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**Developing Pragmatic Awareness and Communicative Competence
of Third Year Students of English, University of Constantine1: A
Focus on Instructional Effects**

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in
Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorat 3ème Cycle LMD in Applied Language
Studies**

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents.

For their endless love, support and encouragement

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Abstract

This study investigates the effectiveness of explicit pragmatic instruction on the speech act awareness and the communicative competence of a sample of learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at university level and their need to learn English as communication. It also assesses the degree of relationship between the learners' pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness and between the latter and communicative proficiency. The hypotheses are, first, the students' needs in learning English are perfectly compatible with the communicative trend. Second, if students are more exposed to explicit pragmatic instruction and communicative tasks, they will develop better their speech act awareness. Third, Students speech act awareness increases their communicative proficiency. Fourth and last, students' pragmatic theoretical awareness increases their speech act awareness. The sample answers a needs analysis questionnaire before an experiment is carried out in which a control group receives no explicit instruction and an experimental/teacher instruction group learns explicitly through classroom interaction. Three test formats are administered to assess performance in two speech acts (requests and apologies). The tools used have managed to measure the learners' interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of English in an EFL context, specifically in terms of the aforementioned two speech acts. The results show that students need English for communication and interaction and, therefore, they favour the communicative approach to language teaching. The first hypothesis is, thus, confirmed. The findings reveal that explicit pragmatic instruction has a positive impact on the EFL learners' speech act awareness, which confirms the second hypothesis. The scores obtained indicate a weak degree of association between the learners' theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness which disconfirms the third hypothesis. Finally, the results of the communicative proficiency test show a close relationship between the learners' speech act awareness and communicative proficiency.

Key words: Communicative Competence, Needs Analysis and Pragmatic Awareness

List of Abbreviations

CA: Communicative Approach

CLA: Communicative Language Ability

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DCT: Discourse Completion Test

FL: Foreign Language

IprA: International Pragmatic Association

IFID: Illocutionary Force Indicating Device

L2: Second Language

NA: Needs Analysis

NS: Native Speaker

TL: Target Language

WCPT: Written Communicative Proficiency Test

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General Introduction

Developing learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence has become one of the fundamental goals of teaching English as a foreign language. Being one of the main constituents of communicative competence, pragmatic competence involves knowledge of those pragmatic and socio-pragmatic rules and conventions that help the learners understand how the target language is usually used to communicate. Pragmatic awareness is a key factor in successful communication; it enables learners to use the target language appropriately in different communicative situations. The present research deals with the issue of pragmatic awareness in relation to the notion of communicative competence. It introduces pragmatic proficiency as part of the overall communicative competence which focuses on one's ability to communicate and interpret the interlocutors intended messages appropriately in any socio-cultural context. The very complicated notion of pragmatic awareness includes, in this research, the following features (variables): pragmatic theoretical knowledge, speech act awareness (speech act comprehension+ speech act production). From an educational perspective, pragmatic awareness is introduced in the context of EFL teaching and learning at the department of Arts and English language, University of Constantine¹. It is analysed in the teaching of pragmatics, as a module included in the LMD curriculum. This latter covers the theoretical components introduced in different pragmatic text-books and neglects to a great extent that part of pragmatics which focuses on enhancing learners' pragmatic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in context). The present research investigates the feasibility of teaching pragmatics by explicit instruction and its role in developing both the pragmatic awareness and the communicative competence of learners. The development of pragmatic awareness and communicative competence is important for language learners; this is especially because it should be the main objective they need to attain

from learning English as a foreign language i.e. to communicate appropriately in different social and cultural situations.

1. Context of the Study

Since any language syllabus should provide ways to improve the effectiveness of teaching, it is necessary to begin by an effective and accurate analysis of the situation of teaching in higher education. In this study, teaching English as a foreign language at the Department of Arts and English language, University of Constantine 1, is taken as a context of investigation. In this context, there is an apparent gap between the proposed curriculum and the actual classroom practices.

2. Statement of the Problem

There is a common agreement among researchers and educational organisations that nowadays there is an urgent necessity to develop learners' intercultural communication. Therefore, various studies have been carried out to achieve the desired aim of most learners of English as a foreign language which is communicative competence (including both accuracy and appropriateness of language use). At the university level, in Algeria's EFL departments, for example, students are exposed only to some fundamental English courses like Grammar, written expression with a frequency of not more than three hours per week each. One may consider, then, that the focus of teaching English at the Department of Arts and English Language is on enhancing the students' linguistic competence. The only hint to the communicative aspect of language is in teaching oral expression for only three hours per/week, which is to a great extent insufficient in comparison to the time taken by other units. This shows that the curriculum designed for teaching English as a foreign language in the tertiary level at the Department of Arts and English Language is rather traditional. The

traditional methods applied are the grammar translation method, the direct method and the audio lingual one. The three methods emphasize:

- a. Learning of the target written language (academic language), mainly its grammar (learning of the grammar rules + intensive use of translation exercises).
- b. development of the reading and writing skills
- c. Use of the native tongue as the medium of instruction.

According to Nunan, the traditional method of teaching English

“...has a focus on the view of language as a structured system of grammatical patterns, with a trend for formal and bookish language, with the aim to have students producing formally correct sentences and in terms of skills, an emphasis on reading and writing” (1988, pp. 26-27)

Given the nature of the approach adopted in teaching English as foreign language at the Department of Arts and English Language, students end up with a mere acquisition of linguistic elements and a mere mastery of both the writing and reading skills of language. However, communication (interaction) in the classroom is what more attractive to learners as what they want is to reach a native-like performance of the language.

Many studies have been conducted on the use of CLT in EFL settings (Ellis, 1996; Gorsuch, 2000; Incecay & Incecay, 2009; etc). Those researchers have revealed that implementing CLT is of great importance since it helps promote learners' communicative skills. Algerian universities could benefit from these advances and attempt to adopt the communicative approach which is quite relevant to the development of students' pragmatic awareness and intercultural communication.

In the present study, the possibility of adopting the communicative approach at the Department of Arts and English language is addressed through conducting a 'Needs Assessment'. The approach to teaching will be more efficient if the students' learning needs are addressed. Tudor emphasized the importance of needs analysis writing that "the desire to make language teaching more responsive to learners' needs has been a consistent feature of both writing and practical experimentation in language teaching since the 1960s" (1996, p.66). As a matter of fact, teaching English as a foreign language should be directed towards satisfying the present and future needs of learners, and, in this manner, they can be well equipped for the future challenges of life where English plays a major role.

Before dealing with Needs Analysis, one should answer the following question: Why should Needs Analysis be conducted?

The main reason behind conducting a needs assessment in the context of teaching English as a foreign language at the Department of Arts and English Language is to draw attention to the necessity of bringing modifications and changes in the curriculum provided as a guide for teachers at the tertiary level. This means determining learners' needs (abilities, wants and preferences) and helping introduce a syllabus that best fits their needs (the communicative one). A needs assessment is conducted to introduce some modifications and new components in the teaching syllabus and the materials used to teach pragmatics i.e. teaching language as used in its context. It tries to review the teaching of English in the Algerian context in a communicative perspective which fits the needs of learners and their desired goal which is learning English in order to communicate effectively and appropriately i.e. being communicatively competent.

Developing an effective method for teaching pragmatics at the Department of Arts and English Language, University of Constantine1, requires introducing explicit instruction which

helps improve learners' communicative skills. In this study, the empirical research on language teaching that targets EFL learners' pragmatic competence is because of the following two main reasons:

1. Importance of Intercultural Communication among EFL Learners

Today, Intercultural communication skills have become essential components of foreign language learning. As globalization and international exchanges increase, English as a foreign language is no longer limited to native speaker circles and standardized forms. English is being used by a greater diversity of people in different contexts for various purposes and in many styles or forms. Language learning ought to reflect this change by addressing learners' shifting needs.

The emphasis on language in use in the latter half of the twentieth century has led to the flourishing of pragmatic studies. Those studies revealed the EFL learners are unable to communicate effectively i.e. they are unable to interpret the appropriate communicative meaning in order to perform language functions. In Bardovi-Harlig's words "A learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show concomitant pragmatic competence" (1996, P. 2). It is possible that such problems are due to the flagrant lack of explicit instruction about pragmatics and the communicative load of language. Foreign language learners' pragmatic competence (their ability to use language in context) is an essential constituent of their general communicative competence. In this respect, many sociolinguists note that the development of communicative competence should be one of the most important goals of language teaching. Kasper, for instance, wrote

If we map the communicative actions in classic language classroom discourse against the pragmatic competence that non-native speakers need to communicate in the world outside, it becomes immediately obvious that the language classroom in its classical format does not offer students what they need - not in terms of teacher's input, nor in terms of students' productive

language use. (1997, P. 5)

2. Inefficiency of Teaching Pragmatics at the Department of Arts and English Language (University of Constantine 1)

Teaching pragmatics in this department is still not very efficient when compared to teaching other language subjects such linguistics, grammar, phonetics and phonology...etc. The first step in raising the students' pragmatic awareness is to improve pragmatic language teaching quality.

In recent times, the Department grew more concerned with the teaching of some essential subjects, especially those which deal with theories of language in use, such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, English for Specific Purposes and English for Science and Technology. These subjects help in increasing the learners' communicative ability in the English language. Pragmatics has lately become one of the most important subjects introduced in the field of teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Teaching pragmatics at the Department of English was introduced with the implementation of the LMD system in higher education in Algeria. As a result, teachers are asked to teach a series of lessons on pragmatics which are not provided by a clear and detailed official syllabus; lesson plans serve as theory based mini courses that cover different aspects of pragmatics.

These courses provide an opportunity for students to be exposed to the scope of pragmatics with a particular reference to some famous linguists whose contributions influenced strongly the study of pragmatics. Starting from the definition and background of pragmatics, the courses present an overview of different issues covered in this field such as Deixis (types of Deixis, the interpretation of Deixis, distance and reference etc...), Speech Acts (Austin's Model of Speech Acts, Searle's Classification) and the Cooperative Principle (Grice's Maxims). The courses focus specifically on the review of relevant literature in pragmatics (see Appendix A).

The pragmatic information given in this syllabus is somehow insufficient for the students to be able to use language appropriately and, thus, it is preferable that instructional pragmatic lessons be also introduced in the syllabus, as called for in most recent studies done in the field of pragmatics (refer to section II.9 in Chapter II). Our investigation is an attempt to introduce a pragmatic explicit instruction based course which could be of a great influence on the students and result in more appropriate performance of language in different situations.

3. Aims of the Study

Needs Analysis is conducted in the present study to investigate the learners' pragmatic awareness by introducing new directions to the method of teaching one of the most important subjects in the field of teaching English as a foreign language which is pragmatics.

When learning English for using it to communicate in real world, one of the benefits in learning pragmatics is that the learners get familiarized with the various rules of speech acts in order to communicate with people from different social and cultural backgrounds. With frequent practice in using a foreign language and interaction in a global way, learners will be responsive to people's intended meanings in a successful and complete way. The present study is also an exploration of the teaching of pragmatics as a module in an EFL setting (case of the Department of Arts and English Language) and it is an attempt to enhance the students' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence by applying some of the findings of research in pragmatics to EFL teaching.

It addresses the issue of the effectiveness of the instructional approach that has attracted the attention of many pragmaticians in the last few decades, namely, the formulation of different communicative acts (speech acts) such as apology, request, refusal and complaint etc... It is concerned with the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction in the EFL classrooms at the Algerian tertiary level. It attempts to investigate the effect of pragmatic

explicit instruction on the speech act awareness of third year students of English as a foreign language at the Department of Arts and English Language, University of Constantine1. It also tries to show if other factors (variables), such as pragmatic knowledge, may affect student's speech act awareness and their communicative competence.

4. Research Questions

This research attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Which is mostly needed by students: learning English for communication purposes or learning English for academic ones?
2. To what extent will the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect student's awareness of speech acts?
3. To what extent will students' speech act awareness improve their communicative competence i.e. their ability to communicate appropriately and effectively in different communicative situations?
4. To what extent will students' pragmatic theoretical knowledge affect their speech act awareness?

5. Research Hypotheses

There are four hypotheses behind this investigation.

Hypothesis 1: "Students have the type of English learning needs which favours the communicative perspective, i.e. they need English for communication and interaction"

Hypothesis 2: "If students were more exposed to explicit pragmatic instruction and communicative tasks, they would develop their speech act awareness better"

Hypothesis 3: "Students' speech act awareness would increase their communicative competence"

Hypothesis 4: “Students’ pragmatic theoretical awareness would increase their speech act awareness”

6. Population and Sampling

There are two categories of participants: those answering a needs analysis questionnaire and those undergoing an experimental design. The former are first, second and third year students of English enrolled at three different university levels, which means that their opinions are determined by their needs before and after experiencing the learning of English, and, thus, they cover the needs of all categories (levels) of students at the Department of Arts and English Language and their differences in learning experience raise their awareness of their needs. It is deemed that their opinions have to be taken into consideration as the basis for the development of an effective teaching and learning process. The latter are only third year students enrolled in the option of applied language studies. Because of institutional constraints, it is not possible to assign students randomly to different groups, thus making it necessary to work with two intact groups. The two groups are: (1) a control group, which is not exposed to explicit instruction on pragmatics (independent variable being tested), but has the usual courses from the textbooks delivered by the teacher (2) the experimental group who receives explicit instruction on pragmatics from the instructor.

7. Research Tools

Three data collection instruments are employed in this research:

7.1 Needs Analysis Questionnaire

As a research tool, the questionnaire is considered the most effective source of gathering personal information (beliefs, attitudes, feelings...etc.).

The needs analysis questionnaire is conducted to collect personal information from the students regarding their English language background and their perceptions of the necessity of English for their future and the reasons why they consider it important. Furthermore, the

questionnaire is administered to answer the first research question which is ‘Do students need to learn English for communication purposes or for academic ones?’ and to recommend an approach (methodology) which best fits the students’ needs.

7.2 Two Group (Pre-test/ Post-test) Experimental Design

The Two Group (pre-test/ post-test) Experimental Design is the commonly used research method, simply because it allows the researcher to make causal inferences about the relationship between the independent variables and a dependent one.

In the present study, the experiment is designed to test the second research hypothesis and thus to determine the effect of explicit pragmatic instruction (independent variable) on the speech act awareness (dependent variable) of third year graduate students of English (University of Constantine 1).

7.3 Pragmatic Language Tests

Two pre-test and three post-tests are designed to measure the participants’ pragmatic proficiency at the level of pragmatic theoretical knowledge and communicative proficiency. The pragmatic language tests are designed to test the third and fourth research hypotheses. They are used to determine the degree of association between the speech act awareness and pragmatic theoretical knowledge and between speech act awareness and communicative competence.

8. Structure of the Thesis

This study consists of seven chapters. The first chapter addresses the areas of ‘Needs Analysis’ and ‘Communicative Language Teaching’. The chapter first covers the definition and origins of Needs Analysis, language learning needs analysis and methods for conducting a needs assessment. Most of the chapter is devoted to the conceptual definition of the term ‘communicative competence’ as conceived by Hymes (1972) and the different models that

have been developed by other linguists with a particular reference to the Bachman's model (1990). The latter introduces pragmatic competence (the main concern of the present research) as a part of communicative competence. The chapter also provides an overview of communicative language teaching, its origins, main characteristics, and teaching materials.

The second chapter presents a comprehensive introduction to pragmatics with a focus on the various definitions provided by numerous linguists and pragmaticians. It also deals with some of the main notions in pragmatics such as meaning and context; the chapter also covers important topics commonly dealt with in pragmatic textbooks such as deixis, presupposition and entailment, conversational implicatures, Grice Maxims and relevance theory; it explores those issues and the importance of their analysis in facilitating the student's awareness of the pragmatic meaning that helps them interact effectively in different situations. It also considers a significant area which is the contribution of pragmatics to language teaching and pragmatic instruction.

The third chapter introduces the theory developed by Austin (1965) and Searle (1975). It is divided into two major parts; part one includes an overview of the theory of speech acts and provides a definition of speech acts and the key concepts in Austin's speech act theory. The chapter also identifies Searle's taxonomy of speech acts which is followed by a summary of the literature that addresses the role of indirectness and politeness in the realization of speech acts. Part two addresses the speech acts of request and apology; it concentrates on their definitions, types, classification and strategies.

The fourth chapter describes the overall study design and the data collection. In addition to the restatement of the research aim and research hypotheses and questions, the chapter covers the different criteria for a research design such as including variables, stating conditions for judging causality and correlation and designing a research plan that permits

accurate assessment of cause and effect relationships between independent and dependent variables. The chapter, furthermore, highlights some methodological issues and the rationale procedures which are followed throughout the research work including the research participants, instruments and procedures.

The fifth chapter deals with assessing the students' different needs, beliefs and behaviours by analysing the data collected by the questionnaire.

The sixth chapter introduces the main study and describes the instruments of data collection, scoring procedure, tests design and administration and the statistical methods for analysing both quantitative and qualitative data. It is devoted to covering the procedures followed to test hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 based on the design and analysis of two major research instruments: the experiment and the pragmatic language tests. It presents and explains the findings of the main study.

The seventh chapter summarizes the overall findings of this study and answers the four research questions. The findings of the study are discussed vis-à-vis the research questions and hypotheses. The implications of the effect of explicit instruction on the development of pragmatic competence, implications for teaching pragmatics, and implications for foreign language instruction are presented. Finally, some limitations of this study are dealt with and some suggestions for future research are provided.

Chapter I

Needs Analysis and Communicative Language Teaching

Introduction

The present chapter addresses the areas of ‘Needs Analysis’ and ‘Communicative Language Teaching’. The chapter first covers the definition and origins of Needs Analysis, language learning needs analysis and methods for conducting a needs assessment. Most of the chapter is devoted to the definition of the term ‘communicative competence’ as conceived by Hymes (1972) and the different models that have been developed by other linguists with a particular reference to the Bachman’s model (1990). The latter introduces pragmatic competence (the main concern of the present research) as a part of communicative competence. The chapter also provides an overview of communicative language teaching, its origins, main characteristics, and teaching materials.

I.1 Needs Analysis (NA)

Needs Analysis is a process undertaken in educational setting to determine the students’ gap between their existing skills, knowledge and abilities and those that are needed for the achievement of students’ objectives. Once this gap is determined, decisions can be taken as to the type of syllabi required and their application. NA helps students identify where they are in terms of their knowledge, skills and competencies and their learning goals

I.2 Language Learning and Needs Analysis

According to Richards *et al* (1992) NA is “the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.” (1992, pp. 242-243). A very sophisticated definition is given by Brown (1995) in which NA refers to the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the

language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation. This means that NA is held to gather specific information (subjective and objective information) about the learner in order to know the objectives, for which the language is needed, the situation in which the language will be used, with whom the language will be used, and the level of proficiency required.

The NA process can be used as the basis for developing a set of courses and classroom practices that meet to learners' needs. Accordingly, Richards (1990) suggests a strategy to assure the fulfilment of learners' needs. It consists of four steps:

1. Determine the needs of a particular group of learners for learning English
2. Develop objectives for a language course that will meet those needs
3. Select teaching and learning activities and experience that will enable these objectives to be realised
4. Evaluate the outcome.

Needs Analysis is, therefore, a process for classifying and evaluating needs in a defined educational context, which seeks to identify a valid curriculum and instructional and management objectives in order to facilitate learning in an environment that is closely related to the real life situations of the student.

Richards considers NA as 'fundamental' to the planning of general language courses and in language curriculum planning. NA can be utilized as a means to a number of things, i.e.:

- a) It can serve as a device for gathering an extensive range of input into the content, design, and implementation of language programme by involving all the stakeholders,
- b) it can help in setting goals, objectives and content for a language programme by determining general and specific language needs,
- c) Needs analysis can be instrumental in providing data which can be used for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme, and finally it can help teachers in understanding the

local needs of the students and making decisions in pedagogy and assessment for further improvement. (1990, p. 2)

As a process 'Needs Analysis' can be undertaken before or during the course. Conducting a needs analysis before the course helps the teacher to set the desired objective and the suitable lessons' plans whereas when done during the course, it helps to ascertain the achievement of the objectives, the appropriateness of the teaching and assessment methods and to find out whether the course is in line with the learners desired outcomes.

I.3 Conducting Needs Analysis

Munby (1978) introduces 'communication needs processor'. Munby's work places the learner's purposes in the central position within the structure of needs analysis.

Needs analysis is the first step in course/syllabus design and it provides relevancy and validity for course design activities. According to Hutchinson & Waters (1987), NA emerged in the field of teaching and learning FL languages through the ESP movement. For them, the role of needs analysis in any ESP course is unquestionable.

Jordan (1997) notes the importance of learning needs:

If we accept...that a student will learn best what he wants to learn, less well what he only needs to learn, less well still what he either wants or needs to learn, it is clearly important to leave room in a learning programme for the learner's own wishes regarding both goals and processes. (1997, p. 26)

In simpler terms, Needs Analysis is a very important process undertaken in educational setting which helps in identifying learners' wants and goals in order to establish the suitable course design that fulfils their needs. NA as a process is defined as an educational planning device. According to Witkin, NA is "any systematic procedure for setting priorities and making decisions about allocation of educational resources" (1984, p. 35). In other words, NA is the preliminary sources which are used to determine the type of educational program (curriculum and syllabi) required by the target population. Nunan

(1988) also refers to the information-gathering process; he claims that “techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design are referred to as needs analysis” (1988, p. 13).

By conducting an NA in an educational system, the teachers and syllabus designers determine which programmes and syllabi are needed, that is to say, adopting learners- needs based approach as a starting phase of syllabus design will help ensure the effectiveness of teaching materials, course content, schedules, etc.,. According to McCawley “A needs assessment is a systematic approach to studying the state of knowledge, ability, interest, or attitude of a defined audience or group involving a particular subject” (2009, p.3) This means that needs assessment helps in investigating a target population interests , beliefs and attitudes towards a specific subject. In an educational context, needs assessment is considered as the first step towards introducing new methods of teaching and whose main concern is the achievement of the different learning objectives of the students.

I.3.1 Major Steps in Conducting a Needs Analysis

This section covers the main phases to be followed when carrying out needs analysis; they are classified as follows:

I.3.1.1 Identification of the Target Population

- Identifying Learners’ Needs (the focus of Needs Analysis)
- Identifying Teachers’ Needs

I.3.1.2 Identification of Types of Needs

Brown (1995) proposes three dichotomies to categorize needs:

- Situation needs vs. language needs
- Objective needs vs. subjective needs
- Linguistic content vs. learning processes

I.1.3.1.3 Classification of Needs

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) proposed a simpler categorization of needs:

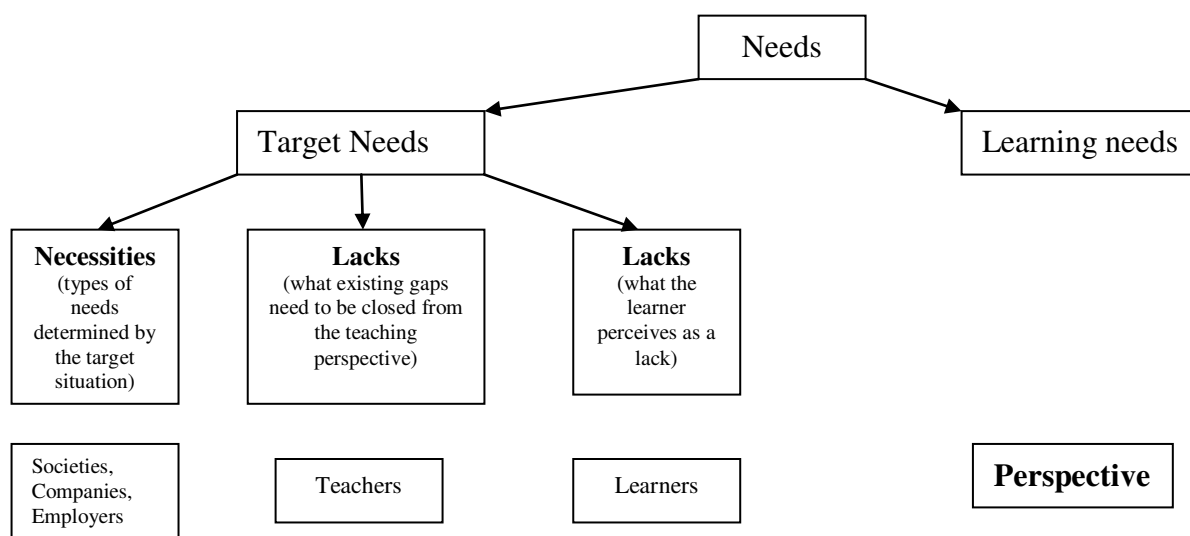


Figure1: Classification of Needs based on Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as cited in Huhta et al, 2013, P.11)

I.4 Methods of Needs Assessment

The most common ways to collect information in NA are:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Tests

In order to determine the need for a type of program or service and to determine what type of content should be included in a curriculum, a questionnaire would be the appropriate method which is designed and used for asking a group or a community member what they see as the most important needs of that group or community.

The present study conducts a needs assessment through a needs analysis questionnaire in order to validate the necessity to bring some modifications, new components and materials in teaching pragmatics. It tries to review the teaching of English in the Algerian context from

a communicative perspective, which fits one major need of students which is learning English in order to communicate effectively and appropriately i.e. being communicatively competent.

I.5 What is Communicative Competence?

Generally speaking, the notion of communicative competence refers to the ability to adapt the knowledge of effective and appropriate language patterns in different contexts. i.e. the ability to effectively communicate in a language (mother, second or foreign).

Communicative competence, as a term, includes two words, which, taken together, mean competence to communicate. The central word in the combination is 'competence'. 'Competence' is a very controversial term in general and applied linguistics. The term goes back to Chomsky (1965) who distinguishes between 'competence' (the individual speaker-listener's knowledge of language) and 'performance' (the actual use of this language in real situations). Brown describes this term as follows:

The term competence has been used, beginning with Chomsky's original formulation of the concept. Inspired by the Saussurean concepts of *langue* and *parole*, Chomsky puts forward competence and performance. He linked competence to an "idealized" speaker-hearer who doesn't display such performance variables as memory limitations, distraction, shifts of attention and interest, errors and hesitation phenomena such as repeats, false starts, pause, omissions and additions. (2005, p. 31)

As a complex term, communicative competence may substitute terms such as; appropriateness and effectiveness; that is to say it refers to the ability to use language appropriately in social interaction.

A major problem is that linguists, including Hymes, while claiming to be simply elaborating on the notion of linguistic competence, they, in fact, changed it in ways that are not so obvious to everyone. An attempt was made by some linguists to make these changes clearer and to draw attention to the serious problems that arise when this concept is applied in various areas.

I.5.1 Hymes's Notion of Communicative Competence

Communicative competence was suggested by Hymes in the 1970s. It includes the use of sociolinguistic rules. Indeed, Hymes expanded on Chomsky's view of linguistic competence by considering the social factors of language. He wrote that "social life has affected not merely outward performance, but inner competence itself" (1971, p. 274). This theory of communicative competence has had a great influence on the field of second and foreign language teaching. Indeed, the major aim within the communicative approach became to make a non-native speaker communicatively competent in the target language.

For Hymes, it is necessary to take into account not only the linguistic/grammatical competence but also the ability to use language in an appropriate, feasible, and probable way. His arguments are mostly based on the linguistic competence suggested by Chomsky (1965). In other words, the notion of communicative competence came to question and to complete that of linguistic competence. This notion of linguistic competence is summed up by Chomsky as follows:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with the ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shift of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge in actual performance. (1965, p. 3)

Therefore, for Chomsky, competence (language/linguistic competence) embodies the perfect knowledge of the abstract system of language rules used by a homogenous speech community. Such a competence entails both a perfect understanding and production of all well-formed sentences in a particular language. The actual use of language, affected by what he terms grammatically irrelevant conditions, and identified with the criterion of acceptability, not grammaticality, is the domain of performance.

Hymes introduced a broader notion that covers both the grammatical competence and the sociolinguistic one and describes it as the knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and social meaning of language. His main concern was to make a distinction between linguistic competence that deals with producing and understanding grammatically correct sentences, and communicative competence that deals with producing and understanding utterances that are appropriate and acceptable to a particular situation. Thus, Hymes coined 'communicative competence' as a term and defined it as knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and the social meaning of language.

He introduced first the concept of communicative competence in the context of language development among disadvantaged children. According to him, a child does not only acquire grammatical, but also appropriate language. His plea was that the concept of linguistic competence, with its emphasis on coding and decoding, was insufficient to address the educational needs of children. For Hymes, in order to be adequate, a linguistic theory must take care of all of the linguistic, pragmatic, cognitive and social aspects of communication. Hymes suggested four criteria by which an utterance is judged:

- a. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
- b. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
- c. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
- d. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (1971, p. 281)

I.5.1.1 Grammaticality, Acceptability or Formal Possibility

It is awareness of the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic rules, i.e. knowledge of rules that is used to produce and judge an unlimited number of correct utterances by the language norms. In other words, it is to be able to formulate and interpret grammatically correct sentences composed of words taken in their ordinary meaning. It is the mastery of listening, speaking and writing, based on knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, grammar, semantics and phonology needed to practice them.

I.5.1.2 Feasibility

Although a limited number of rules may construct an infinite number of grammatically accurate utterances, not all of these sentences are feasible. A sentence like "I thought a thought but the thought I thought I thought was not the thought I thought I thought!" can neither be easily uttered nor easily understood, because of the quite complex nesting, embedding, and branching, although it is perfectly grammatical. Such an utterance can only be used as a tongue twister.

I.5.1.3 Appropriateness

The third aspect is what Hymes calls appropriateness and that he specifies as the "sense of relating to contextual features" (1971, p. 285). It is basically concerned with the regularities and conventions that guide the language used by members of a speech community, and on which they agree, because they have similar experiences of the world, the same backgrounds, and they share a lot of extra linguistic knowledge. This means that in real life people do not use well-formed sentences, but utterances. The latter can be a clause, a phrase, or even one single word and still conveys the meaning as perfectly. Therefore, people also use what is appropriate when they come to use what is grammatically correct. Appropriateness is simply the contextual use of language i.e. where, when, and to whom can a

given type of language be used. For instance, telling a joke in a funeral may be quite grammatical, feasible, and probable but hardly appropriate. The same applies if one starts talking of death in a wedding reception. It can be defined also as the quality that makes language suitable for a given social situation. For example, a formal situation will require language conventionally regarded as formal, whereas an informal situation will require informal language.

I.5.1.4 Probability/Actual Performance

The last aspect is what Hymes terms probability. He stipulates that "something may be possible, feasible, and appropriate and not occur" (1971, p. 285). For example, a created expression such as "I saw him three cigarettes ago" may be tolerated from a famous writer or a poet, but not from a layman. It is simply not done.

Hymes notes that these conditions can be in relation to the linguistic system and to the idiosyncratic use of it, i.e. they have both social and cognitive aspects. He concludes by writing:

In sum, the goal of a broad theory of competence can be said to be to show the ways in which the systematically possible, the feasible, and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret actually occurring cultural behaviour (1971, p. 286)

According to Hymes, a person who fulfils all four aspects is competent. He suggests that what needs to be attended to from such a theory is "the capacities of persons, the organization of verbal means for socially defined purposes and the sensitivity of rules to situations" (1971, p. 292)

I.6 Components of Communicative Competence

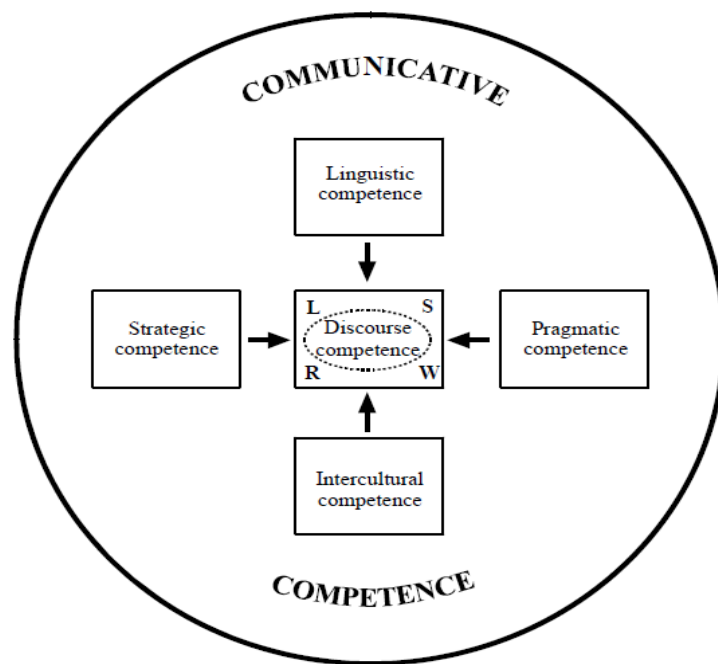


Figure 1: Components of communicative competence¹
(Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006a: 16).

During the 1970's and 1980's, many applied linguists who were interested in the field of language learning and teaching contributed considerably to an extended development of the notion of communicative competence suggested by Hymes. The theoretical reflections and empirical work of some of those seem to have had the most important impact on the theory of communicative competence. Among these are Munby (1978), Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Savignon (1983), and Bachman (1990).

Munby (1978), inspired by the theory of Hymes, represented the four aspects of the language user's knowledge and abilities. According to Brinker:

Munby represents the ultimate in what one might call the shopping list concept of conversational behaviour. The idea of communicative competence consists of a more or less open set of identifiable functions or notions which can be taught or learnt (2001, p. 1682).

Munby pointed out that this conception of communicative competence tends to imply that it is possible to be communicatively competent without being grammatically competent. This may lead to neglect grammar in the study of language. Munby wrote:

The upsurge of interest in the content of the language syllabus, following the concern with communicative competence generated by Dell Hymes, reflects inter alia a feeling that we ought to know much more about what is that should be taught and learnt if a non-native is to be communicatively competent in English (1978, p. 1)

The widely cited model by Canale and Swain (1980), later expanded by Canale (1983), includes four competencies under the heading of communicative competence: grammatical competence (awareness of the language units and structure); sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the socio-cultural rules of language use in a particular context); strategic competence (understanding how to use communication strategies to handle breakdowns in communication) and discourse competence (knowledge of achieving coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text). In what follows are the four components of communicative competence as defined by Canal and Swain.

I.6.1 Grammatical Competence

For Canale and Swain (1980), grammatical competence includes one's knowledge of phonology, morphology, lexical items, syntax, and semantics. As stated later by Canale:

Grammatical competence remains concerned with the mastery of language code (verbal and non-verbal) itself. Thus included here are features and rules of the language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. (1983, p. 7)

I.6.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence includes the knowledge of rules that govern the production and understanding of language in different sociolinguistic contexts. According to Swain:

Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts, depending on contextual factors such as topics, status of participants, and purposes of the interactions. Appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form. (1984, p. 188)

1.6.3 Strategic Competence

Strategic competence is the ability to convey messages using various verbal or nonverbal strategies. Canale and Swain defined it as; "verbal and non verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence" (1980, p. 30)

Canale and Swain (1980) emphasized the importance of Hymes' work. They focused on communication in social context i.e. both form and meaning (more precisely social meaning). This model was updated by Canale (1983). He proposed a four-dimensional model of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

Savignon (1983) suggested a version of communicative competence that was largely based on the model of Canale and Swain. She viewed communicative competence as the ability to communicate effectively in different social contexts. For her, communicative competence includes grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Savignon provided an outline that summarizes the central characteristics of competence in communication as follows:

- Communicative competence is a dynamic rather than a static concept. It depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons who share to some degree the same symbolic system. In this sense, communicative competence can be said to be an interpersonal rather than an intrapersonal trait.
- Communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language as well as to many other symbolic systems
- Communicative competence is context specific. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind. It requires making appropriate choices of register and style in terms of the situation and the other participants.
- There is a theoretical difference between competence and performance. Competence is defined as a presumed underlying ability, and performance as the overt manifestation of that ability. Competence is what one knows. Performance is what one does. Only performance is observable, however, it is only through performance that competence can be developed, maintained, and evaluated.
- Communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved. It makes sense, then, to speak of degrees of communicative competence. (1983, p. 8-9)

A more recent contribution to the theory of communicative competence, which is considered to be a further reinterpretation of Canale and Swain's model, is Bachman's model of communicative language ability. Bachman's Communicative Language Ability model (1990) is based on Hymes (1972) and Canale and Swain (1980) theoretical frameworks with a particular reference to Bachman and Palmer's empirical study (1982). Using an empirical study based on multiple methods data analysis, Bachman and Palmer distinguished three types of competencies. In their study, they examined "three distinct traits of communicative competence (linguistic competence, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence) by means of four methods: oral interview, writing sample, multiple-choice test and self-rating" (1982, p. 450).

Later on, Bachman refers to those competencies to develop a communicative language ability model.

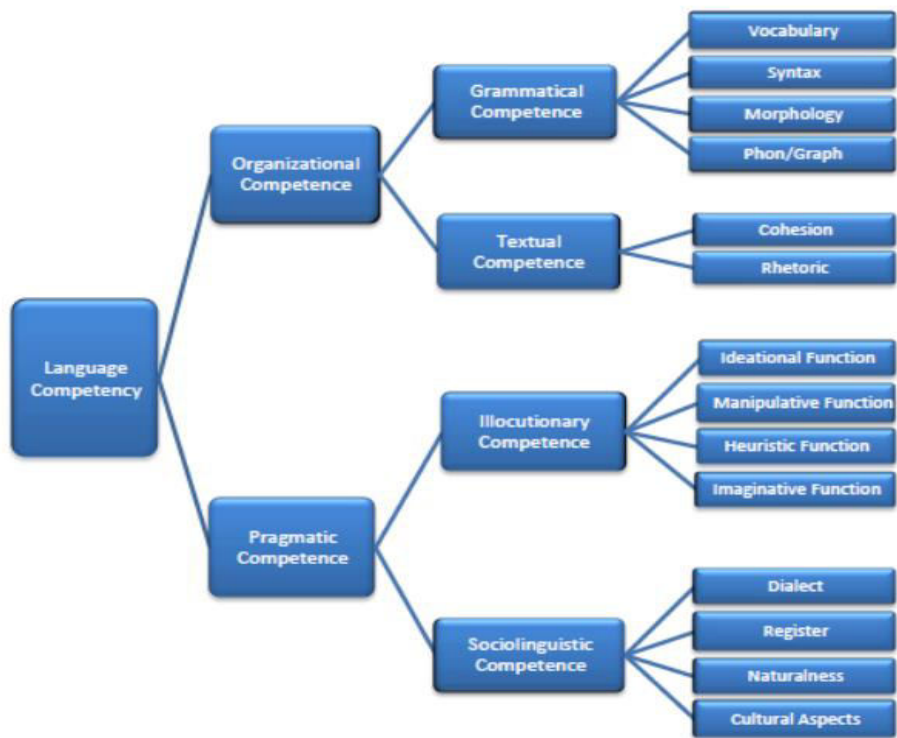


Figure 2: Components of Language Competence (Bachman 1990: 87)

In his framework, Bachman did not only propose a model of language competence which includes pragmatic competence as one of its main components, but he went further in his analysis and considered pragmatic competence as a language competence component on its own. In his framework, Bachman proposed a division of pragmatic competence into two language competence components: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. He refers to illocutionary competence as “the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions” (1990: 90), and sociolinguistic competence as “knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context” (1990: 90). In his framework, Bachman further subdivided illocutionary and the sociolinguistic competence components into smaller elements. For him illocutionary competence comprises the mastery of the following functions: Ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions. Whereas sociolinguistic competence includes the following aspects: sensitivity to dialect or variety, to register, to naturalness and to cultural references and figures of speech.

The concept of pragmatic competence has been analysed and elaborated by other linguists such as Thomas (1983) who defined it as the ability to communicate effectively which involves knowledge beyond the level of grammar. Bialystok's pragmatic competence (1990) comprises:

- ✓ the interlocutors' ability to use the rules by which utterances come together to create speech.
- ✓ The speaker's ability to use language in different situations.
- ✓ The listener's ability to understand the speaker's real intentions

I.7 Pragmatic Competence and Foreign Language Teaching

The introduction of pragmatic competence in language teaching is as necessary as the other components. The development of the notion of pragmatics in language learning is extensively improved by the emergence of many works on language use and function such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Grice (1975). Those works will be further discussed in the chapter on speech acts.

Historically speaking, for many decades the traditional grammar approach (also known as the grammar / translation method) was the main (mostly used) method in teaching foreign languages. This approach was based principally on the written language where learners were expected to master grammatical rules. It aimed at enabling the users of a given language to put words together to convey meaning. It consisted of a set of rules dealing with: morphology (the study of the word structures, especially in terms of morphemes), phonetics and phonology (the study of the sound system) and syntax (the study of the rules that govern the ways in which words combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences). Unfortunately, this approach fails, to some extent, to satisfy the language learners' needs and interests nowadays. It goes without saying that the twentieth century saw the rise and fall of a variety of language teaching approaches and methods. The most active period in the history of

approaches and methods was from the 1950s to 2000s. “Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by the frequent change and innovation and by the development of sometimes competing language teaching ideologies.” (Richards & Rodgers, 2002, p. 1). These approaches are language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the context of language teaching. Many different methods, approaches and techniques have been developed, the most dominant of which are:

I.7.1 The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive learning theories emerged in the late 1940s and early 1950s; their principal focus is on the learner’s cognitive activity that involves reasoning and mental processes. Indeed, it is concerned with learner’s understanding of different language forms by showing and analysing their capacities in learning. Accordingly, they are encouraged to work out grammar rules deductively for themselves. Keating wrote:

The key to learning according to the cognitive perspective is the learner’s perception, thinking, memory, and information processing and organization. Learning involves the formation of mental connections that may not necessarily be demonstrated in overt behaviour changes. This viewpoint has often been compared to computer information processing, with a focus on how people process information from the environment, how they perceive the stimuli around them, how they put those perceptions into memory and how they retrieve that knowledge (2004, p. 58)

So, according to Schunk (2004), the cognitive approach is concerned with the human mind processes such as thinking, memory and problem solving and it focuses on mental actions and awareness that help in making connections for the understanding of concepts and information i.e. the ability to break down information and to rebuild with logical connections leads to the increase of comprehension. This approach is also the first which introduced the four main language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Alas, the cognitive approach to language teaching and learning achieved only limited success as its focus on mind processes proved as insufficient for teaching and learning foreign language.

I.7.2 The Audio-lingual Approach

The audio-lingual method dominated foreign language teaching in the 1950s and 1960s. It is derived from "The Army Method," so called because it was developed in the US during the Second World War. At that time, the US government found it a great necessity to set up a special language-training program to produce speakers proficient in the languages of friend and foes. It is a method of foreign language teaching which puts emphasis on the teaching of listening and speaking skills before reading and writing. It uses dialogues as the main form of language presentation and drills as the main training technique. Its main aim is to enable learners to use English in everyday oral communication. Speaking is put before and above writing and the use of language laboratories are typical teaching means used. Mukalel states the main aims of the audio lingual approach as follows:

The audio- lingual method aims at the following in a foreign language teaching classroom:

(1) teaching the foreign language as communication with a view of achieving development of communication skills... (2) the scientific attitude which structural linguistics holds so dear is considered basic also to audio-lingual method of teaching a foreign language...(3) a high momentum of practice is the device by which in the audio lingual method in-taking of language takes place ...(4) the stress put on aural-oral skills....In other words strict sequential ordering of the material in terms of the four skills is recommended (1998, pp. 79-80)

According to Mukalel, the audio lingual method attempts to make learners able to use the target language communicatively .i.e. make fluent speakers of the target language by training them in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, reading comprehension and production. Mastery of all four language skills, beginning with listening and speaking, and using these skills as a basis for the teaching of reading and writing is also one of its main objectives. As an approach, the audio lingual method was open to criticism as it provides misleading and incomplete views of human learning.

I.8 Role of Communicative Competence in Language Teaching

Communicative competence was introduced in the field of teaching foreign language as a key component in the curriculum and syllabus design. The objective of language learning came to be concerned with developing learners' communicative competence which refers to their ability to use the foreign language appropriately within its context in addition to developing their linguistic (grammatical) competence. Communicative competence has been defined and discussed in many different ways by scholars of different fields.

I.9 Communicative Language Teaching

With the notion of communicative competence and the communicative approach to language, there has been a growing interest in the contextual and social dimension of foreign language education and, thus, teachers started to believe that active learning is more effective than passive learning and sought to promote the acquisition of communicative competence by their learners. As this idea gained attention, there was a general shift towards using techniques where students were more actively involved. Those techniques and methods can be provided by means of the communicative tasks. Therefore, the shift resulted in introducing a new approach named 'Communicative Language Teaching'.

The communicative approach to foreign language teaching and learning has been defined in different ways, since it was first introduced in the late 1970s. It is based on the work of sociolinguists who believe that an effective knowledge of a language cannot be limited to knowing vocabulary, rules of grammar, and pronunciation. They argue that learners need to be able to use the language appropriately in any social context. In this approach, students are given tasks to accomplish using language instead of studying it. It is based primarily on language functions (asking permission, asking directions, etc.), not structural development (past tense, conditional, etc.). Howatt (1984), an expert in the field of CLT, distinguished between a strong version of CLT and a weak one. He wrote:

There is, in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching.... The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it.' (Cited in Richards 2001, p. 155)

In the weak version, the communicative tasks are seen as a means to enable the students to activate their knowledge of the foreign language, i.e. words and structures are first taught and practiced traditionally, after which the students use them in communicative tasks. In the strong version, on the other hand, the students learn the language by using it creatively for communication and that test and error are an essential part of this learning process, i.e. the students build their co-operational knowledge, private speech, and create their own performance sharing their understanding of the tasks.

I.9.1 Origins of Communicative Language Teaching

For Richards and Rodgers "the communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction" (2001, p. 153). They also claim that "the origins of communicative language teaching are to be found in the changes of situational language teaching approaches, which influenced the British language teaching tradition until the late 1960s." (2001, p. 153)

CLT has been an influential approach for at least two decades now. Larsen-Freeman wrote, "We learn to communicate by communicating" (1986, p. 131).

I.9.2 Audio-lingual Method vs. Communicative Language Teaching

Unlike the audio-lingual method, the communicative approach gives priority to the semantic content of language learning. That is, learners learn the grammatical form through meaning and not vice versa. Thus, according to Richards & Rogers, “learning activities are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns)” (1986, p. 72).

Finocchiaro and Brumfit contrast the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach as follow:

Audio-lingual	Communicative Language Teaching
Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount
Demands memorization of structure-based dialogues.	Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
Language items are not necessarily contextualized.	Contextualization is a basic premise.
Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate.
Mastery or “over-learning” is sought.	Effective communication is sought.
Drilling is a central technique	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
Grammatical explanation is avoided.	Any device which helps the learners is accepted — varying according to their age, interest, etc.
Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning
The use of the student’s native language is forbidden.	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
Translation is forbidden at early levels	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.	The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized.	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology
The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest

(1983, p. 91)

Table 1: Audio-lingual Method vs. Communicative Language Teaching

I.9.3 Teaching Materials in Communicative Language Learning

As far as materials are concerned, Brown's view is:

I will not prescribe a particular type of material or materials based on a particular philosophy of teaching or theory of language. In other words, I believe that decisions regarding approaches, syllabuses, techniques, and exercises should always be left up to the individuals who are on site and know the situation best. What I will advocate is a strategy in which students' needs, objectives; tests, teaching and program evaluation will all be related to each other and to the materials". (1995, p. 163)

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001, P. 168) Materials used in CLT fall into three types: text-based, task-based and realia.

I.9.3.1 Text-based Materials

They include practice exercises, reading passages, gap fills, recordings, etc. They can be found in almost any course book as well as in books containing supplementary materials. They form an essential part of most lessons.

I.9.3.2 Task-based Materials

They include game boards, role-play cards; materials for drilling, pair work tasks, etc. They might be used to support 'real life' tasks such as role-playing, booking into a hotel or a job interview.

I.9.3.3 Realia

They include such things as magazines, newspapers, fruits and vegetables, axes, maps, things from the real world outside the classroom. They can be used in many activities. For example, fruits and vegetables could be used in a shopping activity; an axe could be used to show the effect of using the present continuous in a short action verb.

I.9.4 Authenticity in Communicative Language Teaching

The need to expose students to real and authentic communication has been a central issue; explicit criteria of whether given communicative activities are authentic or not have not yet been decided on. Some say the most authentic communication in language learning is a

communication between a learner and a native speaker of the target language in a native community or setting (Breen, 1985). This criterion, however, simplifies the issue of authenticity and is sometimes misleading. Others emphasize that the receiver of messages of communication does not have to be a native speaker as long as he/she plays an authentic role of the receiver of communication in the activity.

It is commonly assumed that there is some sort of an absolute notion of authenticity in which all the different kinds must be simultaneously and completely present.

According to Breen there are four types of authenticity:

1. Authenticity of the texts which we may use as input data for our learners.
2. Authenticity of the learners own interpretation of such texts.
3. Authenticity of the tasks conducive to language learning.
4. Authenticity of the actual social situation of the language classroom. (1985, p. 61)

I.10 Needs Analysis and Implementation of CLT

‘Needs Analysis’ is one of the crucial steps in the establishment of any curriculum and approach, especially those which are learner-centred ones. In their work on learners’ attitudes and perceptions in EFL context Savignon and Hang Wang (2003) provide a summary of the main studies (Horwitz, 1988; Kern,1995; Bacon and Finnemann,1990; Wen and Johnson, 1997 and Gaies, Galambos, and Cornish, 1999) which have been done to investigate the learners’ beliefs, attitudes and perception of language teaching and learning. They survey them as follows:

Horwitz (1988) designed a tool named the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). This tool has been used to study the students’ perception of different issues concerning language learning and teaching, specifically, errors correction. Kern’s (1995) also examined the students’ attitudes towards errors correction and found that there were reliable beliefs about error correction. Other scholars and linguists used different tools: questionnaires

or interviews to investigate learner attitudes and beliefs about language learning. For instance, Bacon and Finnemann (1990) developed a 109-item questionnaire to examine tertiary learners' attitudes towards teaching foreign languages and their impact on the development of the learners' linguistic and communicative competence. Wen and Johnson (1997) designed Language Learner Factor Questionnaire, and Gaies, Galambos, and Cornish (1999) used a modified version of Sakui and Gaies's (1999) 45-item questionnaire. Those studies have highlighted to a great extent the learners' attitudes which can help in making a language program more attuned to their needs.

In recent years, language teaching has become more and more learner-centred, which means that almost everything starts from the learner and almost everything goes back to him. It is not merely in relation to him, but with him, and depending on his resources (time, available cash, personality, etc.) Wilkins wrote:

Rather than orientate learning to the subject and its content, we should take account of the learner and his needs. We should predict the situations in which the learner is likely to need the language and then teach the language that is necessary to perform linguistically in those situations. It will be more efficient process because it will include only what is relevant to the learner. It will be more motivating because it is learner rather than subject centred (1978, p. 16).

Basically, Needs Analysis is a way of finding out what learners want and need to learn. It consists of estimating their current ability level, and what they want to achieve. It goes back in part to finding out the reason why learners (students) are learning English. It can be conducted either in conversation or by getting students to fill out a form. Needs Analysis is a process that should be updated regularly, especially if students make either rapid or little progress.

During the last three decades, teaching and learning foreign languages have mainly focused on developing learner ability to use language appropriately in context.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) contrasts sharply with established traditions that emphasize learner knowledge of formal features. Not surprisingly, the introduction of such an approach requires innovation in various EFL contexts; as a consequence, different processes have been developed in order to make the implementation of CLT efficient. Waters & Vilches write: "...Probably one of the important factors in the successful implementation of any change or innovation is its acceptance by the end-users (in the case of language teaching and learning it can be teachers and learners)" (2001, p. 133).

Although only few studies have been done to investigate the learners' beliefs, attitudes and perception of language teaching and learning, Needs Analysis remains one of the crucial points in the establishment of any curriculum and approach, especially those which are learner-centred ones. And yet, as Savignon asserts:

If all the variables in L2 acquisition could be identified and the many intricate patterns of interaction between learner and learning context described, ultimate success in learning to use a second language most likely would be seen to depend on the attitude of the learner (1997, p. 107).

This means that the learner's views of learning cannot be ignored, especially when there is a mismatch between teacher beliefs and learner beliefs.

Conclusion

During the latter half of the twentieth century, there was a big shift of interest towards the theory of communicative competence which emerged to complete that of linguistic competence. This shift did not only influence the theories and methods of teaching English as a foreign language but also raised the awareness of the EFL Students' about their needs and preferences. Besides the FL linguistic and grammar mastery, EFL learners now are looking for a strong ability to use language as a means of communication.

This chapter has covered the area of need assessment and the one of communicative language teaching. Both areas are interrelated in a way that the implementation of CLT necessitates the conduct of a needs analysis. Communicative competence being the ability to interact well with others in all everyday situations, developing it should be the aim of language teaching. Assuming that the main aim of learners of English is developing communicative competence, CLT should be implemented. Indeed, the implementation of CLT in EFL contexts revealed that there is a conflict with local situation of learning but this conflict cannot be a justification for abandoning CLT. One way to deal with the problem is to conduct a needs assessment to gather information about the beliefs, attitude and views of the learners and teachers towards CLT. Needs analysis can be limited to gathering information about the attitudes, beliefs and opinion of the learners.

Chapter II

Pragmatics

Introduction

In the last decades, different trends with implications for communication emerged from research in the field of linguistics. One of these was towards an increasingly inferential view of pragmatics. For a time, this trend seemed to pull in the right direction. This chapter will deal with a comprehensive introduction to pragmatics and the various definitions provided by numerous linguists and pragmaticians. It will cover some important topics that are such as deixis, presupposition and entailment, conversational implicatures, Grice maxims and relevance theory, and the importance of their analysis in facilitating the student's awareness of the pragmatic meaning that helps them interact effectively in different situations. The chapter will also consider significant areas dealing with the contribution of pragmatics to language teaching and pragmatic instruction.

II.1 Definition of Pragmatics

Since its introduction to modern linguistics, pragmatics has been defined in numerous ways, and the following definitions are the most specific ones provided by famous linguists such as Morris (1938), Levinson (1983), Leech (1983), Kasper and Blum Kulka (1993), Yule (1996) and Crystal (1998).

As a term, pragmatics was originally used by the philosopher Morris (1938). Morris divided semiotics into three basic branches: semantics, syntactics and pragmatics that he defines as: "The relation of signs to interpreters" (1938, p. 6-7). Morris pinpoints that pragmatics is concerned with the relationship between linguistic forms and the users of those forms .i.e. the link between signs of language (linguistic units) and the users' uttering and interpretation of these signs. This means that since no human being is like another, and each one is unique and has his own point of view of the world around him, so his/her choices of

signs depends on his/her intention and interpretation when both sending and receiving signs (linguistic messages).

Levinson is a linguist who wrote extensively on pragmatics. He wrote “Pragmatics is the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized or encoded in the structure of a language” (1983, p. 9). In this definition, Levinson suggests that pragmatics is the study of such relations that focus on the inference of meaning which is determined by both the structures of language and the context in which those structures are used. It is all about those extra-linguistic features (situational context and shared knowledge) that allow the participants in the communicative event grasp the intended meaning of each other.

Another important definition Levinson states is that “Pragmatics is the study of all those aspects of meaning not captured in a semantic theory” (1983, p. 12). This one indicates that since semantics is concerned with the study of meaning, that is the relation between the different linguistic signs (words, phrases.....) and what those signs denote, i.e. it focuses on the propositional meaning (denotative meaning) of different language structures and neglects the context in which those structures are used, pragmatics appeared to cover those aspects ignored by semantics such as the context in which language is used, the different paralinguistic features, and the participants’ social and cultural backgrounds.

Once again, Levinson manifests the importance of the notion of context in the field of pragmatics when he writes that “Pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding” (1983, p. 21) and that “Pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate” (1983, p. 24). Both definitions show that pragmatics necessitates the presence of the notion of context in the study of language because of its importance in facilitating the inference of meaning of the different language structures used

when sending and receiving language messages. This leads to a good language understanding in order to attend a successful communication. In other words, as far as pragmatics is concerned with the study of language with a reference to its context one crucial attribute is required, it is the aptitudes of language users to match the language they use with its context in a way that they have to be appropriate by using language forms that are suitable and right for particular situations and occasions in order to avoid misunderstanding and communication failure.

Mey suggests that pragmatics is “the study of the condition of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society. Pragmatic is needed if we want a fuller, deeper, and generally more reasonable account of human language behaviour” (1993, p. 42). This means that pragmatics is concerned with the analysis of various social contexts of language which can influence the explanation or the interpretation of the language used in society.

Another definition stated by Mey is “Pragmatics is the science of language seen in relation to its users.” (1993, p. 5). This one indicates that pragmatics refers to the study of language meaning which is raised from the reason or opinion of the speaker and listener when using language right through managing the relationship between the intended meaning and the linguistic items they use.

Yule (1996) provided a detailed definition of Pragmatics which covers four aspects with which pragmatics is concerned. According to him, in order to understand what the pragmatics is all about we have to explore its relationship with other areas of linguistic, particularly sociolinguistics. He writes:

1. Pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has, consequently, more to do with the

analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. *Pragmatic is the study of speaker meaning.*

2. This type of study necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. It requires a consideration of how speakers organize what they want to say in accordance with who they are talking to, where, when, and under what circumstances. *Pragmatic is the study of contextual meaning.*

3. This approach also necessarily explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning. This type of study explores how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated. We might say that it is the investigation of invisible meaning. *Pragmatic is the study of how more meaning gets communicated than is said.*

4. This perspective then raises the question of what determines the choice between the said and the unsaid. The basic answer is tied to the notion of distance. Closeness, whether it is physical, social, or conceptual, implies shared experience. On the assumption of how close or distant the listener is, speakers determine how much needs to be said. *Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance.* (1996, pp. 3- 4)

Crystal (1997) sees pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effect their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (1997, p. 301). Thus, for him, pragmatics is the study of language users' ability to connect and make compatible language and context by surmounting the inconvenience they come across during social conversations and the way their choices of linguistic forms influence other participants' understanding and interpretation of their intentions in the act of communication.

From the above stated definitions of pragmatics, we can conclude that it is a field that reveals the many dimensions of language use and the various levels of meanings they produce in social contexts. Much of these definitions actually point to the notion of context and its importance in presenting a good understanding and ability to adopt the right kind of language use in different social contexts. They also pinpoint that pragmatics emphasizes the importance of the analysis of speakers' intentions and hearers' interpretations in order to establish how people select the right interpretation of meaning. So, every effort in pragmatic analysis provides an opportunity to understand better the nature of language, how it works and what it means to us. So, we can define pragmatics as that part of linguistics which is more concerned with the analysis of language with a reference to the context in which it is used giving priority to the social and cultural backgrounds of the language users.

II.2 History of Pragmatics

As a term 'Pragmatics' was used for the first time in 1938 by the philosopher Charles Morris as a subdivision of 'semiotics'. According to him, semiotics includes three aspects: syntactics/syntax, semantics and pragmatics. He referred to pragmatics as the part of semiotics which emphasizes the relationship between users, words and reference relationships.

New perspectives in the field of linguistics helped shift linguists' focus to examining real life conversations (language used in its real context) which led to the developments of significant theories introduced by linguists such as Austin (1962), Searl (1969) and Grice (1975). According to Leech, "the more lasting influences on modern pragmatics have been those of philosophers, notably, in recent years, Austin (1962), Searl (1969), and Grice (1975)" (1983, p. 2).

Later on, other linguists made useful contributions in the field of pragmatics; In 1977, Mey published the 1st Journal of Pragmatics in Holland. In 1983, Leech wrote his book

'Principle of pragmatics and Levinson wrote his 'Pragmatics'. In 1988, there was establishment of the IPrA (the International Pragmatic Association) and this was the year where pragmatics turned into an independent discipline.

II.3 Important Notions in Pragmatics

With time, all the studies carried out have turned pragmatics into a discipline and have generated different information which may help in explaining what pragmatics is or should be. Two of the most important notions which are the basis that constructs the core of pragmatics are meaning and context.

II.3.1 Context and Meaning

Both context and meaning play the most important role in the analysis of language when used in real situations; these notions have been interpreted variously by different linguists, especially those who tackle the phenomenon of language from a social and communicative perspective, and, thus, are considered to be in the core of pragmatics.

II.3.1.1 Context

In modern linguistics, context has always supplied valuable information to understand why and how the structures of a particular language vary in meaning when used in real conversations and interactions (communication), and, thus, understanding the nature, and role of context in the inference of the various meanings of pieces of language used in different situations would be of great value.

Many linguists and researchers (Cook,1999 and Widdowson, 2000) argued the importance of the aspect of context and its role in the understanding the properties of language (appropriate interpretation of meaning) and, thus, they suggested the importance of the study of different features of context since it is the central issue in the newly developed disciplines, particularly, pragmatics.

Although the notion of context was defined quite a long time ago, it remained an ambiguous area until recently. In fact, it remained vague because different linguists who attempted to define it did it from different points of view in order to answer questions encountered in their own fields and to support their own ideas and theories. However, there has been much more agreement in the last twenty years on what context should be about. Cook (1999), for instance, in his study about the relationship between discourse and literature, defined context as follows: “the term ‘context’ can be used in a broad and narrow sense. In the narrow sense, it refers to (knowledge of) factors outside the text under consideration. In the broad sense, it refers to (knowledge of) these factors and to (knowledge of) other parts of the text under consideration, sometimes referred to as 'co-text'.” (1999, p. 24).

When studying language meaning, Widdowson took 'context' into account. For him, context is concerned with “those aspects of the circumstance of actual language use which are taken as relevant to meaning.” He further pointed out, “in other words, context is a schematic construct... the achievement of pragmatic meaning is a matter of matching up the linguistic elements of the code with the schematic elements of the context.” (2000, p. 126)

Mey identified context as follows:

Context is a dynamic, not a static concept. It is to be understood as the surroundings, in the widest sense, that enable the participants in the communication process to interact, and that make the linguistics expression on their interaction intelligible. (1993, p. 38).

Therefore, Mey viewed context as a set of circumstances that surround a communicative event and which help the participants to determine the interpretation of the language used during the interaction.

II.3.1.2 Types of Context

Pragmatically speaking, there are three main types of contextual information that can help in the understanding of the actual meaning of different linguistic units used (uttered) in certain situations.

II.3.1.2.1 Physical Context

Such type of contextual information includes what is physically present around the speakers/hearers at the time of communication. What objects are present, where the communication is taking place, as well as the timing, what is going on around, the situation in which it is used, and what actions are occurring, all of which assist in making communication successful.

II.3.1.2.2 Linguistic Context (co-text)

This type of contextual information is all about what has been previously said in a conversation. Sometimes it is called co-text and identified as the set of words that surround the language unit in question in the same phrase, or sentence.

II.3.1.2.3 Social Context

The social context refers to the social relationship among the participants in communication (speakers/ hearers). The study of social context is considered to be of a great importance in pragmatics, since it leads to the successful transmission and understanding of the different pieces of language used during conversations, and which is also provided by shared knowledge of the same linguistic community in addition to the social relationships among people involved in interaction. According to Halliday,

Knowledge is transmitted in social contexts, through relationships, like those of parent and child, or teacher and pupil, or classmates, that are defined in the value systems and ideology of the culture. And the words that are exchanged in these contexts get their meaning from activities in which they are embedded, which again are social activities with social agencies and goals. (1989, p. 6)

Understanding context becomes an important task in the area of applied linguistics since it plays a vital role in disambiguation of meanings as well as in understanding the actual meaning of words and expressions (sentences and utterances). Indeed, context points out to variation of meaning and provides valuable information to understand why and how particular words and expressions vary in meaning when used in different situations.

II.3.1.3 Meaning

It goes without saying that identifying the meaningful elements of specific languages and understanding how language works has been for a long time the center of attention of linguistics and linguists.

Given its fundamental role in several language-oriented disciplines of study, there is a great need to understand and appreciate the nature of meaning of language. The notion of meaning is diverse and that is why its definition is quite problematic since the word 'meaning' itself has different meanings. Leech (1974) identified seven types of meaning. They are classified as follows:

1. Conceptual meaning	Logical, cognitive, or denotative content
2. Connotative meaning	What is communicated by virtue of what language refers to.
3. Social meaning	What is communicated of the social circumstances of language use
4. Affective meaning	What is communicated of the feelings and attitudes of the speaker/writer.
5. Reflected meaning	What is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression.
6. Collocative meaning	What is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word.
7. Thematic meaning	What is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order and emphasis.

Table 2: Types of Meaning (1974, p. 23)

According to Leech, types of meaning includes: (1) conceptual meaning, to which he referred as denotative meaning in that it is concerned with the relationship between a word and the thing it denotes (what language refers to). It is the basic type of meaning in linguistics. (2) associative meaning which includes five types of meaning (connotative, social, affective, reflected and collocative meaning); these types can be recognized and explained through mental connections (associations). (3) thematic meaning is more about the way in which the message is organized; it is determined by the order of the words in a sentence. But even when meaning is understood in the first sense above, there are still different ways to explain the meaning of different language forms.

II.3.1.3.1 Semantic versus Pragmatic Meaning

One way for explaining the diversity of the interpretation of the concept of meaning in language is to make a mere distinction between semantics and pragmatics.

II.3.1.3.1.1 Pragmatics versus Semantics

Two widely divergent fields in the philosophy of language go by the names of ‘semantics’ and ‘pragmatics’. They respectively have been a source of controversy for a long time. According to Chierchia and McConnell-Ginet, the relationship between semantics and pragmatics is wide open; they state “the issue of just how semantics should be related to more pragmatically oriented theories of information processing is wide open” (1990, p. 5). For them, semantics is concerned with the relationship between linguistic forms (expressions) and their meanings; this means that semantics is concerned with the individual meanings of words, as opposed to the overall meaning of a passage. They support their idea by adding that:

Direct experience with interpretation of language is experience with interpreting uses; however, we cannot always be sure in advance which phenomena will fall exclusively in the domain of semantics and which will turn out to require attention to pragmatic factors as well (1990, p. 5)

This is a fact that makes it difficult to free semantics from pragmatic considerations. Table 3 shows the major distinction between pragmatics and semantics.

Semantics	VS	Pragmatics
<p>Semantics is the study of the relationship between linguistic entities and their literal meanings, it is concerned with the propositional meaning of words rather than overall meaning of discourse pieces.</p>	<i>Definition</i>	<p>Pragmatics is the study of language users' ability to connect and make compatible language and context by surmounting the inconvenience they come across during social conversations and the way their choices of linguistic forms influence other participants' understanding and interpretation of their intentions in the act of communication.</p>
<p>A branch of linguistics concerned with</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The study of the relationship between language entities and their meanings. ➤ The denotative meanings of language units. 	<i>Characteristics</i>	<p>A branch of linguistics concerned with</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The use and function of language. ➤ The relationship between the linguistic expressions (utterances) and their context of use and users.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Form (Sign) and referent ➤ Denotative and connotative meanings ➤ Lexicalization ➤ Etymology ➤ homonymy ➤ Polysemy ➤ Synonymy and antonymy 	<i>Areas</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Constatives vs. performatives ➤ Felicity conditions (sincerity conditions) ➤ Deixis ➤ Presuppositions and entailments ➤ Speech act theory ➤ The cooperative principle ➤ Grice's maxims ➤ Theory of relevance ➤ Theory of Politeness

<p style="text-align: center;">Sentence</p> <p>A sentence is a group of words combined together by the grammatical rules of a language.</p> <p>Sentence Meaning (Type Meaning) It is concerned with what is literally said by uttering the sentence. This type of meaning is attached to the sentence at the level of words.</p> <p>Descriptive/Referential Meaning</p> <p>What does X mean?</p> <p>Semantic meaning is concerned with the meaning that the grammar and vocabulary convey.</p>	<i>Meaning</i>	<p style="text-align: center;">Utterance</p> <p>An utterance is the use of a piece of language by a particular speaker, on a particular occasion, for a particular purpose.</p> <p>Utterance meaning (Speaker Meaning) The notion of utterance/speaker meaning was derived in order to account for the intuition that we sometimes use to express thoughts that are not directly expressed in the sentence meaning but that the audience must derive for a successful conversation.</p> <p>Situational/Contextual Meaning</p> <p>What do you mean by X?</p> <p>Pragmatic meaning is concerned with the implied meaning of linguistic passages, meaning in context and the interlocutors in the speech events intentions.</p>
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Table 3: The Semantic-pragmatic Distinction

II.4 Areas of Pragmatics

Most pragmatic studies cover certain topics among which are deixis, presupposition and entailment, conversational implicative (Grice Maxims) and relevance theory.

II.4.1 Deixis

Deixis is one of the most important notions in general linguistics and specifically in pragmatics since it is concerned with certain linguistic items that have a pragmatic interpretation depending on different features of the speech situation such as the participants (speaker and hearer), the location and the time of the utterance. Many linguists have defined deixis variously. Jaszczolt states that ‘deixis’ derives from Ancient Greek which means ‘to show’, ‘to point out’ (2002, p. 191). Lyons (1977), Fillmore (1982), Levinson (1983), Yule (1996) and other linguists made a considerably detailed study on deixis. Lyons, for instance, defined deixis as:

The location and identification of persons, objects, events, processes and activities being talked about, or referred to, in relation to the spatiotemporal context created by the act of utterance and the participation in it, typically, of a single speaker and at least one addressee” (1977, p. 637).

Lyons’ work on deixis includes the study of space, time, social and discourse deixis. According to him, the interpretation of deixis makes reference to the context. Fillmore’s view is similar to that of Lyons. According to him, “Deixis, in a broad sense, is fundamentally a context-dependent linguistic phenomenon, typically anchored in the perspective of the speaker” (1982, p. 35). Fillmore (1983) perceives deixis as a phenomenon that covers the different linguistic items that are controlled by certain details of the context (place, time, participants) in which the utterances are produced.

Levinson, on the other hand, defines deixis as follows:

Deixis concerns the ways in which languages encode or grammaticalize features of the context of utterance or speech event, and thus also concerns ways in which the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of that context of utterance.(1983, p. 54)

By his definition, Levinson attempts to grammaticalize the aspects of deictic use in languages and, for him, the term deixis is used to cover the function of different linguistic expressions which relate utterances to the context in which they are produced. Yule states that “deixis is a technical term (from Greek) for one of the most basic things we do with utterances. It means “pointing’ via language” (1996, p. 9); for him deixis is a word used to cover the process of referring to different features of context by means of language.

II.4.1.1 Types of Deixis

Deixis is a linguistic concept that relates to words and phrases. Some words or phrases are said to be deictic. Jaszczolt (2002) proposed a useful classification of Deixis:

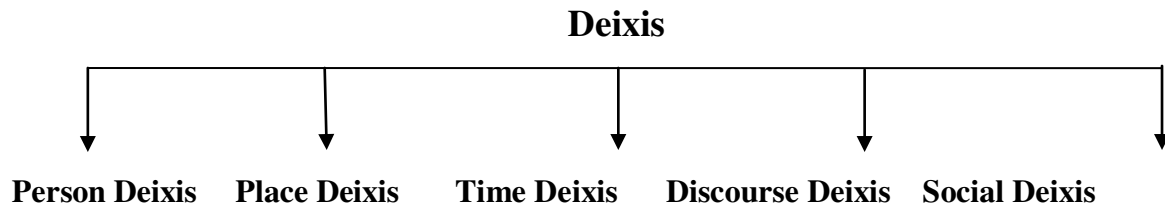


Figure 4: Jaszczolt’s Classification of Deixis (2002)

These types of deixis are meant to be as follows:

II.4.1.1.1 Person Deixis

Person deixis is usually realized by personal pronouns, it is concerned with encoding the roles of the participants in the speech situation in which a given utterance is produced. Person deixis involves (1) the speaker’s reference to himself; for instance, first person singular and plural pronouns ‘I/me’ and ‘we/us’ are typical deictic elements where the speaker refers to himself. (2) the speaker’s reference to the addressee(s) using second person singular and plural pronouns ‘You’. (3) The speaker’s reference to other people and entities using third person pronouns ‘he/him’, ‘she/her’ and ‘they/them’. According to Finegan “personal deixis can mark a number of overlapping distinction: person, gender, number, and social relations” (1994, p. 178). This means that the system of pronouns, specifically English pronouns, makes a distinction at the level of person between first person, second person and third person. The gender distinction is made in the third person singular only ‘he’ for masculine referents and ‘she’ for feminine referents, but, unlike in French, the choice of pronouns in the second person does not reflect the social status of the referents.

It goes without saying that there are many pronouns that, without greater context, do not designate a specific person, and this makes these pronouns dependent on context. For instance, when someone says ‘you’ or ‘me’, others outside of the frame of reference will not know to whom those pronouns refer. If, on the other hand, a speaker says ‘John Searle’ or ‘David Crystal’ it is immediately clear to which persons they are referring. Pronouns

including 'you' and 'me' are, thus, deictic and, thus, person deixis can be grasped only when we understand the roles of the participants: speaker, recipient and hearers who are not addressees.

II.4.1.1.2 Place Deixis

Place or spatial deixis indicates spatial locations where the interlocutors were during the conversation. Finegan describes place deixis as “the marking in language of the orientation or position in space of the referent of a linguistic expression” (1994, p. 179). Here we allocate demonstratives for instance ‘this’ vs. ‘that’ and ‘these’ vs. ‘those’ and such adverbs of place as ‘here’ and ‘there’. Spatial deictic expressions identify the location relative to the speaker and the hearer ‘here’ as an adverb of space includes the place or the location of the speakers at the time of the utterance. So, it is also used for time relative to the speaker’s location at the time of the utterance and generally the place pointed at if the use of ‘here’ is gestural; in other words, spatial deixis presupposes time deixis: the locations are specified with respect to the time of utterance.

II.4.1.1.3 Time Deixis

Temporal or time deixis encodes temporal items relative to the time of the utterance. Temporal deictic expressions point to the moment of utterance. Finegan spots temporal deixis as “the orientation or position of the reference of actions and events in time” (1994, p. 179) generally marked either by tense markers (encoded on the verb with affixes or expressed in an independent morpheme) or adverbs of time such as ‘now’, ‘tomorrow’, ‘next year’ ‘then’...etc

II.4.1.1.4 Discourse Deixis

Discourse deixis (text deixis) refers to the use of linguistic units within an utterance to refer to parts of the passage that include the utterance. In other words, when an expression refers to another linguistic expression or a piece of discourse, it is discourse deictic. It can also be referred to as a deictic reference to a portion of a discourse relative to the speaker's

current location in the discourse. In both spoken and written discourses, there is frequently occasion to refer to earlier segments of discourse.

II.4.1.1.5 Social Deixis

Social deixis is concerned with the social information which is used to identify the social status of the speaker, hearer as well as the relationships between them; it includes: social status, familiarity, age and sex, and expressions of social deixis are closely associated with personal pronouns, forms of address etc...

According to Huang, social deixis has 4 axes:

1. speaker-referent (referent honorific): used by a speaker to show respect towards a referent.
2. speaker-addressee (addressee honorific): used by a speaker to show deference towards an addressee.
3. speaker-bystander (bystander honorific): used by a speaker to signify respect to a bystander, including participants in the role of an audience and non-participant over hearers
4. speaker-setting (levels of formality): relation between a speaker and a speech setting or event. (2007, p 209)

Besides all of the ways in which words can be dependent on other words and phrases, different linguistic expressions can also be deictic and, thus, the study of those deictic expressions which have a direct pragmatic interpretation depending on parameters of the speech situation is necessary to understand how comprehension of ideas involves more than just auditory input. Consequently, this is part of high level linguistics that seeks to understand how humans communicate.

II.4.2 Presupposition and Entailment

Presupposition and entailment are very important elements which have been broadly examined in the field of pragmatics.

II.4.2.1 Presupposition

Presupposition is a pragmatic notion meaning the relation between two sentences in which the truth of one is a necessary condition for the truth or falsity of the other one. It is a language technique particularly used in communication and interaction (negotiation of meaning), where someone would like to persuade someone to take a different perspective.

A presupposition is a necessary precondition for the processing of any communication and, thus, it is an important aspect for communication which typically involves the existence of some objects or ideas; it can even be the most important component of the overall linguistic message. Various definitions of presupposition have been presented by different linguists.

During everyday interaction, it happens that a speaker assumes that certain information is already known by the addressee; such information will generally not be stated and consequently will count as part of what is communicated but not said. According to Levinson:

The term presupposition refers to those assumptions which appear to be built into the linguistic structure of texts and which relate linguistic structure to extra-linguistic context in terms of the inferences which are expected to be made about this context" (1983, p. 68).

Levinson defines presuppositions as presumptions or inferences made when using different structures of language and which refer to different devices or deductions associated with the extra linguistic context. This is clearly pointed by Yule:

Speakers continually design their linguistic messages on the basis of assumptions about what their hearers already know [...]. What a speaker assumes is true or is known by the hearer can be described as a presupposition (1996, pp. 131-132).

This is supported by Hudson when he stated that "a presupposition is something assumed (presupposed) to be true in a sentence which asserts other information"(2001, p. 321). For him, a presupposition is a linguistic phenomenon referring to a linguistic structure which is assumed to be true or is known by the hearer.

II.4.2.2 Entailment

Entailment is a logical relationship between two propositions where the truth of one recommends the truth of the other. Crystal defines entailment as:

A term that refers to a relation between a pair of sentences such that the truth of the second sentence necessarily follows from the truth of the first, e.g. *I can see a dog* entails 'I can see an animal'. One cannot both assert the first and deny the second (1998, p. 136).

Entailment is defined as any true inference derived from a true proposition. According to Levinson, entailments are “background assumptions against which an action, theory, expression or utterance makes sense or is rational” (Levinson 1983, p. 168). In other words, an entailment is the relationship between two sentences where the truth of one requires the truth of the other.

II.4.3 Conversational Implicatures

Conversational implicatures are expressions that intend additional meanings.

II.4.3.1 What is Implicature?

Before trying to define conversational implicatures, it is important to define the notion of implicature. Originally, the term ‘implicature’ was coined by the philosopher Grice; it refers to the implied meaning of the utterance, that is to say, suggesting one thing by saying something else. Implicatures can be part of sentence meaning or dependent on conversational context. Levinson refers to implicature by relying on “some very general expectation of interactional cooperation” (1983, p. 50).

II.4.3.2 Conversational Implicatures (Gricean Theory)

Conversational implicatures are messages (pragmatic inferences) interlocutors convey which are often above and beyond the literal meaning (propositional meaning) of the words they speak. According to Levinson,

Implicature stands as a paradigmatic example of the nature and power of pragmatic explanations of linguistic phenomenon.....It provides some explicit account of how it is possible to mean (in some general sense) more than what is actually said.....The notion of implicature seems likely to affect substantial simplifications in both the structure and the content of semantic descriptions.Implicature seems to be simply essential if various basic facts about language are to be accounted for properly.....The principles that generate implicatures have a very general explanatory power: a few basic principles provide explanations for a large array of apparently unrelated fact (1983, PP, 97-100).

Grice (1967) developed the notion of conversational implicature which refers to the communicational (implicated) content of an utterance rather than its propositional content. According to Yule “implicature is an additional conveyed meaning. It is something more than just what the words mean” (1996, P. 36), that is to say, understanding an utterance is far from proposition analysis and literal meaning interpretation. It is the unity of what is said and what is implicated. Grice’s view is that the utterance interpretation is not a matter of decoding messages, but rather involves an understanding of the linguistic meaning of what is said (sentence meaning), the information from the context (shared knowledge) and the speaker assumption that the utterance conforms to the rules of cooperative conduct (Gricean maxims). In addition to identifying and classifying the phenomenon of implicature, Grice also attempted to describe how such implicatures are understood since he suggested a general Cooperative Principle and four maxims indicating how to be cooperative; he claimed that people generally follow specific rules for successful communication. For him, “A conversational implicature is “what has to be supposed in order to preserve the supposition that the Cooperative Principle is being observed” (1975/1989, pp. 39-40). Grice’s aim was to understand how speaker’s meaning rises from sentence meaning .i.e. Speaker meaning = Sentence meaning + what is implicated. According to Fais “One of the defining features of conversation is that it is cooperative in nature.” (1994, pp. 231-242). Conversation is a cooperative behavior.

II.4.3.3 Grice's Cooperative Principle (Maxims)

The Cooperative Principle is one of the basic concepts in pragmatics postulated by Grice (1975); it has something to do with the distinction between saying and meaning. His aim is to discover the device behind this process. Grice insisted on the fact that conversation is based on a mutual principle of cooperation, something like: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk in which you are engaged."(1975, p. 165)

II.4.3.3.1 Grice's Maxims

In 1975, Grice proposed the following conversational maxims:

II.4.3.3.1.1 Maxim of Quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

II.4.3.3.1.2 Maxim of Quantity

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

II.4.3.3.1.3 Maxim of Relation

Be relevant.

II.4.3.3.1.4 Maxim of Manner

Be perspicuous.

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
4. Be orderly. (Cited in Cole & Morgan, 1975; PP. 41–58)

When stating these maxims. Grice was just observing the difference between “what is said” and “what is meant” to show that people in reality do follow specific steps and rules (maxims) when involved in different conversations.

II.4.4 Relevance Theory

Relevance theory, also known as the inferential model of communication, was originally proposed by Sperber & Wilson (1986); indeed, their work is an attempt to capture the notion of relevance in communicative situations through both linguistic and contextual inferences. According to Sperber & Wilson,

It is left to the communicator to make correct assumptions about the codes and contextual information that the audience will have accessible and be likely to use in the comprehension process. The responsibility for avoiding misunderstandings also lies with the speaker, so that all the hearer has to do is go ahead and use whatever code and contextual information which come most readily to hand (1986, p. 43).

For them, the relevance theory includes the utterance understanding (the informative intention of the speaker) and the utterance interpretation (the communicative intention of the speaker); so they insist that communication is the responsibility of the speaker. They write:

Relevance theory takes a different approach. It characterises communication as a different type of social process than does the code model. From the point of view of the code model, communication can be described as social because it is a form of interaction, but the abilities it presupposes in communicators are signal-oriented rather than other oriented. All an encoder has to do is produce a signal; all a decoder has to attend to is a signal. This can happen without either communicator having any notion that there are other notions like itself, with mental states and capacities, or even that it is itself such being. (1986, P.146)

For Sperber and Wilson, communication is a social activity which requires certain mental abilities in order to utilize the appropriate language entities to transmit language messages for a successful decoding of appropriate meaning of performed conversations. According to Johnson-Laird “Sperber and Wilson attempt to reduce Grice's conventions to one: be relevant.”(1988, p. 349). Thus, the inferential theory considers a scrupulous

explanation of how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided.

II.5 Pragmatic Instruction

Since its introduction in linguistics, pragmatics has had diverse applications. Research in this field has always been of crucial importance in teaching and learning foreign languages. A great number of researchers have drawn attention to the importance of developing learners' pragmatic awareness which enables them to use language appropriately. Since it is obvious that learners' pragmatic failure is due to their lack of knowledge of certain language forms that are socially appropriate in the target language community, researchers presume that pragmatic competence can be developed through different pragmatic instruction. This point is fittingly observed by Bardovi-Harlig

Research on instruction in second language (L2) pragmatics has made fundamental contributions to the teaching of pragmatics in an L2 and a foreign language (FL) context and has shown the benefits of instruction versus exposure in various aspects of pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005; Kasper & Rose, 2002 [chap7]; Pearson, 2005; Rose, 2005; Rose and Kasper, 2001) (2006, p. 165).

Different studies looked at the effect of pragmatic instruction on increasing pragmatic awareness and instructional methods are used to focus learner's attention. These studies have been devoted to examine the effect of different types of instruction on the foreign language learners' awareness of the pragmatic aspects that enable them to use the target language appropriately in its different contexts. Bhatia and Ritchie stated that:

A vigorous line of research on pragmatics therefore examines the effectiveness of different instructional arrangement, especially those commonly referred to as "implicit" and "explicit" respectively. Based on approximately 40 studies available to date, reviews (Kasper, 2001; Rose, 2005) and a meta-analysis of 13 quantitative studies (Jeon & Kaya, 2006) suggest that explicit instruction is generally superior to implicit instruction. (2009, p. 268)

A great deal of research on pragmatics has been carried out on specific and, often, separate aspects such as speech acts of apology, performatives ...etc. This means that the use of speech acts is of crucial importance in pragmatics. Celce-Murcia et al (1995), for example, defined it as “competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech act and speech acts sets” (1995, p. 9).

The studies carried out in the field of pragmatics associate the production of pragmatic competence to the study of the English language in classrooms.

The following tables include the pragmatic and speech acts studies that were carried out between 1981 and 2001 (Kasper 1997 & Da Silva 2003).

Study	Teaching Goal	Proficiency	Languages	Research Goal	Design	Assessment/ Procedure/ Instrument
House & Kasper 1981	Discourse markers & strategies	Advanced	Advanced L1 German FL English	Explicit vs. implicit	Pre-test/ posttest control group L2 baseline	Role play
Wildner-Bassett 1984, 1986	Pragmatic routines	Intermediate	L1 German FL English	Eclectic vs. suggestopedia	Pre-test/ posttest control group	Role play
Billmyer 1990	Compliment	High Intermediate	L1 Japanese SL English	+/- instruction	Pre-test/ posttest control group L2 baseline	Elicited conversation
Olshtain & Cohen 1990	Apology	Advanced	L1 Hebrew FL English	Teachability	Pre-test/ posttest L2 baseline	Discourse completion question
Wildner-Bassett 1994	Pragmatic routines & strategies	Beginning	L1 English SL German	Teachability to beginning FL students	pre-test/ posttest	Questionnaires role play

Bouton 1994	Implicature	Advanced	L1 mixed SL English	+/- instruction	Pre-test/posttest control group	Multiple choice Question
Kubota 1995	Implicature	Intermediate	L1 Japanese FL English	deductive vs. inductive vs. zero	Pre-test/posttest/delayed post-test control group	Multiple choice & sentence combining question
House 1996	Pragmatic Fluency	Advanced	L1 German FL English	explicit vs. implicit	Pre-test/posttest control group	Roleplay
Morrow 1996	Complaint & Refusal	Intermediate	L1 mixed SL English	teachability/explicit	Pre-test/posttest/delayed post-test L2 baseline	Roleplay holistic ratings
Tateyama et al. 1997	Pragmatic routines	Beginning	L1 English FL Japanese	Explicit vs. implicit	Pre-test/posttest control group	Multi-method

Table 4: Studies Examining the Effect of Pragmatic Instruction from 1981 to 1997 (based on Kasper (1997) and cited in Mestre Mestre, 2011, P. 67).

INTERVENTIONAL STUDIES TO DATE	
Pragmatic Routines	Wildner-Bassett (1994), House (1996) and Yoshimi (2001)
Apologies	Olshain & Cohen (1990) and Tateyama (2001)
Implicatures	Bouton (1994) and Kubota (1995)
Compliments	Billmyer (1990), LoCastro (2000), and Rose & Ng Kwai-fun (2001)
Requests	LoCastro (1997), Fukuya & Clark (2001), and Takahashi (2001)
Socio/stylistic variation	Lyster (1994)
Hedges in academic writing	Wishnoff (2000)
Interactional norms	Liddicoat & Crozet (2001)
Refusals	King and Silver (1993), Morrow (1996), and Kondo (2001)

Table 5: Studies Relating Pragmatics to the Classroom 1993-2003 (Silva, 2003; cited in Mestre Mestre, 2011, P.68)

As can be seen, most of the participants in the above stated studies are foreign language learners, who may have little access to target-language (English) input and even less opportunity for using English outside the classroom. They are either beginners, intermediate or advanced.

Most of the studies are carried out using specific speech acts such as apologies, complements, requests complaints and refusals. Those communicative acts are measured by assessment instrument such as role plays, multiple choice questions and DCTs which indicate that pragmatic studies showed greater interest in examining ESL and EFL learners performance in the TL (English).

Russel and Vasquez (2011) summarized some of the main studies carried out in the field. According to them, the results of Bardovi-Harlig (2001) and Kasper and Rose (2002) work on speech act instruction suggested that classroom instruction on speech acts helps learners to attain pragmatic proficiency. For Searle (1969), speech acts are language users' endeavour to perform different actions with specific intentions that are typically universal to all languages. For him, examples of speech acts may include apologies, requests, compliments, and complaints, and effective communication is more than just exchanging information; it also about understanding the intention behind the information. Indeed, much of what we try to communicate to others and what others try to communicate to us gets misunderstood. This can cause conflict and frustration, and thus, learners must be able to understand the intended meaning communicated by speech acts, and they must also be able to use appropriate language and manner according to the immediate social and cultural context, which is a difficult task for even highly advanced learners.

Rose's work on pragmatics (2005) also shows that instruction in pragmatics is more useful than a mere exposure to the TL culture, and he claims that there are many research works which have shown the benefits of the inclusion of pragmatic instruction into second

and foreign language studies. According to him, numerous studies that compared pragmatic instruction to exposure (or no instruction) have demonstrated a benefit for instruction over exposure (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Lyster, 1994; Wishnoff, 2000; Yoshimi, 2001). Billmyer (1990) studies compliments and compliment responses with two groups of English as a Second Language (ESL) students; one group received pragmatics instruction (the experimental group) and a group did not (the control group). The result showed that the experimental group's performance in the instructed area (appropriateness, spontaneity and deflection) is much better than the one of the control group; that is to say, the control group simply accepted compliments, failing to use any pragmatic strategies at all. Yoshimi's findings (2001) were similar to those of Billmyer. The latter examined Japanese interactional markers, with the experimental group which receive a total of 24 hours of instruction spread out over the course of one semester. At the end of the semester, the experimental group who received pragmatic instruction showed a significant increase in the frequency of interactional markers in their oral performance while the control group did not show any such increase.

Taguchi's study (2011) also supports the previous studies findings; he explicitly asserts that "instruction is better than non-instruction for pragmatic development" (2011, p. 291). He argues that including pragmatics instruction in FL textbooks and curricula is a necessity because instruction is better than a mere exposure for the acquisition of pragmatic proficiency. Other scholars like Hoven (1999), Kramsch and Anderson (1999), and LeLoup and Ponterio (2000) favour the use of multimedia and authentic materials in the application of pragmatic instruction. They claim that the use of multimedia tools is effective for the instruction of speech acts.

As can be seen, all the findings and results of the above stated studies show the significance of introducing speech acts in classroom materials when teaching pragmatics in EFL context.

II.6 Teaching Pragmatics

Pragmatics deals with the appropriate interpretation of meaning that the speaker needs to negotiate along with the hearer within a given social and cultural context. It requires the understanding of the social use of language. Pragmatic competence means being able to go beyond the propositional meaning of what is communicated. So, learners need to collaborate to make sure that authentic communication takes place. Indeed, learners that have the basic notions of pragmatic systematic classification understand better people's intended meanings. Thus, understanding a variety of situations prepares students for more successful communication (Comprehension+ production).

The contribution of pragmatics to language teaching is unquestionable. Pragmatics, in essence, is a study of language and language teaching from a functional perspective. It is because of this reason that pragmatics is a theory of linguistic performance.

According to Eslami-Rasekh et al, "the responsibility of teaching the pragmatic aspect of the language use falls on teachers" (2004, p. 301). Indeed, many teachers make great effort in order to find effective ways to develop their learners' awareness of pragmatics.

The classroom provides one of the best places for learners to learn and experiment. There, learners are able to try out new forms and examples of communication. For instance, they can exercise their language skills and attempt to perform and understand different linguistic entities like native speakers of English do, instead of the ones they are used to.

II.6.1 Teaching Pragmatics via Instruction

Instruction in pragmatics helps increase learners' pragmatic understanding in order to use the target language appropriately when involved in the act of communication. Pragmatic instruction also helps learners consider the range of pragmatic strategies and techniques while communicating in the TL. In fact, with such instruction, learners can preserve their own

cultural backgrounds and participate more fully in TL communication. According to Kondo successful communication is a result of optimal rather than total convergence.

Teaching pragmatics via instruction is considered to be of great importance simply because observation of language learners shows that they are in a dire need to develop their pragmatic awareness and performance and that instruction in pragmatics can be a successful methodology to achieve the aim of improving the learners' pragmatic and communicative competence. EFL learners, who are away from the real context, should be taught to make appropriate choices of language entities, that is to say instruction helps students use the TL appropriately in different situations. In an EFL context, learners show up disabilities in language performance as a means of communication, and this may be caused by lack of pragmatic instruction. That is to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency does not necessarily show equivalent pragmatic development. Thus, even advanced non-native speakers are neither linguistically unsuccessful, nor pragmatically successful. The introduction of instructional materials in EFL classes have also been supported by scholars such as Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, 1999; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999. Most of those linguists argued that maintaining a conversation in English requires a certain amount of knowledge in order to make the appropriate choice of language entities. In fact, teaching via instruction equips the learners with effective language tools that help them understand and perform different communication acts such as giving support, indicating agreement, inviting, making requests, apologising, showing strong emotional response, adding or correcting speaker's information ...etc.

Learners should be provided with the opportunity to use language for communication in the EFL classes. In fact, the divergence between grammatical and pragmatic development in EFL context may be reconsidered by teaching pragmatics.

II.7 Teaching Pragmatics at the Department of Letters and English Language

The aim of this department is to provide a high quality education through interdisciplinary courses, to build up the students' linguistic knowledge and language skills, and to develop their critical, analytical and creative thinking. So, students study English in order to develop their linguistic skills and use them when pursuing different professions, in the field of communication management. Apart from classical disciplines, in recent times the department paid special attention to the teaching of some very important subjects, especially those which deal with theories about language in use, such as Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics, English for Specific Purposes and English for Science and Technology. These subjects help increase the learners' communicative ability in the English language.

Teaching pragmatics at this department has been introduced with the implementation of the LMD system in higher education in Algeria. As a result, teachers are not trained to teach this very important subject and, thus, they are asked to teach a series of lessons on pragmatics which are not provided by a formal syllabus in teaching pragmatics; lesson plans served as theory based mini courses that cover different aspects of pragmatics.

Pragmatic courses at the department provide an opportunity for students to be exposed to the scope of pragmatics with a particular reference to famous linguists whose contributions influenced strongly its study. Starting from its definition and backgrounds, the courses present an overview of different issues covered such as Deixis (types of Deixis, the interpretation of Deixis , distance and reference), Speech Acts (Austin's Model of Speech Acts, Searle's Classification) and the Cooperative principle (Grice's Maxims).

It is, thus, no exaggeration to say that past theories of language learning and teaching are to a great extent insufficient because they do not cover adequately the pragmatic dimension of language. Unfortunately, most theorists in the past have thought very little about what gives linguistic symbols their special qualities, and so they persisted with structuralist

theories and neglected those theories dealing with language in use and whose main objective is to enable foreign language learners to improve their communicative proficiency when using language in real life situations.

Conclusion

This chapter has touched on a number of topics that establish pragmatics as a central subject in the theory of language like context and meaning since they play a crucial part in the development of language understanding and learning. The chapter has also covered a number of different pragmatic areas such as deixis, presuppositions and entailments and conversational implicatures (Grice's Maxims) and the relevance theory since they construct a convenient approach to modern human language. The chapter reviewed specific issues such as the integration of pragmatic in the field of teaching foreign languages, pragmatic instruction to which the numerous studies carried out in the field of pragmatics have referred. It could be seen that most of those studies have been done on a specific area in pragmatics which is speech acts.

In a nutshell, since the area of speech acts constructs the central part of pragmatics, it can be regarded as the most appropriate way to accomplish the objective of improving English language learners' communicative competence, and, thus, the next chapter will be all devoted to a detailed study of such an important area.

Chapter III

Speech Acts Theory

Introduction

This chapter introduces the theory developed by Austin (1965) and Searle (1975). The chapter is divided into two major parts; part one includes an overview of the theory of speech acts and the key concepts in Austin's speech act theory. The chapter also identifies Searle's taxonomy of speech acts which is followed by a summary of the literature that addresses the role of indirectness and politeness in the realization of speech acts. Part two, on the other hand, addresses the speech acts of request and apology; it deals with their definitions, types, classification and strategies.

III.1 Speech Acts Theory

Speech acts are one of the key areas of linguistic pragmatics. Philosophers like Grice (1975), Austin (1962) and Searle (1965, 1969 and 1975) proposed the basic conceptions of this new theory of language and communication. This theory was developed based on the assumption that:

The minimal units of human communication are not linguistic expressions, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking, and so on (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p. 2)

III.1.1 What is a Speech Act?

The term 'speech act' has been defined as "a minimal unit of discourse, a basic unit of communication" (Searle, 1969, p. 16). It can be defined as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance. For example, saying 'I'll be there at six' does not imply that it is merely speaking; it is performing the speech act of 'promising.' It is an utterance used to perform an action and which serves a function in communication; it is an act of speaking performed when

apologizing, complimenting, greeting, complaining, inviting, requesting or refusing i.e. all sorts of things we can do with words.

Austin (1965) outlined the Theory of Speech Acts and the concept of performative language, in which to say something is at the same time to do it.

III.1.2 Austin's Theory of Speech Acts

The Speech Act theory is a theory that is largely attributed to the British Philosopher Austin (1962) who first proposed making a distinction which he saw as central to the philosophy of language between utterances that could be verified, in a sense that they were cognitively meaningful, and those utterances that may be perceived as performing some kind of linguistic 'act'. In other words, Austin assumed, first and foremost, that there is a crucial distinction between constative 'statements' that can either be true or false and are necessarily descriptive, and non-constative 'statements' outside of the true/false dichotomy, namely those used to perform an action. The latter had been ignored in research on the philosophy of language. Austin called such meaningful non-constative utterances 'performatives' since they are utterances the production of which, given certain conditions (to be investigated), serves as the performance of some conventional social act.

Austin (1965) developed his theory of speech acts in a series of lectures which were published as a book entitled '*How to Do Things with Words*'. The Speech act theory is one of the key areas of linguistic pragmatics and which claims that many utterances, termed performatives, do not only communicate information, but are equivalent to actions. That is to say, through the use of these utterances, people do things or have others do things for them like apologizing, making requests and complimenting, etc. Lyons stated that "Austin's main purpose was to challenge the view that the only philosophically (and also linguistically) interesting function of language was that of making true or false statements" (1981, p. 173).

III.1.2.1 Key Concepts in Austin's Speech Act Theory

In his famous work, 'How to do Things with Words', Austin (1962) outlined the theory of Speech Acts and put forward the following concepts.

III.1.2.1.1 Performatives

According to Austin, the term 'performative' is:

... derived, of course, from 'perform', the usual verb with the noun 'action'; it indicates that the issuing of the utterance is the performing of an action – it is not normally thought of as just saying something. (1962, pp. 6-7)

'Performatives' is the first key concept Austin examined within the speech act theory. For him, performatives are "a special class of sentences with peculiar syntactic and pragmatic properties" (1965, p. 231). He argues that performatives are active statements that are used to perform something rather than just describing something. Grammatically speaking, performatives are expressions that may have two grammatical forms, so they maybe:

- 1) statements that encompass the first person singular 'I' plus an active verb in the simple present tense; for instance, 'I hereby order you to leave the room' or
- 2) statements in which the verb is used in its passive form (passive voice); for example, 'students are advised to take extra maths classes'.

III.1.2.1.1.1 Performatives vs. Constatives

Austin (1965) made an important distinction between performatives and constatives. According to him, constatives are propositions which can be true or false, i.e. they are statements of facts which could be right or wrong, e.g. 'He is my Father'. The truth or falsity of the statement in this example can be determined through making reference to the information in the world. Performatives are different from constatives; they are statements (utterances) performed under particular conditions; they are not performed to describe

something but to accomplish something. For instance, by saying ‘I promise to do my best’, the speaker is not stating a fact about the world, rather he is performing the act of promising.

III.1.2.1.1.2 Types of Performatives: Implicit vs. Explicit

Austin (1962) makes a distinction between two types of performatives: implicit performatives and explicit performatives; this distinction was specified too by linguists such as Searle (1969), Levinson (1983) and Leech (1983). According to Leech, explicit performatives occur “when a speaker needs to define his act as belonging to a particular category” (1983, P.181). That is to say, the speaker performs an utterance explicitly when he or she uses performative verbs like order, promise, request, etc... These performative verbs determine the illocutionary force of the utterance. On the other hand, implicit performatives are those expressions which do not include an explicit performative verb and the speaker needs some cues to name the illocutionary force of the utterance.

III.1.2.1.1.2 Felicity Conditions

The term of felicity conditions is another key concept proposed by Austin (1962); he defined them as follows:

- A. There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances.
- B. The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.
- C. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and completely.
- D. Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must intend so to conduct themselves, and further must actually so conduct themselves subsequently. (1962, pp. 14-15)

Thus, the felicity conditions are conditions that must be in place and the criteria that must be satisfied for a speech act to achieve its purpose; in other words, by uttering a

performative sentence, the speaker indicates a certain speech situation, a certain convention; he also indicates that there are certain persons and circumstances; these are all conditions which aid understanding the speech act and the speech situation. Other conditions may include the hearer's reaction, thoughts, feelings or intentions etc.

According to Levinson, Austin defined a set of conditions which "performatives must meet if they are to succeed" (1983, p.229). They are called 'felicity conditions' If these conditions are not met, which can happen under certain circumstances, performatives are 'infelicitous' or 'unhappy' then. Constatives, on the other hand, are "declarative statements whose truth or falsity can be judged" (Schiffrin 1994, p. 50).

Austin's felicity conditions framework was summarised by Allan as follows:

- A preparatory condition, meant to establish whether or not the circumstances of the speech act and the participants in it are appropriate to its successful performance.
- An executive condition, meant to determine whether or not the speech act has been properly executed.
- A fulfilment condition that is determined by the perlocutionary effect of the speech act.(1994, P. 229)

III.1.2.1.3 Sincerity Condition

According to Austin, sincerity condition refers to the interlocutor state of mind; that is to say the psychological state of the participant in the conversation which consists of: thoughts, feelings and intentions. Searle explains Austin' view and states that many illocutionary acts with a propositional content include the expression of a psychological state. For example, when uttering a sentence one expresses a belief, a desire, or asks for something. "When the propositional content of an illocution is the same as that of the expressed psychological state, one can say that the speech act is sincere." (1965, p. 18). This means when performing an utterance one expresses a certain psychological state such as a belief, an

intention, a desire or a want. The propositional content of the performative utterance is, in general, identical with the propositional content of the expressed psychological state.

After analysing the different conditions proposed to be a major portion in the analysis and the understanding of different performative utterances and language used in real life situations, Austin realized that the classification of constatives and performatives is to a great extent inadequate, and thus, according to Levinson, he isolated “three basic senses in which in saying something one is doing something, and hence three kinds of acts are simultaneously performed” (Levinson 1983, p. 236). These three kinds are: the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts.

III.1.3 Types of Speech Acts

Austin defines three kinds of acts i.e three ways of *doing things with words*: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. It is the second category ‘the illocutionary act’ which is the most important in Austin’s investigation and which is used in linguistics to “refer to a theory which analyses the role of utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication” (Crystal 1997, p. 427).

Leech defines Austin’s types of speech acts as follows:

locutionary act: performing an act of saying something

illocutionary act: performing an act in saying something

perlocutionary act: performing an act by saying something (1983, p. 199).

The following figure describes Austin’s classification of speech acts; it includes Austin’s first division of utterances (Constatives vs. Performatives). Then there is the interpretation of each type with particular subdivisions which constitute the three types of speech acts: Locutionary, illocutionary and Perlocutionary act.

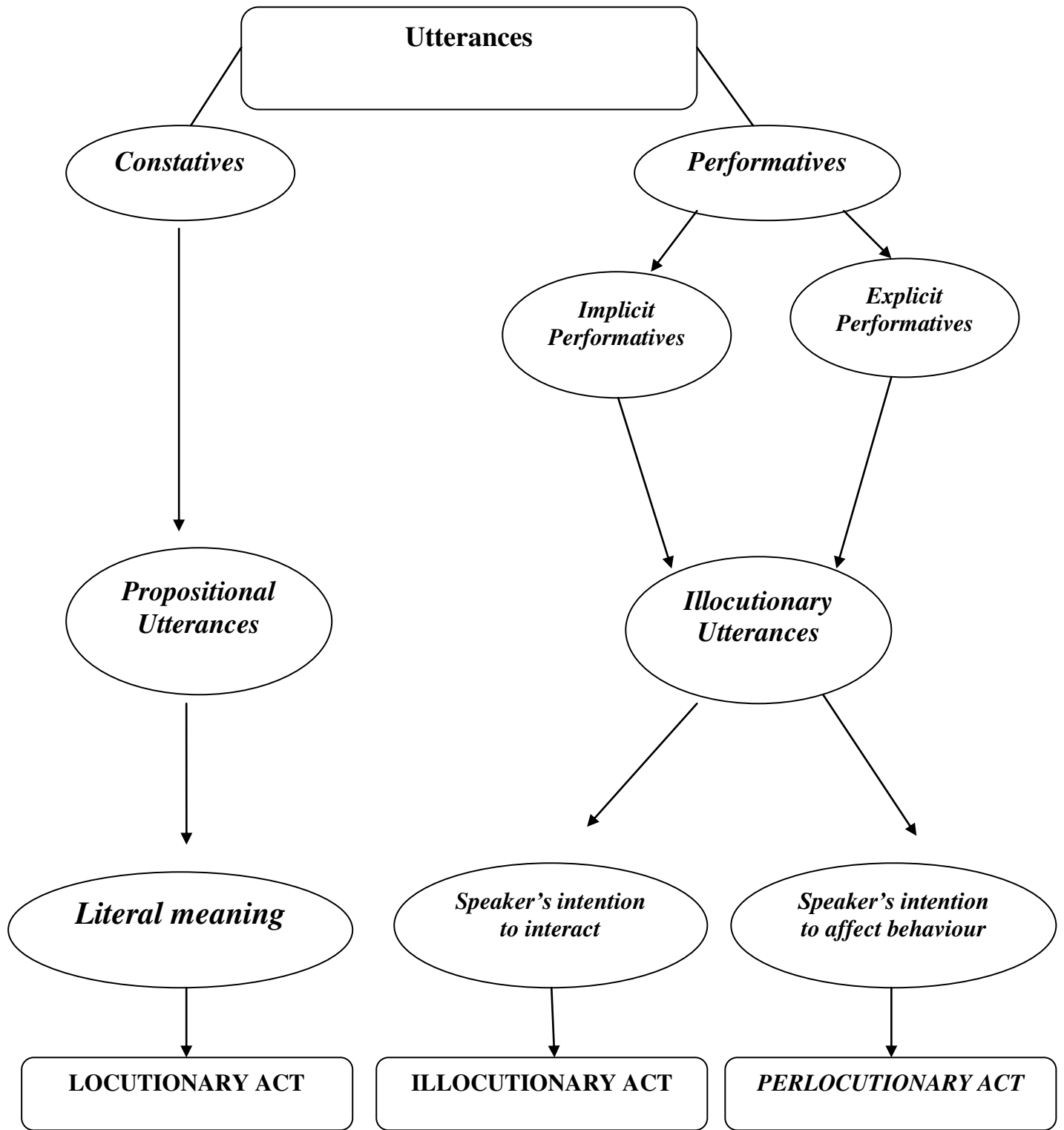


Figure 5: Types of Speech Acts (Based on Austin's (1962) Speech Acts Classification)

III.1.3.1 Locutionary Act

A locutionary act is an act that has a semantic meaning; it is an act accomplished by uttering a semantically (literally) meaningful sentence; that is to say, it is an utterance which is still deprived of any speaker's meaning. According to Austin, a locutionary act is accomplished by "uttering a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference" (1962, P. 109). So, for him, a Locutionary act refers to any utterance that has a propositional meaning.

III.1.3.2 Illocutionary Act

As already suggested by Austin above, an illocutionary act is a complete act, made in a typical utterance; it is the action performed by the speaker in producing a given utterance and which is determined by the nature of the illocutionary force of utterance and by the propositional content (what is uttered).

The illocutionary act 'takes effect' in certain ways, as distinguished from producing consequences in the sense of bringing about states of affairs in the 'normal' way, i.e. changes in the natural course of events. Thus, 'I name this ship the *Queen Elizabeth*' has the effect of naming or christening the ship; then certain subsequent acts such as referring to it as the *Generalissimo Stalin* will be out of order. (Austin, 1962, p. 117)

On the other hand, Yule claims that "the illocutionary act is thus performed via the communicative force of an utterance which is also generally known as the illocutionary force of the utterance" (1996, p. 48).

According to Searle, the illocutionary act is an act of doing something rather than an act of saying something, e.g., asking, promising, apologizing, ordering and warning etc. In other words, sometimes it is not easy to determine what kind of illocutionary act the speaker performs. To assume the speaker's different intentions, many indications such as explicit performative verbs, various paralinguistic features (stress and intonation) and word order should be stated. These are called the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID).

According to Mey, “one should not believe a speech act to be taking place, before one has considered, or possibly created, the appropriate context.” (1993, p. 139). Yule also emphasises the notion of the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device IFID when he writes “In order to correctly decode the illocutionary act performed by the speaker, it is also necessary for the hearer to be acquainted with the context the speech act occurs in” (1996, p. 49).

Indeed, illocutionary acts are considered the core of the theory of speech acts. Austin then proposed a tentative classification of explicit performative verbs. He distinguished five categories based on the notion of illocutionary act:

- (1) Verdictives, which express verdicts or evaluations given by judges. Verbs such as, p. *to condemn, to absolve, to judge, to estimate, to appraise.*
 - (2) Exercitives, which express the exercising of powers and rights. It includes verbs like *to vote, to appoint, to excommunicate, to order, to warn.*
 - (3) Commissives, which express commitments or undertakings. Verbs belonging to this category include *to promise, to guarantee, to contract, to commit.*
 - (4) Behavitives, which have to do with social behavior or reaction to it. This category includes verbs such as *to thank, to refuse, to apologize, to complain.*
 - (5) Expositives, which are used to explain or clarify reasons, arguments and communications. Verbs belonging to this category include *to reply, to argue, to concede, to assume.*
- (1962, pp. 150-163)

III.1.3.3 Perlocutionary Act

The perlocutionary act is made by means of an illocutionary act and depends entirely on the hearer's reaction. A perlocutionary act is a non-linguistic act performed as a consequence of performing the locutionary and illocutionary acts. If the performance of the illocutionary act convinces the listener to make a reaction, that reaction is one of its perlocutionary effects..

To sum up, Austin's theory attempts to illustrate how speakers use language to perform some actions and how listeners deduce the intended meaning from what is said. For him:

It was for too long the assumption of philosophers that the business of a 'statement' can only be to 'describe' some state of affairs, or to 'state some fact', which it must do either truly or falsely. (...) But now in recent years, many things, which would once have been accepted without question as 'statements' by both philosophers and grammarians have been scrutinized with new care. (...) It has come to be commonly held that many utterances which look like statements are either not intended at all, or only intended in part, to record or impart straightforward information about the facts (...). (1962, p. 1)

III.1.4 Searle's Theory of Speech Act

The most famous expansion of Austin's work was done by Searle who proposed new dimensions to what came to be known as Speech Act Theory. Mey writes that "Searle's proposal, is more oriented [than Austin's] towards the real world, in as much as it takes its point of departure in what actually is the case, namely that people perform a speech act whenever they use language, irrespective of the 'performative' criterion", (1993, p. 125)

Austin's work on speech acts was systematized and further developed by Searle (1969); he claims that:

"...all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts. The unit of linguistic communication is not, as has generally been supposed, the symbol, word or sentence, [...] but rather the production of the symbol or word or sentence in the performance of the speech acts" (1969, p.16)

Searle points out that there are many ways of describing the same speech act which are the physical act, act of reference, perlocutionary act, and illocutionary act. According to him:

The speaker will characteristically have moved his jaw and tongue and made noises. He will have performed acts within the class which includes making statements, asking questions, issuing commands, giving reports, greeting and warning. The

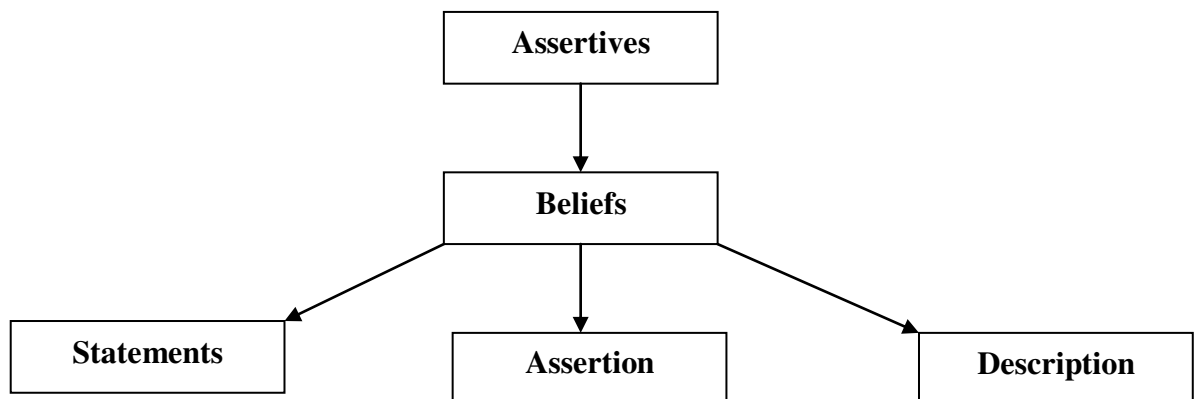
members of this last class are what Austin called illocutionary acts and it is with this class that I shall be concerned in this paper. (1975, p.377)

According to Searle, Austin's classification contains several weaknesses. He departed from Austin by proposing his own set of speech acts and additionally proposed the process of felicity conditions which must be performed for a speech act to be successful.

III.1.4.1 Searle's Taxonomy of Speech Acts

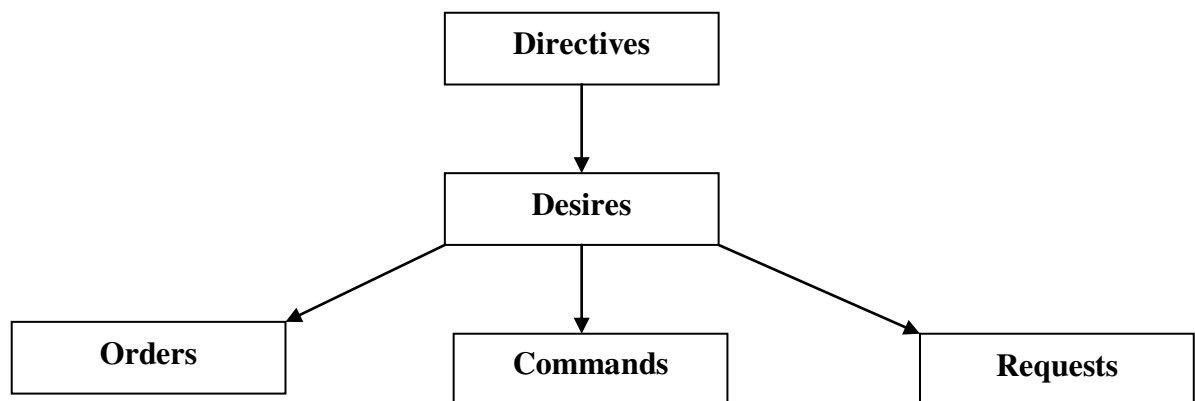
According to Searle's theory of speech acts, there are five different kinds of ways of speaking. Any (simple) speech act will fall under at least one of these categories, and in some borderline cases, the categories will overlap.

Representatives (or assertives): those acts in which a speaker expresses his belief towards something or represents a state of affairs. This may include performative verbs such as assert, state, describe, and suggest. "The point or purpose of the members of the assertive class is to commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to something's being the case, to the truth of the expressed proposition." (1979, p.12) "The simplest test of an assertive is this: can you literally characterize it (inter alia) as true or false?" (1979, p.13).

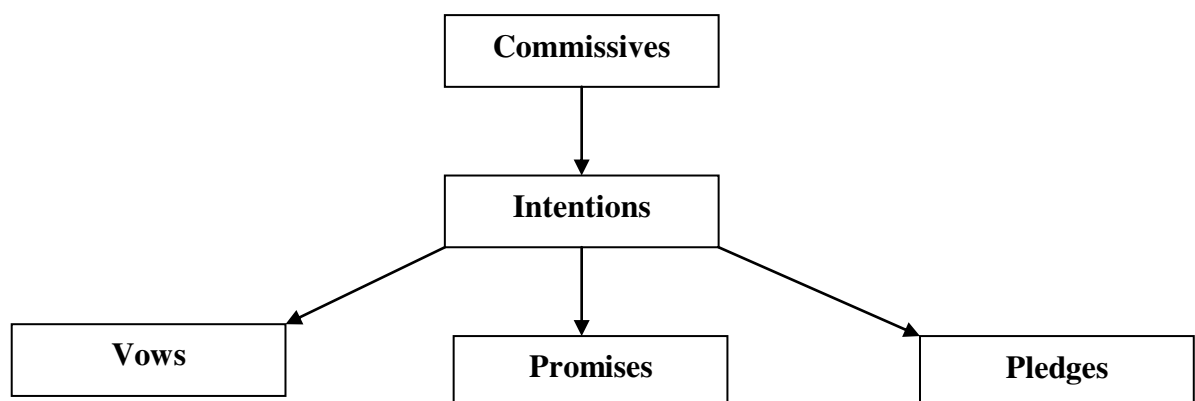


Directives: which are used by the speaker to direct the hearer/reader to do something using verbs like invite, order, suggest, request, challenge. "The illocutionary point of these consists in the fact that they are attempts (of varying degrees, and hence, more precisely, they are

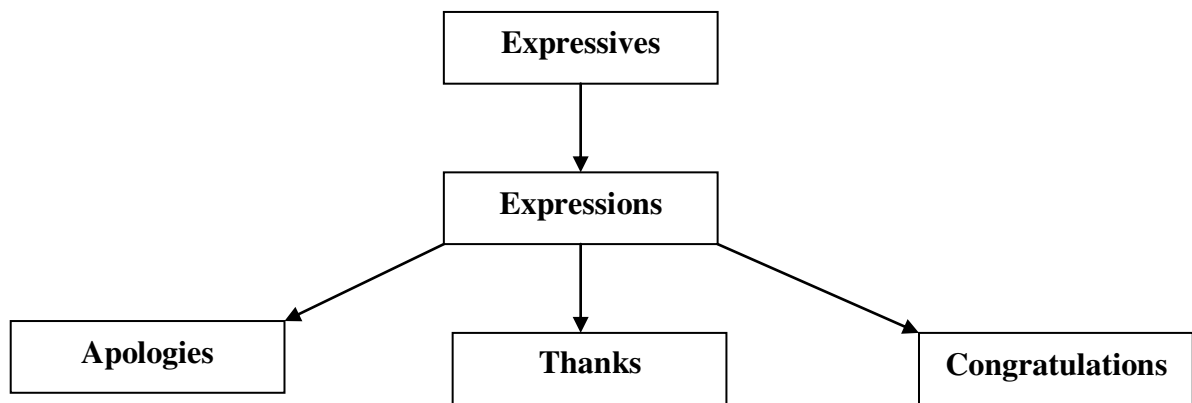
determinates of the determinable which includes attempting) by the speaker to get the hearer to do something.” (1979, p.13)



Commissives: They are used if the speaker commits himself to a course of action found in verbs like intend, promise, pledge, and threat. These “are those illocutionary acts whose point is to commit the speaker (again in varying degrees) to some future course of action” (1979, p.14)

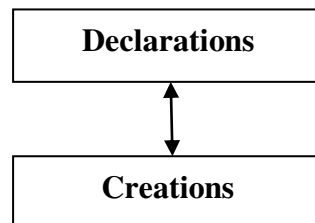


Expressives: They are those acts in which the speaker expresses his psychological state or attitude, as in the verbs like greet, apologize and congratulate. “The illocutionary point of this class is to express the psychological state specified in the sincerity.” (1979, p. 15).



Declarations (or Declaratives): They are those speech acts that lead to an action that reveals correspondence between the propositional content and reality; these actions can be implied in verbs like appoint, marry, and declare war. According to Searle:

The defining characteristic of this class is that the successful performance of one of its members brings about the correspondence between the propositional content and reality; successful performance guarantees that the propositional content corresponds to the world: if I successfully perform the act of appointing you chairman, then you are chairman (1979, p.16-17).



There are other linguists who have introduced their own classifications of performatives (or illocutions); in an online paper, Allan gathered some influential types of such acts (with their writers) in a form of comparison quoted in the table below:

Allan	Bach and Harnish	Searle	Vendler	Austin
Statements	Assertives	Assertives	Expositives	Expositives
	Commissives	Commissives	Commissives	Commissives
Expressives	Acknowledgments	Expressives	Behabitives	Behabitives
Invitationals	Directives	Directives	Interrogatives	Exercitives
Authoritatives			Verdictives	
	Effectives	Declarations	Operatives	

Table 6: Comparison of Five Classifications of Illocutionary Type (After Allan available at www.arts.monash.edu.au)

III.1.5 Indirectness

One of the crucial distinctions made by speech act studies is between direct speech acts, where the speaker says what s/he means, and indirect speech acts where s/he means more than or something other than, what s/he says. Most of the standard speech act theories (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1975; Grice, 1975) would accept this distinction, but when it comes to precisely defining what is meant by the notion of indirectness, the situation becomes more complex.

Indirectness has been defined differently by different scholars. From a strictly linguistic point of view, Frank defines indirectness as follows:

A speech act is expressed indirectly when the illocutionary type as indicated by linguistic means following the normal interpretation of all illocutionary force indicating devices does not correspond with the primarily intended illocutionary function (1975, p. 219).

Thus, the relation between the intended meaning of the speaker and its interpretation by the hearer can be of several kinds: it can be mediated by logical implications of the

propositional contents of the sentence, conversational and cultural rules of habits and proverb etc.

Searle shows that in indirect speech acts:

The speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and non-linguistic, together with the rational powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer. (1975, pp. 60-61).

In the literature, politeness and indirectness are considered as parallel dimensions. Thus, in order to decrease the threat and to avoid the risk of losing face, there is a preference for indirectness on the part of the speaker performing the request to soften the conversational interaction. . Leech, For instance, proposes that given the same propositional context, it is possible:

...to increase the degree of politeness by using a more and more indirect kind of illocution. Illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality and because the more indirect an illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be (1983, p.108).

Indirectness is very useful in socially distant situations. People have varied levels of directness tolerance, and until you know where the limit is, it is wise to stay well on the polite side. “Indirectness is a widely used conversational strategy. People tend to use indirect speech acts mainly in connection with politeness” (Leech, 1983, p. 108) since they, thus, diminish the unpleasant message contained in requests and orders for instance.

III.2 Politeness

The notion of politeness has traditionally been mainly concerned with individual choices in spoken face-to-face interaction. According to Wolfson:

In deciding how much to take another person's feelings into account, we have three factors to consider. First, people are usually more polite to others when they are of higher status or perceived of as being powerful; second, people are generally more polite to others who are socially distant; and third, we are

usually more polite in relation to the gravity of the threat we are about to make to others' face.(1989, p.67)

Many linguists adopt this view as well. For Lakoff,“to be polite is saying the socially correct thing” (1975, p. 53). For Adegbija, politeness is associated with situations in which one “speaks or behaves in a way that is socially and culturally acceptable and pleasant to the hearer” (1989, p.58). Brown sees it as “saying and doing things in such a way as to take into account the other person’s feeling” (1980, p. 114).

III.2.1 Politeness Theory

Politeness theory is a theory which deals with the analysis of people’s social behaviour performed to ensure that people feel affirmed in a social interaction (saving face). Thus, politeness theory holds that people use various politeness strategies in order to save the hearers’ face. Under politeness theory, there is a positive and a negative face. Positive face which is the desire to be liked, appreciated, approved, etc. Negative face, on the other hand, is a part of personality that desires not to be imposed upon. Politeness strategies will differ depending on whether a person is dealing with another’s positive or negative face.

III.2.2 Politeness Strategies

A framework to deal with different politeness strategies was proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) where they suggest a number of strategies the speaker should apply for accomplishing some communication acts also termed ‘Face Threatening Acts (FTAs)’. The five core categories of strategies are arranged from the least polite to the most polite in politeness degree. The following figure illustrates the strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson:

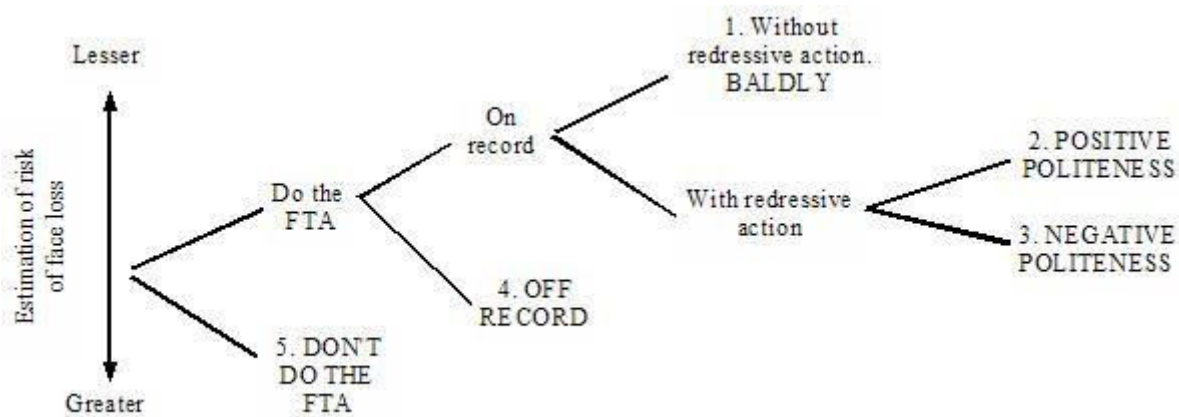


Figure 6: Possible Strategies for doing Face-threatening Acts after Brown and Levinson (1987, p.69)

Figure 6 indicates that in the act of communication the face threatening acts can be performed either by ‘**baldly, without redress,**’ that is to say, doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguous way possible, or by a ‘**redressive action**’ which is performed using particular soft expressions used usually to save face. Levinson and Brown clarify that a ‘**redressive action**’ takes the form of either positive or negative politeness and a speaker with redressive action can be more polite. That is to say, if the speaker addresses the listener directly and makes his communicative intention quite clear, then he is said to ‘**go on record**’ in doing an act which can be less polite whereas, an ‘**off record**’ strategy is often more polite as it means more than one intention has been conveyed and the interlocutor does not need to commit himself for one particular intention.

III.3 The Speech Acts of Request and Apology

Requests and apologies are the most used speech acts in daily life among which some common features are shared. According to Blum Kulka et al:

1. They can be performed in a single turn, or more than one turn.
2. They can be realized linguistically in a variety of ways. Three dimensions of modification can be identified:
 - a) directness level

- b) internal modification of the act, and
 - c) external modification of the act.
3. The choice of linguistic realization depends on a variety of social factors to do with the relationship between the speaker and the hearer.
 4. There are cross-linguistic differences relating to the preferred form of a request or refusal in the same situation, although the main categories of requests or refusals can be found in different languages. (1989: 64)

III.3.1 The Speech Act of Request

A request is generally defined as an act of asking formally or politely for something.

Trosborg defines a request as follows:

A request is an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the speaker (1994, p.187)

So when making a request, the speaker is performing an act to which s/he expects the hearer to react in a verbal or non verbal manner.

Blum-kulka and Olshtain classify the speech act of requesting into three levels according to the degree of directness:

- a) The most direct and explicit level (e.g. performatives and hedged performatives).
- b) The conventionally indirect level (e.g. requests that realize the act by referring to contextual preconditions necessary for its performance, as conventionalized in a given language).
- c) The non-conventional indirect level (e.g. the open-ended group of indirect strategies that realize the act by either partial reference to an object or element needed for the implementation of the act.) (1984, p. 201).

Considering Searle's taxonomy of speech acts (1969), requests, as speech acts, fall under the second category, that of directives. A request is defined as “an attempt to get hearer to do an act which speaker wants hearer to do, and which it is not obvious that hearer will do in the normal course of events or of hearer's own accord” (1969, p. 66).

III.3.1.1 The Grammar of a Request

Expressions of requests take the form of questions (subject and verb (auxiliary) change their position in the statement of a question). In some cases, one may use the imperative when asking someone to do something, but it should be preceded by a polite word (please, if you wouldn't mind...etc). Sometimes, you should be polite when asking someone to do something for you, therefore, you have to ask if they are able to do it first (use modals of ability). Sometimes one makes an indirect request of a suggestion instead of giving an order because it is more polite. Furthermore, some requests can be given as instructions to people you know well.

III.3.1.2 Request Strategies

The request strategies in the following classification are well-ordered depending on the degree of directness. Blum-Kulka (1989) summarizes a combination of level of directness and strategy types as follows:

1. Direct level
 - a. Mood derivable: Utterances in which the grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force (for example, "Leave me alone.").
 - b. Performatives: Utterances in which the illocutionary force is explicitly named (for example, "I tell you to leave me alone.")
 - c. Hedged performatives: Utterances in which naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions (for example, "I would like to ask you to leave me alone.").

- d. Obligation statements: Utterances which state the obligation of the hearer to carry out the act (for example, "Sir, you'll have to move your car.")
 - e. Want statements: Utterances which state the speaker's desire that the hearer carries out the act (for example, "I want you to move your car.").
2. Conventionally indirect level
- a. Suggestory formulae: Utterances which contain a suggestion to do something (for example "How about cleaning up?")
 - b. Query-preparatory: Utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in any specific language (for example, "Would you mind moving your car?").
3. Non-conventionally indirect level
- a. Strong hints: Utterances containing partial reference to object or element needed for the implementation of the act (for example, "The game is boring.").
 - b. Mild hints: Utterances that make no reference to the request proper (or any of its elements) but are interpretable as requests by context (for example, "We've been playing this game for over an hour now."). (Cited in Francis, 1997, p. 28)

III.3.2 The Speech Act of Apology

To express apology is a common occurrence for people to do since in their social interaction they cannot avoid for doing wrong.

III.3.2.1 What is an Apology?

Apology is defined as “regretful acknowledgement of fault or failure; assurance that no offence was intended” (The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1980, p. 43-44). Therefore, an apology is the speech act used when a behaviour norm is broken. Reiter as well defines an apology as a “compensatory action for an offense committed by S (the speaker) which has affected H (the hearer).” (2000, p. 44). Apologies are a means of maintaining the social order;

they are called for when social norms are violated. According to Holmes (1990) apologies are “social acts conveying affective meaning” (1990, p. 155). Thus, apologies offer an opportunity to save face in a threatening or difficult circumstance.

III.3.2.2 How to Apologize

To apologize is to tell someone that you are sorry for having done something that has caused him/her inconvenience or unhappiness.

III.3.2.3 Classifying Apologies

Considering Austin’s classification of illocutionary forces, apologies belong to the category of ‘behabitives’ which he defines as “a kind of performative concerned roughly with reactions to behaviour and with behaviour towards others and designed to exhibit attitudes and feelings” (1962 [1975, p. 83]).

In apologising the speaker performs:

A locutionary act by uttering: I apologise (explicit performative) or I’m sorry (primary performative),

An illocutionary act by which s/he apologises, and,

A perlocutionary act by which s/he pacifies the hearer (who accepts the apology and forgives).

In his speech act taxonomy, Searle assigns apologies to the category of ‘expressives’.

III.3.2.4 Apology Strategies

In the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain identified five strategies that speakers use to apologize. The strategies specify the use of five performative verbs (regret, excuse, be sorry, forgive, pardon) beside (apologize) which express apology such as ‘I am sorry’, ‘excuse me’ and ‘I apologize’ etc. these expressions are also termed explicit Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs), These strategies are:

- 1- Expressions of responsibility: expressions that range from responsibility acceptance and explicit self-humbling, to calm the complainer, to a complete denial of the fault and unclear responses.
- 2- Explanation or account of the cause brought about by the offense; an explanation generally occurs when the speaker intends to justify the offense on which he/she has no control.
- 3- An offer of repair: In situations where the function can be compensated, an offer of repair is used either specified or unspecified.
- 4- Promise of forbearance: is a way for admitting responsibility but not necessary via an explicit apology. (1984, p. 206)

III.4 Speech Acts: at the Intersection of Language and Culture

Pragmatics is the study of the choices that people make in using language and, as such, it lends itself very well to examining manifestations of culture in language usage. Researchers working in this area (pragmatics) analyse speech acts, that is, communicative actions, such as thanking, apologising or requesting. They describe the ways in which members of different cultural groups tend to realise speech acts, while taking into account who speaks to whom and in which social setting. Although individuals surely have unique ways of using language, studies in pragmatics have established common tendencies among members of cultural groups and identified potential sources of friction and misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication.

Numerous studies have examined learners' developing ability in realising appropriate speech acts as well as differences between learners of different levels and native speakers in this regard. Thus, while learners often get the message across and may provide a correct textbook answer, overtones that are inappropriate to the social situation may cause irritation at best and offense at worst. For example, learners of English might not be aware of the fact that

'excuse me', used as a request, for example, when wanting to get by a person on a crowded bus has a slightly annoying or even aggressive overtone. Such infelicities in linguistic choices often occur because learners tend to draw on their native language as a resource, where the equivalent expression may be perfectly acceptable. Many foreign language learners perceive appropriate language use as a challenge, not only because manipulating levels of directness requires mastery of more complex linguistic devices but also because engagement in interpersonal functions in the language classroom is often limited so that learners lack the practice and awareness that is needed for performing speech acts appropriately. Indeed, teaching subtle nuances that can make a big difference on the social level is part of the curriculum. In addition, we think that learners can and need to do a great deal of self-study for improving their pragmatic competence.

Teaching speech acts helps the learners to avoid language misunderstandings (pragmatic failure) and to develop their communication skills (speaking and listening) through a deep understanding of both cultural and social behaviour.

Speech acts are functional units of communication (e.g., what is being said). Since they take culture into account (e.g., who is being spoken to and in what context) they are an integral part of intercultural communication. They are different from speech events particular instances when people exchange speech (e.g., an exchange of greetings, an enquiry, a conversation) in that the act is what the speaker actually says during the speech event. Longman Dictionary of Language and Applied Linguistics (Richards, Platt, & Platt; 1992)

In Speech acts classes, teachers should introduce the TL cultural values and their impact on communication (interaction) and put those values into practice through the analysis and evaluation of different dialogues and conversations which are culturally- bound.

Conclusion

This chapter provides a very broad review of the literature on Speech Acts; it is divided into two parts; the first part includes mainly Austin's theory of speech acts and

Searle's classification of speech acts; it includes also the main key concepts in the theory of speech acts such as: performatives, felicity conditions, and sincerity conditions, and highlights notions of indirectness and politeness which play a very crucial role in the realisation of speech acts. An overview of the speech act of request and apology is generated in the second part of this chapter by providing an outline which upholds their definitions, classification and strategies.

Chapter IV

Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

This chapter describes the overall study design and the multiple data collection. In addition to the restatement of the research aim and research hypotheses and questions, the chapter covers also the different criteria for a research design such as including variables, stating conditions for judging causality and correlation and the research plan that permits accurate assessment of cause and effect relationships between independent and dependent variables. The chapter, furthermore, highlights methodological issues and the rationale of the procedures followed throughout the research work including the research participants, instruments and procedures.

IV.1 Overall Research Design

It is important to be clear about the role and purpose of research design, and to know and understand where design fits into the whole research process from framing questions to finally analysing and reporting data.

IV.2 Research Aims

The present research is mainly concerned with the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction in the EFL classrooms at the Algerian tertiary level. Considering the situation of teaching and learning English at the Department of Letters and English Language, the present research preliminary aim is to determine the English Language general and learning needs of the participants (1st, 2nd and 3rd year students) in order to find out their choice between learning English for academic purposes or communicative ones and to recommend an approach which best fits their needs.

The main aim of this research is to investigate the effect of pragmatic explicit instruction on the speech act awareness of third year students of English as a Foreign Language at the

Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine1. The study also tries to show if other factors (variables), such as pragmatic knowledge, may affect student's speech act awareness and their communicative competence.

IV.3 Research Questions

Finding a research questions is probably the most important task in the research process because the questions become the driving force behind the research from beginning to end. In the light of the literature review and in order to achieve the aim of our research the investigation attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Which is mostly needed by students: learning English for communication purposes or learning English for academic ones?
2. To what extent does the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect student's awareness of speech acts?
3. To what extent does students' speech act awareness improve their communicative competence i.e. their ability to communicate appropriately and effectively in different communicative situations?
4. To what extent does students' pragmatic awareness (i.e. their pragmatic knowledge) affect their speech act awareness?

As can be seen, our research addresses the commonly known three basic types of questions: descriptive, relational and causal.

IV.3.1 Descriptive Questions (Description)

Our research is designed primarily to describe what is going on or what exists. The motive is to know these students as language learners and users and to know what route they prefer for their English language learning and, therefore, to understand how best to meet the students' needs in matter of language learning. A students' poll that seeks to describe various

opinions about English language learning needs is conducted to answer the first question which is descriptive in nature.

IV.3.2 Relational Questions (Relationship)

Our research is also designed to look at the relationships between two or more variables. The third question investigates the relationship between pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech act awareness; the fourth one examines the relationship between speech act awareness and communicative competence.

IV.3.3 Causal Questions (Causality)

The main aim of our research is to determine whether the pragmatic explicit instruction affects students' speech act awareness. Then, the second question is a causal one since it investigates a causal relationship between pragmatic explicit instruction and speech act awareness.

A research question is the first practical step the investigator has to take when undertaking research. It guides and centres the research, and it should be accurately and clearly defined. Our research covers the three types of questions.

The first research question seeks for the description of the students' needs and their preferences regarding the two types of learning purposes. The evaluation of the students' preferences in this question leads to the selection of an appropriate approach that best fits their needs, wants and preferences. The second research question explores the cause and effect relationship (causal). In other words, it investigate the effect of the explicit pragmatic instruction (independent variable) on the students' speech act awareness (dependent variable).The third and fourth research questions search for the degree of association between the students' pragmatic knowledge and speech act awareness and between their speech act awareness and communicative competence (correlational relationship). In the third and fourth research questions all the variables are considered as dependent variables which can be

affected by a common independent variable (pragmatic instruction); this means that the relationship between the variables in the third and fourth research questions is a relationship of association and not a causal one. Indeed, this indicates that there is quite a difference between correlational and causal relationships.

In what follows we will spot the key distinction between a correlational relationship and a causal one.

IV.4 Causation vs. Correlation

Many researchers claim that a probabilistic dependence between two variables might be explained either by one variable being a cause of the other or by the existence of a common cause of both. According to Elster:

One usually refers to a correlation between two variables that does not stem from a causal relation between them, but from their common relation to some third variable. (1983, p. 47)

Harvey and Bryant define correlation and causation as follows:

Causation assumes that the relationship between two or more variables, events, or behaviors is such that as one changes it causes changes on the other.....A correlation exists when two variables change (increase or decrease) in proportion to one another, but not in a way that one produces the change in the other. Two variables may change as consequence of being the effect of a common independent variable. (2000, p. 29)

So, correlation is an empirical relationship between two variables such that changes in one are associated with changes in the other or particular attributes in one are associated with particular attributes in the other, whereas causation is a relationship in which one action or event is the direct consequence of another. In order to imply causation, an experiment must be performed where subjects are randomly assigned to different conditions.

As far as this research is concerned, there is both a causation and correlation between the different variables stated in the research questions; there is causation between the

pragmatic explicit instruction and the speech act awareness since the introduction of the pragmatic explicit instruction in the course of pragmatics causes a change on the students' speech act awareness. While the correlation is between 'pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech act awareness', between 'speech act awareness and communicative competence' since in every pair of variables the change in one variable is associated with the change of the other, but not in a way that one causes the change in the other. Therefore, our research addresses both types of relationships between variables which are 'correlation' and 'causation'.

IV.5 Research Hypotheses

A research hypothesis is an educated prediction. It commonly takes the form of an if-then statement so you can test it with your research, that is to say, a research question is a testable statement of opinion. It is created from the research prediction and it provides an explanation for an observed event.

Our research tackles the following research hypotheses based on the research questions stated above and, thus, it addresses both the empirical and statistical types of hypothesis.

- ✓ **Hypothesis 1:** "Students have the type of English learning needs which favours the communicative perspective, i.e. they need English for communication and interaction"
- ✓ **Hypothesis 2:** "If students are more exposed to explicit pragmatic instruction and communicative tasks they will develop better their speech act awareness"
- ✓ **Hypothesis 3:** "Students speech act awareness affects their communicative competence"
- ✓ **Hypothesis 4:** "Students pragmatic theoretical awareness increases their speech act awareness"

Considering the diversity of the research questions and hypotheses in our research, we have opted for a mixed methods design.

A mixed methods research (also called ‘multi-methodology’) design is a process of investigation used to collect and analyze both quantitative and qualitative research data from multiple methods in a single study. According to Creswell, “mixed methods research has come of age. To include only quantitative or qualitative methods falls short of the major approaches being used today in the social and human sciences” (2003, p. 4). That is to say, ‘mixing’ both quantitative and qualitative approach can help solve practical problems and increase knowledge in research.

The nature of the research questions and hypotheses in this study necessitates the use of mixed methods (multiple methods) and, thus, in order to answer the research questions, data collected in this study are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

IV.6 Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The following table shows the main differences between qualitative and a quantitative data.

Qualitative	Quantitative
"All research ultimately has a qualitative grounding" - Donald Campbell	"There's no such thing as qualitative data. Everything is either 1 or 0" - Fred Kerlinger
The aim is a complete, detailed description.	The aim is to classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed.
Researcher may only know roughly in advance what he/she is looking for.	Researcher knows clearly in advance what he/she is looking for.
Recommended during earlier phases of research projects.	Recommended during latter phases of research projects.
The design emerges as the study unfolds.	All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected.
Researcher is the data gathering instrument.	Researcher uses tools, such as questionnaires or equipment to collect numerical data.

Data is in the form of words, pictures or objects.	Data is in the form of numbers and statistics.
Subjective - individuals interpretation of events is important ,e.g., uses participant observation, in-depth interviews etc.	Objective -seeks precise measurement & analysis of target concepts, e.g., uses surveys, questionnaires etc.
Qualitative data is more 'rich', time consuming, and less able to be generalized.	Quantitative data is more efficient, able to test hypotheses, but may miss contextual detail.
Researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter.	Researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter.

Table 7: Qualitative vs Quantitative Data Analysis (Quoted from Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 40)

In this research, the three research instruments were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. Generally speaking, qualitative and quantitative data are closely related to each other; that is to say, each research instrument is analysed quantitatively based on the qualitative data provided by the participants (respondents) of the study.

IV.7 Research Participants

The participants in this research were divided into two categories based on two different instruments used for collecting data.

IV.7.1 First Category of Participants (Needs Analysis Questionnaire)

The participants of this category were first, second and third year students of English at University of Constantine 1. The questionnaire was administered to 120 students. 92 of the respondents were females, and 28 were males. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 25.

IV.7.1.1 Rationale for Selecting the Participants of the Questionnaire

Three main reasons influenced the decision of selecting the participants of the needs analysis questionnaire. First, the participants were enrolled in three different university levels (1st, 2nd and 3rd graduate students), which means that their opinions are determined by their

needs before and after experiencing the learning of English at the level of university, and, thus, this category covers the needs of all categories (levels) of students at the Department of Letters and English Language. Second, the participants' differences in the learning experience raise their awareness of their needs, for instance, advanced (2nd and 3rd year) participants are able to determine their lacks and weaknesses which would help more in determining their real needs. That is to say, the participants were advanced enough to evaluate their level of achievement in English. Third, the sample represented all the graduate students at the Department of Letters and English Language who were supposed to be all concerned with the needs analysis, and it was deemed that their opinions had to be taken into consideration as the basis for the development of an effective teaching and learning process.

IV.7.2 Second (Main) Category of Participants (Experimental Design)

The original sample selected to participate in this study was 100 third year students majoring in English as a foreign language (EFL) from the University of Constantine 1. However, several participants were absent in part of the treatment or in the pre-test(s) or post-test(s). Therefore, the final sample was 72 graduate students. The students belonged to two classes and were enrolled in the option of applied language studies. Because of institutional constraints, it was not possible to assign students randomly to different groups, thus making it necessary to work with two intact groups.

The two groups were: (1) the control group, which was not exposed to explicit instruction on pragmatics (independent variable being tested), but had the usual courses from the textbooks delivered by the teacher (2) the experimental group who received explicit instruction on pragmatics from the instructor. There were 34 students in the control group and 38 students in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group; both the pre-test(s) and post-test(s) were randomly assigned to the intact classes.

IV.7.2.1 Rationale for selecting the Participants of the Main Study

Third year students of English at the sixth-semester level were chosen as the subject population for the following reasons. First, courses of pragmatics are developed and taught during the fifth and sixth semester. Second, third year graduate students are expected to have enough knowledge of English grammar that they learned in the first four semesters and also enough vocabulary to understand and perform basic communicative acts (speech acts). Third, because of institutional constraints, it was not possible for us to choose another category as we are allowed to teach only at the graduate level. That is to say, before choosing this category, we attempted to carry out the main study with first year master students and because of the institutional constraints we stopped working with the master level students and this happened after giving the students the pre-tests. So, the original category of participants was Master students and not third year graduate students.

IV.8 Data Collection Instruments

Three data collection instruments were employed:

IV.8.1 Needs Analysis Questionnaire

A questionnaire (survey) is a research tool containing a series of questions used for the purpose of collecting information (data) from respondents about a particular issue of interest.

Conway defines it as follows:

A questionnaire is an internal research tool and one means of eliciting the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, experiences, and attitudes of a sample group of individual. It is a concise, preplanned set of questions designed to yield specific information about a particular topic from one or more groups of people (2006, p. 3).

In this research, the questionnaire is being conducted to collect personal information from the students regarding their English language background and their perceptions of the necessity of English for their future and the reasons why they consider it to be important. The

questionnaire aims also at finding out the perceptions of the students regarding the importance of their learning needs.

As a research tool, the questionnaire is considered the most effective source of gathering personal information (beliefs, attitudes, feelings...etc). According to Wilkinson, “The questionnaire is the favoured tool of many of those engaged in research, and it can often provide a cheap and effective way of collecting data in a structural and manageable form” (2003, p. 7)

IV.8.2 Two-group (Pre-test Post-test) Experimental Design

One of the most practical research tools in the field of methodology is the two-group pre-test/ post-test experimental design. This type of experiment involves a control group and an experimental (treatment) group. The experimental group gets the treatment while the control group does not. In this study, the control group is the group that does not receive the explicit pragmatic instruction. The various analyses performed upon a two-group pre-test-post-test design in the present study are presented in (Fig 7).

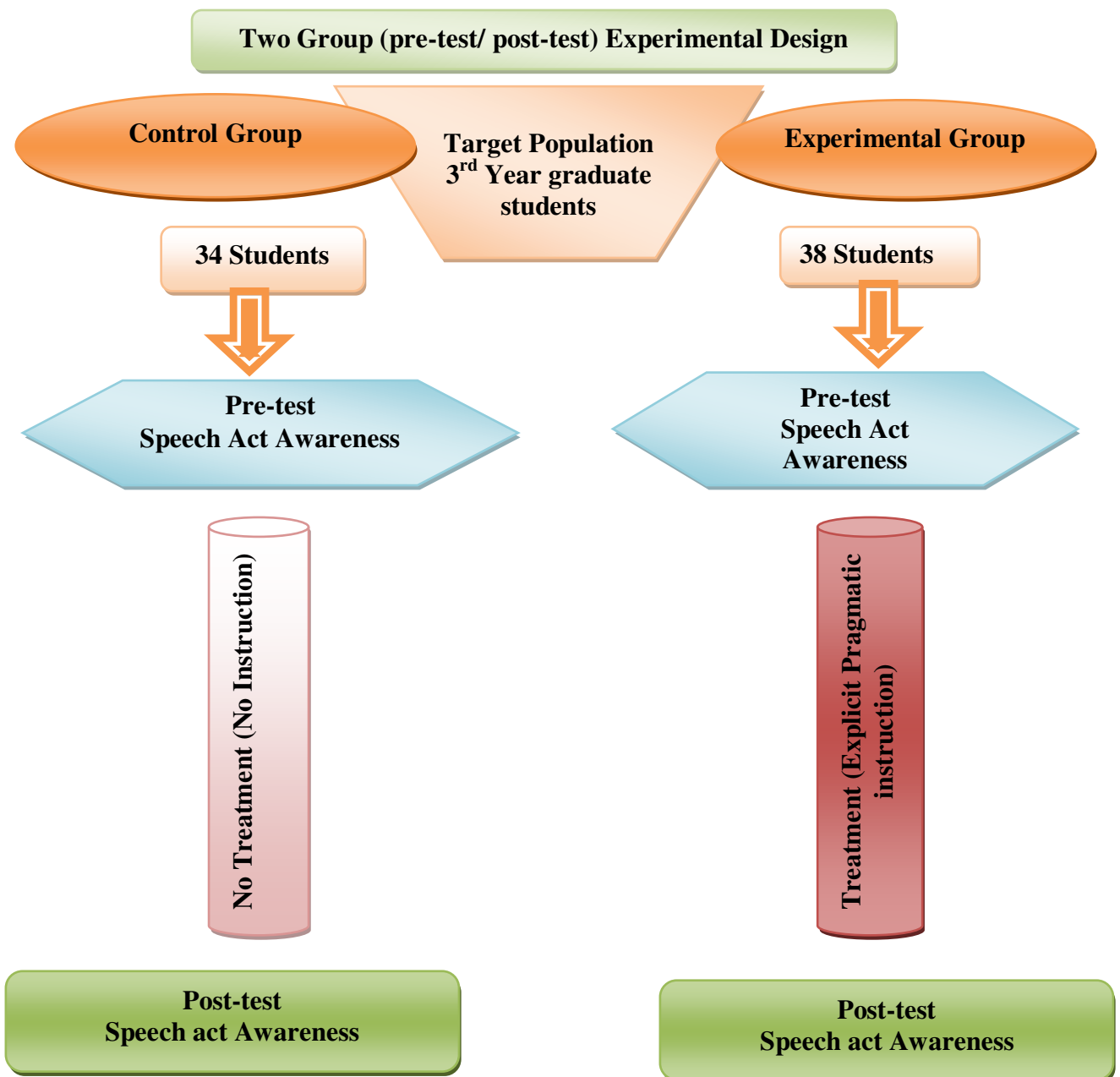


Figure 7: Two Group Experimental Design

Figure 7 shows that there are three stages of analysis:

Stage One: It permit us to see how both groups changed from pre-test to post-test, whether one, both or neither improves after (period of treatment)

Stage Two: The scores in the two pre-test groups are compared to guarantee the effectiveness of the experiment procedures.

Stage Three: The scores in the two post-test groups are compared to ensure the effectiveness of the treatment (explicit pragmatic instruction).

Indeed, this design evaluates the efficiency of the sampling process and also determines whether the group given the treatment showed a significant difference.

A true random sampling was not possible and intact groups were used. Therefore a pre-test – post-test group design was adopted in this study. The participants were not allowed to interact with one another while answering the test.

In this design, we are most interested in determining whether the two groups are different after the explicit pragmatic instruction. Typically, we measure the groups at one or more levels. The data in this study was collected by a pragmatic and a speech act judgment assessment that was presented in the form of tests.

IV.8.3 Pragmatic Language Tests

A number of tests ranging between pretests and posttests are given before and after the treatment to measure the participants' pragmatic proficiency at the level of the pragmatic theoretical knowledge, speech act awareness, speech act comprehension, speech act performance, and communicative proficiency.

IV.9 Research Procedures

Before carrying out the main study, the experiment, and introducing the designed instructions to teaching pragmatics at the Department of Letters and English Language, an attempt to investigate the participants' attitudes, perception, level and beliefs about the elements of the communicative perspective of language learning and teaching versus the traditional approach to language teaching and learning was done through conducting a needs analysis questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to 120 graduate (third year) students at the Department of Letters and English Language to be answered in 30 minutes.

The main study was conducted in the second semester of third-year students of English at University of Constantine 1. Five tests ranging between pre-tests and post-tests were used in order to investigate if there is any improvement in the student's pragmatic theoretical knowledge, pragmatic and speech acts awareness (comprehension and realization) and communicative proficiency after receiving the explicit instruction. Both pre-tests and post-tests were administered to the respondents in class in the presence of their instructor for a period of 15 minutes for test 1 and 45 minutes for each of the other tests. The main study (experiment) was therefore designed in two stages which can be briefly described as follows:

IV.9.1 Stage I: Tests Construction

A number of tests ranging between pre-tests and post-tests were given before and after the treatment to measure the participants' pragmatic proficiency at the level of the pragmatic theoretical knowledge, speech act awareness (speech act comprehension + speech act performance), and communicative proficiency. The tests can be described as follows:

IV.9.1.1 Test1: Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge

The pragmatic theoretical knowledge pre-test and post-test includes questions about the definition of the main issues and theoretical concepts in pragmatics such as: Speech acts, Grice maximsetc.

IV.9.1.2 Test 2: Speech Act Awareness

Because pragmatic language is a part of all communication, any communicative language assessment should include the test of speech act awareness which is the amalgamation of two tests (speech act comprehension test + speech act production test).

IV.9.2.1.1 Speech Act Comprehension Test

The Test of speech acts comprehension is an effective instrument designed to assess student's comprehension of the intended meaning of different utterances and to provide

information on crucial dimensions of pragmatic language: physical setting, audience, topic, purpose...etc

The Test of speech act comprehension allowed us to assess the effectiveness, and appropriateness, of a student's pragmatic language comprehension. It also provided important information about the social skills.

IV.9.2.1.2 Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

DCT is the most used data collection instruments in pragmatic research. Golato notes that DCTs are “widely used in the field of pragmatics, intercultural communication, and second language acquisition, mainly because their simplicity of use and high degree of control over variables lead to easy reliability” (2003, p. 93).

In the present research, the DCT takes the form of a written questionnaire used to collect appropriate data in order to examine the participants’ performance in the request and apology situations. The DCT used in the present research is the second part of the speech act awareness; it consists of six apology situations and six request situations in both the pre-test and post-test. A total of twelve situations were used in order to examine the participants’ appropriate performance of the request and apology speech acts, each of which is preceded by a brief description of the situation.

Both the pragmatic language pre-tests and post-tests consisted of different activities introducing the contextual situations and the physical setting. The pre-test not only served as the means by which to practice the different intended meaning of utterances but also to expose students to what they would encounter on the post-test.

IV.9.1.3 Test 3: Written Communicative Proficiency Test (WCPT)

In the present research, the purpose of the Written Communication Proficiency Test (WCPT) is to assess the participants’ ability to communicate in different situations and their

abilities to deduce the different contextual features using an appropriate and grammatically correct language.

The WCPT includes a set of activities created to investigate the participants' understanding of the different communicative events and their ability to communicate appropriately. The activities cover the following issues: completing dialogues, identifying different features of context and language situations in real life conversations and grammar errors of different situations and statements and determining the best word to insert into a blank etc.....

IV.9.2 Stage II: Treatment (Instructional Materials)

In the present study, both the control and experimental group are respectively termed (IG) and (EG).

(IG): It is the **Implicit Group** who did not receive explicit pragmatic instruction.

(EG): It is the **Explicit Group** who received explicit pragmatic instruction.

The two groups received instructions in different ways. In the EG, instruction of request and apology were realized through six stages i.e. three phases for each speech act.

The Speech Acts Disclosure Stage: At this stage, the students were provided with models of English requests and apologies. These were explained explicitly by the teacher (instructor) (see appendix H).

The Speech Acts Strategies Stage: At this stage, students were provided with a detailed description of both speech acts under study (formulas and strategies of making requests and apologies). Then, they were given a number of pragmalinguistic formulas (request and apology) and asked to rank the given situations in the order of directness, then to discuss the social variables that affect their choices of the request formulas such as relative power, social distance, imposition and their impact on the students appropriate choice of strategies (see appendix H part 2).

The Speech Acts Performance Stage: this stage includes speech acts (role-play) activities which engaged students in different communicative situations and social roles where they could practice (perform) the speech acts of request and apology taking into account the socio-pragmatic aspects of both speech acts. Students were also asked at this stage to bring different communicative situations and analyse those situations with a particular reference to the social variables of language use. During the tasks, errors were pointed out if there were any, and feedback was provided.

In addition to the explicit instruction, a number of communicative activities which are useful for pragmatic and communicative development were developed in order to raise the students' awareness of how language forms are used appropriately in context.

IV. 10 Data Analysis Procedures

To investigate the research questions proposed earlier and to make a scientific interpretation, the data were analysed through descriptive and inferential statistics. The significance value was set at 0.05 at all statistical tests. The data were collected from two sources. One is the subjects' score on pragmatic and speech acts tests; means, standard deviations, t-test and Person correlation analysis of each group were compared to see whether there was any significant difference between the scores obtained before and after the experiment. The other came from the needs analysis questionnaire; the results obtained from the questionnaire were analysed by calculating the percentage of their responses. These analyses were the basis for the discussion in the following two chapters.

IV.10.1 Statistics for Analysing the Questionnaire's Data

The statistical analysis of data collected from a questionnaire depends on the objective of the study. Generally speaking, the objective of the questionnaire is to obtain general and specific information about the research participants. The first statistical task, therefore, is to

do a descriptive analysis of variables in order to examine the results obtained for each type of variable.

There are many decisions that must be made about the questionnaire's content, wording and format and that can have important consequences for the whole research. After deciding about the type of data and variables, the data can be analysed with the help of statistical software or manually

Accordingly, the items of the questionnaires are analysed on the basis of the students' responses frequencies, categorized by percentages (%) and using a quantitative analysis.

The data are also displayed in tables, figures, charts and graphs to make them clearer.

IV.10.2 Statistics for Analysing the Experimental Data

When planning an experiment, it is essential to know that the results can be analysed. Planning the statistical analysis is an integral part of planning the experiment.

Statistics is a branch of mathematics which presents a powerful tool for data analysis in various fields of application. According to Kern "Statistics concerns data, their collection, analysis, and interpretation" (2010, p.1). Descriptive statistics concerns the summarization of data. It consists of techniques used to describe and summarize the different features of a set of measurement (numeric observations referred to as data). In descriptive statistics, the data collected from the research tools can be described in multiple ways. Descriptive statistics entails calculating numbers from the data, such as percentages, averages (means), sums...etc. They are called descriptive measures. Inferential statistics does more. It consists of procedures used to make inferences associated with the data set, draw conclusions, and make decisions and predictions about the population (sample) characteristics from which the data originated.

An experimental research usually seeks to investigate causality, and in particular to draw a conclusion on the effect of changes in the values of predictors or independent variables on dependent variables. As far as this research is concerned, there is causation

between explicit pragmatic instruction and the students' speech act awareness (hypothesis 2), and thus, our research requires a kind of causal statistical studies which seeks to compare two sample variances. The appropriate statistical tool used in order to investigate the second research hypothesis is a t-test. A t- test is a statistical examination of two population means, and degrees of freedom to determine a p value (probability) that can be used to determine whether the population means differ.

IV.10.3 Descriptive vs. Inferential Statistics

Statistical procedures fall under two major categories: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The main difference between the two categories is that descriptive statistics tends to recapitulate the statistical information, and inferential statistics intends to deduce additional data and draw conclusions about the data findings.

Descriptive Statistics	Inferential Statistics
<p>Numerical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Percentages ✓ Averages <p>Graphical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Arrange data in tables ✓ graphs and charts use <p>Relationships</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Causation ✓ Regression analysis ✓ Correlation coefficient 	<p>Margin of Error</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Amount of random sampling <p>❖ Compare means of two samples</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Pre/post tests scores ✓ <i>t</i> Test calculations <p>❖ Compare means from three samples</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Pre/post tests and follow-up ✓ ANOVA = analysis of variance

Table 8: Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

Both descriptive and inferential statistics are effective in research, but they both have advantages and disadvantages. Descriptive statistics is good for a small population. It can get accurate statistical parameters of a small number for the population without leaving rooms for any errors; that is to say, one may have the accuracy that s/he wants, but it is all limited to a very small population whereas inferential statistics take those parameters further and get great estimate of what a much larger population's statistics is. And thus, one does not need the data

of the entire population to make conclusions; this category of statistics needs accurate samples in order for to draw conclusions.

IV.10.4 Correlation Analysis

The correlation is one of the most common and most useful statistics. A correlation is a single number that describes the degree (strength) of relationship between two variables. A strong, or high, correlation means that two or more variables have a strong relationship with each other while a weak, or low, correlation means that the variables are hardly related. Correlation coefficients can range from -1.00 to +1.00. The value of -1.00 represents a perfect negative correlation while a value of +1.00 represents a perfect positive correlation. A value of 0.00 means that there is no relationship between the variables being tested.

Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research paradigm, research methodologies, strategies and design used in the study, including research questions, research hypotheses, participants, procedures, data collection tools, data collection and analysis methods, and data credibility issues. It also has provided an explanation of the statistical procedures used to analyze the data. A descriptive and empirical research methodology has been used for this study.

Chapter V

Needs Analysis (NA)

Introduction

The present chapter describes needs assessment designed in order to determine the needs of Algerian EFL students at the department of Letters and English language, University of Constantine 1. It deals particularly with analysing the data collection instrument which is a questionnaire. It includes also a detailed interpretation of the finding of the needs assessment.

V.1 Needs Analysis Questionnaire

As a research tool, the questionnaire is regarded as the appropriate tool to establish the needs of students and to answer the first research question in the present study which is, ‘Do students need to learn English for communication purposes or for academic ones?’ It is arranged in multi-option question patterns where the assessment of attitudes and beliefs is inevitable. A significant number of scaled questions are included too in order to achieve the aim.

V.2 Aim

The aim of the present questionnaire is to establish the students’ general and learning needs. The questionnaire design is partially based on Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ‘categorization of needs’ stated in Chapter I (Section 1.3.2). It seeks to cover the participants’ wants and abilities (general needs) and learning needs that includes the students’ attitudes towards the four language skills and towards materials and motivational habits. The questionnaire design allows the students to make choices between elements of the communicative approach and those of the traditional one and thus this may lead us to suggest an appropriate approach that could be an alternative to the current one which is practically a traditional one.

The students’ questionnaire aimed at gathering information related to the following areas:

- The students' profile
- The students' present level in English language use
- The students' reasons for learning English
- The students' preferences for English mediums
- The students' preferences for English language activities
- The students' long term English learning goals
- The students' learning preferences in terms of language skills
- The importance of particular language skills
- The students' English practice in class
- The students' preference for learning behaviour

V.3 Description of the Questionnaire

The NA questionnaire is divided into three major sections; each one contains multiple-choice questions. There are a total of nineteen questions.

V.3.1 Section One: Personal Background

This section includes questions eliciting background information about the participants, their age, gender, status of English at school and level of English before the university.

V.3.2 Section Two: General Needs

This section is divided into two subsections: 'Necessities' and 'Wants'. Each section covers multiple-choices questions about the participants' various domains of needs to learn English, the mediums they need most when using English and their abilities presented by both their present English language level and the expected and desired degree of improvement by the end of their studies.

V.3.3 Section Three: Learning Needs

This section is also divided into three subsections: ‘Learners preferred teaching materials’, ‘Learners’ skills’ and ‘Learners’ preferred environment and habits’. The questions in this section investigate the learners’ long term goal, their needs of skills improvement, including the different activities they need to be able to do in English in each skill and their preferences for learning and learning activities.

V.4 The Questionnaire Overall Design

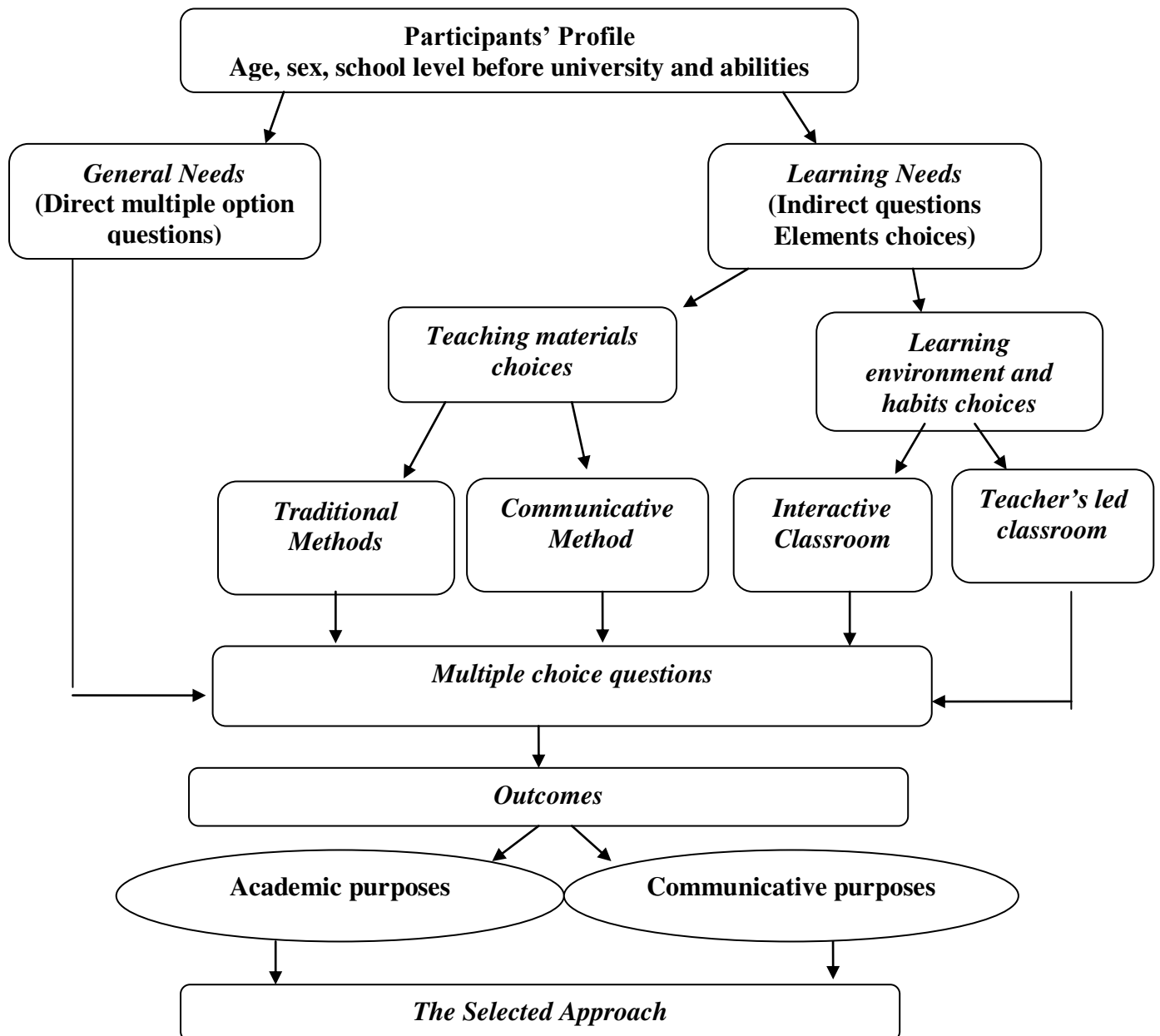


Figure 8: Need Analysis Questionnaire Design

V.5 Analysis of the Questionnaire

The analysis of the students' responses is organized and presented as follows:

V.5.1 Participants' Profile

The participants in this questionnaire were first, second and third year students of English at the University of Constantine 1. The questionnaire was administered to 120 students. 92 of the respondents were females, and only 28 males. The age of the participants was from 18 to 25.

Age	Male	Female	Number of Students	Percentage
18 years old	2	10	12	10%
19 years old	5	19	24	20%
20 years old	9	25	34	28.33%
21 years old	5	16	21	17.5%
22 years old	4	8	12	10%
23 years old	1	10	11	9.16%
24 years old	1	1	2	1.66%
25 years old	1	3	4	3.33%

Table 9: Participants' Age

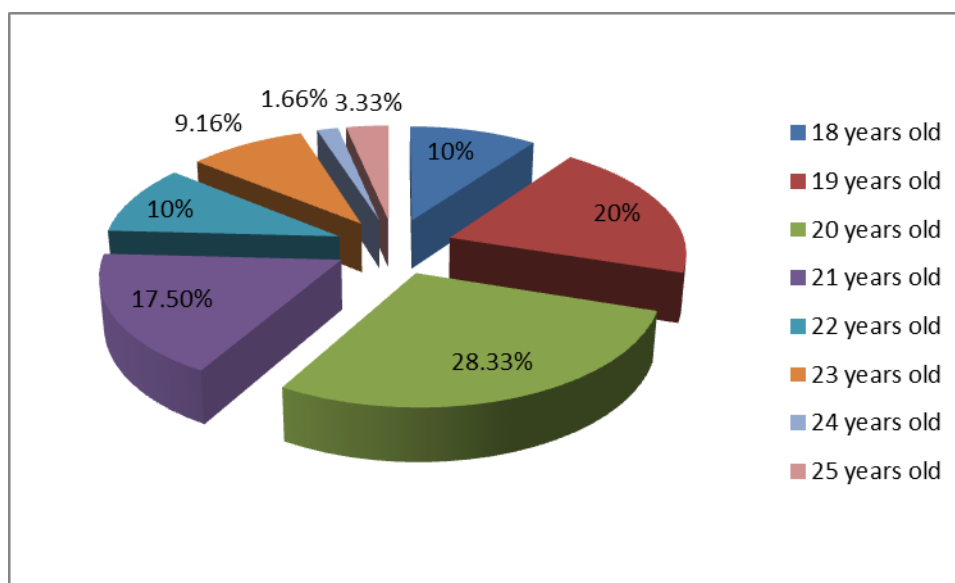


Figure 9: Participants' Age

The tables and figures below present a part from the participants' profile that indicates the participants' status and level of English at school (before the university). The majority of students, which is 65.83%, studied English as a third language at school, 21.66% as a second language and 12.5% as a first language. Concerning their level of English before university; 51.66%, representing the majority, stated that their level of English was good before university, 38.33% their level was average, 73.5% said that their English was excellent and only 2.5% indicated that their level of English was below average. This means that the participants have a good level of English which is their third language (before university).

Options	Number	Percentage
1 st language	15	12.5%
2 nd language	26	21.67%
3 rd language	79	65.83%
Total	120	100%

Table 10: Participants' Status of English at School

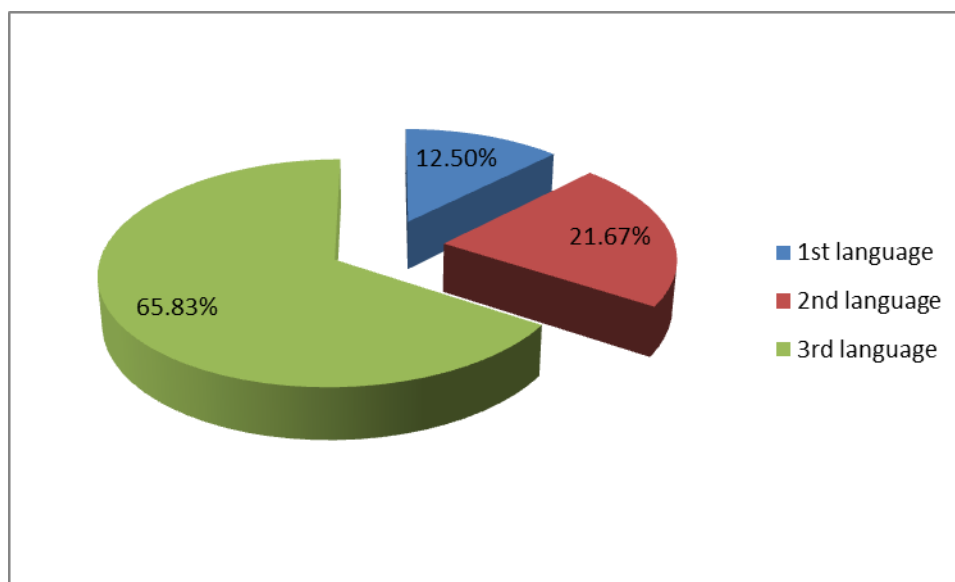


Figure 10: Participants' Status of English at School

Options	Number	Percentage
Below Average	3	2.5%
Average	46	38.33%
Good	62	51.67%
Excellent	9	7.5%
Total	120	100%

Table 11: Participants' Level of English before University

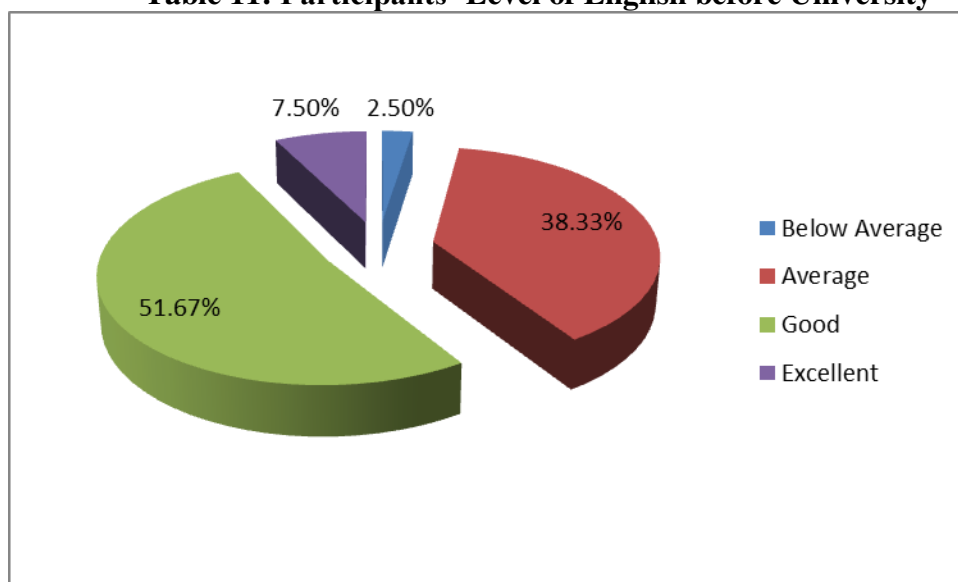


Figure 11: Participants' Level of English before University

V.5.2 Learners' General Needs

Question 1: *Why do you need to learn English?*

The intended purpose of this question is to discover the students' perception of their reasons for learning English. The majority of the students, which is 91.66 %, considers communication and interaction as their reason for studying English. 78.33% need English for more knowledge by getting to know different people and cultures, 67.5% of learners need English for meeting people around the world .60.83% consider success in future professional life as their reason for learning English., 39.16% think that they need English only for study, 20% need it for pleasure and only 12.5% need English for training. The results are revealed in the table and graph below:

Options/Needs	Number	Percentage
For study	47	39.16%
For work	73	60.83%
For training	15	12.5%
For communication and interaction	110	91.66%
For pleasure	24	20%
For more knowledge by getting to know different people	94	78.33%
For meeting people around the world.	81	67.5%
For some other purposes	8	6.66%

Table 12: Participants' Reasons for Learning English

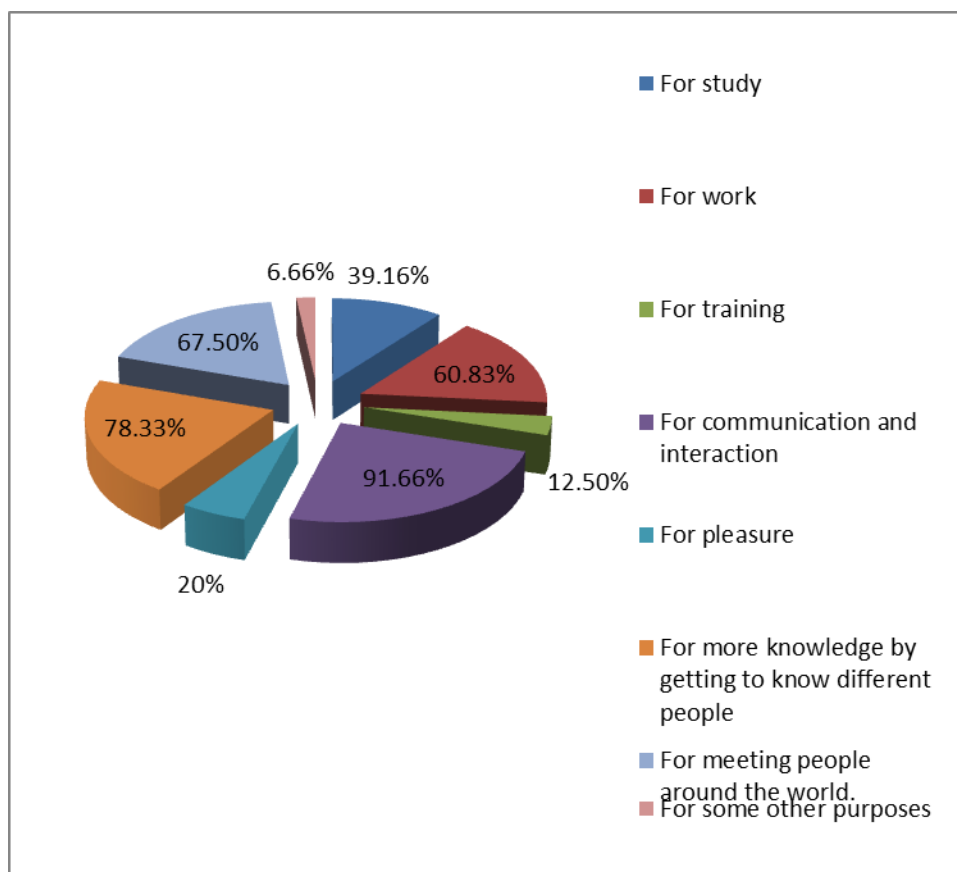


Figure 12: Participants' Reasons for Learning English

Question2: Which of the following mediums do you need when using English?

This question aims at eliciting responses from the students about the medium they need when using English. The table and the figure below show that 68.33% who represent the majority are in a dire need to speak in English; writing in English is required by 57% of the students, the remaining ones which are about 3.33% need English for reading.

Options	Number	Percentage
Speaking	82	68.33%
Writing	69	57.5%
Reading	4	3.33%

Table 13: Participants' Preferences for English Mediums

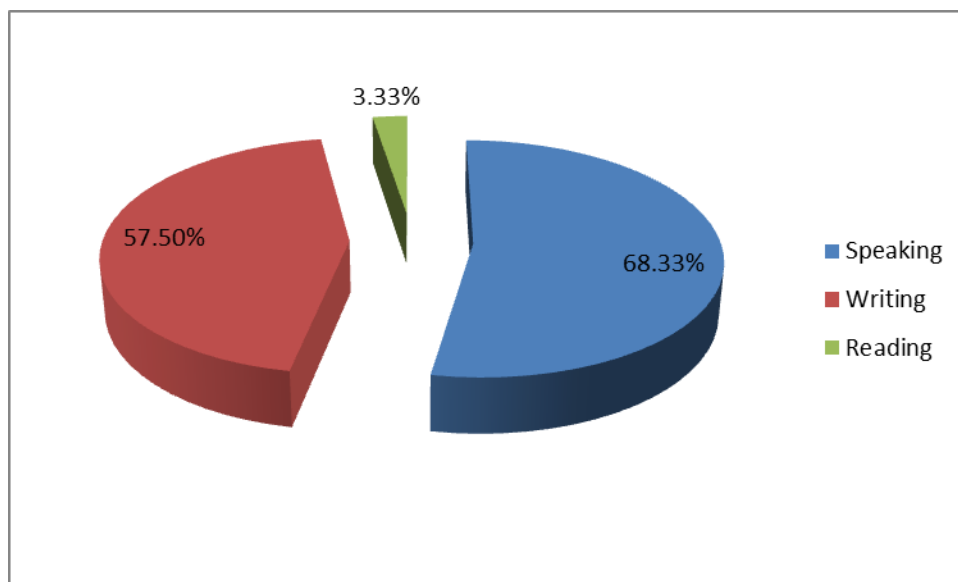


Figure 13: Participants' Preferences for English Mediums

Question3: *Tick the corresponding boxes in the table below to indicate your English language level at present (now) and its degree of improvement by the end of your studies (future).*

This question investigates the students' level of English language at the present time and the degree of improvement they want to achieve by the end of their studies in six English activities which cover the four language skills, such as comprehension when reading, fluency and confidence in speaking, accuracy when speaking, vocabulary, understanding other speakers, understanding radio or TV programmes, and accuracy when writing. The following tables show the students' attitude towards each English activity in a scaled form.

English Language Level/ NOW											
Reading Comprehension				Fluency and Confidence				Accuracy in Speaking			
BA	A	G	E	BA	A	G	E	BA	A	G	E
3	59	48	8	21	69	27	2	11	66	30	1
2.54 %	50%	40.67 %	6.77 %	17.64 %	57.98 %	22.68 %	1.68 %	10.18 %	61.11 %	27.77 %	0.92 %
Understanding other speakers				Understanding radio or TV				Accuracy in writing			
BA	A	G	BA	A	G	BA	A	G	BA	A	G
3	37	66	3	37	66	3	37	66	3	37	66
2.58 %	31.89 %	56.89 %	2.58 %	31.89 %	56.89 %	2.58 %	31.89 %	56.89 %	2.58 %	31.89 %	56.89 %

Table14: Participants' Current Level of English Language

English Language Level / FUTURE															
Reading Comprehension				Fluency and Confidence				Accuracy in Speaking				Vocabulary			
B A	A	G	E	B A	A	G	E	B A	A	G	E	B A	A	G	E
		44	68		1	46	65		6	45	53		4	40	66
		36.6 6%	56.66 %		0.92 %	38.3 3%	54.1 6%		5%	38.3 3%	44. 16 %		3. 33 %	33. 33 %	55 %
Understanding other Speakers				Understanding radio or TV				Accuracy in Writing							
B A	A	G	E	B A	A	G	E	B A	A	G	E				
		23	80		5	35	67		2	34	67				
		19.1 6%	66.66%		4.1 6%	29.1 6%	55.83 %		1.66 %	28.33%	55.83%				

Table 15: Participants' Desired Level of English Language in the Future

Question 4: What do you enjoy doing in English?

This question seeks to find students' learning preferences for language skills. The results show that 82.5% enjoy speaking in English while 33.33% prefer writing and only 30% enjoy reading in English.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Speaking	99	82.05%
Writing	40	33.33%
Reading	36	30%

Table 16: Participants' Preferences for Language Skills

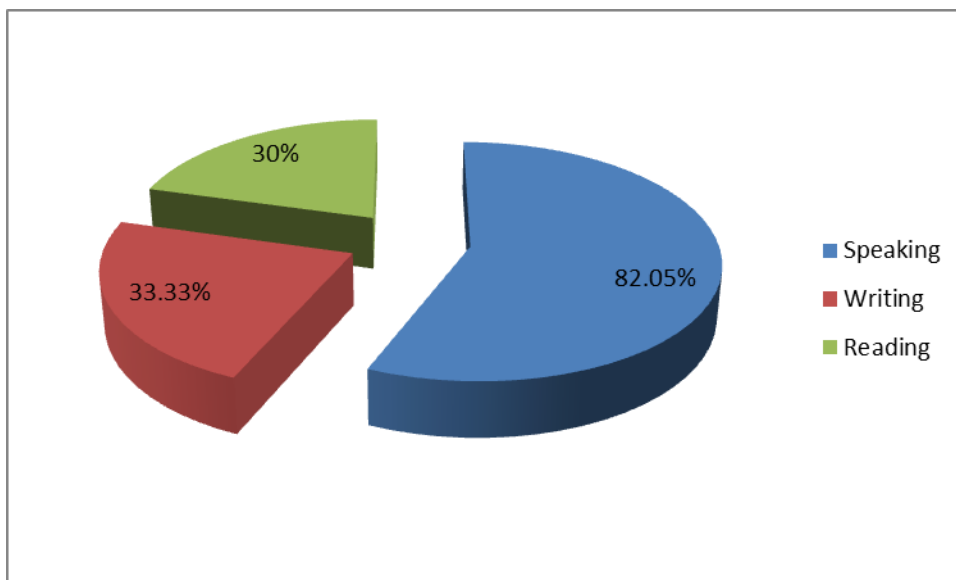


Figure 14: Participants' Preferences for Language Skills

Question 5: What do you want to be able to do with English?

This question intends to investigate the language activities which students want to develop more. The students' responses indicate the following: 78.33% want to be able to interact in English, 61.66% seek to understand native speakers, 36.66% want to be able to write correctly in English and 31.66% want to read books and documents in English.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Write correctly	44	36.66%
Understand native speakers	74	61.66%
Be able to interact	94	78.33%
Read books and documents	38	31.66%

Table 17: Participants' Preferences for English Language Activities

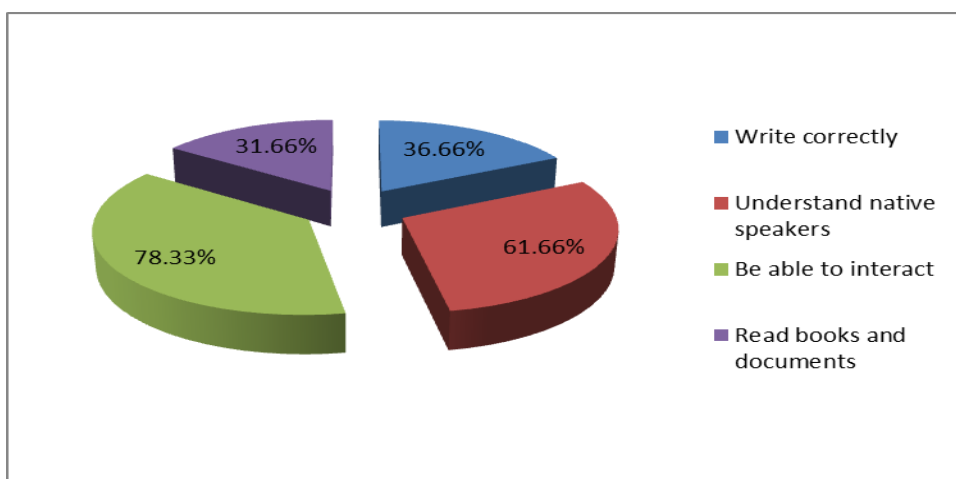


Figure 15: Participants' Preferences for English Language Activities

Question 6: What is the most important long term goal?

The aim of the question is to establish the students' most important long term English learning goal. 88.33% have a long term goal of being able to interact in both spoken and written English, 25.83% want to memorize English grammar rules and vocabulary and only 15% want to be able to read publications in academic English. The following table and graph show the long-term goals established by the students.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
To be able to communicate in English, both spoken and written	106	88.33%
To be able to read publications in academic English	18	15%
To memorize English grammar rules and vocabulary	31	25.83%

Table 18: Participants' Long Term English Learning Goals

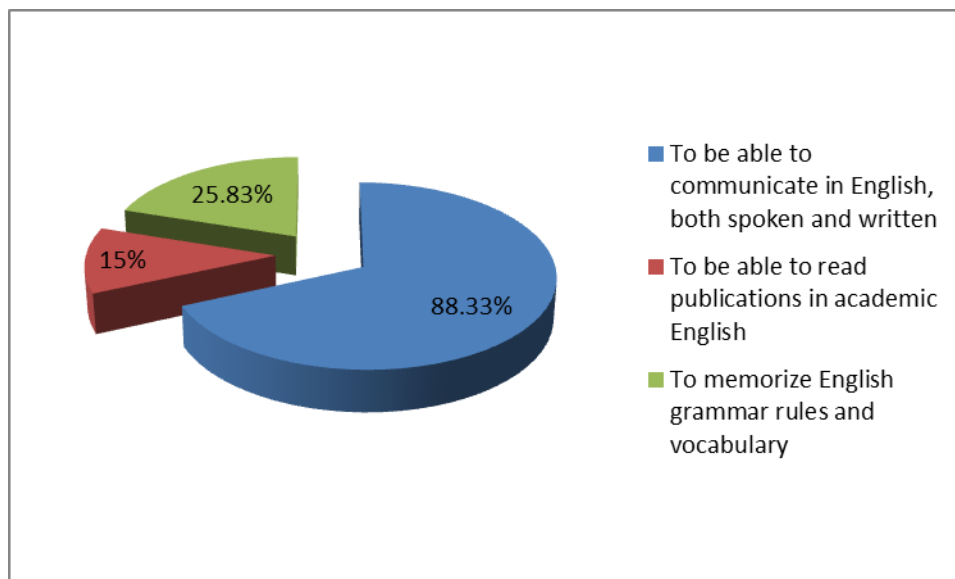


Figure 16: Participants' Long Term English Learning Goals

V.5.3 Learning Needs

Question 7: Please, tick the boxes which correspond to your present and future needs in English.

The purpose of this question is to discover the students' reasons for studying English at the present time and in the future regarding the four language skills listening i.e. speaking, reading and writing. The table and graph demonstrate the following: 88.33% need to improve their speaking fluency, 47.5% think that they have to improve their listening comprehension. The writing skill is the aim of 40% whereas the reading skill takes the smallest percentage, which means that only 21.66% of the students want to improve their reading skill.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
To improve listening comprehension	57	47.5%
To improve speaking fluency	106	88.33%
To improve reading skills	26	21.66%
To improve writing skills	48	40%

Table 19: Participants' Present and Future Needs in English

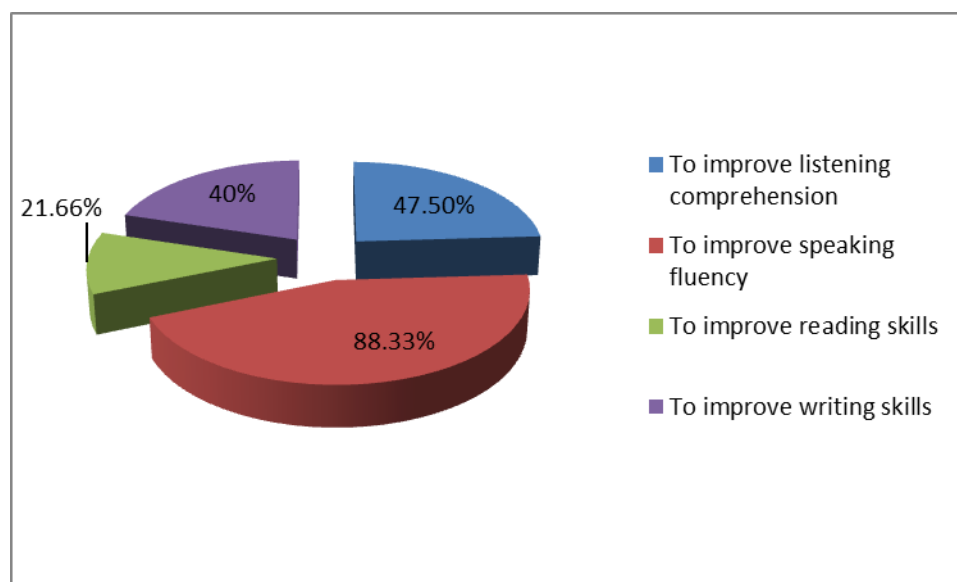


Figure 17: Participants' Present and Future Needs in English

V.5.3.1 Writing

Question8: Which of these activities do you need to be able to write in English?

This question attempts to establish students' preference for teaching/learning activities to improve their writing skill. It also seeks to identify the context of these activities. The tables and graphs below show that the majority of learners prefer the writing activities of

informal communication such as personal letters, SMSs and short daily notes. Writing reports and taking notes are preferred to be used in formal communication. The tables and graphs indicate that 54% of learners need to be able to take notes, 33% need to be able to write short stories, 25% prefer writing personal letters, 17% prefer writing SMSs and short daily notes, and 58% need to be able to write reports in English in formal communication (academic), while in informal communication, 45.83% need to improve their writing skill when taking notes, 37.50% need to be able to write short stories, 70.83% prefer improving their skill for writing personal letters and 80.83% which represent the majority need to improve their skill of writing SMSs and short daily notes and only 1.67% of learners want to be able to write reports in English.

Formal Communication (Academic)	Frequency	Percentage
Note-taking	65	54%
Short stories	40	33%
Personal letters	30	25%
SMS s and short daily notes	20	17%
Reports	69	58%

Table 20: Participants' Preferences for Writing Activities (Formal Communication)

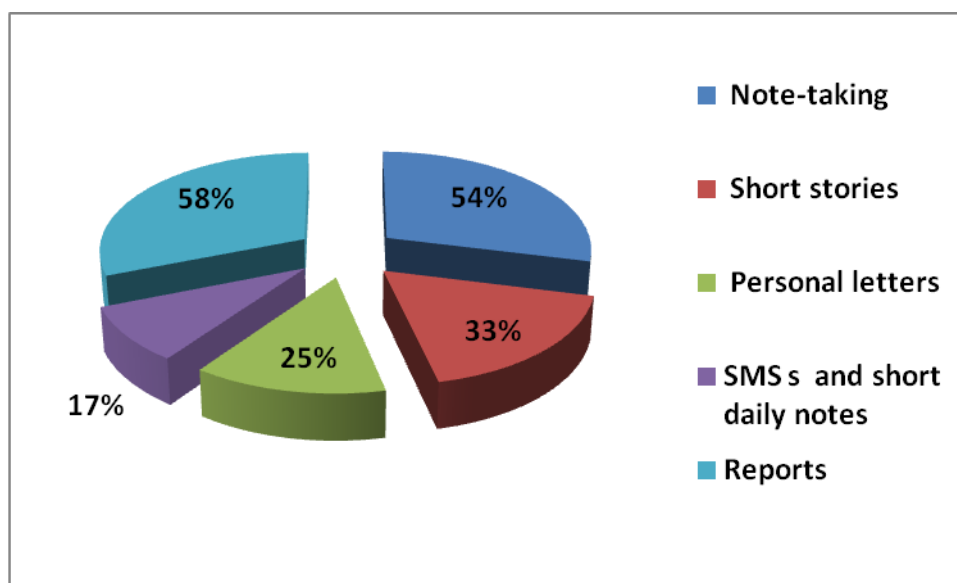


Figure 18: Participants' Preferences for Writing Activities (Formal Communication)

Informal communication (with family and friends)	Frequency	Percentage
Note-taking	55	45.83%
Short stories	45	37.50%
Personal letters	85	70.83%
SMS s and short daily notes	97	80.83%
Reports	2	1.67%

Table 21: Participants' Preferences for Writing Activities (Informal Communication)

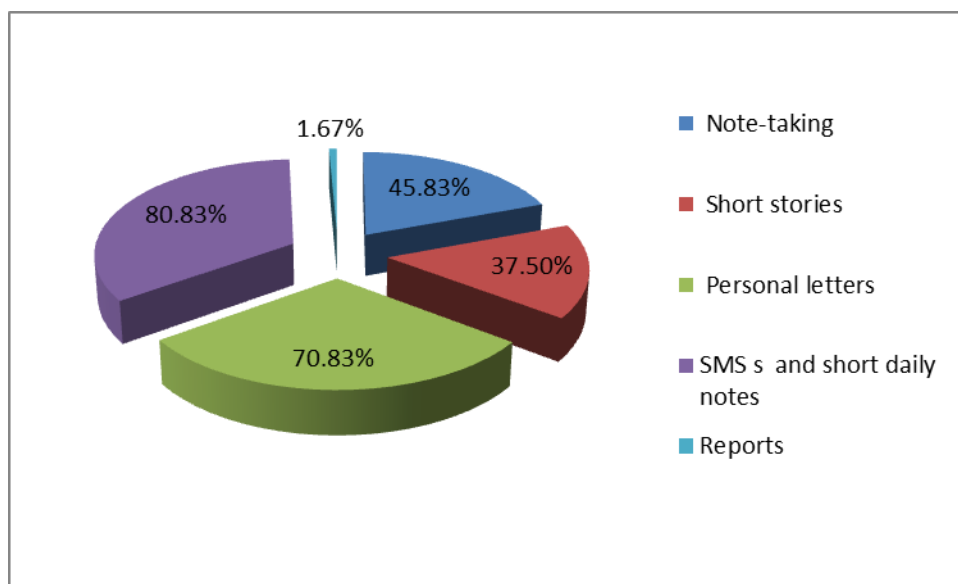


Figure 19: Participants' Preferences for Writing Activities (Informal Communication)

V.5.3.2 Speaking

Question 9: *Which among these situations of speaking interests you most? How useful will it be to you?*

This question attempts to explore the students' most interesting contexts of speaking. Nine scaled speaking situations are used to elicit the learners' preferences and to investigate to which extent learners need to improve their speaking skill in each situation. Among nine situations used, shopping, other people's countries, customs and culture, ordering and buying food and drink, using the telephone, choosing holiday trips and making plans and social arrangements are considered the most important and useful by the majority of students. On the other hand, jobs and works, health and fitness and describing families are just interesting

enough. The tables and graphs below show the extent to which students need the speaking skill in each situation.

a. Jobs and Works

The following table and graph indicate that 33.33% of learners find that using English in work places is not interesting, 10% think that it is very useful.7.50% of students consider it crucial, 4.16% of learners find it slightly interesting and only 0.83% think that it is interesting.

Jobs and Works		
Crucial to know	9	7.5%
Very useful	12	10%
Interesting	1	0.83%
Slightly interesting	5	4.16%
Not interesting	40	33.33%

Table 22: Participants’ Interest in Speaking about Jobs and Works

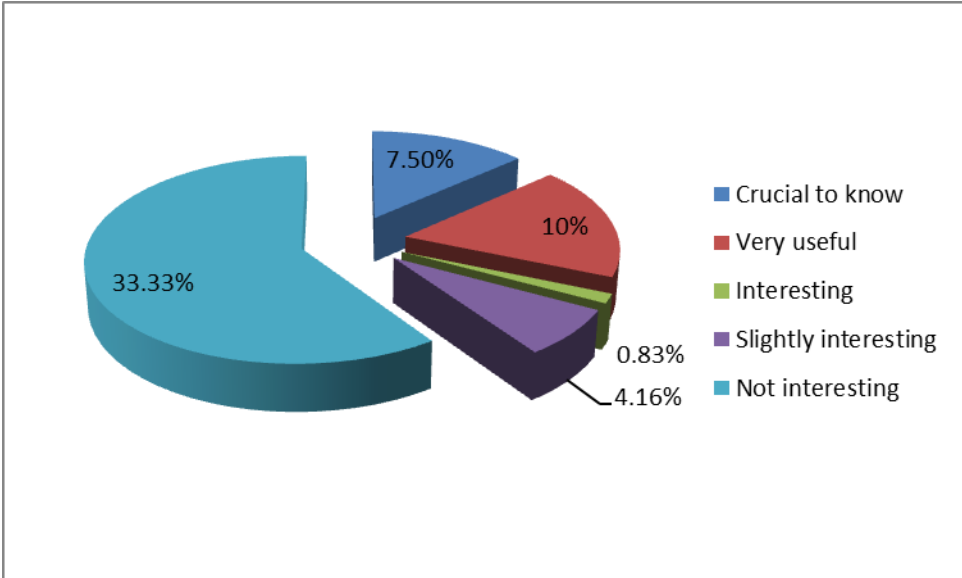


Figure 20: Participants’ Interest in Speaking about Jobs and Works

b. Health and Fitness

The following table and graph indicate that only 0.83% of learners find that using English in the domain of health and fitness is not interesting, 0.83% think that it is very useful. A majority of 49.16% of students consider it as crucial to know, 15% of learners find it slightly interesting and only 1.66% think that it is interesting.

Health and Fitness		
Crucial to know	59	49.16%
Very useful	1	0.83%
Interesting	2	1.66%
Slightly interesting	18	15%
Not interesting	1	0.83%

Table 23: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Health and Fitness

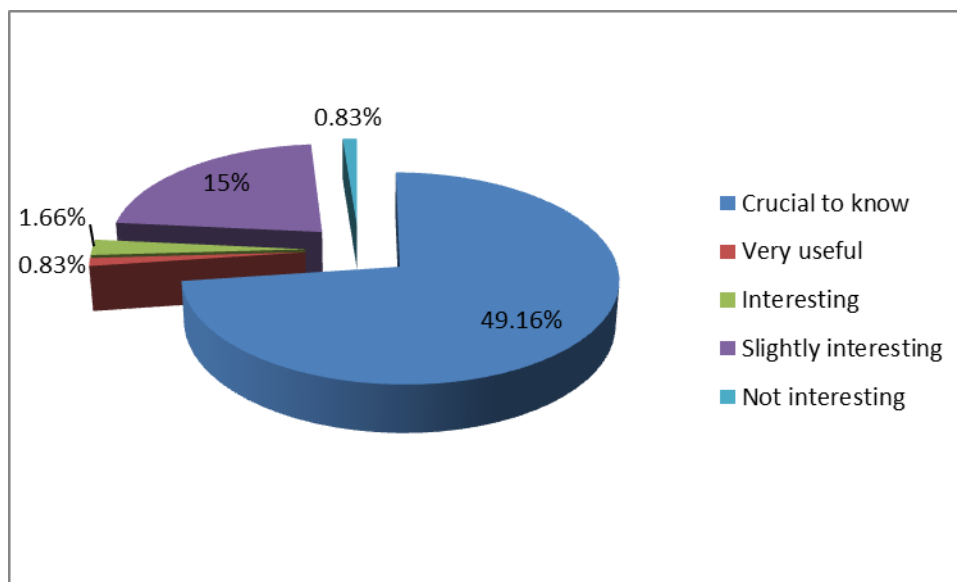


Figure 21: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Health and Fitness

c. Shopping

The following table and graph indicate that 56.66% of learners find that using English when shopping is very useful, 22.35% think that it is interesting. 16.66% of students consider it crucial, 1.66% think that it is interesting, and only 0.83% of learners find it slightly interesting.

Shopping		
Crucial to know	20	16.66%
Very useful	68	56.66%
Interesting	27	22.35%
Slightly interesting	1	0.83%
Not interesting	2	1.66%

Table 24: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Shopping

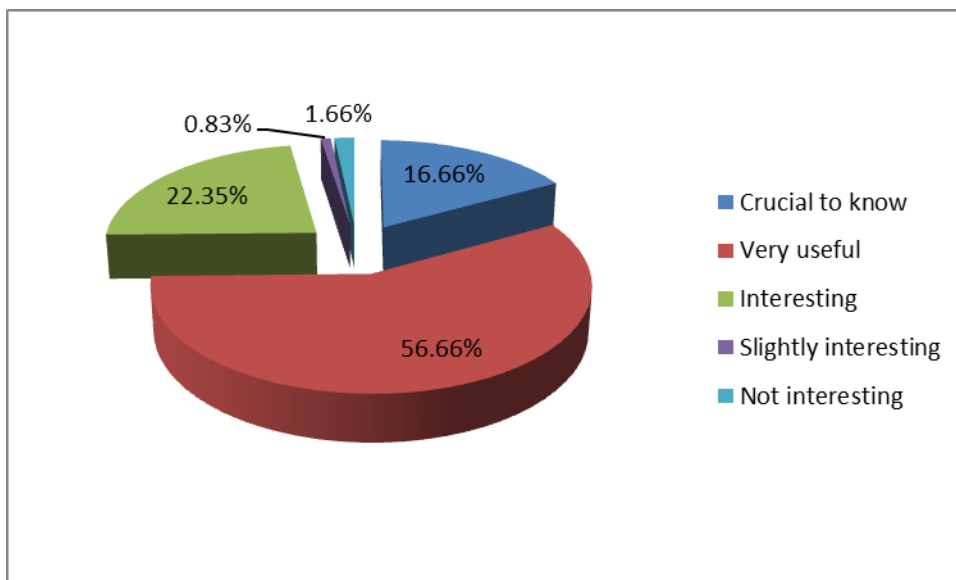


Figure 22: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Shopping

d. Customs and Culture

The following table and graph indicate that 43.33% of learners find that using English to interact with people with different customs and culture is very useful, 4.16% think that it is interesting. 25% of students consider it crucial to know, 18.33% of learners find it slightly interesting and 2.5% think that it is not interesting.

Customs and Culture		
Crucial to know	30	25%
Very useful	52	43.33%
Interesting	5	4.16%
Slightly interesting	22	18.33%
Not interesting	3	2.5%

Table 25: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Customs and Culture

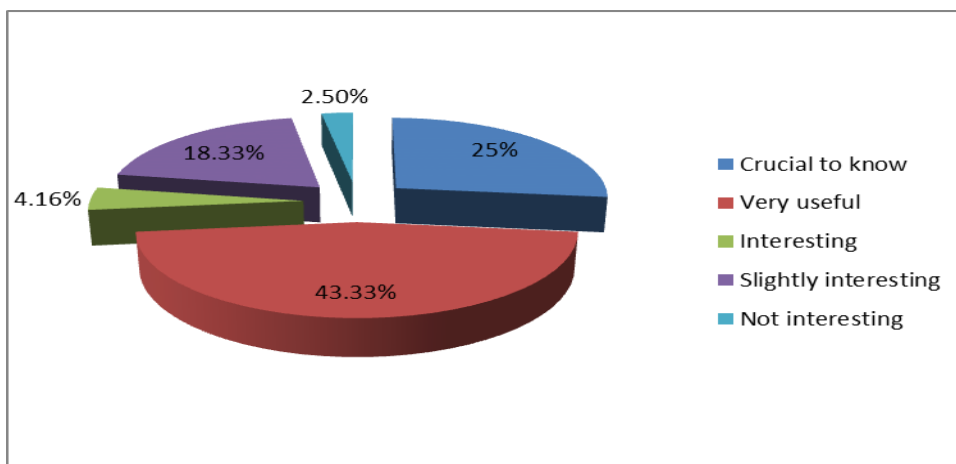


Figure 23: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Customs and Culture

e. Food and Drinks

The following table and graph indicate that 45.83% of learners find that using English when ordering and buying food and drinks is very useful, 38.33% think that it is crucial. 1.66% of students consider it as slightly interesting, 0.83% of learners find it interesting and only 0.83% think that it is not interesting.

Food and Drinks		
Crucial to know	46	38.33%
Very useful	55	45.83%
Interesting	1	0.83%
Slightly interesting	2	1.66%
Not interesting	1	0.83%

Table 26: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Food and Drinks

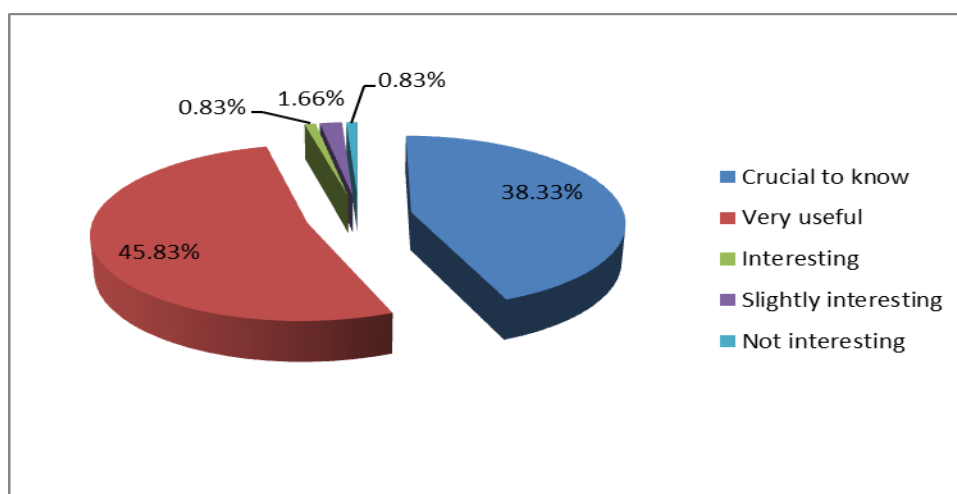


Figure 24: Participants' Interest in Speaking about Food and Drinks

f. Using the Telephone

The following table and graph indicate that 71.66% of learners find that using English on the telephone is very useful, 20.83% think that it is crucial. 1.66% of students consider it slightly interesting and 1.66% of learners find it interesting.

Using the telephone		
Crucial to know	25	20.83%
Very useful	86	71.66%
Interesting	2	1.66%
Slightly interesting	2	1.66%
Not interesting		

Table 27: Participants' Interest in Speaking on the telephone

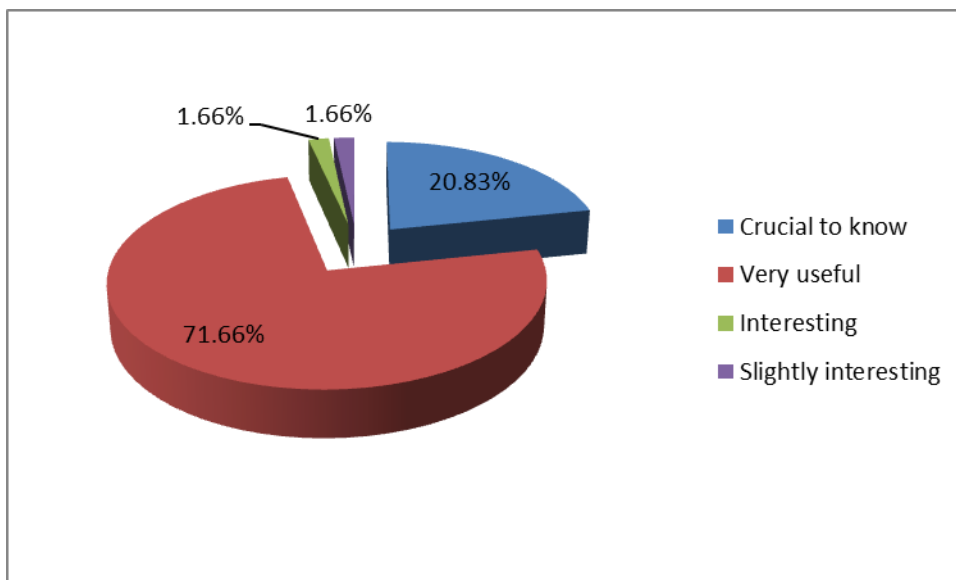


Figure 25: Participants' Interest in Speaking on the telephone

g. Holiday Trips

The following table and graph indicate that 52.5% of learners find that using English in holiday trips is very useful, 20.83% think that it is crucial to know. 2.5% of students consider it interesting, and only 0.83% think that it is not interesting.

Holiday Trips		
Crucial to know	25	20.83%
Very useful	63	52.5%
Interesting	3	2.5%
Not interesting	2	1.66%

Table 28: Participants' Interest in speaking while on Holiday Trips

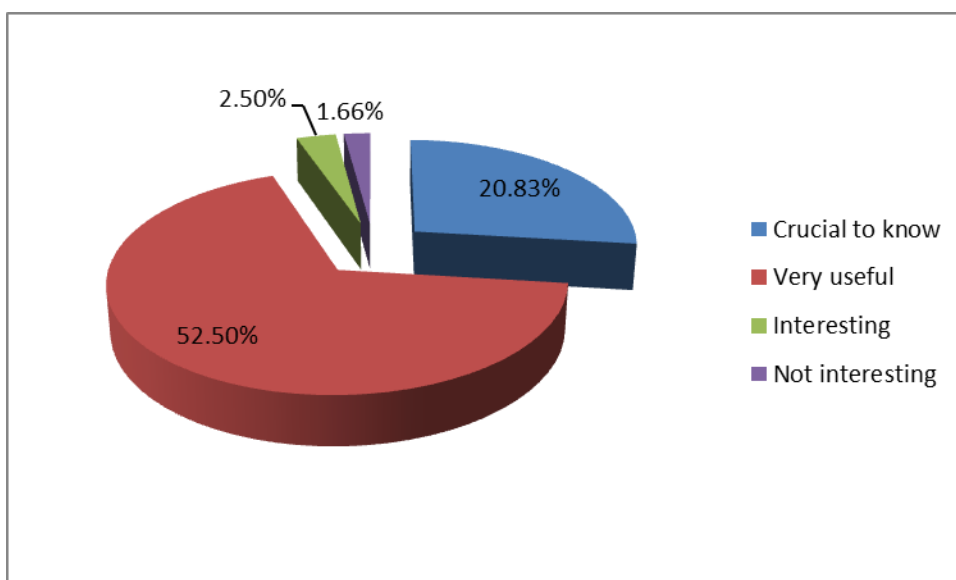


Figure 26: Participants' Interest in speaking while on Holiday Trips

h. Describing Families

The following table and graph indicate that 18.33% of learners find that using English to describe families is very useful, 14.16% think that it is crucial to know. 0.83% of students consider it as slightly interesting, and only 2.5% think that it is not interesting.

Describing Families		
Crucial to know	17	14.16%
Very useful	22	18.33%
Slightly interesting	1	0.83%
Not interesting	3	2.5%

Table 29: Participants' Interest in Describing Families

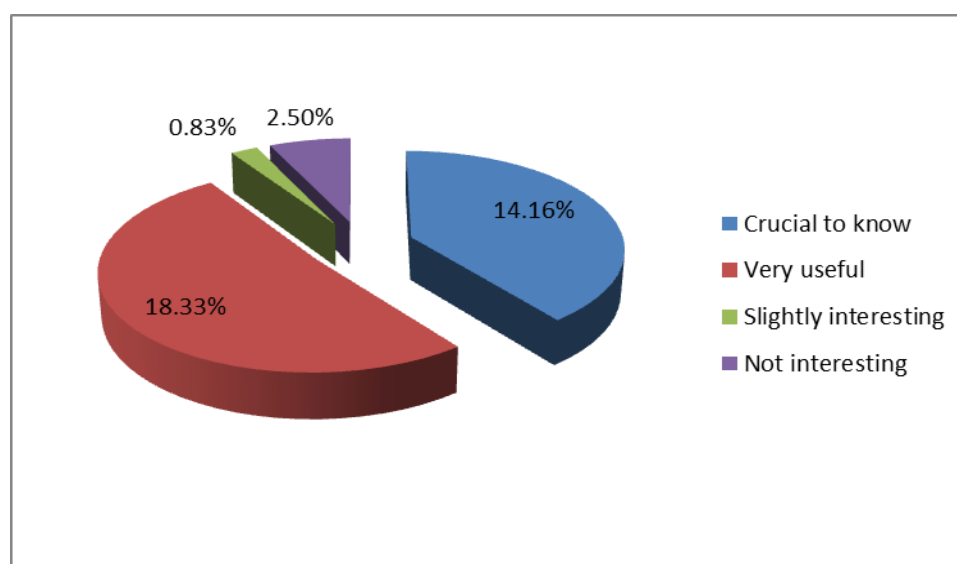


Figure 27: Participants' Interest in Describing Families

i. Making Plans and Social Arrangements

The following table and graph indicate that 50% of learners find that using English to make plans and social arrangement is very useful, 12.5% think that it is crucial to know, 0.83% of students consider it slightly interesting, 0.83% of them find it interesting and only 0.83% think that it is not interesting.

Making Plans and Social Arrangements		
Crucial to know	15	12.5%
Very useful	60	50%
Interesting	1	0.83%
Slightly interesting	1	0.83%
Not interesting	1	0.83%

Table 30: Participants' Interest in Making Plans and Social Arrangements

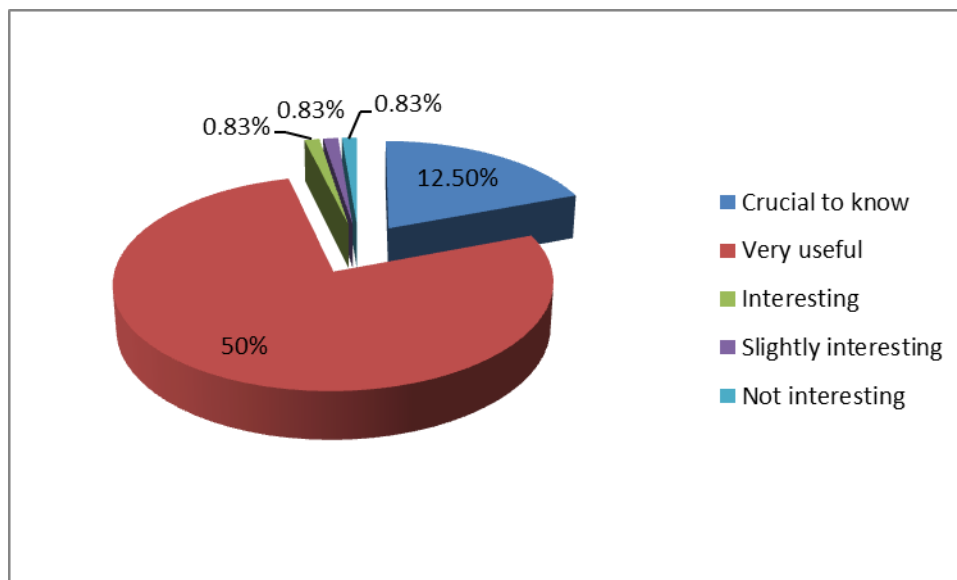


Figure 28: Participants' Interest in Making plans and Social Arrangements

V.5.3.3 Listening

Question10: *Which of the contexts of use in the first column do you need to be able to understand in English?*

This question intends to show the multiple requirements of the listening skill in learning English as a foreign language and to analyse learners' self-assessment on various ways of improving their listening skill. Five language situations ranging between academic and communicative ones have been adopted and each one has been scaled to show the degree of requirement of each. The tables and graphs below indicate that the majority of students need to understand English when using the telephone with native speakers and academic reports.

a. Radio or TV Programmes

The following table and graph indicate that 33.33% of learners need to be able to understand most words when listening to the radio or watching a TV programmes while 23.33% need to understand the general idea.

Radio or TV programmes		
Every word	0	0%
Most words	40	33.33%
The general idea	28	23.33%

Table 31: Participants' Interest in Radio or TV Programmes

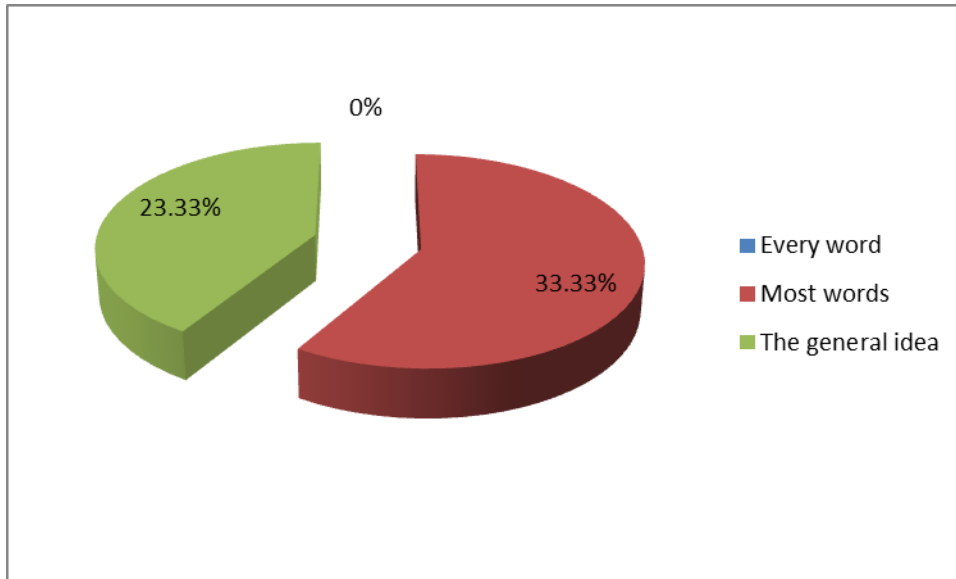


Figure 29: Participants' Interest in Radio or TV Programmes

b. Lectures

The following table and graph indicate that 28.33% of learners need to understand the general idea of lectures. 27.5% want to understand most words and 27.5% every word.

Lectures		
Every word	33	27.5%
Most words	33	27.5%
The general idea	34	28.33%

Table 32: Participants' Interest in Lectures

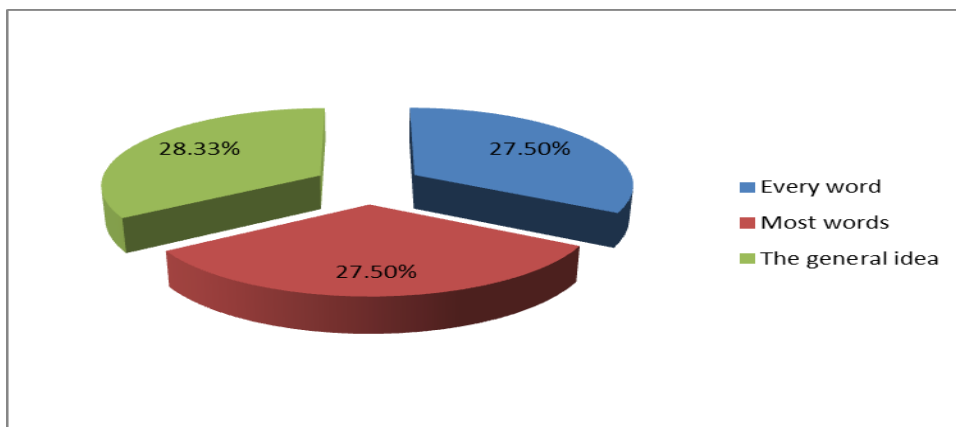


Figure 30: Participants' Interest in Lectures

c. Telephone Calls

The following table and graph indicate that 54.16% of learners need to be able to understand every word when using the telephone, 20.83% want to understand most words, while 16.66% need to understand the general idea.

Telephone Calls		
Every word	65	54.16%
Most words	25	20.83%
The general idea	20	16.66%

Table 33: Participants' Interest in Telephone Calls

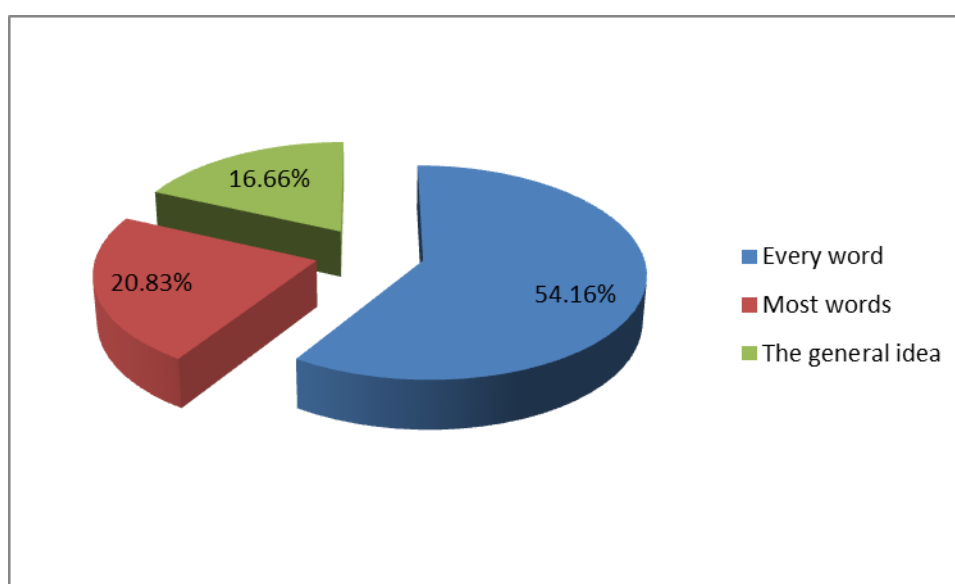


Figure 31: Participants' Interest in Telephone Calls

d. Native Speakers

The following table and graph indicate that 40% of learners need to be able to understand the general idea when listening to native speakers, 37.5% want to understand most words and 32.5% need to understand every word.

Native Speakers		
Every word	39	32.5%
Most words	45	37.5%
The general idea	48	40%

Table 34: Participants' Interest in understanding Native speakers

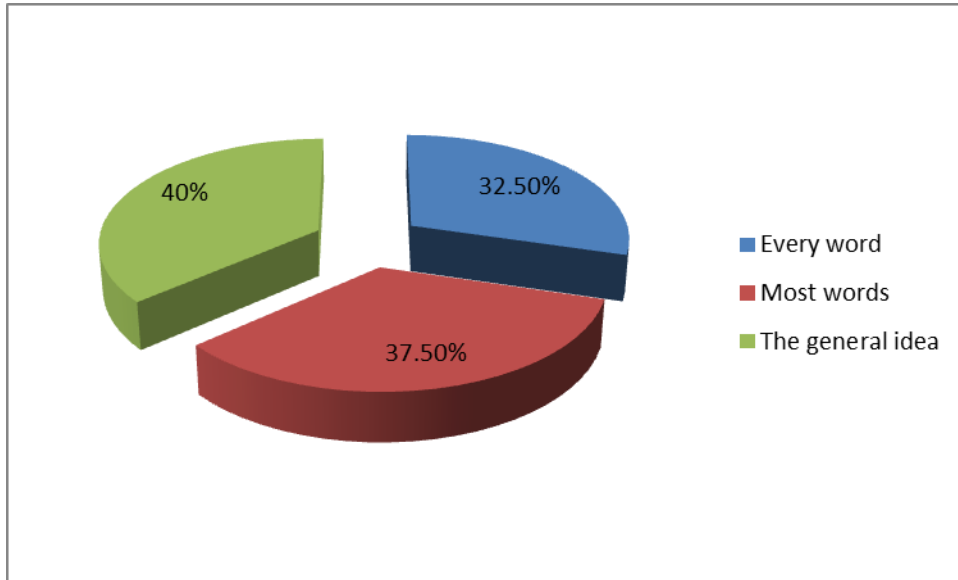


Figure 32: Participants' Interest in understanding Native Speakers

e. Academic Reports

The following table and graph indicate that 43.33% of learners need to be able to understand every word in academic reports, 13.33% want to understand the general idea, while 8.33% need to understand most words.

Academic Reports		
Every word	52	43.33%
Most words	10	8.33%
The general idea	16	13.33%

Table 35: Participants' Interest in Academic Reports

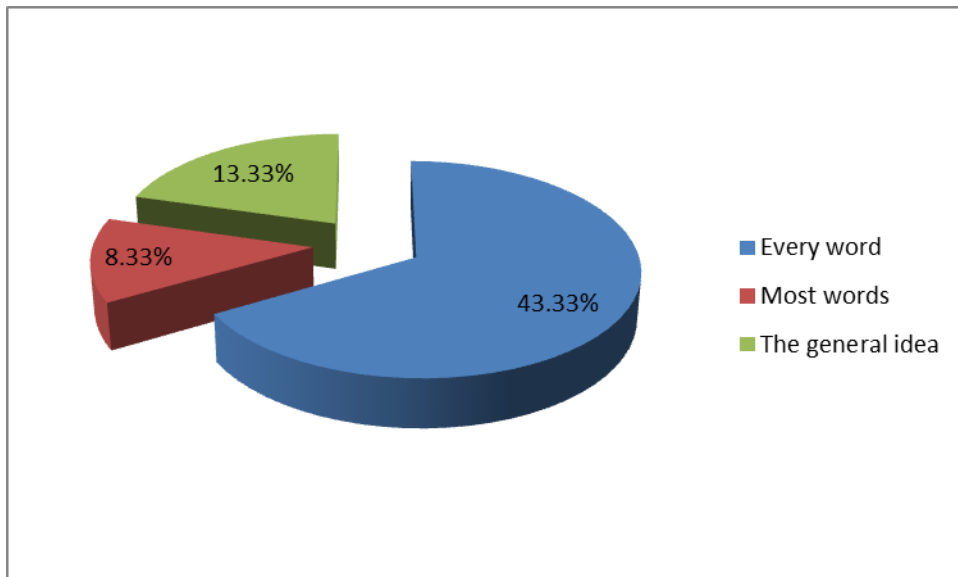


Figure 33: Participants' Interest in Academic Reports

V.5.3.4 Reading

Question 11: *What material would you like to be able to read in English? How would you like to read it?*

This question attempts to show the students' preferred reading material and the kind of reading they use for each material. The tables and graphs below show that the majority of students prefer reading social magazines and newspapers; most of them prefer reading educational books and short stories. Skimming and scanning depend on the kind of material read.

a. Educational Books

The following table and graph indicate that 45% of students would like to be able to scan educational books while 43.33% would like to skim them.

Educational Books		
Skimming	52	43.33%
Scanning	54	45%

Table 36: Participants' Interest in Educational Books

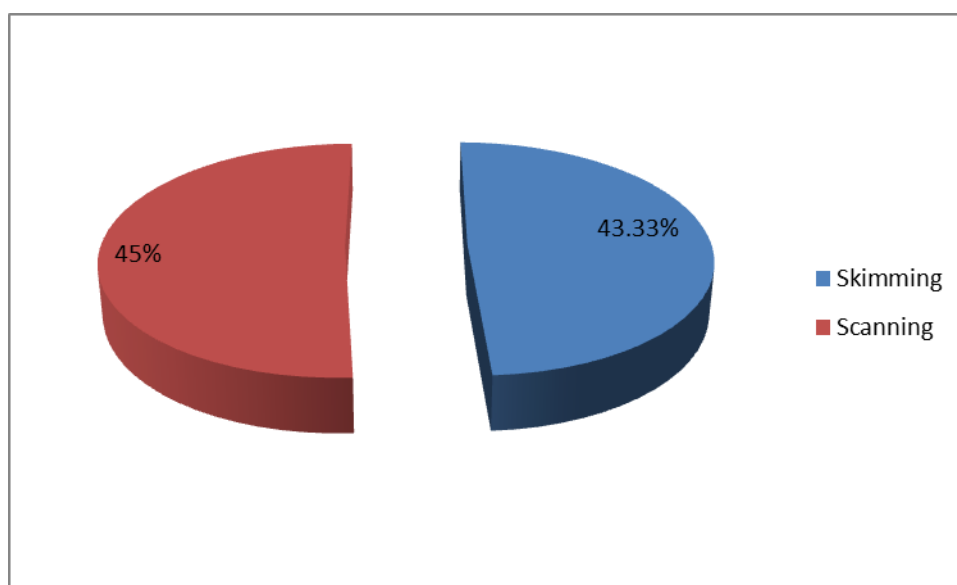


Figure 34: Participants' Interest in Educational Books

b. Newspapers

The following table and graph indicate that 44.16% of the students would like to be able to skim newspapers while 38.33% would like to scan them.

Newspapers		
Skimming	53	44.16%
Scanning	46	38.33%

Table 37: Participants' Interest in Newspapers

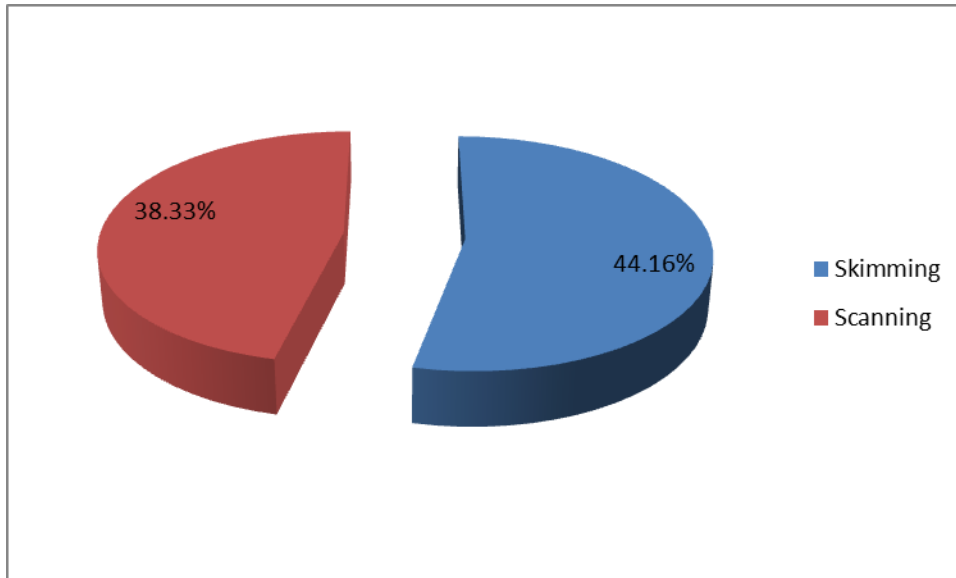


Figure 35: Participants' Interest in Newspapers

c. Short Stories

The following table and graph indicate that 46.66% of students would like to be able to skim short stories while 11.66% would like to scan them.

Short Stories		
Skimming	56	46.66%
Scanning	14	11.66%

Table 38: Participants' Interest in Short Stories

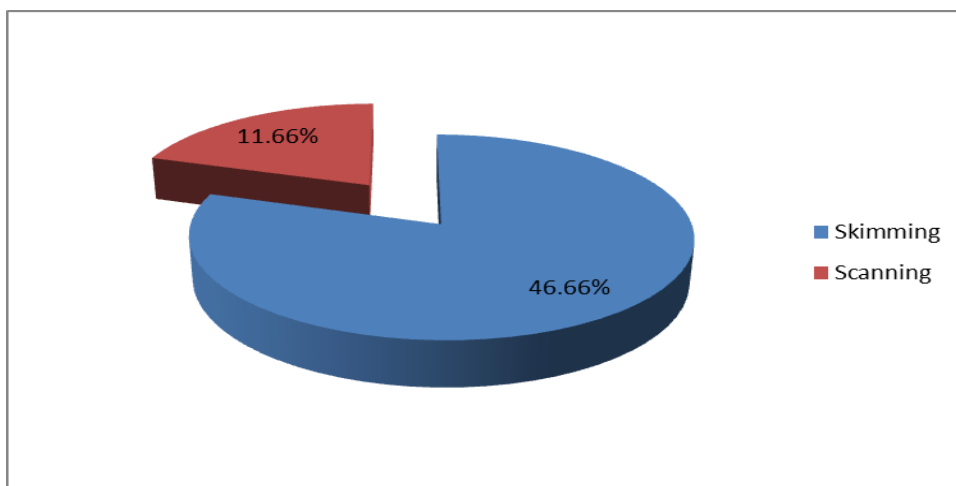


Figure 36: Participants' Interest in Short Stories

d. Social Magazines

The following table and graph indicate that 61.66% of students would like to be able to skim social magazines while 49.16% would like to scan them.

Social Magazines		
Skimming	74	61.66%
Scanning	59	49.16%

Table 39: Participants' Interest in Social Magazines

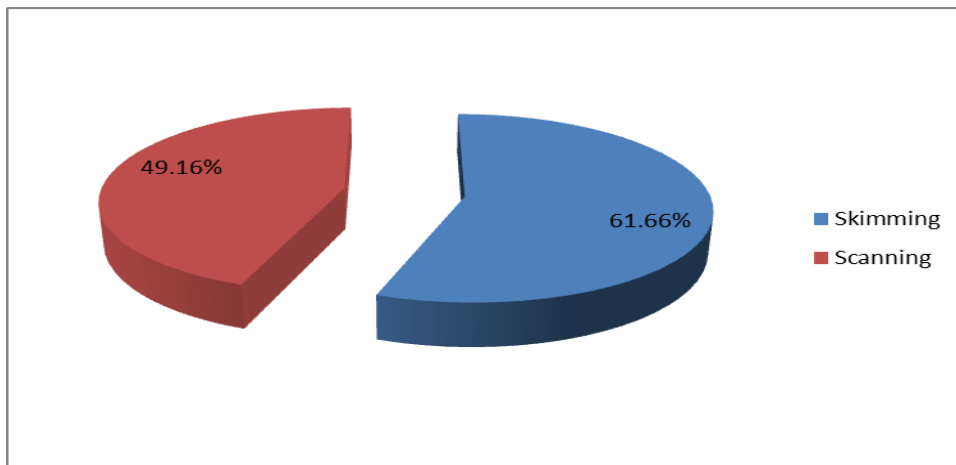


Figure 37: Participants' Interest in Social Magazines

e. Academic Papers

The following table and graph indicate that 44.16% of students would like to be able to scan Academic papers while 17.5% would like to skim them.

Academic Papers		
Skimming	21	17.5%
Scanning	53	44.16%

Table 40: Participants' Interest in Academic Papers

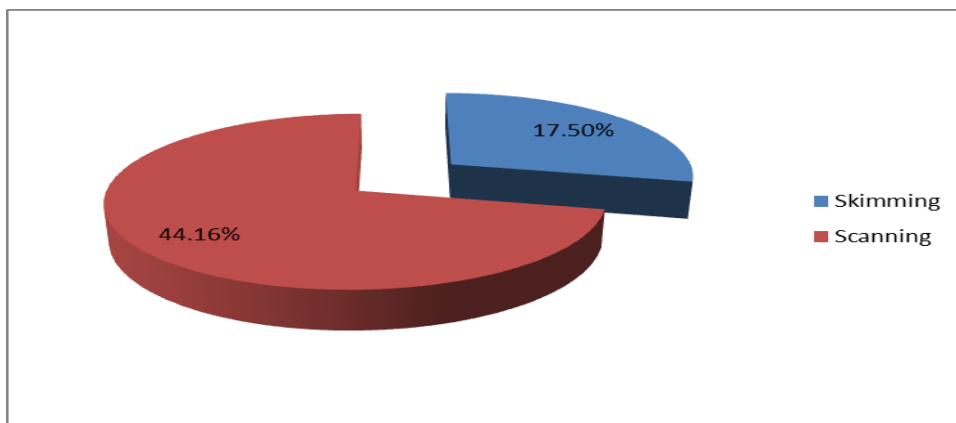


Figure 38: Participants' Interest in Academic Papers

V.5.4 Learning Habits

Question12: *How important are the following learning habits to you? (Use the following 1 to 5 scale for each learning habit; please tick only one number for each).*

This question investigates the students’ preference for classroom interaction and activities. The majority of students prefer acting out role play exercises, working in pair and group work interaction, as compared to working alone, working in a teacher directed lesson and working in a project. The tables and figures below show the students preferences for each learning habit.

a. Working in Class

The following table and graph indicate that 49.16% of the students prefer working in class; 15.83% find it very enjoyable and important; 5% think that it is important; 0.83% believes that it is somehow important and 20.83% find it neither important nor enjoyable.

Working in Class		
Most enjoyable and important	59	49.16%
Very enjoyable and important	19	15.83%
enjoyable and important	6	5%
Somehow enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
Neither enjoyable nor important	1	0.83%

Table 41: Participants’ Preferences for Working in Class

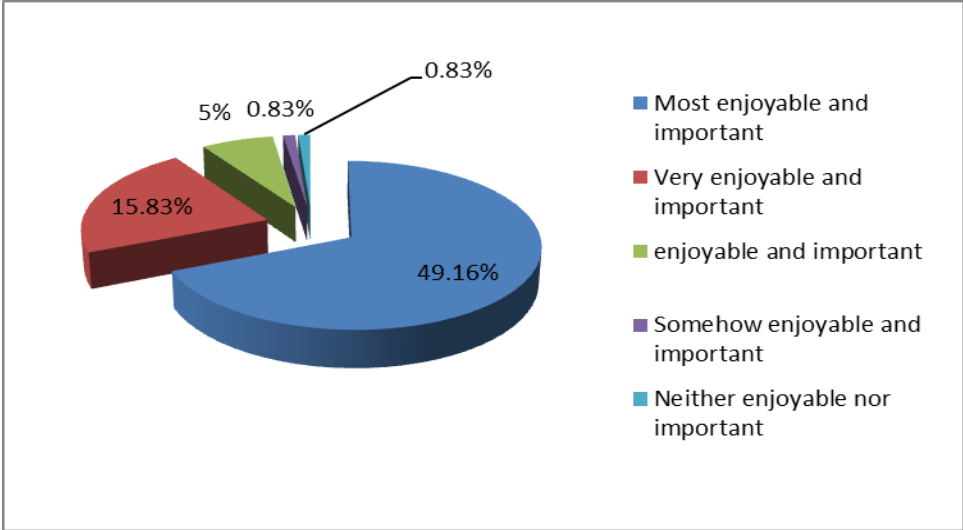


Figure 39: Participants’ Preference for Working in Class

b. Working Alone

The following table and graph show that the students do not enjoy working alone in class; only 1.66% of students find that working alone in class is most enjoyable and important; 1.66% find it very enjoyable and important; 1.66% find it enjoyable, and 21.66% find it neither enjoyable nor important.

Working Alone		
Most enjoyable and important	2	1.66%
Very enjoyable and important	2	1.66%
Enjoyable and important	2	1.66%
Somehow enjoyable and important	0	0%
Neither enjoyable nor important	26	21.66%

Table 42 : Participants' Preferences for Working Alone

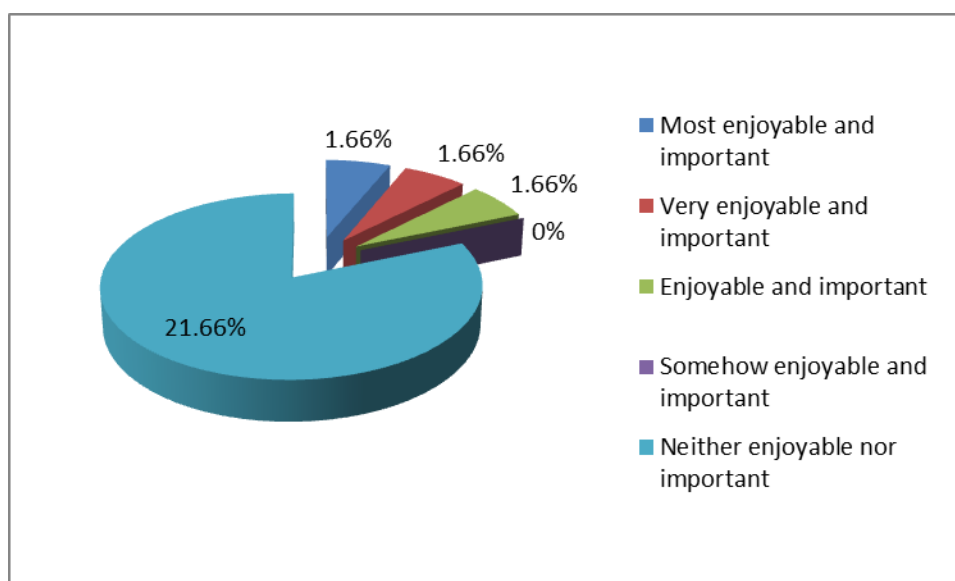


Figure 40: Participants' Preference for Working Alone

c. Working in Pair

The following table and figure indicate that 29.16% of students prefer working in pair; they believe that it is very enjoyable and important. 25% think that pair-work is the most important and enjoyable; 4.16% find it enjoyable and important; 2.5% find it neither enjoyable nor important and only 0.83% find it somehow enjoyable and important.

Working in Pair		
Most enjoyable and important	30	25%
Very enjoyable and important	35	29.16%
enjoyable and important	5	4.16%
Somehow enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
Neither enjoyable and important	3	2.5%

Table 43: Participants' Preferences for Working in Pair

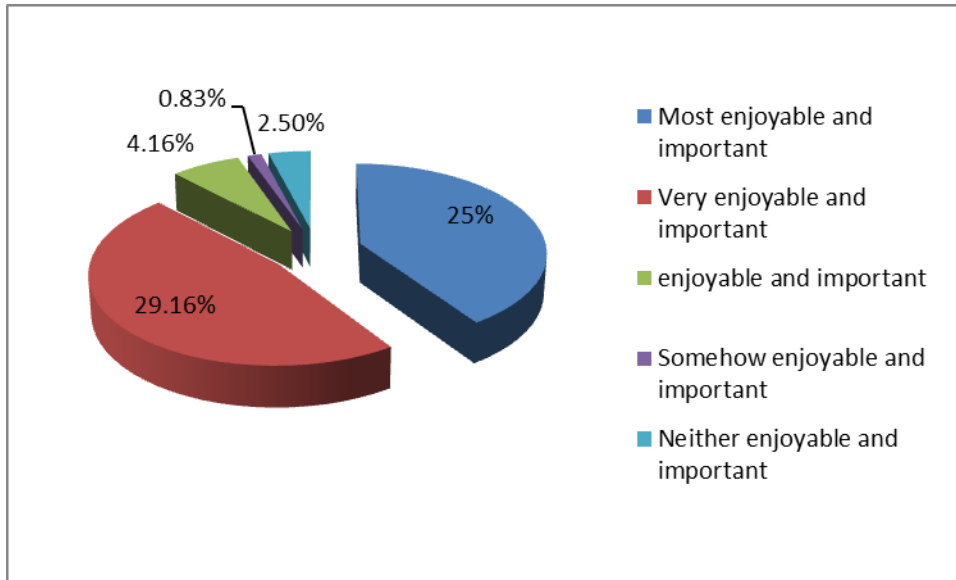


Figure 41: Participants' Preferences for Working in Pair

d. Working in Groups

The following table and graph indicate that 54.16%, the majority of students, prefer working in small groups, 27.5% of them believe that it is very important, 3.33% find this kind of work neither enjoyable nor important, 1.66% think that it is somehow important and only 0.83% find it important.

Working in Small Groups		
Most enjoyable and important	65	54.16%
Very enjoyable and important	33	27.5%
enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
Somehow enjoyable and important	2	1.66%
Neither enjoyable nor important	4	3.33%

Table 44: Participants' Preferences for Working in Groups

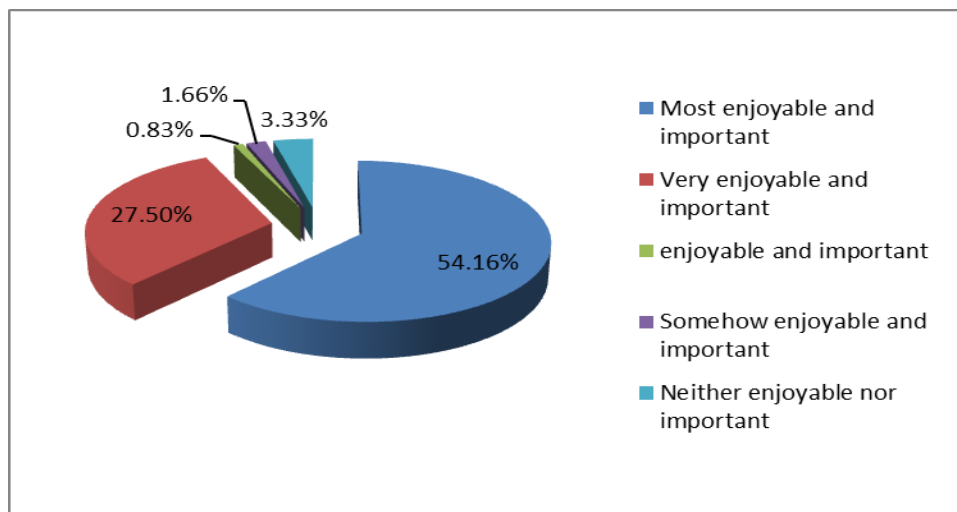


Figure 42: Participants' Preference for Working in Groups

e. Acting out a Role Play Exercise

The table and graph below show that the majority of students, 65.83%, prefer acting a role play exercise; 24.16% find it very enjoyable and important; 4.16% believe that it is somehow enjoyable and important; 2.5% find it neither enjoyable nor important and only 0.83% find it enjoyable and important.

Acting out a Role Play Exercise		
Most enjoyable and important	79	65.83%
Very enjoyable and important	29	24.16%
enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
Somehow enjoyable and important	5	4.16%
Neither enjoyable nor important	3	2.5%

Table 45: Participants' Preferences for Acting out a Role Play Exercise

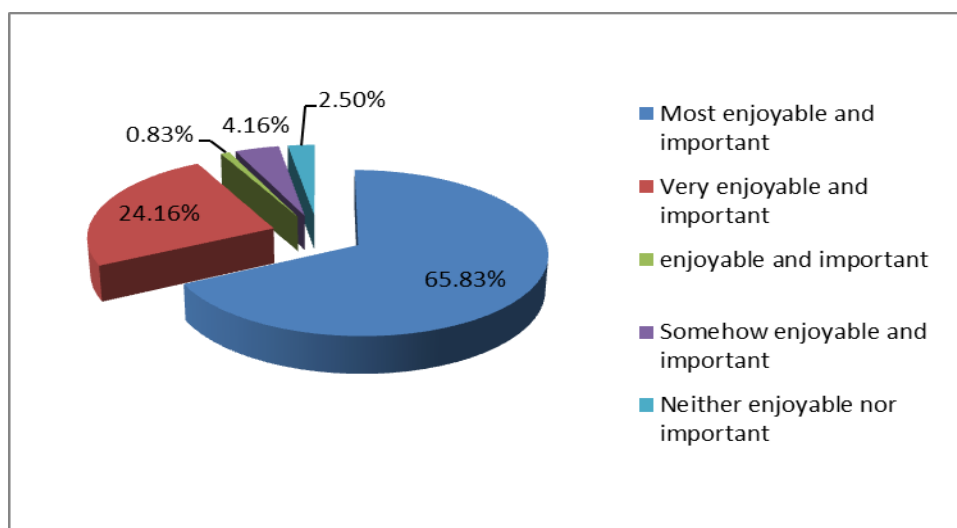


Figure 43: Participants' Preference for Acting out a Role Play Exercise

f. Working in a Teacher Supervised Lesson

The table and graph below indicate that students do not enjoy working in a teacher direct lesson; 25% of students think that it is enjoyable and important; 10% find it most enjoyable and important; 10% believe that it is neither enjoyable nor important; 0.83% thinks that it is very enjoyable and important and 0.83% finds it somehow enjoyable and important.

Working in a Teacher Supervised Lesson		
Most enjoyable and important	12	10%
Very enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
enjoyable and important	30	25%
Somehow enjoyable and important	1	0.83%
Neither enjoyable nor important	12	10%

Table 46: Participants’ Preferences in a Teacher Supervised Lesson

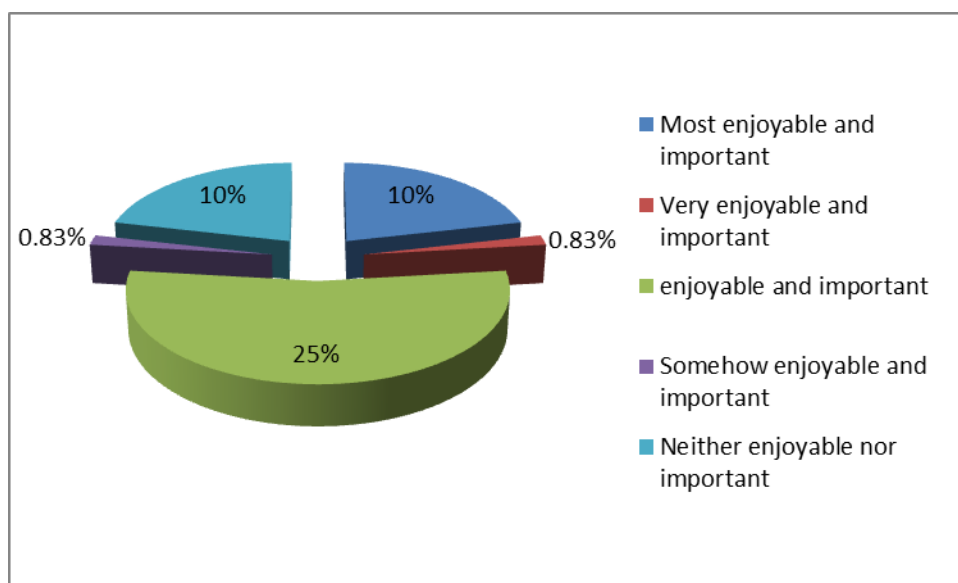


Figure 44: Participants’ Preference for Working in a Teacher Supervised Lesson

g. Working in a Project

The following table and graph indicate that the students do not really enjoy working in a project. 19.16% of students think that it is somehow enjoyable and important; 13.33% find it neither important nor enjoyable; 11.66% think that it is most important, 2.5% find it important and 1.66% believe that it is very important.

Working in a Project		
Most enjoyable and important	14	11.66%
Very enjoyable and important	2	1.66%
enjoyable and important	3	2.5%
Somehow enjoyable and important	23	19.16%
Neither enjoyable nor important	16	13.33%

Table 47: Participants' Preference for Working in a Project

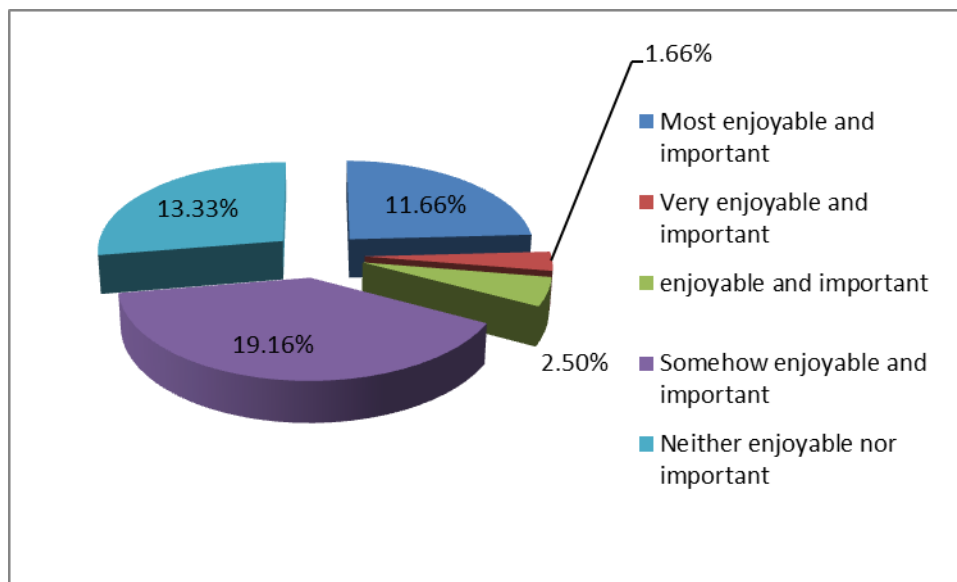


Figure 45: Participants' Preferences for Working in a Project

Question 13: How often do you practice English in class?

This question attempts to show the time devoted to the practice of English in class. The table and graph below illustrate that 46.66% of students declare that they practice English in class sometimes, 26.66% assert that they often practice English in class and 26.66% affirm that they always practice English in class.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Sometimes	56	46.66%
Often	32	26.66%
Always	32	26.66%
Total	120	100%

Table 48: Participants' English Practice in Class

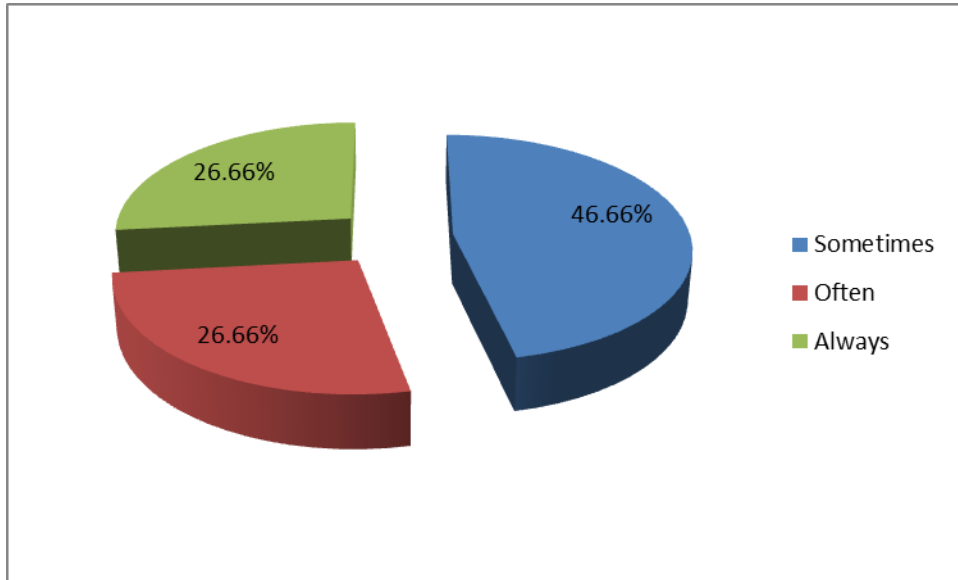


Figure 46: Participants' English Practice in Class

Question 14: Do you think that the time devoted to practice is enough?

This question attempts to examine the students' attitude towards the time devoted to the practice of English in class. 96.66% write that the time devoted to practice is enough and 3.33% declare that it is not enough.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	4	3.33%
No	116	96.66%
Total	120	100%

Table 49: Participants' Time of English Practice in Class

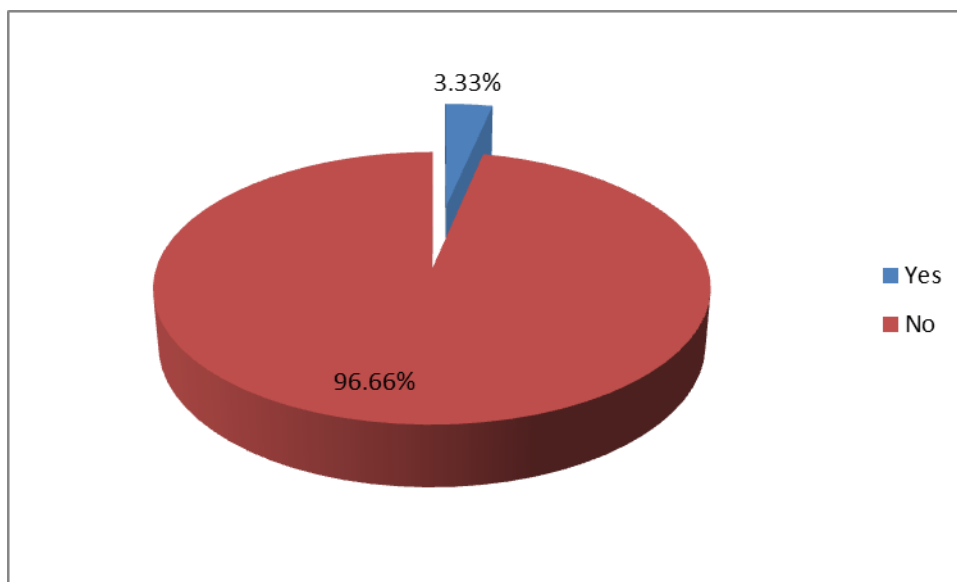


Figure 47: Participants' Time of English Practice in Class

Question15: What is your main aim in Learning?

The purpose of this question is to know the students’ main aim from learning English; 78.33% answer that their main aim is mastery of the language and 21.66% look only for good marks.

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Good marks	26	21.66%
Mastery of the language	94	78.33%
Total	120	100%

Table 50 : Participants’ English Learning Aim

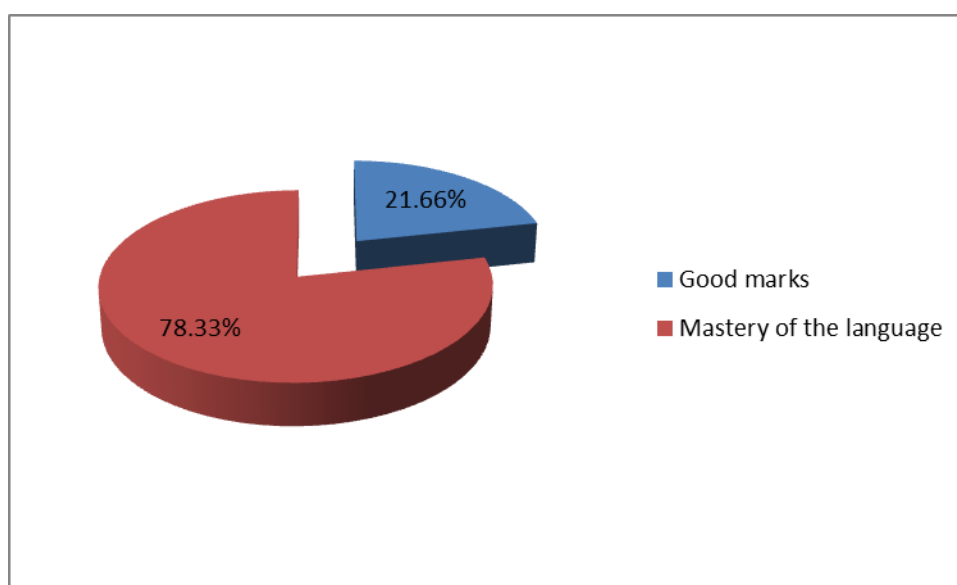


Figure 48 : Student’s Major Aim in Learning English

V.6 Discussion of the Findings

The preliminary purpose of the present study was to determine the English Language general and learning needs of the participants (1st, 2nd and 3rd year students) and then come to a decision about their choices between learning English for academic purposes or communicative ones.

The findings of the needs analysis questionnaire have helped answer the first research question which is ‘Do students need to learn English for communication purposes or for academic ones?’ and to recommend an approach (methodology) which best fits the students’ needs.

This part of study which is mainly concerned with the Needs Analysis of graduate students of English is classified as a quantitative and qualitative study in nature with an **interpretive** approach. According to Bryman (2008) an interpretive approach places an emphasis on gathering data to interpret and understand social interactions, meanings and contexts in which people act. Through the adoption of an interpretive approach in this part of study, the English graduate students' needs are described and interpreted in order to make those needs and preferences understandable, so that teachers can perceive the importance of these needs and make an effort to help their students with the best fitting approach (academic or communicative) in the future. Using an interpretive approach in the analysis of the needs assessment questionnaire leads to the implementation of a description and explanation. Punch examines the issue of description versus explanation and draws a contrast between them.

According to him:

Description and explanation represent two different levels of understanding. To describe is to draw a picture of what happens, or of how things are proceeding, or of what a situation or a person or an event is like. Description is concerned with making complicated things understandable. To explain, on the other hand, is to account for: what happens, or how things are proceeding, or what something or someone is like. It too is concerned with making complicated things understandable, but on a different level. It involves finding the reasons for things, events and situations, showing why they have come to be what they are. Description is a more restricted purpose than explanation (Punch, 2005, p.15).

After the quantitative description of the students' responses, the following sections provide procedures of the interpretation (description + explanation) of the gathered data (the description and explanation of the findings).

V. 6.1 Interpretation of the Findings

In this study, the needs analysis questionnaire is implemented as a key data collection method; when interpreting data, we have:

1. described and explained the questionnaire's findings.
2. categorised the different findings into categories and areas and associated those findings to the appropriate purposes' types (academic or communicative needs' purposes).
3. attempted to select an appropriate approach which best fits the students' needs. (The selected approach will be proposed based on the determination of the students' required type of needs).

V.6.2 Description of the findings

In this section, the participants' responses (needs, preferences, wants and abilities) are conveniently grouped into four phases:

- ✓ Phase 1: Participants' Profile
- ✓ Phase 2: Participants' General and Learning Needs
- ✓ Phase 3: Participants' Language Skills and Teaching Materials Preferences
- ✓ Phase 4: Participants' Preferred Learning Environment

Phase 1: Participants' Profile

The analysis of the participants' profile indicates that the participants in this questionnaire were 120 first, second and third year students of English at University of Constantine 1. They consist of 92 females and only 28 males. The age of the participants is from 18 to 25. These information about participants show that the first part of the present research which addresses the first research question attempted to cover the needs of most EFL students at the Department of Letters and English Language with different backgrounds.

The heterogeneity of the sample at the level of personal backgrounds is only a reflection on the heterogeneity of the students learning English at the tertiary level in Algerian institutions (the case of Constantine 1 University). This favours the random selection of the sample in the study and ensures a high degree of representativeness, and leaves no need to use a table of random numbers. This means that no other variable, such as age, sex, etc., than the participants' need affects the learners' responses and choices of the elements in the questionnaire. This means that the analysis of questionnaire is based only on the learners' needs rather than on other variables which may affect their responses. The participants profile includes also the participants' status and level of English at school (before the university). The responses of participants indicate that they have a good level of English which is their third language (before university). As a matter of fact, English has always been a foreign language (second foreign) in the Algerian educational system from primary to tertiary level.

Phase 2: General and Learning Needs

The Needs Analysis Questionnaire revealed that communication and interaction with native speakers are what the learners want to achieve from learning English as a Foreign Language. The students' choices of the language skills varied. The analysis also showed that speaking is more preferred as a medium compared to reading and writing (figure 13).

Considering the participants' current and future level of English, the participants' responses indicate the following:

The participants' level of English language at the present time in the following activities: comprehension when reading, vocabulary, understanding other speakers, understanding radio or TV programmes and accuracy when writing is **GOOD**, whereas the participants' level of English in 'fluency' and 'confidence in speaking and accuracy when speaking' is **AVERAGE**. The participants want that their future level of English language in the six English activities, reading comprehension, fluency and confidence in speaking,

speaking accuracy, vocabulary, comprehension, understanding radio or TV programmes, and accuracy when writing would be **EXCELLENT**.

The analysis of the questionnaire also revealed that the students want to be able to interact in English and understand native speakers rather than being able to write correctly and read books and documents in English. This indicates clearly that the students of the present study need English for communication purposes.

Phase 3: Language skills and teaching materials preferences

The students' choices of the language skills of language varied. The analysis revealed that speaking and listening are more preferred as skills compared to reading and writing (figure 17); that is to say, the students need to improve their speaking fluency and their listening comprehension more than improving their writing and reading skills (figure 17).

The questionnaire results also indicate that the course syllabus preferred by students seems to be a useful one that incorporates tasks and activities covering the four language skills with a particular emphasis on speaking and listening. The course material required by students includes a set of exercises which engage learners in communication and which contribute to the improvement of their language proficiency by focusing on the development of communicative ability. The preferred activities deduced from the students' responses are as follows:

- a. **Writing Activities:** Between formal and informal communication, the students prefer writing personal letters, short daily notes and SMSs more than taking notes and writing reports.
- b. **Speaking Activities:** Students need to improve their speaking skill in the following language situations: Shopping, other people's countries, customs and culture, ordering and buying food and drink, using the telephone, holiday trips and making plans and

social arrangements. Other language situations like jobs and works, health and fitness and describing families are considered as just interesting enough by the students.

- c. **Listening Activities:** Students prefer improving their listening skill when engaging in the following language situations: understanding native speakers, telephone calls and TV programmes more than listening to lectures and academic reports.
- d. **Reading Activities:** Students prefer reading news papers , social magazines and short stories better than educational books and academic reports. The students' preferred activities showed that they seek for communication and interaction in English as a foreign language

Phase 4: Learning environment and habits

Regarding the area of learning environment and habits, the students' responses specify that they prefer a learner- centred classroom where teachers use a variety of student groupings to encourage communication in the target language among them. Students need an environment arranged in a manner that allows them to work together in pairs or groups and where the teacher can move around to facilitate conversations among students language (figures 39, 40,41,42,43,44,45,46 &47).

V.6.3 Academic Purposes vs. Communication Purposes: Learners' Needs

The following table shows the students' choice between learning English for academic purposes or for communication ones with a particular reference to what scholars and experts have said about both types of purposes. Seven needs are selected for the interpretation as the most important features analysed in the questionnaire.

Needs' Areas	English for Academic Purposes	English for Communication Purposes	Learners' Needs
<i>Present and Future Needs in English & Long Term Learning Goals</i>	<p>Academic(language for education)</p> <p>Learners are not learning the English language for the sake of it, but because they need, or will need, to use English in their professional or academic lives (Gillett, 2011)</p>	<p>Communication and interaction in English language</p> <p>Now that language is communication, it naturally follows that the goal of language instruction is to equip the learners with the ability to use the language for communication, namely, communicative competence. (Liu, 2003)</p>	<p>Communication and interaction and getting in touch with native speakers are the learners' what they want to achieve from learning English as a Foreign Language. (Figures 12 & 15)</p> <p>To be able to communicate in English, both spoken and written (Figures 16 & 48)</p>
<i>Language Skills</i>	<p>It is within EAP that writing really rises in importance and focus, and arguably becomes the main skill on which a student's success depends. (Rogers, 2012)</p> <p>In academic contexts, reading is considered the dominant means for learning new information and gaining access to alternative explanations and interpretations. Also, reading plays a primary role in independent learning whether the goal is performing better on academic tasks, learning more about a subject matter, or improving language abilities (Grabe, 2001).</p>	<p>speaking and listening are considered to be the essential skills of communication in real life</p> <p>Effective Communication reflects the accountability of speaker and listener. (Baker& Westrup,2003)</p>	<p>Students are in a dire need to speak in English rather than write and read (Figures 14 & 17)</p>
<i>Language Skills and Teaching Materials Preferences</i>	<p>EAP may constitute of teaching specific skills such as reading texts, writing reports, taking notes and so forth for students at the tertiary-level institution.</p>	<p>A variety of games, roles plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support</p>	<p>The course material required by students includes a range of exercise types which engage learners in</p>

<p><i>Wanted Level of English Language in the Future & Preferences for English Language Activities</i></p>	<p>(a) Listening to lectures and taking notes (i.e. quickly). (b) Reading and taking notes (i.e. more leisurely); reading quickly for information; skimming for the gist of content or an argument. (c) Writing (constructing a paragraph, a good essay or report). (d) Oral skills, such as seminar strategies (giving short talks or presentations, stating a point of view, asking questions for clarification, etc. (Jordan.1997)</p>	<p>Communicative classes. The use of “authentic” “real-life” materials in the communicative classroom might include language based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can be built. (Richards & Rodger 2001)</p>	<p>communication and which contribute to the improvement of their language proficiency by focusing on the development of communicative ability. (Figures 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 & 38)</p>
<p><i>Learning Environment and habits</i></p>	<p>While EFL teachers typically aim to keep the classroom as learner-centred as possible, the EAP classroom is invariably more teacher-centred and subject-centred. Where the EFL teacher works to elicit ideas and activate language, the EAP teacher is required to transmit a certain amount of objective information to learners to help prepare them for academic life. (Allison 1996)</p>	<p>Communicative Classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams, such as groups or pairs, to complete activities..... In foreign language learning environments, students work cooperatively on a language-learning task or collaboratively by achieving the goal through communicative use of the target language. (Richards & Rodger 2001)</p>	<p>Students prefer a learner-centred classroom where teachers use a variety of student groupings to encourage target language communication among them. Students need an environment arranged in a manner that allows students to work together in pairs or groups and where the teacher can move around to facilitate conversations among students language. (Figures 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47 & 48)</p>

Table 51: Academic Purposes vs. Communication Purposes: Learners’ Needs

Table 51 indicates that the type of purposes needed and preferred by students is ‘learning English for communication’, which means they need English for communication and interaction. This confirms the first research hypothesis which is that “students have the type of English learning needs which favours the communicative perspective, i.e. they need English for communication and interaction”

V.6.4 Most Consistent Approach with the Needs of the Learners

The present study has been driven by a need to investigate the teaching of pragmatics at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1. The study recommends the design of a satisfactory pragmatics course for LMD students at the department through the introduction of pragmatics instruction and communicative activities. Therefore, we have undergone a needs assessment in order to determine the students’ needs that would permit the identification of an appropriate approach which fits their preferences and abilities better and that would lead to a new syllabus. This syllabus would deal with language use theoretically and practically in order to develop the students’ pragmatic awareness and communicative competence. Conducting a needs assessment in the present study helped in interpreting the students’ needs in an appropriate approach suiting the kind of learning desired by them.

Over the last four decades or so, teaching and learning English as foreign language have been influenced by two major approaches: 1) the traditional skills-based approach, also known as the ‘direct’ and ‘formal’ instructional approach, and (2) the communicative language referred to as the ‘indirect’ and ‘informal’ learning approach.

Nunan (1988) made a distinction between traditional approaches and communicative approaches.

	TRADITIONAL APPROACHES	COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES
<i>Focus in learning</i>	Language as a structured system of grammatical patterns.	Language as communication.
<i>How language items are selected</i>	On linguistic criteria alone.	On the basis of what language items the learner needs to know in order to get things done.
<i>How language items are sequenced</i>	Determined on linguistic grounds.	Determined on other grounds, with the emphasis on content, meaning and interest.
<i>Degree of coverage</i>	The ‘whole picture’ of language structure by systematic linear progression.	In any particular phase, only what the learner needs and sees as important.
<i>View of language</i>	As a unified entity with fixed grammatical patterns and a core of basic words.	The variety of language is accepted, and seen as determined by the character of particular communicative contexts.
<i>Type of language used</i>	Formal and bookish.	Genuine everyday language is emphasized.
<i>What is regarded as a criterion of success</i>	Have students produce formally correct sentences.	Have students communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in.
<i>Which language skills are emphasized</i>	Reading and writing.	Spoken interactions are regarded as at least as important as reading and writing.
<i>Teacher/student roles</i>	Teacher-centered.	Student-centered.
<i>Attitude toward Errors</i>	Incorrect utterances are seen as deviations from the norms of standard grammar.	Partially correct and incomplete utterances are seen as such rather than just “wrong”.
<i>Similarity/dissimilarity to natural language learning</i>	Reverses the natural language learning process by concentrating on the form of utterances rather than on content.	Resembles the natural language learning process in that the content of the utterance is emphasized rather than the form.

Table 52: Differences between Traditional and Communicative Approach (Nunan, 1988, P.52)

The elements of the communicative approach in Nunan’s distinction (1988) match the students’ needs in the present study, particularly, in ‘*Focus in learning*’, ‘*View of language*’, ‘*Type of language used*’, ‘*What is regarded as a criterion of success*’, ‘*Which language skills are emphasized*’ and ‘*Teacher/student roles*’. Besides those teaching and learning areas, the learners’ needs are considered very important in the language elements to be

covered in the syllabus. The content & methodology match the learners' needs in the communicative approach (Nunan, 1999).

It goes without saying that the current traditional methods of teaching English as a foreign language at the University of Constantine 1 failed to guarantee the achievement of learners' needs (being communicatively competent). And thus, there is an urgent need to shift towards an approach which focuses on developing learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative proficiency.

In the light of the analysis and evaluation of the needs of 1st, 2nd and 3rd year graduate students of English at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1, the communicative approach would be the most appropriate approach. This approach:

- 1) Meets the students' needs
- 2) Serves as a basis for planning a syllabus that aims at developing the students' communicative competence.
- 3) Supports the communicative aspects of language by providing the appropriate tools, training and environment to the teaching of English as foreign language in the Algerian context.

As far as the present study is concerned, needs analysis was conducted in order to support the assumption that learners need English for communication and interaction, and thus have the type of English learning needs which favours the communicative perspective. Confirming the first hypothesis of the present research ensures the effectiveness of the whole investigation which deals with the reconsideration of teaching pragmatics by introducing explicit pragmatic instruction and communicative activities. According to Hutchinson and Waters, "We would still maintain that any course should be based on an analysis of learners' need". (1987,

p. 53). Certainly, needs analysis is conducted based on the assumption that it is part of the planning instructional materials) that takes place as a part of the development of a course.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the first research tool with which this study is conducted; it has covered the information regarding the research participants, their language learning needs. The data has been analysed, findings have been interpreted and conclusions have been drawn. The idea was to investigate the language learning needs of the students and suggest an approach. The hypothesis was that students have the type of English learning needs that are in line with the communicative perspective i.e. they need English for communication and interaction. The analysis of data collected through the questionnaire has clearly indicated that the students need English for communication and interaction and thus the first hypothesis was confirmed.

Chapter VI

Experiment and Correlated Data Analysis

Introduction

This chapter will introduce the main study and describe the instruments of data collection, scoring procedure, tests design and administration and the statistical methods for analysing both quantitative and qualitative data. It will be devoted to cover the procedures followed to test hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 based on the design and analysis of two major research instruments: the experiment and pragmatic language tests. Lastly, the findings of the main study will be presented and explained.

VI.1 Experiment

The purpose of the experiment is to test the impact of explicit pragmatic instruction on the speech act awareness of advanced EFL students. More specifically, the goal is to answer the following research question:

- To what extent does the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect student's awareness of speech acts?

Experimental design is very useful in addressing evaluation questions about the effectiveness and impact of treatment.

VI.1.1 Pilot Study

Before administration, the tests were piloted on 7 subjects, relatively close to the profile of the target population, in order to fine-tune the questions, instructions, and procedures. In the pilot study, besides completing the surveys, the subjects were also asked to make comments on the clarity of the activities and situations, and to give comments about the process of completing the surveys, as well. The data collected were then analysed both as preliminary results and to assess the design of the surveys for the sake of revising the final version of the surveys. As some of the respondents gave several alternative answers to one

and the same question, or gave hypothetical answers that would either describe or explain what they would do instead of saying the apologies and requests themselves, the instructions of the survey needed some changes in order to make it clearer to the respondents what they had to do. Originally the instructions were that the subjects had to say how they would apologize and make requests in each of the situations.

The pilot study carried out before the main one indicates that the research methodology design was acceptable. The methods used for the investigation were suitable. Participants' selection, instructional materials and procedures were appropriate. The tests' standard answering protocol and scoring were accurate enough to present the results. The pilot study shows the feasibility of this research in terms of research questions and hypotheses and the research methods used to investigate those questions. That is to say, each research tool was the appropriate one to examine the research questions and hypotheses. Moreover, detailed information of the whole study including the participants' profile, research procedures and data collection were provided (see chapter IV). The results and discussion will be shown in the following sections.

VI.1.2 Description of the Tests

Many EFL students are learning English to acquire communicative competence. It is important to test how effectively students can accomplish their communicative ability of native speakers as non-native speakers. Testing, thus, has direct relation with teaching and enables us to know whether examinees understand what they have learned and how well they can apply them outside the classroom.

VI.1.2.1 Speech Act Awareness Test

The test of speech act is composed of two sections: the first section assesses the students' speech act comprehension and the second section measures the students' speech act

performance. This test is, then, a combination of two tests [speech act comprehension test + speech act production test].

VI.1.2.1.1 Speech Act Comprehension Test

In the present study, the speech act comprehension test is designed to measure the students' speech act understanding and identification of the different types of speech acts, utterances meaning, interlocutors' intention and contextual features.

Most of the previous studies carried out in the field of interlanguage pragmatics (see chapter II section 8) regard speech act awareness as a language constituent which refers only to the speech act realization (using DCT). This means that pragmatic comprehension was neglected completely though it is the most important component of the speech act awareness which can be taught and explained in an academic context. Together with speech act theory, speech act comprehension is that part of pragmatics which can be taught through the courses of pragmatics. The present study covers this component by designing a set of activities which aim at measuring the students' speech act awareness at the level of understanding and interpreting the appropriate meaning of speech acts used in different communicative situations, which is an important part of the pragmatic language proficiency construct.

The speech act comprehension test attempts to investigate whether students are able to:

- ✓ comprehend the linguistic meaning pragmatically
- ✓ understand the utterance based on the contextual features that denote the speaker's intentions;
- ✓ understand the interlocutor's thoughts;

- ✓ distinguish speech act meanings, such as the difference between a declaration and a directive;
- ✓ furnish appropriate answers;
- ✓ and recognize the speaker's sense of humour and sadness state.

In this study, there is an attempt to analyse the performances of third year English learners on a speech act task that focus on the comprehension of different utterances used in social and communicative situations. A pre and post speech act comprehension tests are used. They include different activities that measure the students' understanding and inference of the different types of speech acts, contextual information and their performance of the appropriate speech acts in specific communicative social situations.

VI.1.2.1.2 Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT)

The WDCT is used to assess the participants' meta-pragmatic knowledge and to determine whether the participants are able to perform the speech they could produce in face-to-face interaction. It is used to provide information on:

1. The learners' pragmatic knowledge of the contextual features and linguistic forms by which requests and apologies can be realized.
2. The learners' meta-pragmatic knowledge of the social factors under which particular linguistic choices are appropriate.
3. The learners' attitudes regarding the use of requests and apologies in order to measure changes in knowledge and attitudes that might be the result of instruction. All this information is fundamental in determining how FL pragmatic knowledge develops.

The selection and construction of dialogues took into account the following important issues:

1. The social and contextual features of the communicative acts i.e. internal contextual features (absolute ranking of imposition of the speech act); absolute ranking of the imposition

is described by Hudson as “the potential imposition of carrying out the speech act, in terms of the expenditure of goods and /or services by the hearer, or the obligation of the speaker to perform the act” (2001, p. 284).

2. The relative power of the speaker over the hearer “the degree to which the speaker can impose his or her will on the hearer due to a higher rank within an organization, professional status, or the hearer's need to have a particular duty or job performed” (Hudson, 1995, p.4).

3. The social distance of the speaker and the hearer (interlocutors) which is the degree to which people are willing to accept and associate with those having different social status.

Consequently, The DCT collected data were examined through determining the main social variables that the participants should take into account when performing the appropriate speech acts (requests/apologies). The main variables are: social power (P), social distance (D) and degree of imposition (R).

A significant difference in pre-test to post-test scores would be interpreted as development in the area of interlanguage pragmatics (IL). Essentially, a DCT functions to create a scenario to which a participant or informant must respond. Typically, there is an initial statement outlining the context within which a dialogue occurs. Next, the first line of the dialogue is presented, and the participant is, then, given an opportunity to respond in the way that s/he believes most appropriate.

VI.1.2.1.2.1 Description of the DCT Situations vis-à-vis the Social Variables

The DCT situations in speech act awareness tests take the form of role-plays resembling real-life situations, and, therefore, the data obtained can be regarded as such. In addition, written role-plays were preferred to spoken ones because they allow focusing on the language in which we are interested and are, therefore, time-saving in terms of collection.

The following is a detailed description of the request and apology situations in the DCT according to the social variables. The description covers all the social variables based on which the research determines the level of appropriateness when correcting the test papers. (+D = High Social Distance, -D = Low Social Distance). The situations used for the pre and post-test were either created for the present study or modified from previous research studies (Özyildirim, 2010, http://turkoloji.cu.edu.tr/DILBILIM/isil_ozyildirim_apology_forms.pdf)

VI.1.2.1.2.1.1 Description of the Requests Situations (Pre-test)

Situations	Requester	Requestee	Social Power	Social Distance	Imposition Ranking
<i>S1: Asking a student (stranger) to turn the music down</i>	Student	Student	S=H	+ SD	High
<i>S2: asking a friend to lend some money</i>	Speaker	Friend	S=H	-SD	Low
<i>S3: Asking a brother to close the window</i>	Student	Brother	S<H	-SD	High
<i>S4: Asking a salesman to allow exchanging a shirt</i>	Customer	Salesman	S<H	+SD	Low
<i>S5: Asking a waiter for the menu</i>	Customer	Waiter	S>H	+SD	High
<i>S6: Asking the president of a university to spare one or two hours for an interview</i>	Student	President of University	S<H	+SD	Low

Table 53: Description of the Requests Situations (pre-test) according to the Social Variables

VI.1.2.1.2.1.2 Description of the Requests Situations (Post-test)

Situations	Requester	Requestee	Social Power	Social Distance	Imposition Ranking
<i>S1: Asking a student (stranger) to lend a pen</i>	Students	Students	S=H	+SD	Low
<i>S2: Borrowing a friend's notes</i>	Speaker	Friend (classmate)	S=H	-SD	High
<i>S3: Asking a professor to give you more time to write a paper.</i>	Student	Professor	S<H	+SD	Low
<i>S4: Asking a stranger to take a photo of you</i>	Speaker	Stranger	S<H	+SD	Low
<i>S5: Borrowing a classmate's camera</i>	Student	Student	S=H	-SD	High
<i>S6: Asking a friend to post a letter for you</i>	Speaker	friend	S=H	-SD	High

Table 54: Description of the Requests Situations (post-test) Variables

VI.1.2.1.2.1.3 Description of the Apology Situations (Pre-test)

Situations	Speaker	Hearer	Social Power	Social Distance	Severity	Obligation
<i>S1: Stepping on a woman's foot in a bus</i>	Speaker	Woman	S=H	+SD	Low	High
<i>S2: Being late to a meeting and friend waiting standing in a crowded street</i>	Speaker	Friend	S=H	-SD	High	High
<i>S3: Denting slightly the car in front</i>	Speaker	Driver	S<H	+SD	Low	High
<i>S4: Forgetting to buy the book that child asked for</i>	Father	Son	S>H	-SD	High	High
<i>S5: Telling a friend with a nice new hair-cut style that he looks so bad</i>	Speaker	Friend	S=H	-SD	Low	Low
<i>S6: Failing to give a professor his book back because not finishing reading it</i>	Student	Professor	S<H	+SD	High	High

Table 55: Description of the Apology Situations (Pre-test)

VI.1.2.1.2.1.4 Description of the Apology Situations (post-test)

Situations	Speaker	Hearer	Social Power	Social Distance	Severity	Obligation
<i>S1: Giving a party at home one night with the volume of the music too high</i>	Speaker	Neighbour	S<H	+SD	High	Low
<i>S2: Getting late to a business meeting with the boss</i>	Speaker	Boss	S<H	+SD	High	High
<i>S3: Waking soundly sleeping sister with noise in the kitchen</i>	Speaker	Sister	S=H	-SD	Low	High
<i>S4: Promising to lend brother's textbooks to friend without his consent</i>	Speaker	Brother	S=H	-SD	High	High
<i>S5: Bumping into a stranger and causing him to drop his/her books</i>	Speaker	stranger	S<H	+SD	High	High
<i>S6: Hitting neighbour's car while parking</i>	Speaker	Neighbour	S<H	+SD	High	High

Table 56: Description of the Apology Situations (Post-test)

VI.1.3 Speech Act Awareness Pre/Post Test Format and Scoring

Both tests include various activities which aim at assessing the students' knowledge and understanding of performative verbs which allow them to expand the kinds of direct speech acts they can make. They attempt to measure the students' ability to bring speech acts into their conversational contexts. Each test is divided into two sections: speech act comprehension and speech act realization. The Activities used for the pre and post-test were either created by us or modified from the following source:

<http://www.sfu.ca/~jeffpell/Ling324/ass5fjp.pdf>.

VI.1.3.1 Speech Act Awareness Pre-test Format and Scoring

Activities	Body	Scoring
<i>Activity1 Performative Verbs</i>	<i>1/Which of the following verbs is a performative? 2/Choose two verbs to write two sentences that can be uttered performatively?</i>	<i>part 1: 0.5 Part 2: 0.5</i>
<i>Activity2 Identifying Similar Meaning</i>	<i>For each of the following illocutionary acts, give two non-synonymous sentences that could be used to perform them. 1/Reminding someone to pick up the cleaning. 2/Offering to help someone wash the dishes 3/Asking someone to hurry in the shower</i>	<i>Part 1:0.5 Part 2:0.5 Part 3:0.5</i>
<i>Activity3 Identifying illocutionary meaning and their context of use</i>	<i>For each of the following sentences, name at least two illocutionary acts their utterance could perform and specify the conditions in which they may be uttered. 1/Assignments will be collected next week 2/I'm cold 3/Is Linda there? 4/Our dinner reservations are at seven o'clock. 5/You may want to review chapter 3 before Friday's test.</i>	<i>Part 1:0.5 Part 2:0.5 Part 3:0.5 Part 4:0.5 Part 5:0.5</i>
<i>Activity 4 Understanding illocutinary acts</i>	<i>Choose two illocutionary acts and give two different locutions which would express each act. 1/ Congratulate 2/ Request 3/ Apologize 4/ Warn 5/ Thank</i>	<i>Part 1:0.5 Part 2:0.5</i>
<i>Activity5 Identifying the speech acts</i>	<i>For each of the utterances below: 1/ Name the speech act performed 2/ Decide whether the speech act is direct or indirect.</i>	<i>Part 1: 1 Part 2: 1</i>

Table 57:Speech Act Awareness Pre-test Format and Scoring

Situations

Apologies

1/ You stepped on the foot of a woman in a bus while you were trying to sit down, but it was impossible to avoid this as the woman extended her legs too much towards the front seat. Still, you felt the need to apologize.

- 2/ You were half an hour late to a meeting with a friend and made him/her wait standing in a crowded street.*
- 3/ You were late at stopping at the red lights while you were driving in heavy traffic and dented slightly the car in front of you. The driver of the car came out angrily.*
- 4/ When you came back home in the evening, your child asked whether you bought the book he/she wanted for his/her homework. You suddenly remembered that you had forgotten all about it and felt very sorry about this situation.*
- 5/ You promised to help your sister/brother study for an exam but you did not have the time to do so.*
- 6/ You promised a professor that the following day you would give him back his book, but you failed to do so because you did not finish reading it.*

Requests

- 1/ You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You do not know the student, but you decide to ask him/her to turn the music down. What would you say?*
- 2/ You are at a record store with your best friend. There's a CD you really want to buy, but you do not have any money. How do you ask your friend to lend you some money?*
- 3/ You are studying at home. Your younger brother opens the window and the cold wind blows right in your face and bothers you. You want to ask him to close it. What would you say?*
- 4/ You have bought a shirt from a store for your father, but he does not like its colour. You decide to go to the store and ask the salesman to allow you to exchange the shirt. What would you say?*
- 5/ Your friend and you go to a restaurant to eat. You want to order and need to ask the waiter for the menu. What would you say?*
- ' You are writing your thesis and need to interview the president of a university whom you do not know. You know the president is very busy, but still want to ask her/him to spare one or two hours for your interview. What would you say?*

VI.1.3.2 Speech Act Awareness Post-test Format and Scoring

Activities	Body	Scoring
<i>Activity1 performative verbs and types of speech acts</i>	<i>1/For each of the following speech acts, indicate the type of speech act: 2/Tick the boxes to indicate which of the above speech acts contains a performative verb.</i>	<i>part 1: 3 Part 2: 1</i>
<i>Activity2 Identifying Similar Meaning</i>	<i>For each of the utterances below: 1/Name the speech act performed. 2/ Decide whether the speech act is direct or indirect.</i>	<i>Part 1: 1.75 Part 2: 1.75</i>
<i>Activity3 Understanding illocutinary acts</i>	<i>Choose two illocutionary acts and give two different locutions which would express each act. 1/ Congratulate 2/ Request 3/ Apologize 4/ Warn 5/ Thank</i>	<i>Part 1:0.5 Part 2:0.5</i>
<i>Activity 4 Identifying the speech acts</i>	<i>Fill in the blanks with the corresponding speech act.</i>	<i>Part 1: 0.25 Part 2: 0.25</i>

Table 58: Speech Act Awareness Post-test Format and Scoring

Situations

Apologies

- 1/ While you were giving a party at home one night, one of your neighbours knocked at the door and shouted in a very angry manner that the volume of the music was too high.*
- 2/ You were half an hour late to a business meeting with your boss and made him/her wait for you.*
- 3/ Your sister was sleeping soundly and you woke her up with the noise you were making in the kitchen.*
- 4/ You promised to lend your friend your brother's textbooks without his consent although you knew he would not allow it.*
- 5/ You bumped into a stranger in the way to class causing him to drop the books he/she was carrying*

6/ You hit your neighbour's car while parking.

Requests

1/ For registration you need to fill out a couple of forms. You search all of your pockets and cannot find a pen. You want to ask another student who is sitting next to you in the department hall. What would you say?

2/You were absent during last Friday's history class that you are enrolled in. So, you decide to borrow your friend's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you the notes?

3/ You have a paper due in one of your classes next week. However, you will be very busy that week and don't have any time to write it. You go to your professor's office to ask for more time to write the paper. How do you request an extension?

4/ A friend of yours from out of the town is paying you a visit. Both of you would like to take a photo together to remember this happy moment. You decide to ask a nearby person, who is a stranger to you, to do this favour. What would you say?

5/ You want to go out for a trip and you need your classmate's camera. What would you say to ask him/her to lend it to you?

6/ You want your friend to post a letter for you because you are sick. How would you ask him/her to do so?

VI.1.3.3 Scoring Scale for Rating DCT Situations

In each situation of the DCT, the first line of the dialogue is presented, and the participant is then given an opportunity to respond in the way that s/he believes most appropriate. The participants' responses to the DCT items were rated on the basis of a four-point scale (Jernigan 2007, p12):

<i>Description</i>	<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Score (pts)</i>
Response is completely acceptable pragmatically given the context, not noticeably affected by any errors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ approaches native-like usage minor grammatical errors do not interfere with pragmatic effectiveness ✓ totally appropriate to the situation 	1
Response is generally appropriate given the context, but contains one or more pragmalinguistic flaws that affect the intended meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ near native-like usage minor grammatical errors may distract from pragmatic effectiveness ✓ may be too brief or too long ✓ somewhat appropriate to the situation 	0.75
Response is generally unacceptable pragmatically in this context, though perhaps not in all contexts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ generally non-native-like usage noticeable errors distract from pragmatic effectiveness at times ✓ too brief or too long ✓ generally inappropriate to the situation 	0.5
Response is unacceptable pragmatically given the context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ clearly non-native-like usage numerous errors distract from pragmatic effectiveness throughout ✓ clearly inappropriate to the situation 	0.25

Table 59: Scoring Scale for Rating DCT Situations

Each situation in the DCT is scored out of 2. The scores change from one situation to another according to the formulas of request and apology provided by the students.

VI.1.3.3.1 Administration of Instruction and Tests

The main study was conducted in the second semester of the third year of English at the University of Constantine 1. Speech act awareness pre-test and post-test were used in order to investigate if there was any improvement in the student's pragmatic and speech acts awareness (comprehension and realization) after receiving the explicit instruction. Both pre-

test and post-test were administered to the respondents in class in the presence of their instructor. After the pre-test and the post-test, the papers were marked by two teachers of pragmatics according to the procedures stated above. It was assumed that the subjects in EG and IG had a similar level in the scores but also there were no differences in the pre-test as shown in the following section.

VI.1.3.3.1.1. Instruction Planning and Delivery

The study was conducted during the second semester of the academic year 2011/2012 within two groups enrolled in the option of Applied Linguistics. As a matter of fact, what the researcher had planned initially was to conduct the experiment within two groups of first year Master students (during the academic year 2010/2011). The choice of first year Master students had been based on the fact that they had been studying pragmatics in their third year which means that they were familiar with the subject. The plan was not achieved since after the researcher administered the pre-test, the teacher of pragmatics of the two groups did not allow her to give them the explicit pragmatic instructions. As agreed on with the teacher, the instructions were supposed to be delivered within the last 30 minutes of each pragmatic lecture. Because of this constraint and because the researcher was not qualified enough to teach at the Master level, the only option left for the researcher was to change the sample to BA third year students. The instructions were delivered for 10 weeks as follows:

Week 1	<p style="text-align: center;">SPEECH ACTS (Revision) DOING THINGS WITH LANGUAGE <i>‘Speech act theory’</i> <i>Locutionary act</i> <i>Illocutionary act</i> <i>Perlocutionary act</i></p>
Week 2	<p style="text-align: center;">PERFORMATIVE VERBS <i>Classification of Speech acts, according to the functions performed</i></p>
Week 3	<p style="text-align: center;">Making Requests</p> <p>Stage 1</p>

	<p><i>What the word 'request' means is discussed with the students.</i></p> <p>Stage 2 <i>The grammar of a request is discussed with students.</i></p> <p>Stage 3 <i>The frequent situations in which requests are made are discussed with students:</i> Asking people to perform an action Asking people not to do something Additional Requests</p>
<p>Week 4</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Activities Making Requests</p> <p>Activity 1:</p> <p>a) Choose the correct alternative for the following:</p> <p>1).....I borrow a pen, please? Will Could Would</p> <p>2) 'I've forgotten my wallet.' - Don't worry. Ilend you some money if you like. will could would</p> <p>3)..... you like to come to the cinema tonight? Can Could Would</p> <p>4) Do you mind..... the window pleas closed to close closing</p> <p>5) Would you mindme with these boxes? helping help if helping</p> <p>6)..... I left early tomorrow morning? I have a doctor's appointment. Could Dou you mind if Would you mind if</p> <p>b) Choose the most appropriate answer for expressing the idea specified in parentheses.</p> <p>1) I speak to Mr. Smith, please? (Formal polite request) Can May Would Would you mind if</p> <p>2) you open the window, please? It's hot in here. (Polite request) Could Couldn't Won't Wouldn't</p> <p>3).....buying two loaves of bread way home? (Polite request) Could you Will you Would you Would you mind</p> <p>4) Would you mind if I your dictionary for an hour or so? (Polite request) Borrowed will borrow would borrow</p> <p>5) Mrs. Redding, lend me two hundred dollars till next week, please? (Polite request) can't you could you do you mind would you mind</p> <p>6) Would you mind here? I have a headache. (Polite request) not to smoke not smoke no smoking not smoking</p> <p>Exercise 2: Identifying Request Directness Levels Individually or in small groups, identify the following requests as either direct, indirect, or neither:</p> <p>1. Turn off the television now! It's time for breakfast.</p>

	<p>2. I'm asking you to turn off the television, son.</p> <p>3. I would like to ask you to turn off the television now and come to breakfast.</p> <p>4. You have to turn off that television, son.</p> <p>5. I really wish you'd turn off that television.</p> <p>6. How about turning off the television now?</p> <p>7. Son, your breakfast is getting cold. Why don't you come into the kitchen and eat?</p> <p>8. I don't want you to be late for school, son. Could you turn off the television now?</p> <p>9. I don't know why I even bother to make breakfast for you.</p> <p>10. I know that can't be the television I hear.</p> <p>11. You know how I feel about watching television in the morning.</p> <p>12. I'm sorry I forgot to make breakfast today.</p> <p>13. Oh! What's on television?</p> <p>14. That's my favorite program, son.</p>
<p>Week 5</p>	<p>Activity 3: read each statement and identify the situation in which it is used?</p> <p>1. 'please get back to work, don't waste your time or mine' an employee speaking to a boss a boss speaking to an employee one employee speaking to another</p> <p>2. 'I wish you'd stop doing that' a police officer speaking to a dangerous driver a student speaking to a teacher who often forgets the student's name a person speaking to a friend who often criticizes himself</p> <p>3. 'Let's wash our hands, we wash our hands before eating' a parent speaking to a child a doctor speaking to a patient a hostess speaking to a dinner guest.</p> <p>Activity 4: What are the appropriate expressions for requesting or asking for permission for these responses?</p> <p>1)..... 'Not at all. Here you are. But I need it to do some translating next period. Give it back to me by that time.'</p> <p>2)..... 'I'm sorry. The wind is too cold for me.'</p> <p>3)..... 'No, I wouldn't mind. I'm leaving to bed now.'</p> <p>4)..... 'Sorry. I have a sore throat. I can't speak up more.'</p> <p>5)..... 'No, I don't mind. Please turn it off when you leave.'</p>
<p>Week 6</p>	<p>Exercises 5: Collecting Requests</p> <p>a) Identify the characteristics of the request situation. Include the following information:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speaker and addressee gender, age, and any other relevant information • Speaker's social distance: close friend, acquaintance, stranger, etc. • Speaker's dominance: superior, equal, subordinate, etc. • Degree of imposition: involved in the request—high, medium, low

- Situation: what the speaker and addressee are involved in doing
 - Setting: where the speaker and addressee are
- b) Analyze whether the request is direct or indirect.**

Situation 1

- You are visiting a friend and it is very hot in her apartment.
- You say to her: “.....”

Situation 2

- You are studying for an exam and your sister is playing her stereo very loudly.
- You say to her: “.....”

Situation 3

- There is no food in your house for dinner. You have a lot of work to do, so you don't have time to go to the grocery store.
- You say to your servant: “.....”

Note: You may want to use the following form to organize your data:

Request : _____
 Speaker: _____
 Addressee: _____
 Speaker's social distance: _____ Speaker's dominance: _____
 Imposition: _____ Situation: _____
 Setting: _____

INSTRUCTION SHEET FOR STUDENTS

Read the descriptions of the situations carefully and act accordingly. It is important that you understand the situations completely; therefore, you are encouraged to ask questions if you find something you do not understand.

Scenario 1

Your flatmate is typing a three-page essay for her/ his lecturer. Suddenly her/ his computer stops working and s/he asks you to lend her/ him your computer. You are chatting online with your boyfriend, who is in another town at the moment. Today is your boyfriend's birthday. But if it is urgent and your friend is not going to use the computer for an hour, you are willing to lend it to her/ him. You two are good friends

Scenario 2

Your friend was sick and missed an important class last week. You attended the class and took careful notes. So s/he approaches you and asks if you mind lending her/ him your notes. You are working on your assignments right now and need the notes at hand. However, if s/he can make a quick photocopy and give you back within an hour, you are willing to lend her/ him the notes. You two are good friends.

Week 7

	<p style="text-align: center;">Scenario 3</p> <p>You are a university lecturer. A student in your class is applying for a scholarship and wants you to write her/ him a reference letter. You have been teaching this student for quite a few semesters and know s/he is one of your best students. You would be happy to write her/ him a reference letter but you are having some deadlines at the moment. So if it is not urgent, you will write it next week.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Scenario 4</p> <p>You are a university lecturer and supervising a student’s thesis. The student that you are supervising is supposed to submit a chapter draft to you when you two have a meeting today. However, s/he was sick and not able to complete it. At the meeting s/he asks for an extension. You can give her/ him as much time as s/he needs. However, you are taking a sabbatical leave in two weeks’ time. If s/he can give you the chapter within the next week, you can read it and give your comments before you go. If not, it may take a longer while for you to get back to her/ him because you have other commitments.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Scenario 5</p> <p>You are a university lecturer. You have an appointment with your student at 10:30 a.m. Friday this week. S/he wants to show you her/ his revised thesis. You are her/ his supervisor. However, today s/he drops in your office and asks if you can move the appointment to another date or time because s/he has an urgent class. You are fully booked until two weeks after but if the student can come after your office hour tomorrow, you are willing to see her/ him then.</p>
<p>Week 8</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Apologies</p> <p>Reasons for using apologies Apologizing for Interrupting, Disturbing, Approaching, or Leaving Someone Expressing an Apology for Doing Something Embarrassing Expressing an Apology for Saying Something Wrong Formal Apologies Accepting an Apology Five possible strategies for making an apology</p>
<p>Week 9</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Activities Apologies</p> <p>Activity 1: <i>Complete these apology sentences with the correct word.</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Please me for interrupting you. I didn’t realise you were on the phone.” 2. “I can’t believe I forgot your birthday. Please don’t beat me.” 3. “I’m soI’m late. There was so much traffic!” 4. “Oh no, how of me! Do you have a cloth so I can clean it?” 5. “We for the train delay. We will get you to your destination as soon as possible.” 6. “I’mbut you are sitting in my seat.” <p>Activity 2:</p>

Each of the following questions will provide a description of a situation. *Following the situation there are a number of responses. Please choose two acceptable responses.*

1) An applicant for a job has been waiting for quite some time, although s/he had been called in for an appointment for an interview. The manager finally comes out and says:

- a. Sorry to have kept you waiting.
- b. Sorry I'm late. I hope I didn't keep you waiting too long.
- c. Have you been waiting long?
- d. I was unavoidably held up in a meeting.
- e. I'm sorry. I was help up.

2) A young man/woman bumps into you at the supermarket and some of your groceries spill onto the floor.

He/she turns to you and says:

- a. Sorry.
- b. I'm sorry.
- c. Terribly sorry.
- d. I'm terribly sorry. Did I hurt you?
- e. I'm really sorry. Here, let me help you.
- f. I'm sorry but you were in my way and I couldn't help bumping into you.
- g. Are you all right?
- h. Please forgive me.

3) A student forgets to return a book to the professor:

- a. I'm terribly sorry. I forgot it.
- b. Oh, damn! I forgot it.
- c. Sorry, I forgot.
- d. Oh, I'm very sorry. I completely forgot.
- e. I'm really sorry but I forgot to bring it.

Apologizing Situations

Week 10	Situation	Apology Needed? (Yes/No)	Person who made the mistake?	Person who receives the apology?
	Dana broke her friend's toy			
	I was walking around the corner and accidentally bumped into Chris			
	Paul is late to school			
	I was walking around the corner and accidentally bumped into Chris			

<p>Who should apologize?</p> <p>SITUATION 1</p> <p>Student A: <i>You work in an office. Your boss gives you too much work, and you sometimes don't have enough time to do it well. Recently, you have had some problems at home, so you aren't able to think clearly at work. Yesterday, during a big meeting, your boss angrily criticized a report you wrote and said you were doing a terrible job. You felt very embarrassed.</i></p> <p>Student B: <i>You are the manager at an office. One of your workers, Student A, is not doing a good job these days. You give this person the same amount of work as everyone else, but he/she often does it badly and always makes excuses. This person's last report was very bad and caused problems between you and your boss. When you mentioned this nicely at a meeting, Student A seemed very Angry with you.</i></p> <p>WHO SHOULD APOLOGIZE?</p> <p>Student A [<input type="checkbox"/>] Student B [<input type="checkbox"/>] Both Student A and Student B [<input type="checkbox"/>]</p>
<p>SITUATION 2</p> <p>Student A: <i>You made a cool sculpture and gave it to your friend, Student B, for his/her birthday. Your friend said, "Oh, I love it!" But a few weeks later, you visited another friend's house and saw the sculpture there. So Student B didn't keep the sculpture he /she gave it to another person! The next time you saw Student B, you mentioned this and said you were upset. Now your friend is angry with you.</i></p> <p>Student B: <i>Your friend, Student A, gave you a weird sculpture for your birthday. You didn't like it, but you didn't want to say anything bad about it. You have another friend who likes unusual objects, so you gave the sculpture to him. When Student A learned about this, he / she was very angry and said terrible things to you.</i></p> <p>WHO SHOULD APOLOGIZE?</p> <p>Student A [<input type="checkbox"/>] Student B [<input type="checkbox"/>] Both Student A and Student B [<input type="checkbox"/>]</p>

Table 60: Instruction Planning and Delivery

VI.1.3.3.2 Comparison between the Pre-test and the Post-test within EG and IG

The general teaching effects in the present study were reflected by the comparison of the mean scores between the pre-test and the post-test and the distribution frequency of improvement among the students after instruction. The comparison of the mean scores is used to test Hypothesis 2, to find out if there is a significant difference between the two tests, Furthermore, the distribution of improvement can find out to what extent the students

improved after instruction. To find out the general teaching effects, the scores of pre-test and post-test within the two groups were compared respectively. Therefore, an independent t-test was used as a statistical method to obtain the results for the second research question and to test Hypothesis 2.

VI.1.3.3.3 Statistical Analysis of the t-test¹

The t-test, also known as the student t test, is a test of significance that can be used to determine whether a significant difference exists or does not exist between two groups.

When a t-test is used to determine whether the two sample means of two independent samples come from the same population, we use the statistical test called the t-test for Independent Means. This is the most common t-test used in science. The formula for calculating “t” depends upon whether the two samples being compared have equal variances.

The formula for the t-test is a ratio. The top part of the ratio is just the difference between the two means or averages. The bottom part is a measure of the variability or dispersion of the scores. The following is the formula for the t-test:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C}{\sqrt{\frac{\text{var}_T}{n_T} + \frac{\text{var}_C}{n_C}}}$$

The top part of the formula is easy to compute. For that purpose, we just find the difference between the means. The bottom part is called the **standard error of the difference**.

¹The statistical (mathematical) information about calculations (t test & correlation) in this section and section VI.3.1 are provided by the (Web Center for Social Research Methods <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/>)

The t-value will be positive if the first mean is larger than the second one and negative if it is smaller. Once you compute the t-value you have to look it up in a table of significance to test whether the ratio is large enough to say that the difference between the groups is not likely to have been an accidental finding. To test the significance, you need to set a risk level (called the **alpha level**). In most social research, the 'rule of thumb' is to set the alpha level at .05. This means that five times out of a hundred you would find a statistically significant difference between the means even if there was none (i.e., by 'chance'). You also need to determine the degrees of freedom (df) for the test. In the t-test, the degree of freedom is the sum of the persons in both groups minus 2. Given the alpha level, the df, and the t-value, you can look the t-value up in a standard table of significance (available as an appendix in the back of most statistics texts) to determine whether the t-value is large enough to be significant. If it is, you can conclude that the difference between the means for the two groups is different (even given the variability). Fortunately, statistical computer programs routinely print the significance test results and save you the trouble of looking them up in a table.

VI.1.3.3.3.1 A Comparison of the Pre-test in Speech Act Awareness between EG and IG

The following are the scores of the students of both control and experimental group in the post-test.

Speech Act Awareness Pre-test Scores

Control Group	Experimental Group
7.25	7.75
5	5
6	6
4.75	4.25
9.25	9.25
10.25	10.25
12	12
14	14
2.5	2.5

2.75	2.25
4	4.75
6.75	6.75
8	8.5
8.25	8.25
8.5	8.25
7.25	7.5
8	8.25
8	8.25
6.5	6.5
5	5
12.25	12.25
14.25	14.25
11	11.5
8.75	8.75
11.5	11.5
7.25	7.25
10.5	10.5
12.25	12.25
4.25	4.25
6.25	6.25
6	6.25
14.5	14.5
13.5	13.5
13.25	13.25
	7.25
	5.25
	6.5
	4.75

The following table shows the results obtained from the data collected and multiple trials of the experiment.

Data			
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Total
N	38	34	72
ΣX	289.5	315.25	604.75
ΣX^2	2851.25	3033.4375	5884.6875
SS	386.2426	418.1069	805.2075
Mean	8.5147	8.2961	8.3993
t obtained			
Mean₁—Mean₂	T		Df
0.2187	0.27		70
Level of Significance			
		Confidence Intervals	
	Observed	0.95	0.99
Mean₁	8.5147	± 1.191	± 1.6018
Mean₂	8.2961	± 1.107	± 1.4833
Mean₁—Mean₂ [Assuming unequal sample variances.]	0.2187	± 1.594	± 2.1227

Table 61: Summary of Data for Both Groups (Pre-test)

From the table above, one can see that the scores for the pre-test of the speech act awareness were not significantly different before the treatment; the t obtained is 0.27 ($t= 0.27$) $p=0.46$. The result of the t test showed that there is no significant difference between the two groups before the treatment. It was hoped that this balance might guarantee a valid result for the post-test.

VI.1.3.3.2 Comparison of the Post-test in Speech Act Awareness between EG and IG

The following are the scores of the students of both control and experimental group in the post-test

Speech Act Awareness Post-test Scores

Control Group	Experimental Group
8.25	14.25
6.25	13.5
5.75	11.25
5.5	9.75
8.25	7.75
11	10
13	11.5
13	13.5
3.75	14.25
3.5	13.5
3.5	15.25
5.5	14.25
9.5	12.5
8.25	13.75
7.25	14.75
4	12.5
7.5	12.25
9	12.5
7.75	14.5
6.25	14.5
11.5	10.75
13.5	9.75
12.5	7.5
9.25	6.75

12.75	15.25
8	15.25
9.5	15.25
11	14.75
6.25	12.75
5	13.75
5.5	14.75
13.25	6.75
12	12.25
12.25	14.25
	12.5
	12.5
	8.5
	12.5

The following table shows the results obtained from the data collected and multiple trials of the experiment.

Data			
	Control Group	Experimental Group	Total
N	38	34	72
ΣX	471.75	289	760.75
ΣX^2	6084.9375	2787.625	8872.5625
SS	228.4095	331.125	834.4991
Mean	12.4145	8.5	10.566
t obtained			
Mean₁—Mean₂	T		df
3.9145	5.87		62
Level of significance			
		Confidence Intervals	

	Observed	0.95	0.99
Mean₁	12.4145	\pm	\pm
		0.8182	1.0963
Mean₂	8.5	\pm	\pm
		1.1028	1.4831
Mean₁-Mean₂ [Assuming unequal sample variances.]	3.9145	\pm	\pm
		1.3529	1.7993

Table 62: Summary of Data for Both Groups (post-test)

The post-test was used to measure the participants’ speech act awareness after the treatment. The mean scores of the IG and EG for the post-test were compared through an independent t-test. It was found that the EG gained a higher mean score in the post-test than the IG did. The statistical analysis showed there was a significant difference between the two means in the independent t test the t obtained is 5.79 t-test (**t=5.79**) and (**p=0.01 ≤0.05**). This indicated that explicit instruction helped facilitate the participants’ speech act comprehension and speech act production of request and apology.

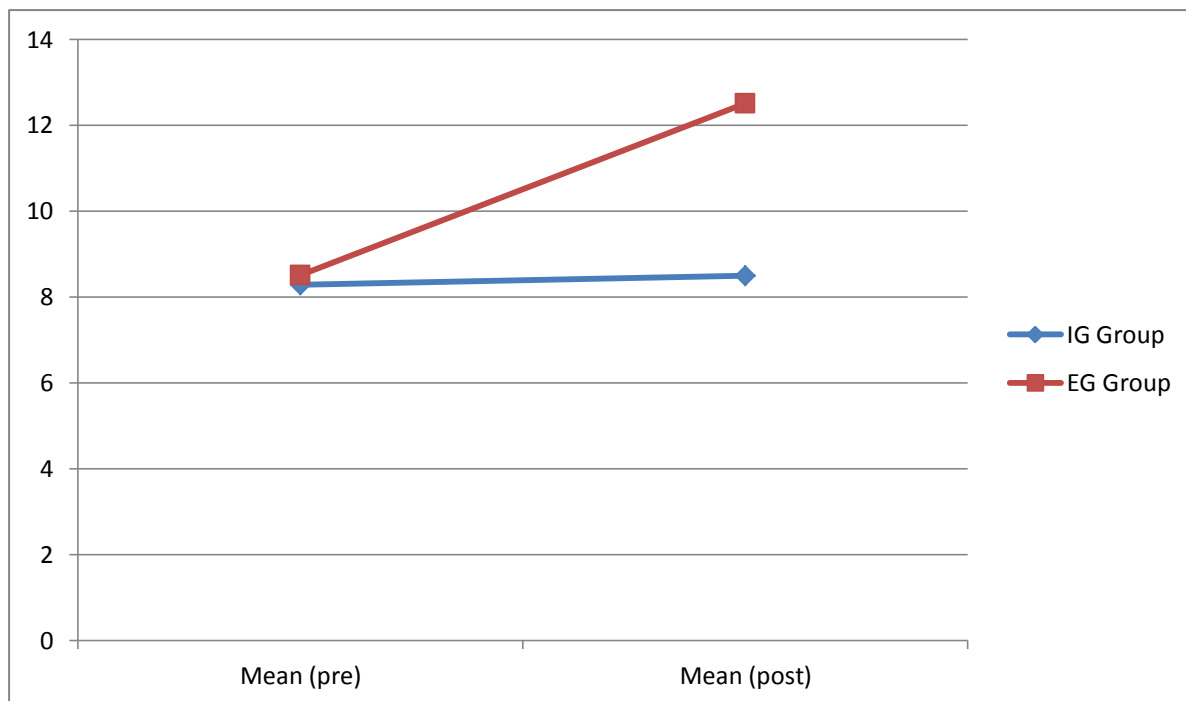


Figure 49: Difference in the Mean of both (Experimental and Control Group)

The results from the pre- test/post data analysis indicates that explicit pragmatic instruction helped students develop their pragmatic awareness since it made significant contributions to the learners' speech act comprehension and realization.

The two groups' pre-test /post-test experiment in the present study was designed to answer the second research question which is: 'To what extent does the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect student's awareness of speech acts?'; the results stated above indicate that the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect to a great extent the students' speech act awareness (comprehension+ realization). The results also revealed that explicit instruction increases the students' pragmatic awareness and this fully supports the second hypothesis of the research; 'If students are more exposed to explicit pragmatic instruction and communicative tasks, they will develop better their speech act awareness.'

By confirming the second hypothesis, the research provides a strong argument for the necessity of changing or improving the way of teaching pragmatics at the department of

Letters and English Language. That is to say, pragmatics classrooms should provide pragmatics courses which help in raising the students' awareness about the pragmatic input (contextual features, implicatures, social variables and communicative acts) and engage them in the authentic activities which can help them use the language appropriately i.e. taking into consideration the cultural and social aspects of the TL when involved in the act of communication. The findings of the experiment show the crucial role that pragmatic explicit instruction can play in developing FLL appropriate use of language (successful communication) in EFL settings.

VI.2 Pragmatic Language Tests Data Analysis

This part of the study is devoted to the analysis of the correlated data in order to evaluate whether there is a relationship between speech act awareness and communicative competence, and between pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech act awareness. Correlation analysis is a statistical method used to describe the extent of relationship between two variables .

A descriptive analysis of the quantitative data is discussed based on the following research questions:

- ✓ To what extent does students' speech act awareness improve their communicative competence i.e. their ability to communicate appropriately and effectively in different communicative situations?
- ✓ To what extent does students' pragmatic awareness (i.e. their pragmatic knowledge) affect their speech act awareness?

VI.2.1 Description of the Tests

A pragmatic and communicative language test is critical for evaluating adequate communication and for understanding the conversations in different contexts. It is pragmatic

<p><i>appropriate utterance to complete the dialogues.</i></p>	<p><i>-Tourist: Thank you.</i> <i>-Policeman: You're welcome</i></p>	
<p><i>Activity2</i> <i>Supply the missing parts in the following dialogue between a father and his son Peter who is asking for a loan:</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Peter: Good morning dad. Would you mind doing me a favour?</i> • <i>Father:.....?</i> • <i>Peter: I am wondering if you could lend me fifty pounds.</i> • <i>Father: Why do you need this money?</i> • <i>Peter:..... and I want to buy her a present.</i> • <i>Father: But I gave you some money last week,</i> • <i>Peter: No, but I don't have enough money to buy a good present.</i> • <i>Father:.....</i> • <i>Peter: Thanks, dad.</i> 	<p><i>Part 1: 01</i></p> <p><i>Part 2: 01</i></p> <p><i>Part 3: 01</i></p> <p><i>Part 4: 01</i></p>
<p><i>Activity3</i> <i>Write where these mini-dialogues take place and who the speakers are:</i></p>	<p><i>Dialogue 1:</i> <i>A: How old is this mummy?</i> <i>B: it's about 4000 years old.</i> <i>The speakers:.....</i> <i>The place:.....</i></p> <p><i>Dialogue 2</i> <i>A: How would you like to pay for this suit, sir?</i> <i>B: By credit card.</i> <i>A: Well; Shall I put it in a bag for you, sir?</i> <i>B: Yes, please.</i></p>	<p><i>Part 1:01</i></p>

	<i>The place:.....</i> <i>The speakers:.....</i>	<i>Part 2:01</i>
Activity 4 <i>Fill in the blank</i>	<p>1. <i>The.....who replaced the main actor broke his leg.</i></p> <p>2. <i>In Algeria, people the 1st of November.</i></p> <p>3. <i>I wouldn't have reached this stage if she..... me.</i></p> <p>4. <i>..... the bad weather, the match was played.</i></p> <p>5. <i>She is..... . She speaks both Arabic and English.</i></p> <p>6. <i>The village was when the river flooded.</i></p> <p>7. <i>I could see the general outline, but the black board was not close enough to see the..... .</i></p> <p>8. <i>The breadwinner is a person who.....</i></p>	<p><i>Part 1: 01</i></p> <p><i>Part 2: 01</i></p> <p><i>Part 3 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 4 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 5 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 6 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 7 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 8 :01</i></p>
Activity 5 <i>Rewrite the following sentences using the word(s) in brackets to give the same meaning</i>	<p>1.<i>It's midnight; you shouldn't be doing your homework now. (supposed)</i></p> <p>2. <i>If he had done his homework, his teacher would have given him a present. (should)</i></p> <p>3. <i>People considered it unnecessary to educate women.(was)</i></p> <p>4. <i>What is your opinion of this book? (think)</i></p>	<p><i>Part 1 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 2 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 3 :01</i></p> <p><i>Part 4 :01</i></p>

Table 63: Communicative Competence Test Format and Scoring

VI.2.1.2 Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge

The pragmatic theoretical knowledge pre-test and post-test include questions about the definition of the main issues and theoretical concepts in pragmatics such as speech acts, Grice maxims, locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, perlocutionary acts and illocutionary force.

VI.2.1.2.1 Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge Pre/Post -test Format and Scoring

Both tests include various activities which aim at assessing the student's theoretical knowledge of the subject of pragmatics which reflects the way it is taught at the university.

VI.2.1.2.1.1. Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge Pre -test Format and Scoring

Questions	Body	Scoring (points)
<p>Question1 Choose the appropriate definition of pragmatics.</p>	<p>1/ <i>The study of natural language understanding, and specifically the study of how context influences the interpretation of meanings. It is a subfield of linguistics.</i></p> <p>2/ <i>The branch of semiotics that deals with the relationship between signs, especially words and other elements of language, and their users.</i></p> <p>3/ <i>The study of the use of natural language in communication; more generally, the study of the relations between languages and their users. It is sometimes defined in contrast with linguistics.</i></p>	<p>part 1: 02</p> <p>Part 2: 02</p> <p>Part3: 02</p>
<p>Question 2 Choose the appropriate definition of speech acts</p>	<p>Speech acts are:</p> <p>1/ <i>Utterances that constitute some acts in addition to the mere act of uttering.</i></p> <p>2/ <i>Acts or types of acts capable of being performed in different contexts.</i></p> <p>3/ <i>Acts that a speaker performs when making an utterance.</i></p>	<p>Part 1: 02</p> <p>Part 2: 02</p> <p>Part 3: 02</p>

<p>Question 3</p> <p><i>Match each of the following maxims with its corresponding definition</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Where one tries to be as</i></p> <p><i>The Maxim of Quantity</i> <i>informative as one possible can and as much information as it is needed</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>where one tries to be truthful, and does not give</i></p> <p><i>The Maxim of Relation</i> <i>information that is false or that is not supported by evidence</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>where one tries to be relevant,</i></p> <p><i>The Maxim of Manner</i> <i>and says things that are pertinent to</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>when one tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and</i></p> <p><i>The Maxim of Quality</i> <i>where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity</i></p>	<p>Part 1: 02</p> <p>Part 2: 02</p> <p>Part 3: 02</p> <p>Part 4: 02</p>

Table 64: Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge Pre -test Format and Scoring

VI.2.1.2.1.2 Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge Post -Test Format and Scoring

<i>Items</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>True/ False options scoring</i>
1	<i>Pragmatics is the study of meaning of words, phrases and full sentences</i>	01
2	<i>Pragmatics is concerned with the meanings that words convey</i>	01

	<i>when they are used</i>	
3	<i>Pragmatics examines the devices used by language users in order to express the desired meaning and how it is perceived.</i>	02
4	<i>Pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and entities in the world; that is, how words literally connect to things</i>	01
5	<i>Pragmatics is the study of other things that might influence meaning besides the semantic system.</i>	01
6	<i>Cooperation principle: means that to communicate requires continuous and determined cooperation</i>	01
7	<i>Grice maxims: are quantity, quality, relevance, and manner</i>	01
8	<i>The maxim of quantity: It is where one tries to be truthful and does not give information that is false or that is not supported by evidence</i>	01
9	<i>The maxim of quality: It is where one tries to be as informative as one possibly can and gives as much information as is needed, and no more.</i>	01
10	<i>The maxim of relation: where one tries to be relevant, and says things that are pertinent to the discussion.</i>	01
11	<i>The maxim of manner: It is when one tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.</i>	01
12	<i>Performative verbs: are verbs that when uttered actually make the meaning of the word/verb happen</i>	01

13	<i>A speech act: is an act that a speaker performs when making an utterance.</i>	01
14	<i>Locutionary act: saying something (the locution) with a certain meaning in the traditional sense. This may not constitute a speech act.</i>	01
15	<i>Illocutionary act: the performance of an act in saying something.</i>	01
16	<i>The illocutionary force: is the speaker's intent. A true 'speech act'</i>	02
17	<i>Perlocutionary acts: Speech acts that have an effect on the feelings, thoughts or actions of either the speaker or the listener. In other words, they seek to change minds.</i>	02

Table 65: Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge Post -Test Format and Scoring

VI.3.1 Statistical Analysis: Pearson's Correlation

The analysis of the data involved both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics of the mean, median, standard deviation, and possible score ranges were calculated for all variable constructs used for inference. Inferential statistics allowed for the formulations of conclusions beyond the data. Inferential statistics is a measure not only to test hypotheses, but also to draw conclusions, generalizations, or inferences about a larger population from a sample of participants from that population. The statistical technique used for testing hypotheses 3 and 4 was the Pearson's correlation. Pearson's correlation is a common measure of the correlation between two variables and is very widely used to measure the strength of linear dependence among variables. A table of results reflecting the correlations between the tests scores was produced.

The correlation is one of the most common and most useful statistics. A correlation is a single number that describes the degree of relationship between two variables.

VI.3.1.1 Interpretation of Data

This section will discuss the data in relation to hypotheses 3 and 4. To test these hypotheses, the principals' total pragmatic knowledge test, and communicative proficiency scores were correlated with their total speech act awareness test scores. The following tables indicate the results of correlation (r) or the degree of the relationship between the pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech act awareness of both IG and EG groups in the pre-tests and post-tests. The main result of a correlation is called the correlation coefficient (or ' r '). It ranges from -1.0 to +1.0. The closer r is to +1 or -1 the more closely the two variables are related. If r is close to 0, it means there is no relationship between the variables. If r is positive, it means that as one variable gets larger the other gets larger. If r is negative it means that as one gets larger, the other gets smaller (often called an "inverse" correlation).

While correlation coefficients are normally reported as $r =$ (a value between -1 and +1), squaring them makes them easier to understand. The square of the coefficient (or r squared) is equal to the percent of the variation in one variable that is related to the variation in the other. After squaring r , the decimal point should be ignored. An r of .5 means 25% of the variation is related (.5 squared = .25). An r value of .7 means 49% of the variance is related (.7 squared = .49).

A correlation report can also show a second result of each test - statistical significance. In this case, the significance level will tell you how likely it is that the correlations reported may be due to chance in the form of random sampling error. If you are working with small sample sizes, choose a report format that includes the significance level. This format also reports the sample size.

A key thing to remember when working with correlations is never to assume a correlation means that a change in one variable causes a change in another. The following is the data statistics analysis.

VI.3.1.2 Correlation coefficient (r) of Students Scores for Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness Pre-test (IG)

Correlation is a statistical formula used to describe the extent of the relationship between two variables. In what follows the pairs of scores of the participants (2 scores for each participant) in the pretests and post tests are listed in a tables and presented in a scatter plots. Each two variables are observed to show how they are linearly related.

Considering the correlation between pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech acts awareness tests scores of the control group (IG), here are the pragmatic knowledge test scores and the speech act awareness test scores of 34 of the students in the (IG)

Students(IG)	Pragmatic Knowledge	Speech Act Awareness
S1	18	7.25
S2	16	5
S3	14	6
S4	14	4.75
S5	16	9.25
S6	16	10.25
S7	12	12
S8	16	14
S9	14	2.5
S10	12	2.75
S11	12	4
S12	16	6.75
S13	12	8
S14	14	8.25
S15	14	8.5
S16	12	7.25

S17	18	8
S18	16	8
S19	18	6.5
S20	16	5
S21	16	12.25
S22	14	14.25
S23	14	11
S24	16	8.75
S25	12	11.5
S26	18	7.25
S27	16	10.5
S28	18	12.25
S29	16	4.25
S30	16	6.25
S31	14	6
S32	14	14.5
S33	18	13.5
S34	16	13.25

The results of the data analysis of (IG) pre-tests scores are presented as follows:

(IG) Group Pre- test			
Variables	Mean	SD	Variance
Pragmatic Knowledge	15.11	1.95	3.80
Speech Act Awareness	8.51	3.37	11.36

Table 66: Summary of Data of the (IG) Group Pre-tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

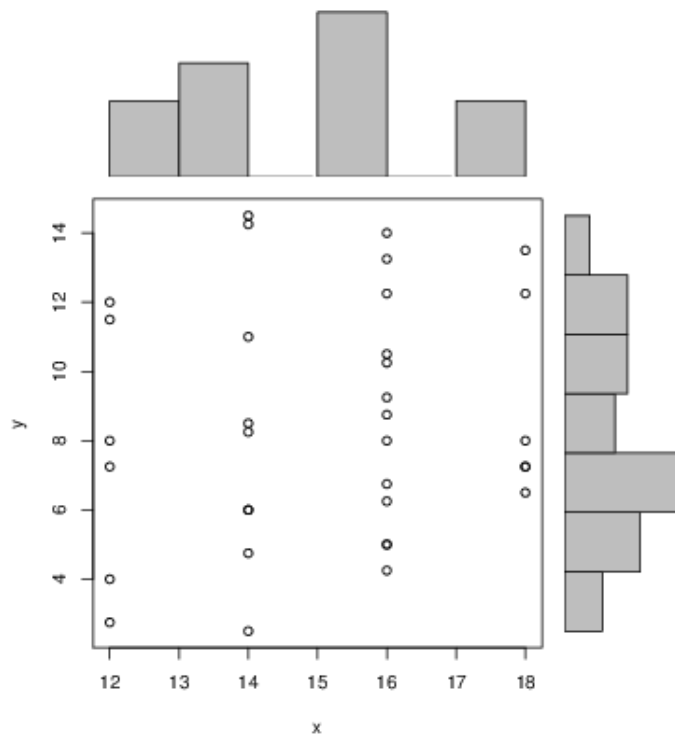


Figure 50: Scatter Plot for (IG) Pragmatic Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness Correlation in the Pre-test

VI.3.1.2.1 Calculating the Correlation

The formula for the correlation is:

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

N = number of pairs of scores

$\sum XY$ = sum of the products of paired scores

$\sum X$ = sum of X scores

$\sum Y$ = sum of Y scores

$\sum sX^2$ = sum of squared X scores

$\sum Y^2$ = sum of squared Y scores

Students' (IG) Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	18	7.25	130.5	324	52.5625
S2	16	5	80	256	25
S3	14	6	84	196	36
S4	14	4.75	66.5	196	22.5625
S5	16	9.25	148	256	85.5625
S6	16	10.25	164	256	105.0625
S7	12	12	144	144	144
S8	16	14	224	256	196
S9	14	2.5	35	196	6.25
S10	12	2.75	33	144	7.5625
S11	12	4	48	144	16
S12	16	6.75	108	256	45.5625
S13	12	8	96	144	64
S14	14	8.25	115.5	196	68.0625
S15	14	8.5	119	196	72.25
S16	12	7.25	87	144	52.5625
S17	18	8	144	324	64
S18	16	8	128	256	64
S19	18	6.5	117	324	42.25
S20	16	5	80	256	25
S21	16	12.25	196	256	150.0625
S22	14	14.25	199.5	196	203.0625
S23	14	11	154	196	121
S24	16	8.75	140	256	76.5625
S25	12	11.5	138	144	132.25
S26	18	7.25	130.5	324	52.5625
S27	16	10.5	168	256	110.25
S28	18	12.25	220.5	324	150.0625
S29	16	4.25	68	256	18.0625
S30	16	6.25	100	256	39.0625
S31	14	6	84	196	36
S32	14	14.5	203	196	210.25
S33	18	13.5	243	324	182.25
S34	16	13.25	212	256	175.5625
Total	514	289.5	4408	7900	2851.25

Table 67: Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech act Awareness of the (IG) Group Pre-test

The first three columns are the same as in the table above. The next three columns are simple computations based on pragmatic and speech act scores data. The bottom row consists of the sum of each column. This is all the information required to compute the correlation. Here are the values from the bottom row of the table (where N is 34 people) as they are related to the symbols in the formula:

$$\begin{aligned}
 N &= 34 \\
 \sum XY &= 4408 \\
 \sum 4X &= 514 \\
 \sum 1Y &= 289.5 \\
 \sum X^2 &= 7900 \\
 \sum Y^2 &= 2851.25
 \end{aligned}$$

$$r = \frac{34(4408) - (514)(289.5)}{\sqrt{[34(7900) - (514 * 514)][34(2851.25) - (289.5 * 289.5)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{149872 - 148803}{\sqrt{[268600 - 264196][96942.5 - 83810.25]}}$$

$$r = \frac{1069}{\sqrt{[4404][13132.25]}}$$

$$r = \frac{1069}{\sqrt{57834429}}$$

$$r = \frac{1069}{7604.895068}$$

$$r = 0.14$$

In statistics, the correlation coefficient r measures the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables on a scatter plot. So, the correlation for the 34 cases of the (IG) in the pre-test is 0.14, which is a very weak positive relationship. This indicates that there is a very weak relationship between the students' pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

VI.3.1.3 Correlation coefficient (r) (IG) of Students Scores of Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech act Awareness Post-test

The results of the data analysis of (IG) post-tests scores are presented as follows:

(IG) Group Post tests			
Variables	Mean	St Dev	Variance
Pragmatic Knowledge	14.82	3.19	10.20
Speech Act Awareness	8.5	3.12	9.73

Table 68: Summary of the Data of the (IG) Group Post tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

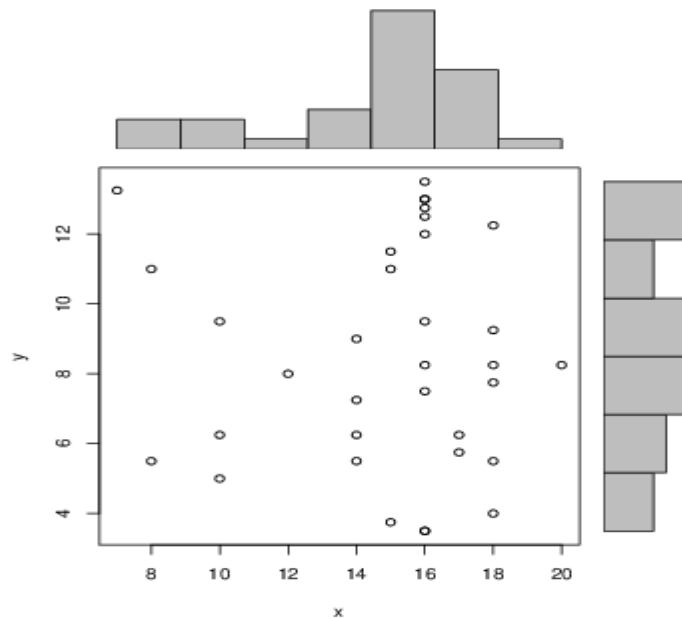


Figure 51: Scatter Plot for (IG) Pragmatic Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness Correlation in the Post-test

VI.3.1.3.1 Calculating the Correlation

Students (IG) Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	20	8.25	165	400	68.0625
S2	14	6.25	87.5	196	39.0625
S3	17	5.75	97.75	289	33.0625
S4	14	5.5	77	196	30.25
S5	16	8.25	132	256	68.0625
S6	15	11	165	225	121
S7	16	13	208	256	169
S8	16	13	208	256	169
S9	15	3.75	56.25	225	14.0625
S10	16	3.5	56	256	12.25
S11	16	3.5	56	256	12.25
S12	18	5.5	99	324	30.25
S13	16	9.5	152	256	90.25
S14	18	8.25	148.5	324	68.0625
S15	14	7.25	101.5	196	52.5625
S16	18	4	72	324	16
S17	16	7.5	120	256	56.25
S18	14	9	126	196	81
S19	18	7.75	139.5	324	60.0625
S20	17	6.25	106.25	289	39.0625
S21	15	11.5	172.5	225	132.25
S22	16	13.5	216	256	182.25
S23	16	12.5	200	256	156.25
S24	18	9.25	166.5	324	85.5625
S25	16	12.75	204	256	162.5625
S26	12	8	96	144	64
S27	10	9.5	95	100	90.25
S28	8	11	88	64	121
S29	10	6.25	62.5	100	39.0625
S30	10	5	50	100	25
S31	8.25	5.5	45.375	68.06	30.25
S32	7	13.25	92.75	49	175.5625
S33	16	12	192	256	144
S34	18	12.25	220.5	324	150.0625
Total	504.25	289	4274.375	7822.0625	2787.625

Table 69: Pragmatic Knowledge and Speech act Awareness of the (IG) Group Post- tests

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

$$N = 34$$

$$\sum XY = 4274.375$$

$$\sum X = 504.25$$

$$\sum Y = 289$$

$$\sum X^2 = 7822.06$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 2787.62$$

$$r = \frac{34(4274.37) - (504.25)(289)}{\sqrt{[34(7822.06) - (504.25 * 504.25)][34(2787.62) - (289 * 289)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{145328.58 - 145728.25}{\sqrt{[265950.04 - 254268.06][94779.08 - 83521]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-399.67}{\sqrt{[11681.98][11258.08]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-399.67}{\sqrt{131516665.4}}$$

$$r = \frac{-399.67}{11468.07}$$

$$r = -0.03$$

The correlation for the 34 cases of the (IG) in the post test is -0.03, which is a very weak negative relationship. This indicates that there is a very weak relationship between the students' pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

VI.3.1.4 Experimental Group Pre-test Correlation between Pragmatic Awareness and Speech Act awareness

The results of the data analysis of (EG) students' pre-test scores are presented as follows:

(EG) Group Pre-test			
Variables	Mean	StDev	Variance
Pragmatic Knowledge	12.86	3.48	12.16
Speech Act Awareness	8.29	3.31	11

Table 70: Summary of Data of the (EG) Group Pre tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

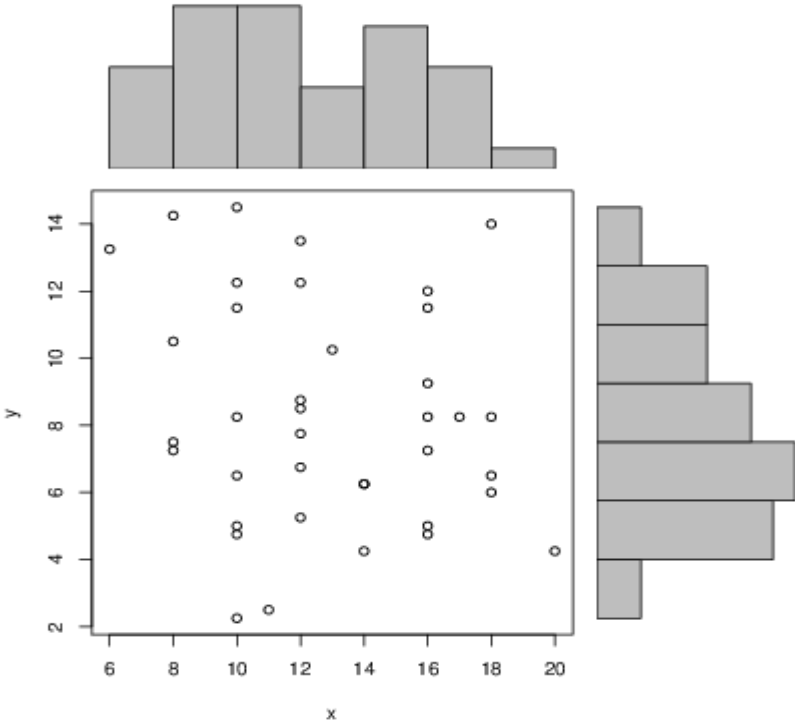


Figure 52: Scatter Plot for (EG) Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness Correlation in the Pre test

VI.3.1.4.1 Calculating the Correlation

Students (EG) Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	12	7.75	93	144	60.0625
S2	16	5	80	256	25
S3	18	6	108	324	36
S4	14	4.25	59.5	196	18.0625
S5	16	9.25	148	256	85.5625
S6	13	10.25	133.25	169	105.0625
S7	16	12	192	256	144
S8	18	14	252	324	196
S9	11	2.5	27.5	121	6.25
S10	10	2.25	22.5	100	5.0625
S11	10	4.75	47.5	100	22.5625
S12	12	6.75	81	144	45.5625
S13	12	8.5	102	144	72.25
S14	16	8.25	132	256	68.0625
S15	17	8.25	140.25	289	68.0625
S16	8	7.5	60	64	56.25
S17	18	8.25	148.5	324	68.0625
S18	10	8.25	82.5	100	68.0625
S19	10	6.5	65	100	42.25
S20	10	5	50	100	25
S21	12	12.25	147	144	150.0625
S22	8	14.25	114	64	203.0625
S23	10	11.5	115	100	132.25
S24	12	8.75	105	144	76.5625
S25	16	11.5	184	256	132.25
S26	16	7.25	116	256	52.5625
S27	8	10.5	84	64	110.25
S28	10	12.25	122.5	100	150.0625
S29	20	4.25	85	400	18.0625
S30	14	6.25	87.5	196	39.0625
S31	14	6.25	87.5	196	39.0625
S32	10	14.5	145	100	210.25
S33	12	13.5	162	144	182.25
S34	6	13.25	79.5	36	175.5625
S35	8	7.25	58	64	52.5625
S36	12	5.25	63	144	27.5625
S37	18	6.5	117	324	42.25
S38	16	4.75	76	256	22.5625
Total	489	315.25	3972.5	6755	3033.4375

Table 71: Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness of the (EG) Group Pre-tests

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

$$N = 38$$

$$\sum XY = 3972.5$$

$$\sum 9X = 489$$

$$\sum Y = 315.25$$

$$\sum X^2 = 6755$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 3033.43$$

$$r = \frac{38(3972.5) - (489)(315.25)}{\sqrt{[38(6755) - (489 * 489)][38(3033.43) - (315.25 * 315.25)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{150955 - 154157.25}{\sqrt{[256690 - 239121][115270.34 - 99382.56]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3202.25}{\sqrt{[17569][15887.78]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3202.25}{\sqrt{279132406.82}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3202.25}{16707.25}$$

$$r = -0.19$$

The correlation for the 38 cases of the (EG) in the pre-test is - 0.19, which is a very weak negative relationship. This indicates that there is a very weak negative relationship between the students’ pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

VI.3.1.5 Experimental Group Post- test Correlation between Pragmatic Theoretical Knowledge and Speech Act awareness

The results of the data analysis of (EG) students’ post test scores are presented as follows:

(EG) Group Post test			
Variables	Mean	StDev	Variance
Pragmatic Knowledge	13.84	2.99	8.97
Speech Act Awareness	12.41	2.45	6.01

Table 72: Summary of Data of the (EG) Group Post-tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

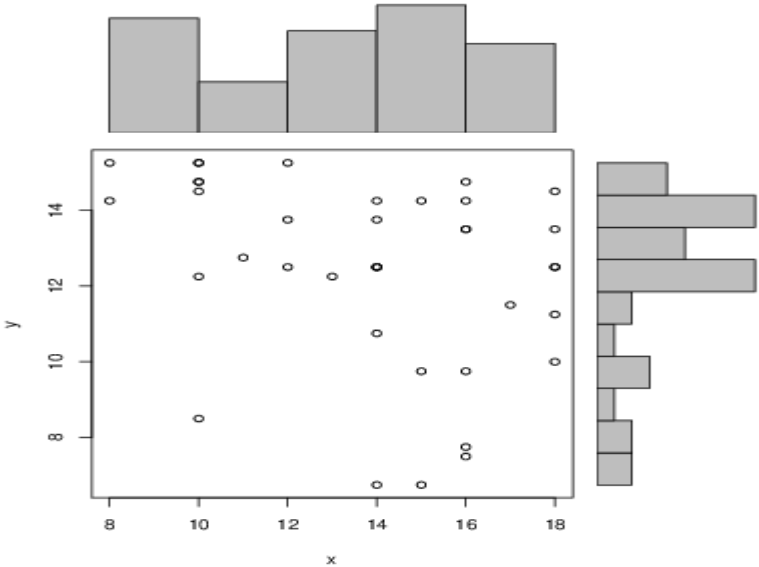


Figure 53: Scatter Plot for (EG) Pragmatic Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness Correlation in the Post-test

VI.3.1.5.1 Calculating the Correlation

Students (IG)Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	15	14.25	213.75	225	203.0625
S2	16	13.5	216	256	182.25
S3	18	11.25	202.5	324	126.5625
S4	15	9.75	146.25	225	95.0625
S5	16	7.75	124	256	60.0625
S6	18	10	180	324	100
S7	17	11.5	195.5	289	132.25
S8	18	13.5	243	324	182.25
S9	14	14.25	199.5	196	203.0625
S10	16	13.5	216	256	182.25
S11	8	15.25	122	64	232.5625
S12	8	14.25	114	64	203.0625
S13	14	12.5	175	196	156.25
S14	14	13.75	192.5	196	189.0625
S15	16	14.75	236	256	217.5625
S16	18	12.5	225	324	156.25
S17	10	12.25	122.5	100	150.0625
S18	18	12.5	225	324	156.25
S19	10	14.5	145	100	210.25
S20	18	14.5	261	324	210.25
S21	14	10.75	150.5	196	115.5625
S22	16	9.75	156	256	95.0625
S23	16	7.5	120	256	56.25
S24	14	6.75	94.5	196	45.5625
S25	12	15.25	183	144	232.5625
S26	10	15.25	152.5	100	232.5625
S27	10	15.25	152.5	100	232.5625
S28	10	14.75	147.5	100	217.5625
S29	11	12.75	140.25	121	162.5625
S30	12	13.75	165	144	189.0625
S31	10	14.75	147.5	100	217.5625
S32	15	6.75	101.25	225	45.5625
S33	13	12.25	159.25	169	150.0625
S34	16	14.25	228	256	203.0625
S35	14	12.5	175	196	156.25
S36	12	12.5	150	144	156.25
S37	10	8.5	85	100	72.25
S38	14	12.5	175	196	156.25
Total	526	471.75	6437.25	7622	6084.9375

Table 73: Pragmatic Knowledge and Speech Act Awareness of the (EG) Group Post-tests

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

$$N = 38$$

$$\sum XY = 6437.25$$

$$\sum 4X = 526$$

$$\sum Y = 471.75$$

$$\sum X^2 = 7622$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 6084.93$$

$$r = \frac{38(6437.25) - (526)(471.75)}{\sqrt{[38(7622) - (526 * 526)][38(6084.93) - (741.75 * 741.75)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{244615.5 - 248140.5}{\sqrt{[289636 - 276676][231227.34 - 550193.06]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3525}{\sqrt{[12960][-318965.72]}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3525}{\sqrt{4133795731.2}}$$

$$r = \frac{-3525}{64294.60}$$

$$r = -0.33$$

The correlation for the 38 cases of the (EG) in the post test is -0.33, which is a very weak negative relationship. This indicates that there is a weak negative relationship between the students’ pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

VI.3.1.6 Control Group Post-test Correlation between Speech Act Awareness and Communicative Competence

The results of the data analysis of (IG) students’ pre-test scores are presented as follows:

(IG) group post-test			
Variables	Mean	StDev	Variance
Speech Act Awareness	8.5	3.12	9.73
Communicative Proficiency	8.14	2.89	8.36

Table 74: Summary of the Data of the (IG) Group Post-tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

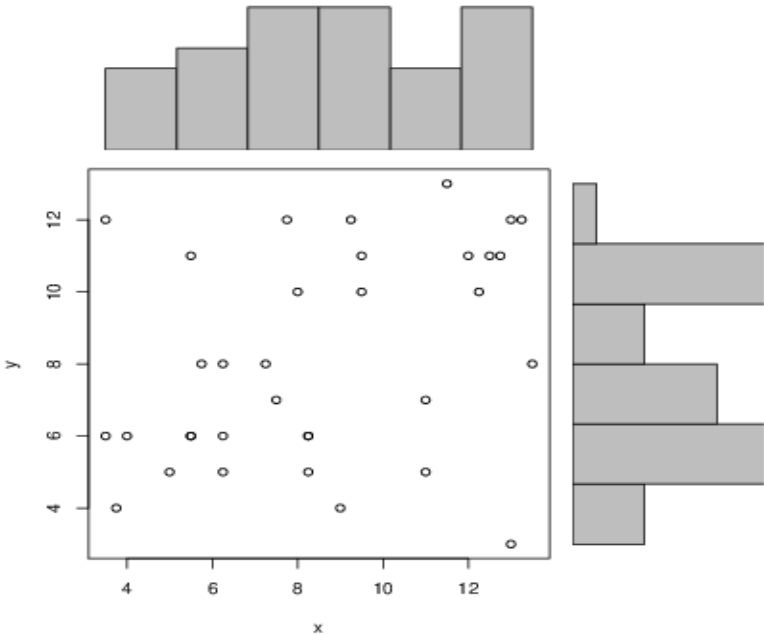


Figure 54: Scatter Plot for (IG) Speech Act Awareness and Communicative Proficiency Correlation in the Post-test

VI.3.1.6.1 Calculating the Correlation

Students (IG) Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	8.25	6	49.5	68.0625	36
S2	6.25	8	50	39.0625	64
S3	5.75	8	46	33.0625	64
S4	5.5	11	60.5	30.25	121
S5	8.25	6	49.5	68.0625	36
S6	11	5	55	121	25
S7	13	3	39	169	9
S8	13	12	156	169	144
S9	3.75	4	15	14.0625	16
S10	3.5	12	42	12.25	144
S11	3.5	6	21	12.25	36
S12	5.5	6	33	30.25	36
S13	9.5	10	95	90.25	100
S14	8.25	5	41.25	68.0625	25
S15	7.25	8	58	52.5625	64
S16	4	6	24	16	36
S17	7.5	7	52.5	56.25	49
S18	9	4	36	81	16
S19	7.75	12	93	60.0625	144
S20	6.25	6	37.5	39.0625	36
S21	11.5	13	149.5	132.25	169
S22	13.5	8	108	182.25	64
S23	12.5	11	137.5	156.25	121
S24	9.25	12	111	85.5625	144
S25	12.75	11	140.25	162.5625	121
S26	8	10	80	64	100
S27	9.5	11	104.5	90.25	121
S28	11	7	77	121	49
S29	6.25	5	31.25	39.0625	25
S30	5	5	25	25	25
S31	5.5	6	33	30.25	36
S32	13.25	12	159	175.5625	144
S33	12	11	132	144	121
S34	12.25	10	122.5	150.0625	100
Total	289	277	2464.25	2787.625	2541

Table 75: Speech Act Awareness and Communicative Proficiency Scores of the (IG) Group Pre-tests

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

$$N = 34$$

$$\sum XY = 2464.25$$

$$\sum X = 289$$

$$\sum Y = 277$$

$$\sum X^2 = 2787.62$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 2541$$

$$r = \frac{34(2464.25) - (289)(277)}{\sqrt{[34(2787.62) - (289 * 289)][34(2541) - (277 * 277)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{83784.5 - 80053}{\sqrt{[94779.08 - 83521][86394 - 76729]}}$$

$$r = \frac{3731.5}{\sqrt{[11258.08][9665]}}$$

$$r = \frac{3731.5}{\sqrt{108809343.2}}$$

$$r = \frac{3731.5}{10431.17}$$

$$r = 0.35$$

The correlation for the 34 cases of the (IG) in the post test is 0.35, which is a positive relationship. This indicates that there is a positive relationship between the students' speech act awareness and their communicative proficiency.

VI.3.1.7 Experimental group Post-test Correlation between Speech Act Awareness and Communicative Competence

The results of the data analysis of (EG) students' post test scores are presented as follows:

(EG) Group Post-test			
Variables	Mean	StDev	Variance
Speech Act Awareness	12.41	2.45	6.01
Communicative Proficiency	11.94	2.56	6.57

Table 76: Summary of Data of the (EG) Group Post tests

The variables correlation is represented through the subsequent scatter plot.

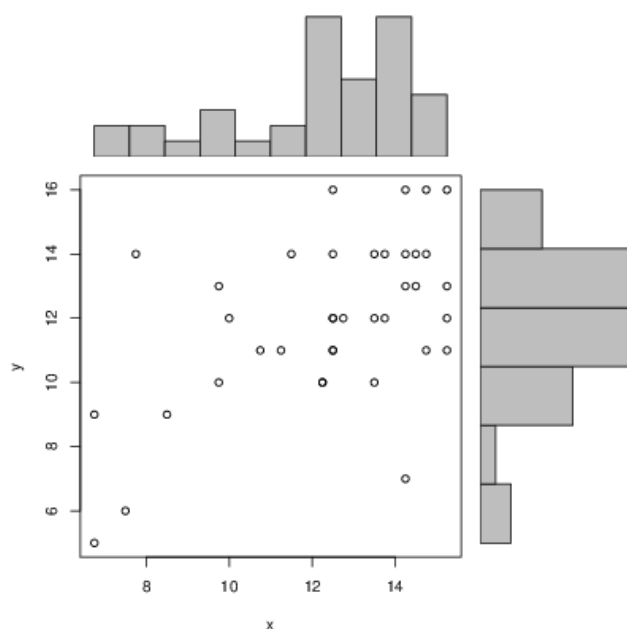


Figure 55: Scatter Plot for (EG) Speech Act Awareness and Communicative Proficiency Correlation in the Post test

VI.3.1.7.1 Calculating the Correlation

Students (EG) Group	X	Y	X*Y	X ²	Y ²
S1	14.25	7	99.75	203.0625	49
S2	13.5	10	135	182.25	100
S3	11.25	11	123.75	126.5625	121
S4	9.75	13	126.75	95.0625	169
S5	7.75	14	108.5	60.0625	196
S6	10	12	120	100	144
S7	11.5	14	161	132.25	196
S8	13.5	14	189	182.25	196
S9	14.25	14	199.5	203.0625	196
S10	13.5	12	162	182.25	144
S11	15.25	11	167.75	232.5625	121
S12	14.25	16	228	203.0625	256
S13	12.5	16	200	156.25	256
S14	13.75	12	165	189.0625	144
S15	14.75	11	162.25	217.5625	121
S16	12.5	12	150	156.25	144
S17	12.25	10	122.5	150.0625	100
S18	12.5	12	150	156.25	144
S19	14.5	13	188.5	210.25	169
S20	14.5	14	203	210.25	196
S21	10.75	11	118.25	115.5625	121
S22	9.75	10	97.5	95.0625	100
S23	7.5	6	45	56.25	36
S24	6.75	5	33.75	45.5625	25
S25	15.25	13	198.25	232.5625	169
S26	15.25	16	244	232.5625	256
S27	15.25	12	183	232.5625	144
S28	14.75	16	236	217.5625	256
S29	12.75	12	153	162.5625	144
S30	13.75	14	192.5	189.0625	196
S31	14.75	14	206.5	217.5625	196
S32	6.75	9	60.75	45.5625	81
S33	12.25	10	122.5	150.0625	100
S34	14.25	13	185.25	203.0625	169
S35	12.5	11	137.5	156.25	121
S36	12.5	11	137.5	156.25	121
S37	8.5	9	76.5	72.25	81
S38	12.5	14	175	156.25	196
Total	471.75	454	5765	6084.9375	5674

Table 77: Speech act Awareness and Communicative Proficiency Scores of the (EG) Group Post tests

$$r = \frac{N \sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

$$N = 38$$

$$\sum XY = 5765$$

$$\sum 7X = 471.75$$

$$\sum Y = 454$$

$$\sum X^2 = 6084.93$$

$$\sum Y^2 = 5674$$

$$r = \frac{38(5765) - (471.75)(454)}{\sqrt{[38(6084.93) - (471.75 * 471.75)][38(5674) - (454 * 454)]}}$$

$$r = \frac{219070 - 214174.5}{\sqrt{[231227.34 - 222548.06][215612 - 206116]}}$$

$$r = \frac{4895.5}{\sqrt{[8679.28][195496]}}$$

$$r = \frac{4895.5}{\sqrt{1696764522.9}}$$

$$r = \frac{4895}{41191.80}$$

$$r = -0.53$$

The correlation for the 38 cases of the (EG) in the pre-test is 0.53, which is a positive relationship. This indicates that there is positive relationship between the students' speech act awareness and their communicative proficiency.

VI.3.2 Discussion of the Data

The data in the previous sections of this chapter mainly show the results of the second, third and fourth research questions and hypotheses. The findings of the t-test used to test the second hypothesis indicate that explicit pragmatic instruction was an appropriate means for the development of EFL learners' speech act awareness i.e. the results provide new insight for the application of pragmatic instructions in pragmatics classrooms instead of the mini theoretical courses of the main theories developed in the field of pragmatics. The results of the correlation (r) used to test the third research question and hypothesis proved that learners' with high speech acts awareness are communicatively competent. The learners' speech act awareness affects positively their communicative proficiency. The results of the correlation (r) in the fourth research question and hypothesis illustrate that there is no strong association between the learners' pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

Conclusion

This chapter has explored the main research procedures used in the study to test hypotheses 2, 3 and 4. It has examined the data collected from the experiment and the pragmatic language tests, the scoring procedures, tests design and administration. It has also presented the result of the statistical methods of the t-test and the correlation which are used to investigate the main study research questions.

Chapter VII

Findings, Pedagogical Implications, Limitations and Further Research

Introduction

This chapter summarizes the overall findings of this study and answers the four research questions. The effects of explicit instruction on the development of pragmatic competence and its implications on teaching pragmatics and on foreign language teaching are presented. Some limitations of this study are outlined and some suggestions for future research are provided.

VII.1 Scope of the Study

To have good communication skills in English and to achieve communicative competence in it are the aim of many people worldwide. This has created a huge demand for English teaching around the world: “The worldwide demand for English has created an enormous demand for quality language teaching and language teaching materials and resources” (Richards, 2006, p. 5).

In order to communicate effectively, learners of English need to develop pragmatic competence, which can be accomplished through pragmatic instruction in the classroom, particularly in oral classes. With the raise of pragmatic awareness, learners will acquire competence and their performance will improve. In addition to teachers who ought to explore and enhance materials from textbooks, syllabus designers should also include pragmatic awareness in their designed curricula.

This study is a mixed method research; both qualitative and quantitative techniques are used to collect and analyse the data. Multiple tools of data source are used to ensure the authenticity of the findings. An experiment and a survey are conducted with three set objectives. The first objective is to evaluate the feasibility of adopting the CLT approach

based on the needs of a sample of students of English as a foreign language. This objective is achieved through a students' needs analysis to determine the present and the future needs of these learners as well as their attitudes and their beliefs in matter of the way English is taught. This is based on the students' needs analysis in which they choose between studying English following the communicative method or using the traditional grammar one. The second objective is to see whether the introduction of pragmatic explicit instruction increases the speech act awareness of a sample of third year graduate students at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine¹. The latter objective requires an experimental design. Therefore, a pre-test [treatment] post-test control group design was adopted with 72 students during a whole semester; the students were in their sixth semester of studying English and about to graduate. They were divided in two groups: one group of 34 students as a control group (IG) and the other one of 38 students as an experimental group (EG). An 'awareness test', developed to measure the subjects' pragmatic awareness of speech act realisation patterns, was administered as a pre-test to both groups. The extra focus on pragmatic development activities in the experimental group were explained in the syllabus and considered as part of the course requirement. The third objective is to investigate the interference between the students' speech act awareness and their pragmatic theoretical knowledge and also their communicative proficiency. This objective has been achieved by conducting pragmatic and communicative language assessment tests for the same sample through the calculation of the degree of associations between the students' speech act awareness, their pragmatic theoretical knowledge and communicative proficiency.

VII. 2 Summary of the Main Findings

All in all, there are several salient observations that can be made in this study. They constitute insights into the perceptions of learners of their experience with the English language. The results of the NA questionnaire used to answer the first research question

reveal that the most consistent approach with the needs of the students is the communicative one. This is, of course, based on the responses of the students to whom the NA questionnaire was administered. The results of the data collected through the Pre-test [Treatment] Post-test experiment which are used to investigate the second research question indicate that the scores for the pre-test of the speech act awareness are not significantly different before the treatment because the 't' of the one tailed t-test is **-0.27 (t=-0.27)**. The two groups (IG and EG) were equal in the speech act awareness pre-test whereas the EG gained a higher mean score in the post-test than the IG did. The statistical analysis showed there was a significant difference between the two means in the one tailed t-test (**t=5.79**). This indicates that explicit instruction helped facilitate the participants' speech act comprehension and speech act production of request and apology. Perhaps, it would be inaccurate to conclude that, for example, the third year graduate students who received explicit classroom instruction possess a higher degree of pragmatic competence than those who did not have this experience. At any rate, the results of this study do confirm that the acquisition of pragmatic competence is necessary to be a well-rounded communicator in English. The results of the data collected through the pragmatic language tests which are used to examine the third and fourth research questions were revealing. As far as the third research question is concerned the results of the analysis of the correlation coefficient proved that learners with high speech acts awareness are communicatively more competent. The learners' speech act awareness affects positively their communicative proficiency. However, the r (s) values in both the pre-tests and post-tests used to test the fourth research question indicated that there is no strong association between the learners' pragmatic theoretical knowledge and their speech act awareness.

VII.3 Limitations of the Study

As with any study, there are always factors which limit the validity of the results obtained. A pilot study had been conducted before the main study which led to a number of

changes in the way the research tools were designed. In addition to the impact of the pilot study, in the present investigation, there are certain factors that may have inhibited its overall success.

This study depended on having access to people, documents and, for various reasons, access was limited. The time available to investigate a research problem and to measure change or stability within a sample is constrained by the due date of submitting the research work. This study may have required more time to complete the literature review, apply the methodology, and gather and interpret the results. In any research, there are always biases of one sort or another, whether we are conscience of them or not.

VII.3.1 Methodological Issues

The use of a questionnaire as a tool can be inadequate to understand some forms of information given by individuals for the reason that they live with constant changes of feelings, emotions and behaviour; that is to say, in any study which involves an evaluation of attitudes, perceptions and beliefs there is a possibility that people may answer questions with an intention to save face. The same possibility also exists for this study, because there is no way to tell how truthful a respondent is; using multiple sources for collecting data to verify the participants' responses would be of a great benefit, but, unfortunately, this could not be done because of the time restriction.

The DCT as a data collection method in this study resides on its potential to force participants to follow a course of action they would not normally follow in real life. According to Márquez-Reiter, "it is difficult to tell how representative the interactions are of what the informants would say in 'spontaneous' unprovoked conversation." (2000, p.77)

VII.4 Theoretical Implications

In this study, the effectiveness of teaching pragmatics via explicit instruction was investigated. The comprehension of the speech act theory and the performance of the speech

acts of requesting and apologizing were the objectives to be achieved by third year graduate students, University of Mentouri, Constantine. One may notice that both speech acts have been drawn up on the basis of speech act and politeness theory. Therefore, one should agree on the importance of examining the rules of production of politeness speech acts (requests, apologies, complaints...etc...), which people use in the production of their spoken and written utterances in mother tongue as well as in foreign language. The communicative acts request and apology can take various linguistic forms depending on the relation between the interlocutors. For instance, a request statement can take the form of an order in cases where social power is present. Generally, the interlocutor's realization of the requests is voluntary and its performance is negotiated according to the way they are formulated and what politeness qualities are used. Usually, interlocutors, in situations where social power and social distance are present, try to use common linguistic formulas to ensure the appropriate use of the different speech acts in order to avoid misunderstanding (pragmatic failure) in the speech act situation. For that reason and in order to understand the participants (in the social setting), utterances semantically, and pragmatically, the following notions must be taken into account:

- 1) The background knowledge upon which they rely when they interact.
- 2) The intentions of the speaker (identification of the illocutionary acts)
- 3) The effect of the utterance on listeners (perlocutionary acts)
- 4) The interlocutors' reaction that follows from expressing something in a certain way
- 5) The audience design, which means that the speakers design their style primarily for and in response to the audience. That is to say, an utterance is partly shaped on the basis of assumptions about the hearer.

Indeed, the identification of the pragmatic meaning of the interlocutor's utterance when communicating cross-culturally is very important for successful communication. Pragmatic awareness helps Algerian EFL learners overcome misunderstandings arising from their assumption that a construction in the target language will have the same presuppositions, implicatures, illocutionary force and social factors than in their first language.

VII.5 Pedagogical Implications

Educators now generally believe that it is important to help the foreign language learners achieve communicative competence as well as linguistic competence. There is a method of foreign language teaching called communicative language teaching (CLT), and the goal of CLT is to develop students' communicative competence, which includes both knowledge about the language and knowledge about how to use the language appropriately in communicative situations. The findings of the present study recommend a need for the teachers to understand and accommodate the differences between Algerian and English cultures when engaging students in communicative activities. The university teachers should adjust their teaching standards by adopting CLT as an approach instead of the traditional one which aims at developing test-taking skills; teachers should adopt the one that encourages the developments of the students' communicative competence. Finally, the implementation of CLT involves not only the teacher's effort, but the identification of the learners' needs and preferences to incorporate them into educational practices and policies.

One of the important means for providing better pragmatics and speech act teaching quality is to inculcate to learners all the complexity of the speech acts theory both as a purely linguistic phenomenon and as a pure social act. Speech acts would be useless if either the

cooperative principle or Austin's felicity conditions as speech acts are not understood or accepted as what they are; that is to say, participants in the act of communication give power to a performative utterance by respecting the cooperation principal rules and by being aware of the different felicity conditions.

VII.6 Significance of the Study

Intercultural communication effectiveness is more related to the participants' intercultural social relationships and involves intercultural communicative acts for effective communication. Thus, in an EFL setting, learners need to be engaged in various social roles and speech events by incorporating communicative activities such as role play, communication games, simulation, and problem solving games. Those tasks are provided by the teacher who should also try to give cultural elements that are necessary to be involved in learning, and cultural comparison activities which are quite helpful.

The present research work has attempted to provide an overview of pragmatics and speech act studies as a means to call for explicit pragmatic instruction in teaching English as a Foreign Language. More specifically, the study has reflected on the method used in EFL settings to enhance the learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence through the implementation of explicit instruction and exposure to the TL culture.

The findings of the present study support many of the research findings in the field of pragmatics (see chapter II section 8) and, thus, it adds to the theory of interlanguage pragmatic development. As previously said, pragmatic competence in a foreign language is one of the main components of an ELL's communicative proficiency which is incorporated in different models of communicative competence (see chapter I section I.1.3). Indeed, many studies have sought finding answers to some issues such as the need for teaching FL

pragmatics, the way pragmatic competence should be taught and the best instructional measures to develop pragmatic skills.

Pragmatic proficiency should be considered as a major constituent of language development. Unfortunately, studies on pragmatic proficiency and speech acts have received modest attention in FLT contexts. This study, as a result, can add to the field of pragmatics. Indeed, EFL learners need an opportunity to become good communicators in the target language. The current study has indicated that teaching pragmatics via instruction should be included in the EFL context in Algerian universities.

Findings of this study have implications for the field of foreign language education. First of all, language teachers and curriculum designers need to recognize and plan for the different target goals language learners may have. It must be recognized that foreign language speakers also possess a desire to express their own identity. For example, some tested learners in this study mentioned that depending on the situation, they wanted to show their cultural origin, their thinking patterns, ideas, and values. As language educators, our job is to inform language learners of the pragmatic choices and their consequences in a certain situation rather than trying to transform them into native-speakers. In other words, learners must be given the appropriate instruction to make the appropriate language choice, which allows them the freedom to express their own values and beliefs.

VII.7 Suggestions for Further Research

The present study has proved the effectiveness of teaching pragmatics via instruction and its role in developing the FFL learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence. However, due to some limitations, some factors might not be considered, particularly, in the research tools (questionnaire/ experiment).

Further studies should focus on the examination and assessment of the needs of a larger sample of students (larger than the sample in this study) and to analyse the needs of the English language institutions (departments). Other studies should also analyse and evaluate teachers' attitudes towards the current situation of teaching English at the tertiary level and the teaching problems they face (curriculum design, teaching methods and other pedagogical problems) and then, try to find a solution to these problems. Moreover, other researches should address the important issue of adopting an approach which emphasizes communication and interaction (language use) as the means and the ultimate goal of language teaching and learning. Research which examines how social variables such as relative power, social distance and imposition affect the learners' choice of request and apology strategies would be of great benefit and add a lot to the field of interlanguage pragmatics. Finally, constructive and comparative studies in the field of pragmatics which basically help develop EFL learners' speech act awareness in both L1 and FL should also be carried out.

VII.8 General Recommendations

The results obtained from the different research instruments used in this study revealed important facts that have to be taken into consideration. Firstly, a pragmatic course has to be introduced in the Department of Letters and English language as a compulsory module from the first year, since the results of needs analysis of students showed that they are in need of English to master the communicative acts rather than a mere mastery of linguistic items that are used only in an academic context. Furthermore, the NA results revealed that the students need an approach which meets their general and learning needs. Besides their academic studies, the learners at the Department of Letters and English language have expressed a great motivation for exploring the side of language which cover the different components of communicative competence and which, according to the research, can be afforded only

through applying the communicative approach. Unfortunately, this step requires a reconsideration of the whole system of higher education in Algeria. For that reason, it is necessary to setup administrative reforms by officially stating the introduction of these courses in the students' curriculum; thus, it will help the students to acquire some language knowledge which enables them to use it in real communicative situations.

VII.9 Promoting the Methodology of Teaching Pragmatics in an EFL Context

In the last few decades, there was a shift towards communicative language learning (CLL) which focuses on developing learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative proficiency. As a fundamental unit which is supposed to improve the learners' appropriate language use in different situations and social settings, pragmatic competence gained much more attention from scholars and researchers. Consequently, the teaching of pragmatics in an EFL context at the tertiary level should be reconsidered to meet the objective and need of EFL learners which is being pragmatically and communicatively competent. By opening up new perspectives to teaching pragmatics in EFL context, teachers should at least try find their way in developing appropriate teaching techniques and materials. They have to make sure that their ways of teaching and the teaching materials they use help in raising their students' pragmatic awareness and develop their communication skills. Unfortunately, teaching techniques and materials that are used by teachers of pragmatics at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1 have not considerably helped in raising students' pragmatic awareness.

Based on the findings of the present research, there have been three suggested reconsiderations. First, it was suggested that there should be a reconsideration of the content of the pragmatic course. It was argued that pragmatic courses were theoretically-based and lack many intercultural communication aspects. Alternatively, a thematic way of teaching pragmatics was regarded as a remedial solution. For instance, instead of dealing with the

subject of pragmatics as the study of theories of language in use, it would be better to take some themes as the content, and then use these themes to draw the learners' attention to elements of intercultural competence. Second, a socio-pragmatic approach would be adopted as an effective method of teaching and learning to help learners search for communication cues (social distance/ power, audience design and making choices) that cannot be directly presented in the classrooms as well as to encourage learning autonomy. Third, concerning the teaching materials, the analysis of authentic materials by the implementation of technology (CDs, DVDs of English movies or language exchanges) and awareness raising activities would help in developing the learners' cultural awareness of the target language.

In terms of developing the learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence by teaching pragmatics, we tried to highlight some effective teaching techniques and materials (Theoretical knowledge, explicit instruction and communicative activities) that might contribute to the teaching of a pragmatic course. Consequently, we thought that it would be appropriate to propose a general syllabus for the module of pragmatics at the tertiary level in the Algerian universities.

VII.9.1 Pragmatics Syllabus Design

This module is designed to introduce the learner to pragmatics (linguistic level of pragmatics and language in use), with particular focus on aspects of meaning that arise from the speakers' interpretation of the linguistic items used in real social context rather than the meaning of the proper entities of the linguistic system itself. Indeed, this module is particularly relevant to learners interested in learning English for communication and interaction.

VII.9.1.1 Objectives

The main objectives of the module of pragmatics are as follows:

- ✓ To provide theoretical knowledge of the key concepts introduced in the area of pragmatics and determine their relation to the cultural and social dimensions of the TL (English)
- ✓ To develop pragmatic and communicative skills and competency in the TL
- ✓ To apply these skills when involved in the act of communication with NS of English
- ✓ To encourage learners to reflect on issues related to pragmatics in global contexts
- ✓ To develop the students' transferable skills including communication (oral and written)
- ✓ To explain the relationship between pragmatics and other disciplines

VII.9.1.2 Expected Learning Outcomes

Following a module specification guidelines, the planned learning outcomes of this module are presented as follows:

VII.9.1.2.1 Knowledge and Understanding

After successfully completing the module, students will be able to:

1. Define the key notions related to pragmatics
2. Describe the principles/goals of pragmatics
3. Recognize how pragmatics is related to issues of interpreting and performing language in social context
4. Understand the fundamental theories of pragmatics as a sub-field of socio-linguistics
5. Demonstrate intercultural/cross-cultural pragmatics and how pragmatics occurs in different socio-cultural contexts,
6. Describe the relationship between pragmatics and other disciplines

VII.9.1.2.2 Cognitive Skills

Having successfully completed the module, students will be able to:

1. Categorize and demonstrate information in an appropriate and logical way,
2. Recognize the relationship between the various theoretical concepts in pragmatics,

3. Evaluate critically various approaches to the study of pragmatics

VII.9.1.2.3 Practical and Subject-specific Skills

After successfully completing the module, students will be able to:

1. Apply the pragmatic knowledge when analysing different conversations and dialogues (conversational agents)
2. Identify the context cues and social features such as: social distance and social power
3. Recognize the appropriate meaning of utterances used in various communicative settings
4. Recognize the speakers' intention
5. Categorize the different types of speech acts based on Searle's classification
6. Develop an awareness of pragmatic issues for a best application in real life situations (global and intercultural communication experiences)

VII.9.1.2.4 Key Transferable Skills

Having successfully completed the module, students will be able to:

1. Employ critical thinking and problem-solving techniques when dealing with new data (pragma-linguistic data)
2. Explain the various pragmatic theories with a particular reference to the study of languages in general and language teaching;
3. Carry out individual assignment and present findings and ideas in a planned, coherent manner in seminars through collaborations with partners.
4. Apply the pragmatic knowledge achieved to communicate effectively in different social contexts.

VII.9.1.3 Teaching Program

A teaching programme will consist of a weekly lecture outlining a body of knowledge and concepts. It will also include a weekly assignment in which the issues presented in the lecture will be applied to the critical analysis of empirical evidence. Ideas, concepts and theories will be introduced in the lectures. Assignments will provide an opportunity to explore particular issues in greater depth. They will also encourage the students to explore pragmatics on the basis of different kinds of linguistic data (audio and visual pieces of discourse) and will provide an occasion to engage with specific pragmatics' areas in more details through investigation and collaboration.

VII.9.1.3.1 Learning Activities

Pragmatics' learning activities may include the different activities that encourage and require a student to:

- Build vocabulary
- Learn about the culture of the TL
- Read and synthesize information
- Improve fluency through dialogues, role- plays and guided conversation
- Improve speaking, listening skills, note-taking and writing skills
- Practise speaking in a range of situations (make good choices)
- Learn to form logical, coherent opinions
- Develop new ways of expressing oneself in order to communicate clearly

These communicative activities should be integrated into the lesson.

VII.9.1.4 Pragmatics Lectures Plan and Design

The following is a list of lessons' template which can be used for the teaching of pragmatics at the tertiary level in Algerian universities.

<p>Key Terms in Pragmatics</p>	<p><u>Meaning and Features of Context</u></p> <p><u>Context</u></p> <p>Definition</p> <p><u>Mey(1993, p. 38)</u> -identifies context as follows: “Context is a dynamic, not a static concept. It is to be understood as the surroundings, in the widest sense, that enable the participants in the communication process to interact, and that make the linguistics expression on their interaction intelligible”</p> <p>Types of Context</p> <p>There are three types of context</p> <p>Physical Context</p> <p>Such type of contextual information includes what is physically present around the speakers/hearers at the time of communication. What objects are present, where the communication is taking place, as well as the timing, what is going on around, the situation in which it is used, and what actions are occurring, all of which assist in making</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Attempt a definition of context.</i> 2. <i>Why is context a fundamental aspect in the study of pragmatics?</i> 3. <i>Why is the study of language in relation to its social context important?</i> 	<p>Halliday, M.A.K. and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976). <i>Cohesion in English</i>. Essex: London.</p> <p>Hudson, R.A. (1980). <i>Sociolinguistics</i>. Cambridge: CUP.</p> <p>Hymes, D. (1972). <i>On Communicative Competence</i>. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.</p>
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communication successful.

Linguistic Context (co-text)

This type of contextual information is all about what has been said before in a conversation. Sometimes it is called co-text and identified as the set of words that surround the language unit in question in the same phrase, or sentence. In other words, it is the discourse that surrounds a language unit and helps determine its interpretation.

Social Context

Halliday (1989, p. 6) – “Knowledge is transmitted in social contexts, through relationships, like those of parent and child, or teacher and pupil, or classmates, that are defined in the value systems and ideology of the culture. And the words that are exchanged in these contexts get their meaning from activities in which they are embedded, which again are social activities with social agencies and goals”

<p>Utterance vs. sentence meaning</p>	<p><u>Meaning</u></p> <p><u>UTTERANCE MEANING</u> What the utterer meant by saying the sentence in a given occasion</p> <p><u>SENTENCE MEANING</u> (literal meaning), what the utterer reference in discourse, literally said</p>	<p><i>1. Differentiate between utterance meaning and sentence meaning.</i></p>	<p>Chierchia, G. and S. McConnell-Ginet (2000). Meaning and Grammar. 2nd edition. MIT Press.</p>
<p>Semantic versus Pragmatic Meaning</p>	<p><u>SEMANTICS</u> Literal meaning vs. utterance meaning linguistic meaning semantic value/denotation</p> <p><u>PRAGMATICS</u> speaker's meaning</p>	<p><i>2. Make a list of utterances which though may not be grammatical, are communicative.</i></p>	<p>Stalnaker, R. (1978). Assertion. In P. Cole, ed. Pragmatics. Syntax and Semantics No. 9. Academic Press</p>

Unit Two: Areas of Pragmatics

Deixis *Types of Deixis*

Deixis

Definition

Lyons (1977, p. 637) - “the location and identification of persons, objects, events, processes and activities being talked about, or referred to, in relation to the spatiotemporal context created by the act of utterance and the participation in it, typically, of a single speaker and at least one addressee”

Person Deixis

Finegan (1994, p. 178) - “personal deixis can mark a number of overlapping distinction: person, gender, number, and social relations”

Place Deixis

Finegan (1994, p. 179) “describes place “the marking in language of the orientation or position in space of the referent of a linguistic expression”

Is it always necessary to consider deictic references in the interpretation of meaning?

Activity 1

(Source: Fromkin & Rodman's 1998 edition of An Introduction to Language)

Circle any deictic expression in the following sentences. (Hint: Proper names and noun phrases containing "the" are not considered deictic expressions. Also, all sentences do not include deictic expressions.)

1. I saw her standing there.
2. Dogs are animals.
3. Yesterday, all my troubles seemed so far away.
4. The name of this rock band is "The Beatles."
5. The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776.

Finegan, E. (1994). *Language: Its Structure and Use*. New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers

Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: CUP.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London: Longman.

	<p><i>Time Deixis</i></p> <p><i>Finegan (1994, p. 179)</i> - “the orientation or position of the reference of actions and events in time”</p> <p>Discourse Deixis Discourse deixis, also referred to as text deixis, refers to the use of expressions within an utterance to refer to parts of the discourse that contain the utterance. In other words, when an expression refers to another linguistic expression or a piece of discourse, it is discourse deictic. It can also be referred to as a deictic reference to a portion of a discourse relative to the speaker’s the current location in the discourse.</p> <p>Social Deixis Social deixis is concerned with the social information which is used to identify the social status of the speaker, addressee as well as the relationships between them, it includes: social status, kin relationship, age, sex, profession, ethnic group. Expressions of social deixis are closely associated with personal pronouns, forms of address etc...</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. The Declaration of Independence was signed last year. 7. Copper conducts electricity. 8. The treasure chest is on the right. 9. These are the times that try men's souls. 10. There is a tide in the affairs of men which taken at the flood leads on to fortune. 	
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<p><i>Presupposition and Entailment</i></p>	<p>Presupposition <u>Levinson (1983, p. 68).</u> “The term presupposition refers to those assumptions which appear to be built into the linguistic structure of texts and which relate linguistic structure to extra-linguistic context in terms of the inferences which are expected to be made about this context”</p> <p>Entailment <u>Crystal (1998, p. 136)</u> - “a term that refers to a relation between a pair of sentences such that the truth of the second sentence necessarily follows from the truth of the first, e.g. <i>I can see a dog</i> entails 'I can see an animal'. One cannot both assert the first and deny the second” (</p>	<p>(Source: Fromkin & Rodman's 1998 edition of <i>An Introduction to Language</i>)</p> <p><u>Activity</u></p> <p>The following sentences make certain presuppositions. What are they? (The first one has been done for you!)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The police ordered the minors to stop drinking. <u>Presupposition:</u> <u>The minors were drinking.</u> 2. Please take me out to the ball game again. <u>Presupposition:</u> 3. Valerie regretted not receiving a new T-bird for Labour Day. <u>Presupposition:</u> 4. That her pet turtle ran away made Emily very sad. <u>Presupposition:</u> 5. It is strange that the United States invaded Cambodia in 1970. <u>Presupposition:</u> 6. Isn't it strange that the United States invaded Cambodia in 1970? <u>Presupposition:</u> 	<p>Levinson, S. (1983). <i>Pragmatics</i>. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.</p> <p>Yule, G. (1996): <i>Pragmatics</i>. Oxford: Oxford University Press.</p>
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Unit Three: Theories of Pragmatics

**Conversational
Implicatures
(Gricean
Theory)**

Levinson (1983, p. 50) refers to implicature by relying on “some very general expectation of interactional cooperation”

Grice (1975/1989, pp. 39-40) -“A conversational implicature is “what has to be supposed in order to preserve the supposition that the Cooperative Principle is being observed”

**Grice’s
Cooperative
Principle
(Maxims)**

Grice’s Maxims (Cited in Cole & Morgan, 1975; PP. 41–58)

Maxim of Quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Maxim of Quantity

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
2. Do not make your contribution

1. **Discuss the conversational maxims proposed by Grice**
2. **Explain the term “Implicature.”**
When do implicatures occur?
Give examples to illustrate your answer.

(Source :May Abumelha Eng 323 Linguistics II (Practice Sheet))

Indicate which maxim is flouted in the following exchanges and which implicature is raised.

1. A: Do you know where Salwa is?
B: I was supposed to have lunch with her, but she didn’t come.
2. Sara is married and has two children, ages 7 and 4. In a conversation about her father-in-law in the presence of her children, she refers to him as the *first generation* and to her children as the *third generation*.

Grundy, P. (2000). *Doing Pragmatics* (2nd Ed.). London: Arnold.
Yule, G. (1996). *The Study of Language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: CUP.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics: Speech acts 2*, 41-58. New York: Academic Press.

**Speech Acts
Theories**

more informative than is required.

Maxim of Relation

Be relevant

Maxim of Manner

Be perspicuous

1. Avoid obscurity of expression
2. Avoid ambiguity
3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)
4. Be orderly

Austin' Speech acts (Doing things with Words)

Austin developed his theory of speech acts in a series of lectures which were published posthumously as a book entitled '*How to Do Things with Words*'. The Speech act theory is one of the key areas of linguistic pragmatics and which claims that many utterances, termed performatives, do not only communicate information, but are equivalent to actions. That is to say, through the use of these utterances,

3. A: Who was that man I saw you with yesterday?

B: That was just someone.

4. A: Have you been married before?

B: The thing is that I'm allergic to rice.

5. Diane: Don't you think John is a wonderful guy?

Susan: Yeah, he's about as sensitive as Rambo.

3. Give other examples of utterances that show that we perform acts as we speak.

Grundy, P. (2000). *Doing Pragmatics* (2nd ed.). London: Arnold.

people do things or have others do things for them like apologizing, making requests and compliments etc. Utterances that may be used to realize the above functions are known as speech acts

Locutionary, Illocutionary, Perlocutionary Acts

Austin (1962, p.109-110) “when an individual makes an utterance, he performs (i) the **locutionary act**, which is the act that utters a sentence with a certain meaning using the grammar, phonology and semantics of the language (ii) the **Illocutionary act** which is the intention of an utterance to constitute either an act of promise, command, criticism, agreement, greeting, pronouncement etc. (iii) the **Perlocutionary act** which is the effect or the response it achieves on the hearer like embarrassment, fear, confusion, enjoyment, or amusement. Remember that one utterance or sentence can perform all of the above functions. The illocutionary act is where speakers actually “do things with words”.

According to Austin, illocutionary act

Yule, G. (1996). *The Study of Language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: CUP.

is performed by “**performative sentences**”, because by virtue of its structure, a **performative sentence** has a “**conversational force**” like pronouncing a man and a woman husband and wife or sentencing a defendant in court.

Searle’s classification of speech acts

Searle (1969) identifies three major conditions or performing speech act. According to him, “felicity conditions” must be met in order to make a promise for instance.

The conditions are as follows:
 the utterance refers to some future act of the speaker
 the speaker would not normally be carrying it out
 the speaker recognizes he has taken on a responsibility

These “conditions” are to determine when the performance of speech act may be appropriate or inappropriate.

Searle (1976) further gives 5 types of *acts* that are performed in speaking. They are:

Searle (1979, p.12) Representatives (or assertives): “The point or purpose

Exercise 1 (Appendix H)

1. For each of the following speech acts, indicate the type of speech act:

- (a) I will turn my paper in on Friday.
- (b) May I have an extension on the due date for my paper?
- (c) The teacher is supposed to return our papers today.
- (d) Iqbal's essay is the best in the class.
- (e) I will give you until Monday to turn in your papers.
- (f) You have succeeded in the examination.
- (g) I regret that you failed the examination.
- (h) Your paper was handed in too late to be considered.
- (i) Your papers are due on Friday.
- (j) Congratulations on passing the course.
- (k) Your papers will be marked down for each day that they are late.
- (l) If you don't start on your papers early, you won't have enough time.

Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

of the members of the assertive class is to commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to something's being the case, to the truth of the expressed proposition.”

Searle (1979, p.13) Directives: “The illocutionary point of these consists in the fact that they are attempts (of varying degrees, and hence, more precisely, they are determinates of the determinable which includes attempting) by the speaker to get the hearer to do something.”

Searle (1979, p.14) Commissives: Which are used if the speaker commits himself to a course of action found in verbs like intend, promise, pledge, and threat. these “are those illocutionary acts whose point is to commit the speaker (again in varying degrees) to some future course of action”

Searle (1979, p.15) Expressives: They are those acts in which the speaker expresses his psychological state or attitude, as in the verbs like greet, apologize and congratulate. “The illocutionary point of this class is to express the psychological state specified in the sincerity.”

2. Differentiate between Austin’s speech acts and Searle’s acts. Illustrate with examples.

Searle, J. R. (1979). A taxonomy of illocutionary acts. In his Expression and Meaning: Studies in the Theory of Speech Acts. Cambridge University Press.

	<p><u>Searle (1979, p.16-17) Declarations (or Declaratives):</u> “The defining characteristic of this class that the successful performance of one of its members brings about the correspondence between the propositional content and reality, successful performance guarantees that the propositional content corresponds to the world: if I successfully perform the act of appointing you chairman, then you are chairman”</p>		
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Conclusion

This chapter recaps on the overall findings of this study and discusses the results of the data collected through the three research tools used. It also provides answers to the four research questions and hypotheses. Furthermore, it discerns the limitations of the study, and suggests some theoretical and teaching implications.

General Conclusion

Nowadays, the development of learners' pragmatic awareness and communicative competence has been regarded as the major goal of foreign language teaching and learning. Foreign language competency entails the control of Linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge when communicating in it, in other words, it entails pragmatic competence that involves the ability to understand how language is used in different contexts to produce different communicative results. Communicating in a foreign language requires awareness of the linguistic system and the manner in which to interact with others in order to have the intended impact. It also requires awareness of the appropriateness of language use in different situations. For these reasons, language instruction should provide guidance to learners on how to use language not only correctly but also appropriately i.e. pragmatically, so that they can be successful when communicating outside the language classroom. The production of effective speech acts should be taught and shared with students along with the traditional teaching of other language skills.

This study is divided into three parts. The first part is an attempt to answer the first research question: which is mostly needed by students: learning English for communication purposes or learning English for academic ones? And, thus, to investigate this research question we assumed that students have the type of English learning needs which favour the communicative perspective, i.e. they need English for communication and interaction. This part of the study focuses on analysing the first, second and third year students' needs in matter of English language learning and their choice between learning following the traditional approach to language teaching or the communicative one. The data analysed reveal that the learning needs of the students can be satisfied by CLT.

The second part concentrates on the investigation of the second (main) research question which is what the effect of pragmatic instruction on third year graduate learners' performance of speech acts are .i.e. to what extent does the introduction of explicit pragmatic instruction affect students' awareness of speech acts? Based on this question, we assume that pragmatic explicit instruction would affect positively the learner's speech act awareness. To answer the second question, we have focused on one aspect of our participants' pragmatic comprehension, namely that of the production of requests and apologies. And, thus, to answer this question, a pre-test/ post-test experiment is designed in order to account for the instructional effects. The students' comprehension of speech acts and their use of requests and apologies is first analysed in the pre-test and in the post-test. The analysis at this stage is quantitative. The results of the pre-test show that the learners of English under investigation do not have pragmatic awareness of speech acts, in the absence of any pertinent instruction. On the other hand, the results of the post-test which are compared with those of the pre-test via a statistical method called a t-test show that there is a significant improvement in the speech act comprehension and production of the third year students. This implies that some form of explicit pragmatic instruction is necessary for giving the learners the opportunity to reflect on their communicative encounters and to experiment with different pragmatic options because the classroom may be the only available setting where they can try out using the foreign language.

The third part of the study is an attempt to answer the third and fourth research questions which are: To what extent does students' speech act awareness improve their communicative competence i.e. their ability to communicate appropriately and effectively in different communicative situations? And to what extent does students' pragmatic theoretical knowledge affect their speech act awareness? In this part, we assume that students' speech act awareness improves their communicative competence and students' pragmatic theoretical

knowledge increases their speech act awareness. Examining these two research questions required the design of a pragmatic theoretical knowledge test and a communicative proficiency one in addition to the test of speech act awareness used in the experiment. In order to answer the research questions and discover the nature of the relationship between the variables, the tests were examined using the correlation coefficient statistical method. The results of the data analysis showed that there is no relationship between pragmatic theoretical knowledge and speech act awareness in both pre-tests and post-tests and there is a positive relationship between the speech act awareness and communicative competence in the post-test.

The present research work was framed within seven distinctive chapters. The first chapter was almost devoted to the area of 'Needs Analysis' and CLT, it covered Hymes notion of communicative competence and its development being the major goal in teaching and learning English as a foreign language. The second one addressed the field of pragmatics covering its definition, history, key concepts and language use theories, the chapter tackled too the teaching pragmatics via instruction. The third chapter was the central body of the whole study, it was devoted to the theory of speech acts and its major divisions and constituents. The fourth one covered the overall research methodology; chapter five and six where devoted to the analysis of the data collection tools within the interpretation of the findings, the 'seven' chapter provided some theoretical and pedagogical implications.

It goes without saying that the present research supports the fact that any foreign language syllabus design follows certain procedures. Those procedures should not be formulated in a haphazard manner. In order to avoid pedagogical failure syllabus design should to be designed taking into account the following issues: '**Who** we teach', '**What** to teach' and '**How** to teach it'. This means that needs analysis should be the first phase in syllabus design.

The reconsideration of pragmatics teaching through the introduction of explicit instruction in the present study required a deep analysis of the learners' English language needs and preferences.

The present research provided further worth evidence that teaching pragmatics via adopting an explicit approach (explicit instruction) seems to have positive effects on learners' pragmatic competence through raising their awareness of FL pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatics features. The main benefit of explicit instruction is that it helps developing FL learners' both pragmatic and communicative competence. And then, this work adds to the wide range of pragmatic and sociolinguistic research on the effectiveness of instruction in pragmatics. This work confirmed the findings of many interlanguage pragmatics studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The Syllabus of Pragmatics as Taught in Reality

In what follows is a detailed account of the various topics dealt with in the syllabus of pragmatics.¹

I. Pragmatics

Definition

Background

II. Deixis

Types of Deixis

The Interpretation of Deixis

Distance & Reference

III. Speech Acts

John Austin Model of Speech Acts

John Rogers Searle Classification

Performative Hypothesis

IV. Cooperative Principle [Grice Maxims Model]

¹This is according to the teacher in charge of the teaching team of pragmatics at the department of English, academic year 2011/2012.

Appendix B

List of Performative Verbs

abolish, accept, acknowledge, acquit, admit, admonish, advise, affirm, agree to, announce, answer, apologize, ascribe, ask, assert, assess, assume, authorize, baptize, beg, bet, bid, caution, charge, claim, classify, command, commiserate, compliment, concur, congratulate, convict, counsel, declare, delegate, demand, deny, describe, diagnose, disagree, donate, dub, excuse, exempt, fire, forbid, grant, guarantee, guess, hire, hypothesize, identify, implore, inform, instruct, license, name, notify, offer, order, pardon, permit, plead, pray, predict, prohibit, promise, query, question, rank, recommend, refuse, reject, renounce, report, request, require, resign, sanction, say, sentence, state, submit, suggest, summon, suppose, swear, tell, testify, thank, urge, volunteer, warn, withdraw.

2. Which of the following mediums do you need when using English?

- Speaking
- Writing
- Reading

3. Tick the corresponding boxes in the table below to indicate your English language at present (now) and its degree of improvement by the end of your studies (future).

English activities	English language level							
	NOW				Future			
	Bellow average	average	Good	Excellent	Bellow average	Average	Good	Excellent
Comprehension when reading								
Fluency and confidence in speaking								
Accuracy when speaking								
Vocabulary								
Understanding other speakers								
Understanding radio or TV programmes								
Accuracy when writing								

4. What do you enjoy doing in English?

- Writing
- Speaking
- Reading

5. What do you want to be able to do with English?

- Write correctly □
- Understand native speakers □
- Be able to interact (communicate) □
- Read books and documents □

6. What is the most important long term goal?

- To be able to communicate in English, both spoken and written □
- To be able to read publications in academic English □
- To memorize English grammar rules and vocabulary □

7. Please, tick the boxes which correspond to your present and future needs in English:

- To improve your listening comprehension □
- To improve your speaking fluency □
- To improve your reading skills □
- To improve your writing skills □

Learning Needs

Writing

1. Which of these activities do you need to be able to write in English? (Tick only one column for each activity that you need):

Activity	Formal Communication (academic)	Informal communication (with family and friends)
Note-taking		
Short stories		
Personal letters		
SMS s and short daily notes		
Reports		

Speaking

2. Which among these situations of speaking interests you most? How useful will it be to you? (Please tick only one of the five boxes):

1 = Crucial to know/ 2 = Very useful/ 3 = Interesting /4 = Slightly interesting /5 = Not interesting

Language situations	1	2	3	4	5
Jobs and works					
Health and fitness					
Shopping					
Other people's countries; customs and culture					
Ordering and buying food and drink					
Using the telephone					
Choosing holiday trips					
Describing families					
Making plans and social arrangements					

Listening

3. Which of the contexts of use in the first column do you need to be able to understand in English? Indicate what you need to understand from each in the subsequent column (Please tick only one corresponding column for the chosen context):

Context	Every word	Most words	The general idea
Radio or TV programmes			
Lectures			
Telephone calls			
Native speakers			
Academic reports			

Reading

4.) *What material would you like to be able to read in English? How would you like to read it? (Please tick only one column for each material):*

Materials	Skimming (reading only for the gist)	Scanning (reading in details)
Educational Books		
Newspapers		
Short stories		
Social magazines		
Academic papers		

Learning Habits

There are many ways to learn a new language. Think of your own way of learning in the following.

1. How important are the following learning habits to you? (Use the following 1 to 5 scale for each learning habit; please tick only one number for each)

1 = Most enjoyable and important / 2 = Very enjoyable and important / 3 = Enjoyable and important / 4 = Somehow enjoyable and important / 5 = Neither enjoyable nor important

Learning habits	1	2	3	4	5
Working alone					
Working with another student					
Working in small groups					
Working in a class					
Acting out a role play exercise					
Working in a teacher directed lesson					
Working in a Project					

2. How often do you practice English in class?

- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

3. Do you think that the time devoted to practice is enough?

Yes

no

4. What is your main aim from Learning?

- Getting good marks and succeeding
- Getting a good mastery of the English language

Appendix D

Pre-test: Pragmatic theoretical knowledge

Pragmatics

Choose the appropriate definition by ticking the corresponding box

Pragmatics is:

1. The study of natural language understanding, and specifically the study of how context influences the interpretation of meanings. It is a subfield of linguistics.
2. The branch of semiotics that deals with the relationship between signs, especially words and other elements of language, and their users.
3. The study of the use of natural language in communication; more generally, the study of the relations between languages and their users. It is sometimes defined in contrast with linguistics.

Speech acts

Choose the appropriate definition by ticking the corresponding box

Speech acts are:

1. Utterances that constitute some acts in addition to the mere act of uttering.
2. Acts or types of acts capable of being performed in different contexts
3. Acts that a speaker performs when making an utterance.

Grice's Maxims

Match each of the following maxims with its corresponding definition.

The Maxim of Quantity

where one tries to be as informative as one possibly can, and gives as much information as it is needed.

The Maxim of Relation

where one tries to be truthful, and does not give information that is false or that is not supported by evidence

The Maxim of Manner

where one tries to be relevant, and says things that are pertinent to the discussion

The Maxim of Quality

when one tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity

Appendix E

Post-test: Pragmatic Theoretical knowledge

Determine whether the following statements are true or false by writing *true* or *false* in the box next to each statement:

Pragmatics is the study of meaning of words, phrases and full sentences.

Pragmatics is concerned with the meanings that words convey when they are used.

Pragmatics examines the devices used by language users in order to express the desired meaning and how it is perceived.

Pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and entities in the world; that is, how words literally connect to things.

Pragmatics is the study of other things that might influence meaning besides the semantic system.

Which of the following statements are true or false? Answer by ticking one of the boxes.

Cooperation principle: means that to communicate requires continuous and determined cooperation.

True

False

Grice maxims: are quantity, quality, relevance, and manner.

True

False

The maxim of quantity: It is where one tries to be truthful and does not give information that is false or that is not supported by evidence.

True

False

The maxim of quality: It is where one tries to be as informative as one possibly can and gives as much information as is needed, and no more.

True

False

The maxim of relation: where one tries to be relevant, and says things that are pertinent to the discussion.

True

False

The maxim of manner: It is when one tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.

True

False

Performative verbs: are verbs that when uttered actually make the meaning of the word/verb happen.

True

False

A speech act: is an act that a speaker performs when making an utterance.

True

False

Locutionary act: saying something (the locution) with a certain meaning in the traditional sense. This may not constitute a speech act.

True

False

Illocutionary act: the performance of an act in saying something.

True

False

The illocutionary force: is the speaker's intent. A true 'speech act'.

True

False

Perlocutionary acts: Speech acts that have an effect on the feelings, thoughts or actions of either the speaker or the listener. In other words, they seek to change minds.

True

False

Appendix F

Pre-test: Speech act awareness

Part one: Speech Act Comprehension

Exercise 1

Which of the following verbs is a performative? Choose two verbs to write two sentences that can be uttered performatively: Concede, Apologize, Believe, Say, Thank, Frighten, Deny, Forget, Wish, Hint, Nominate, Oppose, Joke, Congratulate, Doubt

Performative

verbs:

1.....

.....

2.....

.....

Exercise 2

For each of the following illocutionary acts, give two non synonymous sentences that could be used to perform them.

(1) Reminding someone to pick up the cleaning.

.....

.....

.....

.....

(2) Offering to help someone wash the dishes.

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

(3) Asking someone to hurry in the shower.

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

Exercise 3

For each of the following sentences, name at least two illocutionary acts their utterance could perform and specify the conditions in which they may be uttered.

(1) Assignments will be collected next week.

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

(2) I'm cold.

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

(3) Is Linda there?

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

(4) Our dinner reservations are at seven o'clock.

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

(5) You may want to review chapter 3 before Friday's test.

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

Exercise 4:

Choose two illocutionary acts and give two different locutions which would express each act.

Congratulate, request, apologize, warn, thank.

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

Exercise 5:

For each of the utterances below:

1. Name the speech act performed

2. Decide whether the speech act is direct or indirect.

a) Can you make your bed?

.....

b) Have a safe journey

.....
c) Where do you live?

.....
d) I wonder what happened to Mary

.....
e) I hear there's a fire in the next building

.....
f) Enjoy yourself

.....
g) Can you people at the back hear me?

.....
h) Is this the new dress you bought yesterday for 5000 DA?

.....
i) Where is your book?

.....

Appendix G

Pre-test: Speech act awareness

Part Two: Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

Section 1: There are 6 situations given below. What would you say if you were the person involved in those situations? Write your responses exactly as you would say them.

1. You stepped on the foot of a woman in a bus while you were trying to sit down, but it was impossible to avoid this as the woman extended her legs too much towards the front seat.

Still, you felt the need to apologize.

The woman: "Ah! Be careful!"

You:

2. You were half an hour late to a meeting with a friend and made him/her wait standing in a crowded street.

Your friend asks: "Where have you been?"

You:

3. You were late at stopping at the red lights while you were driving in heavy traffic and dented slightly the car in front of you. The driver of the car came out angrily.

The driver: "Don't you see what you did? You damaged my car!"

You:

4. When you came back home in the evening, your child asked whether you bought the book he/she wanted for his/her homework. You suddenly remembered that you forgot all about it and felt very sorry about this situation.

Your child: "How can you forget to buy such an important thing?"

You:

5. You had a new style of hair-cut. It looked very nice. Your friend saw you and said: "You look so beautiful!"

You:

6. You promised a professor that the following day you would give you back his book, but you failed to do so because you did not finish reading it.

The Professor: Excuse me, have you got my book?

You:

Section2: Please read the following descriptions of situations and write what you would say in each situation.

1. You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You do not know the student, but you decide to ask him/her to turn the music down. What would you say?

.....

2. You are at a record store with your best friend. There's a CD you really want to buy, but you do not have any money. How do you ask your friend to lend you some money?

.....

3. You are studying at home. Your younger brother opens the window and the cold wind blows right in your face and bothers you. You want to ask him to close it. What would you say?

.....

4. You have bought a shirt from a store for your father, but he does not like its colour. You decide to go to the store and ask the salesman to allow you to exchange the shirt. What would you say?

.....

5. Your friend and you go to a restaurant to eat. You want to order and need to ask the waiter for the menu. What would you say?

.....

6. You are writing your thesis and need to interview the president of a university whom you do not know. You know the president is very busy, but still want to ask her/him to spare one or two hours for your interview. What would you say?

.....

Appendix H

Post-test: Speech act awareness

Part one: Speech Act Comprehension

Exercise 1

1. For each of the following speech acts, indicate the type of speech act:

- (a) I will turn my paper in on Friday.
- (b) May I have an extension on the due date for my paper?
- (c) The teacher is supposed to return our papers today.
- (d) Iqbel's essay is the best in the class.
- (e) I will give you until Monday to turn in your papers.
- (f) You have succeeded in the examination.
- (g) I regret that you failed the examination.
- (h) Your paper was handed in too late to be considered.
- (i) Your papers are due on Friday.
- (j) Congratulations on passing the course.
- (k) Your papers will be marked down for each day that they are late.
- (l) If you don't start on your papers early, you won't have enough time.

2. Tick the boxes to indicate which of the above speech acts contains a performative verb.

- (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g)
- (h) (i) (j) (k) (l)

Exercise 2

For each of the utterances below:

1. Name the speech act performed.

2. Decide whether the speech act is direct or indirect.

(1) Don't even think of trying to cheat on this test.

.....

(2) Tell me what happened.

.....

(3) I think it would be good if you sold that heap you call a car.

.....

(4) There are wolves on the prowl tonight.

.....

(5) Would you be so kind to tell me what time is it?

.....

(6) I am so sorry that your cat has died.

.....

(7) If you had a moment, I wouldn't mind a bit of help.

.....

(8) I promise I'll come tonight.

.....

(9) Don't smoke.

.....

(10) I'd like to apologize for my trouble making.

.....

Exercise 3:

Choose two illocutionary acts and give one locution which would express each act.

Congratulate, request, apologize, warn, thank.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Exercise 4:

Fill in the blanks with the corresponding speech act.

'It's hot in here' could be:

- An indirectfor someone to open the window
- An indirectto close the window because someone is cold
- A implying that someone should know better than to keep the windows closed. (Expressed emphatically)

Appendix I

Post-test: Speech act awareness

Part Two: Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

Section1: There are 6 situations given below. What would you say if you were the person involved in those situations? Write your responses exactly as you would say them.

1. While you were giving a party at home one night, one of your neighbours knocked at the door and shouted in a very angry manner that the volume of the music was too high.

Your neighbour: "Be more respectful at this hour! Our heads are ringing because of the volume!"

You:

2. You were half an hour late to a business meeting with your boss and made him/her wait for you.

Your boss asked: "Where have you been?"

You:

3. Your sister was sleeping soundly and you woke her up with the noise you were making in the kitchen.

Your sister: what is this noise?

You:

4. You promised to lend your friend your brother's textbooks without his consent although you knew he would not allow it.

Your brother: have you seen my textbooks?

You:

5. You bumped into a stranger in the way to class causing him to drop the books he/she was carrying.

The stranger: Oh!

You:

6. You hit your neighbour's car while parking.

Your neighbour: you hit my car.

You:

Section2: Please read the following descriptions of situations and write what you would say in each situation.

1. For registration you need to fill out a couple of forms. You search all of your pockets and can not find a pen. You want to ask another student who is sitting next to you in the department hall. What would you say?

.....

2. You were absent during last Friday's history class that you are enrolled in. So, you decide to borrow your friend's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you the notes?

.....
.....

3. You have a paper due in one of your classes next week. However, you will be very busy that week and don't have any time to write it. You go to your professor's office to ask for more time to write the paper. How do you request an extension?

.....
.....

4. A friend of yours from out of the town is paying you a visit. Both of you would like to take a photo together to remember this happy moment. You decide to ask a nearby person who is a stranger to you, to do this favour. What would you say?

.....
.....

5. You want to go out for a trip and you need your classmate's camera. What would you say to ask him/her to lend it to you?

.....
.....

6. You want your friend to post a letter for you because you are sick. How would you ask him/her to do so?

.....
.....

Appendix J

Communicative Proficiency Test

Exercise 1

Read the following dialogue and, starting from Part 1; choose the appropriate utterance to complete the dialogues.

Tourist: Excuse me; How far is it to the museum?

Policeman:

Tourist: Is it difficult to find?

Policeman: No, It's easy. Just walk down this street for two blocks.

Tourist: Thank you.

Policeman: You're welcome

Part 1: Tick the box of the corresponding answer.

Tourist: Excuse me. How far is it to the museum?

Policeman:

a) What can I do for you?

b) It's three blocks.

c) Take the Main Road to the drugstore.

d) I don't know.

Part 2: Tick the box of the corresponding answer.

Tourist: Is it difficult to find?

Policeman: No, It's easy. Just walk down this street for two blocks.

- a) *Then turn to the right and walk one more block.*
- b) *Turn left to the high school.*
- c) *How can I get there?*
- d) *Take the Main Road to the drugstore.*

Exercise 2:

Supply the missing parts in the following dialogue between a father and his son

Peter who is asking for a loan:

Peter: Good morning dad. Would you mind doing me a favour?

Father:

Peter: I am wondering if you could lend me fifty pounds.

Father: Why do you need this money?

Peter:..... and I want to buy her a present.

Father: But I gave you some money last week,

Peter: No, but I don't have enough money to buy a good present.

Father:

Peter: Thanks, dad.

Exercise 3:

Write where these mini-dialogues take place and who the speakers are:

Dialogue 1:

A: How old is this mummy?

B: it's about 4000 years old.

The

speakers:.....

...

The

place:.....

...

Dialogue 2

A: How would you like to pay for this suit, sir?

B: By credit card.

A: Well; Shall I put it in a bag for you, sir?

B: Yes, please.

The place:.....

The

speakers:.....

Exercise 4:

Choose only one correct answer from a, b, c or d:

1. Thewho replaced the main actor broke his leg.

a) horseman b) agent c) stuntman d) professional

2. In Algeria, people the 1st of November.

a) survive b) commemorate c) invite d) ignore

3. I wouldn't have reached this stage if she..... me.

a) was not helping b) did not help c) would not help d) had not helped

4. the bad weather, the match was played.

a) Although b) Despite c) However d) Because

5. She is..... . She speaks both Arabic and English.

a) monosyllabic b) literate c) bilingual d) monolingual

6. The village was when the river flooded.

a) supposed b) delighted c) subjected d) submerged

7. I could see the general outline, but the black board was not close enough to see the..... .

a) forms b) details c) frames d) shapes

8. The breadwinner is a person who..... .

a) earns money b) buys bread c) sells bread d) eats bread

Exercise 5:

Rewrite the following sentences using the word(s) in brackets to give the same meaning:

1. It's midnight; you shouldn't be doing your homework now. (supposed)

.....

2. If he had done his homework, his teacher would have given him a present. (should)

.....

3. People considered it unnecessary to educate women. (was)

.....

4. What is your opinion of this book? (think)

.....

5. It was my habit to play hide-and-seek when I was young. (used)

.....

Appendix K

Pragmatic Explicit Instruction

SPEECH ACTS

DOING THINGS WITH LANGUAGE

John Austin in his book "How to do things with words" is the first to introduce the idea of Speech Acts, analysing the relationships between utterances and performance.

A SPEECH ACT IS AN ACTION PERFORMED BY MEANS OF LANGUAGE

Ex:

Describing something ("*It is snowing.*")

Asking a question ("*Is it snowing?*")

Making a request or order ("*Could you pass the salt?*", "*Drop your weapon or I'll shoot you!*")

Making a promise ("*I promise I'll give it back.*")

We use language to do a wide range of things. Ex.:

Conveying information: *The PM is out of the country.*

Requesting information: *When and where is the lecture?*

Giving orders: *Stand up!*

Making requests: *Please, carry my bags.*

Making threats: *Do that again, and I'll send you to your room.*

Giving warnings: *There's a spider on your shoulder.*

Giving advice: *You ought to go to the lectures every week.*

People use language with communicative intentions.

Speech acts are acts of communication that express those intentions.

Speech act theory →

A speech act can be divided into three different smaller acts:

locutionary act

illocutionary act

perlocutionary act

The locutionary act

The act of performing words into utterances that make sense in a language with correct grammar and pronunciation

Locution: A form of expression; a phrase, an expression

The illocutionary act

Intended communicative action by the speaker, bound by certain conventions (the illocutionary act can only be achieved if there is a convention in society that makes it possible)

Illocution: An action performed by saying or writing something, e.g. ordering, warning, promising

The perlocutionary act

The effect that an utterance has on thoughts, feelings or attitudes of the listener.

Perlocution: An act of speaking or writing which aims to effect an action but which in itself does not effect or constitute the action, as persuading, convincing.

locutionary act

illocutionary act

perlocutionary act

These are dimensions of a speech act, which means that they cannot be performed separately.

In an utterance you can always find these different aspects.

Often the same utterance can have different illocutionary force (intended function) in different contexts.

I predict that *I'll see you later*

Ex: *I'll see you later*

I promise you that *I'll see you later*

I warn you that *I'll see you later*

How can the *illocutionary force* (the intended function) be recognized?

1. Word order
2. Intonation
3. Stress
4. Performative verbs

Felicity condition (appropriateness) → context and role of the speaker

PERFORMATIVE VERBS

- *I assert that | the Prime Minister is out of the country.*
 - *I ask | when and where is the lecture?*
 - *I order you to | stand up.*
 - *I request that you | carry my bags.*
- *I warn you that if you | do that again, and I'll send you to your room.*
 - *I warn you that | there's a spider on your shoulder.*
- *I bet you | fifty dollars that New Zealand will beat Australia in the Rugby World Cup.*
 - *I advise you to | go to the lectures every week.*

These sentences have verbs that state the speech act.

These sentences are explicit performatives.

These verbs are called performative verbs.

These verbs can be used to perform the acts they name.

Classification of Speech acts, according to the

functions performed:

representatives

directives

commissives

expressives

declarations

Representatives

the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, report.*

Directives

the speaker tries to make the hearer do something, with such words as: *ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request.*

Commissives

the speaker commits himself (or herself) to a (future) course of action, with verbs such as: *guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant.*

Expressives

the speaker expresses an attitude to or about a state of affairs, using such verbs as: *apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome.*

Declarations

the speaker alters the external status or condition of an object or situation, solely by making the utterance: *I now pronounce you man and wife, I name this ship...*

Direct and indirect speech Acts

Another type of classification of speech acts according to their structure:

- 1) Declarative
- 2) Interrogative
- 3) Imperative

Direct speech acts (direct relationship structure and function)

Indirect speech act (indirect relationship structure and function)

IDENTIFYING INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Indirect speech acts are not direct literal statements of various acts the speaker wants to be performed.

Rather, what the speaker actually means is different from what s/he literally expresses.

Direct speech act → I hereby tell you about the weather

It's cold outside

Indirect speech act → I hereby request of you that you close the door

Part One

Instructional Materials / Making Requests

Warm-up Activities

What are the correct ways of making requests?

How many kinds of requests are there?

What would you want to request?

From whom would you request it?

Under what circumstances would you make a request?

Making Requests

Stage 1

A request is a communicative function typically expressed by an interrogative or an imperative sentence; it is used to ask for goods, services and favours.

Stage 2

The grammar of Request

Requests are questions, so they use the grammar of questions (the auxiliary is changed with the subject, and the sentence finishes with a question mark). Since the person making the request wants someone to do something, it is polite to ask if they are able to do it. Therefore, people making requests often use modals of ability. A request is generally used when a person can choose whether or not to do it. People almost never give orders to strangers. Sometimes a person will make request instead of giving an order because it is more polite. Sometimes even a request is too strong, and we use a suggestion, or an indirect request. Also some requests can be given as instructions to people you know well.

Stage 3

The frequent situations in which requests are made:

Asking people to perform an action

Some common questions for making requests are:

Can/you.....? /could you.....?

Will you.....? /would you.....?

(Note that 'would you' and 'could you' are more polite)

From less polite to more polite here are some examples:

Can/will you show me?

Can/will you show me, please?

Could/would you show me, please?

"Please" is often used with requests to make them more polite. It is a shorter form of the older expression "If it pleases you". "Please" comes at the beginning or end of a sentence, as with names, but it does not usually come before the name at the beginning or after the name at the end.

Asking people not to do something

When asking someone not to do something, sometimes it is best to use the imperative, especially if it is a matter of safety. This is called a warning .You are telling someone not to do something dangerous.

Examples: slow down / don't fall.

-In other situations, it is more appropriate to ask a person not to do something.

Example: would you please stop doing that?

-you can imply your wishes instead of stating them direct.

Additional Requests

Would you mind cooking dinner tonight?

Do you mind mailing a letter for me?

Would it be too much trouble to pick me up from work?

Note: 'do you mind/would you mind' takes a verb in the 'ing' and 'would it be too much trouble' combines with the infinitive.

Activities

Making requests

Activity 1:

a) Choose the correct alternative for the following:

1).....I borrow a pen, please?

Will Could Would

2) 'I've forgotten my wallet.' - Don't worry. Ilend you some money if you like.

will could would

3)..... you like to come to the cinema tonight?

Can Could Would

4) Do you mind..... the window pleas

closed to close closing

5) Would you mindme with these boxes?

helping help if helping

6)..... I left early tomorrow morning? I have a doctor's appointment.

Could Dou you mind if Would you mind if

b) Choose the most appropriate answer for expressing the idea specified in parentheses.

1) I speak to Mr. Smith, please? (Formal polite request)

Can May Would Would you mind if

2) you open the window, please? It's hot in here. (Polite request)

Could Couldn't Won't Wouldn't

3).....buying two loaves of bread on the way home? (Polite request)

Could you Will you Would you Would you mind

4) **Would you mind if I your dictionary for an hour or so? (Polite request)**

Borrowed will borrow would borrow

5) **Mrs. Redding, lend me two hundred dollars till next week, please? (Polite request)**

can't you could you do you mind would you mind

6) **Would you mind here? I have a headache. (Polite request)**

not to smoke not smoke no smoking not smoking

Exercise 2: Identifying Request Directness Levels

Individually or in small groups, identify the following requests as either direct, indirect, or neither:

1. Turn off the television now! It's time for breakfast.
2. I'm asking you to turn off the television, son.
3. I would like to ask you to turn off the television now and come to breakfast.
4. You have to turn off that television, son.
5. I really wish you'd turn off that television.
6. How about turning off the television now?
7. Son, your breakfast is getting cold. Why don't you come into the kitchen and eat?
8. I don't want you to be late for school, son. Could you turn off the television now?
9. I don't know why I even bother to make breakfast for you.
10. I know that can't be the television I hear.
11. You know how I feel about watching television in the morning.
12. I'm sorry I forgot to make breakfast today.
13. Oh! What's on television?
14. That's my favorite program, son.

Activity 3: read each statement and identify the situation in which it is used?

1. 'please get back to work, don't waste your time or mine'

- a. an employee speaking to a boss
- b. a boss speaking to an employee
- c. one employee speaking to another

2. 'I wish you'd stop doing that'

- a. a police officer speaking to a dangerous driver
- b. a student speaking to a teacher who often forgets the student's name
- c. a person speaking to a friend who often criticizes himself

3. 'Let's wash our hands, we wash our hands before eating'

- a. a parent speaking to a child
- b. a doctor speaking to a patient
- c. a hostess speaking to a dinner guest.

Activity 4: What are the appropriate expressions for requesting or asking for permission for these responses?

1).....

'Not at all. Here you are. But I need it to do some translating next period. Give it back to me by that time.'

2).....

'I'm sorry. The wind is too cold for me.'

3).....

'No, I wouldn't mind. I'm leaving to bed now.'

4).....

'Sorry. I have a sore throat. I can't speak up more.'

5).....

‘No, I don't mind. Please turn it off when you leave.’

Exercises 5: Collecting Requests

a) Identify the characteristics of the request situation. Include the following information:

- Speaker and addressee gender, age, and any other relevant information
- Speaker's social distance: close friend, acquaintance, stranger, etc.
- Speaker's dominance: superior, equal, subordinate, etc.
- Degree of imposition: involved in the request—high, medium, low
- Situation: what the speaker and addressee are involved in doing
- Setting: where the speaker and addressee are

b) Analyze whether the request is direct or indirect.

Situation 1

• **You are visiting a friend and it is very hot in her apartment.**

• **You say to her : “**

Situation 2

• **You are studying for an exam and your sister is playing her stereo very loudly.**

• **You say to her : “**

Situation 3

- **There is no food in your house for dinner. You have a lot of work to do, so you don't have time to go to the grocery store.**
 - **You say to your servant: "....."**

Note: You may want to use the following form to organize your data:

Request : _____

Speaker: _____

Addressee: _____

Speaker's social distance: _____ Speaker's dominance: _____

Imposition: _____ Situation: _____

Setting: _____

INSTRUCTION SHEET FOR STUDENTS

Read the descriptions of the situations carefully and act accordingly.

It is important that you understand the situations completely; therefore, you are encouraged to ask questions if you find something you do not understand.

Scenario 1

Your flatmate is typing a three-page essay for her/ his lecturer. Suddenly her/ his computer stops working and s/he asks you to lend her/ him your computer. You are chatting online with your boyfriend, who is in another town at the moment. Today is your boyfriend's birthday. But if it is urgent and your friend is not going to use the computer for an hour, you are willing to lend it to her/ him. You two are good friends.

Scenario 2

Your friend was sick and missed an important class last week. You attended the class and took careful notes. So s/he approaches you and asks if you mind lending her/ him your notes. You are working on your assignments right now and need the notes at hand. However, if s/he can make a quick photocopy and give you back within an hour, you are willing to lend her/ him the notes. You two are good friends.

Scenario 3

You are a university lecturer. A student in your class is applying for a scholarship and wants you to write her/ him a reference letter. You have been teaching this student for quite a few semesters and know s/he is one of your best students. You would be happy to write her/ him a reference letter but you are having some deadlines at the moment. So if it is not urgent, you will write it next week.

Scenario 4

You are a university lecturer and supervising a student's thesis. The student that you are supervising is supposed to submit a chapter draft to you when you two have a meeting today. However, s/he was sick and not able to complete it. At the meeting s/he asks for an extension. You can give her/ him as much time as s/he needs. However, you are taking a sabbatical leave in two weeks' time. If s/he can give you the chapter within the next week, you can read it and give your comments before you go. If not, it may take a longer while for you to get back to her/ him because you have other commitments.

Scenario 5

You are a university lecturer. You have an appointment with your student at 10:30 a.m. Friday this week. S/he wants to show you her/ his revised thesis. You are her/ his supervisor. However, today s/he drops in your office and asks if you can move the appointment to another date or time because s/he has an urgent class. You are fully booked until two weeks after but if the student can come after your office hour tomorrow, you are willing to see her/ him then.

Part Two

Instructional material/ Apologies

An English saying goes “Sorry is the hardest word”. This is not because it is hard to pronounce or spell, but because you have to admit that you have done something wrong.

Reasons for using apologies

- ✓ To say that they are sorry
- ✓ To explain why the offense happened
- ✓ To make a repair for the offense and maintain a good relationship with the addressee

The most common way of apologizing is to say 'Sorry' or 'I'm sorry'. You can also make your apology much more emphatic with the adverbs *very*, *so*, *terribly*, and *extremely*. For example:

- ✓ I'm sorry for being late. / I'm very sorry for being late. / I'm terribly sorry for being late. / I'm extremely sorry for being late.

When you want to apologize for *accidentally* doing something, for example stepping on someone's foot or toes, you can say 'Sorry' or 'I beg your pardon'. For example:

He accidentally stepped on someone's toes. 'Sorry / I beg your pardon,' he said.

- ✓ The expression 'I beg your pardon' is rather old-fashioned.

A note: Speakers of American English will usually say 'Excuse me' in such situations.

Apologizing for Interrupting, Disturbing, Approaching, or Leaving Someone

When you are interrupting someone, you can apologize to them politely by saying 'Excuse me' or 'I'm sorry to interrupt'. For example:

- ✓ Excuse me butting in. (*butt in* is a phrasal verb)
- ✓ Sorry to interrupt / I'm sorry to interrupt, but I've got something important to say.

When you are disturbing someone, you can apologize to them by saying 'Excuse me' or 'I'm sorry to disturb'. For example:

- ✓ Excuse me for disturbing you at this late hour.
- ✓ Sorry to disturb you again / I'm sorry to disturb you again, but I really need your help.

When you are approaching someone (e.g., when you want to speak to a stranger), you can use the expression 'Excuse me'. For example:

- ✓ Excuse me, is there a fairly cheap restaurant near here?

The expression 'Pardon me' can also be used in the above situations. It is sometimes used by speakers of American English. For example:

- ✓ Pardon me, Major, I wonder if you could do me a favour.

Sometimes you have to leave someone for a short period of time in order to do something. In such situations you should use the expression 'Excuse me'. For example:

- ✓ Excuse me. I have to make a telephone call. I'll be right back.

Expressing an Apology for Doing Something Embarrassing

You can use the expressions 'Excuse me' or 'I beg your pardon' to apologize when you have done something slightly embarrassing, such as burping or sneezing.

Expressing an Apology for Saying Something Wrong

You can use the expressions 'Sorry' or 'I Beg your pardon' to apologize for making a mistake in what you're saying, or for using the wrong word. For example:

The town is situated in the southeast, sorry / I beg your pardon, southwest corner of England.

Formal Apologies

When you want to apologize in a very formal manner, you can use the expression 'I apologize'. For example:

- ✓ I apologize for my bad behaviour.
- ✓ I really must apologize for my bad manners.

Another formal expression, used especially *in writing*, is 'Please accept my apologies'.

- ✓ Please accept my apologies for this unfortunate incident.

You can also use the expression 'Forgive me' to apologize to someone in a formal manner.

For example:

- ✓ Forgive me, Ms. Batista. I am very late for our meeting. I was held up in traffic.

Accepting an Apology

You can accept an apology by using several fixed expressions, such as 'That's ok', 'That's alright', 'Forget it', 'It doesn't matter', or 'Don't worry about it'. For example:

- A: I'm sorry for being late, sir. B: That's alright, but don't let it happen again.
- A: I apologize for my bad behaviour. B: Forget it.
- A: I'm sorry for spilling my drink. B: Don't worry about it. No harm done.

Five possible strategies for making an apology

1. An expression of an apology.
2. Acknowledgement of responsibility.
3. An explanation or account.
4. An offer of repair.
5. A promise of non-recurrence.

1. Acknowledge of responsibility

The offender recognizes his/her fault in causing the infraction.

The degree of recognition on the part of the apologizer:

Acceptance of the blame Express self-deficiency Expression of lack of intent Implicit expression of responsibility Not accept the blame at all

2. An explanation or account

The speaker describes the situation which caused him/her to commit the offense.

Explanation is used by the speaker as an indirect way of apologizing.

“ The bus was late.”

“ My clock doesn’t work.”

3. An offer of repair

The apologizer makes a bid to carry out an action or provide payment for some kind of damage resulting from his/ her infraction.

“ How can I make it up to you- why don’t I buy you lunch on Friday?”

“ Would you be willing to reschedule the meeting?”

4. A promise of non-recurrence

The apologizer commits him/herself to not having the offense happen again.

“ It won’t happen again!”

“ I will never be late again!”

Factors that may affect how you would deliver an apology:

- ✓ Your familiarity with the person being apologized to
- ✓ The intensity of the act
- ✓ The relative authority that each of you has
- ✓ Your relative ages
- ✓ Your sex and that of the other person
- ✓ The place where the exchange take place

Activities

Apologies

Activity 1:

Complete these apology sentences with the correct word.

1. "Please me for interrupting you. I didn't realise you were on the phone."
2. "I can't believe I forgot your birthday. Please don't beat me."
3. "I'm soI'm late. There was so much traffic!"
4. "Oh no, how of me! Do you have a cloth so I can clean it?"
5. "We for the train delay. We will get you to your destination as soon as possible."
6. "I'mbut you are sitting in my seat."

Activity 2:

Each of the following questions will provide a description of a situation.

Following the situation there are a number of responses. Please choose two acceptable responses.

1) An applicant for a job has been waiting for quite some time, although s/he had been called in for an appointment for an interview. The manager finally comes out and says:

- a. Sorry to have kept you waiting.
- b. Sorry I'm late. I hope I didn't keep you waiting too long.
- c. Have you been waiting long?
- d. I was unavoidably held up in a meeting.
- e. I'm sorry. I was help up.

2) A young man/woman bumps into you at the supermarket and some of your groceries spill onto the floor.

He/she turns to you and says:

- a. Sorry.
- b. I'm sorry.

- c. Terribly sorry.
- d. I'm terribly sorry. Did I hurt you?
- e. I'm really sorry. Here, let me help you.
- f. I'm sorry but you were in my way and I couldn't help bumping into you.
- g. Are you all right?
- h. Please forgive me.

3) *A student forgets to return a book to the professor:*

- a. I'm terribly sorry. I forgot it.
- b. Oh, damn! I forgot it.
- c. Sorry, I forgot.
- d. Oh, I'm very sorry. I completely forgot.
- e. I'm really sorry but I forgot to bring it.

Apologizing Situations

Situation	Apology Needed? (Yes/No)	Person who made the mistake?	Person who receives the apology?
Dana broke her friend's toy			
I was walking around the corner and accidentally bumped into Chris			
Paul is late to school			

Who should apologize?

SITUATION 1

Student A: *You work in an office. Your boss gives you too much work, and you sometimes don't have enough time to do it well. Recently, you have had some problems at home, so you aren't able to think clearly at work. Yesterday, during a big meeting, your boss angrily criticized a report you wrote and said you were doing a terrible job. You felt very embarrassed.*

Student B: *You are the manager at an office. One of your workers, Student A, is not doing a good job these days. You give this person the same amount of work as everyone else, but he/she often does it badly and always makes excuses. This person's last report was very bad and caused problems between you and your boss. When you mentioned this nicely at a meeting, Student A seemed very Angry with you.*

WHO SHOULD APOLOGIZE?

Student A []

Student B []

Both Student A and Student B []

SITUATION 2

Student A: *You made a cool sculpture and gave it to your friend, Student B, for his / her birthday. Your friend said, "Oh, I love it!" But a few weeks later, you visited another friend's house and saw the sculpture there. So Student B didn't keep the sculpture he /she gave it to another person! The next time you saw Student B, you mentioned this and said you were upset. Now your friend is angry with you.*

Student B: *Your friend, Student A, gave you a weird sculpture for your birthday. You didn't like it, but you didn't want to say anything bad about it. You have another friend who likes unusual objects, so you gave the sculpture to him. When Student A learned about this, he / she was very angry and said terrible things to you.*

WHO SHOULD APOLOGIZE?

Student A []

Student B []

Both Student A and Student B []