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**Investigating the Role of the Competency-based Approach in Promoting
the Teaching of the Target Language Culture in the Algerian
Secondary School EFL Classes**

**A Case Study of Third-year Literary Stream Pupils at Roubel Larbi Secondary School
Henchir Toumgheni, Algeria**

**Thesis submitted to the Department of Letters and English in candidacy for the degree of
L.M.D. Doctorate in “Didactique des Langues Etrangères”**

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Dedication

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful

I dedicate my work to my family and friends.

A special feeling of gratitude goes to my loving mother for her prayers

and unwavering faith in me.

I also dedicate it to my two sweet new born nephews:

Yazen and Zain.

I am thankful to my dear friends: Abdelali, Didine and Khaled for

their support and word of encouragement.

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Abstract

This study purports itself to investigate the role of CBA in upholding and fostering the teaching of culture in the Algerian context, more specifically, to examine whether or not Algerian secondary school teachers give due importance to the target-language culture and how they actually deal with it in their CBA classroom. Moreover, this research seeks to gain insights into learners' ideations and perceptions of the target language and its culture. Last but not least, this work seeks to propose a new methodology within CBA to increase the learners' cultural awareness, and to test its effectiveness. For this, it was hypothesized that Algerian teachers of English are aware of the target language culture and its teaching within CBA. Secondly, it hypothesizes that secondary school pupils' main interest is in learning about the language and not about its culture. Thirdly, it hypothesizes that if the pupils were exposed to information-gap, opinion-gap and problem solving activities for teaching the target culture within CBA, their awareness of the target culture would increase. In light of this, two questionnaires were designed and an experiment was conducted. The first questionnaire was administered to seventy secondary school EFL teachers at the district (Wilaya) of Oum El Bouaghi, and the second was submitted to secondary school pupils at Roubel Larbi secondary school, Henchir Toumgheni – Wilaya of Oum El Bouaghi. The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire revealed that the majority of them find it problematic to construct techniques and activities to teach the target culture within CBA. Moreover, most of the teachers were unsatisfied with the amount of target culture incorporated in the Algerian secondary school textbooks. Hence, they argued that it should be increased mainly through designing more suitable techniques and activities that apply CBA's principles and objectives in teaching the target culture. The findings of the pupils' questionnaire showed that the majority of them displayed a great deal of interest in the English language and its culture too despite the fact that their proficiency level in a foreign language is very low. Furthermore, the experiment revealed that implementing these types of activities in presenting the target culture has led to a remarkable progress in the pupils' performance in the classroom. In other words, the pupils who were exposed to these techniques (the experimental group) have outperformed their counterparts (the control group) in terms of the target culture awareness level. Lastly, the findings in this thesis provide pedagogical implications for both the need of culture awareness as well as the need for teachers training to better include CBA techniques and activities to teach the target culture within its context.

List of Abbreviations

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

CBLT: Competency-Based Language Teaching

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CRT: Criterion-Referenced Test

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FC: Foreign Culture

NRT: Non-Referenced Test

TBL: Task-based Learning

TC: Target Culture

TLC: Target Language Culture

TL: Target Language

TGG: Transformational Generative Grammar

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

1AS: Première Année Secondaire

2AS: Deuxième Année Secondaire

3AS: Troisième Année Secondaire

3AS.L: Troisième Année Secondaire Littéraire

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1. Statement of the Problem

Over the past two decades, the importance of teaching culture through and in conjunction with language teaching has been acknowledged and widely explored. Ammon (2004) claimed that one way or another culture always manages to become a part of the language classroom. Similarly, Thanasoulas (2001) went to the extent of saying that learning foreign language essentially involves learning its culture.

When reviewing the literature, we find that the place of culture in language teaching has long been presented in different approaches and methods to language teaching. However, the priority given to this aspect or element as a significant component in language teaching has not been equally the same. For instance, while it was confined and restricted, in earlier traditional methods, to a mere transmission of information about a country's literature, arts, history or music, culture has taken a more practical and engaging direction through innovative and modern approaches to language teaching. One of such is the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) which has been implemented in the Algerian Educational system since 2004, and hence the textbooks of both levels, middle and secondary, were designed accordingly. Like other teaching methods and approaches, CBA takes into account the cultural aspect to be included in its teaching program, adhering to the dynamic view that recognizes the relationship between culture and language (Liddicoat, 2002). In other words, learners are required to actively engage in learning the target culture instead of only learning about it. In order to do that, teachers should implement techniques and activities, within the framework of CBA, that enable learners to submerge themselves in real-life cultural situations so as to know how to use the target language communicatively in such contexts.

On the whole, English as foreign language (EFL) teachers' skills should be enfolded not only in their competencies about content knowledge, but also about professional as well as pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986). Therefore, their role is succinctly critical and most certainly

challenging.

2. Aims of the Study

The present study aims at exploring the teaching of the target-language culture in the framework of CBA. More specifically, it examines whether or not Algerian secondary school teachers give due importance to the target language culture and how they actually deal with it in their CBA classroom. Another aspect of this study is to scrutinize Algerian secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions of the amount of the target culture (TC) embodied in the textbooks, on the premise that they are designed to comply with CBA as laid down by the Ministry of National Education in 2004. Moreover, this research seeks to gain insights about learners' ideations and perceptions of the target language and its culture. Last but not least, this work seeks out to propose an effective methodology within CBA to increase the learners' cultural awareness, and to test its effectiveness as well.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study triggers a series of questions to be investigated:

- To what extent are Secondary School EFL teachers aware of the target language culture and its teaching within CBA?
- How do Algerian secondary school pupils envisage learning English and its culture?
- Would the pupils' level of awareness about the target language culture expand if they were to be exposed to CBA-based techniques: information-gap, opinion-gap and problem-solving technique for teaching the TC?

Taking into account the problem and questions highlighted in the study, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis One

We hypothesise that Algerian teachers of English are well aware of the target language culture and its teaching within CBA.

Hypothesis Two

We hypothesise that secondary school pupils' main interest is in learning about the language and not about its culture.

Hypothesis Three

If the pupils are to be exposed to an effective strategy / technique for teaching the target culture within CBA, their awareness about the target culture would increase.

4. Methodology of Research

4.1. Population and Sampling

The target population is comprised of all Algerian secondary school English teachers. Precisely, our study's population involves secondary school English teachers at the level of the wilaya d'Oum El Bouaghi. Following the Simple Random Sampling Method (SRS), the teachers are selected randomly from all over the district which gives them an equal chance of being selected. The second population is composed of secondary school pupils at Roubel L'arbi secondary school – Henchir Toumgheni, during the school year 2018/2019, on the premise that the researcher works there, thus, easiness of access to pupils. The number of pupils chosen as a sample is 44 from a total of 441 pupils.

4.2. Research Methodology

For the sake of gathering data to test the above hypotheses, this research follows a qualitative/quantitative method which comprises two phases. The first phase involves two questionnaires. The first questionnaire is to inquire teachers' awareness of the target language culture and its teaching within the framework of CBA. In addition, it aims at shedding light on the place of culture in the Algerian secondary school textbooks. The second questionnaire is to scrutinize learners' viewpoints about learning English as well as its culture. The second phase is composed of a quasi-experimental design through which an effective methodology is suggested under the framework of CBA to effectively increment the learners' cultural awareness. The experiment is designated to test the third hypothesis of the research.

5. Structure of the Thesis

This research was built upon five chapters. The first two chapters provide a detailed theoretical framework of the two main variables that constitute the study: CBA and culture.

In the first chapter, we reviewed the major language teaching methods and approaches, followed by an illustration of some important terms like "approach", "method", "design" and "technique". After that, we shed light on the historical account of CBA as well as its major tenets and goals. Moreover, we provided a dissection of CBA as an approach to language teaching and learning. Finally, we concluded by breaking down the pros and cons of CBA.

In the second chapter, culture, as immensely vast as it is, was given an abridged but fair portion in the study. Firstly, we delineated this incredibly elusive concept and the many views and interpretations attached to it. After that, the discussion shifted to elucidating how language and culture are related from various academic and scientific perspectives. Next, some light was shed on culture in the language classroom, including its historical account, goals, and the wide range of strategies used to incorporate it into FL teaching. Finally, we

made plain how culture is dealt with in popular language teaching methods and approaches.

The third and fourth frame the practical part of this research. In the former, two questionnaires were designed. The first questionnaire investigates Algerian EFL teachers' perceptions of culture and culture teaching. Particularly, how they deal with it in their CBA classroom. Moreover, it seeks to inspect the place of the cultural element in the secondary school textbooks. The second questionnaire aims at exploring pupils' attitudes and perception towards the target language culture. The means of data collection, the results and their analysis are discussed in details. After that, the analysis of the findings is synthesised accordingly. The latter comprises a quasi-experimental design through which an effective methodology is suggested under the framework of CBA to effectively increment the learners' cultural awareness. Last but not least, a set of pedagogical recommendation and suggestions for teachers, syllabus designers and learners were dealt with in chapter five.

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Introduction

Throughout history, the language teaching field has witnessed a plethora of approaches and methods which were engendered either as a reaction to one another or an extension from one another. One of such is the Competency-based approach (CBA) which we, in this chapter, attempt to spell out. At first, briefly review the major language teaching methods and approaches. Then, we move to illuminating some crucial terms “approach”, “method”, “design” and “technique”. After that, we move forward to an overview of CBA which includes a historical account, a clear distinction between two fundamental concepts “competence”, “competency”, major tenets and goals of the approach. Finally, we cast some light on the pros and cons of CBA.

1.1. A Brief History of Major Language Teaching Methods and Approaches

Over the last hundred years, foreign language teaching (FLT) has evolved significantly. Language teaching approaches and methods have reacted, throughout history, to the changing goals of language learning. Consequently, ‘changing winds and shifting sands’, (Brown, 2000, p.13) were unavoidable.

These methods are derived partly from educational, political, social or economic circumstances, and partly from practical experience and creativeness. Stern (1983) recommends that we analyze our personal language learning and teaching experiences to see how much they have influenced our second language instruction. Thus, finding the most effective way to teach FL has long been a goal.

Latin was studied extensively because it was the main language used 500 years ago. It was crucial and substantial for educated students. The exhaustive study of grammar, conjugations, writing and translations simple phrases and sentences was considered as focal in the

teaching practice at the time. Richards & Rodgers (2007) claimed that this approach to FLT came to light as the Grammar-Translation Method (p.3-4).

1.1.1. Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

The German scholars Seidenstücker, Plötz, Ollendorf and Meidinger were the first to promote this method (Richards & Rodgers, 2007). It is considered as the longest tradition in teaching the FL. According to Thornbury (2000), grammar was viewed as the starting point for instruction.

Language is reduced to the grammatical system, i.e., grammar knowledge forms the core, as the most crucial type of exercise is translation. In practice, reading and writing are mostly stressed; speaking or listening is given less focus. According to Richards & Rodgers (2007), accuracy was a very important factor of this method. As a result, attaining high standards in translating sentences was expected of learners.

Table 1.1.

Methodological Features of GTM

Content	-Linguistic notions: Rules and exceptions. -Morphology of words. -Syntax: Parts of the sentence. -Simple and complex sentences.
Objectives	-The study of literary works is the ultimate goal. -The reaching of conversation is postponed and underestimated. -Extra-linguistic goal: mental gymnastics.
Materials	-The grammar book. -The dictionary.
Procedures	-Explanations in the mother tongue by the teacher, who has a central role. -Meta-language used for grammatical notions. -Practice exercises to apply the notions in a deductive way. -Memorization of long vocabulary lists. -Reading comprehension and vocabulary exercises of a text. -Translation of literary texts. -Compositions.
Assessment	-Exams to evaluate the capacity to understand written texts and to translate sentences

GTM was heavily criticized in the second half of the 19th century. The 'Reform movement' appeared to claim for the promotion of spoken language teaching. In other words, the learner, first, ought to listen and speak the language before exposed to the written form. At the same time, another trend that promoted the naturalistic approaches to language acquisition eventually gave rise to the Direct Method.

1.1.2. The Direct Method

This method came into light at the end of the 19th century. Credits go to the 19th century reformers and particularly the outstanding work of the language teaching expert F. Gouin (1880). After his failure in following the same Grammar-translation practice he implemented in his classroom and his observation of child language learning, Gouin came into the conclusion that language should be best taught to learners similarly to children learn their L1.

The direct method can also be tracked down to Franke (1884), the German psychologist, who developed the psychological theory of the target language's direct link between forms and meaning. He claimed that so as to enhance learners' communication skills, language should be used actively in class in a form of question-answer exchanges between teachers and learners (Richards & Rodgers 2007, p.11). Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that until learners reaches a complete mastery of speech sound, reading/writing should be delayed. Additionally, grammar is supposed to be taught inductively, i.e., like children, learners should pick up the grammatical points through direct exposure to the language (Thornbury 2000). These became the main principles for the direct method.

Table 1.2.

Methodological Features of the Direct Method

Content	-Spoken everyday language. -Gradual sequence.
Objectives	-Capacity to ask questions and to answer. -Listening and speaking communicative skills.
Materials	-Posters, real objects, realia and texts
Procedures	-Direct techniques with no use of L1: immersion. -Questions and answers. -Small groups and native speakers.
Assessment	-Conversation and interview exams.

Language teaching entered a new era thanks to the direct method. and led to the creation of novel language-learning strategies, including the emphases on questions and answers, spoken narratives, dictation, and imitation, etc. None the less, many concerns have been raised about this method: one is how to implement this method on the far side of the primary stage of language learning; the other is how to steer clear of misunderstandings involving some complex concepts without using translation or the first language. Moreover, this method seeks native or native-like fluent teachers which are very difficult to meet in practice. Inevitably, this laid the ground to the Audio-lingual method.

1.2.3. The Audio-lingual Method (ALM)

The audio-lingual method, otherwise labelled “Army Method” was first developed as a special and urgent program during the WWII. Brown (1983) claimed that when the war started, the United States was abruptly drawn into a global battle, which increased the necessity for Americans to become orally fluent in both their friends' and opponents' languages. A revolution in language instruction was warranted at the time. It goes back to the

seminal work of Bloomfield (1942), then came Brooks (1960), Stack (1960), Lado(1964) and Rivers (1964) who compiled and carried out Bloom's principles up to 1970's with a close relationship with behaviourism.

Moulton (1961) mentioned several methodological characteristics of this method. Language is speech not writing. In other words, the primary focus should not be on the lexis but rather on language's phonological and grammatical structures. In addition, language is a series of habits, i.e., language learning is a mechanical process as a result of "stimulus-response". Furthermore, repetitions of training patterns or sentences that have been memorized are typical of the Audio-lingual method (Richards, J.C., 1987). Moreover, like the direct method, grammar should be taught inductively. Rivers (1964) points out that to teach a language entails teaching elements of the cultural system of the people TL. That is, it is important to teach and learn word and phrase meaning in the context of language and culture.

Table 1.3.

Methodological Features of ALM

Content	Grammar structures
Objectives	In terms of separate skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing Priority of oral skills
Materials	-Language laboratory -Recordings
Procedures	-Direct techniques: without reference to the mother tongue -Mimicry and memorization: "mim-mem" techniques -Structural pattern drills: active and simple practice -Artificial dialogues to introduce the structures
Assessment	-Skill objective tests -Multiple choice and cloze tests

In the 1960's, Audiolingualism was most popular especially in the United States. However, this period was the beginning of criticism in many ways. On the one hand, its theoretical foundation about language and learning theories were questioned to be improper. On the other hand, Noam Chomsky disagreed with behaviorist learning theory as well as the structural approach to teaching languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2007). He argued that normal linguistic behavior is characterized by creativity, the creation of new phrases and patterns in compliance with extremely complex and abstract norms (Chomsky, 1966).

Moreover, students are found to have a great deal of communication issues outside of the classroom and occasionally found the educational process to be tedious and disheartening. Therefore, in practice, it disregarded the communicative competence.

1.1.3. The Natural Approach

Together with Terrell's school of experience, Krashen (1983) developed this method basically on how children learn their L1. It regards language as communication. So the focus is on meaning rather than on grammar.

There are plenty genres of activities presented in classroom pedagogy. For instance: affective humanistic activities that involve the learners' feelings, thoughts, and experiences and aim to lower their affective filters include dialogues, interviews, preference rankings, and personal charts, etc. Additionally, problem-solving techniques, in which learners have to discover a solution to a condition or issue. Content activities are also important as they concentrate on learning something else apart from language, involving mathematics, science, etc. Production (speaking and writing), however, are left when the learners are undergone the silent stage and are ready to speak. According to Nunan (1989), the goal of this method is to give beginning and intermediate students the opportunity to develop their oral and written academic and personal communication skills.

Table 1.4.

Features of the Natural Approach

Yes	No
Meaning, rather than form	Analysis of syntactic structures
Unconscious acquisition, rather than learning	
Comprehensible input Drills	Drills
Games, problem-solving and affective activities	Stressful situations
Silent period	Repetition and immediate production
Input before output	
Authentic activities	

1.1.4. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Its beginnings can be traced back to the 1960s and the transformations that the British language teaching tradition underwent at that time. With the advent of 1970's, influenced by British applied linguists (such as Firth, Halliday, who emphasized language's capacity for communication and function), American sociolinguistics (Hymes, and Labov), Austin and Searle works, the communicative method of teaching languages was promoted.

CLT's main objective is to foster communication competence, to transcend grammar and discourse components in communication and explore the nature of language's features socially, culturally, and pragmatically (Brown, 1994). Therefore, learners are anticipated, to converse and speak fluently, not to produce exact or correct sentences. Pointing out grammar's role, Thornbury (2000) claimed that understanding the use of syntax and the lexicon of the language in order to accomplish communication objectives and understanding

its accomplishment in a socially acceptable manner are both components of communicative competence.

CLT also strives to create teaching methods for the four skills that concede the interdependence of language and communication. It promotes engaging in genuine conversation and performing important duties. Furthermore, teachers are supposed to be counselors, analysts, group managers, facilitators and guides; language learners are expected to be negotiators (Brown, 2001).

Undoubtedly, the communicative method made huge and fast progress in the FLT field. It dominated language teaching in many countries because it not only makes studying a language more pleasurable but also aids students in developing their linguistic and communicative skills. Nevertheless, many questions and concerns arose about it. For example, is it suitable to be taught at all levels? Does it suit non-native teachers? Can it be employed and adapted with grammar-based tests? Certainly, these problems can help to have a better implementation of the communicative approach.

1.1.5. Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

After the emergence of CLT, in the early 1980s, Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) has gained much popularity in the field of second language acquisition. It promotes process-focused curricula and designing communicative activities that will improve students' real-world language use (Jeon & Hahn, 2006).

Before Prabhu's (1987) work, there was not much written work about tasks. According to Adams (2009) the importance of task implementation has increased significantly since 2000. The American Government Language Institutions began to deploy foreign language task-based instruction with adults in the 1980s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Since then, many educators and academics throughout the globe have come to believe that tasks have significant value for both research and classroom education (Shehadeh, 2005).

Skehan (1996) argued that the development of TBLT as a “fairly strong view of communicative language teaching” is owing to the let-down with previous language teaching methods (p.20). In the same regard, Long (1991) and Ellis (2003) claimed that a task- based perspective on teaching the language, which is founded on the constructivist theory of learning and CLT methodology, has surfaced as a result to some shortcomings of the conventional PPP approach (Presentation, Practice, Production), which denotes: presentation, practice, and performance. This point of view gave birth to various task- based approaches in the 1980s (Nunan, 1989). Later, in the 1990s, it changed over time to become a more complete framework for communicative classrooms where learners completed task-based tasks via three staged cycle of pre-task preparation, during-task performance and post-task feedback.

Recent studies identified three key aspects of task-based language education that are pertinent to the language classroom. TBLT is proportionate with learner-centred approach (Nunan, 2005). It consists of certain components such as goal, procedure, and specific outcomes (Murphy, 2003). It also adheres to content-oriented activities rather than linguistic forms (Littlewood, 2004).

TBLT has three main approaches which are Long’s (1985), Skehan’s (1998), and Ellis’s (2003). Ellis (2009), as the table indicates, classifies these TBLT approach according to four main characteristics: the provision of chances for natural use of language, learner-centredness, focus-on-form, the kind of task, and the disapproval of traditional approaches to language teaching.

Table 1.5

A Comparison of Three Approaches to TBLT

Characteristic	Long (1985)	Skehan (1998a)	Ellis (2003)
Natural language use	Yes	Yes	Yes
Learner-centredness	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
Focus on form	Yes-through corrective feedback	Yes-mainly through pre-task	Yes-in all phases of TBLT lesson
Tasks	Yes-unfocused and focused	Yes-unfocused	Yes-unfocused and focused
Rejection of traditional approaches	Yes	Yes	No

As is clearly demonstrated in the table, each of the three approaches emphasizes the role that tasks play in creating contexts for the use and formation of natural language. However, variations in the three approaches are very clear when it comes to the focus on form. Furthermore, they also diverge regarding implementing tasks. While Long (1985) and Ellis (2003) are in favour of both focused and unfocused tasks, Skehan (1998) stands alone in favouring just unfocused tasks. Moreover, contrary to Ellis, Long and Skehan view traditional methods as complementary to TBLT.

1.2. Definition of Approach, Method, Design and Technique

Perhaps the most basic definition was given by Anthony (1963), American applied linguist, in which he viewed that it is a hierarchical system; techniques that carry out a method that is consistent with an approach are the organizational key. A set of correlated presumptions about the nature of language teaching and learning make up an approach. An approach is axiomatic, it describes the type of material that will be taught. Using the chosen approach as the foundation, the method is an overarching strategy for the systematic presentation of language material. While a method is procedural, an approach is axiomatic. There may be several ways contained in one approach. An implemental approach is one that is really used in a classroom. It is a specific technique, tactic, or device employed to achieve a certain goal right away. Techniques must be in harmony with an approach and be compatible

with a strategy.

Anthony's hierarchy was later reviewed and modulated by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 1985) who suggested a rethinking of his distinction by excluding the concept of technique and replacing it by design and procedure. Richards and Rodgers (1985) claimed that '*approach*' is the most comprehensive system that includes theories that support a method in terms of language teaching and learning. The two thinkers (1985, p.16) proposed that '*design*' is "that level in which objectives, syllabus, and content are identified, and in which objectives, the role of teachers, learners and instructional materials are specified. The term '*procedure*' was considered as the implementations phase of language class in which techniques and practices are employed as consequences of particular approaches and designs.

Brown (2001) also drew his own distinction between '*method*' as "specific, identifiable clusters of theoretically compatible classroom techniques" (p.15), and '*methodology*' as "pedagogical practices in general. All things that are engaged into 'how to teach' questions are methodological, whatever concerns are included in 'how to teach' are methodological.

In conclusion, because the Richards and Rodgers' reformulation explicitly defined the essential elements of language teaching layouts that had previously been left ambiguous and hazy, it improved our grasp of the concept of method. According to Brown (2001), Richards and Rodgers' reformulation stated six cornerstone features that underlie any method or approach, which are: Syllabus, objectives, the roles of learner and teacher, activities and tasks, and the roles of instruction material.

1.3.Overview of CBA

1.3.1. CBA in History

Competency-based education is as old as education itself (Mulder & Jonathan, 2017). It all began with U.S. initiatives in the 1960s to change teacher education and training (Hodges & Harris, 2012). At the end of the 1970s, Competency-based Language Teaching (CBLT), which adheres to CBA's ideology, was mostly employed in adult language learning programs that focus on work-related and survival skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Brown's (1994) historical account, the emergence of scientific management may be traced back to the first generation, which appeared in Australia's competency-based vocational education paradigm to work roles then, the second generation, who focused on creating mastery learning models in the United States in the 1920s and 1930s. He asserted that the formative vocational education and training were the main focus of the third generation of competency-based methods which is rooted in the behaviourist view namely: the work of Skinner.

Brown (1994) continued to argue that when the word "competency" started to be used frequently with this instructional and learning strategy, the teacher education movement in the USA has come to light as the fourth generation, surpassing training for employment to education. Besides the secondary and higher education, the competency-based education also developed into programs for professional traineeship in the UK, Germany, and other countries in the 1980s, as well as into the acknowledgment of professional skills and vocational training in Australia in the 1990s (Bowden, 1993).

CBA expands to other fields as well such as "Nursing". However, although it has been indicated in this domain 30 years ago, few references exist regarding the definition of CBA and the implementation of competence in the field of nursing (Trivett, 1975; Ewens, 1979; Mentkowski, et.al., 1982).

Similarly, in their thorough analysis of the works from 1966 to 2002, Carraccio, Wolfsthal, Englander, Frerentz, (as cited in Martin, 2002), discovered that attempts to integrate competency-based models to medical education and training ultimately paused at the superficial level. Moreover, they learned that the majority of reform initiatives focused on defining common competences and learning objectives. Klein-Collins (2012, p.4) also argued that the development of CBA programs in the U.S. is due to, for example, a feature of CBE programs dating back at least four decades is an intense focus on what pupils already know and are capable of doing rather than what is being taught.

Literature also shows that since the 1990s, CBA has been regarded as, according to Auerbach (1986, p.411), “the state-of-the-art approach to adult ESL.” In the sense that refugees in the U.S. who desired federal assistance had to undertake CBA program, where they acquired a variety of language abilities that are required for people to successfully function in the culture they live in (Grognet & Crandall, 1982).

1.3.2. Approaches to Competences

Firstly, it is important to stress that there is no academic agreement on how to differentiate between "competence (plural, competences)" and "competency (plural, competencies)". The latter terms involve a limited application of the concept to describe specific capabilities, whereas the previous terms relate to a broad capacity or competence (Fleming, 2009). Maintaining the opposite idea, Pennock-Speck (2009, p.172) stated that a practical definition of competences would incorporate what competence means, which, in my opinion, is the capacity to perform tasks, as well as the attitudes and behaviors required to complete the activities successfully.

1.3.2.1. Competence: Origins and Definition

The concept's first use can be traced back to Plato's (380 B.C.) writings. The origin of the word is '*ikano*', an imitation of '*iknoumai*', which means is to arrive. Competence also had an equivalent in the ancient Greek language, which is '*ikanótis*' (*ικανότης*). It means "the quality of being" in translation '*ikanos*' (capable), to be able to attain something.

Chomsky (1965) outlined a discrete line separating performance from competence. The term "competence" refers to an optimal capability that is identified as a mental or psychological characteristic or action, and 'performance' as the act of uttering actual words. In other words, competence entails "knowing" the language and performance entails "doing" something with the language. The European Commission (2004, p.7) mentioned that competencies are a multipurpose and transferable collection of knowledge, abilities, and attitudes that everyone needs for inclusion, personal growth, and work. Moreover, according to Black and Wolf (1990), competency is the capacity to operate well under many conditions, particularly those with varying requirements and unanticipated circumstances.

The idea had already gained acceptance in English, French, and Dutch by the sixteenth century. It is obvious that the idea of competence has a long history, which is not surprising given how inspirational it has been throughout time to be professionally competent—to be adequately qualified and authorized to execute specific activities.

1.3.2.2. Competency: Origins and Definition

As it is stated before, CBA unfolded in the United States in the 1960s, inextricably linked to the idea of quantitative and observable learning outcomes. That is to say, learners' expectancy to know, comprehend, and/or have the ability of demonstration after the learning process is over. None the less, in higher studies, it wasn't apparent until the dawn of the so-called Bologna Process (In 1999, the concept of competency was elevated to the forefront of language education following a series of ministerial meetings and agreements between

European nations to ensure comparability in the norms and quality of higher education degrees). From that point forward, it has been liable to thorough cross-examination and it has brought about significant perplexity and contention (Beraza, 2004).

Mrowicki (1986, as cited in Weddle, 2006) stated that competencies are descriptions of the fundamental abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors needed to carry out a task or activity successfully in the actual world. These tasks can be connected to any aspect of life, but they are often associated with the workplace and with adjusting to social life in a new location.

Competency has often been related to performance. Hedge (1996) stated that a person's competency is a skill or trait that allows them to accomplish particular or superior acts at a higher level of performance. Yet, it can be argued that competency is far from being equal to performance, but rather what vests performance to take place. For Armstrong (1995), competency can be elaborated as a range of distinct activities that people are capable of engaging in successfully because they have the requisite abilities, knowledge, and understanding.” Moreover, competency involves what Barnett (2001, p.32) dubs a shift from “knowledge as contemplation” to “knowledge as operation”.

Some scholars relate competency to the workplace. According to Le Boterf (2006), the notion of competency needs to be adaptable to the many workplace contexts and circumstances. He stated that no longer may experts be expected to carry out preconceived strategies. Instead, they have to deal with complex problems, take initiative and have some room to manoeuvre autonomously.

From a constructivist perspective, Jonnaert (2009) described the essential elements of competency, arguing that competency is the capacity of an individual or group of individuals to use information, behaviors or attitudes, expertise, or adaptability in a particular context. Competency is always contextualized in a specific situation and always depends on how the

person views the situation. Whatever the nomenclature used, it is undeniable that the idea of competency encompasses not only information but also skills, attitudes, and values. It also refers to the ability to function well in a variety of settings, whether they are social, professional, or academic.

In the language classroom, competencies are referred to as language outcomes. Generally, there are three major competencies: interactive, interpretive and productive (ELT Articles, Introducing CBA, 2013). They can be achieved at the end of each lesson or unit as a final project. Accordingly, learners mobilize and reinvest what has been learned to attain them. For instance, skills and strategies outcomes, communicative outcomes, cross-cultural results are all in-built, i.e., made to be parcel and an integral element of the teaching /learning process.

1.3.3. Competency-based Approach: Definition

In the advent of 1970's, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has become very popular. It is grounded on the notion 'communicative competence' being its ultimate objective in the field of language teaching and learning.

As it continued to grow, CLT gave birth to new methods and approaches which adhere to its principles but take different ways to attain the goal of enhancing learners' communicative competence. As such, according to Richards & Rodgers (2001), CBLT aims at enhancing learners' practical communicative abilities. Thus, it shares some features with CLT. They noted that Competency-based Education shares many similarities with mastery learning, performance-based instruction, and individualized instruction as learning strategies. It is outcome-based and flexible enough to meet the changing demands of the community, instructors, and students (Richards & Rodgers). CBA, unlike other approaches, is an educational movement that circles around outputs or learning outcomes. It does not focus on students acquired knowledge about but rather on their application of this knowledge. According to the U.S. Office of Education (1978), CBA is a performance-based approach that

results in the demonstration of mastery of fundamental life skills required for the person to successfully operate in society.

Moreover, Schneck (1978) regards CBA as an outcome based approach that adjusts to the requirements of students, teachers and the community. Competencies explain how well a student can apply fundamental knowledge and other abilities to real-world scenarios. Thence, CBA is based on a series of outcomes that were discovered through an investigation of the activities that students are frequently asked to do in real-world situations.

Relating CBA with time management, Mendenhall (2002) argued that the most essential feature of CBA is that it gauges learning instead of time. He continues to say that learners' progress is demonstrated via their exhibition of their competence. That is to say, they have proved that they well grasped the necessary knowledge and skills sought after certain courses, paying little heed to how long it takes.

1.3.4. Major Tenets of CBA

Despite the fact that the presentation of CBA was done in various nations at various circumstances, and the routes in which it was operationalized have altered after some time, the fundamental standards and aims of CBA have stayed, since the 1960s, basically unaltered. Bowden (1993) stated these basics: an emphasis on results, greater work suitability and clearly defined outcomes.

a. An Emphasis on Results

The first principle of CBA is its accentuation of the specific and evaluation of outcomes (alluded to as competencies). This emphasis on results appeared differently in relation to more conventional worries of instructive projects with data sources, for example, techniques for understudy/student choice, lengths of courses and preparation programs, class sizes, and educator understudy proportions (Johnston, 1992).

For Bowden (2004), CBA is not one of a kind in its aim to concentrate all the more

forcefully on instructive outcomes. Traditionally, Learning outcomes are centered on memorization and comprehension with the aim of passing exams. However, in CBA, the most important thing is to focus on exhibiting profound comprehension by way of application. In other words, learning objectives emphasize building the skills students will need to become better learners as adults and are proven via practice. Instead than focusing on what the students are expected to learn, it addresses what they are expected to do (Juraschka, 2021).

b. Greater Employment Suitability

The literature also reveals that CBA has a greater concern for workplace pertinence. Many people hold the opinion that institution-based education tends to overemphasize theoretical knowledge at the detriment of being able employ to knowledge to real-world situations and job duties (Jessup, 1989). In other words, CBA offers a practical framework for these theoretically based courses to be implemented to provide more work opportunities.

c. Clearly Defined Outcomes

Expressing outcomes as unequivocal, noticeable employment rendering is CBA's third principle. According to Bowden (2010), so as to address the workplace's requirements, the objectives of instructive projects can be re-characterized and declaimed with more noteworthy exactness and directness, it is imperative that the goal must express outcomes as clear and exact 'competencies'. Mansfield (1989) also declared that instead of creating curriculum to satisfy presumptive demands, representative occupational bodies create occupational standards, which are concise definitions of what constitutes good performance in various occupational fields. The standards are then used to create new vocational credentials, the assessments that support them and learning programs that accomplish the standards' listed objectives.

According to Jessup (1991), the more the competencies are specified the accurate the workplace needs will be. In other words, for the consequences of competence and attainment to be accurately communicated, a level of language accuracy that is close to that of a science must be established (Jessup).

1.3.5. Main Goals of CBA

CBA's main focus, as previously mentioned, is on the learning outcome. In other words, it advocates what the learners are required to do instead of what they are required to find out.

According to ELT Articles (introducing the CBA, 2013), CBA circles on three fundamental goals which are: expanding the learners' reasoning process, evolving learners' communicative capacities, picking a customized teaching method, and breaking disciplinary boundaries.

Building up a complex relationship between learners' reasoning process and the acquisition of knowledge has been one of the most crucial objectives of CBA. As it is known, CBA mostly promotes the 'know-how-to act' rather than emphasising solely on the 'know-what', i.e., learners must put into action what they have already acquired in the classroom as competencies. Thusly, their thinking process will be empowered.

As stated before, CBA is an extension of CLT; thus, it attempts to enhance learners' communicative competence in order to permit them to well-communicate with others. Furthermore, CBA also seeks to establish three major competencies in Algerian EFL context which are: interactive, interpretative and productive. According to (ELTArticles, Introducing CBA, 2013), CBA's purpose is to guarantee manageable and feasible learning. It also looks up to evolve a series of skills that people need to successfully communicate in the culture they live in (Grognet & Crandall, 1982).

1.3.6. Elements of CBA

CBA, as an interdisciplinary field, offers a complete new vision to the philosophy of education. This is due to the fact that the new world has changed its norms and values which urges educators and decision-making specialists to propose and set up ways to enable learners to be responsible citizens who can manage their own lives autonomously. It also requires the mobilization of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values in order to be able to face and resolve real-life issues competently (Jordan, Carlile & Stack, 2008). For this to happen, CBA is, according to Sturgis (2018) composed of many features such as:

- CBA is action-oriented for it focuses learning on acquiring knowledge that is ingrained in functions and abilities. These will permit students to become proficient and successful citizens in the real world.
- It is a problem-solving approach in that it puts pupils in circumstances that test their capacity to tackle challenges and issues, forces them to reflect, and encourages them to learn through experience.
- It adheres to the social constructivist view that considers learning as socially occurring phenomena. That is, learning is concerned with the creative application of freshly acquired constructive information through the process of social interaction with others, rather than the transmission of pre-determined knowledge and know-how to be repeated in vitro.
- CBA promotes the cognitive perspective in language. It is owed to Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1964), on the premise that all educational goals fall within the cognitive category (information) and affective (attitudes, values and emotions) or psychomotor (bodily movements).

CBA is designed specifically with the express purpose of enabling teachers to evaluate student performance in light of particular, observable abilities or competencies that must be attained in order to assure readiness and success. Therefore, one of its major components is

integrating projects as a learning strategy as part of its assessment program. As it is an extension from CLT, CBA endeavour is to make the learning outcomes or achievements visible and concrete through the realization of these projects. Thus, pairing CBA with Project-Based Learning (BDL) makes for a powerful learning experience (De Vivo, 2022).

As it is stated before, CBA is an outcome based approach as it adapts to the changes and needs of teachers, learners, and the whole society (Schenk, 1978). In this regard, Weddel (2006) connected CBA programs with nine features. According to her, such programs methodologies are structured as follows:

- The competency statements are precise and quantifiable.
- The material is based on the objectives or competencies of the learner.
- The program continues until the student displays mastery of what they have studied because the focus is on outcomes.
- Numerous delivery methods and group activities are used to convey instruction; the emphasis is learners' needs.
- To accomplish targeted competencies, we implement a variety of texts, media, and real life materials. Immediate feedback is given to learners' performance.
- Instruction is given at the right pace for the learner.
- The learner is brought to demonstrate mastery of specified competency statements.

1.3.7. Key Language Teaching/Learning Theories in CBA

1.3.7.1. Theory of Language

CBA upholds both functional and interactional views on the nature of language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The functional approach regards language as a vehicle which transmits functional meaning. According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983), this view asserts the

communicative endeavour of language learning. It concentrates on people's need to accomplish or what they need to achieve out of speech.

The interactional approach views language as a device for the fulfilment of both interpersonal relations and social exchanges between persons. This view is fundamental for establishing and safeguarding social relations.

1.3.7.2. Theory of Learning

Any learning theory behind an approach or a method ought to define the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes needed in language learning, and the conditions that should be acknowledged to activate these learning procedures (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Consequently, CBA visualises teaching and learning as both cognitive and socio-constructive processes. The following is a blueprint about cognitivism, constructivism and socio-constructivism.

a) Cognitivism

In psychology, cognitivism suggests that a theoretical framework for understanding the mind. In the 1950s, an intellectual movement that gained credence that firstly was known collectively as the cognitive sciences, and then became the cognitive revolution (Asia University, 2012). In 1959, Chomsky recast the theory and announced it as a response to behaviorism, which cognitivists said neglected to explain cognition.

Although its early emergence in the late 1950s and prevailing as the dominant theory of learning, until the late 1970s when its impact on the language learning occurred (Mergel, 1998).

Cognitivism also encompasses the examination of intellectual processes such as sensing, perceiving, paying attention, encoding, and memory that behaviourists were hesitant to examine due to the fact that cognition happens inside the 'black box' of the brain (Jordan, Carlite & Stack, 2008, p.36). For Chomsky (1965), language learning is not a mere passive

process, but rather an active creative one. Learners have the capacity to internalise the system of language, i.e., they can imply norms and rules before putting them to the test.

b) Constructivism

In the advent of 1990s, Constructivist learning has taken the floor as a prominent approach to language learning. It is assumed that earlier learning and experiences play a substantial effect in shaping future behavior.

From a holistic and cognitive standpoint, Piaget (1977) explains how knowledge develops, highlighting the various ways that students might construct understanding, such as by reading, listening, exploring, and experiencing. He argued that learners construct new information by assimilating them with prior knowledge, and that only happens when they convert their way of thinking to a given experience or situation which they may come across in the real life.

c) Socio-constructivism

Vygotsky (1986) adheres to Piaget's claims; however, he goes beyond to the social and cultural impact on learning and focuses their crucial function in constructing knowledge. Vygotsky's (1978) socio-constructivist paradigm exerts the learning significance in the context. In other words, building understanding via interactions with other in the social setting where knowledge is to be put to use.

To distinguish his view from Piaget's, Vygotsky's view has been labelled 'socio-constructivism'; hence, he is the leader of this theory. According to the advocates of this view, learners construct their knowledge not via their teachers inside the classroom, but rather through social interactions.

As indicated by Vygotsky's vision, social communication enhances the learners' intellectual limits. The presence of social knowledge developments in which both instructors and learners are co-constructors is evident. For the learning process to occur, CBA claims that students are obliged to encounter problem situation and obstructions that should be defying but not out of learners' capabilities.

1.3.8. Syllabus Design and Activities

1.3.8.1. Syllabus Design

Unlike the traditional approaches, CBA is clearly different when it comes to the syllabus design. Since CBA is designed on the idea of competency rather than the idea of topic knowledge (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The focus is on the “Know- how- to do” or “Know-how- to act”; which means on students’ use of the language instead of what they know about the language. On the other hand, through writings relating to the topic of typical life circumstances, the socio-cultural themes enable students to reflect on some cultural features found around the world. Schenck (1978) indicated that a series of competencies that are going to be dealt with in the lesson are set by the teachers, and these are expected from learners in the real life. These tested competencies include a description of the fundamental abilities, know-how, attitudes, and behaviors needed to successfully do a task or activity in the actual world (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

1.3.8.2. Activities

CBA’S tasks and activities are specifically designed to meet learners’ real life needs and to build up a certain competence. They are authentic tasks which could be linked to any of life’s domains (Richards & Rodgers). According to (Mrowicki, 1986), these areas where such activities have been developed are as such: Work Schedules, Job Interview, or Work Job Application.

Since the 1980s, many linguists worldwide have attempted to set a conclusive definition to the term “task”. Going back to the literature, various definitions of task are available. Long (1985, p.89) provided a definition in a general scope that a task is any work that is completed, whether it is offered for free or in exchange for money. Consequently, some examples of jobs include painting a fence, clothing a child, completing a form, buying shoes, booking a flight, obtaining a library book, etc. In other words, by "task" is understood the 101 things that people perform on a daily basis, including their jobs, hobbies, and other activities. Providing a definition that is more pedagogically-based, Richards, Platt & Weber (1986, p.289) indicated that a task is “an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding the language”.

As it is an expansion of CLT, CBA certainly endorses its activities that enclose ‘information-gap’ and ‘information transfer’. According to (Richards and Rodgers, 1999), all learners engage in the same type of activities, yet each of them has his/her own distinguished type of information to fill in the gaps.

Moreover, Willis (1996) offers other 6 types of activities which he grouped as follows: comparing, ordering and sorting, listing, sharing personal experiences, creative tasks, and problem solving activity. First, generally, comparing tasks is when learners compare information of a similar nature with each other which commonly known as “cross-checking” in order to jot down similarities and/or differences. Matching is used in the procedure to find certain points and explain how they relate to one another. Second, ordering and sorting tasks comprise of four main sub-genres: sequencing items, actions or events in a logical or chronological order; ranking items, according to personal values or specified criteria; classifying items or classifying them under designated items; assorting items in different ways. Third, generally, listing, in practice, tends to have learners take part in discussions to explain their ideas. It also involves brainstorming, in which learners derive from their own

knowledge and experience either as a class or in pairs/groups. By doing this, learners discover things by asking questions to each other or other people. Furthermore, sharing personal experiences tasks encourage students to speak more openly about themselves and to interact with others by sharing their experiences. For example, learners might be invited to share their own childhood stories after reading a selection of materials about childhood. However, these kind of open activities prove to be difficult to sustain and tolerate in the classroom. Moreover, creative tasks; otherwise called “projects” involves pairs or groups of learners in freer creative work. They tend to have a planned set of interrelated tasks to be executed over a fixed period and within certain cost and other limitations. Engaging in projects, learners find a great opportunity to make use of the information acquired during class. By doing so, they demonstrate both assimilation and goal achievement. Finally, problem-solving tasks appeals to learners’ intellectual and reasoning abilities, and though challenging, they are engaging and often satisfying to solve. It has been a part of education since the dawn of time. It was nearly relinquished later on, and it was only restored in the 1960s. Many culture teaching techniques adheres to the principal of this technique (Merrouche, 2006). According to Ormond (2006) problem solving makes use of prior knowledge and skills to address unanswered questions or problematic situations. One of the shining qualities of this activity is that it raises discussion among learners through communication in the foreign language (Gorgiladze, 2005). Brown (2001) defined problem solving as "an activity involving specified problem and limitations of means to resolve it; it requires cooperation on part of participants in small or large group" (p. 135). In this regard, proponents of the CBA urge teachers to expose learners to a variety of problems to contemplate rather than asking students to repeat knowledge delivered by the teacher. Learners can be confronted with problematic cultural situations “coloured by embarrassment, anger or offence, and asked to figure out what went wrong and why (what was done and what

should have been done), and eventually suggest solutions (what should be done now)” (Merrouche, 2006, p. 172-173).

CBA is regarded as the cure for educational problems as it allows citizens to engage effectively in modern life because it is a problem-solving strategy in that it puts students in circumstances that test or assess their ability to tackle challenges and difficulties, forces them to think, and encourages them to learn via doing (Ameziane et.al.,2005).

Expressing theories, reporting experiences, contrasting options, and evaluating are only a few examples of life-like problems. When students are actively involved in problem solving, they should first extract and mark the specific the target problem to be solved, and then they should weed out the obviously wrong solutions.

Freeman (2003) highlighted another kind of activities which is an information-gap activity. She claimed that it is a technique in which information is missing to complete a task or solve a problem. To do that, the learners have to communicate with their classmates to fill in the gaps. The task entails sharing information with the other person that they were not previously aware of. Pair work is an illustration of an information-gap exercise where each participant tries to orally communicate their portion of the information to the other (Prabhu, 1987).

Another type of activities appears in Prabu’s (1987) classification of activities in which he labelled: ‘reasoning- gap activities’ and ‘opinion-gap activities’. The former refers to information which you ask your students to extract from what you provided them. Much as in an information gap activity, they are required to grasp and transmit information, however; the information that they are asked to convey is not exactly the same that they comprehend. They are asked to use reason and logic to decide what information to convey and what resolution to make for the problem at hand. The latter, on the other hand, are those that request that pupils express their own own opinions, sentiments, or ideas regarding a specific circumstance. At a

more advanced level, the instructor can request that they participate in a discussion or debate over a social or political problem. On a lower level, s/he might ask them to finish a story. In other words, the activity means that there is a difference of opinion among learners. They can either agree or disagree, and give reasons why. According to Prabhu (1987), opinion gap activities comprise recognizing and expressing a particular choice, emotion, or attitude in reaction to a certain circumstance. In order to complete a task, an opinion-gap activity suggests that learners present their personal preferences, feelings, or attitudes. For example, learners might be provided with a social or a cultural problem, as in our case, and be asked to generate a series of potential solutions. Students, in this kind of activities, are required to go beyond the given information by stating their own ideas. The opinion gap activity, which challenges students to communicate their own meanings and is open-ended and shared, has been shown to be effective in facilitating negotiation (Ellis, 2003).

It is said that: “More hands make for lighter work.”; “Two heads are better than one.”; “The more the merrier.” These proverbs highlight the potential for groups to be more effective, imaginative, and motivated than people working alone. CBA also promotes group work activities. According to (Caruso & Woolley, 2008), group work benefits learners to enhance a set of skills that are growingly crucial in the business world. Group work activity also supplies students with plethora of opportunities for language practice (Paulston & Britanik, 1995), as it contributes to learners’ positive reinforcement, retention and overall college success (Paterson et al., 2006). Information-gap, opinion-gap and problem-solving techniques will be used in our quasi-experiment in chapter four.

1.3.9. Roles in CBA

1.3.9.1. Role of the Teacher

Teachers' role, under the framework of CBA, is not specifically determined; however, it has to do with language and language learning theories. Building on their personal experiences and professional skills, to assist pupils develop their talents, teachers must offer both negative and positive comments. To ensure that everyone feels comfortable in the classroom, the teacher must be conscious about the requirements of the students. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). Teachers should also give clear instructions to enable learners to accomplish the various learning activities so that the necessary competencies are dealt with properly.

In any approach, teachers should always facilitate the process of language learning via hypothesis making and hypothesis testing. According to the constructivist theory, which CBA is built upon, teachers are not supposed to be just knowledge transmitters, but also researchers; in the sense that they should learn how their pupils learn via close observation, listening, and asking questions.

1.3.9.2. Role of the Learner

The learner, within CBA, is the center of the learning process; thus, s/he plays an active rather than passive role in the classroom. S/he is required to foremost communicate not with the teacher but with each other (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Rao, 2002). Furthermore, the fact that learners are expected to perform the skills required, to decide whether the selected competencies are useful and relevant, is another proof that learners are actively engaged in the learning process.

CBA's primary objective is to develop a sense of autonomy in learners. It is true that promoting learners' autonomy is not a one-off activity, yet group work can do so to a great extent. According to Harmer (2001), group work promotes learners' autonomy due to the fact

that they are in charge of their own decisions and no teacher is present to direct them. This autonomy leads them to take charge of their own learning process including self-evaluation.

1.3.9.3. Role of Instructional Materials

Around the globe, learners in institutions of different sorts and levels (schools, colleges, universities, private education companies and others) spend a considerable amount of money on any resources available to learn the language and communicate with the world. These resources can be any kind of materials whether authentic or non-authentic texts.

For learners inside the classroom, according to (Hyland, 2003), materials are crucial as they can be the only mediator-source to supply them with authentic target language texts. The primary focus of textbooks is to develop communication among learners via authentic texts, passages, tasks and activities, and also to supply learners with the necessary information, abilities, attitudes, and behaviors for carrying out a task or activity in the real world (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

1.3.10. Procedure

At the beginning of a CBA course, the teacher sets up a diagnostic test to assess his/her learners' actual dexterity level. After this, in a typical CBA class, learners are classified according to their social objectives for learning English as well as their current level of English competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The project work, on the other hand, is deemed to be a very efficient teaching procedure. Learners tend to transfer and mobilise what they already acquired in class during the whole unit in order to solve a life-like problem- situation depicted in this project work. Project works are but a simulation of a real-world reality that makes learning meaningful and enjoyable.

1.3.11. Assessment

Since CBA is an outcome-based approach, it has an effect on syllabus in terms of assessment. Docking (1994) argued that “criterion-based assessment” is essential to CBA while other teaching approaches and methods tend apply “norm-referenced assessment”.

To test is to measure one’s ability, knowledge, or performance in a given scope (Bachman, 1995; Brown, 2003). According to (Kubiszyn & Borich, 2007), testing and language are interrelated; it assists students in developing a positive outlook, a competitive spirit, and linguistic proficiency. In the literatures of language testing, six major dichotomies exist and they are: direct versus indirect, formative versus summative, objective versus subjective, traditional versus alternative, norm- referenced versus criterion- referenced, and discrete versus integrative

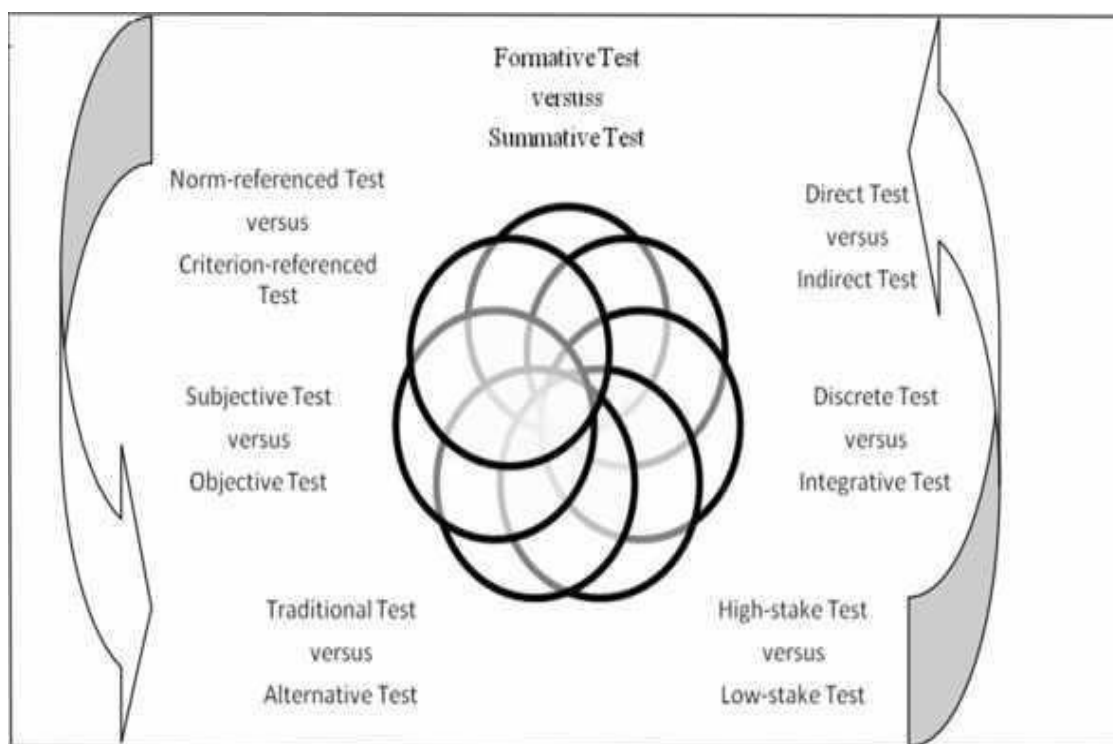


Figure 1. Approaches to Language Testing

Docking (1994) argued that '*criterion-based assessment*' is essential to CBA while other teaching approaches and methods tend to apply '*norm-referenced assessment*'. Hence, we will shed light on the last dichotomy for its relevance to our subject.

It is worth mentioning that it was Robert Glaser, an American educational psychologist, who, in 1963, firstly labeled *Norm-referenced Test (NRT)* and *Criterion-referenced Test (CRT)* (Montgomery & Connolly, 1987). For Mrunalini (2013), NRT is an evaluation approach that compares each learner's relative standing to those of other pupils in the class.

In CRT, on the other hand, the case in CBA, scores are evaluated in light of a certain skill level or domain (Backman, 1990). Nunan (2007, p.425) points out that "learners are able to obtain useful diagnostic feedback on their progress and achievements since explicit criteria are provided against which they can compare their performances."

For Pryor (1980), CBA is very expensive and demanding in terms of assessment. Most learners are evaluated through simulations, games, multiple-choice tests, etc. Stressing this point, Council on Education for Public Health (2006) adds that CBA frequently calls for more involved evaluations, such as role-playing and portfolios.

Like activities, assessments should be authentic. Wiggins (1990) proposes that assessments must take into consideration the task, the context of the task, and the evaluation standards so as to be realistic. To execute an authentic task, one must use knowledge and abilities. Similar to authentic assessments, real-world tasks must be measured. Based on O'Connor (2002)'s work, the comparison between traditional classroom assessments and grades and competency-based classroom assessments and grades is shown in the following table.

Table 1.5.

Traditional Versus Competency-based Grading Style

Traditional Classrooms	Competency-Based Classrooms
One grade is given per assignment. An assignment may be a quiz, a test, homework, project, or anything the student must complete.	One grade is given for each specific competency. Students may be assessed throughout the process but these formative assessments will not typically be considered in the final evaluation.
Assessments are based on a percentage system. Criteria for success may be unclear.	Standards are criterion or proficiency-based. Specific criteria and standards are made available to students ahead of time.
Traditional grades may rely on a mix of assessment, achievement, effort and behavior to determine the final grade and may include late penalties and extra credit.	Grades measure only achievement. Information about effort and behavior may be reported but it is not part of the competency assessment. There are no penalties or extra credit given.
Everything goes in the grade book regardless of purpose. Every assessment score is included in determining the final grade no matter when it was collected during the module. The final grade determines whether the student advances to the next level.	Students advance only upon mastery of the competency.

1.4. Pros and Cons of CBA

1.4.1. Pros

In the advent of 1990's, CBA has gained much popularity around the globe. Docking(1994) argued that learning and teaching have improved greatly as well as the quality of assessment through the clearly defined and measurable competencies. These refinements took place in all educational levels, "from primary school to university, and from academic studies to workplace training" (Doking, 1994, p.15).

CBA circles around the idea that language is considered as a means of communication rather than on the mere knowledge as an end (Nunan, 2007). Furthermore, Laitinen (2012) argued that CBA will be critical to building up an instructive framework that produces more degrees and accreditations more proficiently and adequately. Another advantage is that, CBA enhances learners' self-confidence on the premise that it enables them to perform the attained competences in the real life (Norton, 1987, as cited in Sullivan, 1995).

McKay et al (2007) points out that CBA increases educational system productivity, and it also establishes standards that, when compared across people, institutions, and systems, might reveal information about relative advancement. Investing in CBA is a growing interest worldwide in the future, as Rylatt and Lohan (1997) claimed that one of the industries and priorities with the quickest growth rates worldwide will continue to be the improvement of learning competences and skills.

Referring to benefits of CBA, Richards & Rodgers (2001) stated four vantage points. First, the competencies are specifically designed to meet the requirements and interests of the learners. Second, learners take responsibility for their own learning so they can decide if the competencies could be relevant and useful or not. Third, the learning outcomes are observable, measurable and clearly set up. Consequently, learners have an opportunity to know what they need to learn. Fourth, in order for the learning process to go smoothly, competencies are presented gradually one after another so the learners can monitor their progress.

1.4.2. Cons

Despite the avowal and credits given to CBA, it has also been criticised at many levels. Some critics argued that CBA only focuses on behaviour and performance, and that could inhibit learners' critical thinking. In addition, CBA is an outcome-based approach, i.e., it focuses solely on the output of the learning process instead of the learning / teaching process itself. Therefore, learners' innovation and creativity maybe curbed.

Learners may encounter a multitude of situations. To simulate them inside the classroom, it is very difficult to develop a list of competencies for each of them (Tollefson, 1986). Moreover, CBA is viewed as a reductionist approach for it reduces the educational process to a type of human designing since it sees education as instrumental to accomplish particular, pre-characterized goals (Competency-Based Education, 2012). Sullivan (1995) argued that there is a great possibility to revert to the traditional role of teacher unless a consistent training and follow up assistance is provided for them.

On the other hand, in CBA, the teacher is merely a facilitator or monitor who will manage the classroom environment and plan the activities that take place there. Additionally, a teacher's job is to provide pupils with the tools they need to establish a positive learning environment in which they can practice their abilities. As a result, success of classroom courses depends to a great extent on the authenticity and excellence of these materials (Grifith & Lim, 2014).

All in all, as there is a great appreciation and optimism for this approach to change the educational platform, its opponents view it as a pre-defined agenda set by policy-makers. On one hand, critical thinking will be promoted except if competencies are treated as instruments to permit learners to make a real change in their lives. On the other hand, students and teachers become the objects rather than the subjects of the educational process if teaching competences becomes a goal itself (Auerbach, 1986).

Conclusion

Although, each of the methods above emanated in various chronicled settings, having different theoretical foresights and stressed various social and educational needs, they offered unprecedented features and able to resolve certain language learning challenges. In teaching the language, thence, to implement these methods successfully, productively and constructively, specialists ought to take the following points into account: learners' background, their actual language proficiency level, their communicative needs, and the situations and conditions in which English will be widely used in the future. A single method cannot ensure fruitful outcomes. Instead, an eclectic approach which combines elements from the available methods is, therefore, mostly needed in modern languages teaching and learning.

Chapter Two: Culture in the Language Classroom

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Introduction

In this era of globalisation, the world becomes a small village. The need to communicate and know the other has increased dramatically, hence learning a FL is of a paramount importance nowadays. Evidently, knowing something about the culture of a specific language is very crucial to learn that language well. Culture, perhaps, is the most ambiguous fuzzy concept one can ever encounter. This chapter is but a humble attempt to; firstly, cast light on this amazingly inscrutable concept and the various views and interpretations associated with it. Secondly, it moves toward explaining the relationship between language and culture through the eye of different scholars and scientists. After that, it sheds light on culture in the language classroom, a historical view, its objectives as well as the plethora of techniques employed to integrate the cultural element in FL teaching. Finally, it illuminates the place of culture in major language teaching methods and approaches.

2.1. Definition of Culture

Undoubtedly, the term ‘culture’ is vague as it is enigmatic. Fiske (1994, p.68) claimed, is due to the fact that the concept is multi-discursive; it may be utilized in a variety of discourses. Similarly, Kaplan & Manners (1972, p.3) indicated that “Culture is admittedly an omnibus term.” While Valdes (1986) describes it as the very intractable topic to be learned, Seelye dismisses any possible definition and simply refers to it as a wide notion that includes all facets of a man's existence (1993). Perhaps the simplest definition of culture was given by Brown (2007) in which he says that it is “a way of life” (p.188). He views culture as “the glue” that connects people together (p.188).

As far as FL education is concerned, Adaskou, Britten and Fashi (1990) listed four definitions of culture:

-The Aesthetic Sense: It refers to culture, with a capital C, which includes media, books, movies, and music.

-Sociological Sense: it describes the structure and makeup of the family, social interactions, customs, material circumstances, and ways of thinking and doing.

-The Semantic Sense: It includes the entire conceptualization process that shapes our views and mental patterns.

-The Pragmatic or Sociolinguistic Sense: it alludes to the background information, social and paralinguistic abilities and linguistic coding required for effective communication.

Two sorts of culture may generally be distinguished: Big “C” culture and little “c” culture (Peterson, 2004; Lee, 2009). For Peterson (2004), the culture relating to grand themes, is classified under Big “C” culture which includes the following themes such as geography, architecture, classical music, literature, political issues, society’s norms, legal foundation, core values, history, and cognitive processes. Lee (2009, p.78) refers to Big “C” culture as the culture, which is a collection of data and information about a target spoken society’s arts, history, geography, industry, business, education, holidays, and customs. Perhaps the most appropriate type of culture since the 80’s has been that of ‘little c’ culture, also called ‘small cultures’ (Holliday, 1999) of everyday life.

Regarding little "c" culture, it includes daily activities and embraces everything as a way of life in its entirety. According to Lee (2009, p 78), this kind of culture encompasses attitudes, ideas, and presumptions as well as the "invisible and deeper sense of a target culture." According to Peterson (2004), little "c" culture refers to a society that emphasizes recurring or small themes. It covers topics including preferences, attitudes, gestures, body posture, and use of space, dress trends, foods, pastimes, popular music, current events, and specific expertise. (trivia, fact).

Wintergerst and Mcveigh (2010) maintained that students possessing both big “C” and little “c” culture can effectively take part in intercultural settings. While the domain of big “C” culture (e.g. arts, history, geography, education, business, etc.) is for the highly educated, little “c” cultural knowledge is essential for intercultural communication because it affects ways of thinking, behaving and using a language.

According to Peterson (2004), there are visible and invisible levels of culture, which are two distinct layers of culture. It is like an iceberg, and the immediately observable visible culture is the top of the iceberg. Geography, gestures, clothing, and architecture are examples of visible cultural components. The unseen culture, on the other hand, is thought to make up the bottom of the iceberg and includes things that are more challenging to perceive, such as beliefs, social conventions, views, preferences, and tastes. Peterson (2004) creates the following diagram to illustrate the interactions between big "C," small "C," visible," and "invisible" cultures:

Table 2.1.

Peterson (2004) Model (Levels of Culture)

	Big ‘C’ culture Classic or grand themes	Small ‘c’ culture Minor or common themes
Invisible Culture “Bottom of the iceberg”	EXAMPLES: Core values attitudes or beliefs, society’s norms, legal foundations, assumption, history, cognitive process	EXAMPLES: Popular issues, opinion, viewpoint, preferences or tastes, certain knowledge (trivia, fact)
Visible Culture “Tip of the iceberg”	EXAMPLES: Architecture, geography, classic literature, president or political figures, classical music	EXAMPLES: Gestures, body posture, use of space, clothing style, food, hobbies, music, artwork

In a word, because of the complexity of culture, it can neither be cornered nor reduced to a specific definition, perspective or context. Terms like habits, beliefs, values, behaviour patterns, are just manifestations of culture and express some aspects of it, but the essence of it is definitely much deeper.

2.1.1. The Etymology of the Term Culture

Originally, the English word “culture” has long since been recognised by the Dutch, the Scandinavian and the Slavonic languages, while in Spain, Italy, and America it has also reached full acceptance. Only in French and English does it still meet with certain impedance regardless of its occurrence in some well-defined and traditional meanings (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952).

The 12th century Anglo-Norman word ‘culture’ was derived from the Latin verb ‘colo’ that means “to cultivate, work on, take care of, nurse” which was subsequently confirmed as “cultura” – “cultivation”, meaning the cultivation of land (Beldo, 2010). The term “culture”, in the past, was apparent in agricultural domain to describe the process of caring for both plants and animals. According to Kirkebæk, Xiang-Yun and Jensen (2013), it was Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–46 BC) and Plutarch (48–122 AD) who first expanded the meaning of “cultura” by adding “animi” – “spirit”, “*Cultura animi*”, which means ‘*cultivation of the spirit*’. Its meaning is twofold: To self-cultivate and self-create and concern for other people's spiritual development.

Originally, the term “cultura” referred to the process of rearing, cultivation, and education. However, in the seventeenth century, the term “cultura” also began to refer to the process' outcome: Spiritual or intellectual maturity (Fink, 1988), an importance that wasn't accorded before the seventeenth century (Williams, 1983). Later, the term “culture” became a key concept in anthropology in the 20th century, spanning a wide range of human behaviours that cannot be explained by genetic inheritance. In American anthropology, the word

"culture" specifically had two meanings: the ability of humans to act imaginatively and creatively, as well as to categorize and represent events using symbols; and the distinctive ways of people acting creatively and categorizing or representing their experiences in various places of the world (Social Sci LibreTexts, 2022). Moreover, there are contemporary distinctions made between the tangible products a civilization produces, or its "material culture," and everything else, including intangibles like language and conventions, etc. These are the main referent of the term 'culture'.

Jahoda (1984) asserts that "culture" is the most obscure term in the social sciences' vocabulary and that the quantity of publications on the subject would overload many library shelves. On the other hand, Segall (1984) offers a pragmatic solution, arguing that it was pointless to make the notion more understandable or try to come up with a description that could be accepted by everyone. In his opinion, cultural analysts should give up trying to conceptualize culture. Segall also stated that they ought to "turn to the real business at hand," which is to increase your search for any ecological, social, and cultural factors that might be connected to recognized variances in human behavior.

Fischer's (2009) remark serves as an example of yet another useful justification for defining the term 'culture'. According to him, there is no need to look into the degree of agreement among the individuals who represent a national culture and supply information to a researcher if researchers do not concentrate on the shared component of culture. But such an analysis becomes important if one chooses a concept of culture that emphasizes sharedness.

2.1.2. Various Views of Culture

A wide number of disciplines, including anthropology, ethnology, ethnography, and sociolinguistics, have made culture a central topic of research. Each discipline or field of study perceives culture differently, and hence, defines it differently. In this respect, culture

can be said to be an interdisciplinary concept.

For instance, from an anthropological perspective, Tylor (1871) envisage culture as an intricate entity which involves knowledge, belief, morals, art, custom, law and any other abilities and habits acquired by man as a social being. In the same stream, banks (2010) views culture as a set of norms; the ideas, images, and interpretations that people in a group of people share. The way that a group of people understand, use, and perceive its objects, tools, and other physical cultural components is what defines that culture. Anthropologists seem to focus only on the observable aspect of culture, i.e., culture is conceived as observable patterns of behaviours, habits or events that people of a given society share and demonstrate. However, on the other hand, they overlooked the very reasons and rules that make people behave in a specific way; the thing that has been stressed by the functional account.

Functionalists believe that culture “functions” as the social glue and the fluid that generates cohesion and solidarity within human groups. According to them, elements like habits, norms, institutions and beliefs all have to be understood in their functions, and hence, this leads to better understand ‘the other’, cope and function within a given culture. The French sociologists Durkheim portrayed our new-fangled society as having an organic unity, where each part serves a function. So functionalists would consider culture to be an essential part of our society with specific function – educating the people, entrenching social interaction or expressing propensities and emotions among humans.

From their vantage point, sociologists emphasize the social component of culture. They contend that culture is the framework for a particular society's everyday way of life and that it impacts the behavior of its people. Lyons (1990) indicated that culture can be seen of as socially acquired information, or knowledge that a person acquires as a result of belonging to a certain culture. Culture and its social worth are inextricably linked (Lyon, 1983). Duranti

(1997) emphasized the connection between language, the individual, and communal culture. Through human action, frequently in the form of face-to-face encounter, and of course, through linguistic communication, culture is something that is learnt, conveyed, and passed down from one generation to the next (Duranti, 1997, as cited in Thanasoulas, 2001).

2.1.3. Culture Shock

It was Cora Dubois, a famous anthropologist, who first came up with the expression 'culture shock'. Social psychologists used the term to describe the process of adjusting to new cultural environment. The concept has gained much popularity with the rise of intercultural communication.

Culture shock has been defined in the *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* as a strong discomfort, fear, or uneasiness that a person could have upon entering a new society. For instance, when someone relocates to a foreign nation to reside, they could experience a period of culture shock until they acclimate to the new culture. Furthermore, Brown (1986) points out those things like signs, symbols and behaviours which are known to one culture might be unknown to another culture; hence, culture shock becomes a form of anxiety.

Hofstede views this phenomenon as the process of initial adaptation to a foreign culture. (2002). He argued that the concept might also be valid in various situations like one's being in a new family, school, or town. Culture shock is solely a unique experience, i.e., it is totally not the same for two people or the one person in different or same situation. In her statement, Damen (1987) recaps the three major stages people go through when they experience culture shock. She claimed that it starts by rising to higher levels of adjustment both in the host culture and in the home culture, after first experiencing a low point of depression due to culture shock at the beginning of the episode (Damen).

Some claimed that the term must be expelled since with globalization the world is getting smaller and individuals are coming closer. Nevertheless, as Thomas (2001) claimed that the boundaries of cultural differences will always exist.

2.1.4. Culture Awareness

When using English as a foreign language, EFL students should be conscious of the target culture. Pachler (1999) claimed that learners must be aware of the cultural aspect of language in order to be proficient speakers of the target culture. This is called cultural awareness. It usually includes both verbal and non-verbal behaviours. Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) understand that sensitivity to the effects of culturally influenced behavior on language use and communication is referred to as cultural awareness. Understanding cultural differences of one's own language and those of the TL is the first step towards being culturally aware.

In order to successfully raise cultural awareness inside the classroom, teachers tend to employ various techniques and strategies. These techniques might help students engage in active participation and involvement. According to Damen (1987), there exist plenty of ways to incorporate the cultural element into the language classroom. For instance, conducting research is one of these strategies. With this method, students must conduct research to finish a task. Another promising technique is noticing. Visual assistances are necessary for this method. Students can be requested, for instance, to pay attention to a specific characteristic while watching a movie or other visual aids and to list any parallels and contrasts they may discover. Furthermore, Role-playing drama is regarded as an excellent method of teaching culture, despite its long history of use as a strategy to improve communication skills. According to Isbell (1999), it is a setting where they could come across new and unique emotions...risk-taking, surprise, insecurity, and fear. Learners will be able to acquire and comprehend language and culture in this way naturally, oftentimes better than through other approaches.

Regardless of the many viewpoints, culture has not taken a significant place in the Algerian FL classes due to many reasons mainly, teachers' unfamiliarity and learners' unawareness of its essence and relevance. As a matter of fact, both teachers and students must publicly acknowledge that no one is "just like me" and that no two people are alike on the inside. There are substantial distinctions between groups and cultures (Brown, 1994, p.167). Therefore, EFL teachers should not disregard conveying impressions of another culture (Rivers, 1981, p.315). The need for developing cultural awareness in the Algerian FL classes is not a matter of debate. To achieve this, learners must go through six different stages include denial, defence, acceptance, minimisation, adaptation and integration (Cushner, McClelland, & Safford, 2012). It is most certainly a long and exhausting journey for teachers to restore culture in its rightful place in the language classroom that is right beside language.

2.2. Language and Culture

2.2.1. The Language – culture Relationship

At the end of 19th century, extensive research on the connection between language and culture were carried out by Sapir (1949); Hoijer (1953); Hymes (1972); Geertz (1975); Halliday (1978); and Wierzbicka (1986) (Merrouche, 2006). Unsurprisingly, almost all of their findings conclude, unsurprisingly, that without the other, the first cannot fully exist.

Recognizing the relationship between language and culture, in fact, is not unprecedented, as Lambert (2000) stated that the emphasis on language as a crucial component of cultural identity is nothing new. Even historical and cultural study, as well as anthropology, history, pragmatics, and literary studies, use it frequently. Katan (1999) claimed that Malinowski is considered one of the earliest prominent anthropologists to realise that language could only be understood through culture. Malinowski (1938) indicated that language is fundamentally anchored in cultural reality, and without frequently referring to these larger contexts of verbal

expressions, it cannot be comprehended.

There are numerous opinions regarding how language and culture are interrelated. Referring to this knit inseparable relationship, Geertz (1973) defines culture as a system of inherited notions expressed in a symbolic form by which mankind communicate, sustain, and expand their knowledge of attitudes toward life. The pattern of meanings that is transmitted historically is expressed in symbols. He then highlighted the generational transmission of culture in a particular society through concepts and meanings that are widely shared which are incarnated in letters, words and symbols. That is, that is to say, these overlapping meanings denote that people of a given society use to their own language communicate. Hence, language is a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage.

Language and culture cannot be separated as Kluckhohn pointed out “human culture without language is unthinkable” (1944, p.26). Further, culture is embedded in language use in all its forms: norms of politeness, greeting, compliments, etc (Saville Troike, 2003). Asserting the relationship between culture and language, Brown (2000) declared that it is impossible to separate the two without losing the relevance of either language or culture because a language is a part of a culture and vice versa.

From another perspective, Byram (1989) claimed that, besides other indicators of culture like housing, social institutions or clothing, language also is deemed as a cultural marker for our identity. Language is tied up to culture in a variety and complex ways when it is used in communicative contexts (Kramsch, 1998). For her, language is tied to culture in three ways. First, “language expresses cultural reality.” People of the same group use the language to communicate their ideas, share their beliefs, express their habits; etc. Second, “language embodies cultural reality,” That is, language is used as a medium to create meanings in different context. These meanings are understood and significant to the same cultural group. Third, language represents a culture's reality. It is a system of symbols and signs that are

substantial in shaping people's cultural identity. Kramsch (1998) continues to argue that through the use of language, speakers identify themselves and others, and they "view their language as a symbol of their social identity" (p.3).

2.2.2. A Socio-cultural Account of Language

In the 1970s, with the appearance of functionalism, the study of language as a system took another direction. Unlike structuralism, which views language as an abstract set of isolated structures and signs, functionalism holds that language's semantic and communicative functions, whose main purpose is to facilitate human social interaction, are the only ways that linguistic systems may be comprehended and described. Language has to be studied in its sociocultural context (Allen, 2007).

2.2.2.1. Language and Context

Language is central to our existence. Besides the fact that it is a means of communication, it is also a means of establishing and sustaining social ties among speakers of the same society. Language and society has been the core study of sociolinguistics since the middle of twentieth century. As a sub-branch of linguistics, sociolinguistics came to investigate the relationship between language and society, i.e., to investigate how language usage affects society as a whole, as well as how social structure and context affect language use in turn.

According to Spolsky (1998), it is the field that investigates how language and society interact, how language is used and how language users interact with their social environments. The scenario, environment, or, in other words, the context in which it is being used, heavily influences the sort of language being used and how it is utilised. Accordingly, Kramsch (1993) indicated that building a speech act entails, besides a selection of grammatical and lexical elements, choosing from that selection based on the evaluation of the communication situation as a whole, and the expectations that circumstance has aroused in both the speaker and the listener. Another example of studying language in context is

highlighted in Hyme's (1972) notion of 'communicative competence', which was derived from Chomsky's distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. Hymes (1971, as cited in Bernstein, 1973) describes Chomsky's view of language as a "Garden of Eden" which disregards the imperfection of the social context where language is used, and doesn't account for sociocultural factors. Hymes (1971), along with Campbell and Wales (1970), argued that communicative competence consists of contextual and sociolinguistic competence (know-how to use the language) besides grammatical competence (know-how to use grammar implicitly and explicitly).

Similarly, Austin's (1962) and Searle's (1969) *Speech Act theory* along with Oller's (1970) reaction to Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG), have laid the groundwork to pragmatics. Oller (1970) defines pragmatics as the connection between extralinguistic and linguistic environments. It includes both the conventional topics of sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. This definition, however, is somewhat vague because it did not succeed to distinguish pragmatism from the numerous other fields (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, etc.) interested in functional approaches to language. Yule (1996), on the other hand, gave a more comprehensive detailed definition that this kind of research necessitates the interpretation of what people mean in a particular setting and how the context influences what is said. In 1996, Yule goes on to say that this approach also unavoidably examines how listeners can infer meaning from what is said in order to determine what the speaker intended. The speaker and the hearer (the interlocutors) should share the same cultural knowledge and context so as they can successfully communicate, and understand not only what is said, but also what is left unsaid, i.e., the speaker's intentions, presuppositions, assumptions and goals, which are culturally-based. For that, Yule (1996) pointed out that, consequently, pragmatics is interesting because it focuses on how language is used to communicate between people, but it can be challenging to study because

it demands us to understand people and their intentions.

2.2.2.2. Types of Context

The socio-cultural context of language has been highly recognised and emphasised by various disciplines, mainly sociolinguistics. It views language as a communication tool that is applied in a social setting. It is the study of how a language's structure varies in response to its various social and cultural roles. So, to be able to understand any language requires one's knowledge of the context in which it is used. Hymes (1972, as cited in Kramsch, 1993, p.34) stated that "The key to understanding language in context is to start not with language, but with context." The term 'context' has been defined in many ways. Goodwin, Charles and Duranti, (1992) said that a context for the event that offers resources for its accurate interpretation. Hence, it is a relative concept, only definable with regard to some focal event, not independently. They go on to say that it is believed that context and talk stand in a mutually reflexive relationship to each other, with speech and the interpretative labor it generates shaping context as much as talk changes context, as opposed to seeing context as a set of factors that statically surround strips of communication (Goodwin et al., 1992). Despite the fact that he did not write in depth and specifically about context, all of Vygotsky's work was an implication about how crucial the context is in both, at the level of individual speech acts (whether it is inner or social speech/dialogue), and at the level of cultural language usage patterns. The term 'context' also appears in pragmatics. It is a branch of linguistics that studies how language is used in social settings and how speakers and listeners create and understand meaning. It investigates how context influences meaning in various ways. Finch (2000) argued that the core concern of pragmatics is what is left unsaid and the way we interpret utterances in situational contexts. Duranti and Goodwin (1992, as cited in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) propose for types of context:

- Physical setting.
- Behavioural settings that involve the nonverbal features of communication like gestures.
- Context of language that indicates texts, words and expressions that comes before or after a given word.
- Extra-situational context including the social, political and cultural background of participants.

Another delineation of the term ‘context’ is found in Malinowski’s (1923) essay “*The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages*” Malinowski (1923) claimed that we paddle in place needs the context of the entire statement, as in a primitive language, the meaning of every single word is highly dependent on its context. the idea of context needs to be expanded and that the context in which words are uttered cannot be disregarded as unimportant to the linguistic expression, the latter again becomes understandable only when it is placed within its context of situation.

Many years later, Malinowski (1935) has extended the notion of situational context to “what we might call [the] context of culture”, so that placing a term into its cultural context plays a factor in its definition (as cited in Halliday, 1999). That is, language is considered as a system to be connected to its cultural context (Halliday, 2007). It is clear now that language cannot be taken from its context, as Wendt (2003) also claimed that any approach for doing research on language learning must completely take into account the fact that language is learned in context. Moreover, as far as culture is concerned, Byram (1988) accentuates that language is only useful in the context in which it is employed, hence language constantly alludes to something broader than itself: the cultural context. This latter specifies the language patterns that are employed when specific people get together under specific conditions at a specific time and location. Every time a set of components has a cultural connotation, it affects how language is used. Indeed, according to Heath (1986), the majority

of human connection is based more on a person's grasp of the environment in which the communication is occurring than it is on their shared personal knowledge of one another. All of the contexts that these authors and scholars highlight revolve around culture. It is the meaning attached to that context—which is defined by culture—that affects language use and how the interactants behave, not the context itself.

2.2.3. The Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis

The interrelationship that governs language and culture has engaged the imaginations of many anthropological linguists over time. Culture does not solely affect language, but also our thought and perception of the world around us. This is what came to be known as the principle of Linguistic Relativity' or the so-called 'the Sapir / Whorf hypothesis'. The idea of language shapes the minds of its speakers was first expressed in the early 19th century by the German philosophers Herder (1744-1803) and Humboldt (1767- 1835), who saw language as the expression of the spirit of a nation. Later, it was expanded and adopted by American anthropologist such as Boas (1858-1942) and Sapir (1884-1939), and then his disciple Whorf (1897-1941). The hypothesis asserts that language has an impact on perception and thought. This suggests that different languages have their own worldviews and that different language speakers think and interpret reality differently.

Humboldt and Herder, according to Lyon (1990), were first to assert that language and culture are inseparable. They argued that people speak in a many different ways because they think differently, and they think in a variety of ways because their language allows them to communicate their world in a variety of ways (Lyon, 1990). In the same view, Sapir recognises the intimate relationship between language and culture, and one cannot be understood and appreciated without the knowledge of the other. Taken from his book 'Language', Sapir stated that humans do not, as is commonly believed, live alone in the

objective world or in the world of social interaction. Instead, they are extremely dependent on the particular language that has evolved into the primary means of communication for their society. It is quite a delusion to believe that language is only an incidental technique of addressing particular communication or reflective difficulties and that one essentially adjusts to reality without the use of language. He continued to argue that the group's language patterns are mostly unconscious foundations upon which the "real world" is created. Because of the community's linguistic practices, which influence how we interpret what we see, hear, and encounter on a daily basis, we see, hear, and experience a great deal of what we do (Sapir, 1929). That is, the cultural system is embedded in the language of a given speech community. Thus, it molds and sculpts the speakers of the language's thoughts. Our language, which is an expression of our culture, informs how we think in terms of its words and meanings (Rogers & Steinfatt, 1999). Whorf, similarly, believe that people who speak different languages think differently, and hence, perceive the world differently. His concept came from his thorough research into the American Indian language of the Hopi, which he did in an effort to understand its grammatical structure. However, he found out that there are unexplainable irregularities completely different from those in the usual Indo-European categories. He discovered linguistic patterns that were significantly dissimilar from those of his native language, English. According to Whorf, this suggests a distinct way of thinking. Therefore, A Hopi speaker must interpret reality in accordance with how his language allows him to experience the world differently. Whorf, however, went further in extending his master's (Sapir's) ideas and claimed that the connection between culture and language is rather deterministic. Whorf's view was the strongest one and it was labelled 'linguistic determinism'.

The Whorfian hypothesis, for it was more Whorf's than Sapir's, asserts that cultural products and meanings can be connected causally to language categories and forms to

produce a distinct worldview or system of cultural meanings, postulates, and hypotheses (Damen, 1987). Although, the Sapir / Whorf hypothesis made significant contributions (Lee, 1996), its strong version, in specific, was debated by many linguists and social scientists. The idea that language determines its speakers' minds made them "prisoners of their language" (Kramsch, 1998). Yule (1996), on his part, stated that language is manipulated by humans, not the other way around. Corder (1993) similarly argued that translation between languages would be impossible if languages encoded drastically diverse worldviews or reflected cultural differences of a kind. On the other hand, social scientists argued that the fact that people who speak diverse languages do not understand each other is because they disagree regarding the meaning and idea of the words (Kramsch, 1998).

In a more recent study, Boroditsky (2007), tried to test the idea that language might shape its speakers' mind through her rigorous empirical research which has been conducted on people around the world: from Russia, Chile, Aboriginal Australia, Indonesia, China, and Indonesia. Boroditsky (2007) stated that what we've discovered is that people who speak different languages do, in fact, think differently, and that even small grammatical errors can have a significant impact on how we perceive the world.

2.3. Culture Teaching

2.3.1. A Historical Overview of Teaching Culture

Over the last two centuries, the importance of culture teaching in languages teaching has been recognised and widely discussed. These discussions have drawn language teachers' attention to the interlocking relationship between language and culture, and the knowledge of culture is the key to understanding language.

According to many experts, culture was not officially acknowledged in language teaching before to the 1960s. Lafayette (2003) claimed that before the 1950s and 1960s, culture

in language classrooms was merely concerned with teaching the literary content that was intended only to students with an advanced level. On the other hand, although culture has always been a factor in language education, according to Risager (2007), it wasn't until the 1960s that culture pedagogy started to take shape as a separate field of study. The substance of language instruction has undoubtedly always included a cultural component, whether it is universal/encyclopedic or national (Risager).

Kramsch (2006, p.11) also agrees with him stating that language teaching has always included a significant amount of culture. However, it was until the advent of 1970s that the need of bringing culture into the language classroom was highly stressed. According to Risager(2007), the outgrowth of culture teaching coincided with the rise of the concept 'the expanded text' commonly came to be considered as authentic texts. These non-literary texts are derived from magazines, newspapers, or used daily such as tickets and menus. Moreover, an interest in culture has grown with the main advancement in sociolinguistics during this period was the introduction of 'communicative competence' which was the core of the communicative approach.

Hymes, the American sociolinguist, along with others, they argued that in order for speakers of the target language to communicate successfully and appropriately, they should possess more than just a knowledge of syntax and vocabulary. That is, linguistic competence is not sufficient to for students to communicate appropriately. For this reason, understanding culture is crucial for successful communication in another language. Without this understanding, there would be a kind of "social monster producing grammatical sentences unconnected to the situation in which they occur" (Cook, 2003, p.42). Seelye's book (1974) '*Teaching Culture*' highly influenced this period, through which he stated his opposition to culture traditional teaching our goals are to improve communication skills and gain a deeper understanding of how human culture affects society, not to study more about art, music,

history, or geography (Seelye, 1974; as cited in Risager, 2007, p. 42-3).

In the 1980's, there has been a considerable growth of culture pedagogy due to the breakthrough in video technology and internet which permitted teachers to teach culture through observable and tangible approaches.

Risager (2007) noted that due to the advancement of video technology, which allowed for the direct use of films, etc., that were broadcast on television in teaching, the visual components of cultural instruction were also strengthened during the course of the 1980s. Also, it created more opportunities to deal with tangible, observable facets of language, culture, society, and the natural world, such as clothes, interior design, street environments, landscapes, flora, and wildlife, as well as nonverbal communication (proxemics, gestures, etc.).

Lafayette (2003) stated that, in the 1980s, teachers had the resources provided for them to make the cultural element an essential component of learning a second language. Hence, learners will be able to visualise some aspects of culture like paralinguistic features of communication, clothing, etc. Furthermore, in the 1990's, there was a growing attention in intercultural communication in the USA as well as in Europe. To know about others and their countries became an intriguing necessity in the new world, as Jones (2000) points out that it would be good to learn more about the nation and its people while we are studying the language. Although the communicative competence has been largely used by teachers, communication might not be appropriate only if it is goes with multifaceted cultural awareness intended to result in a satisfactory cultural compromise to all the involved sides (Guilherme, 2000). Such ideas engendered Byram's (1997) notion 'intercultural communicative competence' (ICC), i.e. the capability to communicate with others from diverse cultures in an appropriate and successful manner (Wiseman, 2002). According to Byram (1997), ICC considers language instruction and focuses on the capacity to

communicate with individuals from different cultures and countries in a foreign language.

From 1990 onward, the necessity of integrating culture in FLT curricula continues to gather momentum not only in Europe and USA but worldwide. Examining methods for determining and evaluating a learner's cultural competence became hot issues. During this time, moreover, culture teaching was blossomed by the advancement in technology as well as the invention of the internet which served to a great deal as a helping too for both learners and teacher to gain access to others' culture at any time (Lafayette, 2003).

2.3.2. Objectives of Teaching Culture

In this modern era, learning a FL is required, besides attaining intercultural communication, to enable students to communicate efficiently in different situation. The latter can only be realised when FL teachers incorporate culture in their teaching. Accordingly, learners will be able to understand “what’s going on in the target culture” (Seelye, 1993, p.29). Additionally, it is made clear that learning a language apart from its cultural foundation prevents individuals from assimilating into and interacting with that community (Seelye, 1997). Consequently, grammar and words only take on meaning and value in the context of a culture, establishing a thorough communication/interaction with many cultures (Lee, 2009). In a way or another, culture has, even implicitly, been taught/learned in the FL classes. In this regard, Kramsch’s remark (1993) cannot be missed in which she claimed that culture is not a fifth ability that can be added on top of the training of the four skills of language: speaking, listening, reading, and writing when learning a language. Since day one, it has been lurking in the background, waiting to surprise learners when they least expect it by exposing the limits of their tenaciously acquired communicative competence and testing their capacity to understand of their immediate environment.

Scholars have different perspectives regarding the major goals of teaching culture. For instance, Lafayette (1978) suggests a set of goals of teaching culture which allow learners to either recognise or interpret the main geographic characteristics of the target nation; historical events pertaining to the TC, involving literature, architecture, and arts; everyday cultural patterns (eating, shopping, greeting); to assess the accuracy of generalizations made about other cultures; to value different people and societies. Besides his earlier editions in 1974 and 1985, Seelye (1994) makes a substantial benevolence to the development of the content for learning about culture. The major objective is that all learners will acquire the cultural knowledge, attitudes, and performance abilities required to interact with members of that culture and to function appropriately within a particular social group.

The six remaining objectives (p. 31) are stated below as follows:

- **Interest:** Learners exhibit interest in foreign cultures and sympathy for their people.
- **Who:** Learners understand that factors such as age, sex, socioeconomic status, religion, ethnicity, and place of residence have an impact on how people talk and act.
- **What:** Learners comprehend that understanding the cultural images that people conjure up when they think, act, and respond to the environment around them is necessary for effective communication.
- **Where and When:** Learners understand that circumstances and social norms play a significant role in determining behavior.
- **Why:** Learners comprehend that people behave in certain ways because they are using societally sanctioned options to meet their most fundamental bodily and psychological needs.
- **Exploration:** Students are able to locate and arrange knowledge on the TC from a number of sources, including the library, mass media, people, and personal observation. They also evaluate generalizations about the target culture in terms of the evidence to support

them.

Strasheim (1986), On the other hand, identified two main objectives for gaining knowledge of the target culture which are “perspective consciousness” and “cross-cultural awareness”. His ideas show that promoting awareness about both NC and TC pave the way for teachers to help students see how their beliefs and those of the target culture are comparable (Seelye, 1987). Thus, in addition to expanding their knowledge of the target culture, students also develop cross-cultural awareness, which provides insights into the perspectives of others. Clouston (1997) argued that FL teachers must be systematic about our culture teaching planning as they are explicit regarding the grammatical points and how they are taught. Such delicate planning can be attained, for instance, through the implementation of Moran's (1992) chart:

Table 2.2.

Moran's Framework for Learning/Teaching Culture.

Aspect A : Knowing about (getting information)	Aspect B : Knowing how (developing behaviors)
<p>Nature of content: getting information</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - what is the capital of the US? - sports in American life. <p>Learning objectives: demonstrate a mastery of the information.</p> <p>Techniques/activities: cultural reading films/videotapes; recordings; realia (cultural artifacts); personal anecdotes.</p> <p>Teacher role: informant</p>	<p>Nature of content: skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - buying tickets to a sports event, - cheering for your team at a football game, <p>Learning objectives: demonstrate an ability (a fluency, an expertise, confidence)</p> <p>Techniques/activities: dialogs, role-plays, simulations, field experiences.</p> <p>Teacher role: coach or model.</p>

Aspect C: Knowing why (discovering explanations)	Aspect D: Knowing oneself (personalizing knowledge)
<p>Nature of content: values and assumptions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - why are sports so important to Americans? - are you making an observation or an interpretation? - how does this compare with your culture? <p>Learning objectives: critical thinking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - demonstrate an ability: to infer; to generalize; to suspend judgment, - curiosity; tolerance; sensitivity; empathy. <p>Techniques/activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learners interpret and make explanations based on above activities, - comparisons with their own culture, - ethnography, - reflective writing. <p>Teacher role: co-researcher or guide</p>	<p>Nature of content: self-awareness- what importance do sports have YOUR life?</p> <p>Learning objectives: by behavior/statements demonstrate understanding of ones' feelings, vopinions, attitudes, and act upon</p> <p>Techniques/activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learners examine and make stateabout themselves, - reflective writing, - feedback on above activities. <p>Teacher role: counsellor or guide</p>

2.3.3. Techniques of Teaching Culture

In order to integrate culture into culture teaching, a great variety of techniques and strategies are developed by scholars. Seelye (1993), for example, in order to teach culture, proposes three major techniques which are: culture capsules and clusters, culture assimilators and critical incidents.

2.3.3.1. Culture Capsules and Clusters

The culture capsules technique was initially proposed by Taylor and Sorenson in 1961. This strategy is centered on a brief or minimal presentation of a facet of the other culture, followed by a discussion of the differences between the learner's culture and that of the other cultures. The capsule can be used in small groups as a basis for communicative activities such as skits or role-plays; storytelling about family, friends or one's self; question and answer practice. The text can be summarised in one or two paragraphs written in the TL, and it would be better if accompanied with drawings and pictures. It should be noted that one capsule should not surpass 10 minutes. The main merit, according to Stern (1992), is its "compactness and practical manageable quality" (p.240).

Introduced by Meade & Morain in (1973), culture clusters, according to Seelye (1994), include one 30-minute classroom simulation that incorporates the material included in the capsules, along with around three illustrated culture capsules that explore related concepts. That is, unlike culture capsules, culture clusters involve up to four culture capsules. They depict contrasts between the target culture and learners' native one in two to four aspects of the same topic, hence permitting much detailed presentations which can last upto 30 minutes. Besides developing learners' awareness of different aspects of culture, this strategy is particularly suited for behavioral training (Stern, 1992).

2.3.3.2. Culture Assimilators

Psychologists (Fiedler, Mitchell, and Triandis, 1971) developed this concept to equip people with the skills necessary to perform in cross- or intercultural settings. It is considered as an out-of-class technique which is based on behavioural psychology to cross-cultural communication through programmed learning. Cultural incident is the key element of culture assimilators that maybe misinterpreted by learners. After the description of the incidents, learners are provided with rational illustration and redirected to the text from which they are required to select the correct answer. After that, feedback is given about why one answer is right and the other is wrong according to a given cultural context. Although, according to Chastain (1988), this strategy takes a considerable amount of time to gain an elevated degree of cultural familiarity that raises learners' tolerance of others' culture.

2.3.3.3. Critical Incidents

Critical incidents, or problem solving technique, are often associated with culture assimilators. Yet, the two techniques have some overlapping features. According to Henrichsen (1998), they are descriptions of events or circumstances in which a participant must select a choice. Most of the circumstances might happen to anyone, thus cross-cultural communication is not necessary as it is for culture assimilators. Typically, students study the

incident independently and reach their own conclusions. Then they are grouped to talk about their findings. After that, there is a discussion in class during which the students attempt to justify their choices. Finally, learners are provided a chance to see how their reasoning and decision similar or different from those of TC native people. As individuals critical incidents do not need much time, Henrichsen (1998) implies that the instructor delivers multiple significant incidents at once. When reading advice columns in newspapers or magazines, teachers can learn about important happenings or situations, as well as what native speakers would do and why.

When solving critical incidents, learners will get emotionally invested in the cultural issue. What fosters intellectual understanding of the problem and provide learners with basic knowledge about the TC is discussing what native English speakers would do in such situations.

Other proposed techniques are worth mentioning like what Stern (1992) describes in the following points:

- Creating a real-life like classroom atmosphere (demonstration by displaying realia).
- Behavioural and affective aspects (drama and mini-drama).
- Cognitive approaches (student research).
- The importance humanities and literature (reading literature and watching films).
- Real-life exposure to the target culture (visits to the class by native speakers, pen- pals and visits to other countries).
- Using of cultural community resources (when learning a foreign language happens in the target-language community, the everyday environment can be used as a resource).

2.3.3.4. Other Techniques

Another variety of techniques are also referred to by Stern (1992) and Chastain (1988) such as:

- **Creating an Authentic Environment** (which Hughes (1994, p.168) calls *the culture island*). It focuses on displaying posters, bulletin boards, maps and realia. It can create a visual and tangible presence of the other culture, especially in the situation where language and culture are taught far away from the target country. Students can also make culture wallcharts.

- **The Cultural Aside** (also labelled '*an incidental comment*' by Nostrand (1974, p.298)). Teachers give information about cultural points whenever arises in the text. It is often an unplanned, brief culture comment. Its advantage is that it helps to create a cultural content for language items as well as helps learners to make mental associations similar to those that native speakers make. The drawback is that the cultural information presented is likely to be disordered and incomplete.

- **The Slice-of-life Technique:** Is a strategy when the teacher chooses a small segment of life from the other culture and usually presents it to learners at the beginning of the class. This short input could be, for example, a song related to the topic or a recording of a news item. The advantage of the technique is that it both catches learners' attention and arouses their interest. It does not take up much of a valuable class time. As Chastain puts it: "the point is made with a minimum of comment and maximum of dispatch" (Chastain 1988, p.310).

- **The Audio-motor Technique:** Is considered to be an extension of the Total Physical Response method. The teacher gives students a set of commands to which students respond by acting them out. The commands are arranged in an order that will cause students to learn a new cultural experience by performing it. Audio-motor units give knowledge and practice with correct behaviour but according to Henrichsen, they do not necessarily promote understanding or

empathy.

- **The Micrologue:** is a technique where culture is made the focus of language learning. The teacher chooses a cultural passage that can be read out in class. Students listen, answer the questions, give an oral summary and, finally, write the material as a dictation. According to Chastain, the advantage of this technique is that the teacher does not need to have any special cultural expertise and it takes only a small amount of time.
- **The self-awareness Technique:** serves as an aim to raise students' consciousness of basic beliefs that govern their values, attitudes and actions. Teachers may use sensitivity exercises, self-assessment questionnaires, problem-solving and checklists of value orientations.
- **The WebQuest:** The strategy was developed in 1995 by Bernie Dodge from San Diego State University to help teachers integrate the power of the World Wide Web with student learning. For March (1998), WebQuests were created with the intention of making the best use of students' time, focusing on using information rather than searching for it, and assisting students' critical thinking at the levels of analysis, synthesis, and assessment. The most important advantage is that it saves the teachers' time and that it helps learners to find material from the huge range of topics.
- **The Culture quest:** is another web-based activity. It involves students in inquiry-based classroom projects, the aim of which is to explore other peoples and cultures. It seeks to promote better understanding and appreciation of other cultures, strengthen inquiry, research and literacy skills and provide students with technology skills.

2.4. Culture in the Most Common Language Teaching Methods / Approaches

It is widely recognised that language and culture are inseparably bound (Chastain, 1988), and that language is “a carrier of culture” Wei (2005, p.56). Byram, Nichols and Stevens (2001) argued that culture teaching has long been present in language classroom; however, as far back as a century goes, it has not been equally the same in different approaches and methods of foreign language teaching.

2.4.1. The Grammar Translation Method

Until the early decades of the twentieth century, GTM was the prominent method in the field of FL teaching. The aim of teaching a FL at that time was not directed to communicative purposes, i.e., verbal communication and the variety of social languages received little consideration. Culture, likewise, according to Long-Fu (2001), was confined to the teaching of Latin dialogues, literature and fine art in a form of texts to be read. He points out that culture, in GTM, exclusively points out to a nation’s high arts, which may not appear to be effective in developing learners’ ability to function appropriately in a native-like situation.

2.4.2. The Direct Method

Because of the developments in science and technology, people, at that time, felt compelled to visit other countries and conduct business there; hence, their perspectives on learning and instructing a foreign language have evolved. In this way, culture has been explicitly introduced in FL teaching in DM. Larsen-Freeman (2000) indicated that culture in DM comprises of knowing about others’ history, geography and everyday life of TC speakers. Teaching culture, then, was preoccupied with small ‘c’ at the early stages and big ‘C’ at the advanced stages (Long-fu, 2001).

2.4.3. The Audio-lingual Method

The importance of culture teaching was significantly stressed with the advent of the ALM in the 1960's. The ALM advocated enhancing learners' oral proficiency through the use of drilling and dialogues. The cultural aspects that fill up the pattern drills describe everyday life (Grittner, 1990). Actually, the language used in the dialogue texts indicates that ALM asserts the teaching of small 'c' culture, and they were linguistically and culturally authentic (Chastian, 1976).

2.4.4. Communicative Language Teaching

Since the 1980s, CLT marked "the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century, one whose ramifications continue to be felt today" (Richards and Rogers, p.151). The core objective of CLT is the attainment of functional communicative ability in which the learner is able to actively use language in varying situations and contexts (Lee & Vanpatten, 1995). In other words, it seeks to develop what Hymes (1972) coined 'the communicative competence'. CLT main focus was to delineate learners' communicative needs in order to effectively function in socio-cultural contexts. Therefore, culture was only a means to an end, i.e., it serves as a backup for communicative activities. However, as Byram (1997) argues that it is rather narrow to define learners' communicative competence on a native speaker model basis. This is so that any intercultural communication event can overlook the learners' social identities.

2.4.5. Intercultural Approach

The communicative competence model has shown that there is much more to learning a language, and that includes the vital component of cultural knowledge and awareness (Bachman, 1999; Council of Europe, 2000). In other words, to learn a language well requires knowing something about the cultural of that language. According to Atay et al. (2009), the

objective of language learning is no longer defined in terms of the acquisition of communicative competence in a FL, but rather, it is defined in terms of the intercultural competence. The latter came to prepare students to act as intercultural communicators or mediators who can deal with complexity and numerous identities while avoiding the stereotyping that comes with viewing others through a single identity (Byram et al., 2004).

The most famously known model of intercultural competence is introduced by Byram (1997). Byram's model displays five distinctive elements involving: knowledge, attitudes, Skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery, interaction and political education including critical cultural awareness. '*Knowledge*' encompasses education on social organizations, goods, services, and social interaction processes. '*Attitudes*' entail being willing to reconsider cultural norms and values as well as to interact and engage with otherness. '*Skill of interpreting and relating*' refers to the capacity to recognize and articulate cultural perspectives, mediate between diverse cultural contexts, and interact effectively within them. '*Skills of discovery and interaction*' are related to the capacity to learn about other cultures and cultural practices as well as the capacity to use knowledge attitudes and skills within the confines of real-time communication. Finally, '*critical awareness*' is the capacity to assess the viewpoints and customs of one's own and other cultures critically.

The model developed by Byram has had a significant impact. It provides a thorough explanation of intercultural competence and the kinds of abilities that should be taken into account while teaching language using the intercultural approach. Teachers can utilize it since it simplifies a complex idea into its component pieces. The approach was created expressly with language classrooms in mind. This change in how culture is viewed in language instruction also affects how teachers view teaching foreign language. They are to be expected not only to teach the foreign linguistic code, but also to encourage the development of intercultural communication skills, contextualize that code in light of the

sociocultural context connected with the foreign language (Castro, 1999).

Conclusion

It might be challenging to explore cultural learning in an English language classroom. For learners to be regarded as competent in the target language, they must do more than just master the grammatical structures of the language (Krasner, 1999). Although the concept of teaching culture in an EFL classroom is not new, educators must go beyond simply introducing customary celebrations, foods, and music to include a framework that helps students to comprehend the social facets of the target culture as well. Culture teaching must be thoroughly incorporated into what Kramsch (1993) labels the “third culture” of the language classroom.

In this chapter, we attempted to cover important elements regarding culture as a concept, the relationship of culture and language. In addition, we focused on culture teaching, its principles, objectives and techniques. Finally, we explored the place of culture in the most common language teaching approaches and methods. The next chapter, however, takes a practical path to investigate the Algerian secondary EFL teachers’ and pupils’ awareness of the target culture and its teaching under the framework of CBA.

**Chapter Three: Culture Teaching/Learning in the Algerian Secondary School:
The Teachers' and the Pupils' Perspectives**

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Introduction

This chapter represents the field investigation of our study which focuses on two major players in the teaching/learning process: teachers and pupils. Two questionnaires were designed accordingly. The first questionnaire investigates Algerian EFL teachers' perceptions of culture and culture teaching. Particularly, how they deal with it in their CBA classroom. Moreover, it seeks to inspect the place of the cultural element in the secondary school textbooks. The second questionnaire aims at exploring pupils' attitudes and perception towards the target language culture. The means of data collection, the results and their analysis are discussed in details. After that, the analysis of the findings is synthesised accordingly.

The study follows a descriptive approach. Two survey questionnaires were laid out. The first one addresses secondary school pupils. The second was administered to Algerian secondary school EFL teachers. A section is devoted to describing each questionnaire and to discuss its different parts and results.

3.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

3.1.1. Sample

The target population comprises of Algerian secondary school English teacher. Precisely, our study population involves secondary school English teachers at the level of the wilaya of Oum El Bouaghi. Following the Simple Random Sampling Method (SRS), the teachers are selected randomly from all over the district which gave them an equal chance of being selected. 70 teachers were selected out of 193 teachers currently working at the district of Oum El Bouaghi. Therefore, the sample represents 36% of the entire population.

3.1.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 33 questions, which are distributed into five sections.

Section One: Background Information (Q1-Q6)

In this part of the questionnaire, teachers are required to provide some general information about the degree(s) held (Q1), employment status (Q2), teaching experience (Q3) and which level (middle or secondary) they teach (Q4). Finally, the focus is to see whether or not they have been abroad (Q5-Q6).

Section Two: Approaches to Teaching the English Language and Its Culture (Q7-Q14)

This section aims at exploring the teachers' views about teaching English and its culture. First, they are asked to mention which approach/method they usually undertake in teaching English (Q7), and whether teaching the latter is equally important as teaching its culture (Q8). If yes (Q9), they are asked to state the reasons. If no (Q10), a justification is needed. The aim of the question (Q11) is to know how teachers perceive the word 'culture', and whether it is possible to integrate the language and its culture together in the teaching/learning process or not (Q12). Q13 aims at examining the teachers' opinions about their pupils' interest in learning about English-speaking cultures. The aim of Q14 is to know about the teachers' views on the effect of learning a FC on their pupils' NC.

Section Three: Teaching Culture under the Framework of CBA (Q15-Q23)

This part of the questionnaire is the essence of our study. It generally seeks to inspect the teachers' viewpoint regarding teaching culture within CBA. Specifically, the teachers are asked whether culture should be introduced as early as the language or not (Q15), and for that, a justification is needed (Q16). The following questions intend to have the teachers identify which cultural themes should their pupils be introduced to within CBA, and what

sources do they rely on in doing so (Q17, Q18). Next, the teachers are asked about the frequency of presenting cultural lessons or activities (Q19). After that, the participants are given an ample range of the culture teaching techniques and required to designate the ones they use (Q20), and if they also make use of activities that are employed in CBA (Q21). If yes, they are asked to select which ones they usually utilize (Q22). Lastly, the participants are requested to state if they urge their pupils to compare and contrast the FC to their own NC (Q23).

Section Four: The Place of Culture in the Secondary School Textbooks of English (Q24-Q32)

As its name clearly states, this section seeks out to examine the place of culture in the Algerian secondary school textbooks of English. It starts with a direct question about whether culture takes part in the textbook or not (Q24). If yes, the informants are invited to state the amount of culture embodied in them (Q25). Accordingly, the teachers are requested to state their degree of satisfaction with the amount of culture they mentioned in the previous question (Q26). Q27 aims at defining the way the cultural content is presented in the textbooks. Next, what culture is given priority in the textbooks (Q28), topics that are dealt with (Q29), and the magnitude of cultural activities that these textbooks are equipped with (Q30) are further questions in this section. Q31 is an open question that extracts examples from the participants.

Section Five: Teachers' Familiarity with the Target Culture (Q32)

This section concerns itself solely with investigating the teachers' familiarity and knowledge about culture via only one question with a variety of options (Q32).

Section Six: Further Suggestions (Q33)

This section is a space for teachers to freely express their opinions on the subject matter.

3.1.3. Analysis of the Results

Section One: Background Information

Q1: Degree(s) held:

- a. BA (Licence)
- b. Master
- c. Magister
- d. Others

Table 3.1.

Degree Held

Options	N	%
a	18	25.7
b	47	67.1
c	0	0
d	5	7.1
Total	70	100

The results of Table 3.1. show that most of the participants have graduated from university with a Master's degree (67.1%), (25.7%) with a Licence degree and 7.1% added that they graduated from ENS (École Normale Supérieure). This means that they had 5 years at a Teachers' Training School.

Q2: Employment status:

- a. Permanent teacher
- b. Substitute teacher

Table 3.2.

Employment Status

Options	N	%
a	59	84.3
b	11	15.7
Total	70	100

Almost all the teachers, as Table 3.2. indicates, are permanent with the total of 84.3%.

Only 11 of them are substitute teachers.

Q3: Teaching experience:

- a. 1 – 5
- b. 5 – 10
- c. Over 10 years

Table 3.3.

Teaching Experience

Options	N	%
a	45	64.3
b	20	28.6
c	5	7.1
Total	70	100

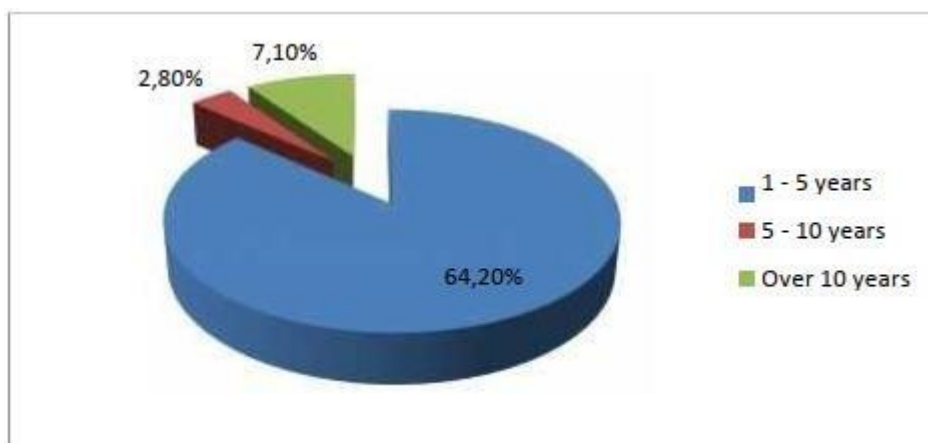


Figure 2. Teachers' Teaching Experience (in Years)

The results show that the majority of teachers have taught English for 1-5 years (64.2%). 28.6% (20 teachers) have taught English for a period of 5-10 years, and only 7.2% have a teaching experience that exceeds 10 years. Teaching experience, in fact, is a crucial factor of the reliability and thoroughness of the data obtained from the teachers.

Q4: Educational Phase

- a. Middle school
- b. Secondary school

Table 3.4.

Teachers' Educational Phase

Options	N	%
a	0	0
b	70	70
Total	70	100

All the respondents are teaching in secondary school. The purpose of this question is to see if there are teachers who had a teaching experience at middle school or not.

Q5: Have you ever been abroad?

Table 3.5.

Visits Abroad

Options	N	%
Yes	17	24.3
No	53	75.7
Total	70	100

Q6: If 'Yes', which countries did you visit:

- a. English-speaking countries.
- b. Non-English-speaking countries.

Table 3.6.

Countries Visited by Teachers

Options	N	%
a	2	11.3
b	15	88.2
Total	17	100

According to Table 3.5. and 3.6., more than a half of teachers (75.7%) have not been abroad. On the other hand, 15 out of 17 of the participants did not visit any English-speaking country. Hence, they have not had the opportunity to communicate, discern and be acquainted with their culture.

Section Two: Approaches to Teaching the English Language and its Culture

Q7: What is/are the common approach (es) / method(s) you use in teaching English?

- a. The Grammar-Translation Method
- b. The Communicative Approach
- c. The Competency-Based Approach (CBA)
- d. Others, please specify

Table 3.7.

Approaches and Methods used by Teachers

Option	N	%
a	22	31.4
b	18	25.7
c	55	78.6
d	1	1.4

The majority (78.6%) of the teachers opted for option 'c'. 31.4% and 25.7% mentioned that they use the GTM and the Communicative Approach respectively, and none of them opted for 'others'. Although this result shows that CBA is widely and commonly used in the Algerian EFL classes, we think that teachers still resort to GTM due to its simplicity in conveying information to the pupils. In our opinion, this could be put down to fact that applying CBA is still problematic to some teachers, regarding their teaching/learning conditions. Only one teacher added "the natural approach is imposing itself because there is a kind of spontaneous learning of English through exposure to the input."

Q8: How much are you familiar with the Target Culture?

- Very familiar
 - Sufficiently familiar
 - Not familiar
- a- History, geography, political system
 - b- Different ethnic and social groups
 - c- Daily life and routines, living conditions (food and drinks..etc.)
 - d- Education, professional life
 - e- Traditions, folklore, tourism attractions
 - f- Literature
 - g- Other culture expressions (movies, music, drama, art)
 - h- Values and beliefs

Table 3.8.

Familiarity with the TC

	Very familiar		Sufficiently familiar		Not familiar	
Option	N	%	N	%	N	%
a	5	7.1	45	64.3	0	0
b	3	4.3	13	18.6	6	8.6
c	8	11.4	38	54.3	0	0
d	5	7.14	47	67.1	1	1.4
e	2	2.9	17	24.3	3	4.3
f	4	5.71	29	41.4	9	12.9
g	4	5.71	38	54.3	2	2.9
h	6	8.6	15	21.4	1	1.4

More than half the teachers declared that they are sufficiently familiar with the TC, especially when it comes to ‘education, professional life’ and ‘history, geography, political system’ with percentages of (67.1% and 64.3%, respectively). Options ‘c’ and ‘g’ (i.e, daily life and routines, living conditions and other culture expressions) were evenly chosen with 54.3%. Followed by 41.4% for ‘literature’, and Less than that, ‘e’, ‘h’ and ‘b’ (that is, traditions, folklore, tourism attractions; values and beliefs; different ethnic and social groups) were selected by 24.3%, 21.4% and 18.6% respectively. We can clearly notice that the majority of the participants are acquainted enough with both big ‘C’ and small ‘c’ culture. However, very few of them conferred less percentage (18.6%) to the intercultural domain ‘b’. We wonder how they can possess this due knowledge about culture and do not devise cultural activities or scarcely do so (Q19; Section Two). Again, it might be due to CBA and what is required to design culture-based activities under its platform.

Q9: Is teaching the target language culture in EFL classroom as important as teaching the language?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.9.

The Importance of Teaching TLC in EFL

Option	N	%
Yes	65	92.9
No	5	7.1
Total	70	100

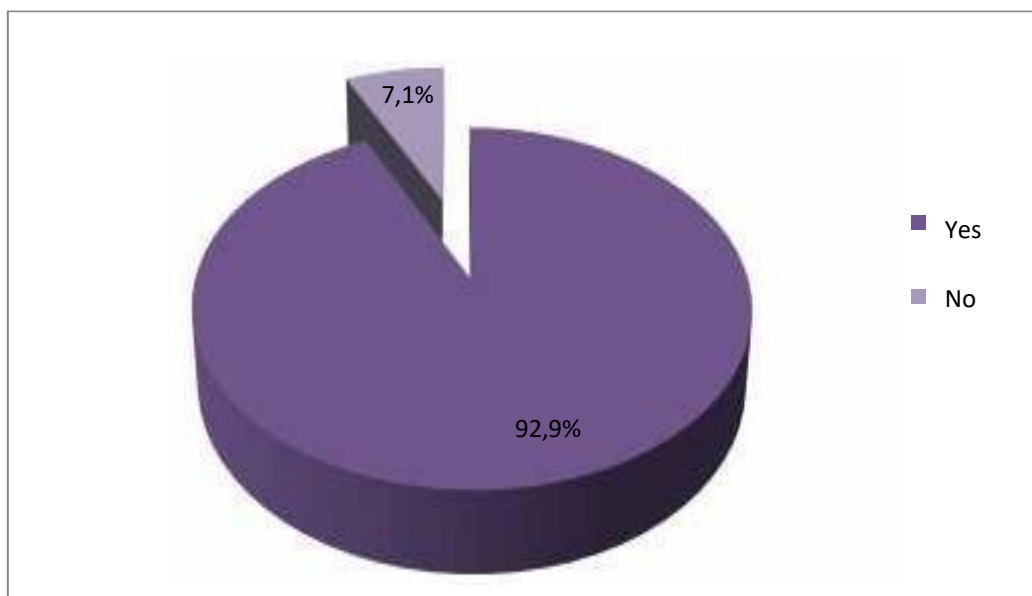


Figure 3. The Importance of Teaching TLC in EFL

The majority of the teachers (92.9%) stated that teaching the TC holds the same significance as teaching the FL. However, 7.1% prioritised teaching the FL over its FC. We can argue, accordingly, that the Algerian secondary school English teachers are pretty much aware of the magnitude and the weight of culture in language teaching/learning.

Q10: If 'Yes, for which reasons

- a. Language and culture are intertwined.
- b. Teaching culture motivates students.
- c. Combining language and culture helps students to improve their languageskills.
- d. The more students know about the foreign culture, the more tolerant theybecome.

Table 3.10.

Reasons for Considering Teaching TLC Important

Option	N	%
a	35	53.8
b	44	67.7
c	46	70.8
d	10	14.3

The results outlined in Table 3.10. reveal that most of the teachers who said ‘Yes’ to Q8 believe that FC teaching/learning should be given the same attention as its FL, on the premise that teaching culture motivates students, and together help the students to improve their language skills. These options 'b' and ‘c’ were mostly opted for with a percentage of 67.7% and 70.8% respectively. The option ‘a’ (Language and culture are intertwined) was also highly considered (53.8%). The last option ‘d’ (The more students know about the foreign culture, the more tolerant they become), however, seems to be less important in the standpoint of the teachers (14.3%). It seems like most of the teachers agree on the fact that teaching culture stimulates their pupils in the classroom although it does not help them to grow tolerant to ‘the others’.

Q11: If ‘No’, please, justify

Only one teacher out of 5 who answered ‘No’ to this question provided a justification. S/he said “Well yes and no. when you learn a language you will acquire some of its culture with it because language and culture are interrelated. But we have to be careful as teacher on the culture we provide to our students (teenagers).”

Q12: How would you interpret the word ‘culture’?

- a. The learned and shared behaviours, interactions and customs.
- b. A set of norms, thoughts and values that distinguishes a group of people from others.
- c. Literature and fine arts.
- d. Other: please, specify

Table 3.11.

Teachers’ Interpretation of the Word ‘Culture’

Option	N	%
a	29	41.4
b	27	38.6
c	10	14.3
d	1	1
ab	50	71.4
abc	60	85.7

The Table depicts that the majority of the participants opted for ‘ab’ with 71.4%. This means that the participants recognized the small ‘c’ culture. On the other hand, the majority of them (85.7%) knew that culture is a vague concept that entails all the above aspects. 14.3% of them related culture only to its literary aspect (literature and fine arts). One teacher defined culture in terms of “the context that gives life to the language.”

Q13: Is it possible to teach/learn the target language and its culture in an integrated way?

- a. Definitely
- b. Possibly
- c. Definitely Not

Table 3.12.

Teaching the TL with its Culture Together

Option	N	%
a	29	41.4
b	35	50
c	6	8.6
Total	70	100

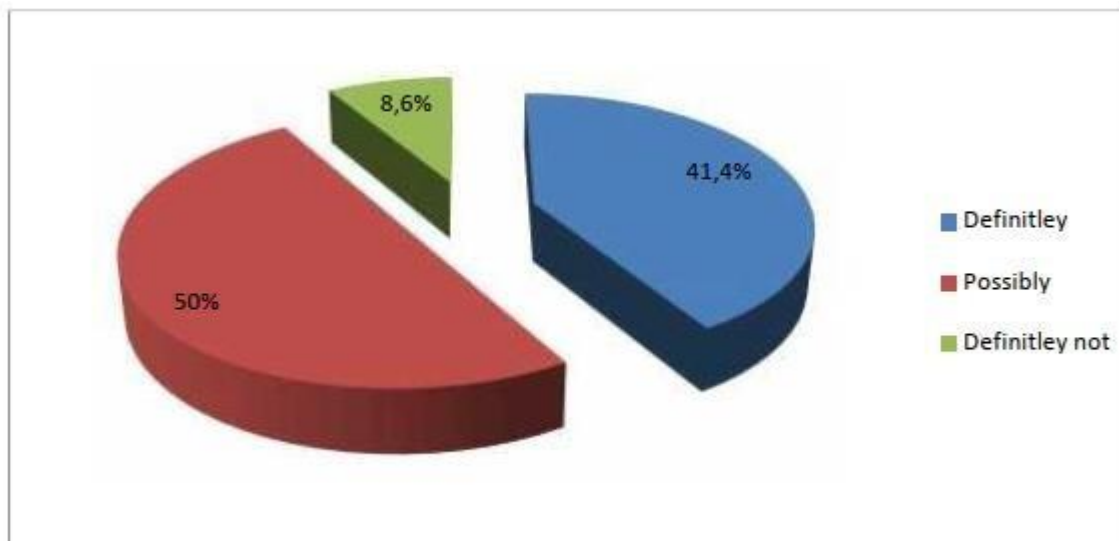


Figure 4. Teaching the TL with its Culture Together.

Table 3.12. indicates that options ‘a’ and ‘b’ are mostly opted for with the sum of (91.4%), which pinpoints that the majority of the teachers agree that the TL and FC can be conjoined and merged together. Only few of them (8.6%) oppose this claim.

Q14: Do your pupils show any interest in learning about English-speaking cultures?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.13.

Pupils’ Interest in Learning the TCs

Option	N	%
Yes	46	65.7
No	24	34.3
Total	70	100

Up to 65.7 % of the teachers answered positively. This justifies their answer to Q9 when they chose the option ‘b’ (Teaching culture motivates students) with a high percentage of 67.7%. Yet, 34.3% of them disapprove. This could likely to be explained in two possible ways. Either the teachers attempt to introduce culture, but their pupils are not interested and inattentive; or, the teachers do not tackle culture at all and they claim the disconnection of their pupils anyway.

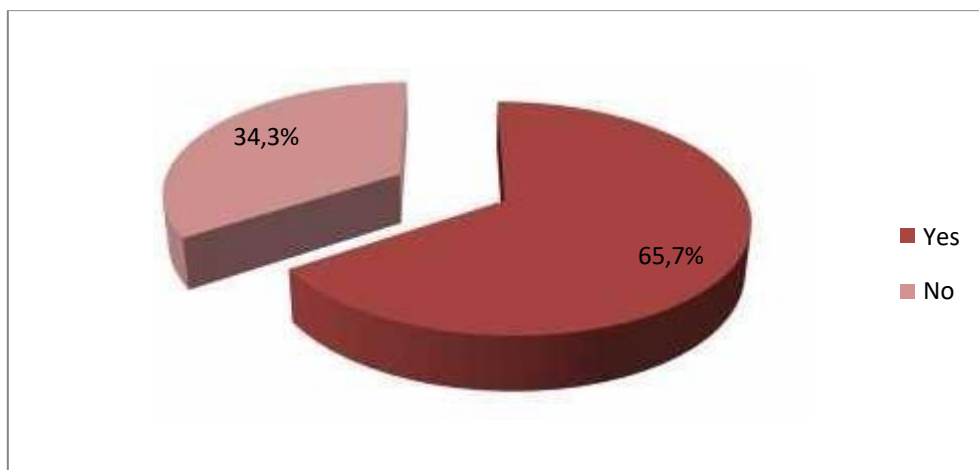


Figure 5. Pupils' Interest in Learning the TCs.

Q15: Does learning about a foreign culture change the students' attitude towards their own culture?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.14.

The Effect of Learning FC on Students' NC

Option	N	%
Yes	58	82.9
No	12	17.1
Total	70	100

As noted in Table 3.14, only 12 of the respondents answered negatively to the question. Contrastingly, the majority of them (82.9%) opted for 'yes'. This means that learning a foreign culture impacts the students' perception of their NC, regardless the nature of this impact, whether it is positive or negative.

The results of this section have shown that the majority of the teachers use the CBA as a teaching approach in their English classes. They also claim that teaching the TC should be taught on equal footing with the TL in a conjoined way, on the premise that teaching culture motivates students and ameliorates their language skills. Furthermore, the majority of teachers displayed a comprehensive view about what culture is. More than half of the teachers stated that their pupils are interested in learning a foreign culture, which, according to them, does indeed alter their attitude towards their NC.

Section Three: Teaching Culture under the Framework of CBA

Q16: Do you think that culture should be taught/learned at the early stages as teaching/learning a foreign language?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.15.

Teaching/Learning the FC at Early Stages as the FL

Option	N	%
Yes	16	22.9
No	54	77.1
Total	70	100

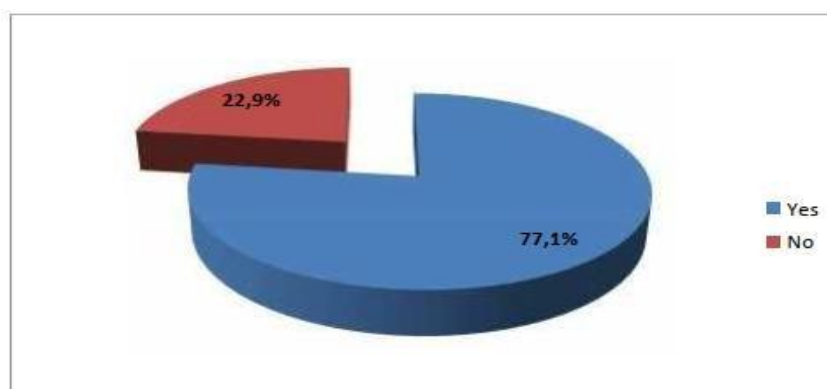


Figure 6. Teachers' Viewpoint on Teaching/Learning the FC at Early Stages.

77.1% of the informants answered negatively; although, in the previous section, the overwhelming majority of the informants 92.9% and 91.4% (Q8 and Q12, respectively) declared that teaching culture and its language are equally important and can be taught side by side. 22.9% seem to disagree. We deem this answer to be quite contradictory. How can culture be considered equally important as the language and conjoined together in the teaching/learning process, and should not be taught/learned as early as its language?

Q17: Please, justify your answer

26 Out of 70 teachers involved in this questionnaire answered this question. All those who ticked out 'Yes', (16 teachers), vindicated their answers which turn around the following points:

- Culture and language are intertwined and cannot be separated even at the basic levels.
- Culture is the soul of the language, hence, teaching "the culture of a given language at early stages helps building learners who can decode the set of values, customs... of a given group."
- Including culture in the language classroom could enhance the learners' vocabulary and motivation "to know why the target language people behave like they do."
- Language can best be learned in a context and this context is culture.
- Language cannot be taught without culture "because it is already there." And learners need to "learn from the beginning the target language culture and how it is similar or different from their culture."
- Another teacher mentioned "language competence" and it does not only "not include the knowledge of grammatical principles and sentence construction, but also knowledge of the norms that links language to social and cognitive context."

Conversely, only 8 out of the majority of the teachers who opted for 'No' in Q15 (54

teachers) put forward these arguments. Some believe that pupils should learn the basics of the language first and later can be exposed to culture, on the premise that some cultural aspects could be demotivating and difficult to learn about. For others, there is a risk of “culture alienation”, given that teenagers at this age are easily persuaded and influenced. Culture may influence their “thoughts and religions as well.”

Q18: What are the cultural topics you think your pupils should be exposed to within CBA?

- a. History
- b. Geography
- c. Literature
- d. Customs and festivals
- e. Idioms and proverbs
- f. Fine arts and poetry
- g. Others: please, mention
- h.

Table 3.16.

Cultural Topics and Themes Taught by the Teachers

Option	N	%
a	8	11.4
b	8	11.4
c	10	14.3
d	35	50
e	29	41.4
f	9	12.9
g	1	1.4

It is noteworthy that, in Table 3.16., some topics were prominently picked out by the teachers to be central for teaching in CBA, namely: ‘customs and festivals’ and ‘idioms and proverbs’ (50% and 41.4%, respectively). Furthermore, it is also remarkably clear that other themes were overlooked such as: ‘a’ (History), ‘b’ (Geography), ‘c’ (Literature) and ‘f’ (Fine arts and poetry). Only one of them suggested religion as a cultural theme to be taught alongside the other topics.

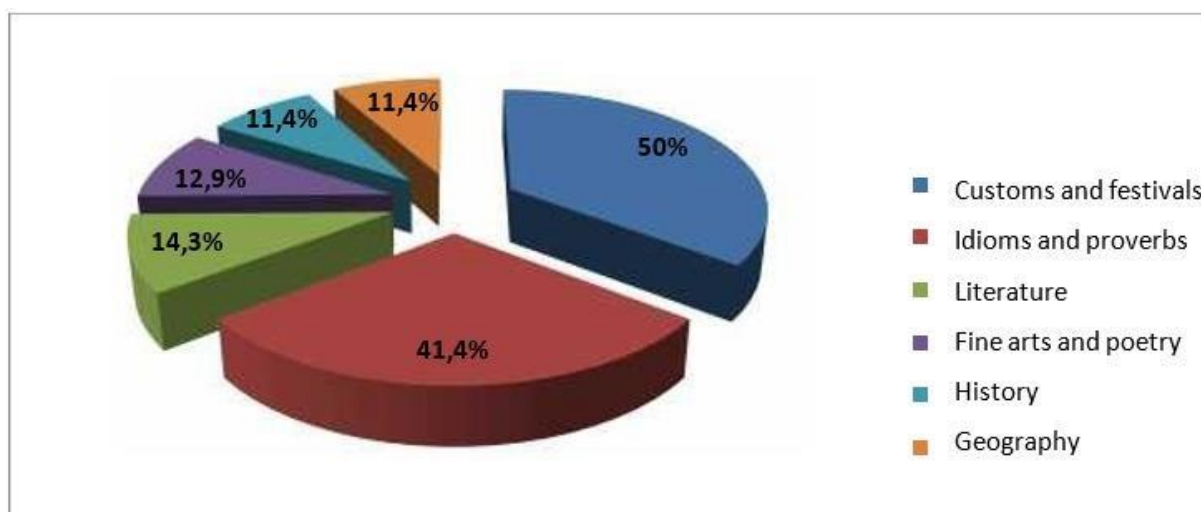


Figure 7. Cultural Topics and Themes Taught by Teachers

Q19: In your CBA class, what sources do you use in teaching culture? (You

may tick morethan one answer)

- a. Textbooks.
- b. Video-tapes.
- c. Audio-tapes.
- d. The Internet.
- e. Newspapers and magazines.
- f. Other: Please, specify

Table 3.17.

Sources Used by Teachers in Teaching the TC under CBA

Options	N	%
a	55	78.6
b	30	42.9
c	33	47.1
d	9	12.9
e	5	7.1
f	2	2.9

Unsurprisingly, the option ‘a’ was picked out by 78.6% teachers. This could be due to the reliance on the textbook as a major source for teaching by novice teachers who form the majority of the sample. (See Q3; Section I). Audio and Video - tapes (47.1% and 42.9%) were also considerably chosen at the expense of the other resources. The Internet was opted for by smaller percentage of 12.9%, followed by newspapers and magazines with 7.1%.

Q20: In CBA class, how often do you present culture-based activities or lessons?

- a. Very often
- b. Sometimes
- c. Rarely
- d. Never ever

Table 3.18.

Presenting Culture-based Activities/Lessons within CBA

Option	N	%
a	1	1.4
b	10	14.3
c	32	45.7
d	27	38.6
Total	70	100

Almost half the respondents (45.7%) declared that they rarely employ cultural activities in their CBA class. Less than that, those who opted for option 'd' (38.6%) have never dealt with any aspect of culture whatsoever. On the other hand, few teachers (14.3%) stated that they sometimes display/ design cultural tasks to their pupils. Only one teacher mentioned that s/he frequently deals with culture. We can divide the results above into two main groups: 'ab' and 'cd' with 15.7% and 84.3%, respectively. Accordingly, we deduce that the participants tend to overlook the cultural aspect in their teaching, or they find difficulty to devise cultural-based activities/lessons under CBA.

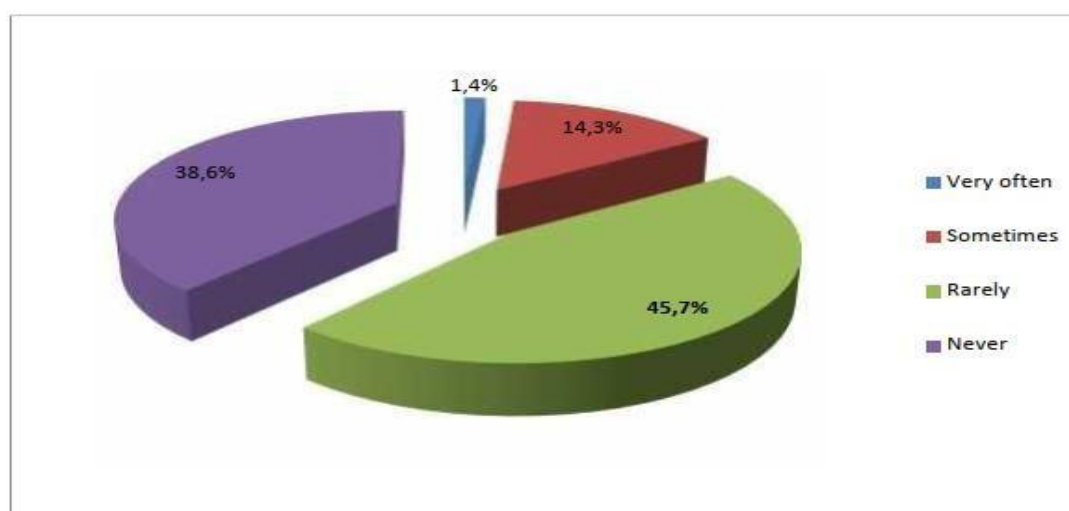


Figure 8. Presenting Culture-based Activities/Lessons within CBA

Q21: Which, among the following techniques, do you make use of in teaching the target culture?

- a. Culture assimilators.
- b. Culture capsules and clusters.
- c. Culture quizzes.
- d. Critical incidents.
- e. Media/visuals.
- f. Kinesics and body language.
- g. Independent activity sheet.
- h. Others: please specify.

Table 3.19.

Teachers' Use of Techniques in Teaching the TC

Option	N	%
a	6	8.6
b	4	5.71
c	45	64.28
d	5	7.14
e	48	68.6
f	15	21.4
g	17	24.3
h	1	1.4

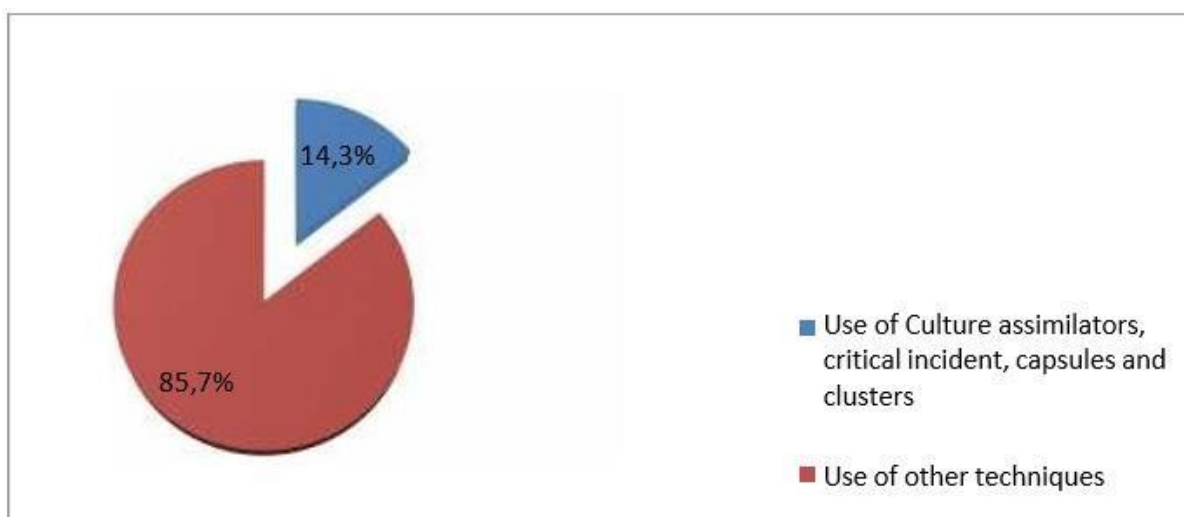


Figure 9. Techniques Used in Teaching the TC

Table 3.19. delineates that most of the respondents opted for multiple techniques for teaching the TC. ‘Culture quizzes’ (c) and ‘media/visuals’ (e) took the highest portion and a large number of teachers (64.28% and 68.6% respectively). Few teachers added ‘Kinesics and body language’ (f) and ‘Independent activity sheet’ (g) (21.4% and 24.3%) respectively. It seems like the least chosen techniques were ‘Culture assimilators’ (8.6%), ‘Culture capsules and clusters’ (5.71%) and ‘Critical incidents’ (7.14%). Only one teacher suggested using texts that present either our or the others’ culture.

Q22: Do you also employ activities that are used in CBA in teaching the target culture?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.20.

Teachers' Use of CBA Activities in Teaching FC

Option	N	%
Yes	56	80
No	14	20
Total	70	100

The majority of the participants (80%) stated that they apply CBA activities when teaching the TC. 20% of them answered negatively.

Q23: If 'Yes', which one(s) do you usually use?

- a. Role plays
- b. Problem –solving activities
- c. Information-gap
- d. Reasoning-gap
- e. Opinion gap
- f. Storytelling
- g. Group work
- h. Project work
- i. Others: please specify
.....

Table 3.21.

Teachers' Use of Various CBA Activities

Option	N	%
a	20	28.6
b	19	27.1
c	9	12.9
d	3	4.3
e	9	12.9
f	11	15.7
g	35	50
h	24	34.3

Half the teachers, in Table 3.21., picked out 'Group work' as a major activity in teaching the TC under CBA. Up to 34.3% opted for 'Project work' activity while 'Role plays' and 'Problem-solving' activities were selected by 28.6.7% and 27.1%, respectively. Few stated that they use 'Storytelling' in presenting cultural lessons, and fewer have equally chosen 'Information-gap' and 'Opinion-gap' activities with 12.9%. 'Reasoning-gap' activity was nearly overlooked. Only 4.3% opted for it.

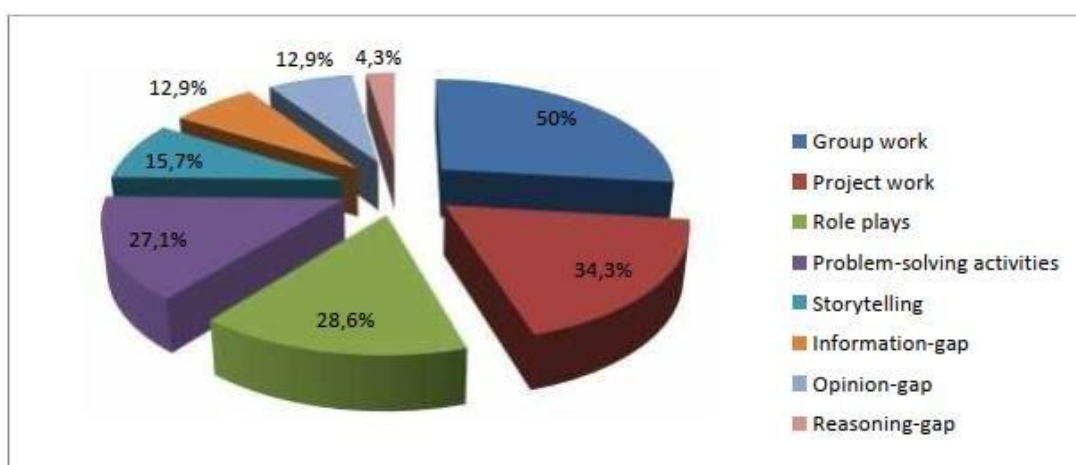


Figure 10. Teachers' Use of Various CBA Activities in Teaching the TC.

Q24: Do you encourage your pupils to compare aspects of their own culture with those of aforeign culture?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.22.

Comparing Cultures

Option	N	%
Yes	59	84.3
No	11	15.7
Total	70	100

The results summarized in Table 3.22. show that almost all of the teachers (59, i.e. 84.3%) tend to stimulate their pupils to compare their NC to the English FC. Contrariwise, fewer were those who do not encourage the pupils to do so. This suggests that the greater majority of the teachers are fully aware that putting two (or more) cultures in a comparative framework allows the pupils to perceive the differences existing between them. Another possible interpretation is that the textbooks used offer opportunities (activities) for the pupils to compare and contrast the cultural aspects of Algeria to those of other societies.

To sum up, notwithstanding their previous statement (in Section Two), that the TC is an indispensable part of language learning, the majority of the teachers behold that the TC should not be taught/learned at the early levels as the TL. Equivalently significant, the overwhelming majority of the teachers revealed that they rarely / do not present activities to teach the TC under CBA. This led us to think that designing culture-related activities within this approach could be quite problematic to them. Moreover, they neglected certain culture teaching techniques, which Seelye (1993) considered as quite crucial for the teaching of

culture in the classroom. On the other hand, the majority of them stated that they implement CBA activities when teaching the TC, using mostly group work and project work techniques.

Section Four: The Place of Culture in the Secondary school Textbooks of English

Q25: Is the cultural aspect integrated in the following textbooks?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.23.

The Cultural Component in the Secondary School Textbooks

Option	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
At the Crossroads 1e AS	67	95.7	3	4.3
Getting Through 2eAS	67	95.7	3	4.3
New Prospects 3eAS	40	57.1	30	42.9

The overwhelming majority of the teachers stated that culture is included in 1AS and 2AS textbooks with equal percentage of 95.7%, and 57.1% for 3^e AS.

Q26: If ‘Yes’, how much culture do you think is incorporated there?

- A great deal.
- Considerably.
- Moderately.
- Not at all.

Table 3.24.

Teachers' Perception of the Amount of Culture in the Textbook

Option	A great deal		Considerably		Moderately		Not at all	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1e AS	10	14.3	24	34.3	42	60	0	0
2eAS	5	7.1	20	28.6	41	58.6	0	0
3eAS	5	7.1	9	12.9	45	64.3	0	0

At the three levels, as Table 3.24. shows, more than half the respondents believe that the amount of culture is quite moderate (60%, 58.6% and 64.3% respectively). Less than third of them think that this amount is considerable at 1AS and 2AS textbooks with close percentages of (26.7% and 20%).

Q27: Are you satisfied with the amount of the cultural content provided in the textbook?

- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Very dissatisfied

Table 3.25.

Teachers' Satisfaction of the Cultural Content

Option	Very satisfied		Satisfied		Dissatisfied		Very dissatisfied	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1^e AS	0	0	8	11.4	36	51.4	5	7.1
2^e AS	0	0	6	8.57	35	50	4	5.7
3^e AS	1	1.4	8	11.4	45	64.3	5	7.1

The Table indicates that half the participants, at the level of 1st and 2nd years, showed a discontent with the cultural content displayed in the textbooks (51.4% and 50%, respectively). Up to 64.3% of third year teachers stated that they are not pleased with the cultural content in 3rd year's textbooks. It is so clear that most teachers are unsatisfied with the amount of culture embedded in all textbooks.

Q28: Is the cultural component presented?

- a. Implicitly
- b. Explicitly
- c. Both

Table 3.26.

Teachers' Opinion on the Way the Cultural Component is Presented

Option	Implicit		Explicit		Both	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1^e AS	33	47.1	16	22.9	7	10
2^e AS	6	8.6	13	18.6	35	50
3^e AS	4	5.7	10	14.3	34	48.6

For 1AS textbook, 47.1% of the teachers said that culture is implicit more than it is explicit (22.9%). For 2AS and 3AS, up to 50% of them believe that the TC is approached in both modes.

Q29: What culture do the textbooks promote?

- a. The British culture
- b. The American culture
- c. Pupils' native culture
- d. Others

Table 3.27.

Teachers' View of the Cultures the Textbooks Consolidate

Option	The British Culture		The American Culture		Pupils' native culture	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1^e AS	35	50	8	11.4	28	40
2^e AS	31	44.3	7	10	30	42.9
3^e AS	29	41.4	11	15.7	23	32.9

It appears, as Table 3.27. shows, that 1^e AS, 2^e AS and 3^e AS textbooks advocate mostly the British culture with percentages of (50%, 44.3 and 41.4%, respectively). Followed by the Algerian culture with 40% at 1^e AS level; approximately the same percentage (42.9%) at the level of 2^e AS, and 32.9% concerning 3^e AS textbook. However, the American culture seems to be less present in all textbooks. Only 2 teachers out of 70 added that “The three textbooks present a fusion between the cultures.” The other believes that the cultural aspect is not” taken into consideration. What is dealt with or presented are the humanitarian values that are shared between all humans regardless their culture (maybe because of globalisation).”

Q30: What cultural themes/topics do the textbooks deal with?

- b. Ways of living: customs, traditions, festivals and rituals.
- c. Literature, fine arts, poems, idioms and proverbs
- d. History, geography, politics, educational system, newspapers, magazines ...etc.
- e. Others: Please, specify

Table 3.28.

Teachers' Viewpoint of the Themes that the Textbooks Deal with

Option	a		b		c	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1e AS	11	15.7	32	45.7	38	54.3
2eAS	40	57.1	13	18.6	8	11.4
3eAS	11	15.7	33	47.1	35	50

Options 'b' and 'c' were given higher percentages at the level of 1eAS textbooks (54.3%, 45.7%) as well as at the level of 3eAS (50%, 47.1%). That is, both textbooks present essentially big 'C' cultural themes and topics. 57.1% of the teachers indicated that 2nd year textbooks deal mostly with small 'c' subjects, i.e., ways of living, customs, traditions, festivals and rituals. No one suggested further themes and topics. One teacher mentioned some existing topics in the textbooks such: pollution, corruption, natural catastrophes, food safety...etc. We wonder what any of these subjects have to do with culture.

Q31: To what extent do these textbooks provide culture-based activities?

- a- Significantly
- b- Moderately
- c- Slightly
- d- Not at all

Table 3.29.

Teachers' Standpoint on the Amount of Cultural Activities the Textbooks Provide

	Significantly		Moderately		Slightly		Not at all	
Option	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1eAS	2	2.9	10	14.3	44	62.9	17	24.3
2eAS	1	1.4	7	10	47	67.1	15	21.4
3eAS	1	1.4	7	10	45	64.3	16	22.9

Table 3.29. delineates clearly that the participants of the three secondary levels singled out 'slightly' (c) to be the case. In other words, 1eAS, 2eAS and 3eAS textbooks do not sufficiently devise culture-based activities with percentages of (67.1%, 64.3% and 62.9, respectively). Nearly a quarter of 1st, 2nd and 3rd year's teachers stated that the textbooks totally dispense of cultural activities. Less than 15% of them, at the three levels, mentioned that activities based on culture are embodied moderately in the textbooks, while few (1AS; 2.9%), (2AS, 3AS; 1.4%) declared that it is significant.

Q32: Would you provide examples of these activities, please?

Only 18 out of 70 teachers answered this question. Two of them, to begin with, said that they have no good examples for this question. Surprisingly, 13 teachers have mentioned major themes/topics and units of the textbooks instead of practical activities such as:

- 1AS textbook: first theme/topic: intercultural exchange; Theme 4: innovation and technology; Theme 5: famous people.
- 2AS textbook: Unit 1: signs of the time; Unit 2: make peace; Unit 5: science or fiction?
- 3AS textbook: Theme 1: ancient civilization; Theme 2: Ethics in business; Theme 4: education in the world; Theme 6: feelings and emotions.

Only three of them succeeded to provide us with some actual activities from the three textbooks. For example, in the first year textbook (At the Crossroads), pupils are presented “with pictures of American magazines and newspapers and asked to suggest Algerian newspapers with equivalent names.” Another task is to describe “daily routine/activities to a friend from a different country using frequency and degree adverbs.” For second year textbook (Getting through), pupils are asked to “describe the Algerian lifestyles in the past, present and the future.” In addition, writing a letter to agony aunt asking for advice. Concerning third year textbook, pupils are required to draw “a comparison between two civilizations and two education systems (British and Algerian).”

This section has revealed that the majority of the teachers in our sample acknowledge the existence of the TC in the secondary school textbooks. Although they declared the amount of culture integrated in the textbooks is moderate, more than half the informants conceded that they are still not satisfied. Seemingly, in our opinion, our participants are professedly advocating for more culture to be merged and subsumed in the

syllabus. Approximately half of the respondents admitted that the British and the Algerian cultures are more called for in the textbooks, in contrary to the American culture. Furthermore, the vast majority of the participants agreed that first and third years basically deal with big 'C' whereas more than half proclaimed that small 'c' is more evident in second year textbook. On the other hand, more than half the informants confirmed culture-based activities are insufficiently catered for in the textbooks content.

Section Five: Further Suggestions and Comments

Q33: Do you have any further comments or suggestions concerning teaching culture in relation to CBA, please feel free to express your thoughts.

18 out teachers had further comments. We can recapitulate them in these five main ideas:

- It is impossible to teach the language without its soul (culture). Yet, combining these two can be quite challenging especially to novice teachers.
- The target language culture must be taught at the beginning of teaching the FL in CBA.
- Culture should be explicitly more integrated in the secondary school textbooks through texts and activities. In fact, the diversity of cultural topics should help the teachers to choose what fits their pupils regarding their level, knowledge and cultural background.
- The teachers' job is to encourage knowing/learning about the TC; however, it is absolutely necessary not to minimise/diminish our native culture while doing so.
- There is a call for teachers' training program which should involve a direct contact with the TC.

3.1.4. Synthesis of the Questionnaire Results

The results of the second secondary school teachers' questionnaire can be reviewed as follows:

- The majority of the participants did not visit any English-speaking countries which means they have not had the opportunity to communicate, discern and be acquainted with the target culture (75%; Q6).
- CBA is proved to be widely implemented in teachers' EFL classes (78.6%) though they still resort to other approaches and methods mainly GTM, the communicative and the natural approach (Q7).
- The majority of the teachers think that teaching/learning the TC is as significant and critical as teaching/learning its language (92.6%; Q8), and they should be introduced side by side in the language classroom (91.4%; Q12); however, it should not be instructed at the initial stages as the FL under CBA (Q15; 77.1%).
- In Q11, 85.7% respondents are well aware of what culture means, and recognized that it is an enigmatic and fuzzy concept that includes observable, functional and literary dimensions.
- Almost two third of pupils showed a considerable proclivity and interest in learning FCs (65.7%; Q13), given that, according to the majority of the teachers, it can manipulate and juggle their attitudes towards their native culture (Q14; 82.9%). At the same time, they do encourage them to put the two cultures in a comparative framework to figure out similarities and differences (Q23; 84.3%).
- Almost all of the teachers think that within CBA, their pupils are better exposed to 'customs and festivals, and 'idioms and proverbs', whilst history, geography, literature and fine arts are considered subaltern (Q17; 91.4%). For doing so, the majority of them depend

mostly on the textbook, then video and audiotapes at the expense of the other teaching resources (Q18; 78.6%).

- On the other hand, the majority of the informants reported that they seldom or do not construct culture-gearred activities (Q19; 84.3%), and disregard some crucial culture teaching techniques (Q20; 85.7%). Nevertheless, they do actually deploy CBA activities to present culture (Q21; 80%), especially 'group work' and 'project work' (Q22; 84.3%).

- Nearly all of the participants affirmed that the three level textbooks encompass culture, particularly 1eAS and 2eAS (Q24; 95.7%), which is presented implicitly and explicitly in 2eAS and 3eAS (50%, 48.6%; Q27), and implicitly in 1eAS textbook (47.1%; Q27).

- In Q25, more than half of them indicated that the amount of culture presented in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd years is quite moderate (60%, 58% and 64.3, respectively).

- Almost half of the teachers or so, in Q28, stated that the three textbooks cover the British and the Algerian culture ($\leq 50\%$) more than the American culture ($\leq 15\%$).

- Q29 states clearly that big 'C' cultural subjects are predominant in both textbooks: 1eAS (100%) and 3eAS (97.1%). However, 2eAS textbook favours small 'c' cultural topics.

- There is a consensus among teachers in Q30, that culture-gearred activities are somewhat supplied in the secondary school textbooks: (1eAS; 70%); (2eAS; 67.1%), (3eAs; 64.3%). Less than 15% said it is significant.

- Unlike the intercultural scope, most of the participants appeared to be adequately familiar with both levels of the TC, big 'C' and small 'c'. Despite that, they expressed their need for solid cultural training programs either locally or abroad to gain more insights about cultureteaching especially within CBA.

3.2. Pupils' Questionnaire

3.2.1. Sample

The target population is that of secondary school pupils at Roubel L'arbi secondary school Henchir toumgheni, on the premise that the researcher works there, thus, easiness of access to pupils. We acquired data (La Carte Educative 2018/2019) about our study population from the school's headmaster's office, which is obtained from 'la Direction des Enseignements'. The number of pupils in each level; the number of the groups as well as the available streams in our school are displayed in the following Table:

Table 3.30.

La Carte Educative des Elèves

Common Core		Science/Techno		Literature		Total	
		Pupils	Groups	Pupils	Groups	Pupils	Groups
		105	3	46	2	151	5
Level		2 nd Year		3 rd Year		Total	
Branches		Pupils	Groups	Pupils	Groups	Pupils	Groups
Literature and philosophy		34	1	65	2	99	3
Literature and FL		0	0	0	0	0	0
Experimental Science		53	2	93	3	146	5
Total		87	3	158	5	245	8
	Civil Engineering	15	1	30	1	45	2
TOTAL		102	4	188	6	441	15
Results	Level	1 st Year		2 nd Year		3 rd Year	
	Pupils	15 1		10 2		188	
	Groups	5		4		6	

The chosen sampling is ‘stratified sampling’. According to this type of sampling, the population is divided into subgroups (strata) and members are randomly selected from each group. In our case, the three levels: 1st year, 2nd year and 3rd year groups represent strata. 10% of the whole population which is, as the Table indicates, 441 pupils in total, represent our study sample which is 44 pupils. The latter is selected randomly from each stream in each stratum (level).

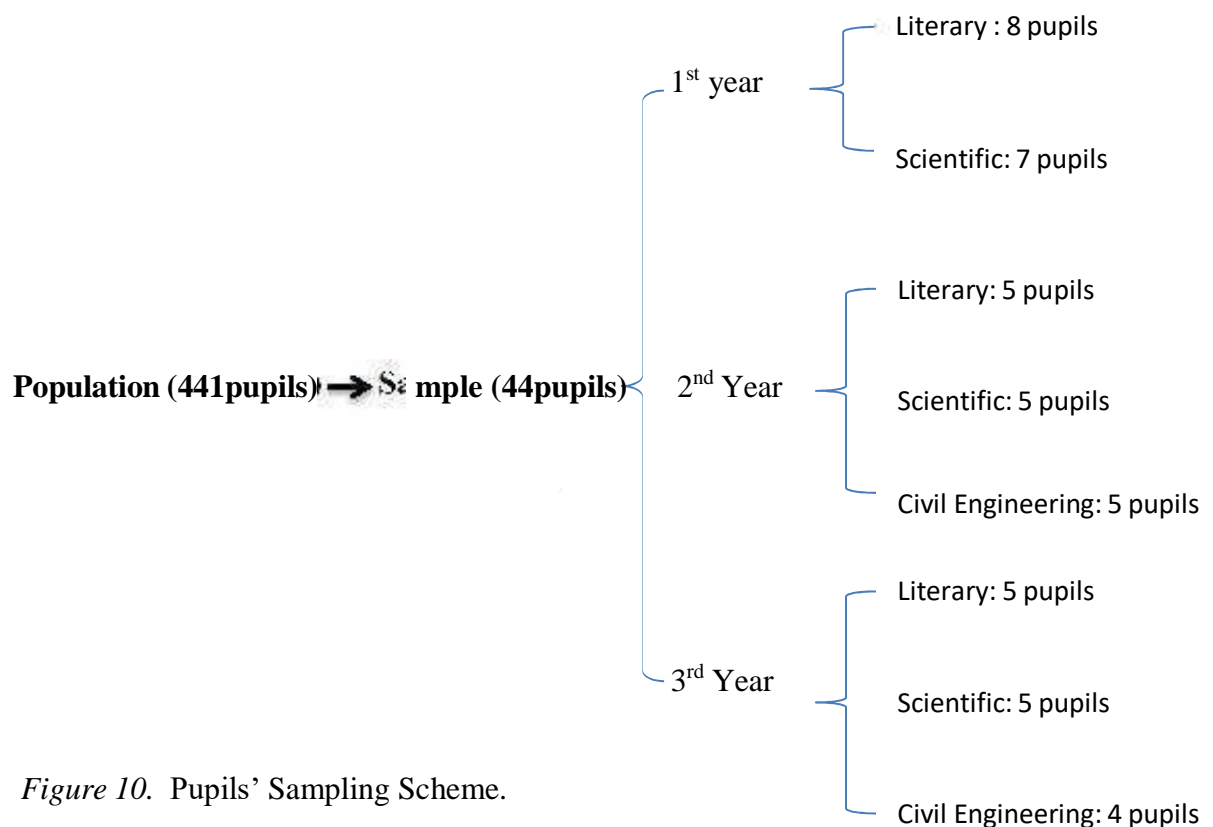


Figure 10. Pupils' Sampling Scheme.

3.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire encompasses four sections enclosing 13 questions with the multiple-choice and close ended type. An introductory statement was provided to explain to pupils the point from this study. Besides, we gave them choice to answer either in English or Arabic. There are four sections:

- **Section 1: Background Information (Q1-Q3)**

In this section, pupils are asked to answer some general questions about their gender (Q1), their level and stream whether literary, scientific or civil engineering (Q2).

- **Section 2: Pupils' Perception of Language Learning (Q3-Q5)**

This section aims at exploring the pupils' views about language learning. First, a direct question is given to the pupils' about whether they like to learn foreign languages or not (Q3). If yes (Q4), they are asked to state their preference between English or French, providing that they're the only available foreign languages at the researcher's school. After that, on a likert scale, pupils are asked to state their level in English from poor to very good (Q5).

- **Section 3: Culture in the language Classroom (Q6-Q12)**

This section is the core of the questionnaire. It attempts specifically to check pupils' awareness of culture as a concept (Q6), and to select which among the suggested culture-related topics they want to learn in class (Q7). Next, they're required to state their opinion about the importance of culture in FLL (Q8). In case of a 'No' answer (Q9), a justification is required. In (Q10), the participants are requested to say if their teachers talk about culture in classroom or not. Furthermore, Q11 aims at checking pupils' curiosity towards knowing/learning the culture of the other in real life. In case they are curious to do so, they're asked to define which sources they depend on from a list of options.

- **Section 4: Further Suggestions (Q12-Q13)**

This space is given to pupils to express their opinion regarding the target language culture, and to provide any suggestion concerning learning it.

3.2.3. Analysis of the Results

Section One: Background Information

Q1: Specify your gender

Table 3.31.

Pupils' Gender

Gender	N	%
Male	19	43.81
Female	25	56.82
Total	44	100

The results of Table 3.31. show that, in terms of gender, the number of female pupils surpasses that of male to some extent (56.82% and 43.81 % respectively).

Q2: Your Level and Stream

Table 3.32.

Pupils' Level and Stream

Level	First Years		Second Years			Third Years		
Stream	LIT	SC	LIT	SC	CE	LIT	SC	CE
N	8	7	5	5	5	5	5	4
%	53.34 %	46.66%	33.34%	33.33 %	33.33%	35.71%	35.71 %	28.57%
Total	1 5		15			1 4		
	4							
	4							

This point was clearly discussed in sub section 1.2 (sample).

Section Two: Pupils' Perception of Language Learning

Q3: Do you like learning foreign languages?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.33.

Pupils' Appreciation of FLs

Option	N	%
Yes	32	72.8
No	12	27.2
Total	44	100

The majority of the pupils responded positively to the question. As indicated in Table 03, 32 out 44 pupils (72.75%) declared that they like learning foreign languages. However, 12 of them (i.e., 27.28%) stated the opposite.

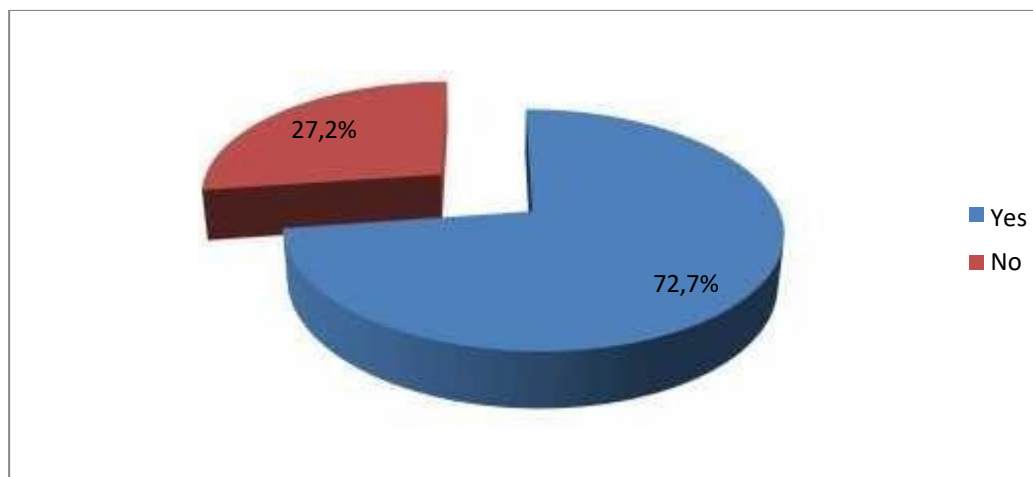


Figure 11. Pupils' Appreciation of FLs.

Q4: If “Yes”, do you prefer:

- English
- French

Table 3.34.

Pupils' Preference (English vs. French)

Option	N	%
English	31	70.45%
French	1	2.28%
No answer	12	27.28
Total	44	100

The Table 3.34. shows that only one pupil (2.28%) stated that s/he prefers French over English. The rest of them, which consists of the majority (70.45%), chose the English language. This means that the English language is gaining popularity over the years at the expense of French.

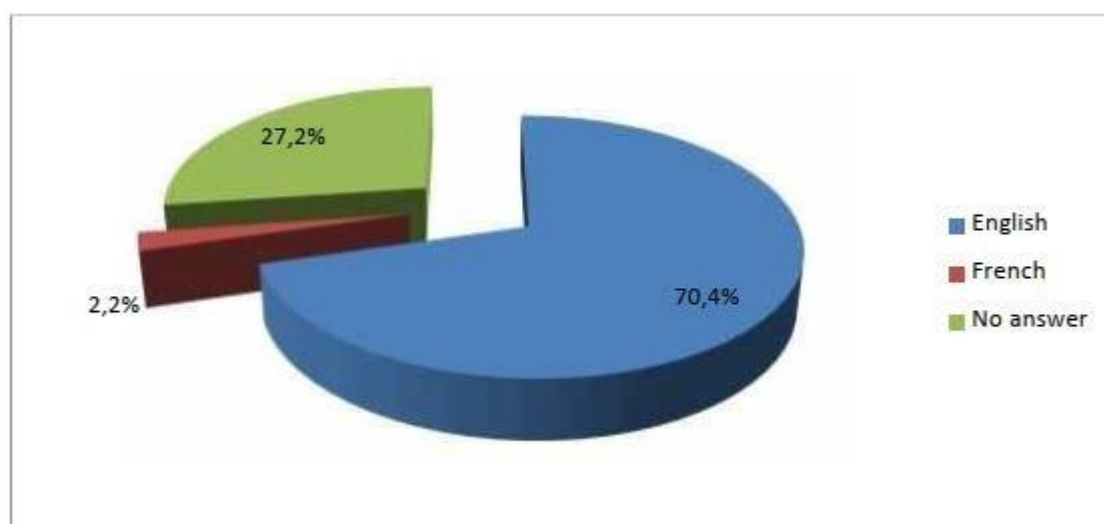


Figure 12. Pupils' Preference between English and French.

Q5: Do you consider your level in English to be:

- a. Poor
- b. Average
- c. Good
- d. Very good

Table 3.35.

Pupils' Viewpoints about their Level in English

Option	N	%
a	34	77.3
b	09	20.5
c	1	2.2
d	0	0
Total	44	100

The results outlined in Table 3.35. reveal that the majority of the pupils (up to 77.3%) consider their level in English as poor. 9 of them mentioned that they see themselves as average learners. Only one pupil said that s/he is good at English.

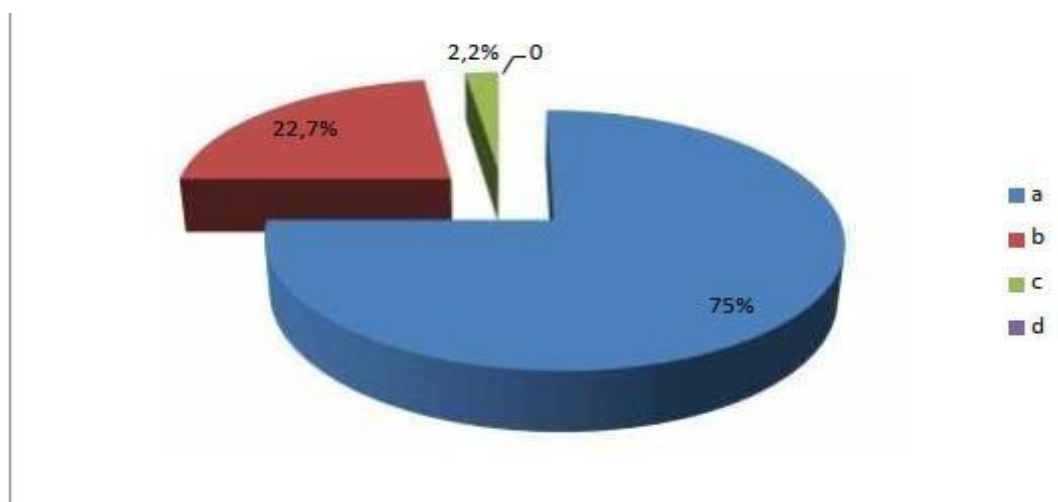


Figure 13. Pupils' Viewpoints about their level in English.

Section Three: Culture in the language Classroom

Q6: What does the word ‘culture’ mean to you?

- a. Art: theatre, painting, dancing; literature, poems...etc.
- b. The way of life of a given social group (customs and tradition: food, clothes, ceremonies ... etc.)
- c. Both.
- d. Other, please specify

Table 3.36.

Pupils’ Definition of the Word “Culture”

Option	N	%
a	0	0
b	29	65.9
c	15	34.1
d	4	9.1

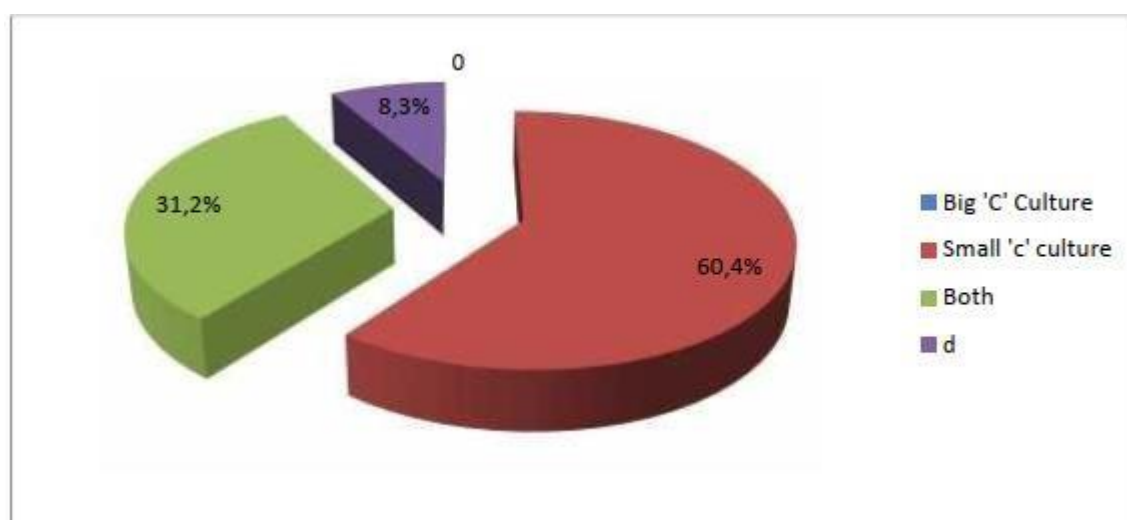


Figure 14. Pupil’s Definition of the Word “Culture”.

As indicated in Table 3.7., up to 60.41% of the respondents regard culture as way of life. 31.25% (i.e., 15 pupils) opted for the option ‘c’ which combined both ‘a’ and ‘b’. It seems that, perhaps, pupils know that culture is a vague concept which entails the way of life as well as arts and literature of a given social group.

Q7: Which topic(s) do you want to learn in class?

- a. The way of life of a given social group (customs and tradition: food, clothes, ceremonies ... etc.)
- b. Art: Theatre, music, painting...etc.
- c. History.
- d. Literature.
- e. Geography.
- f. Values and beliefs.

Table 3.37.

Pupils' Selection of Cultural Topics

Option	N	%
a	44	49.43
b	15	16.85
c	7	7.86
d	12	13.48
e	1	1.12
f	10	11.23

Table 3.37. shows that the topic that was mostly chosen by the pupils is ‘the way of life of a given social group’ (49.43%). Perhaps it is due to the reason that they predominantly chose it to be the very definition of culture in Q6. The options ‘b’, ‘d’, ‘f’ which relate to ‘arts’, ‘literature’, ‘values and beliefs’ respectively, received approximately the same percentage (16.85%, 13.48%, 11.23%). On the other hand, History and Geography were less likely to be learnt in class with the percentage (7.86% and 1.12% respectively).

Q8: Do you think that learning about culture is important in foreign language learning?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.38.

Pupils’ Perception about the Importance of Culture in FLL

Option	N	%
Yes	32	72.7
No	12	27.3
Total	44	100

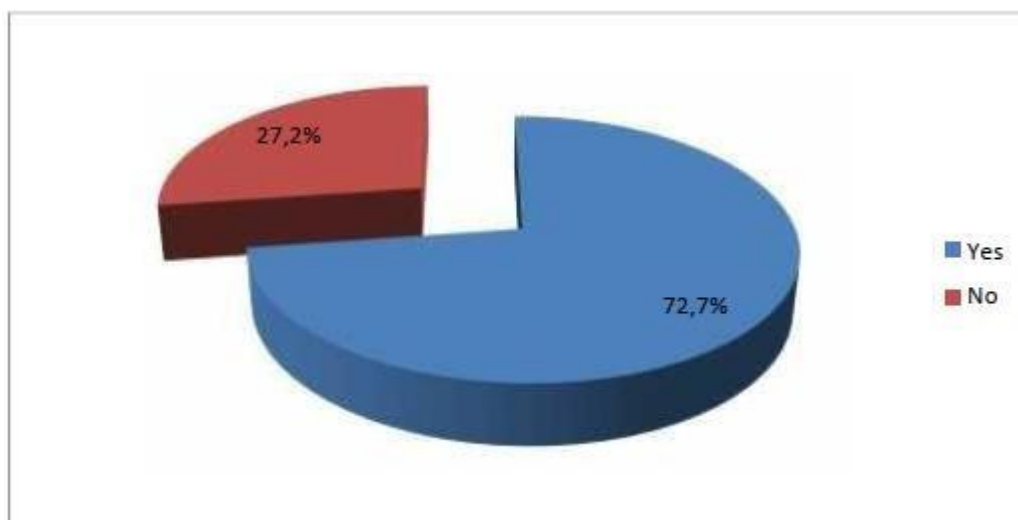


Figure 15. Pupils’ Perception of the Importance of Culture in FLL.

The results shown above point out that 72.72% of the participants consider learning about culture to be highly crucial in foreign language learning. However 12 of them (27.28%) claim otherwise.

Q9: If “No”, why

Out of 12 pupils who opted for ‘No’ in Q8, only 5 answered this question. Their answers seem to be very similar. 2 of them argued that culture has no relation with language whatsoever. The other 2 mentioned that they have no justification. The remaining pupils stated that learning about FC is ‘not appropriate and it is forbidden’.

Q10: Does your teacher talk / teach you about English-speaking cultures?

- Yes

- No

Table 3.39.

Teaching about the FC

Option	N	%
Yes	19	43.2
No	25	56.8
Total	44	100

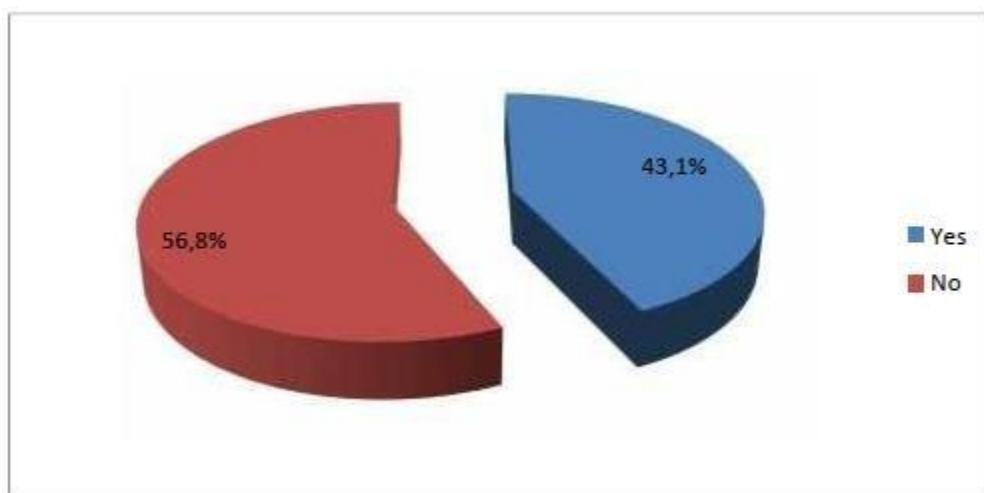


Figure 16. Teaching about the FC.

The results displayed in the Table 3.10. show that pupil who answered 'No' (56.81%) exceed those who opted for 'Yes' to some extent.

Q11: Are you curious to learn about the culture(s) of English-speaking people outside the classroom?

- Yes
- No

Table 3.40.

Pupils' Curiosity to learn about FC inside the Classroom

Option	N	%
Yes	28	63.6
No	16	36.4
Total	44	100

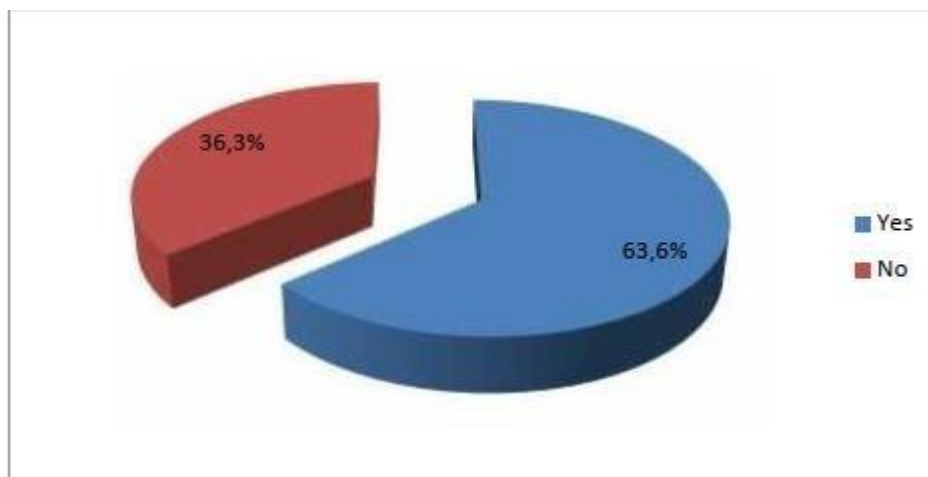


Figure 17. Pupils' Curiosity to Learn about FC Outside the Classroom.

The Table above show that most of the respondents (63.63%) are so curious to explore and learn about FC in the classroom. 16 out of 44 manifested a little curiosity towards FC learning.

Q12: If "Yes", what sources do you rely on:

- School textbooks.
- Magazines and newspapers.
- The internet.
- TV shows and movies.
- Others: please, specify

Table 3.41.

Sources Pupils rely on to learn about FC

Option	N	%
a	1	1.85
b	5	9.25
c	28	51.85
d	20	37.03
e	0	0
Total	54	100

The options that have been mostly chosen by the pupils are the internet (51.85%) and TV shows and movies (37.03%). It is worth mentioning that pupils who opted for option 'c' are mostly males because they have more access to Cybercafés than female; and this mainly due to the conservative nature of the town they live in. On the other hand, females opted mostly for TV shows and movies.

Section Four: Further Suggestions and

Comments Q13: Do you have any further comments or suggestions?

Only 15 pupils answered this question. 2 of them thanked their teachers for their efforts in the classroom. 2 others expressed their wish to have cultural centres in their town. 7 pupils displayed a negative attitude towards FL and FC; they stated that FL is the language of the devil and disbelievers. Furthermore, they added that FC affects us and our religion as well and it is forbidden to learn about it. Conversely, 2 pupils expressed their love to FL and FC. They expressed their desire to know more about peoples' lifestyle in foreign countries. On the other hand, the remaining 2 pupils urged their teachers to talk more about FC in the classroom.

3.2.4. Synthesis of the Questionnaire Results

The results obtained from the questionnaire can be dissected as follow:

- The majority of the pupils (72.8%; Q3) expressed their appreciation towards learning foreign languages, especially their preference towards learning English (70.45%; Q4).
- Speaking of their level of English, the majority of the participants mentioned that it is poor (77.3%; Q5). Only one claimed that s/he deems her/his self to be good at it.

- In Q6, up to 60.41% associated the definition of culture to the way of life of a given social group.
- 49.43% of the respondents preferred to learn about the small 'c' culture, i.e., topics that deal with customs, traditions, behaviours, beliefs, food...etc. (Q7)
- The majority of pupils (72.7%; Q8) recognized the importance and the value of culture in foreign language learning.
- In Q10, more than half of the participants (56.8%) argued that their teachers do not talk about culture nor they teach it in class.
- More than half of the pupils (63.6%; Q11) demonstrate high curiosity / interest in learning about culture outside of the classroom.
- Moreover, they depend mostly (51.85%; Q12) on the Internet as the primary source to get in contact with the language and its culture as well.

Conclusion

This chapter has agglomerated these findings as a synthesis to answer the research questions and to test the following hypotheses: We hypothesise that the Algerian teachers of English show an awareness of the target language culture teaching in terms of classroom practices under the framework of CBA; that the Algerian Secondary School textbooks comprise an unsatisfactory amount of culture, and that secondary school pupils' main interest is in learning about the language and not about its culture.

The findings of the secondary school teachers' questionnaire manifested that despite their awareness of the importance of culture and culture teaching in EFL and their considerable knowledge about it, the majority of the Secondary School teachers demonstrated a lack of baggage concerning classroom practices and procedures; that is, designing cultural activities and tasks under the framework of CBA. Therefore, our first hypothesis is not confirmed.

Furthermore, most of the teachers acknowledged the existing of culture in the textbooks. Although more than half of them stated that this amount of culture has been moderately implanted and distributed, the majority of them admitted that they are not satisfied and content with this quantity, and many of them even argued that it should be magnified throughout texts and activities. Accordingly, our second hypothesis is confirmed.

The pupils' questionnaire analysis has revealed that although the majority of the informants claimed that their level in English is poor; their appreciation towards foreign languages, especially English is quite the opposite. Moreover, this appreciation appeared to surpass the English language to its culture too. They expressed a great deal of interest in the other's culture despite the fact that it is not presented in the classroom, as they claimed. Clearly, they depend mostly on the Internet as the only source to get in touch with the language and its culture. Consequently, our third hypothesis is not confirmed.

Chapter Four: Raising the Algerian Pupils' Cultural Awareness through CBA-based Activities

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Introduction

This study aims at examining whether or not pupils' awareness of the TC is improved by the use of CBA-based activities. This chapter includes the description of the subjects involved in the experiment, the method used, the procedures followed and the design of the study. The chapter presents a detailed description of the pre- test, and post test results, and ends with an analysis of the data acquired, and suggestions for further research.

4.1. Population and Sampling

Our population of choice for this experiment consists of third year secondary school pupils, preparing for the Baccalaureate exam for the academic year 2021/2022, at Roubel L'arbi secondary school, Hanchir Tomghani, Oum El Bouaghi, Algeria. Our sample then comprised two equal third year literary stream groups: 3AL₁ and 3AL₂. The former was randomly chosen to be the experimental group (23 pupils), the latter as the control group (23 pupils). The two groups are even in gender: there are 19 female and 4 male pupils in the experimental group, and 20 female and 3 male pupils in the control group. We exceptionally targeted this population for two reasons. First, we had to work with third year literary stream pupils according to the administration assignment at the beginning of the school year. Second, it was conveniently adequate on the premise that third year literary stream textbook's program contains highlighted cultural themes and units, which laid down the ground for our study.

4.2. Choice of the Method

It stands to reason that choosing a research method is bound to a group of factors namely: the nature of the research, the sample chosen, the nature of the variables that underlie this study and the set of goals and objectives to be achieved. The design of this study, therefore, is a pre-post intervention study. This type of design is called quasi experiment, and defined by Ary et al. (2010) as a type of evaluation which aims to determine whether a

program or intervention has the intended effect on a study's participants. It actually aims at establishing a cause-and-effect relationship between CBA, as an independent variable, and the TC as a dependent variable.

The present quasi experiment was conducted to answer the last question of our study: Would the pupils' level of awareness about the target language culture expand if they were to be exposed to an effective strategy within CBA for teaching the TC? To answer this question, the fourth hypothesis was made: If the pupils were to be exposed to an effective strategy / technique for teaching the target culture within CBA, then their awareness about the target culture would increase.

4.2.1. The Pre-test Phase

The pre-test (see Appendix 6) was twofold. The first part was devoted to questions about the educational system in England, which focused mainly on secondary and university levels. The second part involved a series of cultural situations, or the so called 'cultural faux-pas'. Some of these situations are presented under the form of problems for the pupils to solve. Other situations are a subject for debate where pupils give their personal opinions. The choice of these cultural elements were adapted from the third year literary stream yearly program so as not to cause any interruption or delay in the time allocated to each unit by the Ministry of Education.

The pre-test was administered to both groups a session before the start of the treatment period. In order for the experiment to be authentic, the pupils were not informed about their involvement in it. The researcher took liberty to explain the test questions to the pupils because it was administered in the target language. The pupils were asked to work on the test individually and to take their time in answering each question. We also had to stress the fact that the test was not part of their evaluation or assessment in order not to add extra pressure that will interfere with the results later.

4.2.2. The Treatment Phase

The treatment period lasted approximately four months, exactly from November 19th to March 11th. That is just about the whole first semester. While the experimental group received the intervention, the control group, however, gets the business-as-usual conditions. The experimental group was exposed to the target culture which was of twofold. The first part consisted of the education system in England, precisely the secondary school phase and university. The second part dealt with some British cultural behaviours and rituals. It should be noted that the experiment took place three sessions per week according to the timetable handed to us by the administration. Each session lasted 45 minutes rather than an hour due to the Corona virus restricted regulations and protocols enforced by the Ministry of Education.

In order for the experiment to come about, we chose to divide the pupils into six groups (3As and 3Bs). In this stage of treatment, an information-gap activity (see chapter one) was administered as follows: each group (A1, B1), (A2, B2), (A3, B3) was given a text containing real facts about the education system in England. However, different words in these texts were blanked out. Next, after listening to the audio file, the pupils were asked to fill in the missing information. Moreover, they were also allowed to ask questions to each other in order to complete the information. In case the pupils were weak at formulating questions, 'As' could work together in pairs to prepare the questions beforehand, as can 'Bs'. After that, the second phase came in where pupils were put in real life situation (cultural faux pas), in which some of cultural behaviours or rituals are displayed in two types of activities: Problem solving activity and opinion-gap activity.

To achieve the cultural ‘know-how’, a problem solving activity (see chapter one) was deployed in which pupils were asked to identify the problem first, propose a hypothesis or potential solutions to the problem at hand, and then to assess/evaluate their own work. Last but not least, an opinion-gap activity (see chapter one) was submitted to answer the ‘know-why’. These types of activities are highly recommended in CBA as they encourage students to develop their mathematical thinking, thus, enhancing their critical thinking and reasoning (Prabhu, 1987).

The control group, in the first part of the educational system, received the usual listening and speaking lesson. It contains the three conventional stages: pre-listening, while listening and post listening. In the first stage, like the experimental group, the control group was exposed to the same audio material. In the second stage, however, learners were exposed to various activities that learners do while listening to a passage in order to show their understanding of what was heard of. In the second part, a collection of cultural behaviours and rituals were presented in a form of a text in a three staged reading and writing lesson: pre-reading, while reading and post reading. While-reading activities are designed to assist learners focus on aspects of the text and to understand it better. We have followed the course book in presenting these lessons.

4.2.3. The Post-test Phase

In the post-test phase students were asked to answer the same cultural quiz as in the pre-test. Evidently, the goal was to find out whether students have, in fact, achieved any sort of progress in terms of their cultural awareness. The Post-test took place after the end of the treatment period. The test took 30 minutes as with the pre-test; students were asked to answer individually and to take their time. Each part was marked with a one point mark, the sum of all the marks amounts to 15 points to make it easy to mark the averages and determine the level of each group.

4.2.4. Hypothesis Testing

Testing a hypothesis means to statistically evaluate a research hypothesis. It enables the researcher decide whether any change perceived in the results of the post-test as compared to the pre-test is statistically meaningful enough to support the research hypothesis.

In order to do that, a conventional set of steps is used. First, the null hypothesis (H_0) has to be determined. The null hypothesis is a type of conjecture or a commonly accepted fact that speculates that no change will occur between the mean of the pre-test and the one of the post-test in the case of our study. Second, the researcher has to work to reject, nullify or disprove the null hypothesis via proposing the alternative or the research hypothesis (H_1). Third, the significance level (α) or p-value has to be denoted. It is commonly given the value of $\alpha = 0.05$ is defined as the probability value (5%) that the difference in the means is due to chance and not to the experimental intervention (McLeod, 2019). The significance level (α) has a corresponding t-value for each sample size in a table called the t-distribution table. Fourth, the test is calculated then compared accordingly with the one-tailed t-value marked in the t-distribution table. The t test value can be calculated using the following equation:

$$t = \frac{(X_1 - X_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{(S_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(S_2)^2}{n_2}}}$$

4.3. Data Analysis

4.3.1. Results of the Pre-Test

Table 4.1.

The Control Group and the Experimental Group Results in the Pre-Test

	Control Group	Experimental Group
1	6	8
2	7	3
3	8	7
4	2	2
5	6	0
6	1	4
7	7	2
8	4	7
9	5	4
10	0	5
11	2	1
12	4	6
13	6	8
14	5	2
15	0	6
16	6	3
17	5	0
18	5	7
19	6	5
20	3	7
21	0	2
22	7	5
23	6	1
Σ	101	95
M	$\bar{x} = 4.3313$	$\bar{y} = 4.1304$

The Null Hypothesis (H₀)

The pupils' awareness of the TC will not be affected by techniques within CBA (information-gap, opinion-gap and problem solving technique).

The Mean of the Control Group

$$\bar{X} = \sum X / (N)$$

\bar{X} : Mean of the control group

$\sum X$: The sum of the gain results of the control group ($\sum X = 101$)

N : The number of students ($N = 23$)

$$\bar{X} = 101/23 = 4.3313$$

The control group scored below the average in the pre-test. (The average is 7.5/15)

The Variance of the Control Group

$$V_x^2 = \sum (x - \bar{X})^2 / N$$

$$V_x^2 = 132.37 / 23$$

$$V_x^2 = 5.76$$

According to the suggested formula above, the variance of the control group in the pre-test is 5.76.

The Standard Deviation of the Control Group

$$S_x = \sqrt{5.76}$$

$$S_x = 2,40$$

According to the proposed formula above, the standard deviation of the control group in the pre-test is 2,40.

The Mean of the Experimental Group

$$\bar{y} = \sum Y / (N)$$

\bar{y} : Mean of the control group

$\sum Y$: The sum of the gain results of the control group ($\sum Y = 95$)

N : The number of students ($N=23$)

$$\bar{y} = 95/23 = 4.1304$$

The Experimental group scored below the average in the pre-test.

The Variance of the

Experimental Group $Vy^2 =$

$$\sum (y - \bar{y})^2 / N$$

$$Vy^2 = 146.61 / 23$$

$$Vy^2 = 6.37$$

According to the suggested formula above, the variance of the experimental group in the pre-test is 6.37.

The Standard Deviation of the Experimental Group

$$Sy = \sqrt{6.37}$$

$$Sy = 2.52$$

According to the proposed formula above, the standard deviation of the experimental group in the pre-test is 2, 52.

Table 4.2.

Summary of the Pre-Test Results (Control Group vs. Experimental Group)

	Means	Variance	Standard Deviation
Control Group	4. 3313	5.76	2, 40
Experimental Group	4.1304	6.37	2.52

The t Test

A t Test is a statistical test that is used to compare the means of two groups or samples, i.e., whether the two samples are different or not. Since our two samples come from one single population, we opted for a paired t-test.

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\frac{(S_x)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(S_y)^2}{n_2}}}$$

t: t value.

\bar{X} : the me

\bar{y} : the mean of the experimental group.

S_x: the standard variation of the control group.

S_y: the standard variation of the experimental group.

t- value= 0.35.

The degree of freedom:

$$df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$$

(since $n_1 = n_2 = 23$)

$$df = 23 + 23 - 2 =$$

44.

According to the t table, we find a critical value of 2.41 at $p=0.01$ level of significance. The critical value is higher than the calculated t-value ($2.41 > 0.35$). Therefore, we can assume that there is no statistically significant difference between the two samples.

4.3.2. Results of the Post-Test Experimental Group vs. Control Group

Table 4.3.

The Control Group and the Experimental Group Results in the Post-Test

	Control Group	Experimental Group
1	6	5
2	7	4
3	0	9
4	9	8
5	8	13
6	11	12
7	7	14
8	4	7
9	9	13
10	6	5
11	0	14
12	3	8
13	6	7
14	10	3
15	9	15
16	4	6
17	2	11
18	9	6
19	6	10
20	13	5
21	3	7
22	7	3
23	0	12
Σ	139	197
<i>M</i>	$\bar{x} = 6.0434$	$\bar{y} = 8.5652$

The Mean of the Control Group

$$\bar{X} = \sum X / (N)$$

\bar{X} : Mean of the control group

$\sum X$: The sum of the gain results of the control group ($\sum X = 139$)

N : The number of students ($N = 23$)

$$\bar{X} = 139 / 23 = 6.0434$$

The mean of the control group is below the average.

The Variance of the Control Group

$$V_x^2 = \sum (x - \bar{X})^2 / N$$

$$V_x^2 = 235.39 / 23$$

$$V_x^2 = 10.23$$

According to the suggested formula above, the variance of the control group in the pre-test is 10.23.

The Standard Deviation of the Control Group

$$S_x = \sqrt{10.23}$$

$$S_x = 3.20$$

According to the proposed formula above, the standard deviation of the control group in the pre-test is 3.20.

The Mean of the Experimental Group

$$\bar{X} = \sum X / (N)$$

\bar{X} : Mean of the control group

$\sum X$: The sum of the gain results of the control group ($\sum X = 197$)

N : The number of students ($N=23$)

$$\bar{X} = 197/23 = 8.5652$$

In accordance with the formula above, we calculated the mean of the experimental group in the post-test to be 8.5652, a mean above the average.

The Variance of the Control Group

$$V_x^2 = \sum (x - \bar{X})^2 / N$$

$$V_x^2 = 313.65 / 23$$

$$V_x^2 = 13.64$$

According to the suggested formula above, the variance of the experimental group in the post-test is 13.64.

The Standard Deviation of the Control Group

$$S_x = \sqrt{13.64}$$

$$S_x = 3.69$$

According to the proposed formula above, the standard deviation of the experimental group in the post-test is 3.69.

Table 4.4.

Summary of the Post-test Results (Control Group vs. Experimental Group)

	Means	Variance	Standard Deviation
Control Group	6.0434	10.23	3.20
Experimental Group	8.5652	13.64	3.69

The T-test

$$t = \frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{(S_x)^2}{n_1} + \frac{(S_y)^2}{n_2}}}$$

t: t value

\bar{X} : the mean of the control group

\bar{Y} : the mean of the experimental group

S_x: the standard variation of the control group

S_y: the standard variation of the

experimental group $t = 2.49$

Conforming to the t table at 44 degree ($df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$), we find a critical t value of 2.41 at the 0.01 level of significance. The calculated t value is higher than the observed t value ($2.49 > 2.41$). We can conclude that the experimental group has achieved a statistically significant improvement contrary to the control group.

4.3.3. Independent T-test of the Experimental Group

Table 4.5.

The Results of the Experimental Group in the Pre-Test and the Post-Test

Pre-Test	Post-Test	D
8	5	-3
3	4	1
7	9	2
2	8	6
0	13	13
4	12	8
2	14	12
7	7	0
4	13	9
5	5	0
1	14	13
6	8	2
8	7	-1
2	3	1
6	15	9
3	6	3
0	11	11
7	6	-1
5	10	5
7	5	-2
2	7	5
5	3	-2
1	12	11
$\bar{x}_1=4.1304$	$\bar{x}_2=8.5652$	102
		$m_x= 4.4348$

It should be noted that the experimental group scored a post-test mean of 8.5652 which is higher than the pre-test mean (4.1304). The mean difference is 4.1304. In order to identify whether this improvement was due to the effect of the independent variable' manipulation or was just a result of chance we conduct the paired samples t test.

m_x : the mean differences ($\bar{X}_2 - \bar{X}_1$).

S_x : the standard deviation of the experimental group.

n : the size of the experimental group.

We can compute the critical t-value corresponding to the absolute value of the t-test statistics for the degrees of freedom (df): $df = n-1$.

$$\mathbf{m_x = 4.4348}$$

$$\mathbf{S_x = 5.3157}$$

$$\mathbf{t = \frac{m_x}{S_x / \sqrt{n-1}}}$$

$$\mathbf{t = \frac{4.4348}{5.3157 / \sqrt{22}}}$$

$$\mathbf{t = 3.9131}$$

As stated in the t table, the critical t value at the level 22 of freedom is 2.50. Accordingly, the t value is higher than the critical t value ($3.9131 > 2.50$). The difference between the means of the experimental group from the pre-test period and the post-test one is therefore ascribed to the manipulation of the independent variable CBA during the treatment period.

4.3.4. Independent T-test of the Control Group

Table 4.6.

The Results of the Control Group in the Pre-Test and the Post-Test

Pre-Test	Post-Test	D
2	2	0
7	5	-2
8	0	-8
2	7	5
6	8	2
1	7	6
7	8	1
4	4	0
5	5	0
0	2	2
2	2	0
4	3	-1
6	6	0
5	7	2
0	8	8
6	3	-3
5	4	-1
5	3	-1
6	6	0
3	12	9
0	3	3
7	7	0
6	3	-3
$\bar{y}_1=4.0870$	$\bar{y}_2=5.0000$	Sum= 24
		$m_y=1.0435$

m_y: the mean differences ($\bar{y}_2 - \bar{y}_1$).

S_y: the standard deviation of the experimental group.

n: the size of the experimental group.

We can compute the critical t-value corresponding to the absolute value of the t-test statistics for the degrees of freedom (df): $df = n - 1$.

$$\mathbf{m_y = 1.0435}$$

$$\mathbf{S_y = 3.4176}$$

$$\mathbf{t = \frac{m_y}{S_y / \sqrt{n-1}}}$$

$$t = \frac{1.0435}{3.4176 / \sqrt{22}}$$

$$\mathbf{t = 1.43}$$

The calculated t value is less than the critical t value $2.41 > 1.43$ at the $df=22$; hence, the progress made by the control group is due to a chance and not to the regular method.

4.4. Summary of the Results

The quasi-experiment was designed to answer the question of whether exposing pupils to techniques within CBA (information-gap, opinion-gap and problem-solving technique) has an effect on their level of awareness about the target language culture. The results can be epitomized as follows:

In the pre-test phase, according to the t Test, the critical value was higher than the tabulated t-value ($2.41 > 0.35$). Therefore, we assumed that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

In the post-test, however, the t Test showed that the tabulated t value was higher than the observed t-value ($2.49 > 2.41$). This means that the experimental group, contrary to the control group ($m_y = 1.0435$), has attained a statistically significant progress with a means of 4.4348.

In order to find out whether this significant progress made by the experimental group was due to the manipulation of the independent variable (CBA) or it was just a mere chance, we applied the independent t Test on both groups. The calculated t-value in the control group scored less than the critical t-value ($2.41 > 1.43$). Consequently, the progress made by the control group, i.e., $m_y = 1.0435$ was due to a chance. In contrast to the experimental group, the calculated t-value scored higher than the critical t-value ($3.9131 > 2.50$). The difference between the means of the pre-test and the post-test was therefore attributed to the manipulation of the independent variable (CBA) during the treatment period. Hence, our third hypothesis is confirmed.

4.5. Recommendations for Teachers and Syllabus Designers

In the light of this, we highly recommend the following:

- Language and culture are intertwined, and teachers should be informed of this. They should be aware that they are unable to remain impartial when teaching the foreign language. As individuals and not just as language teachers, they should deal with cultural challenges, and

their duty is ‘to develop skills, attitudes and awareness of values just as much as to develop knowledge of a particular culture or country’ (Byram, Gribkova, Starkey 2002, p.34).

- In this vein, to build an intercultural understanding in their classrooms, teachers should take on the roles of facilitators, integrators, researchers, and designers. Instead of controlling the classroom or how students learn, they should foster a culture of shared accountability.

- Teachers are required to possess some knowledge and understanding of the approach in use (CBA), especially in terms of practice. In other words, they must be well aware of the crucial role it requires them to play under its platform, and the various classroom activities

and techniques undertaken within its framework.

- The interrelatedness of culture and language has long been stressed by many scholars, stating that separating the two would result in losing the significance of the other; thus, teaching culture is necessary. Teachers, therefore, should elevate, embrace and adopt this claim so as to give a slice of life to the language classroom because only in the arms of culture, language acquires value and meaning.

- Generally, teachers tend to rely on textbooks mostly to present basic facts about the TC that do not involve pupils in the process of deeper understanding. Teachers should bear in mind that “cultures are never static” (Sysoyev, 2005, p. 36), and recognise that this static nature

often depicted through textbooks does not increase students' awareness of the TC. Adapting other supplementary materials can provide more authentic texts and activities about the L2 culture.

- Technology based instruction has altered the nature of FLT and learning remarkably. Students, nowadays, have become more engaged in digital media and less dependent on the printed word. To make learning culture more relevant and accessible and put the students in a more interactive realistic environment. 'Debates about pedagogy now center on aspects of learners autonomy, collaborative projects design, and appropriate assessment practices' (Gruba 2004, p.623). As a result, it is thought that technology-based instruction has the potential to help students achieve these goals.

- Teachers should also explore these digital technologies and devices such as computers, smart phones, laptops, iPads, PD's, blogging, and podcasting inside the classroom to keep pace with the challenges of the current era.

- For teachers to be adequately and sufficiently competent in the field of teaching, it is high time that the authorities set a plan, nationwide, for future well-organised training programs. This should better be conducted abroad so teachers will have a great opportunity to interact directly with the TC professionals so as to gain valuable insights concerning culture and culture teaching in both theory and practice.

- An excellent way to promote critical thinking is to ask questions regarding the cultural content of the textbooks. In particular at advanced levels, the teacher should encourage the students to ask questions.

- It is of a paramount importance that inspectors and experienced teacher organise regular workshops and seminars to reform, guide and train novice teachers concerning CBA and its applicability inside the classroom. Besides, to shed light on the cultural component and how to actually deal with it in practice under the framework of CBA.

- Instead of being treated as supplemental or optional information, the cultural aspect of the English language should be considered as an essential component of the English lesson.
- Syllabus designer should bear in mind that learners' NC should not prevail or take over the English-speaking culture(s). The latter is certainly more pertinent and advantageous for learning the TL.
- Textbook authors should include more engaging, entertaining subjects and themes that take into account the demands and interests of the learners. Moreover, incorporate more contemporary and authentic sources.
- Insert activities under the framework of CBA that would encourage the learners to compare their native culture and the TC. Comparison is a very useful strategy in developing learners' insights on both cultures as well as raising awareness of ones' self.
- We believe that the Algerian secondary school textbooks should be seriously reviewed regarding the approach applied in the design and the cultural component to be adequately catered for and expanded. This could offer major insights and methodological notes for future reforms and studies.

4.6. Recommendation for Learners

Teachers claim that the students' lack of enthusiasm in English is their main English language issue. Many teachers stated that although their students can study English, they prefer not to because they "do not want" to. In addition to preparing, inspiring, and drawing students to English, teachers should set them on the appropriate path so that they may rely on themselves to increase their English proficiency.

The pupils should be aware of how important and useful English is today more than ever. Knowing English well enables you to communicate with individuals from all around the world. Learning English ought to be for long-term objectives rather than just to pass an exam or for any other reasons.

Pupils must create their own ways to study English and its culture outside of the classroom in addition to paying attention to English teachers and lessons. The Internet, television, literature, and other technologies are easier and more accessible than ever since we live in the twenty-first century. The students are encouraged to examine the numerous websites; channels, tubes, etc. that humorously and entertainingly introduce and explain the various English-speaking cultural components.

Learners who may never leave their country or even interact with an English speaker may wonder why they should study culture. Byram (1997, p18-19, as cited in Merrouche, 2006) so fittingly states that such visits “are the richest and most complex opportunity for learning which can be offered to learners in any of the prioritised sectors of education. The need for our students to be able to activate their “cultural antennas” in order to comprehend not only other cultures but also their own is more critical than ever as the world becomes more interconnected. By doing this, students will be better equipped to take an active part in the global community, which includes their local community.

English teachers can assist their pupils to activate their “cultural antennas” by bringing students' attention to significant aspects of their own culture and assisting them in understanding how their culture has influenced them (Byram, 1997). This learning process establishes “sphere of interculturality” (Kramsch, 1993).

Conclusion

This chapter recapitulates the analysis, discussion and the interpretation of the results of the quasi-experiment. As we mentioned above, the experiment was based primarily on the fourth hypothesis, that is, if the pupils are exposed to a new strategy / technique for teaching the target culture within CBA, their awareness about the target culture would increase. Simultaneously, it was derived from the findings of both teachers' and pupils' questionnaires. In fact, on the one hand, the majority of teachers, when teaching the TC, tend to overlook some of the most important techniques within CBA such as: information-gap, opinion-gap, reasoning-gap and problem solving activities. On the other hand, the majority of pupils manifested a high inquisitiveness towards learning about the TC. The experiment revealed that implementing these types of activities in presenting the TC has led to remarkable progress in the pupils' performance in the classroom. In other words, the pupils' who were exposed to these techniques (the experimental group) have out-performed their counterparts (the control group) in terms of the TC awareness level. This is clearly evident that these high-order thinking techniques prove to be very efficient in teaching about the TC within CBA. It is high time teachers seriously recognised the inevitability of teaching the TC along with its language and the benefits that come with it. In doing so, they also should take the high road in implementing more complex techniques and strategies in order to further explore CBA, hence, making the learning process more alive and enjoyable for their learners.

General Conclusion

Based on reviewing the literature concerning the place of culture in EFL teaching, especially in language teaching methods and approaches, there stem the need, throughout this research, to investigate the role of CBA in the teaching of the target language culture. This research was built upon five main chapters. The first two chapters provided a detailed theoretical framework of the two main variables that constituted the study: CBA and culture. In the first chapter, we briefly reviewed the major language teaching methods and approaches, followed by an illustration of some important terms “approach”, “method”, “design” and “technique”. After that, we shed light on the historical account of CBA as well as its major tenets and goals of the approach. Moreover, we provided a dissection of CBA as an approach to language teaching and learning. Finally, we concluded by breaking down the pros and cons of CBA. In the second chapter, culture, as immensely vast as it is, was given an abridged but fair portion in the study. Firstly, we delineated this incredibly elusive concept and the many views and interpretations attached to it. After that, the discussion shifted to elucidating how language and culture are related from various academic and scientific perspectives. After that, we have thrown some light on culture in the language classroom, including its historical account, goals, and the wide range of strategies used to incorporate it into FL teaching. Finally, we made plain how culture is dealt with in popular language teaching methods and approaches.

Chapters three and four frame the practical part of this research. The analysis and the interpretation of the teachers’ and pupils’ questionnaire were manifested in the third chapter. The findings of the pupils’ questionnaire showed that the majority of them displayed a great deal of interest in the English language and its culture too despite the fact that their efficiency level in foreign language is very low. Furthermore, the analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire discovered that the majority of them find it very problematic to construct techniques and

activities to teach the TC within CBA. Moreover, the majority of the teachers were unsatisfied with the amount of the TC incorporated in the Algerian secondary school textbooks. Hence, they argued that it should be amplified mainly through designing more suitable techniques and activities that undergo CBA's principles and objective in teaching the TC. The results of both questionnaires laid down the ground for the experimental field work which was tackled in chapter four. The analysis demonstrated that the pupils' results clearly affirmed an outstanding improvement in their awareness of the TC through the exposure to effective activities within CBA. Moreover, the experiment revealed that implementing these types of activities in presenting the TC has led to remarkable progress in the pupils' performance in the classroom. In other words, the pupils' who were exposed to these techniques (the experimental group) have out-performed their counterparts (the control group) in terms of the TC awareness level. Hence, the third hypothesis is confirmed. Lastly, a set of pedagogical recommendation and suggestions for teachers, syllabus designers and learners were dealt with in chapter five.

Regardless of the fact that this research is simple and straightforward, it did not come without stumbling blocks. Firstly, the researcher's health status has been a major hindrance for the accomplishment of this study. During the period of this study, the researcher has been diagnosed with 'Hernie Discale' and 'Hernie Cervicale' which has greatly affected his ability to properly use the computer in order to conduct his study. Secondly, although we have dealt with CBA in our Master dissertation, collecting further resources regarding the approach has still proved to be very problematic whether the source is a book, a journal, an article or a website. We have attempted so many times to contact the authorities, mainly the inspector of English, to gain access to 'Le Manuel Scolaire' for CBA in the secondary school level, but it was a complete failure on their behalf. Therefore, we did our best to provide the necessary information to cover the approach

at many levels. Thirdly, other limitations of this study are related to the Covid-19 pandemic. It has certainly affected many institutions across country mainly schools, on the premise that they are highly populated with teenagers. For instance, the researcher's school is located in a rural area with very poor equipment and appropriate tools to provide a healthy secure environment for pupils as well as teachers to go through the teaching/learning process comfortably. Therefore, the researcher had to provide masks and hand sanitizers for his pupils for the duration of the experiment so as to prevent any possible contamination which may lead to the failure of the experiment.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Teachers Questionnaire

Appendix B: Students Questionnaire

Appendix C: Teachers' Comments / Suggestions

Appendix D: Pupils' Comments / Suggestions

Appendix E: The Pre-Test

Appendix F: The Treatment Phase

Appendix G: The Post- Test Activities

French Abstract

Arabic Abstract

Appendix A
Teachers' Questionnaire

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is part of a research work. It aims at investigating the teacher's perceptions of culture and culture teaching, and how they deal with it in CBA. It also aims at exploring the place of culture in the secondary school textbooks of English. Please tick (✓) the appropriate box (es) and make full statements whenever necessary.

Please accept my gratitude in advance for your cooperation.

Mr. Djamel Mazouz

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Department of Letters and English

University of Constantine 1

Section I: Background Information

1. Degree(s) held:
 - a. BA (Licence) ☐
 - b. Master ☐
 - c. Magister ☐
 - d. Other (please specify)
.....
2. Employment status:
 - a. Permanent teacher ☐
 - b. Substitute teacher ☐
3. Teaching experience: year(s)
4. The educational phase:
 - a. Middle school
 - b. Secondary school
5. Have you ever been abroad?
 - Yes ☐
 - No ☐
6. If Yes, which countries did you visit:
 - a. English-speaking countries. ☐
 - b. Non-English-speaking countries. ☐

Section II: Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching the Target Culture and its Language

7. What is/are the common approach (es) / method(s) that you use in teaching English?
 - a. Grammar Translation Method ☐
 - b. The Communicative Approach ☐
 - c. The Competency-Based Approach ☐
 - d. Others, please specify.....

8. To what extent are you familiar with the Target Culture?

Degree Options	Very familiar	Sufficiently familiar	Not familiar
a. History, geography, political system			
b. Different ethnic and social groups			
c. Daily life and routines, living conditions (food and drink.. etc.)			
d. Education, professional life			
e. Traditions, folklore, tourism attractions			
f. Literature			
g. Other culture expressions (movies, music, drama, art)			
h. Values and beliefs			

9. Is teaching the target language culture in EFL classroom as important as teaching the language?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

10. If 'Yes, for which reasons

- a.** Language and culture are intertwined. ☐
- b.** Teaching culture motivates students. ☐
- c.** Combining language and culture helps students to improve their language skills. ☐
- d.** The more students know about the foreign culture, the more tolerant they become. ☐
- e.** Others, please mention

11. If 'No', please, justify

12. How would you interpret the word 'culture'?

a. The learned and shared behaviours, interactions and customs. ☐

b. A set of norms, thoughts and values that distinguishes a group of people from others. ☐

c. Literature and fine arts. ☐

d. Other: please, specify

.....

13. Is it possible to teach/learn the target language and its culture in an integrated way?

a. Definitely ☐

b. Possibly ☐

c. Definitely Not ☐

14. Do your pupils show any interest in learning about English-speaking cultures?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

15. Does learning about a foreign culture change the students' attitude towards their own culture?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

Section III: Teaching Culture under the Framework of CBA

16. Do you think that culture should be taught/learned at the early stages as teaching/learning a foreign language?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

17. Please, justify your answer.....

18. What are the cultural topics that you think your pupils should be exposed to within CBA?

- a. History ☐
- b. Geography ☐
- c. Literature ☐
- d. Customs and festivals ☐
- e. Idioms and proverbs ☐
- f. Fine arts and poetry ☐
- g. Others: please, mention

19. In your CBA class, what sources do you use in teaching culture? (you may tick more than one answer)

- a. Textbooks. ☐
- b. Video-tapes. ☐
- c. Audio-tapes. ☐
- d. The Internet. ☐
- e. Newspapers and magazines. ☐
- f. Other: Please, specify
.....

20. In CBA, how often do you present culture-based activities or lessons?

- a. Very often ☐
- b. Sometimes ☐
- c. Rarely ☐
- d. Never ☐

21. Which, among the following techniques you make use in teaching the target culture?

- a. Culture assimilators. ☐
- b. Culture capsules and clusters. ☐
- c. Culture quizzes. ☐

- d. Critical incidents. ☐
- e. Media/visuals. ☐
- f. Kinesics and body language. ☐
- g. Independent activity sheet. ☐
- h. Others: please specify:

.....

22. Do you also use communicative/competency-based activities in teaching the target culture?

Yes ☐ No ☐

23. If 'Yes', which one(s) do you usually undertake

- a. Role plays ☐
- b. Problem –solving activities ☐
- c. Information-gap ☐
- d. Reasoning-gap ☐
- e. Opinion gap ☐
- f. Storytelling ☐
- g. Group work ☐
- h. Project work ☐

24. Do you encourage your pupils to compare aspects of their own culture with those of a foreign culture?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

Section IV: The Place of Culture in the Secondary School Textbooks of English

25. Would the cultural aspect take part in the following textbooks?

Textbooks	Yes	No
the Crossroads 1 ^e AS		
Getting Through 2 ^e AS		
New Prospects 3 ^e AS		

26. If 'Yes', how much culture do you think is incorporated there?

Textbooks	great deal	Considerably	Moderately	Not at all
1 AS				
2 AS				
3 AS				

27. Are you satisfied with the amount of the cultural content provided in the textbook?

Textbooks	ery satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	ery dissatisfied
1 AS				
2 AS				
3 AS				

28. Is the cultural component presented

Options	Textbooks		
	1 ^e AS	2 ^e AS	3 ^e AS
a. Implicitly			
b. Explicitly			
c. Both			

29. What culture do the textbooks promote?

Options	Textbooks		
	1 ^e AS	2 ^e AS	3 ^e AS
a. The British culture			
b. The American culture			
c. Pupils' native culture			
d. Other:			

30. What cultural themes/topics do the textbooks deal with?

Options	Textbooks		
	AS	AS	AS
a. Ways of living: customs, traditions, festivals and rituals			
b. Literature, fine arts, poems, idioms and proverbs			
c. History, geography, politics, educational system, newspapers, magazines ...etc.			
d. Others: Please, specify.....			

31. To what extent do these textbooks provide culture-based activities?

Textbooks	Significantly	Moderately	Slightly	not at all
1 ^e AS				
2 ^e AS				
3 ^e AS				

32. Would you give examples, please?

1AS:

.....

2AS:

.....

3As:

.....

Section V: Further Suggestions

33. If you have any further comments or suggestions concerning teaching the target culture in relation to CBA, please feel free express your thoughts.

.....

.....

.....

.....

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.....

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.....

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Appendix B
Pupils' Questionnaire

SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear pupil,

This questionnaire is a part of a research work. This questionnaire aims at investigating the pupils' attitudes and perceptions of the target language culture. You are kindly asked to answer it. Please tick (✓) the appropriate box and make full statements whenever necessary (in English or in Arabic).

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

MAZOUZ Djamel

Department of English

Faculty of Letters and Languages

University Frères Mentouri

Section I: Background Information

1. Sex:

e. Male ☐

f. Female ☐

2. Level and Stream

c. 1^e AS Literary ☐ Scientific ☐

d. 2^e AS literary ☐ Scientific ☐ Civil Engineering ☐

e. 3^e AS Literary ☐ Scientific ☐ Civil Engineering ☐

Section II: Pupils' Perception of Foreign Language Learning

3. Do you like learning foreign languages?

- Yes ☐

- No ☐

4. If “Yes”, do you prefer :

- English ☐

- French ☐

5. Do you consider your level in English to be:

a. Poor ☐

b. Average ☐

c. Good ☐

d. Very good ☐

Section III: Culture in the language Classroom

6. What does the word 'culture' mean to you?
- a. Art: theatre, painting, dancing; literature, poems...etc. ☐
 - b. The way of life of a given social group (customs and tradition: food, clothes, ceremonies ... etc.) ☐
 - c. Both of them. ☐
 - d. Other:
Please,
specify.....
.....

7. Which topic do you want to learn in class?
- a. The way of life of a given social group (customs and tradition: food, clothes, ceremonies ... etc.) ☐
 - b. Art: Theatre, music, painting...etc. ☐
 - c. History. ☐
 - d. Literature. ☐
 - e. Geography. ☐
 - f. Values and beliefs. ☐
 - e. All of them. ☐

8. Do you think that learning about culture is important in foreign language learning?
- Yes ☐
 - No ☐

9. If "No",
why.....
.....
.....

10. Does your teacher talk / teach you about English-speaking cultures?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

11. Are you curious to learn about the culture(s) of English-speaking people outside the classroom?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

12. If “Yes”, what sources do you rely on:

- a. School textbooks. ☐
- b. Magazines and newspapers. ☐
- c. The Internet. ☐
- d. TV shows and movies. ☐
- e. Other: please, specify

.....

.....

Section VI: Further Suggestions and Comments

13. Do you have any further comments or suggestions?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix C

Teachers' Comments / Suggestions

Appendix 3.1. Answers to Q16: Do you think culture should be taught/learned at the early stages as teaching/learning a foreign language?

26 Out of 70 teachers involved in this questionnaire answered this question. All those who ticked out 'Yes', (16 teachers), vindicated their answers which turn around the following points:

- Culture and language are intertwined and cannot be separated even at the basic levels.
- Culture is the soul of the language, hence, teaching "the culture of a given language at early stages helps building learners who can decode the set of values, customs... of a given group."
- Including culture in the language classroom could enhance the learners' vocabulary and motivation "to know why the target language people behave like they do."
- Language can best be learned in a context and this context is culture.
- Language cannot be taught without culture "because it is already there." And learners need to "learn from the beginning the target language culture and how it is similar or different from their culture."
- Another teacher mentioned "language competence" and it does not only "not include the knowledge of grammatical principles and sentence construction, but also knowledge of the norms that links language to social and cognitive context."

Conversely, only 8 out the majority of the teacher who opted for 'No' in Q15 (54 teachers) put forward these arguments. Some believe that pupils should learn the basics of the language first and later can be exposed to culture, on the premise that some

cultural aspects could be demotivating and difficult to learn about. For others, there is a risk of “culture alienation”, that is to say, teenagers at this age are easily persuaded and influenced. Culture may influence their “thoughts and religions as well.”

Appendix 3.2. Answers to Q31: Would you provide examples of these activities, please?

Only 18 out of 70 teachers answered this question. 2 of them, to begin with, said that they have no good examples for this question. Surprisingly, 13 teachers have mentioned major themes/topics and units of the textbooks instead of practical activities such as:

- 1eAS textbook: first theme/topic: intercultural exchange; Theme 4: innovation and technology; Theme 5: famous people.
- 2eAS textbook: Unit 1: signs of the time; Unit 2: make peace; Unit 5: science or fiction?
- 3eAS textbook: Theme 1: ancient civilization; Theme 2: Ethics in business; Theme 4: education in the world; Theme 6: feelings and emotions.

Only 3 of them succeed to provide us with some actual activities from the three textbooks. For example, in the first year textbook (At the Crossroads), pupils are presented “with pictures of American magazines and newspapers and asked to suggest Algerian newspapers with equivalent names.” Another task is to describe “daily routine/activities to a friend from a different country using frequency and degree adverbs.” For 2eAS textbook (Getting through), pupils are asked to “describe the Algerian lifestyles in the past, present and the future.” In addition, writing a letter to a young aunt asking for advice. Concerning 3rd year textbook, pupils are required to draw “a comparison between two civilizations and two education systems (British and Algerian).”

Appendix 3.3. Answers to Q33: Do you have any further comments or suggestions concerning teaching culture in relation to CBA, please feel free to express your thoughts.

18 out teachers had further comments. We can recapitulate in these five main ideas:

- It is impossible to teach the language without its soul (culture). Yet, combining these two can be quite challenging especially to novice teachers.
- The target language culture must be taught at the beginning of teaching the FL in CBA.
- Culture should be explicitly more integrated in the secondary school textbooks through texts and activities. In fact, the diversity of cultural topics should help the teachers to choose what fits their pupils regarding their level, knowledge and cultural background.
- The teachers' job is to encourage knowing/learning about the TC; however, it is absolutely necessary not to minimise/diminish our native culture while doing so.
- There is a call for teachers' training program which should involve a direct contact with the TC.

Appendix D

Pupils' Comments / Suggestions

Appendix 3.4. Answers to Q9: If “No”, why

Out of 12 pupils who opted for ‘No’ in Q8, only 5 answered this question. Their answers seem to be very similar. 2 of them argued that culture has no relation with language whatsoever. The other 2 mentioned that they have no justification. The remaining pupils stated that learning about FC is ‘not appropriate and it is forbidden’.

Appendix 3.5. Answers to Q13: Do you have any further comments or suggestions?

Only 15 pupils answered this question. 2 of them thanked their teachers for their efforts in the classroom. 2 others expressed their wish to have cultural centres in their town. 7 pupils displayed a negative attitude towards FL and FC; they stated that FL is the language of the devil and disbelievers. Furthermore, they added that FC affects us and our religion as well and it is forbidden to learn about it. Conversely, 2 pupils expressed their love to FL and FC. They expressed their desire to know more about peoples’ lifestyle in foreign countries. On the other hand, the remaining 2 pupils urged their teachers to talk more about FC in the classroom.

Appendix F

The Pre-Test

Part One: Education in England

1. The educational system in England can be divided into:
 - a- Two parts
 - b- Four parts
 - c- Six parts
2. The compulsory education in England is between the ages of:
 - a- 4 to 10
 - b- 5 to 11
 - c- 6 to 12
3. In England, the first stage of education is called:
 - a- Junior
 - b- Primary
 - c- Elementary
4. What do you think is the equivalent of the French word “Lycée” in England?
 - a- Comprehensive school
 - b- Grammar school
 - c- Sixth-form college
 - d- Secondary school
 - e- High school
5. What do you think is the equivalent of “Baccalauréat” in England nowadays?
 - a- SATS (Standard Assessment Tests)
 - b- GCSES (General Certificate of Secondary Education)
 - c- CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education)
 - d- A high school diploma

6. Higher education in Britain can be divided into (stages):
- a- Two
 - b- Three
 - c- Four
7. In England, Bachelor's degree is the equivalent in Algeria of:
- a- La licence
 - b- Master
 - c- Doctorat (Ph.D)

Part Two: Cultural Behaviours and Rituals

8. You were in a crowded space and by accident you stepped on someone's foot. He turned and apologised to you twice in a row!

- Why do you think he apologised though he is the victim here?

.....
.....

9. You are at a social gathering, and you want to talk to a strange person, how would you introduce yourself?

- a. What is your name?
- b. Hi, my name is John.
- c. I don't think we have met before, have we? My name is ..
- d. Do I know you?

10. You are taking a walk in St James' park in London, you noticed that people sitting

in chairs cross their legs at the ankles.

- Why do you think they are doing so instead of crossing them at the knee?

.....
.....

11. You are about to meet someone for the first time, how would you greet him?
- a. A kiss.
 - b. A hug.
 - c. A handshake.
 - d. "How do you do?"
 - e. Both c and d.
 - f. I do not know.

12. In Christmas day, the perfect way to congratulate someone is by saying:
- a. 'Marry Christmas'.
 - b. 'Marry Christmas' + bringing a gift (chocolate, hampers, flowers, etc.)

13. You have an appointment/meeting with your doctor or professor, would you arrive:

- a. Any time during the meeting.
- b. At the exacte time.
- c. A few minutes early.

- Why?

.....
.....

14. You were invited at dinner. While eating, you wanted to

take a break. What would you do:

- a. Just get up and leave.
- b. Ask your host's permission.
- c. Put your knife and fork on the table randomly.
- d. Put the knife and fork on your plate with the knife crossing the fork.

Appendix F

The Treatment Phase Appendix 4.1.

Part One - The Script.

Unit Three: Education in the World

The educational system in England is worldwide known for its high quality and standards. In general, the British education system has four stages of education: primary, secondary, further education, and Higher Education.

Similarly in Algeria, children in England enter the education system at the age of 5 and up to 16 are obliged to attend school. Some receive their primary education at an infant school and then a junior school; others receive it at a primary school that combines the two. The secondary school period starts at the age of 11 when pupils go to grammar schools, comprehensive schools, or modern schools. At age of 14, pupils undertake (SATS) the National or Standard Assessment Tests. After that, and up to 16 years old, they study towards The General Certificate for Secondary Education (GCSE) which marks the end of the compulsory schooling period.

After the age of sixteen, some pupils prefer to go to the "sixth-form college" or "further Education College". This latter refers to an educational institution where students aged from 16 to 19 typically study for advanced school-level qualifications to enter university, while others prefer to leave and find a job. The municipal government of the city of Paris uses the phrase 'sixth form college' as the English name for "a lycée".


Generally, UK higher education is divided into two major parts: undergraduate and postgraduate. In the undergraduate period, students usually study for three years for a bachelor's degree, which is quite identical to "La Licence" in Algeria. Likewise in Algeria, students who have completed the first degree can apply for postgraduate courses. One of which is a master's degree that usually takes up to two years for research-based studies. Then, the doctorates level in the UK, as well as in Algeria, can be typically taken in three years, but it can last up to 5 years in general. The UK is also famous for its renowned top-ranking universities mainly Cambridge and Oxford, which are equivalent to Stanford and Harvard universities in the United States of America.

Appendix 4.2. Part One : Task 1, 2 & 3

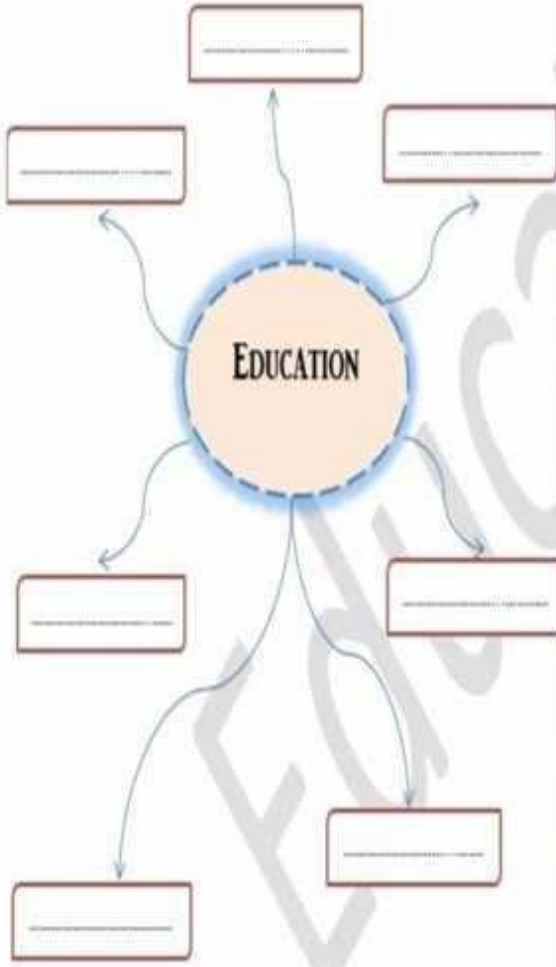
THEME: SCHOOLS: DIFFERENT AND ALIKE

UNIT: EDUCATION IN THE WORLD

SEQUENCE ONE: LISTENING AND CONSIDER.



LEVEL: THIRD YEAR. LITERARY STREAM.



```
graph TD; E((EDUCATION)) --- B1[ ]; E --- B2[ ]; E --- B3[ ]; E --- B4[ ]; E --- B5[ ]; E --- B6[ ]; E --- B7[ ]; E --- B8[ ]
```

Task 1 :

1. Look at the spider map and guess any other words related to 'Education'.
2. What do you think the word 'Education' means:
 - a. The act of teaching skills and knowledge to others. ☐
 - b. The act of learning skills and knowledge from others. ☐
 - c. Both. ☐
3. What do you know about education in Britain? Have you heard of any famous British university or college?
4. What do you think the equivalent of 'lycée' in Britain?

1

Task2: Listen and tick (✓) the right answer.

1. The educational system in England consists of:
 - a. Two stages.
 - b. Four stages.
 - c. Six stages.
2. The compulsory schooling period in England is from:
 - a. 4 to 17.
 - b. 5 to 16.
 - c. 6 to 18.
3. Children in England start their secondary school at the age of:
 - a. 10.
 - b. 11.
 - c. 13.
 - d. 14.
4. What is the equivalent of lycée in England?
 - a. Secondary school.
 - b. High school.
 - c. Sixth-form College.
5. The UK higher education is composed of:
 - a. Two parts.
 - b. Three parts.
 - c. Four parts.
6. Bachelor's degree in England is equivalent (in Algeria) to:
 - a. Baccalauréat.
 - b. La licence.
 - c. Master.
 - d. Doctorat.



Task 3: Listen one more time and fill in the blanked spaces.

Group A

The educational system in the UK is worldwide reputed for its In general, the British educational system can be divided into four stages of education: primary, secondary, and Higher Education.

Similarly in Algeria, children in England start their education at the age of 5, and up to 16, they are obliged to attend school. Some receive their primary education at an and then a junior school; others receive it at a primary school that combines the two. The secondary school period starts at the age of 11 where pupils go to schools, schools or schools. At age of, pupils undertake (SATS) the National or Standard Assessment Tests. After that, After that, and up to 16 years old, they study towards The General Certificate for Secondary Education (GCSE) which marks the end of the

After the age of, some pupils prefer to go to the 'sixth-form college' or 'further Education College'. This latter refers to an educational institution where students aged from to typically study for advanced school-level qualification to enter university, while others prefer to leave and find



Task 3: Listen one more time and fill in the blanked spaces.

Group B

The educational system in the UK is worldwide reputed for its In general, the British educational system can be divided into four stages of education: primary, secondary, and Higher Education.

Similarly in Algeria, children in England start their education at the age of 5, and up to 16, they are obliged to attend school. Some receive their primary education at an and then a junior school; others receive it at a primary school that combines the two. The secondary school period starts at the age of 11 where pupils go to schools, schools or schools. At age of, pupils undertake (SATS) the National or Standard Assessment Tests. After that, After that, and up to 16 years old, they study towards The General Certificate for Secondary Education (GCSE) which marks the end of the

After the age of, some pupils prefer to go to the 'sixth-form college' or 'further Education College'. This latter refers to an educational institution where students aged from to typically study for advanced



Task 3: Listen one more time and fill in the blanked spaces.

Group C

The educational system in the UK is worldwide reputed for its high quality and standards. In general, the British educational system can be divided into of education: primary, secondary, further education and Higher Education.

Similarly in Algeria, children in England start their education at the age of, and up to, they are obliged to attend school. Some receive their primary education at an infant and then a school; others receive it at a primary school that combines the two. The secondary school period starts at the age of where pupils go to grammar schools, comprehensive schools or modern schools. At age of 14, pupils undertake the (SATS). After that, and up to 16 years old, they study towards The General Certificate for Secondary Education (GCSE) which marks the end of the compulsory schooling period.

After the age of 16, some pupils prefer to go to the '.....' or 'further Education College'. This latter refers to an educational institution where students aged from 16 to 19 typically study for advanced school-level qualification to while



Task 3: Listen one more time and fill in the blanked spaces.

Group D

The educational system in the UK is worldwide reputed for its high quality and standards. In general, the British educational system can be divided into of education: primary, secondary, further education and Higher Education.

Similarly in Algeria, children in England start their education at the age of, and up to, they are obliged to attend school. Some receive their primary education at an infant and then a school; others receive it at a primary school that combines the two. The secondary school period starts at the age of where pupils go to grammar schools, comprehensive schools or modern schools. At age of 14, pupils undertake the (SATS). After that, and up to 16 years old, they study towards The General Certificate for Secondary Education (GCSE) which marks the end of the compulsory schooling period.

After the age of 16, some pupils prefer to go to the '.....' or 'further Education College'. This latter refers to an educational institution where students aged from 16 to 19 typically study for advanced school-level qualification to while



Task 4: Ask your classmates questions to complete the missing information.

Questions to ask:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.


7.

8.



Appendix 4.3. Part One: Lesson Plan

LESSON PLAN	
Teacher: Mr. Djamel Meziane	School: Rached Elia
Level: 3AL1	
THEME	SCHOOLS : DIFFERENT AND ALIKE
UNIT THREE	EDUCATION IN THE WORLD
SEQUENCE ONE	LISTEN AND CONSIDER
LESSON OBJECTIVE	
By the end of this lesson, Pupils will be able	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">To recognise/have a clear idea of what constitutes the educational system in England.To compare and contrast it with the Algerian education system.	
MATERIALS	COMPETENCIES
Handouts, worksheets, games, audio file	Interactive, interpretative and productive
FUNCTIONS	TIME ALLOWANCE
↓ Expressing similarities and differences.	1 hour.

TIME	STAGE	OBJECTIVE	INTERACTION PATTERN	PROCEDURE
5 MIN	UNIT INTRODUCTION (WARM UP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TO INTRODUCE THE TOPIC BY SOLVING A CROSSWORD GAME. 	S / S	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher embarks the unit with a small crossword game to captivate the pupil's attention in order to engage them.  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The pupils should be able to solve it in a short time. <p><u>Key answers:</u> The hidden word: Education.</p>

5 MIN	PRE-LISTENING TASK 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TO ACTIVATE THE PUPILS' BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE. TO PREPARE FOR WHAT THEY ARE GOING TO HEAR. 	T / S S / T S / S	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> After solving the crossword, the teacher asks his pupils to complete the mind map with related words to 'Education'; nouns, verbs or adjectives. Then, they're required to guess the definition of 'Education' from a list of options. The teacher asks his pupils, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> "What do they think of education in Britain?" "Have you heard of any famous British university or college?" What do you think the equivalent of <i>lycée</i> in Britain? By this, the teacher attempts to hook the pupil's attention to predict what the listening phase will be about. It is expected that the pupils know nothing about education in Britain. However, it might not be the case 'for famous British universities'. The teacher is not supposed to provide them with an answer concerning questions 3 and 4. He would rather give them a chance to check their answers in the coming phase.
				<p><u>Key answers:</u> "Task 1"</p>

				<p>1. Related words: to educate – success – to graduate – qualified – timetable.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This question can have a variety of possibilities. <p>2. Education in Britain is similar and different from Education in Algeria. Oxford – Cambridge – University College London – King's College London.</p> <p>3. The equivalent to <i>lycée</i> in Britain is: <i>Sixth-Form College</i>.</p>
	<p>DURING-LISTENING</p> <p>TASK 2</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ LISTENING FOR THE GIST. ▪ IDENTIFY WHAT'S IMPORTANT IN A PASSAGE. ▪ TO TEST FACTUAL KNOWLEDGE. 	<p>T / S S / T S / S</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The pupils, at this stage, are asked to listen to an audio file and do the following tasks (2+3). ▪ The teacher should allow his pupils to listen to the passage two or three time if necessary. ▪ The teacher should encourage student to focus on global meaning first and let the questions about details to the next task. <p>Key answers: ** Task 2 **</p> <p>Paragraph 1: The stages of the education system in Britain.</p> <p>Paragraph 2: The primary and secondary education.</p> <p>Paragraph 3: The Sixth-Form College or Further Education.</p>

	TASK 3			<p>Key answers: ** Task 3 **</p> <p>1. b. Four stages: 5. a. Two parts.</p> <p>2. b. 5 to 16 6. b. La licence.</p> <p>3. b. 11.</p> <p>4. c. Sixth-form college.</p>
	TASK 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ TO LISTEN FOR SPECIFIC INFORMATION. ▪ TO DEVELOP THE PUPILS' SPEAKING ABILITIES. 	S / S	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ In this task, the pupils are invited to listen one more time and fill in the blanks with the missing words. This is called: information-gap activity. ▪ The teacher should expect that his pupils will be most likely unable to catch all the missing words from the audio file. So, he employs another strategy to help them track all the missing information in the passage which they're given.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ TO PROMOTE PEER-TO-PEER COLLABORATION. ▪ TO INCREASE THE PUPILS' TALKING TIME. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The teacher, now, should divide his pupils to four groups A – B – C – D. Then, he makes sure that groups A and B are handed a passage contain missing information different than the one given to groups B and C. ▪ After that, the teacher asks all the members of each group to work collaboratively in order to construct questions on the blanked information. ▪ Next, groups A and B start asking the formulated questions to groups B and C and vice-versa.
	POST-LISTENING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ TO CONSOLIDATE WHAT HAVE BEEN LEARNT BEFORE. 	S / T S / S	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ After accomplishing the tasks above, the teacher resorts to: 'Check and Summarise activity'. ▪ In this activity, the teacher can check his pupils' understanding by asking them to summarize the information they heard chronologically; in other words, to be based on the age factor. This can be done orally or in writing. ▪ It is preferable that the summary will be in a written

Appendix 4.4. Part Two: Cross-Cultural Situations (Faux-Pas)

Situation 1

Imagine that you are in London visiting a friend who is going to help you find a job in the hotel where he works. In order to do that, he must introduce you to his boss, the hotel manager.

The hotel manager starts with: "how do you do?" reaching you for a handshake.

You replied: "hello sir, I'm fine" with a handshake and kissed him twice!

The result of the meeting:

You didn't get the job!

Situation 2

Cheima have recently moved to Greater Manchester to work in a company. She is asked to prepare a report and show it to her manager for a feedback. The manager says: "it's fine." However, when she presented it openly, she discovered that the manager is not pleased as things are missing!

Later on, her report was rejected!

So, what is really going on here?

Situation 3

In her recent visit to Birmingham, Ibtissem got sick. She has been told that she has to make an appointment with the doctor beforehand. She has been given a rendez-vous at 10 o'clock Sunday morning. On that day, she arrived at the doctor's office at quarter past ten. The doctor assistant informed her that her appointment has been cancelled and postponed to the next week!!

What do you think happened here?

Situation 4

Nadir's Boss invited him to visit the company's new office in Leeds District, London. He got excited about the opportunity and looking forward to meet his British co-workers. When he arrived, his host arranged a welcome banquet in Nadir's honour at his house. He walked into his host's house "fashionably late", only to discover that, as a guest of honour, he was expected to be there on time. As everyone sits down, he put his elbows on the table and started talking about business and takes a bit from each dish as soon as it is served.

Nadir can tell that he made a poor impression with his British co-workers. The next day, his Boss was distant and phlegmatic, and he doesn't want to talk about how their people work together!!

What do you think the problem is here?

Situation 5**"Restaurant Etiquette "**


You are sitting with a friend enjoying Turkish Kebabs with some lamb skewers covered in delicious Asian spices at Silk Road restaurant in Camberwell, London. Suddenly, you heard a loud voice coming from one of the people waiving to the waiter saying "come here, I need you." You can see that everybody were ill-at-ease, as much as to the waiter's dismay!

(Problem-solving)


Situation 6

You were walking and accidentally bumped into someone. The victim, in this case, is most likely to take issues with you and expect an apology. However, what happened was exactly the opposite. The victim's "sorry" reflex kicked in before you even mustered your own apology! This scenario is confusing for anyone who isn't British.

Appendix 4.5. Part Two: Task 1 and 2



Problem-Solving Activity



1

What is the problem?

2

What is your hypothesis? (Possible solutions)

3

What is your chosen solution?

4

Are you satisfied with the results?



Opinion-Gap Activity



Agree

Disagree



State your Reasons

State your Reasons



Appendix G

The Post- Test

Part One: Education in England

15. The educational system in England can be divided into:
- d- Two parts
 - e- Four parts
 - f- Six parts
16. The compulsory education in England is between the ages of:
- d- 4 to 10
 - e- 5 to 11
 - f- 6 to 12
17. In England, the first stage of education is called:
- d- Juniors- Primary
 - f- Elementary
18. What do you think is the equivalent of the French word “Lycée” in England?
- f- Comprehensive school
 - g- Grammar school
 - h- Sixth-form college
 - i- Secondary school
 - j- High school
19. What do you think is the equivalent of “Baccalauréat” in England nowadays?
- e- SATS (Standard Assessment Tests)
 - f- GCSES (General Certificate of Secondary Education)
 - g- CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education)
 - h- A high school diploma

20. Higher education in Britain can be

divided into (stages):d- Two

e- Three

f- Four

21. In England, Bachelor's degree is the equivalent in Algeria of:

d- La licence

e- Master

f- Doctorat (Ph.D)

Part Two: Cultural Behaviours and Rituals

22. You were in a crowded space and by accident you stepped on someone's foot.

He turned and apologised to you twice in a row!

- Why do you think he apologised though he is the victim here?

.....
.....

23. You are at a social gathering, and you want to talk to a strange person, how would you introduce yourself?

e. What is your name?

f. Hi, my name is John.

g. I don't think we have met before, have we? My name is ..

h. Do I know you?

24. You are taking a walk in St James' park in London, you noticed

that people sitting in chairs cross their legs at the ankles.

- Why do you think they are doing so instead of crossing them at the knee?

.....
.....

25. You are about to meet someone for the first time, how would you greet him?

- g. A kiss.
- h. A hug.
- i. A handshake.
- j. "How do you do?"
- k. Both c and d.
- l. I do not know.

26. In Christmas day, the perfect way to congratulate someone is by saying:

- c. 'Marry Christmas'.
- d. 'Marry Christmas' + bringing a gift (chocolate, hampers, flowers, etc.)

27. You have an appointment/meeting with your doctor or professor, would you arrive:

- d. Any time during the meeting.
- e. At the exact time.
- f. A few minutes early.

- Why?

.....
.....

28. You were invited at dinner. While eating, you wanted to take a break. What would you do:

- e. Just get up and leave.
- f. Ask your host's permission.
- g. Put your knife and fork on the table randomly.
- h. Put the knife and fork on your plate with the knife crossing the fork.

Résumé

Au cours des deux derniers siècles, la place de la culture dans l'enseignement des langues a été présente dans différentes approches et méthodes d'enseignement des langues. Cependant, peu d'études ont été menées pour examiner l'enseignement de la culture dans le cadre de l'approche par compétences (CBA). Certes, depuis 2004, cette approche a été mise en œuvre dans le système éducatif algérien en tant que nouvelle approche interdisciplinaire et moyen d'enseignement, et donc les manuels scolaires des deux niveaux, moyen et secondaire, ont été conçus en conséquence. Par conséquent, cette étude vise à enquêter sur le rôle de l'ABC dans le maintien et la promotion de l'enseignement de la culture dans le contexte algérien. Plus précisément, examiner si les enseignants du secondaire algériens accordent ou non l'importance qu'ils méritent à la culture de la langue cible et comment ils l'abordent réellement dans leur classe CBA. Un autre aspect de cette étude est d'évaluer les manuels scolaires du secondaire algérien des trois années et leur adéquation à l'enseignement de la culture cible. De plus, cette recherche vise à mieux comprendre les idées et les perceptions des apprenants sur la langue cible et sa culture. Enfin, ce travail vise à proposer une nouvelle méthodologie au sein de l'ABC pour accroître la sensibilisation culturelle des apprenants et à tester son efficacité. Elle fait d'abord l'hypothèse que les enseignants algériens d'anglais connaissent bien la culture de la langue cible et son enseignement au sein de CBA. Deuxièmement, il émet l'hypothèse que l'intérêt principal des élèves du secondaire est d'apprendre la langue et non sa culture. Troisièmement, elle émet l'hypothèse que si les élèves sont exposés à une nouvelle stratégie/technique d'enseignement de la culture cible au sein de l'ABC, leur prise de conscience de la culture cible augmentera. À la lumière de cela, deux questionnaires ont été conçus et une expérience a été menée. Le premier questionnaire a été administré à soixante-dix enseignants EFL du Lycée de la Commune (Wilaya) d'Oum El Bouaghi, et le second a été soumis aux élèves du Secondaire du Lycée Roubel Larbi, Henchir

Toumgheni – Wilaya d'Oum El Bouaghi. L'analyse du questionnaire des enseignants a révélé que la majorité d'entre eux trouvent très difficile de construire des techniques et des activités pour enseigner le TC au sein de CBA. De plus, une grande partie des enseignants étaient insatisfaits de la quantité de TC incorporée dans les manuels scolaires du secondaire algérien. Par conséquent, ils ont fait valoir qu'il devrait être amplifié principalement en concevant des techniques et des activités plus appropriées qui suivent les principes et les objectifs de l'ABC dans l'enseignement du TC. Les résultats du questionnaire des élèves ont montré que la majorité d'entre eux manifestaient un grand intérêt pour la langue anglaise et sa culture également malgré le fait que leur niveau d'efficacité dans une langue étrangère soit très faible. Enfin, l'expérimentation a révélé que la mise en place de ce type d'activités dans la présentation du TC a conduit à des progrès remarquables dans la performance des élèves en classe. En d'autres termes, les élèves qui ont été exposés à ces techniques (le groupe expérimental) ont surpassé leurs homologues (le groupe témoin) en termes de niveau de sensibilisation à la TC.

ملخص

على مدى القرنين الماضيين ، كانت مكانة الثقافة حاضرة في مناهج وأساليب مختلفة لتعليم اللغة وتعلمها. ومع ذلك ، تم إجراء عدد قليل من الدراسات لفحص تدريس الثقافة في إطار النهج القائم على الكفاءة (CBA). بالتأكيد ، منذ عام 2004 ، تم تطبيق هذا النهج في نظام التعليم الجزائري كنهج جديد متعدد التخصصات ووسيلة للتعليم ، وبالتالي تم تصميم الكتب المدرسية لكلا المستويين المتوسط والثانوي وفقًا لذلك. لذلك ، تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في دور منهجية المقاربة بالكفاءات في دعم وتعزيز تدريس الثقافة في السياق التعليمي الجزائري. بشكل أكثر تحديدًا ، لفحص ما إذا كان معلمو المدارس الثانوية الجزائرية يولون الأهمية الواجبة لثقافة اللغة المستهدفة وكيف يتعاملون معها بالفعل في منهجية المقاربة بالكفاءات. جانب آخر من هذه الدراسة هو تقييم الكتب المدرسية الثانوية الجزائرية للسنوات الثلاث ومدى ملاءمتها لتدريس الثقافة المستهدفة. علاوة على ذلك ، يسعى هذا البحث إلى اكتساب رؤى حول أفكار المتعلمين وتصوراتهم للغة الهدف وثقافتها. أخيرًا وليس آخرًا ، يسعى هذا العمل إلى اقتراح تقنيات خاصة ب منهجية المقاربة بالكفاءات لزيادة الوعي الثقافي للمتعلمين ، واختبار فعاليتها أيضًا. لهذا، قمنا بتصميم استبيانين: الأول لاساتذة التعليم الثانوي اللغة الانجليزية لولاية ام البواقي، و الثاني لتلاميذ ثانوية روبال العربي، هنشير تومغني. اكتشف تحليل استبيان المعلمين أن الغالبية منهم يجدون صعوبة كبيرة في بناء تقنيات وأنشطة لتعليم TC عن طريق منهجية المقاربة بالكفاءات علاوة على ذلك ، كان عدد كبير من المعلمين غير راضين عن مقدار TC المدمج في الكتب المدرسية الثانوية الجزائرية. ومن ثم ، فقد جادلوا بضرورة تضخيمها بشكل أساسي من خلال تصميم تقنيات وأنشطة أكثر ملاءمة تخضع لمبادئ وأهداف منهجية المقاربة بالكفاءات في تدريس TC. كما أظهرت نتائج استبيان التلاميذ أن الغالبية منهم أبدوا اهتماما كبيرا باللغة الإنجليزية وثقافتها أيضا على الرغم من أن مستوى كفاءتهم في اللغة الأجنبية منخفض جدًا. أخيرًا ، كشفت التجربة أن تنفيذ هذه الأنواع من الأنشطة في تقديم المساهمين الأساسيين أدى إلى تقدم ملحوظ في أداء التلاميذ في الفصل الدراسي. بعبارة أخرى، تفوق التلاميذ الذين تعرضوا لهذه التقنيات (المجموعة التجريبية) على نظرائهم (المجموعة الضابطة) من حيث مستوى وعي المساهمين الأساسيين.