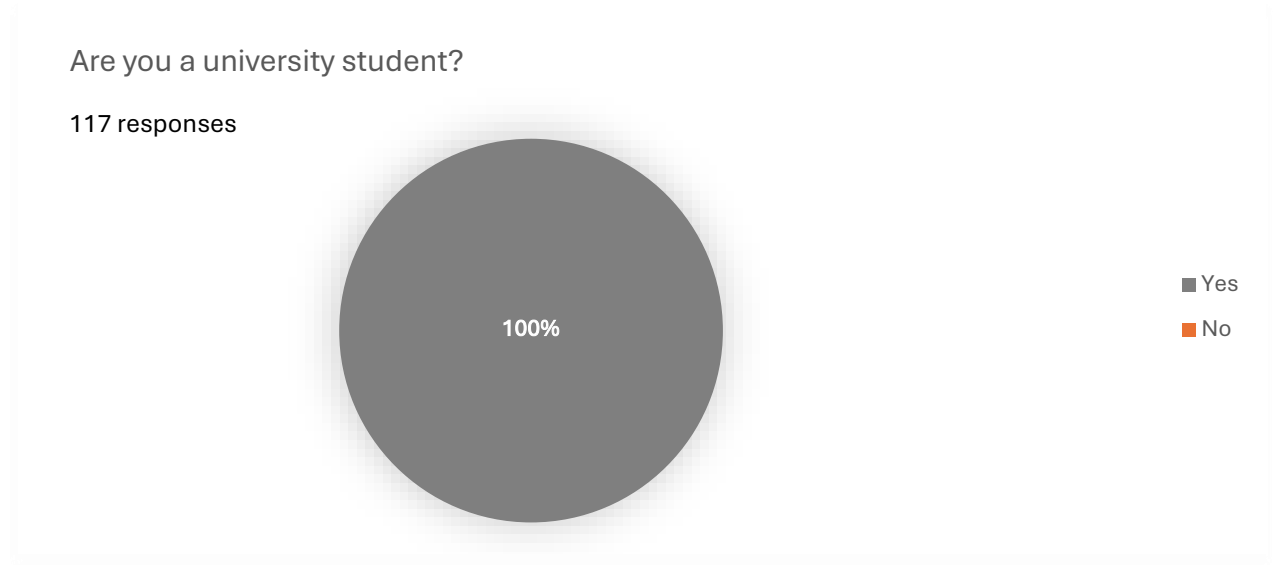


Figure 17

Are you a university student?

Q2:

What is your gender?

117 responses

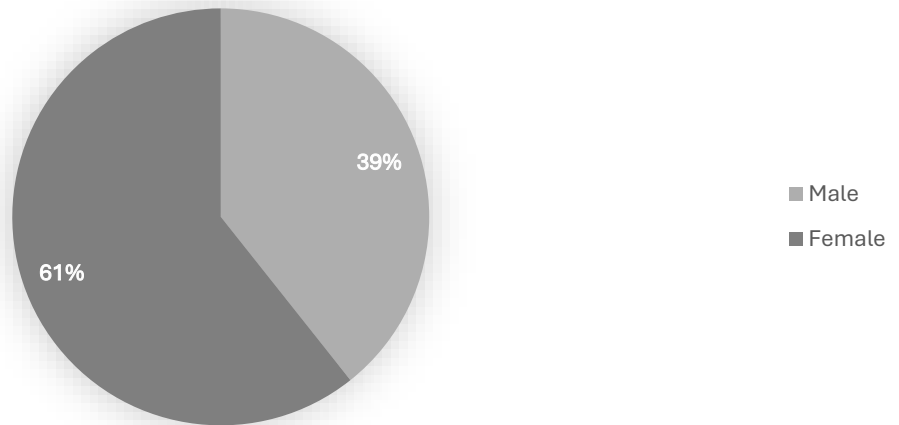


Figure 18

What is your gender?

Q3:

Do you prefer to interact more with younger or older EFL lecturers?

117 responses

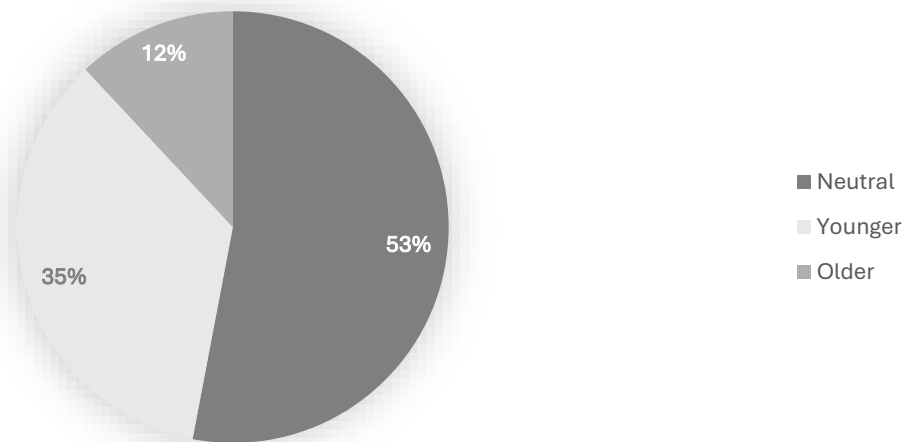


Figure 19

Do you prefer to interact more with younger or older EFL lecturers?

ملخص البحث

تبحث هذه الأطروحة في العلاقة بين أفعال الكلام (Speech Acts) كمتغير لغوي والعمر كمتغير اجتماعي في مجال التربية. وتهدف إلى التعرف على أنواع وتكرار أفعال الكلام التي يقوم بها محاضرون الجامعة الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية من مختلف الفئات العمرية فيما يتعلق بسلوك الطلاب باتجاه أساتذهم. وقد تم اختيار عينة من ثلاثة محاضرين أصغر سناً وثلاثة محاضرين أكبر سناً بالإضافة إلى طلابهم. ومن خلال الأساليب النوعية للتسجيلات والملاحظات، بالإضافة إلى تحليل المحادثة، تم جمع ما مجموعه 2971 عبارة لنجد أن المحاضرين قاموا بأفعال الكلام من التصريح والشرح والسؤال والأمر والطلب والدحض والتأكيد والتحذير والوعد والشكر والاعتذار والتشجيع. وقد تم تصنيف هذه الأنواع بعد ذلك وفقاً لسيرل لاستنتاج أن عمر المحاضر لم يؤثر على أنواع الأفعال الإلقائية (Illocutionary Acts) التي قاموا بها حيث قام كل من المحاضرين الأصغر والأكبر سناً بأداء التوجيهات والتمثيلات والتعابير والتكليفات. وفيما يتعلق بالتكرار، قام المحاضرون الأصغر سناً بأداء التوجيهات بمعدل أعلى من المحاضرين الأكبر سناً بنسبة 53% و 38% على التوالي، بينما قام المحاضرون الأكبر سناً بأداء التمثيلات بشكل أكثر تكراراً من المحاضرين الأصغر سناً بنسبة 53% و 29% على التوالي. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، قام المحاضرون الأصغر سناً بأداء التعابير أكثر من المحاضرين الأكبر سناً بنسبة 17% و 8% على التوالي، بينما قام كلاهما بأداء التكليفات بنفس المعدل 1%. وقد أدى هذا إلى استنتاج أن عمر المحاضرين يؤثر على تكرار قيامهم بالأفعال الكلامية حيث طرح المحاضرون الأصغر سناً على الطلاب المزيد من الأسئلة وشجعوهم، بينما أدلى المحاضرون الأكبر سناً بمزيد من العبارات من خلال شرح المفاهيم. وأخيراً، تم الحصول على وجهة نظر الطلاب من خلال توزيع استبيان على طلبة المحاضرين الستة الذين تمت مراقبتهم. ومن إجمالي 117 مستجيباً، وجد أن معظم الطلاب ليس لديهم أي تفضيل للعمر عند الرد على الأسئلة وقبول الأوامر والطلبات من محاضريهم. ومع ذلك، من بين أولئك الذين لديهم تفضيل، فضل المزيد من الطلاب أن يقوم المحاضرون الأصغر سناً بالأفعال الكلامية. لذلك، تم التوصل إلى استنتاج أن المزيد من الطلاب لديهم موقف إيجابي اتجاه طرح الأسئلة عليهم وإعطائهم الأوامر والطلبات من قبل المحاضرين الأصغر سناً مقارنة بالمحاضرين الأكبر سناً.

جامعة البحرين



كلية الآداب

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية وآدابها

استخدام أفعال الكلام من قبل محاضري اللغة الإنجليزية في الجامعات: دراسة
حالة تحليلية في مملكة البحرين

رسالة مقدمة استكمالاً لمتطلبات درجة الماجستير في الدراسات التطبيقية في اللغة الانجليزية

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