People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Mentouri University, Constantine

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Letters and English Language

Developing Learners' Communicative and Pragmatic Competence Using Authentic Language Data. An Experimental Investigation at The Department of English, Biskra University.

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in Candidacy for the Degree of 'Doctorat Es-Sciences' in Applied Linguistics

By Mr. Lamri SEGUENI **Supervisor: Prof. Amor GHOUAR**

Board of Examiners:

Chairman:	**Pr.Hacène Saadi**	**(Mentouri Bros University, Constantine)**
Supervisor:	**Pr. Amor Ghouar**	**(Hadj Lakhdar University, Batna)**
Member:	**Pr.Samir Laraba**	**(Mentouri Bros University, Constantine)**
Member:	**Pr. Said Keskes**	**(Med Lamine Debaghine University, Setif)**
Member:	**Pr. Riadh Belouaham**	**(Mentouri Bros University, Constantine)**
Member:	**Dr. Nadhir Kaouli**	**(Hadj Lakhdar University, Batna)**

May 2016

Dedication

This work is dedicated to:

My mother whose love, like a distant star, continues to shine down on me long after she has gone.

My wife without her support bringing this thesis to end would never have been possible.

My sisters for their care, love, and continuous encouragement.

My sons: Mohamed, Sadok and Malek. You are real angels for whom I have been blessed to care and love.

My bosom friends Nacif ,Salim and Rachid

All the teachers of English in the world.

"It should be known that all languages are habits which are located in the tongue. Habits result from repeated actions. A speaker who possesses a perfect linguistic habit and is able to combine individual words so as to express the forms of composition that make his speech conform to the requirement of the situation, has the power of eloquence"

Ibn Khaldoun

In «AL Muqqadima»

Acknowledgements

My sincere thanks to the many people who have helped with this research, and without whom this thesis would never have been completed. In particular, I would like to thank my supervisor, Pr. Ghouar Amor, for his invaluable advice and expertise which he has given me, for his generosity, his insightful feedback and continuous patience, encouragement and support on so many levels.

I wish to address my deep sense of appreciation to the Ministry of Higher education and to both Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra and Mentouri University and their officials who provided all the necessary help and assistance.

My thanks extend to all the teachers and third year students at the department of English at Biskra University who willingly participated in the realization of this work.

I wish to acknowledge Mr.Bechar Maamar, Mr.Bachar Ahmed, Mr.Temagoult Slimane, and Mrs. Hacina Khireddine whose presence and faith helped me overcome so many obstacles.

My special thanks are for Pr. Saadi, Pr. Labed, Pr. Belouaham, Pr.Laraba, Pr. Kaouache ,Pr. Moumene, Dr.Kaouli and Pr.Keskes for their help and encouragements

I want also to express my gratitude to my family for their assistance, patience, and endurance. I can never thank them enough for their help and encouragements all over the years it has taken to complete this work.

Finally, I would like to extend my heartfelt thanks to all the members of the board of examiners for taking the trouble to examine the present thesis.

Abstract

The present study seeks to demonstrate first, that the only use of specially designed pedagogical materials proved its inefficiency in providing the adequate input that could foster our learners' language proficiency. Second, that intensive exposure to the target language through a substantial input of authentic language materials (AM henceforth) will certainly develop learners' communicative competence.The fundamental purpose of this research is to examine the effects of AM on learners' communicative competence in general and their pragmatic competence in particular.Through an experimental study carried out on third year students at the department of English, Biskra University, we wanted to demonstrate that our learners' communicative competence can develop following an instructional programme based on AM and sustained by an appropriate methodology. In order to prove the effectiveness of such materials, we relied much on the feedback provided by our subjects. Data was gathered through different means including a questionnaire, a number of tasks and a set of tests.Analysis of the results obtained from the experimental treatment and the questionnaires revealed that ample use of AM in the FL classroom helped improve learners' communicative competence and self confidence in the target language. Our approach is based on the premises that AM facilitate the shift from the confined and artificial classroom context to real language use outside the classroom. And, that if learners are exposed to natural and real language with all its paralinguistic and cultural features they are likely to encounter in real life, their communicative competence will gradually develop.

List of Abbreviations

AM: Authentic Materials

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

DV: Dependent Variable

EAP: English for Occupational Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

FL: Foreign Language

FTA : Face Threatening Act

ICT: Information Communication Technology

IE: Input Enhancement

IL: Interlanguage

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

IV: Independent Variable

NSs: Native Speakers

NNSs: Non-native Speakers

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

List of Tables

List of Figures

Table of Contents

Data

Chapter Five : Field work : The Experimental Study

General Introduction

Background of the study

For more than two decades of teaching English in the Algerian secondary schools, I have been using those mandated course books which reflect tightly structured, lexico-grammatical, and thematic syllabuses. In reality, those text books may create a comforting impression of order and comprehensiveness but in fact they only present a fraction of the full richness of the TL.I spent a long time boring myself and my students to death with imposed textbooks that contained poorly selected materials that are often beyond students' comprehension and that are of no communicative value. At the university level, the situation is no better since most of the materials exploited fall into two categories, either, created or adapted but rarely authentic. Most of those materials have been of little help to our students because they simply do not prepare them for the real thing. Once outside the classroom walls our learners are unable to cope with any situation where real language is used; a language that they did not learn in the classroom. So, why don't we look for other possibilities to alleviate our students' problems and elevate our learners' language proficiency?

Moreover, the traditional examination driven-education system which overemphasizes the teaching of isolated language items or structures have resulted in a flagrant lack of exposure to the realistic use of language in the main stream society. Let our goal be to develop our learners' communicative competence. Why don't we abandon all those contrived non authentic materials in favour of exclusively AM? An immersion in the TL through AM that are adapted to the learners' level and interests would certainly foster their communicative competence. It is also interesting to see how those learners would respond to AM. All such issues will be investigated throughout our dissertation.

The idea underlying the present study is that non-authentic or pedagogical materials commonly exploited in the FL classroom tend to provide learners with an impoverished input. Input that is contrived to the extent that it has lost most features of natural language which in my opinion inhibits learners' development. It is time to expose our learners to AM with all their audio-visual clues. Despite some disadvantages, AM provide varied and rich input with real language used by native speakers with all their false starts, their hesitations, repetition, interruption, their gossip, jokes and flattery. In addition to being more motivating and challenging, those kinds of materials are among the best means to develop our learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.

It is also surprising to see how those materials stay in our memories. When I go over my own foreign language learning experience, and consider what elements have remained in my memory over the passage of time, I realize that most of them are associated with AM such as songs, films, plays, novels, encounters with native speakers. I personally used to learn by heart all the songs of the Beatles or some pop music bands. I still remember the first novel I read, the first poem I read. All those AM are intimately linked to certain specific people in specific times. They connect us with emotions and imagination and in the process they created a desire to engage with the materials and a huge amount of language learning was stimulated. Of course, there are advantages associated with the use of AM in the FL classroom. In addition to providing a rich input to work with, they are more likely to meet learners' potential needs and thereby develop a number of other competencies.

Statement of the problem

Nowadays learning foreign languages has become an essential component in the curriculum at different levels. English in particular is now regarded as indispensable given its widespread all over the world. Today English has grown in international importance and has achieved a status of ‘great national language’ and consequently it is considered now as the world language of communication and information exchange. This status of English as an international language has been promoted by four main factors, namely: the worldwide extension of the British Empire; the political and economic rise of the United States to world power status after the Second World War; the unprecedented developments in information and communication technologies and finally, the recent economic developments towards globalization.

Taking into consideration the importance of English as a means of international communication learning and teaching it is a necessity in the Algerian society. Therefore, in order to make our learners become communicatively competent in the English language, there was a need for a shift from previous theoretical frameworks, in which language is seen as a formal system based on grammatical rules towards a more communicative perspective.

In the field of second and foreign language teaching, the aim is not the mere acquisition of rules or bits of the language, but the use of the target language for different communicative purposes. The ultimate objective of teaching a language must be the development of the learners’ communicative and pragmatic competence. To achieve this communicative aspect of language learning, teachers make use of a variety of teaching tools including media of different sorts and even relia.The learners of second or foreign language are generally exposed to the target language in the formal classroom context and mainly get it through specially designed pedagogical materials produced for the purpose of language teaching.

There is no doubt that the pedagogical materials ,the textbooks and the simulated language they provide have their places in the classroom, nonetheless, there is a wide gap between the ‘real’ language of the native speakers and the language proposed by such educational materials. In addition to this and in many cases, the largest drawback of these incorporated materials was their inability to capture and maintain learners' interest and motivation due to the lack of relevance, the lack of entertainment and the lack of stimulation.

In fact, the issue of authenticity is closely associated with the development in the communicative approach in language teaching during the seventies which prompted the appearance of the communicative language teaching. One of the basic characteristic of this method is the introduction of authentic materials into the learning context. In reality, for communicative language teaching authentic materials are indispensable if not compulsory since they foster language acquisition and contribute in building communicative competence in foreign language learning

Recent research argues that one of advantages of using authentic data is that learners encounter the target language in its natural occurring context, ultimately, this will help them experience the language items in interaction with other closely related grammatical and discourse elements. Besides, authentic materials seem to be more interesting and more motivating since they engage learners' attention and provide a huge amount of language input, and offer an unparalleled variety. However complicated they may seem, they can be tamed and adapted in various ways to serve foreign language teaching.

It is actually in the field of material selection and development that most attention must be paid. In fact, the pedagogical materials generally exploited in the classroom could serve certain purposes at an early stage of learning, yet they may hamper communication and create gaps reflected in the real language and the language proposed by such materials.However, in recent years there has been a growing body of theoretical writing concerned with promoting the use of authentic materials and ways of incorporating those materials in the curriculum. Teachers and leading authorities insist that the English presented in the classroom should be authentic not produced for instructional purposes. Today, the focus is on teaching the target language for communication via authentic language materials.

Furthermore, adapting authentic materials for the language classroom is a subtle process half art, half science. The sources of authentic materials are abundant and the challenge is to select the materials that best suit our learners' linguistic, cognitive and cultural knowledge.

Aims of the study

The aim of our study is to contribute to the increasing body of research in the field of of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP henceforth) and more specifically to that dealing with the effects of exploiting authentic materials(AM henceforth) in the EFL context in order to develop learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. In fact, the motivation for this research came from a personal humble belief and experience as a teacher that the use of AM in the FL classroom can really foster language learning in general and contribute to the development of our learners' pragmatic competence in particular. It can also open new horizons in material development and exploitation. It is undeniable that teaching materials are at the centre of instruction and influence both content and procedure.

The dominant goal behind our study is to extend our understanding of the issue of using AM, and find the most appropriate ways of adapting them in order to foster the language learning process. Our other aim is to explore the different possibilities that authentic materials could offer to both language teachers and language learners in terms of:

1. An examination of the ways in which those materials may be advantageously adapted in the FL classrooms.
2. Providing a rationale for the use of such materials.

3. The positive contribution of AM in developing learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.

4. Finding the most appropriate ways of implementing AM in the FL classroom.

5. The teachability of pragmatic competence through AM.

6. Directing our learners' attention to the role of AM in learning a language.

In fact, our research aims at investigating the efficiency of using AM is in order to promote foreign language learning in general and to help our FL learners to develop their pragmatic competence. This research will shed light on the outcomes of exploiting those types of materials and show their impact on learners' communicative competence. Moreover, we believe that it is essential that our learners be exposed to authentic language. They must witness how language operates in real contexts and thereby be able to use it for their own communicative needs. Furthermore, we wanted to exploit one remarkable fact about our students today, it is that most of them have grown up with TV, and took the habit of gaining knowledge from TV screens,magazines,newspapers and the internet. So, we find it reasonable to take advantage of those authentic sources to teach and learn a foreign language. We also think that the incorporation of technology into teaching and learning processes has accounted for radical changes into all spheres of education.Therfore,we believe that technology generates new training modalities new teaching and learning environments. Today, thanks to the new technological advances many technologies have made their incursion in schools and universities and this has made the sources of AM abundant and inexhaustive.However,if those authentic language data are carefully selected, rationally graded, and effectively implemented they could trigger learners' motivation.

Our other aim is to attract teachers attention to the issue of using AM, especially when we know that most of them seem to be reluctant to the use of AM because compared to the usual pedagogical materials, those materials from the "real world" seem to be more difficult for the learners in terms of vocabulary items, sentence construction and cultural background knowledge. We also know that they require special care and extra time for preparation. We intend, then, to demonstrate that AM could be used in different ways and with different teaching purposes in the language classroom. Despite all these impediments, we believe that if properly selected and carefully implemented such sort of materials can be highly efficient in developing our learners' communicative competence. We hope to bring our little contribution and help teachers efficiently exploit those materials.

So, our research is both theoretically and practically motivated. From a theoretical point of view, the issues of material development and syllabus design have poorly introduced authenticity in the field of language teaching. So far, no consistent studies have been carried out to elaborate efficient techniques to exploit AM.Therefore, it is high time we bridged the gap between the real world and the classroom setting. From a practical view ,we believe that teachers should avoid exclusively relying on specially tailored pedagogical materials and focus their attention to adapting more authentic materials in order to develop their learners' communicative and thereby prepare them for the real world.

To sum up, we can say that the motivation that inspired our research lies in the need to provide insights into the effects of AM on our learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. Another major is aim is the need to examine the efficacy of such materials in the FL classroom and their role in fostering the acquisition of pragmatic habits by our learners. Finally, along with this motivation our main goal is to initiate our colleagues to the use of such materials.

Hypothesis

With the advent of the functional communicative proficiency approach in the 1970's, and all through the 1980's teachers moved away from relying solely on textbooks or other specially designed materials to teach a foreign language. The trend moved towards teaching students how to communicate competently in the TL instead of teaching isolated grammar rules, vocabulary items and definitions. The main objective of teaching a foreign language is to prepare our learners to use that language in different situations for different purposes. One of the surprises people get when arriving on a first visit to an English speaking foreign country is their inability to fully understand what is being said around them.

Despite the rapid emergence of new methods and approaches in language teaching and the emphasis put on the need for developing communicative competence, learners of second and foreign language are generally exposed to the target language in the formal classical context of the classroom. Classes are still conducted through the pedagogical specially designed materials that are produced for the purpose of language teaching

Accordingly, all efforts were devoted to produce the most appropriate pedagogical materials and textbooks for language learners. These materials are directed towards bringing the necessary language input; a language that is carefully selected, revised and tailored by language specialists to meet certain pedagogical purposes, and meet learners' needs. But in fact, this type of input lacks one important feature of language; its communicative nature

When we come to observe the profile of English language teaching in our country, and the situation of our learners, we find that the main sources of input in the target language are the teachers whose own exposure to the target language is often very limited and who act as models for the learners. It should be noted here that our learner can have plenty of opportunities for exposure to the target language through authentic language data. This can be tremendously motivating and helpful for them if we give our learners the chances to witness how language operates in real life contexts and thereby be able to use it for their own communicative needs.

Throughout this research then we will try to demonstrate the impact of authentic materials on our learners' communicative competence in general and their pragmatic competence in particular. An investigation of this problem is indispensable to give answers to a number of questions such as the following:

1. How far is the use of authentic material relevant in a pedagogical context?

2. Does the exposure to authentic material contribute positively in developing learners' communicative and pragmatic competence?

3. Would authentic materials play a facilitating role in the teaching learning process?

4. How can authentic materials be best implemented to develop our learners' efficient use of the target language?

So, we hypothesize that an effective and longer exposure of our learners to authentic materials would certainly contribute in the development of their communicative and pragmatic competence and at the same time develop their motivation. This exposure would foster the learning process and ultimately develop learners' proficiency level in general and their pragmatic competence in particular.

We also think that both curriculum and syllabi designers must take into consideration the positive impact of authentic materials and pay attention to the flagrant lack of exposure of our learners to this type of input. The present thesis is an attempt to show the importance of integrating authentic language data in all the courses offered by our departments of English and focuses mainly on the effective implementation and the rational selection of those types of materials.

The general hypothesis on which the present research is based runs as follows: The type of input proposed by those specially designed pedagogical language materials is far from developing our learners' communicative competence in the TL. The teaching of isolated language items and structures has resulted in a flagrant lack of exposure to the realistic use of English in the main stream society. As a remedial measure, substantial input of authentic materials that are adapted to the learners' needs and interests will certainly increase their sensitivity to and competence in the TL .However, this hypothesis exhibits two main dimensions.

First, we assume that the TL cannot be taught out of its natural, social and cultural context and that the only way to ensure an immersion in the case of foreign language teaching is through incorporating authentic language data in the curriculum. Foreign language teaching should be concerned with development of the learners' communicative and pragmatic competence and this can never be possible unless this language is presented as it is used by native speakers. Hence the use of AM in all the modules and their integration in the official syllabuses in the departments of English has become more than necessary.

Second, to ensure the efficiency of these types of materials a rational selection and an effective implementation are crucial. Many factors enter into play when it comes to implementing such types of materials simply because the sources are inexhaustive and the challenge is to select the ones that fit each course and enable practitioners to reach their objectives.

Methodology

We are undertaking a research in the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning in order to gather evidence about the effects of exposure to authentic materials on our learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. Our aim is to analyse the cause effect relationship between two variables. We think that the most suitable method to investigate this issue is to conduct an experimental study based on testing learners' oral/aural performances.

The experiment is an essential tool for collecting evidence to demonstrate the close links between two variables. Any change that occurs in the independent variable (IV henceforth) is normally attributed to the dependent variable (DV henceforth).In our experiment, the IV is the exploitation of authentic language data and the DV is the improvement of our learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. Any independent variable has its own conditions, treatment and levels. The experimenter may handle conditions or measure and assign subjects which are supposed to be the cause, the effect or result measured by the experimenter are called the dependent variable.

In order to test our hypotheses and verify the impact of AM on our students' communicative and pragmatic competence, two groups (experimental and control group) were formed on the basis of random assignement.Both groups underwent a pre-test before the instructional treatment and a post-test at the end of the experiment. The tests were carried out under the same conditions and were divided into three types: a) a listening comprehension test) b) an oral production test and c) a written production test. Moreover, a questionnaire was designed and administered after treatment to the subjects of the experimental group to collect data about the tasks performed in class.

Structure of the thesis

The present thesis is organized into a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical part includes chapter one, two, and three. Chapter one gives an account of the various conceptualizations of the term authenticity, and discusses the methodological approaches upon which authentic language materials are exploited in the FL classroom. It also deals with the definition of authentic materials, their advantages and disadvantages, the rationale for their use and the ways they are selected and implemented.

The second chapter deals with pragmatics as a new branch of linguistics which looks at the use of language in context. Some areas of inquiry of this field are examined given their importance for the present study: the Speech Act Theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), the Cooperative Principle and Conversational Implicature (Grice, 1967) and Politeness Theory (Brown and Levinson, 1978;87).Moreover, given the importance attributed to pragmatic competence as an essential component of communicative competence whole sections are devoted to the description of the different models of communicative developed so far. Since our focus is on learners' development of pragmatic competence a detailed review of this field will be provided. Therefore, we will deal with the developmental research in this field, which is divided into cross-sectional, longitudinal and pragmatic transfer studies.

Furthermore, the importance of pragmatic competence in the area of second language acquisition has given rise to the field of interlanguage pragmatics therefore, this aspect will be dealt with extensively. The third chapter of this study is specifically devoted to research on pragmatics and the possible teachability of this aspect of language use in the classroom context. Bearing in mind the growing importance given to pragmatic competence, certain conditions should be met in order to make learners pragmatically competent. These conditions which are dealt with in this chapter consist, namely of adequate input, opportunities for output and provision of suitable feedback. Additionally, a particular attention will be given to the mechanisms language learners go through in their endeavour to acquire pragmatic competence. Thus two cognitive approaches are dealt with in this chapter. A detailed description of both Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis and Bialystok's (1993) two dimensional model of language use and proficiency is given since they are adopted as the framework that explain learners' development interventional research on instruction in pragmatics.

Another part of this chapter is devoted to the role of instruction in pragmatics and discusses the differences between implicit and explicit type of instruction. Finally, we will be dealing with the difficulties FL or SL learners encounter at interpersonal level when establishing communication with NSs. We will try to shed light on pragmatic failure, pragmatic fossilization and pragmatic transfer.

The practical part of this research comprises chapters four and five. Chapter four gives a thorough analysis and interpretation of the data generated by the teachers' questionnaire. Chapter five deals with the exposure of learners to the different authentic materials used in this study and the tasks and activities accompagnying each material .It also comports the materials selected for the study with the reasons behind each choice.In other words,this chapter describes the experimental design of the present study by providing a description of the experimental programme of treatment as well as the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained from the pre and post tests.

Chapter One

Authenticity in the FL Classroom

Introduction

In this chapter, we intend to describe some of the key principles underlying the exploitation of authentic language data in the FL classroom. We will try to clarify the concept of authenticity among a wide range of definitions presented by many authors and which conflict in determining the exact meaning of authenticity. The chapter also presents an overview of the concept of authenticity which cannot be defined similarly in all contexts. In other words, authenticity is a relative concept materialized within each context with interaction of its participants.

We know that any teaching material is primarily bound to the objectives it serves therefore, we will try to shed light on the outcomes as well as the rationale behind the use of authentic language data.

Bearing in mind the complexity of these materials and the difficulty to tame them to suit the FL language classroom, we will highlight the criteria for their selection and the most effective ways for their implementation. In fact, this chapter also aims at investigating the positive impact of authentic language data on learners' communicative competence.

1.1 Historical background

The term authentic material is often used to describe language samples - both written and spoken- that reflect naturalness of form, and appropriateness of cultural context (Rodgers and Medley, 1988).Historically, it was the linguist Henry Sweet (1899) who made regular use of the term authentic texts in his books and was conscious of their potential over contrived materials.

Prevailing linguistic theories during the twentieth century spawned a multitude of methods such as the ‘Direct Method’ and ‘the Audio-lingual Method’ which all imposed carefully structured and therefore contrived materials. At that time, material developers and syllabi designers have largely relied on the arrangement of materials and activities .For example, syllabus types such as procedural ,text-based, EAP,ESP, linear, structural, situational all have in common about how the content is arranged and organized.

In fact, the issue of authenticity reappeared in the 1970’s as the debate between Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1972) led to the idea that communicative competence involved much more than knowledge of language structure and contextualized communication began to take precedence over form. This resulted in the appearance of a new approach in EFL circles known as Communicative Language Teaching and which paved the way to the reintroduction of authentic language materials. These materials were valued for the idea that they were communicating rather than the linguistic forms they illustrated.

Since then, the debate over the role of authenticity, as well as what it means to be authentic has become increasingly complex and sophisticated over the years and now embraces research from a wide variety of fields including discourse and conversational analysis, pragmatics, cross cultural studies, sociolinguistics, ethnology, second language acquisition, cognitive and social psychology and information communication technology (ICT Henceforth). With the concept of authenticity which touches so many areas, it is important to attempt to bridge the gap and consolidate what we know so that suitable decisions can be made in terms of the role that authenticity should have in foreign language learning in the future.

As a result of the development mentioned above, the concept of authenticity became popular in 1980’s when many scholars started to identify various degrees of authenticity.

Dunkel (1995)for instance cites Rings'(1986) 16-level semantic differential scale, ranging from highly authentic native speakers conversations produced for their own purposes to relatively less authentic composed conversations of printed books. Authors such as Breen (1985) and Lee (1995) distinguish between input authenticity and task authenticity. Instead of considering authenticity a binary concept (authentic or not authentic) they argue for degree of authenticity. They propose five levels for input from genuine input authenticity, altered authenticity, adapted authenticity, through simulated input authenticity to inauthenticity. However, they probably believe that there is no such things as 'real task authenticity' since classrooms by nature are artificial

Artificiality of the classroom discourse was first addressed in EFL contexts as the world outside the classroom held infinite opportunities for exposure and interaction .In the EFL context, the classroom is the major source of input and the only opportunity for interaction .In this case, an immersion into authentic language is important to encourage the development of learners' pragmatic knowledge because pragmatic errors are considered more strictly than grammatical ones. Therefore, authentic language data became crucial in helping learners develop pragmatic competence, particularly for global communication.

1.2. Problems in defining authenticity

The question of authenticity in the language classroom has been widely discussed in ELT literature but many fail to distinguish and define different kinds of authenticity. The common belief is that there is some kind of absolute notion of authenticity in which all the different kinds must be present. In spite of the available and most of the time elaborate definitions of what is meant by authenticity in relation to the teaching materials and texts, there is much less agreement about what constitutes authenticity of context and of task or activity.Genuineness,realness,truthfulness,validity ,reliability are some of the words used when we talk about authenticity. It may be worthwhile to revisit Taylor‘s (1994:1) arguments as he points out that “In many discussions it is not clear whether we are dealing with authenticity of language, authenticity of task, or authenticity of situation”.

Moreover, he explains the confusion made between authenticity and genuineness by the idea of naturalness. What is natural? What is meant by naturalness? Is naturalness the same in all contexts? Therefore, Taylor (ibid. 4) thinks that this is a hopeless debate and rather than chasing our tails in pointless debate over authenticity and contrivance, we should concentrate instead on the use and interpretation of the texts, which alone can make them authentic. He (ibid.) contends that we should:

> ...acknowledge that there is no such thing as an abstract quality "authenticity" which can be defined once and for all. Instead we should acknowledge that authenticity is a function not only of the language but also of the participants, the use to which language is put, the setting, the nature of the interaction, and the interpretation the participants bring to both the setting and the activity.

In order to effectively examine the efficacy of authentic language input in the second and foreign language classroom, it is necessary to examine a number of proposed definitions of authenticity:

- “Authentic texts (either written or spoken) are those which are designed for native speakers: they are real texts designed not for language students; but for the speakers of the language in question.”(Harmer, 2001:146)
- “A rule of thumb for authentic here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching.” (Nunan, 1989:54).
- “… real-life texts not written for pedagogic purposes.” (Wallace, 1992:145).
- “Materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community.” (Peacock, 1997:144).

- “Materials which were originally directed at a native speaking audience.” (Wilkins, 1976:79).

- “a text is usually regarded as textually authentic if it is not written for teaching purposes, but for real communicative purposes…” (Lee, 1995:324).

- “An authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by real speaker or writer for real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort.” (Morrow, 1977:13).

The wide range of definitions presented conflict concerning several points in determining authenticity. Many meanings are associated with the concept authenticity, therefore, it is not surprising if the term remains somehow ambiguous in many teachers’ minds. In part this is because many types of authenticity can be identified, and these are not clearly distinguished. In many cases, it is not clear whether we are dealing with authenticity of language, authenticity of tasks, or authenticity of situation. Breen (1985: 61) distinguishes four types of authenticity.

1. Authenticity of the text which we may use as input for our learners.
2. Authenticity of the learners' own interpretation of such texts.
3. Authenticity of the tasks conducive to language learning.
4. Authenticity of the actual situation of the classroom.

In other words, Breen’s (ibid.) subdivision of authenticity of language includes authenticity of texts used as input data for learners, and authenticity of the learners’ own interpretation of such texts. It is wrong then to assume that there is some sort of global and absolute notion of authenticity. Authenticity is clearly a relative matter and different aspects of it can be present in different degrees.

In effect, all the definitions above rely on the idea that language is authentic if and only if it is intended for a native audience. These definitions, however, are problematic in many ways. First of all, they rely on the authenticity of the text being defined by the intended audience, rather than the context or the purpose it assumes. Secondly, they discard all text that follow the norms and conventions of a language, yet which are not intended for a native audience. All the suggested definitions focus on the origin of the material rather than the desired outcome and purpose of using such materials. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:159) make the point well when they say that authenticity is not a characteristic of the text itself. It is a feature of a text in a particular context. They say that "we should not be looking for some sort of abstract concept of authenticity, but rather the practical concept of fitness to the learning purpose". Widdowson (1979:165) gives a similar opinion when he talks about authenticity as he argues that "I think it is probably better to consider language authenticity as not a quality residing in instances of language but as a quality which bestowed upon them, created by the response of the receiver". He further adds that "we do not recognize authenticity as something there to be noticed, we realize it in the act of interpretation". In the same line, Kramsch (1993:184) points out that:

> all pedagogy is artifact of educational discourse and that we need to measure what goes on in the language classroom, not against some problematically defined criterion of authenticity, but against whatever communicative and cognitive goals are accepted as appropriate in. particular educational context.

Widdowson (1979:166) has, then, effectively provided a clear perspective of authenticity which avoids the stigmatization of language that is not originally intended for a native audience. He focuses on the responses of the audience and whether or not the response that is generated by the language is authentic in itself. For widdowson then, authenticity depends on the response of the receiver, and whether or not the response that is evoked is appropriate to the text. He (ibid.) contends that "Authenticity, then, depends on a congruence of the language producer's intentions and the language receiver's interpretation, this congruence being effected through a shared knowledge of conventions."

Widdowson (1978) presented a new and revised perspective of authenticity that avoids the stigmatization of the language that is not originally intended for a native audience.Widdowson has a process-oriented view of authenticity as he makes the distinction between " authentic'' and "genuine" .Genuine is an example of native speaker language ,while authentic is a native speaker response. Widdowson (1978:80) makes this distinction clear when he says that:

> To present someone with a set of extracts and to require him to read them not in order to learn something interesting and relevant about the world but in order to learn something about the language being used is to misrepresent normal language use to some degree. The extracts are, by definition, genuine instances of language use, but if the learner is required to deal with them in a way which does not correspond to his normal communicative activities, then they cannot be said to be authentic instances of use. Genuineness is a characteristic of the assage itself and is an absolute quality. Authenticity is a haracteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader and it has to do with appropriate response.

Authenticity then is regarded as the interaction between the reader and the text and not just the text itself. Widdowson (ibid.) focuses on the responses of the audience, and whether or not the response that is evoked is appropriate to the text. Widdowson then refers to genuineness as a characteristic of the text itself and the uses to which the texts are put. He claims that texts are intrinsically genuine but authenticity is a social construct.

Appropriate response, here, refers to the reader or hearer‘s interpretation of the message following a set of shared conventions. Therefore, for any material to meet the purpose of language learning, it should follow the norms and conventions of the target language. This language input should meet the requirements of language instruction that of fluency in function in the language .This fluency should be real and not contrived. The response should be consistent with the input and the purpose. The conclusion that we can draw from this debate is that authenticity can be situated in either the text itself, in the participants, in the social or cultural situation and purposes of the communicative act or in combination of these. With the multitude of meanings associated with the term authenticity, the concept has become slippery to identify. It is therefore, preferable to limit the concept to certain objectifiable criteria by referring to the source of the discourse and the context of production. In fact, that would lead us to consider three crucial criteria when developing any definition of authenticity

- The input language (the language of the material)
- The purpose (the intention of using the material)
- The audience's response to the material

After having examined various definitions that have been developed so far, we propose Adams's (1995:4) definition of authentic material in which he specifies that authentic materials are "unaltered language data that are produced by and for native speakers of a common language and not for second language learners". The same author also suggests that the language teacher can improve the effectiveness of authentic language use if the material used in class is selected and treated in a way that facilitates acquisition by the language learners. This is closely linked to Krashen's (1985) idea of comprehensible input. In other words, in order to facilitate language acquisition, the material used in class should be understandable for the learners .Or as Breen (1985) (cited in Adams1995:6) points out "the guiding criterion here is the provision of any means which will enable the learners to eventually interpret the text in ways which are more likely to be shared with fluent users of the language".

To wrap up this debate, we have to recognize that authenticity does not mean 'good' just as contrivance does not necessarily mean 'bad' (Cook 2001;Widdowson 2003). Cook (1997) argues that opposing the terms authentic, genuine, real or even natural to unreal, contrived or fake are emotionally loaded and imply approval or disapproval.Therfore, I would argue that in order to end this debate over authenticity and contrivance, it would be better to direct our attention towards learning aims or what Hutchinson and Waters (1987:159) call it “fitness to the learning purpose”. From a classroom teacher’s perspective, the key issue then becomes, ‘What do we want to achieve with classroom materials?’Logically the answer to this question would be to produce lerarners who are communicatively competent in the target language. In other words, to produce learners who are able to communicate effectively in order to cope with any situation of a particular speech community. To reach this objective, EFL teachers will have to use any means at their disposal, regardless of the sources of the materials and their relative authenticity or contrivance.

1.3. Authenticity and the language classroom

There has always been objection that the language used in the classroom is artificial, or rather that the use of this language is artificial. It is not genuine. The complaint is that communication in the classroom lacks genuineness. In the communicative era, there is a widespread feeling that what goes on in the classroom must be authentic. All the definitions mentioned in the previous section assume that what goes on in the classroom is almost by definition artificial, not authentic and we must, therefore, strive to make what happens in it as much like real life as possible.However, we believe that the notion of real life in this context is itself dubious. In this context Bachman (1990:10) argues that:

> (…)When we consider the great variety that characterizes language use, different contexts, purposes, topics, participants, and so forth : It is not at all clear how we might go about distinguishing real life from non real life language use in any meaningful way, so that attempts to characterize authenticity in terms of real life performance are problematic

Moreover, the classroom creates its own authenticity. Classroom language is real language, and we cannot simply qualify all that takes in the classroom as being by definition artificial. On this particular aspect of language classroom, Hughes (1981:7) notes that:

> The classroom situation is often labelled artificial. If artificiality can be measuredstatistically, it means that the 11 million school children in Britain spending 7 hours a day, five days a week, 40 weeks a year in school; a total of 15.400 million hours are not engaged in some form of social interaction, and therefore, of course, the 50 million hours spent watching football matches is an even less genuine form of interaction.

It is clear that what goes on in the classroom is very real despite some special features of classroom discourse. It is real use of language and we should not forget that the classroom language is very real to the learner. Thus, we must recognize that the classroom has its own reality and naturalness. Participants in the language classroom create their own authenticity as they do elsewhere.Therefore, I do agree with Breen (1985:62) as he contends that:

> Perhaps one of the most authentic activities within a language classroom is communication. Perhaps the most authentic language learning tasks are those which require the learner to undertake communication and metacommunication.

Of course, this may not be the view of many other teachers of other educational systems who favour action and communication instead of metacommunication.

We must not forget that the language classroom is above all else a classroom. We must also acknowledge that learners bring to the language classroom expectations and attitudes and knowledge derived from a wealth of other classrooms.In this respect, Breen (ibid.68) believes that “Perhaps all other questions of authenticity in language teaching may be resolved if the potential of the classroom as a classroom is fully exploited”. Therefore, the acceptability and appropriateness of any material we use will depend on our classroom practices. In other words, the activities we do and what we make our learners do. In fact, the classroom world is not intrinsically less real than the outside world. It is the quality of our social interactions inside the classroom that may seem less real when compared with the outside world.

It is worth noting at this stage that concerns about classroom artificiality were first expressed in ESL contexts. The world outside the ESL classroom context is characterized by infinite opportunities for interactions with L2.Contrarily, in the EFL context the classroom is the sole source of input and the only opportunity to interact with the target language. Therefore, the FL teachers' role is to make the best use of class time. It is equally important for teachers to exploit out-of-class hours to make them conducive to language learning. One good way to do so is by providing activities that develop language awareness especially in L2 to develop learners' pragmatic competence.

In his book entitled: 'Pragmatics in Language Learning: Theory and Practice', Tatsuki (2005:157) believes that our learners should be trained to do language variation activities. For instance, learners can be asked to pick one speech act or conversational function that interest them.Here, they can be encouraged to record every available instance in which they hear native speakers use of specific word or expression. While recording such information, they may be asked to collect information about the speakers' gender, age, social status and the context in which the expression was used.Then, they may analyse the frequency of the selected expressions categorized by selected variables. Later, they may be asked to report their findings to the class and share their findings. In EFL settings, learners may be asked to collect instances of speech act or conventional functions from films or other media.Finally, those findings are compared to L1 language data.

This type of activity is an application of language awareness activity that postulates the strong role of explicit knowledge about language in the process of language learning. In fact, these kinds of language awareness activities are supplementary to the real work of the classroom. One way to get real interaction in the classroom is by promoting integrated skills approaches such as whole language, cooperative learning, task-based learning, content-based learning or multiple intelligences.Therefore, we may summarize the advantages of the classroom in the EFL context as follows:

- Learners can be exposed to authentic language;
- it challenges them to interact naturally in the target language;
- learners will rapidly recognize the richness and complexity of the target language;
- Learners will see that the target language is not just an object of academic success and a key to passing exams;
- The target language becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people;
- And finally, it promotes the learning of real content rather than isolated forms.

We believe that the objections to the artificiality of the language classroom emerged with the beginning of the communicative movement. However, Widdowson (1972:16) distinguishes between two types of meanings. As a response to the communicative language teaching he asserts that:

> We need to draw a careful distinction between two different kinds of meanings. One kind of meaning is that which language items have as elements of the language system, and the other is that which they have when they are actually put to use in acts of communication. Let us for convenience, call the first kind of meaning signification and the secondvalue.

Widdowson (ibid.16-17), of course suggests that communicative language teaching does in fact teach signification rather that value and gives his famous example of teaching the present continuous tense:

> The recommended approach will advise us to invent some kind of situation to demonstrate its meaning. One such situation might consist of the teacher walking to the door and saying I am walking to the door, and then getting a number of pupils to do the same while he says He is walking to the door, they are walking to the door, and so on. Another might consist of the teacher and selected pupils writing on the

> blackboard to the accompaniment of comments like I am writing on the blackboard, He is writing on the blackboard, and so on. In this manner, we can demonstrate what the present continuous tense signifies and we can use the situations to develop action chains so as to show how its meaning relates to that of other tense forms. But what kind of communicative function do these sentences have in these situations? They are being used to perform the act of commentary in situations which in normal circumstances no commentary would be called for. Contextualization of this kind, then, does not demonstrate how sentences of this form are appropriately used to perform the communicative act of commentary. What is being taught is signification, not value.

We can easily notice that the example given above is artificial as it lacks genuine communicative value. However, this does not matter as the learners understand the situation. No doubt they recognize the artificiality of the classroom and the example given by Widdowson, but at the same time they can recognize communicative value, which as Widdowson himself says, is not inherent in the language itself.

What we want to stress then, is that learners as knowers and users of language are quite capable of extrapolating from the classroom situation and that we need not to be worried about the so-called artificiality of the language classroom situation. We need to accept the language classroom as a space for promoting language learning. There are many activities where there is genuine communication, for instance information gap activities, are authentic in one sense, is that genuine communication takes place, still the whole thing is contrived in the sense that it is aimed at language learning. This does not matter because the learners have the sense to know what is going on they are used to the language classroom situation and the kind of activities that go on there. In other words, the artificiality and inauthenticity of the language classroom, however, we may want to define and measure then are strengths not weaknesses.

So, let us have confidence in our learners' abilities, knowledge and experience. They are not empty vessels or tabula rasa that many language teachers seem to think they are. At least, when it comes to dealing with questions of pragmatics and discourse and of language use. They can accept the artificiality of the language classroom (Ellis, 1993:77). Presented with the right kind of tasks and material, they can impose their own authenticity on what goes on there (Candlin, 1993).Let us recognize that the language classroom has its own legitimacy, its own authenticity and its own reality, to which both teachers and learners should contribute.

1.4 Non-authentic materials

In contrast to authentic materials non authentic materials are especially designed for language learning purposes. They have generally been defined as materials that are prepared, revised and adapted by native language specialists to serve pedagogical purposes. Generally speaking these types of materials are carefully planned to meet specific or general pedagogical purposes. The language in non authentic material is artificial and unvaried, concentrating on something that has to be taught. Therefore, such materials are characterized by the deliberate choice of language, situation and people to comply with communicative, structural or behavioural needs. In fact, they present contrived language data that is a characteristic of many textbooks which is simple and presented to demonstrate how the rules of the language system function in sentences.Widdowson (1990:43) explains the point by saying that:

> We recognize this artificial language data which has been contrived for demonstration purposes: it does not carry conviction as actual anguage behaviour. In this respect predominantly an instance of language usage rather than use.

Thus, most graded texts and course books present a modified and adapted language that can hardly avoid contrivance. So, the aspects of the language presented in this kind of materials is carefully selected and adapted to the learner's levels and needs. The readers and authors of such materials are inherently not on the equal footing, Course books are generally for a foreign audience and written from the perspective of talking to a 'foreign' (namely 'outsider'). Shrum and Glisan (1994:28) succinctly explain this point:

> Unfortunately many language textbooks contain poorly motivated and illogically sequenced texts and dialogues that don't reflect the real world language or situations, although they usually contain multiples grammar being presented.

As a result, there is a significant mismatch between English in the main stream society and the content that is taught to EFL or ESL language learners.Mindt (1996: 232) points out that:

> There is obviously a kind of school English which does not seem to exist outside the foreign language classroom. As a result, learners who leave their school surroundings very often find it hard to adapt to the English used by native speakers. Learners who communicate with native speakers constantly have to reshape their linguistic behaviour in those areas of the language which were not taught properly.

The last sentence in the quotation above is what I can personally judge as common to all non-native learners of English discovering the main-stream usages of English in the UK or the United States. All of them had to 'unlearn' a fair amount of English they were taught in their countries. Nonetheless, even after so many years living and working in English-speaking countries they are still haunted by their early years of instruction in English.

It is true that the carefully planned EFL and ELT materials are instrumental in laying foundations for English learning but by no means can they prepare a learner to communicate effectively with native speakers in real life communicative situations. The aim of such materials is to provide a readymade complete solution to teaching and learning English. These especially graded materials seem to be an adequate solution when teachers want to focus on a particular language point. This type of material will certainly provide a suitable context for the language point in question. Non authentic materials then are carefully tailored with the intention to develop certain targeted skills. Therefore, the context is not as important as in authentic texts. Moreover, non authentic materials tend to ensure uniformity in everything that takes place in the classroom and the teacher's role is reduced to a one of transmitter of context. Thus, teacher's planning and out of the classroom work is limited to lesson planning and determining overall goals of the language learning program.

A large amount of the material being used for listening or reading practice falls into the category of non authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes. They lack naturalness and spontaneity which will make them very little unlike anything that the learner will encounter in the real world they rarely reflect how the language is really used. They are very useful and efficient in teaching structures but are not sufficient to prepare learners for ordinary situations where the target language is used.

Nevertheless, the value of non authentic materials should not be completely discarded. As far as foreign language teaching is concerned non authentic materials are very useful in early stages as preliminary preparation for the use of authentic materials. This is due to the fact that we cannot let our learners go through authentic materials before they are sufficiently equipped to face such types of materials.That is why there a number of features which authentic materials exhibit :

- Simulation: they present simulated situations and reactions resembling successfully at times to real situations
- Suitability: carefully designed so as to be in accordance with the learners' level, age and motivation.
- Easiness: language features such as structures,lexis,rhythm,intonation and speed of delivery are simplified
- Limitation: limited in terms of content, language and length.
- Appropriateness: appropriate to the teaching situation.

1.5 Advantages of using authentic language data

This is a comparison made by some teachers between a recording of natural speech among native speakers and a recording made for English language learners. These are the differences recorded:

AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE	NON- AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE
- Variation in the speed of delivery often fast	- Slow pace with little variation
- Natural intonation	- Exaggerated intonation pattern
- Natural Features of connected speeches: elision	- Carefully articulated pronunciation
- Variety of accents	- Received Pronunciation
- Any grammatical structures natural to the topic	- Regularly repeated structures
- Colloquial language	- More formal language
- Incomplete utterances	- Complete utterances
- Restructuring in longer more complex sentences	- Grammatically correct sentences
- Speakers interrupt or speak at the same time	- Speakers take careful turns
- Speakers use ellipsis (i.e. miss out parts of sentences)	- Ellipsis infrequent
Background noise present	- Background noise absent

Table 01: A comparison between authentic and non authentic language. (In Tricia Hedge. 2000: 240)

1.6 Advantages of using authentic language data

FL learners are most of the time exposed to the target language in the formal classroom context, and get it through the specially designed pedagogical material that are prepared and tailored for the purpose of language teaching. One of the main idea of using authentic material in the language classroom is to expose the learner to as much real language as possible .Even if the classroom is not a real situation, AM do have a very important role to play within this context.

Traditionally, most FL teachers have conducted their teaching through conventional teaching materials such as textbooks. Today however, many opt for dropping textbooks partially or altogether in favour of using authentic language data. In fact, the use of authentic language in the classroom context may bring the learner and the language together because the learner is lifted from the confinements of the traditional methodology to become an intricate part of the language learning process, Besides such language resources provide an immersion in real language which is indispensable to direct learners towards Thinking English, Through the use AM the learners will be immersed into a purposeful and meaningful interaction for developing all aspects of learners communicative competence including not only linguistic accuracy or linguistic competence ,but also skills in using the target language appropriately in real life situations.

Authentic material in the context of language teaching include oral and written materials that are naturally used in the target language environment and that are not meant for language learners .Unfortunately, most of the time the main source of input is the language classroom and other curricular materials which are of no help in really developing learners communicative competence.

Many textbooks tend to create a climate of socially isolated learning therefore, we need to reduce reliance on those specially concocted materials which exemplify and focus only on specific language aspects of the target language. We will have to overcome obstacles for communication and the restricted use of the target language often created by outdated textbooks and traditional input they provide .Moreover, we will try to show how authentic materials may bring the learner and the knowledge together because the learner is lifted from the confinements of traditional and more recent methodologies to become an intricate part of the language learning process. Breen and Candlin cited in Rutherford (1987:149-150) contend that:

> In the past, it has seemed easier to somehow separate the learner from the knowledge to be learned – to 'objectify' the target language as something completely unfamiliar to the learner. This objectification of the language in relation to the learner has perhaps been encouraged by a narrow definition of what the object of learning actually is, and by an incomplete view of what the learner has to offer. We have tended to see the target only in terms of 'linguistic competence' or textual knowledge,and we have limited such Knowledge to the level of syntax without reference to structure above the sentence. Thus,ideational and interpersonal knowledge, which textual knowledge and from which textualKnowledge evolves, have tended to be overlooked or neutralised.

Furthermore, AM may supply learners with opportunities to make generalizations of the structure of the target language such as grammar and vocabulary language usage for themselves and observe how prior language usage may be employed or adapted to new circumstances. On this specific aspect, Brown (1994: 91) observes that "Generalization is a crucially important and pervading strategy in human learning. To generalize means to infer or derive a law, a rule, or a conclusion, usually from the observation of particular instances".

Hence, authentic materials seem to be an indispensable input to increase learner awareness of language usage in the spoken and written mediums and decrease reliance on pedagogic language rules, which are viewed as inadequate since they only represent simplifications of language usage .Potentially, AM may provide a logical and reasonable alternative to curricular materials and outdated textbooks which often cannot meet learners' needs and provide the learners with the necessary input which may ultimately contribute in the improvement of their competencies in language usage.

In addition to being an invaluable natural resource of language input, AM can also develop learners' intercultural awareness and knowledge of the similarities and the differences between the learners' world and the world of the target language community. This awareness includes the awareness of both regional and social diversity in both worlds.

Besides objective knowledge, intercultural awareness covers an awareness of how each community appears from the perspective of others.

AM also help learners to develop a much greater understanding of their own lives in the context of exploring the lives of others. That is to say that learners will work out things from different angles and this will give them insights into the people, culture and traditions of other cultures. People will become more and more aware of the similarities and the differences between people and their daily lives, their beliefs and their values.AM bring the learner in contact with aspects of the target language culture .This contact is made more real either inside or outside the classroom by using the net, emails, chartrooms, media ,magazines, songs adverts and even through many products.

It becomes essential then, to introduce authentic materials in the language classroom; to present real language use to meet learners' communicative needs and to stimulate their interest and knowledge. Following this, we shall be enumerating in the coming sections some of the arguments in favour of the use authentic language in formal instruction. We will discuss the arguments for authentic materials and the reasons underlying each argument. We will consider the role AM play in developing learners grammatical and lexical knowledge, in enhancing learners' involvement in the learning process through self-discovery, and the expansion of the learner awareness about language and its appropriate use.

1.6.1 Learner involvement

Most traditional teaching methods were based on the presentation and practice of patterns and completely excluded the learner from being an active participant in the learning process. The classical method which was adapted from the teaching of Latin grammar focused on “grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary and of various declension and conjugations as well as translation of texts and doing written exercises”

(Brown, 1994:16).This method came to be known as the grammar translation method and had a focus on grammatical rules as the basis for translating from the second to native language. Eventually emerged the audio-lingual method which stressed "The mechanistic aspects of language learning and language use by utilizing pattern practice and structural drilling" (Richards and Rodgers 1986:61).Although these methods may have their place in the lower levels in teaching, they exclude the learners from taking an active role in the learning process. They exclude the learner from knowing about the uses of grammar and words or language in the lessons.

More recent language teaching methodologies such as the functional method emphasized the communicative international aspects of language. Just as explained by Richard and Rodgers (ibid. 65) explains that this method: "rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary attempts to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language".

Again this method fails to give an active role to the learner as an active participant in the learning process. The aim of this method is the presentation of language forms and usage in materials selected according to function criteria.

With the failure of both traditional and more recent methodologies to get the learner involved in the learning process, authentic materials really constitute a valuable alternative and an essential input to create rich and varied opportunities for the learner participation. We know that learners differ in knowledge, skills and learning styles so authentic materials whether audio, video or printed may activate and engage learners' prior knowledge and skills about language patterns because viewing, listening and/or manipulating the material will activate their meanings. In classes where learners vary in abilities, AM may challenge learners regardless of proficiency through carefully selected materials that stimulate their desire to be involved which will certainly contribute in improving their knowledge about the language .To clarify this aspect of AM Willis (1990:68) note that:

> Just as lexicographers and grammarians clarify and systematise their knowledge about the language by analysis of text, so, learners can make use of similar techniques to formulate and test hypotheses about the way language items are used. So, learners may be brought into contact with the target language and they gradually gain awareness of unfamiliar language uses because in fact, "ultimately what is learned is controlled by the learner and not the teacher, not the textbooks, not the syllabus".

Moreover, many features of the target language are not adequately covered or poorly and quickly presented in formal lessons. In fact, learners in most cases are responsible for their learning and development since they are able to make and test their own hypotheses about many aspects of the target language.

1.6.2 Self discovery

Most of the time, Learners are restricted to learn a language through materials that lack important aspects of the target language. This is simply because "concocted texts exemplify the grammar not as it is but as the course writers believe it to be". (Willis 1993:92).In fact, what is common is that learners do not simply assimilate rules but instead they make hypotheses about the language they are exposed to. As a consequence, in order to learn a language through self discovery they will need a longer and efficient exposure which enables learners make hypotheses and prevent learning that omits important features of the language.

One of the ways to overcome such omitted aspects of language is by " an approach to grammar that is compatible with how one views SLA" (Ellis and Hedge, 1993:5) .This approaches would focus on learning grammar through consciousness raising (awareness of grammar features) rather than traditional presentational teaching or practice. According to Rutherford (1987:24) such an approach includes a:

> means to attainment of grammatical competence in another language (i.e. necessary but not sufficient, and the learner contributes), whereas' grammar teaching' typically represents an attempt to instill the competence directly (i.e. necessary and sufficient, and the learner is a tabula rasa.

It is clear that our learners need exposure to language to be able to make generalization about the language since “No one could ever learn English, for example, given a vocabulary list and sets of rules for syntax, morphology, phonology etc…no matter how accurate or how comprehensible” (ibid.151).Hence, through authentic language materials learners are given the opportunity to be exposed to natural language that they are likely to meet in real life situations.

1.6.3 Making generalizations

In order to overcome traditional methodology problems of omitted language usage or controlled language pattern or form studies, Barlow proposes the schema-based approach. This approach as Barlow (1996:15) puts it is:

> based on grammatical units which are form-meaning pairing embedded in a discourse context.The formal parts of the grammatical units may look similar to the most productive cases to rules but they are; mostly the result of inductive: the accretion categorized instances.

To make the point clear, Barlow (ibid.18) thinks that some of the schemas may have degrees of abstraction, but they are “ultimately based on and anchored by actual instances for usage”. This will enable generalizations to be based on language usage rather than on grammatical patterns. Furthermore, AM provide learners with contexts from which they can make generalizations about grammar and vocabulary usage for themselves and realize the priority of using language in appropriate situations. Generalization then is a crucial element governing strategy in human learning. As a matter of fact, to generalize means to derive a law or a rule, usually as a result of observation of particular instances. Hence, ample use of AM supplies the necessary input to increase learners' awareness of language of spoken and written mediums and decreases learners' reliance on pedagogic rules that are just simplification of rules which will not prepare the learner to use the language properly in real life situations. It is not wrong then to say that AM constitute an indispensable alternative to those ready-made textbooks and pedagogical materials which most of the time do not provide our learners with adequate and genuine input.

1.6.4 Enhancing vocabulary

Authentic materials enhance understanding vocabulary and offer meaningful contexts that facilitate learning. AM give learners the opportunity to recognize features of lexicon generally neglected or overlooked by grammatical presentations. Mc Carthy cited in Carter (1987:174) points out that one approach to promote the understanding and vocabulary acquisition requires the examination of relations between lexical items at three different levels:

- above sentence level
- across conventional turn boundaries
- within the broad framework of discourse organization.

Following this, it may not be wrong to say that AM provide the suitable input that meets the requirements as they enable learners to take part in the learning process by formulating their own assertions about vocabulary and lexical relationships. Moreover, through the use of AM words are presented and introduced in a meaningful context rather than being taught in isolation as it is in the case of dictionaries. That is why we do agree with Willis (1993:92) as he says that: “The use of authentic materials makes it likely that not only structure and necessary choice but also the typical behaviour of words and phrases will be captured and highlighted for the learner”.

In addition to this, it is difficult for the teacher to present everything the learners are required to know about a word. By providing the learners with opportunities to work with

AM we will not only enrich their vocabulary stock but we will also lead them to make generalizations about lexis through their own discovery. This of course, will reduce learners' continuous reliance on the teacher and will at the same time arouse their attention. That is why Willis (ibid: 84) thinks that learners:

> are discovering the language…they discover and they assign these words to classes …at the same time learners are discovering the classes to which words might belong and assigning the words in their lexicon to these classes.

Therefore, if we want to stimulate our learners' self discovery and awareness we need to present them with plenty of authentic language data. By being exposed to different authentic language data learners are empowered by the ability to advance their inductive processes and discover relationships for themselves.

1.7 Authentic materials and culture

As we all know, learning a language goes beyond the knowledge of grammatical rules, lexical items and pronunciation. Widdowson (1990) uses the term "schematic knowledge" which refers to the socially acquired knowledge which he contrasts with the term "systemic knowledge". The latter in his view represents the formal properties of a language which involves both semantic and syntactic structures. In the case of mother tongue acquisition the process of developing both systemic and schematic knowledge go in parallel. However, as Widdowson (ibid.110) points out:

> Learning another language is another matter as the FL learner's schematic knowledge has been developed alongside with their native language. They acquired their culture within the very process of language learning. That is why when confronted with uses of the foreign language "their inclination is to interpret them with reference to this established association.

One of the difficulties our FL learner may encounter is the lack of consistency between the culture specific aspects of cognition and their native language .The learning process makes learners' schemas subject to novel cultural data which makes comprehension and retention difficult or even impossible .It is impossible or difficult for a learner who has not resided in the TL culture to be able to proceed systemic data if these are presented through unfamiliar contexts. Take the case of Halloween or English pubs even explained and carefully introduced, the FL learner may fail to perceive them in the same way a native speaker does. Regardless of the amount of explanation given, the learner in question will react to Halloween or the pub or any other context with incomplete comprehension.Thus, if one does not have full access to schematic knowledge, one cannot grasp the systemic knowledge with ease.

In the case of reading comprehension for example, readers use prior schematic knowledge to reconstruct the writer's intended meaning.However, when the cultural background and assumptions and constructs are missing, reading becomes a time consuming, laborious and frustrating experience (ibid.).Moreover, lexical items presented in the dictionary and the knowledge of systematic structures are not enough to grasp meaning and understand new information. Wallace (1992:33) thinks that this attributable to the learners' lack of what he calls “cultural competence”, i.e. a very complex package of beliefs, knowledge, feelings, attitudes and behaviour.

Given the role culture plays in cognition it has become so essential in foreign language pedagogy to determine the type of schematic knowledge our learner should be fed with.So, for successful language learning to take place language learners need insights about the target language culture in order to get the meaning across. Stuart and Nocon (1996:432) believe that the role of culture is vital and contend that:

> Learning about the lived culture of actual target language speakers as well as about one's culture requires tools that assist language learners in negotiating meaning and understanding the communicative and the cultural texts in which linguistic codes are used.

It is clear that the cultural content provides exposure to the target language that most of our foreign learners lack. Obviously, culture is not something of facts to be learnt, and it is rather a helpful tool that makes learners feel the need to use the TL for communicative purposes. The reason for the use of cultural content in our classrooms is that it will foster learner motivation. In fact, there exits a potential relationship between AM and cultural knowledge. Many studies have shown that the introduction of AM has a positive impact on language learning as it enables learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form.

Hence, one of the most effective ways of enhancing cultural exposure and helping learners increasingly become competent FL learners is through AM. It is within this aim that some researchers investigated the role of AM in introducing sociocultural aspects of language.Westphal (1986:91) for instance, launched an exploration to find what cultural aspects besides language use could be included in the curriculum. He found out that the current materials included in the curriculum is not really the problem but rather 'what is absent; namely, the language and the sociocultural views and values of the non-dominant social classes, the ethnic minorities and the "socially and culturally deprived”. Westphal (ibid) then believes that a curriculum cannot be considered authentic if does not reflect this important sociocultural aspect of language.Boufoy Bastick (2001) also conducted an important study in order to show the cultural impact of using AM. In introducing this concept, Boufoy Bastick (ibid) adopts a constructivist pedagogical methodology. Boufoy Bastick investigated the use of AM within a constructivist foreign language teaching. She (ibid.2) states that:

> the first aim is enculturation which is the process by which the learner sensitizes himself or herself to the values inherent to the foreign language and its culture, while acquiring the linguistic and sociocultural FL skills to become an increasingly competent FL learner.

That is why the incorporation of AM in the curriculum of any foreign language teaching not only promotes the development of linguistic skills but also plays an important role in highlighting the values and culture inherent to the TL.

As can be seen, AM represent not only effective ways of introducing cultural content but a very important source of motivation as well. However, some experts such as Mc Kay (2000:27) believe that there should be a variety of culture in the materials. If the role of culture in the material is to create interest towards the TL and its use, then it is highly recommended. In fact, there should not be an overload of western culture in ELT classrooms that would create problems not only for the learners but for the teacher as well. Therefore, a number of precautions need to be taken when using AM, which may carry certain cultural aspects that represent taboos in the learners' culture. This may result in frustration or embarrassment that may lead to the loss of the desire to learn the TL altogether. In choosing the material then the teacher should avoid such taboo topics as sex, drugs, alcohol, religion, politics, history and beer or pork. Teachers must care about sexism, and racism. This kind of censorship is in fact pedagogically desirable.

1.8 Authentic material and pragmatics

In trying to explore the difficulty of defining the concept of authenticity Kramch and Sullivan (1996) conducted a study on English as an international language and the difficulty of defining materials when different dialects are involved. Their action research with Vietnamese students revealed that the wide variety of norms and conventions within the different English dialects raises the question to which of the dialects the input should be representative**.** For instance, if the input used was British, but the class was an exploration in American English, would we still consider the text as inauthentic? To overcome this difficulty Kramch and Sullivan (ibid) adopted Holliday's metaphor “Marketplace perspective” which was referred to as “Multilingual, multicultural pedagogic exchange". In this respect, it is the appropriateness of the text that is important rather the direct authenticity of language input. For Kramsch and Sullivan (ibid.199) the authenticity of instances of language is not dependent on whether the language is British, American, Australian, or English. They think that:

> Appropriate pedagogy would thus allow learners either to conform to British) (social norms and give the socially expected rejoinders, or create their own content of use according to the values cherished in their national professional, academic or institutional culture

In fact, Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) stressed the fact that an authentic response does not necessarily facilitate language learning. It is of great importance that the learner is able to create a response that is appropriate to the input, and reflecting some sort of social and cultural norms and expectations either in native language or the target language.

Not far from this, in his study of pragmatics, McKnight (1995) investigates the interaction between language learners and AM. Firstly, he proposes his own view of authenticity by characterizing AM as materials that should follow the grammatical, phonological and orthographic, social, cultural, discourse and pragmatic conventions of the target language. He also argues that AM should be introduced as early as possible which he thinks would assist the learners in developing strategies that help them navigate the language. McKnight (ibid.) studied the potential relationship between pragmatics and AM and he suggests that the latter might help learners discover deeper meaning. According to McKnight (ibid.3), pragmatics is "the study of the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular speech acts". He believes that pragmatics can offer valuable insights into the use of AM.

Moreover, the notion of authenticity is commonly used in SL teaching (pedagogy) to describe the learning interactions which are not artificially constructed but which are socially and contextually meaningful to the students (Kramsch, 1993, Vanlier, 1996).Much dialogue in the SL classrooms falls into the category "pretend conversation" and tend to involve rehearsed and predictable question- answer sequences. A conversation, on the other hand refers to students' active and creative engagement with the FL.

1.9 Authentic materials and motivation

Incorporating and using authentic material in the language classroom can be a relevant experience for they can not only capture learners' interest and stimulate their attention but will foster their motivation as well. Students who worked with AM reported gaining greater confidence in using the target language. It is a way of bringing the real world with its variety of experiences into the classroom.

According to Brinton (1991), AM reinforce the relationship between the language classroom and the outside world. Besides, AM give the learner the opportunity to gain real true information and will be informed on what is going on in the world around them. Exposure to AM produces a sense of achievement through the fulfillment of any type of activity be it understanding a message, extracting information. Interacting with the material in general can be extremely motivating, therefore increasing learners' motivation for learning by exposing them to real language (Guariento and Morely, 2001).AM also give the learner the proof that the language used is real and not the one so often used in the classroom. In this respect, Nuttal (1996:172) sustains that “Authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real- life purposes by real people”.

Many justifications have been put forward to support the claim that AM are more interesting and motivating than non-authentic materials because their objective is to communicate a message of some sort rather to highlight the structures of the target language. Although some authors such as Swaffar (1985); Freeman and Holden (1986); Hutchinson and Waters (1987); King (1990); Little and Singleton (1991) reject this opinion and argue that non-authentic materials are not only produced to focus on form. They also argue that there are some difficulties associated with AM such as their complex vocabulary or their schematic knowledge which can demotivate learners. In spite of this, Cross (1984) posits that showing learners that they can cope with AM is, in itself, intrinsically motivating which implies that motivation is the result rather than the cause of achievement. Others claim that authentic materials are motivating because they can be selected to suit learners' specific needs, and are unlike non-authentic materials which are addressed to an international audience (Morrison 1989;Mc Garry1995;Mishan 2005).Not far from this, Peacock(1997) believes that if learners perceive AM as authentic as 'real' is, in itself, a motivating force.

In fact, motivation for language is not that obvious and empirical research to support the above claims is necessary. So, it is not always evident to establish a causal relationship between authenticity and motivation. The first problem lies in the difficulty of an accurate and agreed upon definition of the term authenticity in the literature. The second problem is that to measure the success of AM in motivating learners will depend on how appropriate they are for them, how they are exploited in class, and how effectively the teacher is able to mediate between material and the learners. (Rings 1986; Rodgers and Medley 1988; Gonzales 1990).Another important consideration is that learners' goals and their mercurial needs probably influence their attitudes towards AM. Second language learners whose motivation is integrative and who react positively to AM are quite different from FL learners whose motivation is instrumental (Dornyei 1990).Of course, this might not always be true since, for example, medical students studying ESP with no desire to integrate into the speech community, sometimes respond more positively to authentic medical materials than contrived materials.

Moreover, prior familiarity with authentic materials greatly influences the results of any research. Two separate studies conducted by Gonzales (1990) and Peacock (1997) revealed that learners' motivation increases gradually as they get more familiar with AM. Therefore, both researchers agree that the length of time in measuring motivation is of crucial importance. However, there still remains an important aspect of how to measure learners' motivation in classroom-based studies. All the empirical studies conducted so far on motivation have relied much on learners self report data which makes them more or less subjective because the results run the risk of being contaminated by the 'approval motive'. Most of the time the respondents' answers are affected by what is 'good' or what is 'right'. So, there are some dangers inherent in this kind of learners' self report data.Nonetheless, this should not lead us to deny the close links between authenticity and motivation. Instead, more elaborated research on this issue will certainly have major implications for material design and development. Furthermore, reliable results will largely depend on how we can conceive experimental investigations that could be able to take into account different variables. Up to date, three empirical research worth mentioning have attempted to show the role of AM in raising learners' motivation (Keinbaum, Russel and Welty 1986;Gonzales 1990,Peacock 1997).Keinbaum and associates tried to show that adopting a communicative methodology coupled with the use of AM could increase learners' motivation towards learning German, French and Spanish. Gonzales in his turn conducted a study to see whether exposure to AM could have an effect on Spanish learners' motivation.

Of all the studies mentioned above, only Peacock (1997) presents convincing results on authenticity and motivation. His empirical research was carried out on South Korean university English language students over a period of twenty days. In his experiment he used a sophisticated model of motivation based on Crookes and Schmidt (1991)'s model of interest and enthusiasm for the materials used in class; persistence with the learning task, as indicated by the levels of attention or action for extended periods of time; and levels of concentration and enjoyment. The result of the experiment revealed a significant increase in both on task behaviour and overall class motivation when students were using AM. Besides, learners self reported motivation highly increased with the use of authentic materials. Although some learners took more time to adjust to the experiment programmes, learners found working with AM is far more challenging than non-authentic materials. In fact, we need further empirical research that would eventually account for the motivating potential of AM.

It has also been argued that AM play a crucial role in improving learners' communication skills and increase their motivation, involvement and interest to learn the target language. Therefore Peacock (1997:152) believes that AM have positive effects on "increasing students' levels of on task-based behaviour, concentration and involvement in the target language activity more than any artificial material". Similarly, Little et al (1989) mentions three advantages of using AM; enhancing motivation, promoting language acquisition and contributing language immersion.

Moreover, the foreignness and difficulty level of those unedited materials can cause learners to perceive them as inauthentic. That is why Breen (1985:63) thinks that "for those materials to be authentic they need to engage the learners' prior knowledge, interest, and curiosity". According to Lee (1995:324), this can be achieved only when there is "agreement between the material writer's intention and the learner's interpretation". In other words, if the materials are authentic to the learners they can stimulate real-life situations and can be perceived as useful, lifelike and interesting.

In fact, AM contain a wide variety of language input that display different language styles with different forms that do not exist in conventional teaching materials. An advantage of bringing a complete newspaper, brochures, a news report, or even cartoons into the classroom will certainly encourage the learner. The more our learners listen, read and watch ,the better listener, speaker and maybe the better reader they will become, not only developing his/her language level but will gain confidence as well. Besides, if learners are given the chance to have a say about AM that interest them they will certainly choose the ones related to their own experiences. One crucial aim of AM is to let the learner react in the same way NSs react in their native language .Willis (1990:56) points out that:

> It is the learner who has to make sense of the insights derived from input, and learnerscan only do this by considering new evidence about the language in the light of their current model of language … [consequently,] They should be encouraged to process texts for themselves so as to reach conclusions which make sense in terms of their own systems.

So, if traditional and even current methods failed to involve and motivate the learners, AM can be very powerful motivators by creating opportunities for the learners to participate. Therefore, AM are necessary in the EFL language classrooms because they give learners a sense of achievement and thereby challenging learners regardless of proficiency level.

1.10 Disadvantages of using authentic materials

Over the years however, teachers and many ELT writers began to realize that AM have their drawbacks .The main criticism made to these types of materials is that they are too difficult for learners of a foreign language whose ears have been accustomed to an oversimplified and enunciated language. These difficulties lie in the speed of delivery, varying accents and the background noise (cf table 01)

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994:59-60) “Differences in people's cognitive styles reflect the different ways people respond to learning situations” .Chalker (1994:36) also states that learners want “understandable rules that appear to work…prescriptive guidance … simply arranged [information] and many are against too much terminology”.

We understand from these opinions that a mismatch between the material being presented and the learners' learning styles and level would result in a complete loss of interest and motivation. This is mainly due to the fact that AM contain less guidance and infinite variety of new terminology and structures.

Furthermore, AM may be a kind of distraction to the learners whose ability is to focus on only one task at a time, or whose level of proficiency in the target language is low. Consequently these learners may feel that these types of language input are not relevant to their learning situation, or the lesson should be presented through simple presentation and explanation or rote learning. Some learners may even feel uncomfortable or uneasy when presented with AM and demand the teacher's complete guidance. These learners as well as visual learners who favour taking notes and visual clues may require explicit teaching and thus for them the teacher is a central figure. On the other hand, many learners who prefer more traditional methodologies or seek academic success may become resentful, if they feel the lack of sufficient exposure to rules, patterns or structures necessary for their success in examinations. Moreover, AM reflect certain cultural aspects with high risks of alienation. Some cultural aspect in the target language may represent taboos in the learners' culture which may probably result in a complete repulsion towards the target language.

It has now become clear that when using AM, it is natural and inevitable that we will face some difficulties. According to Richard (2001:254), despite their advantages authentic materials may contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures which might be a burden for both the teachers and the learners. If such aspects of AM are not seriously taken into consideration learners can be entirely demotivated by difficult pronunciation, mixed structures, new vocabulary and intimidating knowledge. In the next sections we will be discussing a number of difficulties inherent to the use authentic materials.

1.10.1 Lexical difficulties

The first challenge FL learners generally encounter while working with AM is the complexity and the variety of vocabulary items. In fact, the amount of jargon provided by this type of language input could be overwhelming and may lead to confusion. Very often AM are overloaded with new vocabulary items which are most of the time beyond learners' grasp. In order to show the potential dangers of introducing AM into the language classroom, Widdowson (1998:710) cites the following example from the Guardian newspaper dated November 30th, 1995:

IT TAKES BOTTLE TO CROSS THE CHANNEL

Bibbing tipplers who booze-cruise across the Channel in search of revelry and wassail could be in for a rough ride. Itchy-footed quaffers and pre-Christmas holiday-makers are being warned not to travel to France, widespread disruption continues despite the lifting of the blockade on trapped British lorry drivers.

Of course, for most learners even advanced ones, this type of text is frustrating because of the high lexical density, the high density of idiomatic language, and low frequency vocabulary. This can have negative effects on the learners' motivation as said in the previous section. So, let us “put up the affective filter” using Krashenite terms in order not to demotivate our learners. Moreover, many research believe that such an example is extreme and believe that we can overcome this problem by adopting a careful selection of the materials and the tasks accompanying them.

Acquiring vocabulary in context is more efficient than learning isolated items but sometimes too difficult a context may be misleading and is likely to discourage our FL learners. As a matter of fact, some types of authentic language data are of no benefit in the learning process. That is why learners may benefit more from others forms of getting vocabulary.So, as Carter (1987:153) suggests:

> It has not been convincingly demonstrated that the information learners obtain from meeting words in a variety of contexts is more beneficial, either in terms of knowledge of forms or meanings of lexical items, than either translation or simply looking up the word in the dictionary.

So, our learners may get the meaning of vocabulary items through different means including the dictionary or translation without really having to struggle through different types of authentic language context.However,AM remain a very rich and efficient source of vocabulary if carefully selected and adequately prepared. According to Little et al (1989:6-7) this can be accomplished by using carefully chosen materials:

> Precisely because authentic texts come complete with the savour, stench and rough edges of life beyond the school walls, they are likely to be markedly and more successful in provoking pupils' reaction and interaction than the somewhat anaemic texts that one often finds between the covers of the textbooks.

Little et al (1989) emphasize the fact that authentic materials should be carefully selected. The linguistic difficulty can be measured by readability and comprehensibility formulas commonly based on surface linguistic features believed to correlate with syntactic and lexical difficulty. These aspects that affect the overall level of difficulty, and even more so the suitability of a text or a material can only be determined by human judges ,in this case either the learners or the teachers. Giving the learners the opportunity to share in the responsibility for their learning with the teachers does not in any way lessen the important role of the teacher.

1.10.2 Pronunciation difficulties

Many foreign learners of English recognize the difficulties they have in understanding speech in AM because of the English sounds and the effects of rapid speech. Most of our FL learners have been accustomed to the artificial language commonly presented through non authentic materials and their non native speaker teachers. However, we know that AM contain a great deal of informal colloquial language with varying degrees of the rate of speech delivery. As a result, our FL learners find difficulties to catch up with the flow of speech produced by native speakers.Therefore, with little training in pronunciation and a very limited exposure to authentic language, our learners face considerable difficulties which may lead to frustration and even hatred towards the target language. These unavoidable aspects of natural speech can be located in two specific angles. Firstly, in connected speech the language is marked by all the supra-segmental phonological features such as assimilation, elision and even intonation. To illustrate these aspects, Crystal (1985) analyzed the recordings of natural informal speech to identify the many effects conveyed through variation in loudness and speed of speech. Crystal (ibid.412) concludes that "the very rapid rate at which participants talk on these occasions resulted in a much more fundamental use of assimilation and elision than usually explained in manuals of pronunciation". Among the examples evoked by Crystal (ibid.) is the phrase *wouldn't have been able* which was pronounced as /wu?mbneble/.Even the transcription is misleading because the whole was articulated, not syllable by syllable, but as a single rhythmic unit.

One of the major handicaps of teachings pronunciation is the lack of spontaneous speech. Instead teachers and linguists have been preoccupied with teaching either isolated segments or sentence based data. The general belief seems that once the basic features of pronunciation are described, their integration in conversational use is straightforward. Using Abercombie 's 1956 distinctions between "spoken prose" and "spontaneous conversation". Crystal (1985) argues that the former in a much oversimplification through neglect of the fact that firstly, "spoken prose" lacks the variety of language found in conversation, and secondly, that "connected speech makes important modifications to the units into which it can theoretically be broken down". As far as the teaching of pronunciation is concerned, relying solely on non authentic materials has not been of great help to enable our FL learners to be able to master the TL. Moreover, the general trend towards a communicative language teaching methodology is not reflected in most pronunciation handbooks which still adopt the technique of drilling of isolated sounds or single sentence models. With emphasis being put nowadays on communication in language teaching methodology many authors including Breen (1985), Candlin and Waters (1979) claim that: “many teachers now see their main purpose, in language teaching, as enabling learners to become “communicatively competent” and what is needed is to “exploit data from language as communication”.

Secondly, and in addition to the everyday casual speech aspects, English is spoken by different people with a variety of accents. To this must be added an extraordinary range of vocal effects in use, as people adopt mock accents and voice qualities in order to emphasize points or tell jokes. Casual rapid speech is also characterized by the use pauses, false starts, fillers, hesitations which make learners unable to keep up with the flow of speech produced by first language speakers. In order to overcome such potential problems we believe that a pattern pronunciation drilling coupled with a continuous immersion in the target language through AM may gradually build learners' confidence and motivation.

1.10.3 Grammatical difficulties

In many educational systems of many countries where English is a foreign language there is a strong belief that grammar is the heart of the teaching learning process. Such systems rely on the explicit study of grammar and the provision of pedagogic language rules. These rules represent the language characteristics, usage or rules designed to enable learners to understand the language they are studying .However, these rules and their simplifications may lead to overgeneralization or undergeneralization whose consequences will be on the learners' inadequate use of the language. On this specific point Little (1994:105) holds that:

> Traditional pedagogic grammars present paradigmatic rules of morphosyntax and sentence structure which have been derived from an

> analysis of language produced by educated native speakers. Such grammars invite us to move from the abstract to the concrete, from the general rules to its specific realization–which in many cases will turn out to be a partial exception to the general rule. Even when example sentences are provided to show the rules in action, the overall effect of such grammar is to emphasize form to the virtual exclusion of meaning.

In such teaching context the teacher assumes a central role as a supervisor or more precisely a spoon feeder. Learners in these conditions seem to be resentful to learning grammar through AM. Instead they demand explicit study of grammar rules. Also, grammar differences exist between authentic and non authentic materials. The latter are carefully tailored so as to illustrate a given grammar point. Thusly, the content of AM would reflect instances of language to present this very structure. However, the language in AM is produced spontaneously and is not based on prior knowledge of textbook grammars and it generally involves non syntactical forms of speech such as gap fillers. This may constitute an obstacle for some types of learners who have been accustomed to either rote learning or to lengthy explanations of grammar rules. Richards and Lockart (1994:523) argue that "learners who feel that English grammar is obstacles to their learning [also] favour a grammar based teaching methodology".

It is noteworthy, that overemphasizing English grammar is created by the examination -driven systems where the purpose of learning a language is success in the exams. In general, learners have been "indoctrinated" to the point that unless a certain usage is clearly explained they subconsciously reject it .As they keep pressing "why", teachers take pride in reasoning through decontextualization (Shrum and Glisan, 1994:23).In these situations if learners are presented with AM which may not contain the satisfactory exposure to grammar rules or patterns, learners may develop a feeling of uneasiness. This uneasiness may lead to the loss of motivation and the lack of confidence in their teachers. For them, they do not feel they have acquired anything important in the lesson.

1.11 Material adaptation

The concept of authenticity is intimately related to the growth of the communicative language teaching approach with an increasing emphasis on the learners being exposed to the target language in the same way NSs do. In recent years, theoretical exploration of the communicative purpose of language has had its influence on the teaching methodology, which focuses on developing communicative competence. This trend led to a review of language content, activity types, also the instructional material and the objective to be attained.Today, there is a growing concern for authentic language behaviour as communication has led to a reconsideration of the type of language input. Many ELT writers began to question the importance of textbooks “which seem to lag behind an understanding of the nature of language and of students' linguistic and learning needs” (McDough and Shaw, 1993:92).So, if our ultimate goal is to prepare our learners for authentic language use the introduction of AM modified by teachers to represent real language usage may meet the learners' needs and stimulate their interests.

There is no doubt that there are some dangers inherent to the exploitation of AM in an FL context because of their potential difficulties. Widdowson (1998) believes that difficult texts can be simplified to approximate authentic ones. However, qualifying a text as difficult or as easy is not as accurate as we think since rating text difficulty on either lexical or grammatical criteria is not always straight forward. Firstly, because the complexity of a word will generally depend on the learning context it is used in and on the learners’ familiarity with the topic and whether there are cognates in L2 (Wallace, 1992).Secondly, if we rate a text according to grammatical criteria, it will be generally affected by the degree of similarity between the grammatical system of the mother tongue and the TL. Moreover, as has been shown in many SLA research, it is not because a grammatical point is easy to analyze or easy to present it is easy to learn. Take the case of the 3rd person singular, though it is a simple rule but it is generally difficult to learn. It has also been argued that AM should be graded following some basic guidelines. In this respect, Brown and Yule (1983) think that the following factors affect text difficulty:

- Different spoken genres can be represented on a cline of increasing inherent difficulty, depending on whether they represent static, dynamic or abstract concepts.
- The number of elements in a text and how easily they can be distinguished from one another, so that a short narrative with a single character and a few main events will be easier to comprehend than a long one involving more characters and events.
- The delivery speed and accents used in spoken texts.
- The content (grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure and presumed background knowledge in a text).
- The visual support offered in conjunction with listening texts (video images, realia or transcripts).

Experimental research has also revealed many other factors that can affect listening comprehension. Anderson and Lynch (1988) report factors such as familiarity, degree of explicitness and organization of information. Nunan (1989) considers text length as another aspect of text difficulty and which most of the time engenders learners' boredom and fatigue. Moreover, spoken texts are generally syntactically simpler than written ones. So, instead of producing complex sentences speakers tend to use simple utterances using discourse markers which can facilitate comprehension.

One of the main reasons of using authentic materials in the classroom is to expose learners to real natural language .However, when bringing AM into the classroom it should be done with a clear pedagogic purpose as explained by Senior (2005:71)"…We need to have a clear pedagogic goal in mind: what precisely we want our students to learn from these materials”. Moreover, the teacher should give the necessary pedagogical support so as to ensure learners' feelings of confidence and security when working with AM. AM then should be selected in accordance with the learners' cognitive, psychological and linguistic abilities. According to Widdowson cited in John (1994:29) “The use of ‘simplified’ texts is often recommended as a way of ensuring that language is authentic in purpose yet within the learners' grasp”. One logical way to overcome such difficulties which were already mentioned in section 1.10, is by removing difficult lexical items and complex structures but this is likely to destroy the very natural feature of the original text.

Another way to overcome the complex nature of AM and which is associated with the ‘strong version’ of the communicative language teaching, is to vary the task rather than the text. Of course, this may not allow the total comprehension of the text or the material on the basis that even native speakers generally do not totally understand all the materials. Porter and Roberts (1981:42), for instance, think that: “Even native speakers generally do not impose a standard of total comprehension, and tolerate vagueness”. They give the example of the BBC weather forecast for shipping where millions hear that a wind is backing south easterly. The same authors (ibid.) believe that:

> To a layman, ‘backing’ will mean ‘moving’ and he is quite content with that, though aware that there is probably a finer distinction contained in the term. His comprehension is partial, but sufficient for his needs, and in proportion to his knowledge.

Many other writers have shown that it is possible to adapt authentic text to different levels of learners simply by varying the tasks accompanying them. This is because AM encourage tolerance of partial comprehension and enhance learners’ inferencing skills (Brown1994;Guariento and Morely 2001). So, we believe that any text should be presented in its original state to avoid the loss of authenticity. What can be done as Rutherford (1987:172) suggests is “Simplification' but of the task not of the text”. The role of teacher here is of crucial importance by paving the way to the material be it printed or digital and this by giving appropriate tasks.

The logical steps to be followed are pre, while and post either listening, viewing, or reading. The first step is generally devoted to the introduction of new lexical items or any other cultural schemata which learners may not be familiar with. Of course; this phase is of crucial importance since it prepares learners to the content of the material and most of the time it arouses their curiosity. The second step consists of the tasks that the learners are asked to perform. These tasks should not only match learners' cognitive abilities but should also reflect the way people normally interact with the material. The last step which consists of follow up activities is generally meant to get feedback to check learners' understanding.

Adapting AM for teaching and classroom use is an incredibly difficult task. Teachers are faced with a host of authentic materials recorded in their original state and presented via different ways. Some are printed others are either audio or audio-visual. It is obvious that in adapting such materials there are number of criteria that should be observed among them the learners' age, culture, cognitive and linguistic level. However, in an endeavour to simplify a material or a text we may fall into the error of spoiling the authenticity of the material. It has been argued that by taking a text from its original context, it loses its authenticity. Wallace (1992:79) is one of those who believe that: “As soon as texts, whatever their original purpose, are brought into the classroom for pedagogic purposes they have, arguably lost authenticity”. Although this might be true, AM still ensure an exposure to real discourse which is not the case with artificial materials. Nevertheless, a number of precautions have to be observed to avoid the pitfalls inherent to any material. They will be divided into four main elements as follows:

1.11.1 Lexical elements

Learning words in context is likely to discourage even the advanced learners due to the overwhelming input and confusion, therefore, they may be of no benefit to the learning process. One noticeable thing as we deal with AM is the occurrence of difficult words and phrases .Here, the teacher should be aware of the difficulties when deciding about that cause problems and providing the necessary solutions. To overcome such difficulties the teacher can use synonyms, paraphrasing, and illustrations through examples or even visual aids.

Learners' comprehension is most of the time hindered by the frequent use of infrequent words mainly of Latin origin. If the text is printed one solution would be to substitute them. However, if the text is audiovisual the introduction of the word through extra context is advisable. Certain words appear with certain other words in some cases. We generally divide them as natural or arbitrary collocations. Those words whose meaning can be easily inferred from the context for instance, to make a long story short or help one's self .And there are some collocations that are arbitrary and which can completely mislead the learners What ought to be done in this situation is either introducing them in the pre listening, reading or viewing step as we said or substituting them.

Another characteristic of original material is the common occurrence of idioms. We all know that these specific uses of language differ from one culture to another in other words, they do not have a universal meaning. Another problem with these idiomatic expressions is that the words separately do not bear the same meaning as a whole idiom. We also know that it is impossible to learn them by heart.

Last but not least is the occurrence of phrasal verbs in English. This type of cluster can be misleading for the learners whose knowledge of the language is often limited and who generally interprets meaning of the verbs by looking at the literal meaning of the second particle .However, we know that different prepositions following the verbs have different meanings depending on whether they stand alone or are attached to the verb.

1.11.2 Structural complexity

As mentioned in section 1.11 English has many kinds of structures which are sure so often confusing. In fact, this syntactic and structural complexity stems from the fact that structural combinations occur in different contexts and often bearing different meanings. Besides, native speakers in colloquial speech tend to use contractions and ellipsis which constitute a real impediment to our FL learners. Another serious handicap of our FL learners is their tendency to overgeneralize a rule or to use it by analogy to their mother tongue or any other foreign language, French in the case of Algerian FL learners. A good instance of this is the misuse and the misinterpretation of some parts of speech by many students. A good instance of this is the ING form which is of understood as a modifier instead of a verb or a noun.

Consequently, if any material is to be exploited in the language classroom it should undergo a thorough analysis to locate the structures that might constitute a barrier to the learners' understanding. The logical step to follow is of course is by completely dropping the structures and replacing by a simpler ones or by simply modifying them.

Another potential ambiguity may arise from some phonological features associated with the meaning of some words. For example in English either the first or the second syllable is stressed according to whether the word is a verb, a noun or an adjective. We also have to mention here that a number of verbs in English with a positive connotation and used in a negative way may hamper learners' understanding and communication.

1.11.3 Discourse elements

Such features which generally occur at the level of the sentence and sometimes beyond are here to help learners read better or listen better. However, in some cases they either make it difficult for the learner to fully understand the text or may completely mislead him .Some of these elements include the use of referents, heading and redundancy.

The use of pro-forms in some texts either printed for reading or audio for listening may hamper learners' comprehension. This is because such words replace or refer to other words or constructions which may be too far away from their referents. There also may be other similar words like the ones referred to. Furthermore, for some other reasons the use of pro-forms may not show a direct link to students’ referents. Therefore, for the sake of adaptation, any material should be based on a careful examination of the use of pro-forms.

In many reading passages there are some concepts or words that are more important than others so writers often tend to emphasize certain ideas and direct the readers' attention. However, this is likely to be difficult for FL learners to make decision as to which word, concept or idea is the most important. Thus indicating which part of the material is the most important is of crucial importance. Therefore, writers use different techniques to highlight ideas or information according to the type of material being exploited i.e. depending on whether this material is printed, audio, or video. In the case of audio materials the common ways of emphasizing are pauses, repetitions while in the case of videos we can use frame and freeze or winding and rewinding. However, if the text is printed the teacher has a wide range of techniques that he/she might use such underlining, italics, bold type, and change of type. Some teachers also can use hues such as colours, shades and white space.

In addition to the use of emphatic forms, teachers while exploiting a given material may make use of redundancy that we may define as the recurrence of data more than one time in more than one place. It is also important to know how to use this important aspect of language and for what purpose to use it. First, it is used to highlight targeted words or ideas. Secondly, it can be done through restating, paraphrasing, exemplifying or even visuals.

1.12 AM selection and implementation

So far, we have been dealing with the rationale for the use of AM, their advantages and their disadvantages and the different ways of adapting them to the language classroom. However, the situation we actually have is that practitioners face a host of challenges when exploiting them.Today, AM are abundant and need to be selected, adapted and possibly graded so as to match learners' ever changing needs. Needs which concern learners' linguistic level, their motivation, their age, their cultural background, and their learning styles. Therefore, when choosing a material from any source a number of questions should be taken into consideration. Question such as the following: Does the material allow adjustment according to the needs of different students? Does it encourage learners' active involvement in the learning? Does it adequately allow the practice of the targeted skills? Does it really contribute to the learners' progress in the target language? But most importantly, does it foster learners' motivation?

Indeed, many factors interfere in the choice and implementation of any authentic material to fit the teaching situation and meet learners' needs and interests. The crucial question then is how can we best select the most suitable material to our learning environment? The teacher generally sets out at a level of hesitation, ambiguity and disorganization. However, s/he has to make important decisions concerning the choice of the material that he will exploit in the classroom. First, the material should lend itself to the practice of the targeted skills and thereby contribute to the realization of the established goals. Second, it should be appropriate to the learners' linguistic abilities. Third, and more importantly it should capture and maintain their interests and motivation in the target language. Therefore, for any material to be effective and to yield successful result, some criteria are to be taken into consideration.

1.13 Criteria for selecting of AM

Teachers who are going to exploit AM will have to look for appropriate resources that they can incorporate in their lessons (teaching).However, the sources of AM are inexhaustive and teachers are really overwhelmed by the number of varied sources. Indeed, introducing AM to the language classroom help in the development of learners' communicative competence through exposure to authentic discourse. In return, the pitfalls could be the variety of topics, complexity of content, and the length of the material which may be too challenging and may lead to discouragement. As a matter of fact, the role of the teacher remains decisive in terms of 'mediator' between the learner and the material. Hence, for any material to produce its desired results and to help the teacher reach his/her objectives, it should fulfill the requirements of a careful selection. A selection that we believe can be based on the following criteria:

- Authenticity: The materials and the tasks accompanying them should be perceived by the teacher and the learner's as having real communicative purpose.
- Accessibilty: The material should be within the learners' grasp and convenient for the teacher;
- Appropriateness: the material should meet the learners' age, level, needs and interests.
- Applicability: The material should suit the teaching context and makers the objectives attainable.
- Adaptability: The material should be adapted to the learners' level providing ease of manipulation for the both the text and the tasks based on it.

Moreover, in the decision about the selection of a given material Dumitrescco, (2000) believes that we have to take into consideration three important aspects of the learners' background

- Linguistic background: This has an influence on the material, the selection of the accompanying tasks, the way they are implemented and the skills and sub skills to be focused on
- Conceptual background: It determines which information should be generalized or specified in the material.
- Cultural background: learners need cultural insights about the material they are exposed to. Their schematic knowledge will eventually help them deal with the material. If they lack such type of knowledge, the teacher should introduce any cultural aspects relevant to the material. It also affects classroom interaction. The need for formality or informality for the interaction learners-teacher.

Other factors worth taking into consideration when selecting authentic materials for the classroom, are proposed by Thompson (1997) in the form of questions that constitute hints to guide teachers in their quest for the best material that could be appropriate to their teaching context.

Selecting Authentic Materials (Reading, Listening, Viewing)

1. Authenticity

- Authentic text: "One whose primary intent is to communicate meaning to native speakers of the language" (Swaffar)

2. Interest

- Topic: is the text or clip of sufficient interest to students
- -Presentation: is the presentation attractive enough to arouse interest?

3. Background Knowledge

- Do the students have at least some experience with the topic?
- What are the students' own cultural schemata for this text?
- What kind of pre-activities will be necessary?

4. Language

- Is the level of difficulty at, below, or slightly above the students' present level?
- What is the percentage of known and guessable items?
- Do the known and guessable items relate to the main ideas?
- Does the text contain a significant number of metaphors, symbols, hidden meanings, and/or idioms?
- Do the pre-activities need to include limited language preparation?

5. Text Organization

- Is the text organized in a clear way?
- Are there illustrations/typographic conventions/title(s) that support the text?

6. Special Considerations for Audio and Video Materials

- How long is the clip or segment?
- How is the sound quality? the rate of delivery? the register?
- How many speakers are involved?
- Do the visuals support the audio? Do they give everything away?
- Is this a timeless clip, with a universal topic?

7. Basic Principles of Receptive Skill Lesson Development

- -You don't necessarily simplify the text, you simplify the tasks.
- -Always define the task before reading/listening/viewing, so that students can look/listen for and find vs. look at/listen to and get lost.
- Remember that most tasks require a separate reading/listening, since our purpose for reading/listening determines how we read/listen.

- Design a hierarchy of tasks: pre-activities > global activities > specific information activities > linguistic activities > post activities.

In addition to the above mentioned selective features, the teacher may set basic criteria to facilitate the choice of the authentic material to be used. To do so, the teacher should follow the following evaluation process.

- Pre-evaluation of the learning objectives: The teacher should set goals so as to see to what extent the materials help in the attainment of his teaching goals. Different materials serve different objectives and permit the design of different learning activities.
- Testing the material to be used: For this purpose the set of criteria can be divided into two groups. There are those pertaining to the contents of the materials and those pertaining to the design, format and the type of material. The first category is of course, the most important since only reliable, accurate and objective sources can be used. It is also imperative that the materials whether printed, audio or video are attractive and well-designed. Furthermore, learners should not distract from the content by exaggerated accessories, irrelevant captions or useless pictures.

1.14 Learners'needs

In order to establish clear and attainable objectives as stated in the previous section, it is indispensable to take into account learners' needs. This why in recent years needs analysis has become a crucial step to any language material development. Different ways of conceptualizing needs have been proposed. Nunan (1988), for example makes a distinction between two types of learners' needs. Learner needs which answer the question: "why is the learner learning the language?" and the task needs which answer the question: "what does the learner need to say to carry out the real world task he needs to perform?

Not far from Nunan (1988), Richards (1990) proposes two kinds of needs analysis to be performed: situation analysis and communicative needs analysis.

Moreover, needs can be indentified through different means including questionnaire, class observation but most efficiently through direct class contact. Such a contact will enable teachers not only to diagnose his/her learners' strengths and weaknesses but also to observe their attitudes vis a vis the target language, the methodology used and the material presented. It has also been primordial in any ESP or EAP teaching context to focus on the strategies adopted by the learner for the mastery of the TL.It is then important to know that learners take in and process information in different ways and through different sensory channels. Therefore, teachers have to vary the types of language input and the activities accompanying them. In any case, it is through objective needs analysis that the practitioner can clearly identify her/his objectives and this we believe will certainly enable him to select the materials and grade them.

1.15 The teacher's roles

Most of the time, teachers show reluctance to bring AM into their classrooms. This is mainly due to the fact that AM require careful selection and special preparation to be used effectively in the language classroom.

We all know that AM are delivered in a natural and unsimplified state. It remains that it is up to the teacher to tame them and to make them within the learners' reach. As an input, such type of materials needs to be proceeded and refined. To do so, Spelleri (2002) believes that the teacher should perform the following roles:

- A filter: He presents language in a controlled manner and sufficient quantities to suit the learners' level, needs and interests.
- A culture guide: His role here is to introduce and to clarify any kind of cultural information which may occur in every AM.

- An objective chairman: Sometimes authentic items may lead to clashes in some discussions on certain topics; the teacher must be a fair and a sympathetic listener.

In fact, the role of the teacher is multiplied and shifts from being simply a transmitter of knowledge to become facilitator and guide of the learning process and integrator of new materials and designer of new teaching learning activities, collaborator, learner and evaluator. Moreover, the foreign language teacher has to master a number of skills and competencies in order to be able to integrate and adapt new materials in a successful way. Therefore, the acquisition of technical, organizational and conceptual skills has become indispensable to meet the demands of a new, open, global and flexible educational landscape. According to Harmer (2001) the teacher should possess the following characteristics: cognitive- reflexive, active-creative and affective-communicative. Referring to the teacher's profile, Cebrian (2003:78-79) thinks that the foreign language teacher should perform the following functions: assessor and guide of the autonomous learning process, resource facilitator, designer of new rich technology environments, adapter of different materials, producer of new didactic materials, evaluator of the different processes in which these environments end resources are involved.Finally,he/she will have to undergo a lifelong self training process in the use of the different technologies which is so essential for his/her career. We, therefore, acknowledge that due to the technological and information boom diverse and varied functions are imposed on the teacher. Harmer (2001:235-242) classified the roles the teacher would have to play as follows:

- The teacher as planner and facilitator of situations and suitable learning contexts
- Developer, creator and adapter of materials and resources
- Assessor, guide and facilitator of knowledge
- Evaluator

However, one of the greatest concerns of teachers towards using AM has been that of acquiring the necessary knowledge and competence to cope with the technological change. Despite this fact, many teachers consider they lack training in the usage of new media and the means of processing information, while aspects such as attitudinal and ideological contents have been left aside, difficulting to a great extent the development of critical and responsible attitudes towards ICT (Information Communication Technology). Educational institutions in our country have carried out an enormous effort in order to successfully integrate ICT into teaching and learning processes, although we could suggest that this has been done in a non-systematic way. Despite this fact, in the recent years the number of equipment in our schools and universities, the participation of teachers in training courses as well as the number of educational experiences concerning ICT has increased significantly.

1.16 Teacher's competencies

According to a report titled" The Impact of information and Communication Technologies on the Teaching of Foreign Languages" issued by the General Directorate of Education and Culture of the European Union a number of competencies and literacies are required from teachers and learners to participate in all spheres of life which of course, have changed a lot. Teacher should be encouraged to update, extend and acquire new skills so as to be better armed to meet changes in their workplace and society at large as well. They should also be given the opportunity to pass on their competencies to their learners. It is therefore vital for FL teachers to master the new literacies imposed by the ever-changing world. These required literacies according to BECTA (British Educational, communication and Technical Agency) can be classified as follows:

- Scientific literacy: In a world continually influenced and shaped by the development in science and technology, the teacher has to think scientifically.

Scientific literacy here relates to the ability to use scientific knowledge and to understand all the natural changes occurring in the world through human activity. That is to say that any teacher should update his scientific and technical knowledge.

- Digital literacy: This simply means the ability of the language teacher to use information and communication technologies. In other words, the ability to make use of the World Wide Web for language research to exploit these tools for teaching and learning purposes.
- Critical literacy: With the diversity of the sources of information in today's globalized world the teacher must be armed with the ability to search for the credibility, the usefulness and the reliability of any source.
- Cultural literacy: Any FL teacher should always be informed about the culture and the changes in the culture that occur in the society of the target language. This, of course, will come through observing and recording new cultural aspects and taking them into consideration into the teaching learning process.
- Linguistic literacy: The teacher should undergo a life-long self-development process which is so essential for the success for his/her teaching. This relates to the need to be informed about the new developments in the field of teaching and the ability to adapt them to her/his teaching context.

Moreover, research has shown that the foreign language teachers are among the most receptive to the inclusion of technology into their teaching. We are all aware of the growing potential of the communication technology within then framework of foreign language teaching. Therefore, teacher training and development is the key to successful exploitation of the new technologies for the benefit of foreign language teaching. In this respect, we would like to put forward some proposals so as to maximize the benefits and minimize the drawbacks of introducing the new technologies in the field of foreign language learning.

- The need to change the teacher's role
- The need of a life-long training in information communication technology in order to optimize its usage, to deepen upon its implications and potentialities as educational agents
- The need to acquire a digital culture by achieving a satisfactory use of the aforementioned competencies.

The integration of the new technological advances taking place in the society into education has become more than evident. Teachers are more than ever required to confront this situation and its new challenges by the mastery of all its tools and means. Aware of this situation and the radical changes it imposes on both the teacher and the learner, the ICC(suggests different proposals in order to promote the use of ICT and e learning in foreign language teaching. Among these proposals, we would like to mention those relevant to our research:

- Creation of workshops for the training of teachers and the promotion of the exchanges of experiences among colleagues
- Teacher training initiatives in order to provide a principled, meaningful approach to the development of new literacies mainly (digital, cultural and critical) such as the creation of dedicated websites.
- Development of new modules whose content should be updated and revisited periodically.

Among other proposals, I would also like to mention the recommendations issued by the Algerian ministry of higher education and scientific research which stress the necessity to "increase investment to continuous professional development of educators. Enhance their status and help them develop an understanding of pedagogy of e learning."

In fact, nowadays the role of the teacher is multiplied and shifts from being simply a transmitter of knowledge to become facilitator and guide of the learning process and integrator of new materials and designer of new teaching learning activities, collaborator, learner and evaluator.Moreover, the foreign language teacher has to master a number of skills and competencies in order to be able to integrate and adapt new materials in a successful way. Therefore, the acquisition of technical, organizational and conceptual skills has become indispensable to meet the demands of a new, open, global and flexible educational landscape.

1.17 Emergence of new technologies

The use of AM inevitably led to the incorporation of new technologies into the teaching learning process. These new technologies have generated new training modalities, new teaching and learning environment .Therefore, the need of training teachers in the mastery of technological skills has become fundamental. Many countries including Algeria have launched computer training sessions and equipped all the educational institutions with the internet.

Regarding the emerging technologies researchers such as Leloup and Ponterio (1996) state the benefit of instant messaging (IM), file swapping, mobile communication or video games and points out that as having very positive effects upon the development of computer literacy and learners' communicative skills. The same author also points out that the possibilities that these new tools offer to identify creation (games and chats), the enhancement of collaborative learning or in helping others in game strategies or fiction writing. It is also noteworthy that these technologies were not invented to assist language learning, however, they are being incorporated in both formal and informal learning. The emerging technologies refer to the use of the following tools: IM (Instant Message), SMS (Short Message Service), Moblogging, peer to peer networking and the Ipodpheneomenon.

It is then a primordial objective that teachers should acquire the necessary knowledge and competence to cope with this technological boom. In fact, most of our teachers at all education levels lack training in the usage of new media and the different means of processing information.

It is also true, that educational institutions have made enormous efforts to successfully integrate AM through communication technologies. Though this has been done in non systematic way. Despite this fact, in the recent years, the number of equipments in our schools and universities, the participation of our teachers in training courses have increased significantly.

Moreover, we believe that having more equipment in the educational centres and the training our teachers receive is sufficient to bring changes in the teaching learning process. Nowadays, there is a paradox in the fact that there exists a great variety of technologies as it had never occurred before. However, we find that educational processes still rely on two basic means: the textbooks and the teacher as a sole transmitter and information provider. The necessity of specific training related to the curricular and didactic usage of technological tools and to the design and creation of material more adapted to our educational needs is one of the problems. Nunan (1989) states that most training has been developed according to technical and instrumental criteria whereas other aspects such as references to their utilization, organization and didactic design have not been included. Leloup (1997:2) forcefully argues that “Today the quality of the educational product is to be found in the initial and life-long training and not in the unique acquisition and utilization of infrastructure.”

In this respect, BECTA, which is the British Educational, Communication and Technical Agency reports some of the attitudinal factors that hinders the use of information and communication technology. The report stated the following factors:

- Resource related factors
- Factors associated with training skills, knowledge and computer
- Attitudinal and personality factors
- Institutional and cultural factors

Thus, recent studies have classified the barriers associated to the use information technologies into two main stages. Those which have to do with the teacher's individual factors which we may call teacher level barriers and to which we have previously referred and to those factors which can be more straightforwardly related to the institutions which we may call school-level barriers. For or against the use of modern technologies, the debate is still going on. There are those who strongly believe in the role the information technologies in improving learning whereas the others who fear the loss of the traditional status and the degradation of professional skills. Therefore, with the advent of communication and information technology we are faced with two divergent views on the necessity to use such technologies in the field of education and more particularly in foreign language teaching. There are those who praise the traditional role of the teacher and who think that with these highly developed technologies will reduce the teacher's role and limits his /her powers in the classroom and who fear that many values will be lost. They believe that if technology dominates education many human features and moral values will gradually fade away such as the sense of responsibility, self-reliance to face life and even some cognitive abilities such as reasoning, analysing, etc…Teachers who are reluctant to use such technologies insist on the necessity of a teacher who will transmit knowledge and values. Ignorant of the benefits of incorporating these technologies in their teaching, teachers believe that no technology can substitute the teacher.

Others, who are more optimistic, seem to favour the inclusion of technology and are ready to provide convincing arguments to their less eager colleagues. They think that technology has become essential and should be integrated in the daily teaching practices. Moreover, we all share the assumption that we have to take the advantage of these highly sophisticated technologies especially in the field of foreign language teaching. We also know that we have to devote much more time for preparing and learning how to use these tools but the effort is worth doing if this will improve our learners' level and enhance communications and activate learners' participation in the foreign language class. Here, we can mention the endless efforts carried out by the educational authorities in our country in order to promote the introduction of the teaching and learning practices through the provision of infrastructure.

Nevertheless, barriers for the integration of communication technology still exist. We will mention those aspects which concern infrastructure and which range from existence of computer in the class to connectivity to ratio student computer to access to computer rooms, to support and help to carry out activities in the class. These barriers can be classified as follows:

- Infrastructure barriers: Infrastructure refers to all the facilities which should be made at the teacher's disposal in order to be able to introduce information and communication technologies into their teaching practices. Technical facilities include the availability of computers, connectivity to the net, technical endowments, ratio student per computer, adequate spaces to work in the classroom under good conditions and all the accessory equipment such as the DVD, multimedia kits for learners, laptops, wi-fi connections, webcams, microphones, loudspeakers…

- Attitudinal barriers: Due to the lack of training and instruction in the use of technological tools many teachers seem to be reluctant to use them and feel self-doubting and insecure. Another important factor which prevents most teachers to exploit these technologies is the lack of technical knowledge and the fear of not being able to solve unexpected technical matters. Very often teachers are afraid of changing their traditional role and reject the use of technology because they believe that it takes an enormous quantity of time before they are able to use and implement technology based activities. Others are worried by classroom discipline and think that learners will behave differently when dealing with these technological tools and will take them as fun activities rather than taking part in a normal language classroom.

Finally, it is noteworthy that the 21st century teachers have to face the new technological progress now central to the teaching and learning processes. Therefore, it is indispensable that teachers should evolve from an educational system where the teacher is seen as a static transmitter of knowledge to another, more updated role has emerged under the scope of the new technology-rich environment. At the same time, the teacher has to rethink all his /her tasks and assume the impact that new technologies are going to have upon his/her teaching practices. (Leloup:1997).The necessity that teachers acquire competency in the use of the new tools and telematic resources is once again made evident and in this sense educational administrations and universities are providing training programs to help teachers meet their needs. Similarly, learners need to acquire technical instruction and this is once more one of the teachers' roles.

1.18 One or many Englishes?

With the spread of the English language as global means of communication, the notion of authenticity in language teaching has considerably changed. With this worldwide expansion, many Englishes with varying forms, varying pronunciation, intonation, and grammar, vocabulary, spelling and conventions of use have appeared. Over a billion people are learning English as a foreign language and by 2016 this number will double and there will probably be more speakers of English as a foreign language than native speakers (Crystal 1997).This estimation is expected to climb to a staggering 80% of English used worldwide which does not involve native speakers. The result is that concepts such as 'native speakers' or 'standard English' are being seriously questioned more than ever before.

It is wrong then to assume that the term Standard English can be defined once and for all. The reason is that there is no world agreement on what should and what should not be included in such a 'standard'. It is nonetheless true as McArthur (2003:442) posits that Standard English exhibits three main features. i) It is easier to recognize in print because written conventions are similar worldwide; ii) it is usually used by news presenters; iii) its usage relates to the speakers social class and education. McArthur (ibid) also believes that standard English is "the variety most widely accepted, understood, and perhaps valued within an English speaking country". So, whether a variety is acceptable or not, correct or not is decided by each community. Therefore, an Irishman's definition of what is standard may contradict a Canadian's. The absence of a precise and agreed-upon definition poses a problem for both teachers and learners of English. The problem is what Standard English are learners supposed to learn? And what Standard English are teachers supposed to teach? In fact, even teaching such or such a standard English can have negative consequences on language learners since no standard English or native speaker model can be attainable by

ESL or EFL learners. Or as Cook (1999:187) argues “language learners can never become native speakers without being reborn”.

Therefore, we believe that it is no use insisting on one Standard English that devalues other varieties around the world. Instead, it is time to use the term world Englishes to talk about all the varieties of the English language. Kachru (1985) postulates that English can be categorized into three concentric circles: the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The inner circle refers to places like the UK and the USA.The outer circle represents the previously colonized countries and includes Nigeria, Singapore and India. The last circle is different from the previous one because English is used mainly for business, communication and international purposes. This circle includes countries such as China, Greece, Saudi Arabia, and represents the largest portion of English speakers round the world today.Kachru (1985:4) contends that today English sees “a unique cultural pluralism and a linguistic heterogeneity and diversity”. However, authors such as Graddol (1997:10) criticises Kachru’s (1985) ‘inner, outer and expanding circles’ model’ because it locates the ‘native speakers’ and native speaking countries at the centre of the global use of English, and by implication the sources of models of correctness’. Graddol (1997:12) also contends that this view is challenged “by the growing assertiveness of countries adopting English as a second language that English is now their language, through which they can express their own values and identities, create their own intellectual property and export goods and services to other countries”. Moreover, Widdowson (1994) thinks that the use of authentic language in the classroom has often been challenged because it is typically seen as the discourse produced by those in Kachru’s inner circle. In fact, this argument will soon cease to be valid if the definition of ‘native speaker’ expands to include all proficient of English of whatever variety. The question that arises then is: Whose authentic English should we use as a model?

Of course, this is not an easy question to answer since teaching local varieties of English is as problematic as teaching Standard English. Teachers often find difficulties as to what type of English to present to their students. Most of the time teachers do not take part in this kind of decision because this is already mandated by decision-makers. Nonetheless, we suggest that teachers should adopt a balanced approach to teaching English; an approach that is based on three key principles. First, they should pay attention not only to their teaching context but to their own abilities and style as well. According to McKay (2002:128) they should adopt an approach that is "to be culturally sensitive to the diversity of contexts in which English is taught and used". Whether or not teachers have their say in the choice of such or such a variety, many factors intervene in such a decision. As Petzold (2002:422-426) argues, "the specific variety choice is influenced by factors such as their teachers own education, attitudes towards the model, the model's prestige or usefulness, and availability of materials and texts." For example, the British Standard English is the target in the Doha English Speaking School in Qatar. This tendency may be influenced by historical factors. This is why Qataris follow the British curriculum and even hire teachers from the UK. Qataris also have greater access to British books and material and they tend to visit the UK more than any other English speaking countries. So ,in the choice of the target instruction we have to consider many variables We have also to bear in mind that there is no single appropriate choice for all contexts (Christensen1992).Thus it is up to the teachers to choose according to their context and their learners' needs.

Another important perspective in order to positively encourage learners to acquire the TL is to increase their confidence by showing them that their own English is as valuable as the English variety being taught. Rather than being considered as unsuccessful Standard English speakers, they can be thought of as language users who can bring their contribution to their speech community Cook (1999).Moreover, FL or SL learners should be prepared to use English with different speakers with different varieties of English. One good way to do so is by exposing to different varieties via different media including the Web, TV and radio programmes, and world newspapers. Teachers should also try to develop learners' strategic and intercultural competence. The former will help them negotiate for meaning in communication breakdowns. in other words, learners can be aware of the strategies of slowing down a conversation, asking for repetition or asking someone to wait while looking for a word. The latter would be useful in helping learners overcome sociolinguistic differences.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have seen that using authentic language resources has become more and more widespread over the last decades. As a matter of fact, many countries have emphasized the use of ample authentic materials. The increase in use of these materials in the FL classrooms can be explained by their effectiveness in providing invaluable sources of real language input that enables learners to interact with the real language and its content rather than its form. Considering this, it may not be wrong to say that authentic materials when appropriately selected and implemented can meet learners' needs and improve their communicative competence in the target language, which is a common problem among non native speakers.

Moreover, using authentic materials facilitates the shift from the classroom language learning to real language use outside the classroom. Learners are exposed to natural and real language with all its phonological paralinguistic and cultural features which our learners are likely to encounter in real life.

Besides, authentic materials are very important means for creating variety in the classroom and this leads to a greater interest which encourages learners to participate. Of course, learners' participation means successful comprehension of authentic materials which is essential in smoothly building up learners' confidence and motivation towards the target language .Ideally, a foreign language classroom should consist of an abundant exposure sustained by the teacher's reasonable guidance .In other words, a language classroom should consist of 70% of student-oriented activities and 30% of the teacher's demonstration and instruction. This is well articulated in Dulay et al (1982:3):

> Learning a second language can be exciting and productive…or painful and useless. One's efforts can end in the acquisition of native –like fluency or stumbling repertoire of sentences soon forgotten…The difference often lies in how one goes about learning a language and how a teacher goes about teaching it. To be successful a learner need not to have a special inborn talent for learning language. Learners and teachers need to" do it right.

Thus, we believe time is ripe for us to "do it right" and change our course of direction away from solely relying on those specially tailored pedagogical materials to a more realistic ready-to use language that we can find in authentic materials As a matter of fact, many educators favour the early use of authentic texts to trigger language acquisition and develop learners' language skills

Nonetheless, for AM to be efficient and fulfill their task a careful selection of materials, activities and procedures is required. So, the selection of such materials should be based on some specific criteria such as linguistic complexity, amount of information, length, speed of delivery, varieties of English accents and the objectives to be achieved. We also know that different authentic materials lend themselves to different types of tasks; therefore, practitioners should be cautious in designing tasks and activities that will eventually develop learners' communicative competence.

Finally, we can say that though AM cannot transform language learning by itself, they can become a remarkable resource of input for language teachers. They can create a motivating learning environment and improve foreign learners' communicative competence.

Chapter Two

Developing FL Learners' Pragmatic Competence in Instructional Contexts

Introduction

The notion of communicative competence developed in the 1970' and 1980's in parallel with calls for greater authenticity in the literature. This was prompted by research in sociolinguistics on the profession and growing concern that language cannot be studied separated from its context. Therefore, learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in order to be communicatively competent in the TL became the main concern of SLA.The aim of this chapter is to present some of the theoretical background on which research into pragmatics has been based. So, we will deal with the concept of pragmatics and its underlying areas of study. We will try to cover areas such as conversational implicature, the speech act theory, the politeness theory. Besides, in an endeavour to define pragmatics, we will see what characterizes it from its neighbours in particular, semantics and syntax. Our other concern will also be the development of different frameworks of communicative competence, namely those of Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Bachman (1990), Celce-Murcia (1995), Uso-Juan and Martinez-flor (2006).We will pay attention to those which deal with pragmatic competence as their essential component. Moreover, we will present an overview of the studies that were carried out to date in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP henceforth) in both FL and SL context. These reviews include current works carried out by scholars such as Kasper, Schmidt, Takahashi, Rose and Bardovi-Harlig.

2.1 Historical background

As a branch of linguistics, pragmatics has only recently become an independent field of research. Although it is a relatively new branch of linguistics research on it can be dated back to the ancient Greece and Rome where the term 'pragmaticus' is found in Latin and ‘pragmaticos’ in Greek meaning both meaning being practical. In fact, modern use and current practice of pragmatics is credited to the influence of the American philosophical doctrine of pragmatism. Over the last decades pragmatics has become a very important branch of linguistics due to the inadequacies of the previous purely formalist and abstract approaches to the study of language. The roots of pragmatics are to be traced back into the roots of semiotics. The philosopher Charles Morris (1938) developed a science of signs that was called semiotics which refers to the study of signs and symbol systems. The term semiotics then may be applicable not only to the study of artificial signs such as traffic signs ,or signs of animal communication but human language as well.However,work on pragmatics has been particularly conducted on human language ,or ‘natural language’ to use logicians’ terms. Charles Morris (1938) (quoted by Levinson,1983:1) was the first to coin the term pragmatics which he defines it ‘as the scientific study of the properties of signalling systems, whether natural or artificial’.According to the same author semiotics can be divided into three main areas, namely syntactics or syntax, semantics and pragmatics. For him, syntax studies the relation of signs to one another. In other words, it refers to the grammatically acceptable sequences since it involves the study of well-formed sentences. Semantics deals with the meaning of lexical items and studies signs in relation to their so-called designata or what they refer to.Finally, pramatics and refers to the semiotic relationship between sign and sign users. For Morris (1938) then semantics studies the relation of signs to the objects to which they are applicable, syntax studies the formal relation of signs to one another and pragmatics as being the semiotic relationship between sign and sign users. Not far from this, Yule (2008:4) considers pragmatics as the relationship between linguistic forms and the human being who uses those forms.

In fact, the study of language in use or pragmatics became a discipline with its specific field of research only around the 1970's.Seminal works by scholars such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975) immensely contributed to develop what became known as an important science of language of great relevance. Pragmatics was therefore established as a new paradigm with its key principles which utterly contradicts the previous purely structuralist and generativist theories. It should be noted that previous research conducted by Saussure (1959) or Chomsky (1965) concentrated only on isolated linguistic forms and structures. Neither Saussure’s concept of language and parole nor Chomsky's notions of competence and performance took into account the real use of language in a particular context. Contrary to Chomskyan theory which was based on the independence of grammar from the users, pragmatics concentrates on meaning in use rather than on meaning in the abstract. The two paradigms did not take into consideration the communicative dimension of language.

Therefore, as Levinson (1983) argues pragmatics came not only as a reaction to Chomsky's use of language as an abstract construct but to bridge the gap between existing linguistic theories of language and the necessity to concentrate on linguistic communication. Leech (1983) advocated the shift of direction within linguistics away from competence towards performance with the creation of a new paradigm. This new paradigm that is pragmatics focused on meaning in use rather than on meaning in the abstract.

With focus on meaning in use and naturally occurring conversation appeared Grice's cooperative principle (1975) and the politeness principle by Leech (1983).Subsequent works by Green (1989) and his definition of pragmatics as natural language understanding gave birth to Blackmore's ‘Understanding Utterances’ (1992) and Grundy's ‘Doing Pragmatics' (1995).Pragmatics also led to crosslinguistic instructional studies of language use which resulted in among other things Sperber and Wilson's (1986) relevance theory which explains how people comprehend and utter a communicative act. Today, pragmatics is considered as an independent subfield of linguistics dealing with how people comprehend and produce a communication act or a speech act in a concrete speech situation.

Pragmatics, however, as a newly established branch of linguistics was not born without its own discrepancies. The study of language in use resulted in some difficulties which were later experienced by linguists when they started to apply pragmatic models to the analysis of stretches of naturally-occurring discourse. In addition to this, the boundaries between pragmatics and other areas have not been clear-cut. Therefore, the concern of pragmatics has been on areas between semantics, sociolinguistics and extra linguistic context.However, in order to limit the scope of pragmatics and to delimit its field of research many terms have been used for the classification of the wide range of topics dealt within pragmatics. Leech for example (1983:10-11) uses the term pragmalinguistics to refer to 'the more linguistic end of pragmatics" and sociopragmatics which he describes as 'the social interface of pragmatics'. These two aspects will be dealt with in details in section 2.4**.** Leech (ibid) also uses the term 'general pragmatics' to refer to the so-called "abstract study of the general conditions of the communicative use of language, and to exclude more specific 'local' conditions on language use". In line with Leech (1983), Crystal (1987:310) introduces the notion of 'applied pragmatics' which is 'the study of verbal interaction in such domains as counseling, judicial sessions, medical interviews, where problems of communication are of crucial importance. Crystal (ibid: 233) also makes use of the term 'literary pragmatics' to refer to the study of the relationship of the 'production and reception of literary texts to their use in linguistic forms'. This field of research involves an interaction between linguistics, literary theory, and the philosophy of language. In a nutshell, the shift of direction within linguistics away from competence to performance led to the blossoming of a new field of linguistic inquiry called pragmatics. This concept will be extensively described in the coming section.

2.2 Defining pragmatics

Pragma is etymologically traced back to the Greek language and refers to activity, deed, affairs (Trosborg, 1995:5). However, linguistic pragmatics is to be distinguished from non-linguistic pragmatics, i.e. the domains of sociologist, psychologist ethno-methodologist, and so on. The historical development in linguistic studies showed that pragmatics came as a reaction to the Saussurian structuralist paradigm and the Chomskyan generative transformational grammar which merely accounted for an ideal grammatical knowledge shared by the native speakers of a given language. Neither of the two paradigms took into account the real use of language. In other words, they did not regard the notion of communication. Therefore, in order to give a thorough definition to pragmatics Alcaraz (1990:117) believes that we should bear in mind the following main criteria:

- The use of language as means of communication
- The importance of language use focusing as functions rather than on forms
- The study of the process which occur in communication
- The importance of context and authentic language use
- The interdisciplinary nature of pragmatics
- The application of linguistic theories based on the concept of communicative competence

In fact, there exist a myriad of definitions from different perspective in the literature. Since its appearance pragmatics has been defined by many scholars and in various ways reflecting authors' theoretical orientation and audience. Most definitions agree on the fact that interpretation of words varies to the specific context in which they are said. Stalnaker (1972:383) for instance, views pragmatics as "the study of linguistic acts and the context in which they are performed". For Roberts, Davies and Jupp (1992) pragmatics is centrally concerned not only with of words but with meaning intended by the speaker and interpreted by the listener. Yule (2008:4) views pragmatics as "the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and the users of those forms".Not far from this, Searle, Kiefer, and Biertwisch (1980) defined pragmatics as being concerned with the conditions according to which speakers and hearers determine the context and use-dependent utterance meanings. To illustrate the role of context in defining pragmatics Grundy (1995:45) thinks that:

> Pragmatics is a way of investigating how sense can be made of certain texts even when, from a semantic viewpoint, the text seems to be either incomplete or to have a different meaning to what is really intended .Consider a sign seen in a children's wear shop window: "Baby Sale – lots of bargains". We know without asking that there are no babies are for sale – that what is for sale are items used for babies. Pragmatics allows us to investigate how this 'meaning beyond the words' can be understood without ambiguity. The extra meaning is there, not because of the semantic aspects of the word themselves, but because we share certain contextual knowledge with the writer of the speaker of the text.

Context was also mentioned by Wunderlich (1980:304) as he suggests that "pragmatics deals with the interpretation of utterances in a richer context". According to Levinson (1983:24) pragmatics is "the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate". In his turn, Leech (1983) thinks that pragmatics can be defined as the study of the uses and meanings of utterances to their situations.

All the above definitions converge towards two main aspects of pragmatics which makes it different from other discipline such as syntax and semantics. Pragmatics focuses not only on the users of the language but on the context in which these users interact. The result was that context became a key concept when dealing with pragmatics. Yule (2008:4) describes pragmatics as 'the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms'. He believes that the primary concerns of pragmatics are both the speaker meaning and the contextual meaning. In the same line and in Lo Castro's (2003:12) words pragmatics deals with 'how utterances have meaning in the context of situation'. Kasper (1997a:1) define pragmatics as 'the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context'. Pragmatics makes the distinction between two intents or meanings in each utterance or communicative act of verbal communication. One is the informative intent of the sentence meaning and the other is the communicative intent or speaker meaning (Leech, 1983; Sperber and Wilson, 1986).One of the definitions that we think is the most elaborate and that appeals to us mainly for its usefulness for SL and FL teaching was proposed by Crystal (1985:240) who defines pragmatics as:

> The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

The above definition analyses pragmatics from two main perspectives namely, those of users and context in the process of communication. It also takes into account the choices speakers can make when using the language depending on the social interaction of their communication. This is because in the process of communication the focus is not only on the speakers' intentions but, on the effects of those intentions on the hearers as well. Therefore, pragmatics is considered as the study of meaning in interaction rather than the analysis of level sentences. Authors such as Thomas (1995) and Lo Castro (2003) advocate that using language in communication involves not only the speaker's performance but also the hearer's perception and interpretation of the speaker's utterances. Thomas (ibid.), as many other scholars views pragmatics as meaning in interaction. He thinks that pragmatics involves three main processes: those of the negotiation of meaning between the speaker and hearer, the context of utterance, whether physical or linguistic, and the meaning potential of an utterance. Furthermore, Lo Castro (2003) succinctly sustains that pragmatics is related to meaning in interaction instead of forms of analysis that only deals with levels of sentence meaning. Therefore, Lo Castro (2003:16) considers that pragmatics is characterized by the following features:

> Meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers. Context includes both linguistic (co-text) and non-linguistic aspects. Choices made by the users of language are an important concern. Constraints in using language in social action (who can say what to whom) are significant. The effects of choices on coparticipants are analysed.

Moreover, most studies focused on the social and psychological factors that intervene in both the generation and interpretation of utterances. Early studies in pragmatics gave much importance to one of these factors at the expense of the psychological and social approaches. The former has to do with utterance meaning and is particularly concerned with the receiver of the message, while the latter concentrates on the speaker meaning. Sperber and Wilson's (1980) relevance theory for instance, limits the scope of pragmatics what can be said in terms of cognitively defined notion of relevance. Blackmore (1992) adopts a cognitive approach and refuses to combine both the cognitive and social approach in the field of pragmatic studies.

However, many other authors have a different standpoint and focus on the social approach leaving out the cognitive one. For Crystal (1985:212) for example, "Pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects our choice on others". Mey (1993:42)), also leaves out the cognitive approach and adopts a social approach as he contends that: "Pragmatics is the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society". In much the same way, Parret et al (1980:3) speak of pragmatics as ‘‘ la science qui reconstruit le language comme phénomène communicatif, intersubjectif et social ’’. In line with Mey (1993), scholars such as Grice (1975) in his model of logic and conversation and Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness theory all firmly focus their attention on the producer of the message rather than the receiver. In fact, as Thomas (1995) argues, pragmatics cannot be limited to only a speaker-oriented or hearer-oriented approach. In other words, she favours a social, psychological and cognitive approach to pragmatics. The same view was expressed by Lo Castro (2003:15) who views pragmatics as being: ‘the study of speaker and hearer meaning created in their joint actions that includes both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organized activities’. All the definition discussed so far share the basic idea that pragmatics is “ the study of language in use”(Verschueren 1999:1),or ‘the science of language in relation to its users’(Mey,1993:5).In sum, pragmatics as a new subfield in linguistics has to take into account both the cognitive and the social aspect in exploring language use.

As a relatively new area of linguistics, pragamtics became a recognized field with the publication in 1983, Leech's *‘Principles of Pragmatics’* and Levinson's ‘*Pragmatics’*. The contribution of these two books was very important but they met neither the learners' needs nor second or foreign language teachers who did not have a considerable background in linguistics. Therefore, we assume that students whether undergraduate or graduate levels, students who are preparing to teach languages as well as experienced teachers who need to update their knowledge in linguistics need insights about pragmatics. As a result of the expanding interest in the cognitive and social dimensions of language use beyond single sentence, both teachers and learners cannot ignore pragmatics. For language teachers a solid knowledge of pragmatics is crucial in developing their learners' communicative competence. As long as language learning consisted of acquiring phonology, syntax and vocabulary of the second or foreign language, demands on the teacher were relatively limited and those on the learners potentially attainable. Thanks to the advent of modern approaches in language teaching which reflect research in second language acquisition, practitioners need to expand their knowledge about language and linguistics as well as their competencies as facilitators, in particular with the language teaching approach. To Today, teachers are supposed to teach how to speak and how to write the second language and to train their learner to use the target language in situationally appropriate ways.

Many researches in second language acquisition revealed that languages can only be learned in interactions where meaning is negotiated with native and non-native speakers. Learners need to know how to ask questions in the second or foreign language seek clarifications or confirmation of their understanding and sort out misunderstandings. In fact, learners acquire the second or foreign language by interacting with it. Thus learning a language, entails knowing more than the correct pronunciation, grammar and lexis of the target language. So, mastering a second or foreign language requires more than the linguistic knowledge. Learners need to acquire what has come to be called communicative competence.

Moreover, an understanding of pragmatics will benefit language teachers that it is not their mother tongue or working with learners outside the target language community. A knowledge of pragmatics will certainly stretch teachers' roles in developing the pragmatic abilities of their learners. In second language contexts, with an acquisition rich environment outside the classroom, teachers and learners can anticipate exposure that supports classroom activities. However; the foreign language environment raises the need for a comprehensive understanding of pragmatics and its importance in developing language proficiency.

2.3 The problem of delimitation

As a new paradigm in the field of linguistics, pragmatics is obliged to come up with a new definition of its object of research. Would this object of research in question cover language, in its old versus its new interpretation? In other words, does pragmatics study language as a human product or language in its human use? In this case, we will have to divide the study of language into two independent fields: One dealing with the description of its structure and the other dealing with the description of its use. In this sense, the proper domain of pragmatics would be what Chomsky has called performance i.e. the way an individual goes about using the language. Of course, this must be distinguished from competence which refers to the user's knowledge of the language and its rules. Katz (1977:19) neatly explains this by saying that: "Grammars are theories about the structure of sentence type. Pragmatic theories in contrast, explicate the reasoning of speakers and hearers". The question that still remains unanswered is how to delimit pragmatics vis-a-vis syntax and semantics? What role does pragmatics play in the so-called hyphenated areas of research (psych, neuro, socio, ethno…etc linguistics?).How is pragmatics influenced by the newer areas of research such as computational linguistics, discourse analyses not to forget the vast field of applied linguistics? However, in any attempt to delineate pragmatics from other neighbouring concepts, the language user remains in the center of attention of pragmatics. Therefore, the language user's point of view remains an essential orienting feature of the domain of research of pragmatics.

It is also noteworthy that there are different interpretations of the term 'use of language' as well as what is implied by the language user. Language use can be seen as whatever happens when users are 'doing things with words' or more explicitly pragmatics would refer to a user whenever language is discussed. Levinson (1983:21) for example, demands that "explicit reference be made to the speakers, or to put it in more general terms, to the user of the language". Levinson (ibid) also suggests considering pragmatics as being "the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language". "Grammaticalization" according to Levinson accepts only those uses of language as pragmatically relevant that have a distinct grammatical expression that is to say they operate with phonological, morphological and syntactic element under the direction of grammar rules. Or putting it in another way, Levinson says that pragmatics is the study of just those aspects of the relationship between language and context that are relevant to the writing of grammars. This explanation goes against Katz and Fodor's proposal that would restrict pragmatics to the study of grammatically irrelevant aspects of language usage. Katz (1977) suggests that a theory of pragmatics or a theory of “Setting Selection” as he called it would essentially be concerned with the disambiguation of sentences by the contexts in which they were uttered. They claim that grammar – including phonology, syntax and semantics – is concerned with the context-free assignment of meaning to linguistic forms while pragmatics is concerned with the further interpretation of those forms in a context. Katz (1977:14) contends that:

> Grammars represent meaning because the meaning of a sentence in the language is the meaning it has by virtue of its having a particular grammatical structure. Pragmatic theories represent utterance meaning because the meaning of an utterance is the meaning it has by virtue of its being a specific spatio-temporal occurrence of a sentence in a particular contextual structure.

Another point of view suggests that pragmatics comprises everything that characterizes people as users of language and takes language as whatever happens when users are 'doing things' in and with language. Some authors like Levinson (1983) however, have considered this as “a broad sense of the term pragmatics”. Yes, broad but we believe that this is a natural extension of the concept of pragmatics as a theory of use. This idea as Mey (1993:41) comments “rests on the assumptions that the language users, being members of society, depend on the rules and norms that are valid at any time, in any place, in the community they belong to”. Therefore, restricting pragmatics to purely linguistic matter is not an acceptable approach especially for those who want to include the whole of human language use. A truly pragmatic consideration has to deal with the users in their context. So, pragmatics cannot be limited to the grammatically encoded aspects of contexts as it is required by grammaticalization.In the society at large people communicate chiefly by means of language. As users of language humans as social beings communicate and use language under the society's control and following social norms. Therefore, we can say that pragmatics is the study the way humans use language in communication, and bases itself on the study of those norms and premises and determines how they affect human language. Thus we agree with Mey (ibid: 42) as he argues that: “Pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the context of society”.

Having suggested this definition our coming task is to find out what characterizes pragmatics in relation to its neighbours. As we all know, defining means setting an end or a boundary. Therefore, defining pragmatics means determining its frontiers with other adjacent field of research. However, all the definitions discussed in this section or in the previous section do not delimit pragmatics. Some definition were purely linguistically oriented while others try to incorporate the social dimension but they all remain vague as regards to the relation between pragmatics and other areas of linguistics. Another important fact is that it is too difficult to set clear boundaries if we know that pragmatics is in constant development.Moreover, many linguists view pragmatics as a component of linguistic theory, complementary to semantics and/or grammar. Leech (1983:4) believes that: “grammar (the abstract formal system of language) and pragmatics (the principles of language use) are complementary domains within linguistics”. The same author (ibid: 6) rejects the idea of delimitation and advocates complementarity between pragmatics and its closest linguistic neighbours as a solution to this problem. He says:

> The view that semantics and pragmatics are distinct though complementary and interrelated fields of study, is easy to appreciate subjectively, but is more difficult to justify in an objective way. It is best supported negatively, by pointing out the failures and weaknesses of alternative views.

Many authors have defined semantics as the study of the meaning of words and sentences while pragmatics as the study of the meaning of utterances, or speakers' meaning. In other words, both semantics and pragmatics deal with meaning of linguistics expressions but pragmatics takes the interlocutors, the speaker and the hearer, as the focus of attention, whereas semantics focuses on linguistic expressions. The distinctive feature of these two subdisciplines of linguistics is based on the context of discourse since pragmatics studies the contribution of context whether linguistic or situational. However, an extreme criticism made by Marshal (cited in Shi Cun, 1989) was that pragmatics is not eligible as an independent field of learning since meaning is already dealt with in semantics. To this statement Levinson (1983:32) replies by an extended discussion of the issue and came up with the following conclusion "Pragmatics is the study of all those aspects of meaning not captured in semantic theory". Or as the same author argues "Pragmatics is meaning minus semantics". This simply implies that there are some meaning facets that are left unaccounted and which pragmatics takes into charge. According to Leech (1983:11):

> Meaning in pragmatics is defined relative to a speaker or user of the language, whereas meaning in semantics is defined purely as a property of expressions in a given language, in abstraction from particular situations, speakers, or hearers.

To find a solution to this dilemma, Leech (ibid.) as mentioned earlier in this section, advocates complementarity and distinguishes three possible ways of structuring Semanticism(pragmatics inside semantics).2) Pragmaticism (semantics inside pragmatics). 3) Complementarism (semantics and pragmatics complement each other, but are independent areas of research).A good instance of semanticism, is the way people such as Searle dealt with the problem of speech acts. An example of this is when we utter a promise, do we then make a promise because of the semantic of the verb 'to promise', or because of its active pragmatic character. The former solution seems to force us into what can be called a real pragma-semantic chimera. Austin (1962) however, dealt with the problem in a different way. For this author the only real issue was the effect that our words have when uttered, and then things we are able to do with them. Using Leech's terminology this means that the pragmatic aspect of language is the only interesting one.

Furthermore, professionally established syntacticians and semanticists want to continue doing their work in their accustomed ways and as soon as some people start telling them how to do their linguistics, their territorial integrity is in danger. This is why traditionally oriented linguists prefer to assign pragmatics to a quiet corner, preferably outside of linguistics proper; here, pragmaticists can do their job in a complementary relationships with the rest but still distinguished from it. This last alternative seems to be the right solution to this boundary problem. In his discussion of the relationship between semantics and pragmatics, Levinson (1983:15) notes that:

> From what we now know about the nature of meaning, a hybrid or modular account seems inescapable; there remains the hope that with two components, a semantics and pragmatics working in tandem each can be built on relatively homogeneous and systematic lines.

From what has been said earlier, we can say that pragmatics as a general area of linguistics covers a wide range of language aspects such as deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, conversational structures, relevance theory, speech act theory, and politeness theory. Thus traditional criticism to pragmatics is that it does not have a clear-cut focus and many researchers have considered it as a wastebasket. For instance, Leech (1983) considers it as a "garbage can" a waste basket. Some even think that its principles are fuzzy and vague and do not consider that it as legible as an independent discipline of learning since meaning has been dealt within semantics.

Nonetheless, there is a general agreement today that pragmatics is indispensable because it deals with meanings that semantics only overlooks (leech,1983).The same view has been expressed by Thomas (1995) who thinks that meaning is bound to the interaction taking place. Despite such criticism, pragmatics has provided illuminating explanations into sociolinguistic conduct such as person to person interaction, the choice of the linguistic means for communicative act and the various interpretation of the same speech act. Studies in pragmatics have also had their implications on language teaching and pragmatic principles are gaining ground in language classrooms.

2.4 The components of pragmatics

So far, we have defined pragmatics as being a general discipline. We have also outlined its characteristics stating that its main concern is using language for communication. We said that pragmatics deals with real language use with regard to three key concepts which include users, interaction and the context of interaction, real language or communication may be applied to pragmatics. However, scholars such as Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) think that it is not a unitary field and proposed to subdivide it into two main areas of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.

2.4.1 Pragmalinguistics

It is also called the grammatical side of pragmatics and refers to the speaker's ability to comprehend and produce communicative intent in a given context based on knowledge of phrases typically used by NSs to express speech acts such as requests, apologies, refusals and son on. Pragmalinguistics represents the resources used in conveying particular communication acts. Such resources include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routine and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts. This competence describes a speaker's ability to interpret illocutionary force, or conversational implicature of utterances such as understanding that: 'will you open the window?' does not express futurity but rather a request. Neither is it a question to which we will make a rejoinder as yes or no.

According to Thomas (1983), pragmalinguistics has to do with "highly conventionalized usage of the language to convey communicative intentions". In order to clarify this concept, Cohen (1996:22) uses the term sociolinguistic ability for pragmalinguistics and defines it as follows:

> Sociolinguistic ability refers to the respondent's skill at selecting appropriate linguistic forms to express the particular strategy used to realize the speech act (e.g. expression of regret in an apology, registration for a grievance in a complaint, specification of the objective of a request, or the refusal of an invitation).Sociolinguistic ability is the speaker's control over the actual language forms used to realize a speech act (e.g.," sorry" vs. "excuse me", "really sorry" vs." very sorry", as well as their control of register or formality of the utterance from most intimate to most formal language.

Following this, Thomas (1983:101) contends that pragmatic failure which is the inability to understand what is meant by what is said occurs when "when the pragmatic force mapped on to a linguistic token or structure is systematically different from that normally assigned to it by native speakers". As far as this aspect of language is concerned, most research revealed a flagrant lack of pragmatics models in EFL syllabuses or coursebooks.This due to the fact that most syllabi writers and material developers rely on intuitions about language rather than on empirical research. As result, in teaching a foreign language was on imparting lexicogrammatical knowledge at the expense of pragmatics. Textbooks were criticized for lacking contextualization and authenticity, without which it is impossible for learners to know in what situations, and with whom, the TL is appropriate. Therefore, we believe that material developers should rely on spontaneous authentic interaction rather than intuition when making textbooks in order to reflect the sociopragmatic knowledge of a culture.

2.4.2 Sociopragmatics

As defined by Leech (1983:10) it is “the sociological interface of pragmatics”. It deals with the relationship between linguistic action and social structure. In fact, Sociopragmatics is the social side of communication ,since it refers to social conditions governing language use like perception of relative power, status, social distance and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson,1987),as well as mutual rights and obligations ,taboos and conventional procedures (Thomas,1983) that influence the type of linguistic acts and how they are performed. In other words, it is the speaker’s knowledge of what is socially or culturally appropriate in a particular speech community. It includes appreciation of politeness and social conventions, taboo topics and non verbal factors such as kinesics and proxemics. A more elaborate definition of the concept is proposed by Cohen (1996:23) in which he substitutes the term sociopragmatics with the term sociocultural ability. This definition runs as follows:

> Sociocultural ability refers to the respondents’ skill at selecting speech acts strategies which are appropriate given (1) the culture involved, (2) the age and sex of the speakers,(3) their social class and occupations, and(4),their roles and status in the interaction.

Research in the field of sociopragmatics has revealed significant variation in behavioural norms around the world and which result in miscommunication, negative stereotyping and clashes when various cultural groups interact with each other. Most of the time this results in sociopragmatic failure which in fact poses serious problems to NNSs while linguistic difficulties are generally tolerated and normally recognized, sociopragmatic failures are harder to identify because of cultural differences between participants. On this aspect of pragmatic failure Gumperz (1982:131) thinks that:

> It is important to note that when this happens and when a difference in interpretation is brought to a participant’s attention, it tends to be seen in attitudinal terms. A speaker is said to be unfriendly, impertinent, rude, imcoperative, or to fail to understand.

A good instance of miscommunication is what may happen between different ethnic groups in the TL community. This is called sociopragmatic failure and has to do with knowing “what to say” and “to whom to say it”. For example, while Athabaskans who live in North America generally start a conversion and give the turn to their interlocutors, English people have a different rule where the initiator keeps the turn. This can result in negative stereotyping and with the English people being perceived as dominating and that Athabaskans as aloof. Another good example proposed by (Neu, 1990) illustrates differences in non-verbal competence of Japanese and a Saudi student which has a negative effect on their assessment in oral interviews. Neu (ibid) also suggest the non-verbal communication should have greater role in language learning. A very interesting case reported by Gumperz (1982) are the newly employed Indians or Pakistani ladies who work in a British airport serving food in the canteen and who use a falling intonation on questions such as ”Meat?” However NNSs interpreted this as a statement rather than an offer and was perceived as unhelpful or grumpy. Gestures, facial expressions, gaze, spatial behaviour and touch can also represent cultural variations in non-verbal communication. Argyle (1988:49) explains that cultural differences in non-verbal communication are “a major source of friction, misunderstanding, and annoyance between cultural and national groups”. Bailey (1997) examined the differences between Korean retailers and their African customers during service encounters. He discovered that while Korean storekeepers preferred a less involved, transactional style in the encounters, their African American customers tended towards a more personal, interactional style of communication. In Thai cultures teachers are perceived as having a higher status than in English speaking countries. Therefore, Asian students often behave more deferentially to teachers than Western students normally do and sociopragmatic failure occurs to the influence of L1 culture. This sociopragmatic failure occurs when language learners use inappropriate communicative acts which they transfer from L1 to L2.

Researchers in the field of SLA and sociolinguistics claim that in order to achieve a native- like competence, language learners should acquire the rules of language use and ways of speaking as well as linguistic competence (Gumperz, 1982, Wolfson, 1983).It is true that grammatical competence is an essential pre-requisite but its inappropriate use in context often results in interpersonal communication breakdowns. According to Thomas (1983), there are two kinds of failures. On the one hand, we have pragmalinguistic failure which manifests itself in linguistic problems owing to differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force. On the other hand, we have sociopragmatic failure which results from cross-culturally different perceptions of what forms linguistic behaviour. It is on this basis that authors such as Trosborg (1995) and Kasper (2001c) advocate raising learners' awareness of appropriate pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic behaviour through explicit instruction. Bardovi-Harlig (1999a:19) believes that pragmatic and grammatical awareness as totally independent and contends that "high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee high levels of pragmatic competence". He further consolidates his standpoint by saying that: "research has not established that pragmatic competence is independent of grammatical competence. Although grammatical competence may not be a sufficient condition for pragmatic development, it may be a necessary condition".

Moreover, Trosborg (1995) views sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics as belonging to sociolinguistics. He believes that what constitutes the scope of pragmatics are sociopragmatics , contrastive pragmatics and ILP (interlanguage pragmatics).The first one has to do with of speech acts in relation to social situations whereas contrastive pragmatics has developed in the field of crosscultural pragmatics concerned with contrasting pragmatics across cultural communities. The last discipline; ILP has been defined by

Kasper and Blum Kulka (1993:3) as “the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context”.

2.5 How can AM develop pragmatic competence?

Developing learners' pragmatic competence in the target language requires presenting rich and contextually appropriate input. According to Ellis (1994), the development of pragmatic competence depends on providing learners with sufficient and appropriate input for their cognitive processes to be able to turn input into intake and implicit knowledge.Krashen (1982) in his input hypothesis regards comprehensible input as a fundamental element for the acquisition to take place. Allright and Bailey (1991:20) define input as “the language which the learners hear or read – that is the language samples to which they are exposed”. Therefore, the context in which language is learned is very important in terms of both quality and quantity. Learners being in direct contact with the TL community can easily develop their pragmatic ability. In contrast to SL learners, FL learners lack this kind of exposure which can constitute a real disadvantage since they rely exclusively on the input provided by their teachers, the teaching materials and their mates.

As a first source of input, the teacher talk tends generally to be modified to the learners' levels and needs. This kind of language involves a simplified register, syntactic simplifications, short utterances and simplified phonological features. However, teachers who are considered to be models that provide learners with the rules of politeness or the formulaic expressions and the linguistic forms depending on the social parameters themselves seem to lack this very pragmatic ability. Several studies have shown that input provided by teachers rarely reflect any pragmatic aspects of the language. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) for example, states that the requests teachers made to the learners were status bound, therefore, they could not serve as models for learners. Lorscher and Shultze (1988) who conducted a study on the teacher's talk found that the teacher's transactional style were neither appropriate models of politeness nor ways of mitigating or intensifying speech acts in English. Another study conducted by Nikula (2002) revealed that a high use of direct strategies by teachers and the authoritative role of the teachers and their status as non native speakers might be the cause. Consequently; most teachers have a limited repertoire of expressions to adjust their talk.

Therefore, we do agree with Kasper (1997b) and Bardovi-Harlig (1992, 96, and 2001) who insist on the development of training programmes for teachers to improve their talk and use appropriate materials to develop their learners' pragmatic acquisition. Thus, it has become obvious that the classroom discourse in its classical format does not sufficiently provide learners with what they need to communicate in the world at large.

In fact, what our learners need to acquire both the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence is an immersion in the target language through various sources of oral and written data, ranging from "native speaker guests"(Bardovi-Harlig et al 1991) to video of authentic interaction, feature films (Rose,1997) and other fictional and non fictional written and audiovisual sources. So, we believe that bringing AM into the classroom will certainly offer learners a wider exposure to pragmatic input. As Bardovi-Harlig (1996:34) puts it:

> It is important that learners observe native speakers in action. For instance, they could observe how native speakers express gratitude, how they compliment, how they thank, what linguistic formulae are used in different social contexts, the degree of formality, speakers and hearers' status and familiarity.

The incorporation of adequate AM to develop pragmatic competence is vital especially in a confined foreign language learning context. For that reason, Boxer (2003) thinks it is only when spontaneous speech is captured in authentic data for language material that we might begin the strategies of speech behaviour. Therefore, for students to acquire pragmatic ability i.e. the ability to produce and comprehend the TL in its sociocultural context, they need exposure to AM in authentic communication situations. The demand for pragmatic input via AM is particularly indispensable when university students are concerned, since at this level students are supposed to have acquired an acceptable linguistic proficiency level. As a newly established independent subfield of linguistics, pragmatics has been greatly influenced by the philosophical doctrine of pragmatism. In contrast to neighbouring disciplines, pragmatics focuses on speaker-hearer interaction, the links between them, the text and the context. In fact pragmaticians are interested in how interlocutors converse with one another.

Throughout its development, pragmatics has been steered by the philosophical practice of pragmatism and evolving to maintain its independence as a linguistic subfield by keeping to its tract of being a practical to treating the everyday concerned meanings. The pragmatic view which is not found in other neighbouring discipline is the focus on the speaker-hearer interaction; the links between them, the text and the context, the will to explain meaning. So, pragmaticians are keen on exploring how interlocutors can successfully converse with one another. This has given different shades and nuances to the various orientations within pragmatics.

Among the issues that constitute the interest of pragmatics we find: speech act theory, conversational implicature, presupposition, conversational structure, relevance theory and the politeness theory. Based on the work undertaken by Levinson (1983), one central definition to pragmatics might run as follows: "Pragmatics is the study of Deixis (at least in part), Implicature, Presupposition, Speech acts and aspects of discourse structure". Still we have to mention that alongside those traditional subject areas there have been others that have come to surface recently, such as politeness or are complete newcomers like multimodality, or the confluence between different channels and communicative codes. As a matter of fact, we will particularly focus on the theory of Speech Acts introduced by

Austin (1962) and later developed by Searle (1969) and the theory of politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987) and conversational implicature.

2.6 The Speech Act Theory

Austin (1962) was by no means the first to deal with what one could call 'speech acts'. His work "How to do things with words", in particular led philosophers to pay attention to the non declarative use of language. However, in order to fully understand the concept of speech act theory, it would be useful to differentiate between three keys terms, namely, those of speech situation, speech event and speech act. Speech situations generally refer to the context of language use such as ceremonies, flights, hunts, classrooms, parties, meals while speech events are the circumstances surrounding the utterance. In fact, speech events can be defined by a unified set of components which include: a- the same purpose of communication b- the same topic c- the same participants for example, exchanging greetings, telling jokes, giving a speech. A speech act, however, is the minimal term of the set 'speech situation, speech event and speech act'. Speech acts as defined by Cohen (1996) are acts which serve a function in communication. Yule (2008:47) believes that they are acts a speaker performs when making an utterance and contends that:

> Actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts and, in English, are commonly given more specifically labels, such as apology, complaint, compliments, invitations, or promise.

Though complementary work was conducted by Searle (1969), Austin(1962) has been regarded as the father founder of the speech act theory. His work was based on the assumption that people use language no just to say things, but to do things as well. In his performative hypothesis, Austin (ibid.) demonstrated that when people use language they do more than just make statements, that they perform actions. Later, Austin realised that not only performative verbs could perform action and there are many acts in real language use where performative verbs are impossible or unusual.Therefore, Austin (ibid.)

introduced a new terminology especially the notion of “locutionary acts”, “illocutionary acts”, and “Perlocutionary acts”. Austin distinguished between three basic senses in which saying something is doing something. These three kinds of acts are simultaneously performed:

- Locutionary acts: refer to the act of saying something i.e. the actual words uttered.
- Illocutionary acts: represent what is done in saying something, or the force of intention behind the words.
- Perlocutionary acts: imply what is done by saying something or in other words the effect of the illocution on the hearer.

Of course, Austin (1962) focused all his attention and interest on the second type of speech and developed taxonomy of five types of illocutionary acts which included:

- Verdictives: involve giving a verdict or judgment (i.e. acquit, convict, diagnose)
- Exercitives : refer to the exercising of power, right and influence(e.g. appoint,order,name)
- Commissives: They entail speakers' commitment to do a future action with verbs such as guarantee, pledge, promise, and swear.
- Behabitives: refer to the adopting of an attitude (i.e. apologize,compliment,welcome)
- Expositives: they involve the clarifying of reasons, arguments and expanding news i.e. deny, inform, and concede.

Later, Austin’s speech act theory was developed by Searle (1969), who distinguished between propositional content and illocutionary force which Austin (1962) termed as locution and illocution. With focus on the illocutionary purposes of the act from the speaker's perspective, Searle (1976) brought greater systemacy to the speech act theory. He mainly focused on the conditions which were required to make a given speech act effectively performed. Searle proposes four kinds of rules on the basis of these conditions:

- Propositional Content Rules : specify the kind of meaning expressed by the propositional part of an utterance;
- Preparatory Rules : delineate the conditions which are pre-requisite to the performance of the speech act;
- Sincerity Rules: outline the conditions which must obtain if the speech act is the be performed sincerely;
- Essential Rules: specify what the speech act must conventionally count as.

On the basis of the four rules stated above Searle (1976) introduced a taxonomy of illocutionary acts which he grouped according to common functional characteristics. His taxonomy includes five main categories.

- Representatives: when the speaker's purpose in performing the act is to commit him to the belief that the propositional content is true using such verbs as: affirm, believe, conclude, and deny, report….
- Directives: the speaker attempts to get the addressee to do something.
- Commissives: are acts in which the speaker commits himself to some future action, with verbs such as guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow…
- Expressives: they express the speaker's psychological state of mind about the state of affairs using such verbs as: apologize, thank, regret, welcome, appreciate, deplore…
- Declarations: are acts which rely on extralinguistic institutions where the speaker alters the external status or conditions of an object or situation only by making the utterances.

In addition to the constitutive rules stated above, there are certain specific criteria that must be satisfied if a speech act is to achieve its purpose. These criteria are referred to as felicity conditions.Technically, felicity conditions are the appropriate circumstances required for the performance of a speech act to be recognized as intended (Yule, 2008).In fact, both the speaker and the hearers should observe those conditions to guarantee the achievement of the purposes for which any given speech act is performed. These conditions include the following:(i) Preparatory conditions relate to whether the person performing the speech act has the authority to do so;(ii) Sincerity conditions relate to the degree of sincerity with which a speech act is performed; and (iii) Essiential conditions relate to the way the speaker, having performed the speech act, is committed to a certain kind of belief or behaviour (Searle, 1969).

The speech act theory, even though influential in a number of fields especially its positive impact on the development of functional aspects of pragmatic theory, has not been without its critics. It was criticized by many researchers as basically relying mainly on intuitions and isolations of sentences from their context of use. Moreover, Searle (ibid.) considers the sentence as the main form in which illocutionary weakness takes form. Other authors such as Trosborg (1995) and Thomas (1995) believe that a speech act involves a communicative function whereas the sentence is but a grammatical unit within a formal system of language. The same view was expressed by Leech (1983) who favours a functional perspective of speech acts against a formal viewpoint, for Searle's typology accounts only for formal considerations. Thomas (1995) also argues that speech acts which are in fact functional units can be characterized in terms of principles instead of formal rules. This author also mentioned the functional, psychological and affective factors affecting speech acts. Besides, Searle's categorization of speech acts according to some researchers is not always reliable. Another important remark made by Thomas (ibid.) is that speech acts are by no means interchangeable if contextual or interactional factors are taken into account.For example, speech acts such as commanding ordering, asking or requesting all involve the speaker's intention to make the speaker do something. Therefore, speech acts cannot be classified on the basis of formal and arbitrary rules but rather on the basis of their interactional meaning and their context. Other researchers such as Wunderlich (1980:297) proposes four criteria to classify speech, these would include:

- The use of grammatical markers
- The type of propositional content and the illocutionary outcome
- Their function
- Their origins since speech can be primary or natural speech acts, or secondary or institutional speech acts.

Yule (2008) proposes another classification based on structural forms which are the declarative, interrogative and imperative and which correspond to three general communicative functions, namely those of statement, question and command or request. This is shown on the examples below (Yule ibid:54)

- You were a seat belt (declarative)
- Do you wear a seat belt? (interrogative)
- Wear a seat belt (imperative)

In addition to this classification, Yule (2008) makes a distinction between direct and indirect speech acts. He believes that a speech act consists of a direct relationship between a structure and a function, while an indirect speech act there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. Therefore, a statement is expressed by a declarative statement but the same form or structure may be used to express a request. In other words, in an indirect speech act form and structure do not match.

According to Kasper and Schmidt (1996), directness and indirectness within a pragmatic intent tend to be universally available. In fact, this aspect of universality seems to be controversial if cultural differences are taken into account. Some researchers, however, such as Barron (2003) claim that many aspects can be considered as universal refers to aspects such as the ability to vary the linguistic realizations, the influence of contextual factors, the basic speech act categories, external and internal modifications ,and the range of realization strategies of speech acts. This universality of course, is a very important factor in the context of foreign language teaching and according to Schmidt and Richards (1980) it facilitates the acquisition of pragmatic competence.

2.7 Politeness theory

Several studies have been carried out on the principle of politeness theory (Grice 1975; Leech1983; Levinson 1987; Safont 2001; Barron 2003 among many others) and have provided us with different views about the politeness theory. Early work on politeness theory by Goffman (1967:26) describes politeness as "the appreciation an individual shows to another through avoidance or presentation of rituals". Fraser and Nolen (1981) define politeness as a set of constraints of verbal behaviour. While Locastro (2003:274) claims that it has to do with the addressee's expectations that the speaker will engage in situationally appropriate behaviour aimed at creating and maintaining harmonious interaction. Roughly, politeness can be defined as the features of language which serve to mediate norms of social behaviour, in terms of such notions as courtesy, rapport, deference, and distance. The words people use are mostly determined by the relationship to other interlocutors, they need to make sure that theirs as well as others' needs and identities are accepted, maintained and enhanced to the full.

Several views of the politeness theory have been developed namely those of the conversational view (lakoff 1975; Leech 1983).The face saving view (Brown and

Levinson, 1987) and Fraser (1990) the conversational contact view. The first view developed by Lakoff (1973) and which is based on Grice's cooperative principle views politeness a device used in personal interaction to reduce friction. From a pragmatic perspective, she proposed two key rules, namely, be clear, be polite in addition to three sub maxims. 1) don't impose, (2) give options, and (3) make your interlocutor feel good. In line with Lakoff's maxims, Leech (1983) also developed his own maxims which will be developed in the coming section.

2.7.1 Leech's maxims

Leech's maxims are based on the conversational maxim which is in his opinion the ability of participants to engage in social interaction in an atmosphere of relative harmony. In fact, Leech (1983) adopts a principle which Fraser (1990) defines as: “Other things being equal minimize the expression of beliefs which are unfavourable to the hearer and at the same time maximize the expression of beliefs which are favourable to the hearer." In stating his maxims Leech uses his own terms for two kinds of illocutionary acts. He calls them representatives (assertives), and directives (impositives).He also further differentiates his principles by proposing six maxims:

- Tact maxim: Minimize cost to other. Maximize benefit to other.
- Generosity maxim: Minimize benefit to self. Maximize benefit to self.
- Approbation maxim: Minimize dispraise to other. Maximize dispraise to self.
- Modesty maxim: minimize praise of self. Maximize praise of other.
- Agreement maxim: Minimize disagreement between self and other. Maximize agreement between self and other.
- Sympathy maxim: Minimize antipathy between self and other. Maximize sympathy between self and other.

The common factor in Lakoff's (1975) and Leech's (1983) approaches is that they explicitly or implicitly claim the universality of principles for linguistic politeness. Although, their approach to politeness were considered as being accurate by scholars as being useful to explain the variation of politeness rules in different cultures, it has received criticism as having too many maxims and lacking empirical basis to sustain them. Thus, these two views on politeness insist on the desire to avoid friction by using tact. Another view developed by (Fraser and Nolan, 1981; Fraser, 1990) regard politeness as an integral part of interaction. This view which adopts a discourse based approach claims that in a conversation, participants are expected to act in a polite manner by following a conversational contract. According to this conversational contract view, (Fraser, 1990) participants negotiate the rights and obligations following certain social, norms and relationships.

2.7.2 Face-threatening act

As its name indicates this view of politeness is particularly based on the position of face. According to Brown and Levinson (1978:66) face is: “something that is emotionally invested and that can be maintained or enhanced and must be constantly attended to in interaction.”Goffman (1969:3) views the concept of face as: “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact”. In any interactional situation the participants' goal is the preservation of face. In daily discourse, we try to avoid subtle and personal topics, we reassure our interlocutors, and we avoid even disagreement. We also try to make our messages clear by highlighting important items or important information. We often use non-verbal feedback if we do not understand others. In brief, we are taking face of ourselves and our interlocutors. In this sense politeness is an activity which serves to enhance, maintain or protect face.

Moreover, face can be positive or negative. If we feel the desire to be liked, approved of respected by others this is positive face. However, if we want to preserve our own territory and avoid being imposed on by others this is negative face. In everyday discourse people may give a threat to one another individual self-image or cause what is called “face threatening act”(FTA henceforth).The concept of face has a close link with directives speech acts since some speech acts such as refusals for instance are face threatening acts FTA. Thus, they may impede the freedom of actions (negative face), or the wish that one's wants be desired by others (positive face).This is of course done by the addresser or the addressee. In an attempt to avoid the FTA interlocutors use different strategies to minimize the threat according to a rational assessment of the face risk to participants. Therefore, participant in an interaction have two options to reduce any possible offence to the participants. They may decide to do the FTA or to avoid the FTA.

The figure below shows strategies adopted by a speaker while doing the FTA to a listener. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) the lower the number preceding the strategies the higher the chance of threat

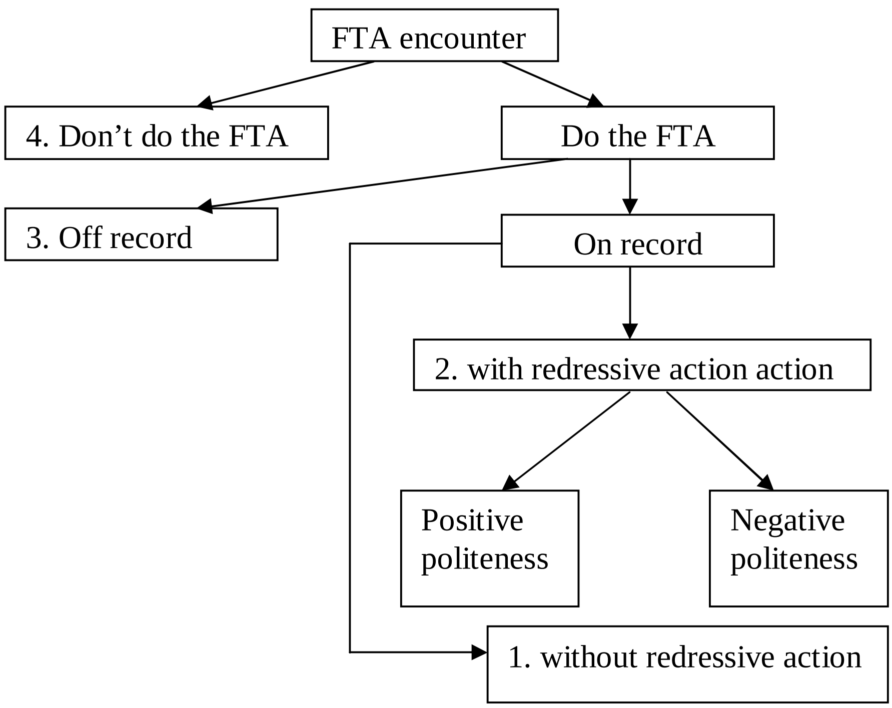

Figure 01: Selection of strategies following an FTA

In fact, in an interaction participants may be confronted with a situation where a speech act may constitute a threat. In that case, the speaker has different options to go through and steps to follow making decisions at every step. The first decision to be made is whether to do the FTA or not. These two decisions and the options accompanying them can be adopted to reduce offence to the participants involved in the interaction. According to Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of politeness, in an interaction some speech acts may represent a threat to the interlocutor's face consequently participants have a series of options at their disposal.

In addition to this, at each step a decision is made. As shown in the diagram above, participants have two options either to do the FTA or not. If the participants opt for the first choice which is to do the FTA then they will have a second decision, which is going off record or on record. In the first case, participants may express their intentions through hints or indirect suggestions whereas in the second one their intentions are clearly and directly expressed. At this level, the participants' options is to go on record, they will have two more decisions to make while performing their FTA, using the redressive action or not. Redressive actions simply mean the effort made by the participants to soften the force of the speech act. So, participants can make the FTA without redressive actions using direct strategies or can use the redressive action strategies. Furthermore, participants may make use of positive or negative politeness strategies. Positive politeness strategies in an interaction refer to the participants' desire to save their interlocutors ' face and to seek their approval. In the second type of strategies participants aim at minimizing the FTA and this would include the use of indirect formulae or direct means of hedging and mitigation.Finally, in order to illustrate the above concepts and relationships, let us use an example of speech act which is refusal.

- On record without redressive action: means direct refusal, for example: "I refuse"

- On record (without redressive action): means to refuse explicitly with or without politeness strategies.
- Off record: means not to refuse explicitly but give a listener a hint so that he or she can infer that the speaker means refusal.
- Do not do the FTA: means giving up refusing.

Moreover in calculating the weightiness of the FTA, Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that there are three factors that may determine the distribution of face among interlocutors. These include, first, solidarity i.e. the social distance (D); second, relative power and status (P); third, how a particular imposition is ranked in a specific culture (R). Brown and Levinson (ibid.) also believe that the notion of face itself is universal. However, they think that the specific manifestations of face wants may vary across cultures with some acts being more face threatening in one culture than in another. In other words, different cultures might choose different politeness strategies.

2.8 The cooperative principle

The English language philosopher Paul Grice (1975) was the first to propose the concept of cooperative principle. This principle is based on the assumption that in any interaction the sender is cooperating with the receiver in an attempt to exchange meaning by observing or violating a number of maxims. Grice (1975) proposes that the success of a conversation largely depends on the various speakers' appropriate interaction. Means of communication are exploited to keep the conversation progressing smoothly. The way in which people try to make conversation work is called the cooperative principle .To Grice, in any interaction speakers and hearers share a cooperative principle. Interaction proceeds on the basis that participants are supposed to deal considerably with one another .Grice formulates as a general principle underlying efficient use of language that he calls, the Cooperative Principle: *Make your conversational contribution such as is required at the* *stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which in you are engaged'* (1975: 64).Thus, if we want to communicate effectively we have to cooperate. Cooperation means shaping our utterances to be understood by the hearers. This principle can be explained by four underlying rules or maxims commonly referred to as the conversational maxims which are classified under four categories:

- Maxim of quantity, or to be brief which means that you should make your contribution as informative as required and no more. When we speak to someone, we feel obliged to give them enough details to enable them to understand us. At the same time we should avoid giving too much information.

  - If something is said there is no reason for it

  - If it is left out, you are already supposed to know it.

- Maxim of quality, or to be true, which requires you not to say what you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence .Lying is an obvious violation of the cooperative principle.

- If something known to be untrue is said, it is assumed to be intended to mislead, or to indicate ignorance.

- Language can be made arbitrarily complex in this respect: consider irony or sarcasm.

- Maxim of relation, or to be relevant to the context and to what has been said previously. People who change the subject abruptly are usually considered rude or uncooperative

- Maxim of manner: Speakers' contributions should be clear, orderly and brief, avoiding obscurity and ambiguity.

It is usually assumed that on the bases of these maxims and the general knowledge of the world or schemata that the receiver is able to comprehend meaning of an utterance. It is also noteworthy that speakers do often purposely violate the aforementioned maxims for different reason. However, listeners generally assume that the speakers make these violations for good reason. In fact, the speaker usually intends the hearer to notice these violations or fault and draws conclusions. These conclusions are called 'conversational implicature and will be dealt with in the coming section.

Of course, Grice does not prescribe the use of such maxims nor does he mean that we use them artificially to make conversation. However, they are useful guidelines for analyzing and interpreting conversation.

2.8.1 Conversational implicature

The concept of implicature was proposed by Paul Grice in a series of lectures delivered at Harvard University 1967.The notion of conversational implicature as was termed by Grice provides some explicit account of how it is possible to mean more than what is actually said. The conversational implicature then, is a message that is not found in the plain sense of the sentence or as Levinson (2000: 97) puts it: "more than what is literally expressed by the conversational sense of the linguistic expression uttered". The hearer is able to infer, by using the rules governing successful conversational interaction. Therefore, Grice believes that participants in any interaction should understand three important things.

➢ The addresser and the addressee should share the common understanding of the contextual information.

➢ The addresser and the addressee should understand the usual linguistic meaning of what is said.

➢ They should obey the cooperative principle.

As mentioned in the previous section, Grice proposed his cooperative principle together with several maxims which he named quantity, quality, relation and manner. When formulating these maxims, Grice expects one to speak truthfully, informatively, relevantly, perspicuously and otherwise appropriately. According to Grice, any ostensible violation of them can still lead to communicative success. Grice (1975 cited in Thomas (1995:65) proposed that speakers frequently and blatantly fail to observe any of his conversational maxims to prompt the hearer look for a meaning which is different from the expressed meaning. Let us take the following example:

A: Great way to wake up

B: (grumpily) Sure is

A pragmatically competent listener will probably interpret the speaker's utterance of "Great way to wake up" as a sarcastic remark and to understand that the speaker is expressing annoyance of being woken up by the neighbour's lawn mower. However, an FL or SL hearer even if he/she is fluent in English may not necessarily reach the same conclusion.

It is clear then, that participants in a conversation or interaction share certain rules and conventions which enable them to understand one another in the many instances where the meaning and the intent i.e. the illocutionary force (Yule 2008: 48), of an utterance are not explicitly stated.

Grice's implicature can therefore be extended to illocutionary act. In indirectness for instance, the performance of illocutionary act by way of performing another. For example, a request or permission may be expressed by a statement, say by saying: "It's getting cold in here" or "I don't mind". We also can make a statement or give an order by way of asking a question, such as "Can you open the window?"So, an illocutionary act can be performed indirectly by means of performing some other direct one. Sometimes an utterance is non literal as with such utterances of: "My mind got derailed" or "You can stick that to you ear", here, of course, we do not mean what our words mean. Thus the words being used do not reflect the force of the illocutionary act being performed. Our speech is full of indirect and non literal utterances. For instance, one could say: "I love the sound of your voice", which non literally would mean I cannot stand your voice and beg you to stop singing. The notion of implicature is therefore fundamental in pragmatics, in other words, implied meaning as opposed to the mere lexical meaning expressed (Grice 1967, cited in Thomas 1995: 56). Occasionally, we say(or we write),exactly what we mean, but much more frequently we are not totally explicit, take the following exchange which is adapted from Wierzbucka (1991:391)

Example one: Two women discussing their children

A: How is Tom doing at school?

B: Ah, well…You know what they say: boys will be boys.

A: Yeah, but girls are no easier… You know. What Jess did the other day …

In the above exchange speaker B is not explicit about how Tom is progressing at school. Yet, her remark boys will be a boy which is a tautology and literally meaningless provides sufficient information to her interlocutor to go on. Speaker B then, conveyed more than the literal meaning of the words used. The examples above exemplify conversational implicature since part of what is meant is communicated not explicitly but implicitly.

In the following example "she is poor but honest", the contrast between being poor and honest is due to the presence of "but". Regardless of the context in which it occurs, the word "but" carries the implicature that what follows will run counter to expectations. The expectation in the previous example being that "people are dishonest"

According to Bach (1999), this category of conventional implicature complicates Grice's distinction between what is said and what is implicated. Indeed, some cases of conventional implicature mean something else. There are two kinds of cases to consider. The first one involves expressions like "but" and "still". If we abandon the common assumption that indicative sentence express at most one proposition, we can see that such expressions do contribute to what is said. In the example “she is poor but she is honest” the main proposition is that she is poor and she is honest, and the additional proposition is that being poor precludes being honest.

Grice also suggests that conventional implicature involves the performance of non central speech acts .He certainly had in mind the use of such expressions after all, anyway, at any rate, besides, be that as it may, by the way, first of all, finally, frankly, furthermore, however ,if you want my opinion, in conclusion, indeed, in other words, speaking for my self, strictly speaking, to begin with, to disgress, to put mildly.

These and many other modifiers tell us much about the utterance in which they occur, its force, point, character, or the role in the interaction. In fact, this type of second order speech act should not be considered “implicatures” .In the utterance “frankly”, you are not implying that you are speaking frankly, you are making a comment about your utterance. Utterance modifiers like these are in construction syntactically but not semantically.

2.9 Interlanguage pragmatics

The acquisition and development of pragmatic competence in second and foreign language teaching have received particular attention recently from researchers in the field. Most language studies on interlanguage pragmatics (ILP henceforth) have been conducted with the view to find out how non-native speakers, due to the influence of their mother tongue, differ in realizing and understanding speech acts. So, what is ILP? It is defined as the study of learner's use of and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, Kasper, 1989, Rose 2000).They all agree that ILP is the language system developed by learners on their way to acquiring the TL. Despite the relatively large number of studies carried out on pragmatic performance and interlanguage pragmatics, studies on interlanguage pragmatic development seemed to lag far behind

(Kasper, 1989, Kasper and Rose, 1999).Or as Schmidt (1993:21) puts it “there has been little discussion on how pragmatic abilities are acquired in second language”. In fact, it was Selinker (1972) who first introduced the term interlanguage to refer to the language system developed by learners on their way of acquiring the target language. Other authors have used alternative terms to refer to the same phenomenon. Nemser (1971) for example, calls it approximative system while Corder (1971) uses the terms idiosyncratic dialects and transitional competence. In the field of ILP, Thomas (1983:99) differentiates between two types of pragmatic failure. On the one hand, we have what he calls sociopragmatic failure which is caused by “cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate behaviour” and on the other hand, what the same author calls pragmalinguistic failure and to which she refers to as “ the pragmatic force mapped on to a linguistic token or structure is systematically different from that normally assigned to it by native speakers” .According to Kasper (1992), one of the major objectives of ILP is to provide the potential sources for both the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic failures.

Moreover, Koike (1996:257) gives new dimensions to the notion of interlanguage when he defines it as: “A system that represents dynamic strategies in the learning process and that are subject to continual change and modification”. In the same line, Ellis (1985) believes that interlanguage is characterized by the learner's language being dynamic, permeable and systematic. Permeable since the rules that constitute the learner's knowledge at any given time are subject to modifications. Dynamic means that the learner's interlanguage undergoes constant changes due to the continual revision of the acquired system of rules and the adopting of new hypotheses about the TL.And finally, systematic which implies that the learner's selection from his/her store of interlanguage is not carried out randomly but conducted in a systematic and predictable in accordance with his existing rule system.

It is noteworthy here, that in the process of becoming a competent commninicator an FL language learner has to acquire the pragmatic aspects of the target language.Kasper (1982) supports this view and argues that interlanguage system involves not only semantic, syntactic, morphological, phonological but also pragmatic rules.Nevertheless, interlanguage is developmental in contrast to other languages and therefore can be gradually acquired under different learning and communication strategies. So far, the main focus of interlanguage pragmatics ILP has been on linguistic action, or speech acts, in other words, developing our learners' pragmatic competence. It is on this basis that Kasper and Blum Kulka (1993:3) define ILP as “the study of non-native speakers use and acquisition of linguistic action pattern in the second language”.

As mentioned earlier interlanguage pragmatics is a new subdiscipline within the field of second language acquisition (SLA henceforth).Most research conducted in the area of pragmatics has focused either on the comparison of learners' interlanguage speech act realisations with native speakers' performance or on the production and perception of different speech acts in the same group of learners. Much attention was given to the comparison of non native speakers with native speakers' performance in certain pragmatic aspects which in fact belongs to cross-cultural pragmatics. Works carried out in this particular field were mainly devoted to the analysis of learners' production of speech acts in different sociolinguistic environments. Research conducted by Blum Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) in this field, have revealed that learners' grammatical competence is quite different from their pragmatic competence. The former puts emphasis on usage which requires structural accuracy while the latter seeks appropriate speech act realizations. Nonetheless, Kasper (1989) believes that as a model for ILP research in cross-cultural pragmatics has not only favoured the dominance of comparative studies over acquisition studies but separated it from SLA as well.

It is in fact true that most definitions given to ILP give high a priority to analysing the use rather than the development of pragmatic competence. It is also true that most of these definitions come from the field of cross-cultural pragmatics therefore, linking ILP research to SLA research is necessary in order to conduct more acquisition oriented studies that investigate developmental perspectives of the ILP system. According to Bardovi-Harlig (1999a) and Kasper (1989) ILP should have a more psycholinguistic orientation instead of the sociolinguistic aspect that most studies have adopted.

Therefore, adapting a more acquisition oriented perspective in the study of ILP has shown that even proficient learners of a second or foreign language will fail in pragmatic appropriateness. Authors such as Bardovi-Harlig (1999a, 2001), argues that acquiring a high level of grammatical competence does not usually result in having a high level of pragmatic competence. Many researches have been undertaken to find out and examine the possible internal and external factors that affect learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence .Lo Castro (2003:253) mentions six main factors that constitute real obstacles for SL or FL learners in their enterprise of either comprehending or producing pragmatic knowledge. These six major factors of pragmatic failure are:

- Pragmatic transfer
- Stages in interlanguage
- Lack of adequate exposure to pragmatic norms
- Inadequate or uniformed teaching
- Loyalty to first language culture
- Motivation

The aforementioned aspects have triggered a number of important studies on pragmatic competence that we will be dealing with in the coming subsections.

2.10 Studies on pragmatic development

In spite of the great deal of research devoted to the development of pragmatic performance and the considerable amount of literature, more research is needed to shed light on the many aspects of developmental pragmatics. For this reason, Rose (2000) argues that in order to fully cover the study of pragmatic development two types of studies should be undertaken. The first one called cross-sectional studies and focuses on the observation and comparison of different groups of individual at only one interval while the second one which are called longitudinal studies observe and compare the language of the same individual or individuals over an extended period of time. Those kinds of studies are necessary to investigate pragmatic development.

2.10.1 Cross-sectional studies

In general, the majority of the cross-sectional studies have been conducted in the SL context and have focused on the individual’s production of speech acts while a few of these studies have been concerned with the analysis of the development of pragmatic awareness. As pointed out by Rose (1997) the focus of these studies is on speech act use by observing and analysing the developmental process involved at different stages of development. Furthermore, in the study of pragmatic development this type of studies have concentrated on the length of stay in the target language community and the effects of the different levels of proficiency and its target population has always been adult learners.

Moreover, the cross-sectional studies that addressed learners' production of speech acts in SL settings can be classified into two categories. Those which give learners access to the same realisation strategies as native speakers ignoring learners' proficiency level. And those in which learners differ from native speakers in the way they use linguistic strategies when selecting conventions of forms and means depending on social factors.Proficiency, then, affects both the frequency and contextual distribution of realisation strategies. A study conducted by Scarcella (1979) showed that learners' repertoire of pragmatic routines and other linguistic means of speech act realisation developed as their proficiencies increased. The same result obtained by Takahashi and Dufon (1989) which showed that increasing proficiency Japanese learners of English preferred more indirect requestive strategies to more direct target like conventions. A similar study conducted by Blum-Kulka and Olstain (1986) revealed that learners' use of request also nearly equated a target language like distribution with a high target language proficiency. In one of his studies devoted to English speakers learning Bahasa Indonesian as a second language, Hassall (1997) noticed that the higher the proficiency of the learners was the closer to the target language they become.

In fact, most of the cross-sectional studies conducted so far, examined the use of speech acts. Only a few of these studies dealt with learners' conversational abilities. Omar (1991) who carried out an experimental investigation of greetings of two groups of beginners and intermediate non-native speakers of Kiswahili found no or little difference between the two groups. Both groups failed to reach a target-like use of greetings. He concluded that an immersion in the target language culture is indispensable to develop learners' repertoire of pragmatic routines.

Moreover, it is important to mention that in the EFL context a few cross-sectional studies dealing with the development of pragmatic competence have been undertaken. Examples of such studies are those conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Dormyei (1998) and Niezgoda and Rover (2001).Both studies compared and ESL learners pragmatic and grammatical awareness in different contexts. The studies dealt with various speech acts such as requests, suggestions, refusals and apologies. The population of the studies consisted of FL and SL students who were asked to judge the appropriateness and the correctness of utterances in order to test the degree of their awareness of errors in grammar and pragmatics. The results obtained from these studies clearly showed that within ESL groups, learners at higher level of proficiency exhibited more pragmatic awareness than those at lower level of proficiency. More importantly ESL students scored higher on pragmatic appropriateness judgment than the EFL students. Furthermore, EFL students' grammatical errors were significantly higher than those of the ESL students.

The same sort of study was replicated by Niezgoda and Rover (2001) in order to examine the effects of the learning environment on the development of grammatical and pragmatic awareness. The aim of this study was to check if the former study could be generalized to all SL and FL settings. In this study the researchers exploited the same instruments and procedures as those used by Bardovi-Harlig and Dormyei (1998) the only difference was the learner population. All the participants were university students with 48 ESL and 124 EFL learners. Again, and as with the previous study learners' pragmatic errors appeared to be more serious than the grammatical errors. Besides, EFL students rated a much higher number of pragmatic and grammatical errors than their ESL mates did. This study demonstrated the effects of the learning environment on the learners' pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Since the population of the two studies differs in their profile, age, the proficiency level, the weekly allotted time to study English and even their motivation. In Bardovi-Harlig and Dormyei's study (1998) the population was male EFL students coming from secondary and university level with varying level of proficiency, receiving only 3 to 6 hours of English instruction per week. In contrast, in Niezgoda and Rovers'(2001) study the participants were selected samples of university students who studied English 14 to 20 hours per week. The authors, therefore, came to the conclusion that not all FL environments are equal to develop learners' pragmatic competence.

Moreover, most of the cross-sectional studies recorded up to date have focused on the learners' production rather comprehension of speech acts. Some of these studies include the investigation of refusals (Takahashi and Beebe 1987, Houck and Gass,1996); apologies, (Trosborg,1995,Rose2000); requests (Trosborg,1995, Hill,1997; Rose ,2000; Safont, 2001) compliments (Rose 2000).The population of the aforementioned studies included different nationalities Japanese,Spanish,Danish and Cantonese with varying age and proficiency levels.

To sum up, the conclusion drawn from these studies lead us to say that firstly, they all found out that as proficiency increased, the participants approximated a native-like performance. Secondly, most of the researchers found little evidence of situational variation for any of the speech acts, though some of them believed that there was precedence of pragmalinguistics over sociopragmatics. Lastly, they all converged to the idea that as the level of proficiency improved learners' pragmatic competence improved both quantitatively and qualitatively.

2.10.2 Longitudinal studies

The second type of studies and which enable researchers to observe participants at different intervals of time are called longitudinal studies. In fact, longitudinal studies differ from cross-sectional studies in some very important ways.First, longitudinal studies were mostly concerned with learners' early developmental stage of pragmatic performance.Second, most of the researches targeted SL settings.Thirdly, and most importantly is that longitudinal studies dealt not only with speech acts such as (Schmidt, 1983; Ellis, 1992, or Achiba, 2003) but with pragmatic and communicative aspects. Some of the studies recorded in this particular domain include discourse markers by Sawyer,1992;communicative and pragmatic competence by Siegal, 1994;Cohen,1997; implicature comprehension by Bouton,1994;Politeness by Duffon,2003;listener responses by Ohta 2001.

Very little research has been conducted on pragmatic development using longitudinal studies. Bachman and Palmer (1982) designed a battery of tests to measure grammatical competence (morphology and syntax), pragmatic competence (vocabulary, cohesion and organization), and sociolinguistic competence (sensitivity to register, naturalness and cultural references).The results of their study showed that grammatical and pragmatic competences were closely associated whereas sociolinguistic competence seemed independent. In fact the results obtained were difficult to interpret because the components they included within pragmatic competence were commonly associated with linguistic discourse. In a more or less similar study using factor analysis of test scores, Allen et al(1988) found no significant differences between grammatical competence(morphology and syntax),discourse competence(coherence and cohesion)and sociolinguistic competence(sensitivity to register).However, Schmidt's (1983) three year longitudinal study of the development of communicative competence in Wes, a Japanese artist living in Hawaii, revealed that Wes was able to acquire English through communicative interaction in an English speaking environment without formal instruction. Wes' early use of directives was very limited at the beginning of the study. He used a number of conventionalized routines such as shall we go, can I have, his use of requisite markers such as please and maybe was more frequent, and identified the morpheme *ing* incorrectly as a request marker (*sitting* for *let's sit*).By the end of the observation period, his use of *ing* disappeared and began to use the imperative properly and more frequently and his directness were much more elaborated. Schmidt (ibid). found that Wes' discourse and pragmatic competence developed significantly while his grammatical knowledge changed very little. He concluded that these two components are distinct from each other. Moreover, Hatch (1978) and Day (1986) note quite interestingly that most researchers in both first and second language acquisition think that linguistic competence precedes discourse competence, however, the opposite might in fact be true. Hatch (1978:404) for instance, contends that: “One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed.” In his turn, Day (1986:6) claims that: “In interactions, the discourse frames, the scripts for interaction, develop: the language appropriate to the interaction builds on this development; and the language, in turn, refines the frame”.

Similarly Ellis (1992) conducted a two-year study on the production of requests by two young learners aged between 10 and 11in a classroom context. At the beginning of the study, Ellis’ subjects produced directives that were characterized by propositional incompleteness. However, this gradually diminished and their use of conventional indirect requests increased. Another interesting study was conducted by Achiba (2003) and involved his own seven-year old daughter Yao. During the observation period which lasted over seventeen months Achiba (ibid.) described the development of Yao over four main different stages. Achiba found that Yao was able to vary the election of the forms and strategies used for requesting. He also found that her linguistic and sociocultural awareness increased since she managed to vary the ways of requesting depending on sociopragmatic factors.

All the studies mentioned above were conducted in an ESL context and examined the interlanguage development of a number of speech acts. Moreover, the participants in these studies were all beginning learners mostly young learners. Despite the length of each experiment and the speech acts examined, some important improvements were seen. Participants' pragmatic development while utilizing the different speech acts became more refined as they moved from one stage of the experiment to another. Since, as they went through the different stages, learners were able to vary the forms and strategies used for the different speech acts as their linguistic knowledge and their sociocultural perceptions increased.

Turning from beginning to advanced SL learners Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) carried out a study on two speech acts, namely that of rejections and suggestions. The populations of their study were non native speakers of English who took part in advising sessions in an academic context. The study revealed participants' sociopragmatic development over their pragmatic development, since the participants' performance improved over time, although they did not know how to mitigate their speech acts realisations.The authors of this study also employed their own taxonomy to analyse their data, since their focus was on the relationship between the speaker's status and the appropriateness of certain realisation strategies to a specific context. On the basis of this use of congruent speech acts along with participants role in a given situation Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) introduced the maxim of congruence. This maxim requires a speaker to make his contribution congruent with his status (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993:281).Following this maxim any speaker should observe six status preserving strategies which can be enumerated as follows:

- appear congruent, use the form of congruent speech when possible
- mark your contribution linguistically, use mitigators
- timing, do not begin with a non-congruent contribution
- frequency, avoid frequent non-congruent turns
- be brief
- use appropriate content

As far as the EFL settings are concerned, most of the longitudinal studies have been conducted in Japanese foreign language classrooms. Cohen (1997) conducted a study where he kept a diary and developed a study based on his own learning of Japanese in a course that lasted a semester. Cohen (ibid.), realised that he could perform some speech acts such as apologies, requests and gratitude, however, his performances did not improve sufficiently to meet his expectations. In another study conducted by Kanagy and Igrashi (1997), the authors investigated children's acquisition of pragmatic routines in a Japanese immersion kindergarten. After seven weeks of immersion children's spontaneous use of utterances increased significantly.

Furthermore, in two separate studies, Barron (2003) observed the development of pragmatic competence of a group of Irish students of German in the target language community. The studies examined the effects of studying abroad, thus being exposed to authentic language use. In her first study Barron focused on the pragmalinguistic aspects of requests, that is, internal modification while in the second study she examined both internal modification and discourse aspects. Her focus was on learners' pragmatic competence in realisation of speech acts such as requests, offers, and refusals. Both studies revealed the positive effects of studying abroad on the development of learners' pragmatic competence.

2.11 Studies on Cross-cultural Pragmatic Transfer

Kasper (1992:207) defines pragmatic transfer as: “the influence exerted by learners pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than the target language on their comprehension, production and learning of pragmatic information in the target language”. The influence of the first language (L1) in cross-cultural communication that is pragmatic transfer is often evident as stated by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989:10): “native procedures and linguistic means of speech act performance are transferred to interlanguage communication”. Transfer can be negative or what we may call ‘interference’, which occurs where two languages do not share the same language system, thus causing the production of errors.However, transfer can be positive or what we may call ‘facilitation’ and this generally happens when two languages share the same language system, therefore, the target form is properly transferred (Gass and Selinker, 1994).When speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2 pragmatic failure occurs.Therefore,pragmatic transfer can be referred to as the influence from learners' mother tongue and culture on their interlanguage pragmatic knowledge and performance (Kasper and Blum-Kulka,1993).In fact, positive transfer entails no problem as the process involves the same pragmatic features in both L1 and L2. Due to this fact, most cross-cultural studies focus on negative transfer because this is a source of misunderstanding or miscommunication.

Negative transfer is the result of “overgeneralization, simplification, reduction of sociolinguistic or sociopragmatic interlanguage knowledge”(Trosborg,1995:55).According to Gass and Selinker (1994) negative transfer may have much worse effects than an error made at the phonological or syntactic level, since it represents the speaker's personality. That is exactly what happens when a non-native speaker masters the target language in terms of phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, but uses it improperly in terms of social norms. In this case, he may be misinterpreted or even regarded as impolite. Studies on negative transfer have covered both the sociopragmatic and the pragmalinguistic aspects. The former that is sociopragmatic, transfer, and which refers to the learner's use of the speech act appropriately according to context has received much more attention than the pragmalinguistic aspect. Studies carried out by Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Blum-kulka (1982) Olshtain (1983), House (1988) Cohen and Olstain (1989), Beebe, Takahashi and Ullis-Wellz (1990), Robinson (1992), Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) and Takahashi and Beebe (1993) have all examined sociopragmatic transfer. The latter, that is pragmalinguistic transfer which has to do with the linguistic realisation from the learner's mother tongue into their interlanguage has not been sufficiently covered nor well documented. This is of course, due to the limited number of studies undertaken to highlight this phenomenon.

Most researchers in the field of pragmatic transfer agree that learners having a universalist view on pragmatic norms show a tendency to transfer more their pragmatic competence from their mother tongue to the target language.However, some studies such as Robinson's (1992) on refusals, or Eisenstein's and Bodman (1993) study on expressing gratitude in English and other languages, the subjects showed no transfer of patterns from their mother tongue to the target langauge, that is English. Other studies conducted by Blum-Kulka (1982), House (1988), and Faerch and Kasper (1989),on pragmalinguistic transfer, that is the influence of the mother tongue on learners' perception an production of the linguistic forms in the target language, and revealed that no transfer occurred.

Some other studies addressed the role of proficiency on, pragmatic transfer. Takahashi and Beebe (1981) carried out a study that advanced a positive correlation between proficiency in the target language and pragmatic transfer. In this study of refusals by Japanese learners of English the authors predicted that transfer would occur with a higher proficiency. Although they examined two different proficiency levels, the results of their study did not confirm what they had predicted or the degree of imposition on their learners.

In order to further investigate the impact of proficiency on pragmatic transfer other more elaborate studies were conducted by Maeshiba et al (1996),Rossiter and Kondoh (2001) and koboyoshi and Rinnert (2003).The studies examined different speech acts such as apology, requests by Japanese learners of low ,mid and high proficiency. The results of these studies showed that learners with low proficiency level transferred more strategies from Japanese to English than those with high proficiency level. One of these studies carried out by Rossiter and Kondoh (2001) with Japanese EFL learners revealed that the mid proficiency learners transferred more request strategies which meant a negative correlation between proficiency and transfer. The same negative correlation characterized the results of a study conducted by Maeshiba et al (1996) as they compared the apology strategies used by Japanese ESL learners at proficiency levels, intermediate, and advanced.

In a different study Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003) compared data obtained from the observation of Japanese EFL learners role play performance both in English and Japanese. The study which examined request in the mother tongue and the target language revealed neither a positive nor a negative correlation between language level proficiency and pragmatic transfer.

Most studies undertaken so far recognize that transfer occurs at the pragmatic level. According to Takahashi (1996) most of these studies have adopted a product-oriented procedure and mainly analysed from both learners' mother tongue and the target language. Therefore, Takahashi (1993) insists on the need to undertake process-oriented studies of pragmatic transferability exploring the conditions under which transfer occurs. In other words, we need to examine the relationship between pragmatic transfer and development. On this basis, she conducted a number of studies in an EFL context in order to shed light on how pragmatic transferability occurs. In one of her studies, Takahashi (ibid.) examined the influence of Japanese learners' target language proficiency or the degree of imposition on their perception of transferability of request strategies existing in the mother tongue. The results of this study, which was designed to examine pragmatic transferability were negative since there no apparent effects of proficiency on transferability. In the same study, both learners of low and high proficiency levels relied on conventions from their mother tongue, while performing speech act realizations.

A different study conducted by Koboyashi and Rinnert (2003) investigated whether learners' production of speech acts, namely, requests could be affected by the degree of imposition. The authors who conducted their study in Japanese EFL context and focused on requests found clear evidence of a stronger effect of imposition of learners' productions of requests with high language proficiency learners. Thus, the authors claimed that there was a positive correlation between imposition and proficiency.

All the above studies and many others advocate the importance of pragmatic competence as being one of the main competencies that learners have to acquire to be communicatively competent in the target language.

2.12 Context

The concept of context has imposed itself on all the definitions given so far to pragamtics.We cannot dissociate any utterance from the context of its occurrence. In this sense, different scholars (Stalmaker, 1972, Searle, 1976, Wunderlich, 1980; Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Crystal, 1987) among many others have defined the term pragmatics bearing in mind that the interpretation of utterances and words greatly varies according to the specific context in which they are used. The term context is present in the definition of Stalmaker (1972:38) and runs as follows: "Pragmatics is the study of linguistic acts in the context in which they are performed". In the same line, Searle, Kiefer, and Bierwish (1980:32) define pragmatics as being "concerned with the conditions according to which speakers and hearers determine the context the context and use dependent utterance meaning". The importance of context was also highlighted by Wunderlich (1980:304) as he contends that: "Pragmatics deals with the interpretation of utterances in a richer context". Context is also a key concept in Rose and Kasper's (1997a:1) definition of pragmatics, this being: "The study of communication action in its sociocultural context". This simply means that context includes both linguistic and non linguistic aspects. Context is also characterized by the constraints in using language in social action that is, who can say what to whom .So ,the choice of a linguistic form is determined by the context of the utterance and this involves "all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon participants in a language event, systematically determine the form, the appropriacy and the meaning of utterances”(Lyons 1981:572).Context then encompasses the intentions, assumptions and presuppositions of both speakers and hearers. Thus, we can say that intended meanings will depend on the speech acts that preceded as well as on those which will follow them. The external context of communication or what is called situational context has its influence on meanings. Dell Hymes (1974) summarizes this into six main factors that in his opinion make the speech event, namely the addresser, the addressee, context, message, contact and code. In fact, context is what the message refers to, in other words it is the topic or propositional content of utterance. This language function associated with context is called the referential function. According to Hymes (ibid.), it is only by knowing the context of words or utterances that we can determine the meanings. Any changes in context will obviously affect the meaning of the same words or utterances. Thomas (1995) also views pragmatics as meaning in interaction, and believes that this involves three basic processes, namely those of the negotiation of meaning between speakers and hearers, the context of utterance whether physical, social or linguistic and the meaning potential of an utterance.

The concept of context has been well described by Hymes (1974) as being composed of “spoken words, facial expressions, gestures, bodily activities, the whole group of people present during an exchange of utterances, and the part of the environment in which these people are engaged”. Expanding the notion of context, Hymes (1974) developed the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G model to assist the identification and labeling of components of linguistic interaction that was driven by his view that, in order to speak a language correctly, one needs not only to learn its vocabulary and grammar, but the context in which words are used. These will be explained with reference to the language classroom:

➢ Setting: This is the physical setting of the class and refers to the time and place. Place includes elements such as the space occupied by the teacher and learners, the seating arrangements, place, size, background noise, and quality of the board, etc.

➢ Participants: refer to the speakers and listeners in various roles that are given to them or taken on during the lesson.

➢ Ends: These refer to the purposes of the activities and what participants seek to accomplish. These can be short term learning goals such as the linguistic, cognitive, or affective outcomes of a particular activity, or they can be long term goals such as motivations or attitudes or specific professional outcomes.

➢ Act sequence: This refers to the form and content of utterances, both to what is said and what is meant by the way it is said.

➢ Key: This refers to the tone, manner, or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed: serious or ironocal, matter of fact or playful.

➢ Instrumentalities: This refers to the channel (written or oral) and of (mother tongue, foreign language, or a mix of codes or code switching).

➢ Norms of interaction and interpretation: this refers to the way participants in the lesson interact and interpret what is said or what they are reading.

➢ Genre: This refers to the type of oral or written activity learners and teacher are engaged in.

Context is also a key concept in the so-called communicative point of view which has been influential in applied linguistics in recent years and which is the product of many factors. Among these factors is the dissatisfaction with the highly theoretical and idealized, classical Chomskyan notion of linguistic competence. The development of the communicative approaches were attracted by a broader and more realistic notion of linguistic competence, for which the term 'communicative' competence had been coined by Dell Hymes (1974).The term was used by Hymes to denote the ability to produce situationally acceptable, and more especially socially acceptable utterances, which in his opinion would be considered as the native speaker's competence in a particular language. Thus the the competent speakers or writers are expected to produce language that is not only grammatically acceptable, but also contextually appropriate. In other words, it should be appropriate in both form and content to the context and the situation of the utterance. If a sentence that is uttered is not properly contextualized, it will be judged linguistically odd and may even be uninterpretable.

Therefore, we find that what really characterize any interaction are the users and the context of use.Moreover, language is an interactive system between participants either speaker, listener or writer, reader and that meaning is conveyed at a higher level than the sentence. The complex exchanges between participants in the communicative process are imbued with their ideologies, expectations and attitudes, their shared knowledge about each other and the world and the context of the situation in which they find themselves. On this aspect of interaction Levinson (1983:10) considers that context involves: “Participants identity, role and location, assumptions about what participants know or take for granted the place of the utterance within a sequence of turns at talking, and so on”.

To illustrate the determinant role of context in identifying participants' role, intentions, and propositions let us take the following short talk exchange cited in Wierzbucka (1991:390)

A: Where is the IHT?

B: Well, Dave's been around …

It is obvious that we cannot interpret this simple talk exchange unless we know all the contextual elements surrounding it. In fact, A wants to find the *International Herald Tribune* which he cannot find in its usual place in the teachers' lounge B answers by commenting that a fellow teacher, Dave has been seen in the school does not say "Oh,maybe Dave has it ,because he reads it every morning". To understand this simple talk exchange, we need to know who the interlocutors are, the place of interaction, what they are looking for. The conversation ends with A stating:

A: Oh, he is, is he! I bet it's in his office

As far as we are concerned, we believe that presenting language in its authentic form by providing all the contextual elements is crucial in developing successful second and foreign language learners. In effect, learners learn the second or foreign language by interacting with it. Numerous studies in second language acquisition proclaim that language can only be learned in interaction where meaning is negotiated with native and non-native speakers. As a result, learning a language entails a continuous immersion in the target language which will undoubtedly result in developing learners' ability to use the language to carry out everyday functions in culturally appropriate ways.

2.13 Communicative and Pragmatic Competence

With the advent of the communicative language teaching there was a shift of emphasis from an exclusive concern with formal aspects of language in the 1960's (structural linguistics and generative transformational grammar) to a growing interest in language use in the 1970's and the 1980's.Researchers such as Saussure (1959) or Chomsky (1965) had only paid attention to isolated linguistic forms and structures. Both Saussure's of *langue and parole* from structuralism and Chomsky's *generative transformational grammar* based on the notion of competence and performance simply accounted for an ideal grammatical knowledge shared by native speakers of a given language. These two views however, did not take into consideration the real use of language in a particular context. In other words, they completely neglected the notion of communication. In reaction to these two trends in linguistics, appeared new ideas which did not view the language system in isolation.

Researchers in different fields, such as sociolinguistics, psychology and discourse analysis attempted to explore the communicative nature of language. This laid the foundation for the communicative approach to language teaching which had communicative competence as a key concept. Therefore, communicative competence has become very important in the field of SLA because after all the main aim of learning a foreign language is to become communicatively competent speakers of the target language.

In fact, the concept of competence is directly linked to generative-transformational grammar led by Chomsky (1965) and who distinguished between two key concepts in his theory competence and performance. Competence refers to the linguistic system an ideal native speaker has while performance is related to the psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech. Chomsky paid most attention to the language system and completely neglected its use. In fact, he focused more on isolated sentences and left aside the real use of language. According to Chomsky (1965:3):

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

Noam Chomsky brought us the idea that language relies on innate basis, that we are all endowed with the same linguistic competence despite the fact that we speak different languages. The universal grammar theory which he advanced has a mentalist viewpoint of language learning. Language is seen as biologically determined capacity and children are believed to have a special processing ability since birth. This language acquisition device (LAD) has the ability to recognize speech, organize language into systems of structures, determine the possibilities in any linguistic system and construct the simplest possible system from the data to which it was exposed. These constructional abilities are labeled with the term ‘generative grammar’. To explain these abilities it is postulated that there exists a set of abstract rules and principles common to all human languages, called language universals. Each language has its own parameters and settings of these language universals. However, in the sixties, this statement was far from obvious, and is not yet universally accepted. Chomsky's (1965) theory of a model language spoken by native speakers was criticized by many linguists, psychologists, sociolinguists and anthropologists who think that Chomsky did not take into account the communicative dimension of the language and that he only focused on the theory of grammar without taking into consideration the appropriateness the sociocultural features of an utterance.

In reaction to Chomsky's theory, authors such as Campbell and Wales (1970) and Hymes (1972) introduced what has been widely known as communicative competence. This new concept included not only Chomsky's grammatical aspect of the language but also the contextual factors that have close links with language use. In Campbell and Wales' (1970:247) words: “the most important linguistic ability is to produce or understand utterances not so much grammatical but appropriate to the context in which they are made”. In his turn, Hymes (1972:277) believes that: “there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar will be useless”. The same author and in order to show the social function of language between the real speaker and listener proposed a theory of communicative competence which consists of four different aspects of knowledge: a)Systematic potential - whether something is formally possible; b) appropriateness- whether something is feasible in the virtue of the means of implementation available) occurrence- whether something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; d) feasibility - whether something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

In fact, Hymes' theory was a combination of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence. Since then, there was a shift from the study of language in isolation towards the study of language as communication. This new concept of communicative competence differs completely from Chomsky's model of linguistic competence. According to Cenoz (1999), the basic difference between linguistic competence and communicative competence is that the former is a static concept based on grammatical rules and related to individuals. Communicative competence however, is a dynamic concept based on the negotiation of meaning between two or more speakers. Sharing the same view with Hymes, Savignon (1997:14-15) proposed five main characteristics of communicative competence listed below:

- It is a dynamic concept
- It applies to both written and spoken language
- It is context specific
- It implies a difference between competence and performance
- It is relative

It is clear here, that Savignon emphasizes the negotiative nature of communication, an aspect that was missing in Chomsky's view of the competence performance dichotomy. Therefore, we conclude that both Savignon and Hymes focus on the social aspect that characterizes competence in communication. Not far from this, Canale and Swain (1980:29) for instance, start from the assumption that communication is:

> Based on sociocultural interpersonal interaction, to involve unpredictability and creativity, to take place in a discourse and sociocultural context to be purposive behaviour, to be carried out under performance constraints, to involve use of authentic language, and to be judged as successful or not on the basis of behavioural outcomes.

Moreover, the concept of communicative competence has had a positive effect on language teaching and in SLA in particular, since it laid the foundation to a new teaching approach called communicative language teaching. This approach is premised on the belief that the development of communicative ability is the goal of classroom learning. In this sense, in the coming sections we will analyze the most representative models dealing with the components integrated in the framework of communicative competence.

2.14 Models of Communicative Competence

The notion of pragmatic competence has had a great influence on both foreign and second language teaching since it constitutes the corner stone of an important teaching approach known as the communicative language teaching (CLT). Therfore, many scholars tried to find out the components that constitute the construct of communicative competence. In defining this concept many scholars included the pragmatic component as an essential element in the context of EFL. The reason is that sentences are no longer taught in their grammatical term but also in terms of their appropriateness to the context in which they are being used. In this sense, the most prevailing models of communicative competence will be discussed in the coming sections.

2.14.1 Canale and Swain’s model

The first comprehensive model which was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) was in fact meant for both instructional and assessment purposes. The model described communicative competence as being made up of four components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence which are outlined below:

- Grammatical competence – refers to the knowledge of the language code (grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.). This ensures the encoding and decoding of the literal meaning of utterances.
- Sociolinguistic competence – refers to the mastery of the sociocultural code of

language use (appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness and style in a given situation).

- Discourse competence – refers to the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive texts (e.g., political speech, poetry).
- Strategic competence - refers to the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies and is defined by Canale and Swain (1980:25) as: “How to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open”.

Strategic competence consists of using communication strategies. It also consists of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which may be used to compensate for breakdowns in communication. It consists of the use of reference sources, grammatical and lexical paraphrase, and requests for repetition, clarification, slower speech or problems in addressing strangers when unsure of their social status.

In fact, the initial model proposed by Canale and Swain (ibid.) contained only three competencies, namely, those of grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competencies. Later, Canale (1983) brought some changes to the model of competence by making an important distinction between communicative competence, which refers to the underlying knowledge of the rules of communication, and actual communication. These changes are illustrated in the figure below.

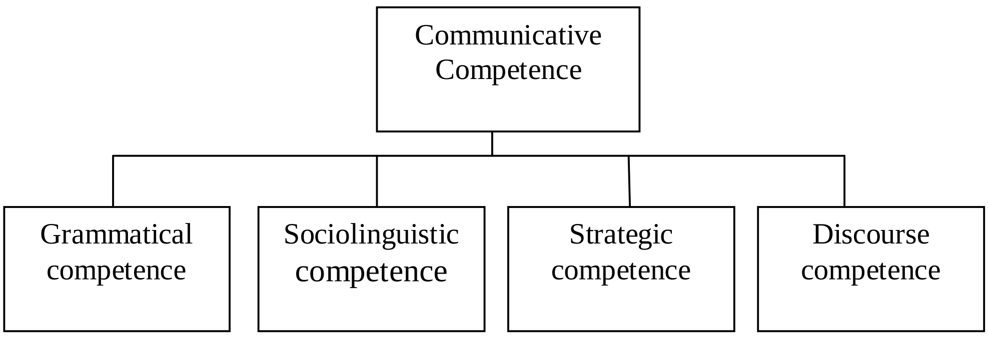

Figure 02 : Canale and Swain’s (1980) and Canale’s (1983) model of communicative competence (Source : Cenoz , 1996 :104)

In fact, the main difference between the original model proprosed by Canale and Swain (1980) and the one modified by Canale (1983) is the separation of discourse from sociolinguistic competence. He made this change because he believed that the latter includes sociocultural rules, while discourse competence has to do with the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings in order to achieve a unified spoken or written text.

2.14.2 Savignon’s model

Another model of communicative competence was proposed by Savignon (19997) in the shape of an inverted pyramid and which includes all the four types of competencies outlined above.

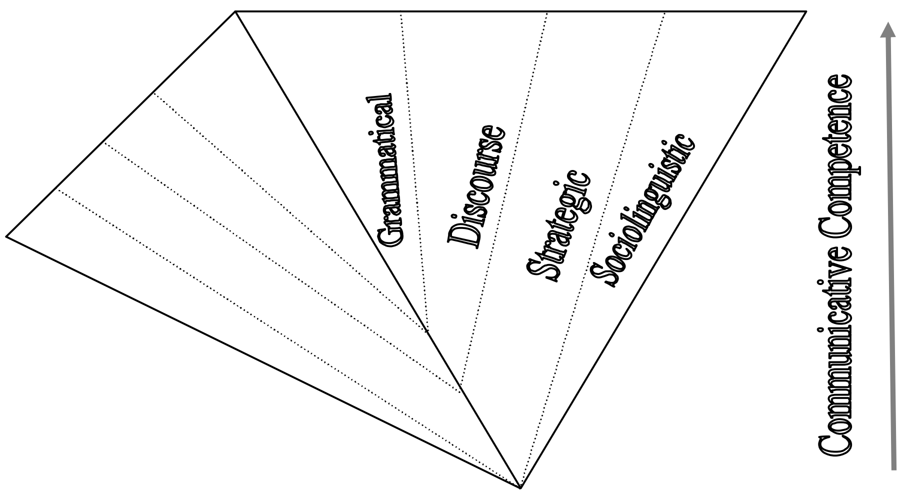

Figure 03: Savignon’s (1997:49) components of communicative competence

In fact, what is relevant about Savignon's (1997) model is her concept of interaction among the four competencies. She claims that each component has a different size which would allow her to say that communicative competence is greater than the rest of the components, especially the grammatical one. She also argues that a person's communicative competence can develop only through sociolinguistic and strategic competence without any grammatical knowledge since we can communicate without language using only gestures and facial expressions. Compared to the model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) which focused of the relationship between the four components, Savignon (1997) believes that the interrelation between the four components suggested in her inverted pyramid is essential in order to develop communicative competence.

Both Canale and Swain's (1980) model and Savignon's (1997) model received criticism on the basis that they did not take into account the pragmatic component. Schachter (1990) believe that in the model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980, 1983) there is no clear-cut distinction between sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. He also adds that the separation between discourse and sociolinguistic competencies is unnecessary and argues that the "unity of a text involves the appropriateness and depends on contextual factors such as status of the participants, purpose of the interaction, and norms of conventions of interaction". (ibid: 43) The same author (1990:42) asks: "Where does pragmatics fit into the Canale and Swain framework?" Despite its simplicity Canale and Swain's (1980) model has dominated the fields of second and foreign language acquisition and language testing for a decade.

2.14.3 Bachman's model

Although pragmatics may be considered as part of the sociolinguistic competence in both Canale and Savignon's model, it was Bachman (1990) who first divided language competence into organizational and pragmatic competence.Bachman' major contribution to the refinement of of the construct of communicative competence, lies in his second competence that is tyo say pragmatic competence which includes illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence.This model is better illustrated in the following diagram:

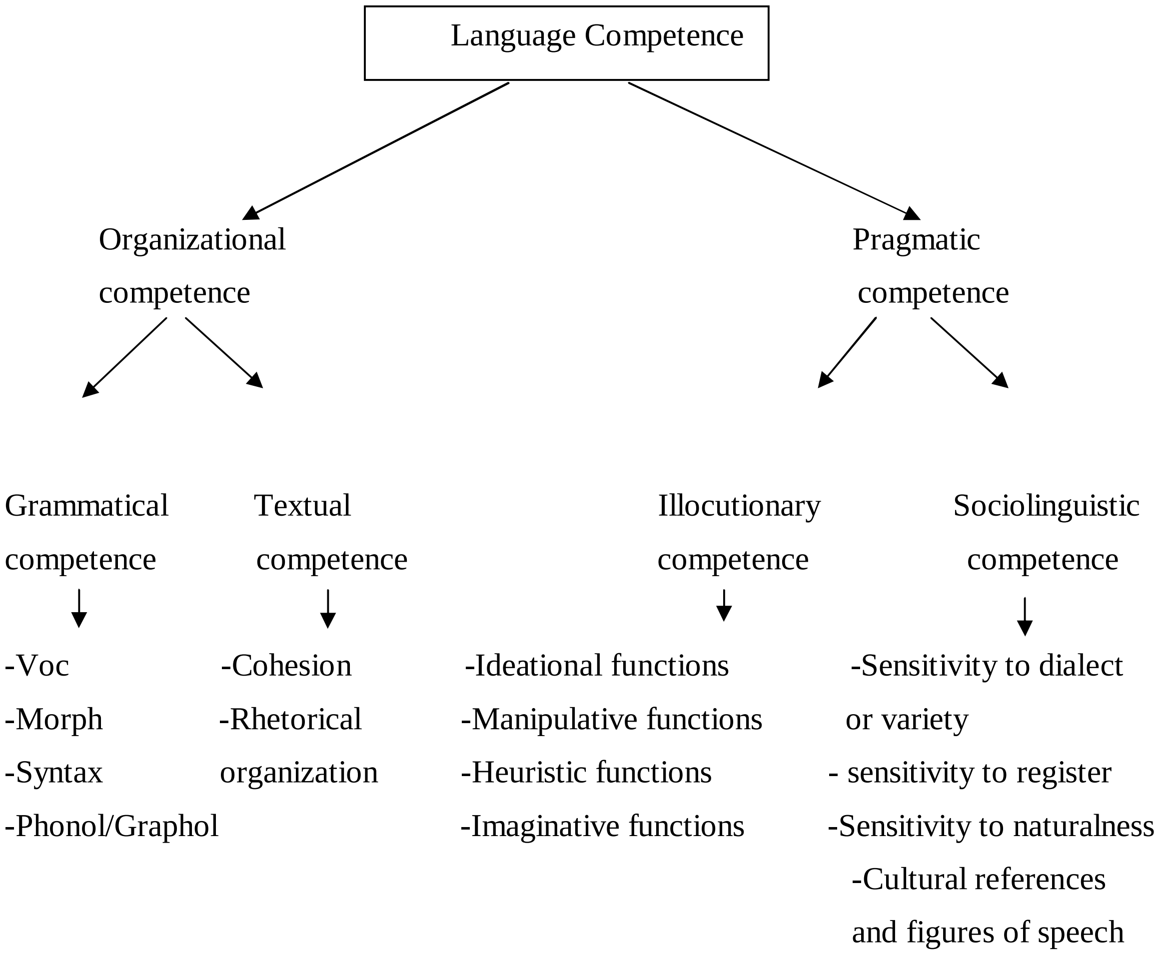

Figure 04: Bachman’s (1990:87) model of communicative competence

Taking into account the results of prior theoretical and empirical research, Bachman (1990) proposed a much more comprehensive model of communicative competence. This new model of communicative competence or more precisely the model of communicative language ability was slightly altered by Bachman and Palmer in the mid nineties. According to Bachman (ibid.) language knowledge is divided into two main categories called organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge which complement each other in achieving communicatively effective language use. The subcategories of these two areas are shown on figure 04.

In Bachman's (1990) model, organizational competence refers to the components involved in controlling the formal structure of language in order to produce or recognize grammatically correct sentences, to understand their propositional content and to order them to form texts. As shown in the figure above, organizational competence is subdivided into two types of abilities. On the one hand, we have grammatical competence which is similar to Canale and Swain includes several rather independent areas of knowledge such as knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology. On the other hand, textual competence which enables comprehension and production of (spoken or written texts).The same competence has been regarded by Canale and Swain (1980) and Savignon (1997) as discourse competence. Bachman (1990) also suggests that this textual competence involves aspects of conversational analysis.

One of the most important contributions of Bachman compared to the previous models is the incorporation of another component which is pragmatic competence. Many researchers at that time insisted on the need to focus on pragmatic competence because the only mastery of the grammatical competence is not enough for the mastery of a given language. Bachman (1990) considers that pragmatic competence is concerned with two significant aspects of communicative language use. The first one has to do with the relationship between the signs and the referents while the second one concerns the language users and the context of communication. In fact, in Bachman's (1990) model of pragmatic competence refers to abilities for creating and interpreting discourse. It is subdivided into two main areas of knowledge namely, those of illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Illocutionary competence refers to the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for expressing acceptable language functions and for interpreting illocutionary power of utterances and discourse while sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the knowledge of sociolinguistic conventions for creating and interpreting language utterances which are appropriate in a particular context of language use. This subdivision of pragmatics is similar to the one made by Leech's (1983:10) and Thomas'

(1983:99) subdivision of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.Moreover, we do agree with Bachman (1990) because we believe that on the one hand, pragmatic competence enables us to use language to express a wide range of functions (illocutionary competence).On the other hand, it gives us the necessary means to perform these language functions appropriately in the context in which they are produced.

Furthermore, one cannot but conclude that this model is more complex, more comprehensive and much clearer than of Canale and Swain because it is much more detailed and better organized. In line with Bachman (1990) and following his model, Barron (2003:10) proposed a working definition of pragmatic competence which runs as follows:

> Pragmatic competence is the knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and, finally knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources.

We do agree on this definition since we believe that language knowledge consists of two main components - organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge which complement each other in achieving communicatively effective language use.

In addition to organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge, Bachman (1990) added strategic competence and psychopysiological mechanisms in her framework. Strategic competence consists of a set of metacognitive components which enable language user involvement, in goal setting, assessment of communicative sources and planning. Goal setting includes identifying a set of possible tasks choosing one or more of them and deciding whether or not to attempt to complete them. Assessment is a means by which language context is related to other areas of communicative language ability: topical knowledge and affective schemata. Planning involves deciding how to make use of language knowledge and other components involved in the process of language use to complete the chosen task successfully. Psychopysiological mechanisms include the channel whether auditory or visual and the receptive or productive mode in which the competence is performed.

Despite the simplicity of the model of Canale and Swain and Bachman, these two models have dominated the field of second and foreign language acquisition and language testing for a long time. The easiness with which the models can be applied is probably the main reason why many researchers of communicative competence still use them. However, these two models have also received criticism. According to Alcon (2000), what is missing in these two frameworks is the relationship between their different constituents.

2.14.4 Celce-Murcia et al.'s model

In fact, the model in which the connections between the components of the concept of communicative competence are established is the one proposed by Celce-Murcia et al in the mid nineties. In their model Celce-Murcia et al (1995) specified the relationships that exist among the components of the communicative competence, with special attention to pragmatic component. This model is shown on the figure below:

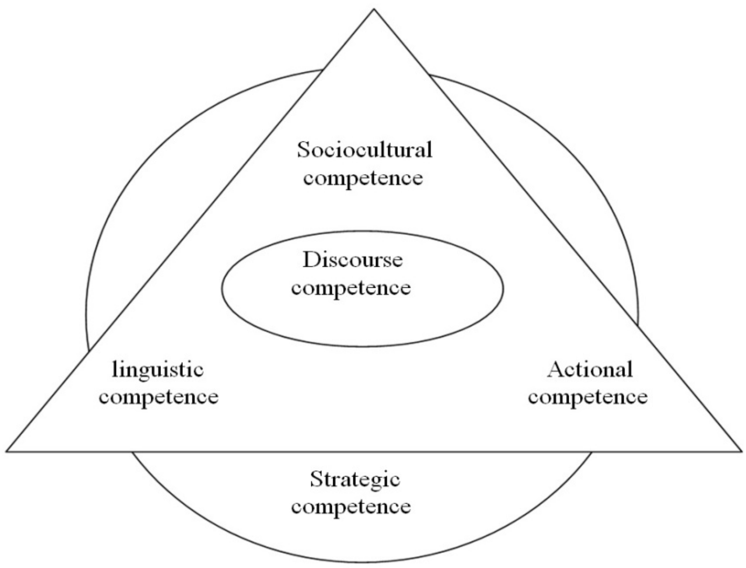

Figure05:Celce Murcia et al. (1995 :10) model of communicative competence

As shown in figure 05 above, Celce-Murcia et al.'s model consists of a pyramid enclosing a circle. The circle inside the pyramid is discourse competence which is the core or the central component. The three points of the triangle are the top-down sociocultural competence and the bottom up linguistic and actional competence, the arrows indicate that the various components are constantly interacting with each other and the discourse competence.

In fact, the first innovation brought by Celce-Murcia et al (ibid.) is the use of the new concept of actional competence to refer to pragmatic competence.Actional competence refers to the ability to comprehend and produce all significant speech acts and speech act sets. The other changes made by these authors consist in the change of terminology used in Canale and Swain's (1980) model. Sociolinguistic competence was changed to sociocultural competence which refers to the cultural background needed to interpret and use the language effectively. Grammatical competence was also re-labeled as linguistic competence which includes the sound system and the lexicon as well as grammar. Following these changes, the main constituents of their model are: discourse competence, linguistic competence, sociocultural competence and strategic competence. One more important contribution made by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) was to specify that the various components of communicative competence were interrelated and that it was important to properly describe the nature of these relationships in order to fully understand the construct of communicative competence.

Taking into account the relative importance of the different components of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995:13) see discourse competence as concerned with:

> The selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text. This is where the bottom-up lexico-grammatical microlevel intersects with the top-down signals of the macrolevel of communicative intent

> and sociocultural context to express attitudes and messages, and to create texts.

The second component is the linguistic competence which does not refer to the grammatical abilities as it is the case in the previous models but concerns the basic elements of communication, such as the sentence pattern, the morphological and lexical types and the phonological and orthographic systems. In fact, that is why Savignon (1997:17) in her inverted pyramid,considers grammatical competence as not only dealing with the statement of rules but also how to use these rules in the process of negotiating meaning. The third component is sociocurural competence and refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context of communication in which they are produced. In reality, this component is similar to the sociolinguistic competent introduced by Canale and Swain(1980), Savignon (1997) and Bachman (1982).Finally, the last component which influences the rest of the constituents is strategic competence and refers to the communication strategies and how to use them. In line with these authors, Savignon also stresses the presence of this component. She argues that: "the inclusion of strategic competence as a component of communicative competence at all levels is important because it demonstrates that regardless of experience and level of proficiency one never knows *all* a language.

2.14.5 Alcon's model

In fact, what is remarkable about Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) model is that all its constituents are interrelated however, these authors argue that the last component that is strategic competence can be further developed. This was done five years later by Alcon (2000) in her updated model of communicative competence. In line with Celce-Murcia et al.(1995), this author holds the idea that discourse competence is the core of communicative competence. Therefore, on the basis of the previous framework Alcon

(2000) proposed a new model that includes three subcompetencies which are related to each other. Alcon proposed the model illustrated below:

Discourse competence	Linguistic competence Textual competence Pragmatic competence
Psychomotor skills and competencies	Listening Speaking Reading Writing
Strategic competence	Communication strategies Learning strategies

Table 02: Alcon's (2000:262) suggested model of communicative competence.

In fact, in the above table which represents Alcon's (2000) framework for communicative competence discourse competence is the central element and includes linguistic, textual and pragmatic competence. Linguistic competence is similar to the one introduced by Celce-Murcia et al (1995) and refers not only to the grammatical knowledge but to all aspects of the linguistic system. The textual and pragmatic components are necessary for the construction and interpretation of discourse. In this sense, it is similar to Bachman's (1990) pragmatic competence and Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) actional competence. As for the psychomotor skills and competencies, Alcon (2000) suggests that discourse competence is influenced by the abilities of listening, speaking, reading and writing which are closely linked to each other in order to use language for communication purposes. The last constituent which is strategic competence is subdivided into communication strategies and learning strategies.

As far as Alcon's (2000) model is concerned, we believe that firstly, it shows that all the constituents are necessary to develop communicative competence in second or foreign language and secondly, they are all related together in order to build discourse competence.

In this sense, the author believes that this component is the central element to be achieved by language learners to be communicatively competent. Therefore, if the main aim of the field of SLA is to become competent communicator in the TL, Cenoz (1999) insists on the necessity to use the language in a way that is appropriate. It is then essential that a particular attention should be paid to the component of pragmatic competence since it is an integral part of the models of communicative competence discussed so far. And of course, this is one of the main purposes underlying the present study.

2.14.6 Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor's model

A more recent model of communicative competence proposed by Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) includes five components, namely, discourse, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic competence. Similar to Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) model, this new framework has discourse competence as its centre. This pivotal component appears inside rectangular box in an oval shape with a broken line and surrounded by the four main language skills .The idea is that successful communication means being able to interpret and produce a piece of discourse be it spoken or written. Consequently, discourse competence is situated in a position where the rest of the competencies serve to build this very competence which, in turn, serves and affect each of the other competencies. The authors of this framework argue that all components are interrelated so that any increase in one component will produce an overall increase in the whole construct of communicative competence. As can be seen in the figure in the coming page, the model suggested by Uso-Juan and Martinez-flor (2006) is in the form of a circle that contains all the components.

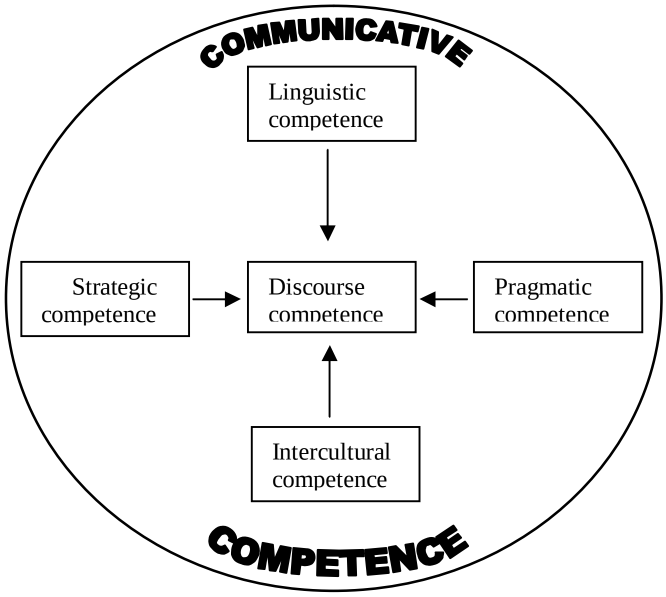

Figure 06: Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor's (2006) model of communicative competence

In the model shown above, discourse competence is viewed as the selection and sequencing of utterances or sentences to produce a cohesive and coherent spoken or written text in a particular situational context and for a specific purpose. Linguistic competence refers to all the elements of the language such as phonology, grammar and vocabulary which are necessary to either interpret or produce discourse. The knowledge of the function or illocutionary force implies in the utterance that is intended to be implied in the utterance that is to be intended to be understood or produced, as well as the contextual factors that affect its appropriacy are attributed to pragmatic competence. Intercultural competence concerns the sociocultural factors which intervene in the interpretation and the production of spoken or written discourse. The knowledge of factors such as the rules of behaviour that exist in the TL community, as well as differences and similarities in cross-cultural communication are very important. The last component of this model is the strategic competence which includes both learning and communication strategies. In fact, the novelty in the above model is that it integrates the four language skills because they are seen as the manifestation of interpreting and producing a spoken or written discourse which is at the core of this model.

Conclusion

What emerges from the discussion throughout this chapter is the shift from previous traditional theoretical frameworks, whose main concern was the acquisition of pure grammatical rules, towards a more communicative perspective. The last five decades have witnessed important changes in how languages are taught and subsequently learnt. Empirical research in linguistics; psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics have revealed the complex nature of language learning. It is now admitted that linguistic, psycholinguistic and sociocultural factors play a key role in this process.Moreover, communication has become the main objective in language learning since today the degree of success achieved in this process depends mainly on the negotiation of meaning in communication. The result was the emergence of an important approach in language pedagogy called CLT which adopts the development of learners' communicative competence as its main pedagogical goal.

In this respect, the most important change was the introduction of pragmatics as a specific area of study in linguistics which focuses mainly on interactional and contextual factors of the TL. Furthermore, a number of models were developed (Canale and Swain (1980); Savignon (1983);Bachman (1990) Celce-Murcia et al.(1995);Alcon (2000);Uso-Juan and Martinez Flor (2006)) to find out the main constituents that make up communicative competence. It is no surprise then that in addition to linguistic competence appeared pragmatic competence which refers to the learners' ability to employ linguistic resources and sociocultural knowledge in an appropriate way in a given context.

Hence, increasing importance has been given to the development of learners' pragmatic knowledge.Thus,recent research whether longitudinal or cross-sectional have all focused on learners' comprehension and production of different pragmatic features as well as the factors that affect learners' pragmatic development in both FL and SL settings. A further point that has become clear is that the contrived traditionally tailored pedagogical materials have often presented learners with meager and frequently distorted sample of the TL to work with and have failed to capture learners' attention and to meet their communicative needs. Therefore, ample use of AM particularly audio-visual ones offer a much richer source of input that could be exploited in different ways and at different levels to develop learners' communicative competence.

Chapter Three

Pragmatics and Foreign Language Learning

Introduction

Since the concept of communicative competence was introduced by Hymes (1972), the importance of this competence has been successfully recognized as a goal of language teaching and learning. Hymes (ibid.) maintained that learners must learn not only to speak grammatically, but also appropriately to achieve communicative goals. Today, language learning entails acquiring pragmatic competence that dictates ways of conveying communicative intent in various situations. Therefore, learners must acquire not only linguistic rules such as phonology, syntax and vocabulary, but they must also acquire the sociocultural norms of language use.

In this chapter, I will tackle the importance of addressing instruction in pragmatics. In this respect, we will attempt to clarify the main distinctions between explicit and implicit instruction. We will also try to highlight the importance of each type in relation to pragmatics. We will give an overview of the studies adopting these approaches to the teaching of pragmatics.

In order to establish a close link between pragmatics and language learning ,we will pay attention to two main cognitive theories, that is to say, Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis and Bialystok's (1993) two dimensional model of language use and proficiency. The selection of these two theories is founded on the premise that ILP should adopt a more psycholinguistic orientation instead of the predominantly sociolinguistic basis.

Like any other type of knowledge in the TL, pragmatic features require the same treatment namely, those of input opportunities for output and provision of feedback. These basic steps in language teaching will be extensively dealt with in this chapter to highlight their role in developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence.

Moreover, learners in the EFL context do not have equal chances for exposure and opportunities to practise as SL learners do. That is why instruction in pragmatics in the EFL classroom has become a necessity to develop learners' pragmatic competence. In this chapter, we will see how instruction positively affects acquisition when compared with mere exposure to the TL. Therefore, we will be dealing with a number of teaching proposals suggested by some authors to boost pragmatic competence in EFL instructional context.

Finally, we will deal with the characteristics of the EFL classroom and find out what opportunities are offered in this context. We will attempt to locate its strengths and its weaknesses.

3.1 Cognitive theories for developing pragmatic competence

Despite its firmly established status as a critical research area in first language pragmatics has long been neglected in the field of SL or FL research. It has been often been believed that the aspects of communicative competence is beyond the reach of foreign learners. However, recent researchers do recognize it as a legitimate focus of investigation and inquiry in mainstream SLA research. Therefore, much remains to be learned about the acquisitional processes involved in SL and FL pragmatics. As far as learners' pragmatic ability is concerned, Kasper (2001c) in her recent research recognized four main theories that dominate the recent applied linguistics literature. These four theories are: 1) pragmatics and grammar; 2) information processing; 3) sociocultural theory; and 4) language socialization. In fact it is the third approach which is of interest to our study.

3.1.1 Cognitive processing theories

Psychologists defined learning as "a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts" (Brown .1987:47); this internal process is thought to involve internal presentation that guide performance. In the case of language acquisition, these representations are based on the language system and involve procedures for selecting appropriate vocabulary, grammatical rules, and pragmatic conventions governing language use. Psychologists and psycholinguists viewed second language learning as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. Some of the sub skills involved in the language learning process are "applying grammatical rules, choosing the appropriate vocabulary, following the pragmatic conventions governing the use of specific language". (Mc Lauhgling.1987:21).

According to Posner and Snyder (1975) these sub skills become automatic with practice. During the process of automatisation, the learner organizes and restructures new information that is required "through the process of restructuring the learner links new information to old information and achieves increasing degrees of mastery in the second language". (Mc Laughling, 1987:24).

Cognitive psychologists focus on the way humans process information ,looking at how we treat information that comes to a person's mind ,and how this treatment leads to responses .In a nutshell, they explain the variables that mediate between stimulus from the environment that may become input and which in turn can be transformed into output. The input provided is received via the sensory channels (touch, smell, hearing, sight and taste) and are then processed. According to Slavin (2003), the human mind is a meaning maker. From the first microsecond you see ,hear ,taste something ,you start a process of deciding what it is , how it relates to what you already know , and whether it is important to keep or should be discarded. Information processing theories are based on the idea that humans process information they receive, rather simply responding to stimuli. Cognitive psychologists believe that the human brain is analogous to a computer in processing information. They equate the human mind to a computer in receiving information, storing information, using this information and retrieving information to produce output.

Cognitive processing theories use the computer metaphor with its input, process, and output. In fact, these theories see the individual as processor of information in the same way that a computer takes in information and follows a program to produce output. As far as language learning is concerned, the cognitive processing theories explain the different mechanisms involved in processing knowledge from one phase to another. Hence, it accounts for the way knowledge is received by the learners, how they develop the ability to use this knowledge, and how it is integrated or discarded.

Moreover, due to the lack of space we cannot give a detailed discussion of all the processing theories. Instead, only two theories which we consider to be the most relevant to the purposes of our study will be reviewed. Since the focus of this work is on communicative and pragmatic competence, we think that an understanding of how pragmatic features of the TL are psycholinguistically processed would help us in developing appropriate pedagogical interventions to foster learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, we will examine both Schmidt's (1993) noting hypothesis and Bialystok's (1993) two dimensional model of language use and proficiency.

3.1.1.1 The noticing hypothesis

In contrast to earlier cognitivists who think that learning a language is an innate and unconscious process (Chomsky 1965 ; Krashen 1982, 1985), Schmidt (1993) considers that learning requires awareness at the level of noticing. Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis is based on the role of consciousness in acquisition of the TL. He considers that learning requires awareness at the level of noticing. Schmidt (ibid.) regards attention to input received as paramount to noticing certain aspects of the TL therefore, noticing becomes necessary for converting input into intake. Schmidt (1983:149) believes that "Subliminal language learning is impossible, and that intake is what learners consciously notice. This requirement of noticing is meant to apply equally to all aspects of language". Sharwood Smith (1994:23) defines intake as "that part of input which has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind". Schmidt (1993) considers noticing as the point of departure when learning a language and holds that nothing can be learned unless it has been noticed. Moreover, the principles of the noticing hypothesis are drawn on studies from cognitive science and experimental psychology which considered that there is no learning without attention. In the noticing hypothesis the claim is that whatever learning might result from unattended processing is insignificant.

Additionally, the key aspects of the noticing hypothesis are intention, attention, awareness, and control. First intention and refers to the learners' deliberateness to attend to the stimulus. Here, Schmidt distinguishes between intentional and incidental learning. Second, attention and basically refers to the detection of a stimulus. Third, awareness, and refers to the learners' knowledge or subjective experience the learner is detecting a stimulus. Two levels of awareness are identified by Schmidt namely, those of awareness at the level of noticing and awareness at the level of understanding. Understanding is seen as a higher level activity than noticing and involves a deeper level of processing information, such as pattern recognition and recognition of the rules of grammar. Finally, control and refers to the extent to which the language learners' output is controlled, requiring considerable mental processing effort, or spontaneous requiring little mental processing (Schmidt, 1993).

Regarding the acquisition of second and foreign language pragmatics, Schmidt (2001:30) pointed out that global alertness to TL input is not sufficient, attention has to be allocated to specific learning objects, or as he posits "directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular domain ... In order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both linguistic forms of utterances and the social contextual features with which they are associated”. Moreover, Schmidt made a clear distinction between the notion of noticing and understanding. Schmidt (ibid.) views noticing as the ‘conscious registration’ of the occurrence of some event whereas understanding denotes ‘the recognition of some general principle rule, or a pattern. So ,according to Schmidt (ibid.31) “noticing refers to those phenomena that appear at the surface level, that is, those elements that are only noticed rather than understood, while understanding refers to deeper levels of abstraction related to (semantic ,syntactic, or communicative) meaning, system learning’. He states that input features have to be noticed in order to be acquired. Schmidt (1993:26) also makes a distinction between two important key concepts in learning, noticing and understanding:

> I use noticing to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event, whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principle, rule or pattern […] Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory […] understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into linguistic system.

In fact, what Schmidt (2001) later stated is that noticing refers more particularly to those phenomena that appear at the surface level, whereas understanding requires a deeper level of abstraction and that involves learning the rule of the language. Furthermore, Schmidt's hypothesis is drawn from cognitive science and experimental psychology which assumes that there is no learning without attention. They maintain that effective learning needs attended processing. Therefore, the key aspects of Schmidt's hypothesis are awareness, noticing and attention.

As far as pragmatic competence is concerned, Schmidt (1993:160) considers that attention to linguistic forms, functional meaning and the contextual factors are essential for the acquisition and development of pragmatics in SL or FL .On this particular aspect of language he contends that:

> In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, 'I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you please look at this problem?' is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic development in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matter of understating.

Acquiring pragmatic competence then, needs paying conscious attention to relevant forms, their pragmalinguistic functions and the sociopragmatic constraints these forms involve. Actually, Schmidt's noticing hypothesis in interlanguage pragmatics reflects his own learning experience of Brazilian Portuguese and the longitudinal study that he conducted on Wes an adult Japanese learner. In Schmidt's learning of Portuguese, he found a high correlation of forms that were frequent in the input he received with the correct usage of them, this simply meant that he had effectively noticed them. Another study conducted by Dufon (1999) where her subjects were asked to keep journals of their experience with Indonesian. The detailed study of these journals revealed that the learners had also noticed features of address terms and greeting in the target language.

However, Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis received criticism from a number of scholars. Tomlin and Villa (1994) for instance, believe that learning can take place through attention without awareness. The second objection came from Carroll (1999) who assumes that Schmidt does not take into consideration the properties of input that trigger noticing and learning. Finally, Truscott (1998) criticizes Schmidt at the methodological level and argues that Schmidt's hypothesis does not provide sufficient account as how to measure awareness with precision. Such criticism, however, cannot in any way affect the importance of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis as being one of the first attempts to account for the development of pragmatics and the stages the learners go through to develop their pragmatic competence. Besides the theoretical framework constitute a fundamental basis in order to implement effective pedagogical intervention of pragmatics.

Moreover, Schmidt (1993) advocates an explicit type of instruction by adopting an explicit consciousness-raising approach for the teaching of pragmatics. Therefore, Schmidt (ibid.36) thinks that the mere exposure to the target language is not sufficient for the acquisition of pragmatic competence. He states that:

> Simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for second language acquisition and pragmatic and discoursal knowledge because the linguistic realizations of pragmatic functions are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors to be noticed are likely to be defined differently or may be non- salient for the learner.

In fact, Schmidt(1993) adopts a natural approach to second and foreign language learning and believes that children and even in first language learning learn pragmatics using in addition to exposure a number of other strategies. He believes that in the acquisition of pragmatic competence and the rules of politeness first language learners use different strategies which their parents and teachers teach them.

It is also noteworthy here that it was Sharwood (1985) who advanced the concept of awareness in language instruction. Later, he modified it and called it *input enhancement*. The same author thinks that to make input more salient to direct learners' attention without its rules explicitly we can use a number of techniques that include colour enhancement and in printed texts or teachers using high intonation in their talk. Such implicit ways of making learners notice the input can be used as an implicit type of instruction for the teaching of pragmatics.

In summary, Schmidt though his noticing hypothesis provided a substantial rationale for examining the effects of instruction in pragmatics and maintained that the sole exposure to input is unlikely to be enough for the development of pragmatic competence. Schmidt (1993 and 2001) believes that during the input pragmatic aspects are not salient for learners as a result pedagogical intervention is more than indispensable to facilitate the development of learners' pragmatic competence.

3.1.1.2 Two dimensional model of language use and proficiency

Research into second language learning has always been faced with difficulties while establishing an overall theory that accounts for the way people learn and use languages. So far, research experienced inability to define the relationship between knowing and using linguistic forms. According to Bialystok (1993) knowing a form does not necessarily ensure that this form will be used appropriately in every situation when the circumstances change. In this respect, Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) proposed a cognitive theory that provides an explanation for the development of pragmatic competence in the TL. Bialystok and Sharwood Smith’s (1985) model consists of two basic types of dimensions, which refer to analysis of knowledge and control procedures.

This model of information-processing theory developed by Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) attempted to specify the demands different tasks impose on the learners’ cognitive ability. Therefore, the authors believe that learners’ performance should be related to two dimensions of language proficiency. The first dimension of this model is the way in which knowledge is represented in the learner’s mind which Bialystok (1993:48) defines as “the process of making explicit, or analyzing, a learner’s implicit knowledge of domains”. This process involves the creation of domains of knowledge with mental representations that can be available for use in comprehension and production. The second dimension has to do with the processing system learners use to control this knowledge during language production. According to Bialystok (ibid.), this process consists of “controlling attention to relevant and appropriate information and integrating those forms in real time”. Therefore, for learners to be able to use the target language efficiently, they have to activate their attention only to relevant information in order to be able to use them under time pressures.

Moreover, Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) maintain that there is a close relationship between two dimensions of language proficiency. The authors use the 'library metaphor' in order to define the relationship between these two dimensions. On this particular aspect Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985:105) posit that:

> The language library may be said to contain a number of books as part of its stable repertoire (i.e. information in long-term storage). These books are not treated as totally unrelated units, but are engaged together in some system […] The library user needs to know the required procedure for obtaining information - what is necessary, for example, to get information on weight-lifting, yoga, a given author, etc. The user has to know which volumes(i.e. linguistic units and structures) will contribute to what goal,where they may be found, and how to get them out efficiently(i.e. with speed and without undue effort).

Bialystok and Sharwood Smith's (1985) framework also attempts to explain the reasons behind second learners' linguistic and conversational variability. Variability has been noticed in learners output between both what has been taught and what is used in different situations. The problem that arises is, if a learner's output is so variable, how can an adult, native speaker of some language, acquire both the knowledge of new system and the ability to use it appropriately? Variability in IL performance is in fact, due to the way in which different tasks and routines place different demands upon learners' knowledge and/or upon the control system. Therefore, in many cases learners may know a TL rule because they have studied it or learnt it, but under communication pressure they may not have time to retrieve it. Using the 'metaphor library' mentioned earlier in this section, we can say that the book is in the library, but they do not have enough time to find it.

In fact, Bialystok and Sharwood Smith's model is based on a comparison of the processes children go through when acquiring their mother tongue with those of adults learning a second language. They admit that the learning problem of the two populations is not the same. In the case of children, there is a priority to develop the analysis of knowledge dimension because acquiring linguistic resources and the ability to use them in different contexts is more important than developing control strategies required for efficient use of pragmatic knowledge. However, for adult learners of a second or foreign language this order of learning is reversed. For adults the task of forming representations of pragmatic knowledge is already largely accomplished. Their task then refers to the development of control strategies. This is because most of adult pragmatic errors are attributed to choosing incorrect forms that are not appropriate to the social and contextual needs of the communicative situation. Bialystok (1993) believes that for the acquisition of pragmatic competence children face serious difficulties from analysis, while adults are hindered by control.

Moreover, Bialystok (ibid.) points out that in order to apply this model two more cognitive processing components must be integrated .First, it is important to choose those representations of language that correspond to the intended pragmatic functions .Second, it is also necessary to select which attentional strategies should be adopted for an appropriate language use depending on different contexts .Besides, Bialystock (ibid.) believes that an analysis of these two dimensions and how they are interrelated would determine the level of proficiency that is needed for adult learners to achieve pragmatic competence in the TL. This analysis can be divided into three levels of representation which she identifies as conceptual, formal and symbolic representations. According to Bialystok (1993) it is symbolic representation which affects the process adults have to master in order to be pragmatically competent .This is simply because symbolic representation implies that the appropriate selection of the linguistic forms ,together with the meanings these forms involve, depend on assessment of the contextual and social factors .

Bialystock's (1993) model is relevant for our study as it involves adult learners' development of pragmatic competence and offers explanations to those cognitive mechanisms adult learners have to activate in order to learn and use their pragmatic knowledge in an appropriate manner. Many studies support Bialystock's model. Evidence came from House's (1996) and Hassal's (1997) studies which illustrated that an insufficient control of processing limited their learners appropriate use of the language. For example, German EFL learners in House's (1996) study experienced difficulties with responsive moves by showing poorly aligned responses during their interactions. In Hassal's (1997) study learners of Indonesian faced problems to employ internal modifiers in sequentially appropriate fashion, not because they lacked the necessary pragmatic knowledge ,but due to their inability to employ it appropriately in real time.

To sum up, we can say that both analysis of knowledge and control are important processing components of cognition that provide a framework for understanding how pragmatic competence develops in the first or second language. As far as the acquisition of pragmatics in the SL and more particularly in the FL is concerned, which is the focus of our study, Bialystock (1993) suggests that language instruction may assist adults in the control of processing given the difficulties they experience with this dimension. Similarly, we think that an appropriate type of instruction can contribute to learners' capacity to use the pragmatic knowledge they have already acquired in an appropriate way.

Results of SLA research together with teaching practice have shown that successful language instruction where there is extensive of meaningful exposure to the TL and intensive interaction in or with the target language. Van Patten (1996) stated that the scarcity of input might be considered the crucial factor leading to failure in second language learning in a classroom. Therefore, one of the main tasks of SLA research is to investigate the factors that foster learners' ability to communicate effectively in the target language. Most attention then has been paid to the different conditions that affect SLA, namely, those of appropriate input, possible opportunities for output and provision of feedback. As Ellis (1994) suggests we have to take into account both the learners linguistic competence and pragmatic competence. According to Kasper **(**2001b:57) in order to develop learners pragmatic competence in the target language certain aspects have to be observed including:

> Sustained focused input, both pragmatic and metapragmatic, collaborative practice activities, and metapragmatic reflection appear to provide learners with input and practice they need for developing most aspects of their pragmatic abilities

Kasper (ibid.) seems to stress the importance of three important conditions necessary to develop learners' communicative competence. These three conditions are input, practice and reflection or feedback.

3.2 Input in the teaching context

In the process of second and foreign language learning input plays a crucial role simply because leaning cannot take place without input of some sort. The importance of input has always been recognized therefore, much research has been undertaken to explore the nature of input-processing. Researchers in the field regardless of their theoretical orientations have attempted to answer questions such as: how input is processed during TL acquisition; how is input incorporated into learners' interlanguage systems; the amount of input that is necessary for learning to take place; the various facilitative attributes of input. However, before we approach this issue we must first define the term input and find out how it is perceived in the process of second and foreign language learning.

Allwright and Bailey (1991:20) define input as "the language the learners hear or read – that is the language sample to which they are exposed". Sharwood Smith (1994:167) sees input as "the potentially processible language data which are made available, by chance or by design to the learners". Not far from this Krashen (1985) in his input hypothesis argues that for learning to take place second language input needs to be understood. Therefore, the term comprehensible input is a key element in the input hypothesis. The rationale is that, by simplifying input, it becomes more comprehensible and this, in turn, eases the cognitive demands on learners and allows them to pay more attention to forms in the input that are not part of their current IL systems and thereby acquire more language (Krashen, ibid.).Therefore, according to the input hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the ‘natural order’ when s/he receives second language input that is one step beyond her/his current stage of linguistic competence. So, if a learner is at a stage ‘I’, then acquisition takes place when s/he is exposed to a ‘comprehensible input’ that belongs to level ‘i+1’.Since not all the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that ‘natural communicative input’ is the key to designing a syllabus ,insuring in this way that each learner will receive some ‘i+1’ input that is appropriate for her/his current stage of linguistic competence.

In line with Krashen, Van Patten (2000) differentiates between three types of input that SLA research has discussed over the last three decades .These are the simplified ,the modified and the enhanced input. However, it is still important to find out whether these three kinds of input simplifications (Hatch, 1983), modifications by (Long 1983) or alterations by Van Patten (1996) increase learners’ comprehension.

However the question that arises is whether all the available data in the learners’ environment can be absorbed and converted from input into *intake* (elements of the input that are noticed by the learner and become available for acquisition).Consequently, the discussion over the mechanisms and processes that are responsible for the input-intake conversion came to the fore. In fact, the term intake was first introduced by Corder (1967) and refers to the language that is available to and used by the learners in order to promote

TL acquisition. In his seminal paper about how input is perceived in the process of L2 acquisition, Corder (1967:161) discussed the notion of input and states that:

> The simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input, for the reason that input is "what goes in" not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls input or more precisely his intake.

For Corder (ibid.) then, not all available data in the learner's environment can be absorbed and used in building the learner's IL grammar. So, the condition that would enable the conversion of input into intake became a focal point of research.

In order to explain the process of input intake transition, Chaudron (1985) proposed a model that consists of three essential intake stages. The first stage is called the preliminary intake where the input is perceived. The second stage represents the recoding and encoding of the semantic information into long term memory. The third and the last one is intake where learners fully integrate and incorporate the linguistic information in the input into their developing grammars. The general view in Chaudron's (1985) model of information processing is that first a neural-based and bottom-up signal processing takes place, where auditory detectors receive speech or visual signals as neural impulses and analyze them according to constraints involved in the detectors. The received input is then analyzed and stored in short term memory. From there, the linguistic rules and other knowledge systems are called upon from long term memory to be interpreted and synthesized into phoneme and word strings. Once the surface structures fade in short term memory, more abstract representation of the speech, through rehearsal and recoding is retained in long term memory. During this phase, processing operates both in a bottom-up and top-down manner. In fact, in this input-comprehending phase, a continuous interaction and exchange is taking place in working memory.

So, once comprehension takes place in the first two intake stages, ultimately learners may move to the third and last stage where their interlanguage grammar is restructured and developed. In fact, Chaudron's (1985) model is compatible with both Krashen's (1982) and Kasper's (1982) views. Both of them assert that by the comprehension of input using their L2 competence and extra linguistic knowledge, learners may notice the gap that exists in their current IL grammar. In krashenite terms the (*i*) and the (*i*+1) presented in the input would become the materials that triggers their next step of development. This gap once noticed by the learners would pave the way to their innate language acquisition device (LAD) to use these new materials to formulate IL rules and perform hypothesis-testing. Finally, learners' output and the feedback they receive will be used to test, confirm or revise the rules before it is definitely incorporated into the learners' IL grammar. However, Chaudron's (1985) model should be considered as an overview of input processing and starting point for further elaborated discussions.

In this sense, and in line with Chaudron, Sharwood Smith (1985) stressed the importance of the derivation of meaning before acquisition. A basic condition is the comprehension of the messages in order for the learners to be able to proceed with the first stage of comparing semantic representations. Like Krashen (1982), Sharwood Smith favours the use of rich and complex input instead of simplified input. In that way learners can use additional extra-linguistic environment to derive semantic representations when their current linguistic competence cannot support full understanding.

In just the same way, Van Patten (1996) considers that input has been analyzed from different perspectives and differentiates between three types of input that SLA research has addressed over the last three decades. These are the simplified, the modified and the enhanced input. However, as Van Patten (ibid.) argues this research has been external to the learners and believe that the focus of research should be on input during online comprehension. To cover this particular aspect of input, Van Patten (1995-1996) has proposed a model of input processing that takes into account the kind of form-meaning connections that learners make during comprehension. In this sense, Van Patten insists on the analysis of intake.

All the models reviewed so far, have considered intake as a process consisting of different stages of assimilating information. In fact, it was Gass (1988) who proposed a model which has been considered as a detailed description of the different mechanisms that intervene in the process of SLA. Similar to Chaudron's (1985) and Sharwood Smith's (1985) models Gass proposed a model with the stages of apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration, and output. This model constitutes a theoretical framework that transforms ambient speech that is input into output. Gass' (1988) model contains five main components illustrated in the figure below:

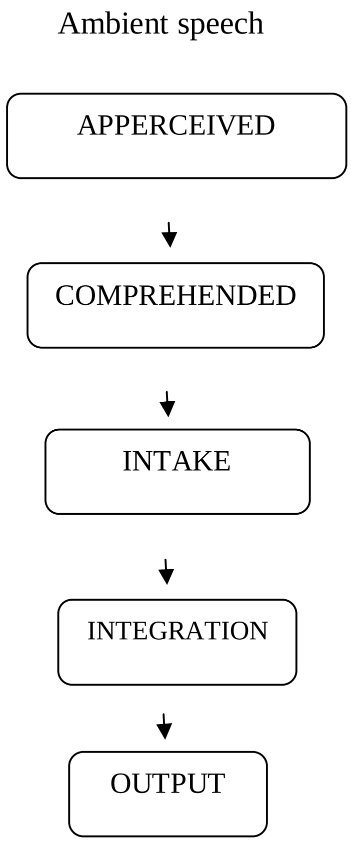

Figure 07: A model of Second Language Acquisition. Gass (1988:200)

According to Gass' (1988) model, the first stage which she calls apperceived input starts with what the learner notices and perceives in the language. Here, she subscribes to Schmidt's noticing hypothesis which considers conscious noticing as a necessary condition for converting input into intake. This hypothesis has already been discussed in section 1.1.1 above .The second level proposed in her framework is comprehended input which is not to be confused with Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input. She also contends that not all noticed input may be comprehended. For Gass, comprehended input is controlled by the learner while comprehensible input is under the control of the person providing input. The third step in Gass' (1988) model is intake which refers to any comprehended input that is used for the purpose of facilitating learning. That is why she believes that not all comprehended input becomes intake. The next step after intake is integration where the learner encodes intake through processes such as hypothesis formation and testing. The last and important step in this model is output since as Gass (ibid.) point out production is a crucial and a necessary stage in the acquisition process.

As a summary of the models reviewed so far, we can say that they all converge on the necessity of comprehensible input or comprehended input to use Gass' terminolgy. In line with Gass (1988), we also believe that in addition to noticing and comprehending input, using the language is indispensable for making learners' acquisition of the TL easier. This particular theoretical condition for learning is output and will be discussed in a subsequent section. We also think that developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence requires rich, varied and contextually appropriate input.

3.3 Input in the EFL context

According to Ellis (1994), pragmatic competence is developed through providing learners with sufficient and adequate input for their cognitive process to turn input into intake and implicit knowledge. Therefore, the input to which learners are exposed is determinant in terms of both quality and quantity. However, in terms of immersion in the target language, learners of second language have more opportunities to be in contact with the target language which facilitates the development of their pragmatic competence. In contrast, FL learners are in a disadvantageous position since their exclusive input comes from the classroom. In fact, in the FL context one can distinguish between three main sources of input, namely, those of the teacher, the materials, and other learners.

In the FL context, learners are dependent on their teachers for an appropriate model of the target language .However, this source of input or teacher talk has been considered as language that is generally attended to or simplified to be adapted to the learners needs. According to Trosborg (1995), this adapted or structured 'easified' language is characterized by a simple register, short utterances, and no ungrammatical speech etc. Moreover, teachers are regarded to be models that provide their learners with the different pragmatic aspects such as the rules of politeness, the appropriate use of formulaic expressions, employing different linguistic forms depending on social parameters. However, many studies have revealed that the input provided by teachers is hardly favourable for acquiring communicative competence in the classroom. Most of the time teachers who are considered to models for their learners do not really master all the aspects of the pragmatic competence of the TL.

Therefore, we do agree with Kasper (1997b) and Bardovi-Harlig (1992, 1996, and 2001) who believe that it is indispensable to develop training programmes for teachers to make them aware of the importance of their talk. For this reason, it is essential to use adequate or appropriate materials that would eventually help learners in the acquisition of pragmatic competence. In fact, we do agree with Bardovi-Harlig (1996:34) as she states that "it is important that learners observe native speakers in action". Nunan (1997) also argued that exposing learners to authentic texts is important because of the rich language provided by these materials a “real language full of overlaps, hesitations, false starts, repetitions, requests of clarifications and so on”. Such features actually facilitate comprehension and adequately prepare the learners for dealing with genuine communication either inside or outside the classroom. Nunan (ibid.36) further contends that:

> I would argue that learners should be fed as rich a diet of authentic data as possible because ultimately if they only ever encounter specially written dialogues and listening texts, the language exchange will be made more difficult.

Increasing contact with the target language, then, appears to be one of the most critical factors for second language acquisition. Lazar (1999:18) claims that “by exposing students to rich language of the text, we can expand their language awareness, their overall knowledge of how words can be used.” Therefore, in the FL context selecting adequate material is vital in order to develop learners’ communicative and pragmatic competence. Here, authentic materials are necessary as a good source of natural linguistic input that reflect real discourse including hesitations, rephrasing, paralinguistic features, and a variety of accounts.

Moreover, Belasco (1972) stated that using solely contrived materials will not get the students the students to a level where he/she can understand natural language. Materials in the classroom ‘must be supplemented with ‘live “materials’ before the language gap between basic foreign language performance and real foreign language performance can be bridged’(Belasco1972:10:20).Authentic materials, in the context of the language classroom, include oral and written texts that occur naturally in the target language environment and that have not been created or edited expressly for language learners. However, in a traditional language classroom, the main support is generally the textbook, yet “In many teaching situations …textbooks are considered to lag behind an understanding of the nature of language and of students' linguistic and learning needs" (McDough and Shaw, 1993:92).

In general, textbooks create a climate of socially isolated learning. It has also been claimed that most course books and other manuals are based on non-native speakers' intuitions rather than on empirical studies of communicative and pragmatic norms (Boxer 2003; Lo Castro 2003). Learners in fact need more materials that help them become thoughtful participants in a socially rich environment for learning the target language (Karpova, 1999).Following this, a number of research analyzed the different types of materials used in the classroom, and have unveiled their artificial and decontextualized language input as well as a blatant absence of naturally occurring conversational models which represent the real use of language.

In this respect, a study conducted by Bardovi-Harlig et al (1991) examined closings in about twenty ESL textbooks and found out that most of them introduced new grammatical structures instead of presenting realistic conversational input. Another study by Alcon and Trickers (1999) analyzed the use of the discourse marker "well" in some EFL textbooks and in film transcript showed that this type of input did not pay any attention to the real and different use of "well" as an interactive discourse marker signaling insufficiency or mitigating face threats.

In the FL context where contact with the target language is scarce, the introduction of spontaneous speech captured in authentic data would certainly develop the underlying strategies of speech behaviour. The advantage of such materials is that they provide a link of classroom language learning with language usage outside the classroom in real life contexts. They introduce the real life into the classroom and arm students with "real life" experiences in which they will have to function. For this reason, we believe that it is necessary to base teaching materials and teaching practices on natural language data in order to provide the necessary conditions in the classroom to develop learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. In this respect, many researchers favour the use of authentic materials over the overly simplified language of non authentic materials which depend on concocted texts and simplified versions.

Several researchers, then, have proposed alternatives to replace this artificial presentation of natural conversation in textbooks. Some advocate the use of spoken corpora which has been regarded as a useful instrument to present authentic materials in an EFL classroom. Campoy and Safont (2001) carried out a study on the use of indirect request strategies in two different oral corpora which involved both EFL learners and non native speakers. The result of this research revealed the differences existing between those EFL learners and non native speakers' oral production in the use of this particular request. The same authors obtained the same results after having compared EFL learners' production of requests with online transcripts from non native speakers both formal and informal dialogues. The authors came to the conclusion that exploiting authentic data for pedagogical purposes is beneficial in the EFL classroom.

Research has also demonstrated the value and benefits of audio visual input which refers to the use of video, films and TV. Videos in particular, are effective because of their ability to be received at different levels (Brown 1987:24).The language in video is living language, and as such offers more of the multifaceted nature of the language to the learners than is normally acquired through a textbook, an audio tape, or educational video tapes. In fact, many researchers have advocated the use of video as a language teaching resource in the classroom because videos make it easier to imagine the context of living English than printed text, pictures or audiotape alone. Ur (1984) suggests that the uses of visual materials because they are striking and stimulating are likely to heighten learners' motivation and concentration. Lonergan (1984) also points out that videotaped materials provide visual and paralinguistic clues, proxemics, kinesics and vocalization. Hart (1992); Hennessey (1995) Wyburd (1995) and Canning –Wilson (2000) claimed that the use of audiovisual materials provides a contextualized view of language and helps learners visualize words and meanings. Ryan (1988) and Kasper (1997b) point out that the use of films change classroom routines, develop learners' motivation and activate their cognitive domains. For all these reasons, authentic audiovisual materials constitute an invaluable source of input that should be exploited in the FL classroom in order to develop FL learners' communicative competence. In fact, students became aware of the relationship between participants when performing specific speech acts and also of the contextual factors affecting their conversational interactions (Thomas, 1995).

Besides exposure to different sources, all these authors agree that active participation from learners is also necessary for the acquisition of pragmatic competence. Therefore, it is essential to provide learners with opportunities for output which is a necessary condition to develop our learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.

3.3.1 Input enhancement

Many researchers have paid attention to the role of enhancing input as a way to direct learners' attention to the particular form of forms in the TL. Input enhancement refers to deliberate manipulation of L2 input with the intention of making certain features more perceptually salient than others. In other words, it serves as a tool for focusing on a particular form or forms. It is normally done by highlighting L2 target form either typographically or intonationally. The objective behind it is to implicitly or explicitly make learners notice TL forms and consequently increase the rate at which they acquire the forms. This type of attention drawing activity was originally defined by Sharwood Smith (1991) as consciousness-raising and implied focusing on deliberately on the formal properties of the language could alter learners' mental state. Generally this process of highlighting would result in intake. In fact, it was Sharwood Smith (ibid.) who modified this term to *input enhancement* (IE henceforth) to indicate that although certain aspects of the input can be altered, teachers cannot directly manipulate learners' attention to those aspects and, thus, no further assumptions about the consequences of that manipulation on learners can be made. Hence, as Sharwood Smith (ibid:1) puts it, IE is the process that can be "a result of deliberate manipulation or it can be the natural outcome of some internal learning strategy". Externally driven enhancement is when a teacher, through a variety of means draws attention to a particular area of language, for example the s-ending of the third person singular. Internally driven enhancement comes about through learners' own devices when they attend to something themselves. For example, the s-ending may become somehow salient with or without external IE. This in fact becomes evident in the learners' output by using correct verb ending-s in the third person singular. Put simply, in the first process there is more explicit intervention, while the latter is the description of implicit processes taking place in language learning. The figure below illustrates the two processes.

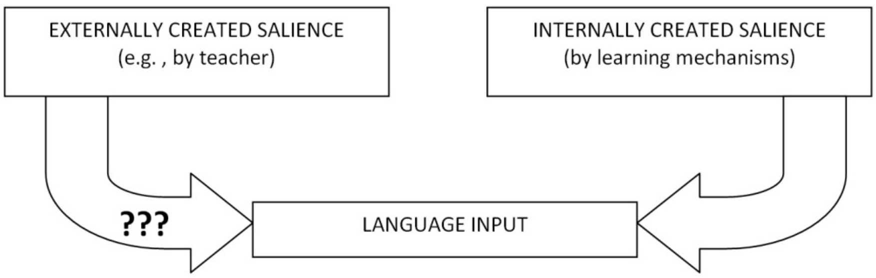

Figure 08 **:** Input enhancement (Source: Sharwood Smith, 1991:121)

Since then, input enhancement is a construct that has been addressed in many studies. In order to operationalize it, several pedagogical techniques that increase the salience of the target items in the input have been employed to make learners notice the gap between interlanguage and the TL. This aspect of input was also addressed in Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis discussed in section (3.1.1)

In fact there are many types of input enhancement .The most used one is textual enhancement which refers to changing the input by means of the use of underlining, bolding, italics or capital and pauses and repetition on audiovisual materials. According to Sharwood Smith (1991), the purpose of this type of visual input enhancement is to attract learners' attention to form in an implicit and unobtrusive way, since the manipulation only involves making form perceptually salient without offering any explicit expectation of what should be processed. Research on the implementation of this technique has been reported by Izumi (2002) with varying results.

The studies conducted by Doughty (1988, 1991), Shook (1994), Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson and Doughty (1995) demonstrated the positive effects of input enhancement. In a classroom based study Jourdenais et al (1995) investigated the effect of textual input enhancement on the learning of the preterit and imperfect forms of Spanish. They wanted to examine the relationship between textual enhancement of target forms and noticing, as well as the effects on subsequent TL language production. The results from their experimental study showed that typographical enhancement is an effective way to increase the salience of a target form that might otherwise pass unnoticed. They also concluded that participants not only noticed more target forms but also produced more of these target features in obligatory contexts.

Shook (1994), in a quasi-experimental study also examined the effects of textual enhancement on the acquisition of Spanish present perfect and relative pronouns *que/quien.*The results showed that enhancement groups outperformed the no enhancement group. The researcher concluded that drawing attention trough textual enhancement to the target linguistic features allows the learners to use input for intake. In another study conducted in a laboratory, Doughty (1991) investigated the effects of two kinds of comprehension-based instruction on the acquisition of English relative clauses by 21 intermediate adult learners of English in the United States. It was assumed that instruction that targets marked relative clauses would generalize to unmarked context of relativization. Again, this experiment showed that this type of instruction was a necessary condition leading to intake of relative clauses. She concluded that improvement of both instructed groups was due to input enhancement and not rule explanation.

However research conducted by Alanen (1995), Robinson (1997) and White (1998) only found limited effects of this technique and the studies by Leow (1997) and Jourdenais (1998) did not find any significant effect at all. Alanen's (1995) study investigated the extent to which visual enhanced input and rule presentation input enhancement affected the acquisition of the learning target. The participants were American University students learning locative suffixes and consonant alternation in a semi artificial Finnish. The students were divided into four groups that involved mere exposure, input enhancement, rule presentation and both presentation and input enhancement. The result of post experimental tasks revealed that the groups with rule did better than the other two groups and that the input enhancement group did not outperform the mere exposure group. However, it is not possible to tease apart the role that the enhancements may have played in promoting acquisition of the target forms. In another study dealing with the perceptual salience of third person singular possessive determiners, White (1998) also obtained partial results for the effectiveness of typographical enhancement. The author suggested that drawing learners' attention towards the target forms was beneficial to speed up the acquisition of the enhanced forms, but this type of implicit technique was not adequate or sufficient in situations that involved contrasts between the first language and the TL.

All the studies undertaken so far, have examined the effectiveness of input enhancement at the morphosyntactic level, however, research on the implementation of this implicit technique with other aspects of the TL is rather scarce. This observation was made by Moroishi (1999) who focused on appropriate usage of four Japanese conjectural auxiliaries in different contexts. In this study, the author implemented the input enhancement technique by underlining these auxiliaries to direct learners' attention to them. Results from the study, however, showed that the use of this technique alone was not as effective as the metalinguistic explanations that the explicit group received. Input enhancement has also been operationalized at the pragmatic level in Fukuya and Clark' (2001) study. The authors conducted a study on ESL students who were randomly assigned to one of three groups depending on the type of instruction they received. The first two experimental groups were exposed to two differing versions of a videotaped drama in which the characters mitigated requests. The version of the first group included explicit instruction on the sociopragmatic factors that affected the use of mitigators, while the second group watched a different version that contained typographical enhancement of the mitigators, since they were highlighted yellow any time they appeared in the situations. The control group watched a different video tape that was not concerned with requests. Results from the three groups' performance on both listening comprehension and pragmatic recognition post-tests did not show any significant differences among the three groups in their pragmatic ability.

Although the results were not encouraging, the authors suggest the implementation of input enhancement technique on pragmatic aspects may be effective if they are operationalized in a way that is salient enough for learners to notice. In fact, Izumu (2002) mentions that some of the SLA studies discussed above, which supported the benefits of visual enhancement, employed this technique in combination with other forms of assistance and this may have been the reason for its effectiveness. Given these results, the author suggests that there is a need for further research that pay attention to a combination of different instructional techniques instead of relying on the use of only one.

3.4 Output

Swain (1985,1993,2000) was the first to develop what came to be known as the output hypothesis in which learners are supposed to be producing the target language. Swain (1985) conducted a study on Canadian students who were studying at French-Medium schools. The students were learning French by being immersed in the TL through a content-based approach. After comparing the results of 6^{th} grade native speakers and non native speakers of French in grammar, she found that while these students achieved near native levels of comprehension in reading and listening, they did not achieve as well when speaking and writing. Their oral production contained morphological and syntactical errors and lack of precision in vocabulary. In other words, their productive skills lagged behind their receptive ones. Students seemed to be able to understand input while only partly processing the language it contained. Swain (1985) argued that input was not the only necessary condition in language learning. These findings also raised doubts about the validity of input hypothesis, most particularly the argument that comprehensible input "was the true cause of second language acquisition"(Krashen 1984:61).Therefore, Swain (1985:235) believes that "input alone is insufficient because input only involved understanding meaning(Semantic processing) while form (accuracy) in output is involved." In fact, output is all that production with its precision, coherence and appropriateness and which is considered to be a necessary condition for the acquisition of the target language. Therefore, Swain (2000) argues that in order to for the learners to see how the target language functions and how to express their intended meaning, they need not only to comprehend but to produce the target language as well.

Moreover, Swain (1995) identifies three main functions for output namely, those of the noticing/triggering function, the hypothesis testing function, and the metalinguistic function. The first function, that is, the noticing /triggering function refers to what learners may notice as a hole in their interlanguage. In other words, the learners cannot say what they want to say because they do not have the linguistic means to do so. So, while attempting to produce output learners notice these holes. This generally makes them realize their linguistic deficiencies and make them modify their output. Swain (ibid.) also regards the second function, which is the hypothesis testing function as a stage where learners use their output in order to try new language forms and structures .In the last function which is the metalinguistic function or metatalk learners' output may serve as a means of reflection on language while their main aim is to get meaning across.

Evidence from research that supports some of the facilitative function of the output hypothesis suggests that output might indeed be beneficial for second language acquisition. The noticing function of output has been the subject of many studies over the last two decades. Izumu and Bigelow (2000) for instance, compared four experimental groups composed of combinations of 6 output and six input enhancement and a control group. The output groups engaged in a text reconstruction task, whereas the control groups answered extension questions based on the text. Findings revealed that participants in the output groups used the target form in the reconstruction tasks outperformed non-output and control groups on posttest measures.

Another study conducted by Horibe (2000) compared two instructional treatment conditions (input only and input + output) to examine the effects of opportunities for output in the acquisition of the target forms, which were several syntactic structures. The subjects' thought processes in spoken output were elicited in think-aloud protocol interviews. The participants in the study were 31 college students in a Japanese course in 3 intact classes input only (input group, input and output group (output group),and no instruction(control group).The results indicated that no statistically significant difference between the input group and the output group in terms of the acquisition rates of the target forms.

In the same context, a study by Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) provided evidence that comprehensible output results in actual improvements .In this study, six adult EFL Japanese students were asked to participate in a jigsaw task with their teacher in which they described actions in pictures that, they were told, occurred the previous day or the previous week-end. According to Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993), their study provided some support for the claim that 'pushing' learners to improve the accuracy of their production results not only in immediate improved performance but also in gains in accuracy over time.

According to a number of researchers (Swain and Lapkin,1995; Shehadeh, 1999,2001; Iwashita, 1999,2001.Izumi, 2000,2002; Izumi and Bigelow,2000)the noticing function of output is an efficient means of internalizing new knowledge or consolidating what has already been acquired .All these researchers agree that the process of noticing a gap in their interlanguage performance makes learners activate mental processes that lead them to modify their input and thereby help in their language acquisition and learning.

Also targeting the role of the hypothesis testing and metalinguistic function, a number of studies of collaborative dialogue conducted by Donato (1994), Kowal Swain and (1994), Swain (1995) have shown that when learners notice a problem in the interlanguage production and they verbalize it in fact, they engage in an activity of testing different hypotheses. They reach the correct form only by trying these hypotheses. Through doing so, they contribute to the production of language and reflect on it to produce meaningful utterances which stimulate their language acquisition.

In the same manner, we believe that for pragmatic competence to develop it needs opportunities for practice. LoCastro (2003) points out that research in SLA confirm that practising what has been taught contributes to fluency in all areas of language including pragmatic competence. The same author insists on the role of the organization of the classroom in providing opportunities for practice. Therefore, she distinguishes between more teacher-controlled classroom and group work organization.

As far as the teacher's control of the class is concerned, many researchers believe that the typical Interaction – Response – Feedback (IRF) pattern in which the teacher initiates discourse, students respond and the teacher gives feedback limits learners' involvement in productive practices (Kasper 1997a,2001b).This organization then does not help in type development of learners' pragmatic competence because the teacher controls the classroom and learners have a few opportunities to participate in the oral activities It is nonetheless true that teachers may constitute models and providers of sociocultural information if they interact with students allowing them to produce appropriate output. To support this claim, a longitudinal study was carried out by Kanagy and Igrashi (1997) on English speaking children's comprehension of pragmatic routines on Japanese. The results of this study showed that by initiating target language speech, the children were able to create more opportunities for output which is then followed by additional input from the teacher including feedback.

Also focusing on classroom organization, Trosborg (1995) claim that working in groups has a lot of advantages since learners are active participants who ask for clarification and confirmation, take risks and use different ways of expressing their own thinking.Trosborg (1995) also points out that involving learners in role interactions is a way increasing their linguistic output. For her, role plays are excellent exercises for enhancing learners' communicative competence with a focus on pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects.

In line with Trosborg, we would agree that collaborative work is helpful since learners' output can serve as a source for other learners' input. However, learners' output is not always correct. So, correction or feedback by another participant, who may be either a teacher or a peer, is indispensable. Feedback then is the third necessary condition for developing learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.

3.5 Corrective Feedback

In the field of second and foreign language learning there are various terms used to identify errors and to provide repair or what we call feedback. The most common terms are: corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback. Therefore, in order to avoid any possible confusion arising from the use of these terms we will present a brief review of their definitions. In general, corrective feedback refers to the data learners receive with information about what is not allowed in the TL. Feedback which is the third condition after input and output in language learning in general and pragmatics in particular, has also been addressed as negative input (Pica, 1996). Furthermore, Chaudron (1988) believes that the term feedback incorporates different layers of meaning. To Chaudron (1988:150), corrective feedback refers to any "teacher behaviors following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error". The true correction then, is the one which succeeds in modifying the learners' interlanguage rule in a way that errors are eliminated.

Additionally, the term corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback are used interchangeably by different researchers. In fact, feedback can take two forms. First, it can be explicit by providing grammar explanation or overt error correction. Second, it can be implicit and takes the form of confirmation checks, repetition, recasts, clarification requests and even facial expressions. Long (1996) suggests that the feedback provided to the learners can be classified in two main categories namely, those of positive evidence and negative evidence. For Long (1996) (ibid), positive evidence simply means providing the learner with models of what is grammatical in the TL, whereas, negative evidence refers to direct and indirect information about what is unacceptable. Another important distinction should be made between negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form. The former refers to restoring and/or maintaining understanding while in the latter one interlocutor tries to push the other towards a more appropriate utterance.

Several studies have focused on interactional modifications that take place when communication breakdowns occur in a conversation. Most of these studies suggest that interactional modification can help ensure message comprehensibility. As far as negotiation of meaning is concerned, studies undertaken by Gass and Varonis (1985), Doughty and Pica (1986) have suggested that NNSs do indeed use interactional adjustments to generate supply of comprehensible input. When confronted with a gap in understanding, they signal the problem and request clarifications from interlocutors who may use different techniques including repetition, request clarifications, requests for confirmation, elaboration or simplification of the original utterance. The result of their studies on 'negotiation of meaning' indicate that it is more likely to occur in groups of NNSs than in teacher-led classes. This happens if the speakers are from different language backgrounds (Varonis and Gass (1985).Moreover, if the speakers are engaged upon a task that obliges them to exchange information, then the incidence of negotiation increases further.

Moreover, an increasing number of studies both descriptive and experimental have been undertaken to examine the effects of corrective feedback on learners' oral performance. A descriptive study carried out by Chaudron (1988) examined the types of corrective feedback provided by teachers to their French immersion learners. The study revealed that most of feedback did not have any of the desired effects. However, the feedback that consisted of repetition with emphasis led to correct reformulation by the learners than other types. Doughty (1998) in a classroom based study where the researcher observed adult learners of French as a foreign language, found that most of the times the teacher used clarification requests, repetitions and recasts. The analysis of learners' responses to the feedback correction showed that the learners did not respond to any of the oral corrective feedback except for recasts (teacher's reformulation of all parts of student's utterance, minus the error).

Experimental studies of the effects of different corrective feedback on EFL learners' oral proficiency have also been conducted in both laboratory and classroom settings. Doughty and Varela (1998) for instance, examined the use of corrective feedback within a middle school content based ESL science class. Findings from their experiments revealed that the learners who received corrective feedback from their teacher on specific aspects of the TL exhibited greater oral accuracy than those who did not. The effective role of feedback has also been investigated by other experimental studies (Iwashita 2003; Long 1996.Mackey1995; Mackey and Philip 2003).The different findings across these experimental studies on corrective feedback can be very helpful for the development of EFL learners' language proficiency.

However, none of the studies reviewed so far have demonstrated a direct relationship between feedback and an increase in learners' language proficiency in general and pragmatic ability in particular. Scholars such as Kasper and Schmidt (1996), claim that corrective feedback plays an important role in developing learners' pragmatic ability in the classroom. The same authors believe that it should be provided for both aspects of language i.e. form and meaning. However, Washburn (2001) thinks that this is not always the case since explicit feedback on pragmatic learning is usually nonexistent. This, of course, does not facilitate the development of pragmatic ability and therefore, learners are not made aware of their pragmalinguistic and sociopragamtic failures.

Recently, however, pragmatic development has been addressed by an increasing number of studies. An instance of this are Studies on academic advising sessions conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993, 1996) in which feedback could only be given on the content and not on the form have shown that this limitation restricted learners' pragmatic development. This is due to the fact that learners were not exposed to appropriate forms that would have allowed them to modify their output. Besides, students were in disadvantageous situation because they could not observe other students who might have served as models performing the same task.

Another study conducted by Alcon (2001b) on academic advising setting examined teachers' production of suggestions and the use of mitigation. The result of this research showed that teachers' output could be regarded as positive input for learners. The author notes that learners' output should be adequately supported by teachers' pertinent feedback. Alcon (ibid.) claims that exposure to the TL or opportunities for language use alone are not enough for the developing of the NNS's pragmatic competence. In recent studies Alcon (2001a) and Alcon and Codina (2002) have dealt with the speech act of requesting. The authors examined whether the FL classroom provides learners with opportunities for exposure and use of requests. Both studies revealed that neither input directed towards the learners nor opportunities to practice the speech act of requesting were given. The authors also observed the lack of appropriate feedback on the part of the teacher. Therefore, according to Alcon and Codina (ibid.) further empirical research is needed to examine the effect of direct feedback and indirect feedback on learners' pragmatic competence. The authors also propose the adoption of focus on form approach to teach pragmatic competence in the FL classroom.

So far, we have seen that corrective feedback is an essential condition that informs learners about their own output. Learners' production may change as a result of this negative input which can lead to develop their pragmatic competence. In this sense, we believe that incorporating feedback whether it be explicit or implicit in the FL classroom is as essential as the other theoretical conditions of input and output to develop learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.

3.6 Pragmatic competence in the FL classroom

It is now widely recognized that teaching and learning a language involves far more than targeting its surface grammatical or lexical systems. The other aspects of language have been referred to as invisible, as they are often the most difficult to teach and acquire. Therefore, in order to acquire pragmatic competence, second and foreign language learners need to acquire cultural understanding and communication skills. In fact, every behaviour or action can be considered as communication, and each of our actions reflect our cultural background including our opinions towards gender, religion, life style, politics and even personal space. Consider the following examples:

Holmes and Brown (1987:525) give the example of a male student who complimented his female teacher by saying: 'You're wearing a lovely dress. It fits you'. Holmes (1986:488) argues that: 'Complimenting is a complex sociolinguistic skill'. The speech act of complimenting has a 'darker side', as it may be interpreted as offensive, patronizing, sarcastic, ironic, or even as put down. This is actually what happened in the above example where the female teacher considered the compliment from a young male student as inappropriate .Ochs (1993) gives the example that a compliment to her as professional academic could be interpreted as the speaker trying to foreground her gender identity (female) and attempt to establish a more intimate relationship, which make her feel indebted to the speaker. Therefore, giving a compliment may be considered by some cultures as the ‘complimenter’s debt’ (Holmes 1986:487), where the receiver may feel obliged to return the compliment. We all know that Americans frequently compliment on looks and clothes. Compliment of this type are taught by textbooks as one of the common ones used by American speakers. How could this student know then, that this compliment may convey unintended messages rather than showing his interest in using the language?

Another example from Sharifian (2005:119) states that an Iranian female student at Shiraz University receives from her American lecturer the recommendation letter that she has asked him to write for her and then says:’ I’m ashamed’ . Bewildered by the student’s response, the lecturer asks what have you done?!!!’.Therefore, he whoe do not use pragmatically appropriate language run the risk of appearing uncooperative at the least, or more are seriously rude or insulting. These examples of pragmatic failure L2 learners may encounter when they are involved in the act of communication. In trying to communicate they may simply translate speech acts from their mother tongue to the target language. Moreover, unlike grammatical errors, pragmatic failures often pass unchecked by the teacher or, worse it is attributed to some other cause, such as rudeness .A situation like this instigates us to assume that we ought to teach the rule of appropriate language use.

Langacker in Sharifian (2007:15) describes language as “an essential instrument and component of culture”. For Sharifian (ibid.) language is a cultural element that allows its users to reflect different elements that define their identity, such as educational background, traditions, beliefs and even emotional states. Consequently, the discourse or language that a person uses is shaped by the innate potentials and sociocultural experiences that the individuals may encounter throughout their lives. Friedrich (1989:295) refers to “this nexus of language and culture as linguaculture”. Cultural characteristics and features are common in every language. These features shape the way the language is spoken and determine the denotation and connotation of words, phrases, and even body language

.Therefore, pragmatics becomes a very useful discipline that allows language educators to do more specific error analysis regarding cultural differences in language. Moreover, the status of English as a global language allows different cultures to communicate and interact in a variety of settings. This kind of interaction requires a well-developed concept of correctness and politeness amongst the speakers.

However, many scholars think that pragmatic competence cannot be learned by exposure or osmosis. The role of both educators and teachers is to find appropriate ways of teaching culture , "not as if it were a fifth skill to be added on L2 study but by taking *cultural context* as central (original italics)" Kramcsh (1993:13).Talking about the teacher's role Thomas (1983:96) states that the role of the teacher is "to equip the students to express her/himself in exactly the way s/he chooses to do so – rudely, tactfully, or in an elaborately polite manner. What we want is her/his being unintentionally rude or subservient". We can infer from this that Thomas (1983) suggests that students should be equipped with the necessary knowledge to make their own decision about how to use the TL.

Although Eslami Rasekh (2005) contends that it is the teacher's responsibility to teach pragmatic aspects, many teachers still struggle finding effective ways to create or raise awareness of pragmatic competence in their learners. However, in order to help teachers Bardovi-Harlig (1996) warns against the over-use of textbooks in the classroom, since they represent speech acts either unrealistically or not at all. She proposes four basic steps to incorporate pragmatics into the curriculum. These steps are as follows:

- Identification of the speech act.
- Data collection and description (journals, prediction charts, etc.)
- Evaluation of texts and materials (critiquing dialogues, and group discussions)
- Development of new materials.

The same author suggests a variety of ways to promote pragmatic awareness .For instance, teachers should encourage learners to think how a particular speech act differs in their own language .Such an activity could lead to class-led discussions and for more advanced learners, collecting data outside the classroom. The goal of this kind of exercise is to identify as well as to produce speech acts. Some exercises included learners collecting samples of naturally occurring data in order to develop awareness of the importance of context and topics in which they occurred. Learners are encouraged to collect both written and spoken samples, as well as naturally occurring or film and television data.

Is there a necessity to provide instruction in pragmatic competence? Bardovi-Harlig (1996) answered in a clear yes. Her answer was based on research that shows an obvious discrepancy between native pragmatic competence and that of non-native speakers. She also points out that foreign language learners and teachers place greater importance on grammatical development and have problems with sociocultural implicature. The problem here is that learners tend to rely too heavily on bottom up processing instead of utilizing “frames” for sociocultural interpretation.

Recent studies in SLA (Long,1983,1988,1996; Dougty,1991) have shown the importance of instruction in developing learners’ communicative competence in general and pragmatic competence in particular. In fact, these empirical studies support the assumption that instruction does positively affect acquisition when compared with mere exposure to the TL. The results obtained by Doughty’s (1991) study on relativization using input enhancement support the claim that the mere exposure to the TL language is not sufficient for acquisition to take place. The same idea was supported by the noticing hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (1993) and which was described in section 3.1.1.The**.** result of this study are also relevant to our research since we believe that for AM to be effective materials they need to be accompanied by appropriate instruction. Indeed, faced with a wide variety of available authentic language resources, teachers are confronted with a kind of raw material that needs refinement to be become useful. The teacher then, has to choose the most appropriate material for specific language acquisition needs and language abilities and more importantly devise appropriate activities.

Focusing on the development of communicative competence, Bouton (1996) also points out that this should be the goal of language teaching. He proposes three major directions that researchers can take in order to further contribute to the theory of communicative competence

- The refinement of the study of speech acts.
- An investigation to determine the extent to which explicit instruction can increase the rate at which non-native speakers develop different factors of their pragmatic competence.
- The contribution pragmatics can make to the presentation of different functions of a language in textbooks designed for second language learners.

Considering the last condition, several studies have examined how English language textbooks present speech acts Bardovi-Harlig et al (1996) on closings; Boxer and Pickering (1995)on compliments. These studies are important from EFL perspective since EFL instruction natural input is really scarce in comparison with ESL setting. In these conditions the role of textbooks in raising learners' pragmatic awareness is more important. However, most of the aforementioned studies concluded that textbooks usually fail to provide the necessary and appropriate input and the material they do present differ from real life speech. Therefore, Boxer and Pickering (1995) stress the importance of building teaching materials on spontaneous speech and not solely relying on native speaker intuition. Therefore, enriching the FL classroom with AM is essential to provide sufficient pragmatic input to the learners.

In addition to course books which still focus on grammar, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) believes that the lack of pragmatic awareness can be attributed to other factors including limited input, most of the time inappropriate models from the classroom discourse and, flawed instruction, level of proficiency and of course the learners' first language and culture. In line with Bardovi-Harlig (2001), Kasper (2001b) considers that pragmatic competence can be achieved with success under two conditions: a- When there is some universal pragmatic knowledge such as the ability to express the pragmatic intent indirectly, the main categories of communication acts or the politeness phenomenon, and b- When both pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge can be transferred from the first language to the TL. Kasper (ibid.) also argues that in spite of having the chance to benefit from these situations learners still may not be able to use what they already know. Moreover, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) points out that research on both production and perception of different pragmatic aspects has shown that learners differ considerably from NSs in their pragmatic competence. Therefore, both researchers sustain the idea that instructional intervention may be useful to facilitate the development of learners' pragmatic competence in the TL. We also insist on the necessity of instruction especially in the FL context in order to help our learners attain a certain degree of pragmatic competence that would enable them to communicate competently in the TL.

3.7 Implicit or explicit instruction?

The question of which type of instruction is the most effective for learning the TL is still unanswered. While some researchers emphasize the necessity of explicit instruction to reach the pragmatic aims, others claim that it is only through implicitly integrating the pragmatic aspects of the TL that the FL learners benefit its development. The distinction between explicit and implicit teaching and their potential effectiveness are thus key aspects related to this concern. In the coming lines, we will first define these two concepts and then establish the difference between these two types of instruction.

In the process of acquiring pragmatic knowledge, there are two different types of learning: implicit and explicit. These two terms are not new in the field of SLA. Many authors defined them in different ways. In attempt to differentiate between these two key concepts Stern (1992:327) argues that “the explicit dimension is just whether the learner should be taught to approach the learning task consciously as an intellectual exercise, or whether he should be encouraged to avoid thinking about the language and absorb it intuitively”. According to Stern (ibid) then, explicit learning refers to a conscious process in which learners are aware of the new knowledge they are receiving. Generally, the teaching techniques of explicit learning are observation, conceptualization, explanation, mnemonic devices, rule discovery, relational thinking, trial-and –error, explicit practice, and monitoring. In more precise terms, N. Ellis (1994) considers explicit learning as the forming and testing of hypotheses in search for the correct structure. In the same line, Norris and Ortega (2000) described explicit instruction as rule explanation (deductive/metalinguistic), or had direction to attention to forms and arrives at rules. Doughty (2003:265) argues that “explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explained to learners, or when learners are directed to find rules by attending to forms. Conversely, implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms”.

In contrast, implicit learning is generally defined as a non-conscious process in which learners are not aware of what is being learned, since they focus on the surface features of complex stimulus domain. (Winter and Reber, 1994).Not far from this, N. Ellis (1994:1) views implicit learning as “the acquisition of knowledge about underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which occurs naturally, simply without conscious operations”. According to Stern (1992), implicit learning is manifest in three main ways: a- through implicit practice; b- through experiential approaches which focus the learners' attention on interesting activities and content involving the use of second language; c- the last one is through creating receptive state of mind in the learner. Thus as House (1996) posits the main features of implicit instruction are providing no information. In his study, House (ibid.) notes: no information providing, more extensive conversational practice given instead; no information providing, handouts listing situationally appropriate utterance tokens provided instead; listening to tapes of their own language behaviour; feedback is teacher-initiated, giving rules but withholding metapragmatic explanations.

According to Schmidt (1997), explicit learning refers to a conscious process in which learners are aware of the new knowledge they are receiving. Ellis (1994) believes it is also the forming and testing of hypothesis in a search for the correct structure. In contrast, implicit learning is generally defined as a non-conscious process in which learners are not aware of what is being learned, since they not only focus on the surface features of a complex stimulus domain (Winter and Reber, 1994).Moreover, Ellis (1994) adds that implicit learning is the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environments by a process which occurs naturally, simply and without conscious operations.

Additionally, on the basis of learning with or without awareness, there are two main types of instruction that derive from this distinction. To make the process of SLA easier for learners, Doughty and Williams (1998) distinguish between two types of pedagogical approaches. On the one hand, we have an explicit teaching that directs learners' attention towards the target forms with focus on the explanation of those forms. On the other hand, we have an implicit approach that avoids any metalinguistic explanation and at the same time preserving the communicative situation. The difference then between the two types lies in provision and absence of rules. In other words, explicit teaching includes all types in which rules are explained, while implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms. Moreover, Dekeyser (2003) uses the terms deductive and inductive teaching to distinguish them from other concepts employed in the second language literature. The table below shows the relationship between these concepts.

	Deductive	Inductive
Explicit	Traditional	Rule discovery
Implicit	Using parameters	Leaning L1 from input

Table 03: The inductive/deductive and implicit/explicit dimension
(Source DeKeyser 2003:314)

According to Dekeyser (2003), explicit teaching involves the explanation of the rules of the language. This happens either deductively, that is through directly explaining the rules, or inductively in which learners are expected to find rules after studying or examining examples from a given text. However, when there is no focus on rules the treatment is considered as implicit. The same author claims that the combination between implicit and deductive is clear in cases where children acquire their mother tongue without really being conscious of this process. He also points out that the learning in both implicit and deductive ways is not so obvious. The same author refers to the notion of parameter explained in Universal Grammar to claim the learners may infer a number of characteristics from this parameter without being conscious of what they are learning.

3.8 The comparative studies of explicit and implicit instruction in pragmatics

The importance of the explicit/implicit approach for the development of instructional treatment has given rise to a number of studies that examine this distinction. In order to compare the efficacy of different teaching approaches, most studies selected two types of pedagogical intervention, i.e. explicit versus implicit teaching.SLA researchers have demonstrated over the last twenty years that instruction does make a difference (Long, 1983, 1988, 1991, 1996; and Doughty 1991). In other words, it has been claimed (and empirical research supports this claim) that instruction positively affects acquisition, when compared with mere exposure to the TL. In fact, in a recent revision of instructed SLA, Doughty (2003:261) claim that Long (1988) provided evidence for the effectiveness of instruction in the four domains of SLA, namely those of (1) SLA processes, (2) SLA route,(3) SLA rate, and (4) level of ultimate SL attainment. Moreover, apart from demonstrating the benefits of instruction, Doughty (2003) states that another concern has involved investigation into which type of instruction are most facilitative of SLA.

An important review published between the years of 1980 to 1998 by Norris and Ortega (2000) included most of the empirical studies dealing with the effectiveness of instruction in general and the effectiveness of different types of instruction in particular. In their statistical meta-analysis, the authors identified 250 relevant studies, although only 77 studies were selected for analysis. The criteria the authors adopted in order to select these studies were based on three constructs First drawing on Dekeyser's (1995) definition of explicit instruction, had paid attention to those studies that had compared explicit and implicit instruction approaches to ascertain which of them was more effective. Second, following the tripartite distinction of type of instruction (Long, 1991), they also analysed whether the studies had adopted a focus on forms, a focus on meaning or a focus on form instructional paradigm that is whether the type of attention was directed to meaning, to form-meaning connections, or to forms in isolation. Third, they examined the type of pedagogical intervention employed in each study by relying on Doughty and William's (1988c:258) continuum degree of obtrusiveness.

In fact, Norris and Ortega's (2000) findings for the first criterion adopted, showed an advantage of the explicit over the implicit type of instruction. As far as the other two criteria are concerned, that is the paradigm of instruction employed and the type of pedagogical procedures according to the continuum of obtrusiveness of attention to form, the authors found that focus on form treatments had slightly larger effect sizes than focus on forms treatments. Apart from these findings, the authors also observed that delayed post-tests showed average effect sizes in favour of instructed groups, although they concluded that various research biases, such as the proper operationalization of instructional treatments, the duration of the intervention or the measurement techniques employed, limited the overall interpretation of their findings. Despite these limitations, Norris and Ortega's (ibid.) meta-analysis corroborated the fact that SL instruction makes a difference, and found a substantial difference in statistical terms between studies employing a type of interventional treatment and those using simple exposure to the TL.

Focusing more specifically on the effectiveness of either an explicit or implicit approach for the development of instructional treatments a number of studies have been conducted to examine this distinction. Among these studies, Robinson (1995) conducted an experimental study in real classroom setting that focused on the acquisition of complex English word rules and involved 104 ESL learners. The participants were assigned to four different training conditions incidental, implicit, rule search and instructed. The first two conditions involved implicit treatments, while the two other conditions inductive and deductive explicitly oriented. The results showed that the implicit group did not perform better than the other learners on complex rules. Besides, the explicit deductive group under the instructed condition outperformed the three other conditions in learning simple rules. These findings did not confirm what Krashen (1985, 1994) and Reber (1989, 1993) claimed that complex rules are learned better under implicit learning conditions. A similar study was conducted by N. Ellis (1993) on the soft mutation of initial consonants in Welsh. Again, the structured group under explicit condition outperformed the two other groups.

Despite the findings of the above studies which give support to explicit instruction, many other studies produced results in favour of implicit instruction. Still, others showed no difference between the explicit and the implicit methods, though both methods revealed a good effect. Kubota (1995) for instance, replicated Bouton's (1994) study on implicature and found that learners in the implicit group outperformed those in the explicit group. Still, some studies proved resistant to instruction. House (1996) found that even though learners in her explicit group made considerable progress in incorporating pragmatic routines and discourse strategies into role-play interaction, they continued to show negative transfer from German. Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) and Yoshimi also found learners had difficulty in incorporating some target features into online interaction. Alcon (2005) also investigated to what extent two instructional paradigms (explicit versus implicit instruction) affected learners' knowledge and ability to use request strategies. Results of the study revealed that learners' awareness of requests benefited from both explicit and implicit instruction. In another study, Martinez-Flor and Fukuya (2005) investigated the effects of two types of pragmatic instruction (explicit and implicit) on learning head acts and downgraders in suggestions. The results revealed that both explicit and implicit groups had post-instructional improvements in their production of pragmatically appropriate recasts could be implemented at the pragmatic level.

In an important study on the relativisation, Doughty (1991) paid attention to both aspects. On the one hand, she examined the effects of instruction by implementing a comprehension-based approach to language teaching through the facilitation of input comprehension. On the other hand, she analysed the effectiveness of two different instructional techniques by comparing two experimental groups with a control group. One of the experimental groups received a type of meaning-oriented instruction, which involved the highlighting and capitalization of target forms while the other experimental group was provided with a type of rule-oriented instruction, which was exposed to a structural view of language learning governed by the mastery of explicit rules. The treatment for the control group only involved exposure to the marked relative clauses.

Results from a post-test not only showed a positive effect of instruction on relativization ability for both experimental groups over the control group, but also the effectiveness of the two different instructional techniques. In fact, the author found in general that input enhancement technique which increased the salience of target forms were as successful as providing explicit metalinguistic explanations on the structure of relative clauses, although the first instructional technique was more effective than just provision of rule in comprehension of texts. This finding supports the author's suggestion that focusing learners' attention on linguistic forms in context is highly effective. Moreover, given the positive results from her study Doughty (ibid.) considered the effectiveness of the treatment on the basis that mere exposure to the TL is not enough for acquisition to take place.

The previous study is only one example included in Norris and Ortega's (2000) recent review of all the empirical research dealing with the effectiveness of instruction in general and the effectiveness of different types of instruction in particular, published between 1980,1998.

As far as pragmatics is concerned, Kasper(2001b) believes that pragmatic ability can be achieved under two major circumstances: (1) when there is some universal pragmatic knowledge, such as the ability to express pragmatic intent indirectly, the main categories of communication acts or the politeness phenomenon, and (2) when both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge can be positively transferred from the first language to the

TL .In spite of having the chances to benefit from these two situations, Kasper (2001b) argues that learners may not know how to use what they already know. In fact, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) provides evidence from research conducted on both production and perception of different pragmatic aspects that has shown that learners differ considerably from NSs in their pragmatic competence. In this sense, both authors agree on the fact that instructional intervention may be useful to facilitate learners' acquisition of their pragmatic ability in the TL. Moreover, we believe that in FL settings instruction should not only be useful but also necessary to provide learners with opportunities for their pragmatic development.

So far, we have dealt with studies that examined the effectiveness of implicit or explicit conditions. However, other researchers argued for the need to examine the categories of implicit versus explicit learning with other aspects such as semantic/pragmatic rules. Moroishi (1999) for instance, carried out a study on the appropriate use of four types of Japanese conjectural auxiliaries in a particular context. The participants were assigned to three groups; an explicit group which received metalinguistic explanation on the use of these auxiliaries, an implicit group was exposed to the same auxiliaries that were presented underlined to direct learners' attention towards them, and a control that did not receive any instruction. The treatment consisted of four instruction sessions and included a variety of assessment tasks with the use of a pre test with an immediate and delayed post test .Results obtained from this study indicated that both groups improved after instruction, but the explicit group outperformed the implicit group in some of the tasks.

All the above studies seem to be in favour of the explicit over the implicit treatment condition. The same results also have been obtained by other researchers examining pragmatic competence. Moreover, Kasper (2001c) reviewed the empirical studies that have paid attention to pragmatic instructional interventions. This author stated that all these studies have compared explicit versus implicit teaching approaches to particular pragmatic features, such as discourse markers, implicature, pragmatic fluency, interactional norms or different speech acts. She also states that the explicit instruction consisted of the description and explanation of particular pragmatic feature by making it the object of metapragmatric discussion, whereas the implicit instruction consisted of the observation of the pragmatic aspect in different contextualized situations and it was then practiced. Kasper (2001c) concludes that the explicit metapragmatic instruction is more effective than implicit teaching irrespective of the other possible intervening factors such as learners' level of proficiency in the TL or length of instruction .In line with other researchers, she thinks that there is a clear advantage of the explicit teaching condition over the implicit one.

To sum up, we can say that learners do not always benefit from positive transfer and many researchers believe that if the learner is not consciously targeting the pragmatic aspect she/he cannot develop competence on them. Therefore, an explicit instruction is indispensable in order to develop pragmatic competence (Kasper 2001b, Blum Kulka 1997) among many others for instance, who do not totally disagree with a holistic approach to teaching pragmatics view the pragmatic goal as better achieved through conscious learning. Blum Kulka (ibid.225) proposes a model of "General Pragmatic" knowledge (GP) where the learner is presented with an organized schema containing all the L2 linguistic forms used for a speech act for instance. This schema, in turn, is governed by an L2 "Culture filter" which decides the situational appropriateness of the L2 linguistic forms. Wierzbicka (1991) also introduced the notion of 'Culture script' a specific type of schema which capture characteristic L2 cultural beliefs and values in order for learners to understand "a society ways for speaking".

3.9 Pragmatic fossilization

According to Marsh (1990), pragmatic fossilization is a term used to describe situations where learners continue to use the rules of speaking of their native language in spite of a long stay in the target language environment. Defined in more accurate manner, Selinker and Lamendella (1978) view fossilization as a permanent cessation of IL learning before the learner has attained TL norms at all levels of linguistic structure and in all course domains in spite of learner's positive ability, opportunity, and motivation to learn and acculturate into target society. This phenomenon occurs when progress in the acquisition of the TL is arrested in spite of all attempts at learning. Fossilization includes those items, rules and subsystems that FL or SL learners tend to retain in their interlanguage while in the process of acquiring a particular language. In the process of acquiring a TL, interlanguage may reach one or more temporary restricting phase during which the development of the TL appears to be detained (Nemeser,1971).Moreover, fossilization covers all those aspect of interlanguage that become permanent and that are hard to be eliminated, despite of all effort of explanation or instruction. According to Nemser (1971) and Selinker (1972) , adult L2 learners are more vulnerable than young learners and have a tendency to become stagnated or solidified. In other words, adult language learners make no further progress in interlanguage development towards the TL and become permanently fossilized in spite of the amount of exposure to the TL.

Moreover, Selinker (ibid.) classifies fossilization into two main categories, namely individual and group fossilization. The former is the persistence of individual learner's development, while the latter is the plateau in the diachronic development of a community language. In general, individual fossilization refers to the inappropriate interlanguage structures that are thought of to have been corrected but continue to appear regularly. This is the case of IL beginners or learners with low proficiency. Language competence is usually manifest in L2 learner's phonological, grammatical, lexical, and pragmatic competence.

In fact, fossilization is a linguistic phenomenon that occurs at all levels. Selinker (ibid:209) categorizes them as follows:

- Phonological fossilization: refers to the repetition of phonological errors resulting from the incorrect acquisition of pronunciation of L2 due to L1 interference.
- Morphological fossilization: refers to the misuse of various grammatical morphemes, especially through derivation and affixation.
- Syntactic fossilization: refers to the difference in grammatical rules such as tenses, gender and number.
- Semantic fossilization: refers to the different meanings words have in different languages.
- Pragmatic fossilization: refers to pragmatic failure which takes place in the cross-cultural communication. It generally refers to the inability to understand what is meant by what is said.

As far as the above categories are concerned, we are mainly interested in pragmatic fossilization. Therefore, the questions that should be asked are: Why does pragmatic fossilization occur? Why can't learners adjust their manner of speaking according to NSs? In fact, the answer is that language is deeply rooted within a person' subconscious. Many learners are unable to see how the TL language rules of speaking differ from their own native language rules. Since their childhood, people are raised within a cultural context, and since culture is an integral part of language, the process of socialization in the conventions of this culture occurs simultaneously (Ochs 1993).

Culture then, affects our perception of the world and we are completely bound to our own culture that we become unaware of the fact that other ways of viewing the world exist.

Therefore, ways of viewing the world vary considerably from one culture to another. An instance of this is that Americans assess an individual’s worth by his/he achievements in life. This may be completely different from most of the non-Western societies which measure an individual‘s worth not by they have but rather by the social status they were born into. Consequently, when people are confronted with a culture whose basic rules differ from their own, they may consider it wrong or sometimes even silly.

However, if language learners have to function in a TL society whose culture is different, they may even face many difficulties in their endeavour to learn the new culture norms of speaking. More seriously, they may not even notice that they are breaking the rules of speaking and can offend NSs without realizing that they are doing so. Hinkel (1994) reported that students from overseas believed that giving advice of sensitive topics such as diet to a professor was acceptable despite their long stay in the United States. Of course, these students did not realize that such behaviour was not acceptable in the American culture. Gumperz’s (1982) study revealed that despite a long stay in Britain, Indians were still making the same sociolinguistic mistakes in speaking which made them sound rude to the British. These are some examples of fossilization a term used to describe when a learner continues to use rules of speaking of their native language despite a long stay in the TL community.

Many studies have been conducted on fossilization and many researchers have attempted to explain this phenomenon. Most of these studies have attempted to investigate different aspects of fossilization such as the causes of fossilization, the kind of linguistic material that is likely to be fossilized, and the types of learners that are more prone to be fossilized

In fact, what is needed is an investigation by SLA theorists on the possibilities of preventing or even overcoming fossilization. One more important factor related to fossilization is motivation. Various studies have been carried out on motivation to learning the TL either by FL or SL learners, and the relationship of fossilization to the learners' communicative needs. The results of most of these studies indicated that unlike children who are generally more open to TL culture adults seem to be inclined to establishing their cultural and ethnic identity. According to Selinker (1978), adults do not have the motivation to change their accent to acquire a native-like pronunciation. Although, to date, fossilization continues to remain something of a mystery in SLA, and few studies report its existence. Language researchers are quite optimistic about the possibility of improvement if learners were situated in ESL setting, being exposed to adequate and sufficient input. Indeed, the learning context has been found particularly crucial for pragmatic development in that unlike other areas of language use, pragmatic aspects can be evaluated only in meaningful and, where possible authentic interaction.

3.10 Why teach pragmatics?

Researchers in interlanguage pragmatics and educationalists agree that there is a demonstrated need for instruction in pragmatics. Foreign language learners often show differences from native speakers in the areas of language use, executing and comprehending certain speech acts, in conversational functions such as greeting and leave takings, in refusing an offer, declining an invitation, and in conversational management such as back channeling and short responses.

Research has also shown that without instruction, differences in pragmatics become evident in the English of foreign learners regardless of their language proficiency. In other words, learners of high grammatical or linguistic proficiency may not necessarily show equivalent pragmatic development. That is because most of the time learners are not aware of the social, cultural and discourse conventions that have to be followed in various situations (Bardovi-harlig, 1999b).Therefore, Kasper (1997b) considers the state of incompatibility between linguistic proficiency and pragmatic performance as evidence that instruction in pragmatics is necessary. So, without instruction, many aspects of pragmatic competence do not develop.

Furthermore, teaching pragmatic competence is one of the most neglected aspects in English language teaching in most countries where English is taught as a foreign language. Teaching English to FL students should involve not only familiarizing learners with the sounds, vocabulary, and grammar of the TL, but also helping them to use the TL effectively through making them acquainted with the pragmatic rules that govern the appropriate combination of utterances and communicative functions. Besides, it has long been assumed that grammar and vocabulary can be developed through explicit teaching in the classroom context. However, is it possible to do the same thing with pragmatics? Can we teach those aspects of language use which require understanding the context, and the cultural rules that seem to come naturally to NSs? How can we teach those elements such as sounds, expressions and other non-grammatical tools? Put simply, can we teach pragmatics?

Before setting out to talk about the teachability or non-teachability of pragmatics, let us first define the term pragmatic competence. One good definition of pragmatic competence by Barron (2003:10) runs as follows: “pragmatic competence…is understood as knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing illocutions, knowledge of the appropriate contextual uses of the particular languages’ linguistic resources”. Two main aspects of pragmatic ability can be discerned in this definition: the linguistic resources of the learner with the TL and the contextual use of those resources. Therefore, as Kasper (1997:1a) contends, pragmatics is: “the study of communication action in its socio-cultural context”. Communication action is preferred over ‘speech act’ to expand to what language use can, and in fact, do : engage in conversation via speech acts to participate in different types of discourse, and ultimately, keep interaction going in more complex communicative events. But it also covers the written realization of communication.

In fact, L2 learners already possess pragmatic competence and practice of an array of speech acts they deal with in L1, some of which have been classified as universal, such as greeting, requesting, interrupting, suggesting, etc. As NNSs, they do not know the difference or similarities in the TL. Studies have shown that either/or they are not aware of them, they fail to recognize them, they cannot differentiate them, or simply ignore them, depending on the given context(s) when NNSs are tested. That does not mean that they do not know what to do but that they do not do it because they lack experience or awareness of what is expected from them. This is a valid reason to confirm that pragmatic features, routines and acts should be taught. Moreover, there are four focal areas of instruction that should be addressed, namely the choice of communicative acts, the strategies by which an act is realized, its content, and finally, its linguistic form.

Moreover, communicative language pedagogy and research into communicative competence have shown that learning exceeds the limits of memorizing vocabulary items and grammar rules. (Canale, 1983).In reality, the goal of instruction in pragmatics is to raise learners' pragmatic awareness and to give them the choices for their interactions in the TL and help them become familiar with the range of pragmatics devices and practices in the TL. According to Kasper (1997a) pragmatic competence is not a piece of knowledge to be added to the learners' grammatical knowledge, but it is an organic part of the learners' communicative competence. Therefore, the question whether pragmatic competence can be taught has inspired a number of research projects exploring the role of instruction in learners' pragmatic development. (House 1998), Wildner-Bassett (1984); Billmyer (1990), Olshtain & Cohen (1990), Bouton (1994), Kubota (1995), Morrow

(1996), and Tateytama et al. (1997). In fact, while many linguists deny the teachability of pragmatic competence others believe in the possibility of developing some of its aspects. Kasper (1997a), for instance, believes that while pragmatic competence cannot be taught, students should be provided with opportunities to develop it. She argues that:

> pragmatic knowledge is a kind of knowledge learners possess, acquire, use, or lose.The challenge for foreign and second language teaching is whether we can arrange Learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence in L2.

The importance of teaching pragmatics in the EFL classroom is not disputed, yet its place has only recently begun to be questioned. Teaching pragmatics which aims at the comprehension of oral language in terms of pragmatic meaning should enable learners to comprehend meaning pragmatically. A good number of studies made on NNSs of English confirm the postulate that pragmatics is teachable, and even more, instruction in pragmatics is necessary mainly at the advanced level. Therefore, research in pragmatics should play a very important role in bringing pragmatics into the classroom. However, we believe that bringing pragmatics into the classroom successfully will undoubtedly require the joint efforts of many professionals involved in different endeavours related to pragmatics. The question then, why bring a focus on pragmatics into the classroom? Research has shown that classroom instruction on pragmatics can help learners improve their performance of speech acts and thus their interaction with native speakers.

3.11 Teaching pragmatics in the FL classroom.

Most of the time teachers are advised to explicitly teach pragmatic features of the TL and make use of authentic models of language to help learners practice using appropriate language as it is used in the main stream society. However, the question that we should ask is whether the FL classroom in its classical format can really offer opportunities for pragmatic learning. Information about pragmatic aspects of language and pragmatic-focused instruction are lacking. However, developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence cannot be achieved overnight unless learners are exposed to and practice authentic language use. Besides, research into pragmatic competence of adult foreign and second language learners has proven that linguistic proficiency does not really guarantee a concomitant level of pragmatic proficiency. Even advanced learners with high linguistic proficiency may fail to interpret or to convey messages as NSs do in real life. Therefore, pragmatic competence should be an important asset to a person, and thus rehearsing pragmatic skills alongside other linguistic aspects should be one of the objectives of language teaching in formal education.

However, in order to make learners become communicatively competent in the TL, there is today a shift from previous traditional frameworks which considered language as a formal system based on grammar rules, towards a more communicative perspective. In fact teaching a language exceeds the mere acquisition of grammar rule, and should aim at making learners use the TL appropriately in different contexts. Each context has its unique traits that require unique forms of language. Pragmatic ability above all is context-dependent and if language learners want to function smoothly in the TL community, their pragmatic ability is of crucial importance.

As far as the EFL classroom is concerned, one question that comes to mind for both researchers and teachers is whether learners are exposed to appropriate and sufficient input. Here, we believe that learners either do not receive relevant input or do not receive it from sources they consider relevant, or they may not notice the relevant input due to either their lack of pragmatic awareness or possibly even grammatical competence. According to Vellenga (2004), pragmatic ability did not receive attention in the EFL context. A study that he conducted on the evaluation of textbooks revealed the following results:

- Neither English textbooks nor English classroom teaching provide adequate input to learners with regards to quality and quantity of pragmatic input.
- The extent of pragmatic knowledge in college and textbooks and classroom teaching is limited and predominantly concentrates on metapragmatic information, metalanguage, speech act, cultural information.
- Pragmatic information in the textbooks and classroom teaching is randomly distributed.
- The pragmatic input is taught explicitly with limited tasks and task varieties.
- The content (information-based) approach reflecting an information-transmission model neglects the appropriate use of the TL, essential for effective communication, and affords students with a few opportunities for interactive learning and the use of English for real purpose.
- Textbooks include a paucity of explicit metapragmatic information, and teachers' manuals rarely supplement adequately.

So, learners' pragmatic failure can sometimes be attributed to the effects of instructional materials rather than being a result of insufficient pragmatic awareness. A serious problem FL teachers have with the textbooks is the pragmatic values of the dialogues they present .Most teachers are not content with the content of the materials and the course books at all levels, from beginners to advanced levels. Most of the time practitioners feel the inefficiency of course books and print materials to develop EFL learner's pragmatic competence. For Vellenga (2004), ELT textbooks rarely include adequate or comprehensible explanation of how conversation in English works. Studies have repeatedly proven that the pedagogical materials are inadequate and unreliable sources of pragmatic input. Therefore, the content of textbooks must be analyzed to unveil the nature and quality of textbooks in terms of their value from the perspective of pragmatics. On this particular aspect of textbooks Eslami Rasekh (2005:199) thinks that:

> The responsibility of teaching pragmatic aspects of language use falls on the teachers. However, as language teachers, we face certain challenges. These include lack of adequate materials and training, which are the result of lack of emphasis on pragmatic issues in ESL/EFL teaching methodology.

Providing authentic language input is one of the teacher's roles, however, this kind of input is not readily available in the EFL context, and teachers do not have the skills to create pragmatic learning exercises for their learners. Usually, teachers in the FL context do not have frequent contacts with native speakers and therefore, may be unfamiliar with the pragmatic rules of the TL. Consequently, explicit instruction for both teachers and learners seems indispensable. In teaching pragmatics, Vellenga (2004:21) believes that teachers should bear in mind the following key concepts related to pragmatic competence:

- Language varies its structure systematically according to functions (e.g., starting or ending a conversation, expressing disagreement, apologizing, requesting, refusing, etc.)
- Politeness and appropriate language use varies according to contextual features
- Contextual features have different levels of importance in different languages.
- Speakers make sociopragamtic and pragmalinguistic choices when expressing speech acts.

Unfortunately, in the context where English is taught as a foreign language, most of the teachers are non-native speakers who need to be well prepared to teach the pragmatic aspects of the TL. Besides, there is no sufficient, or no training offered to teacher either during pre-service or in-service training.

In addition to this, one of the main features of the classical language classroom is the teacher-fronted teaching where the person doing most of the talking is the teacher. Most of the time this is done at the expense of the learners' speaking opportunities. In fact, this is consistent with a knowledge transmission model of teaching in which the role of the teacher consists in imparting new knowledge to the learners, helping them process such information and controlling whether the new information become part of the learners' knowledge. Some would argue that the sheer quantity of talk provided by the teacher may be considered as input for learners' pragmatic development. However, a number of researchers believe that the teacher-fronted classroom displays some specific characteristics.

The features of a teacher-fronted classroom reflect an interactional pattern where each participant is assigned a particular role. Teachers' roles and learners' roles are limited to the basic interactional pattern of the traditional teacher-fronted teaching described by Chaudron (1988) as the "pedagogical exchange of elicitation by the teacher response by the student – feedback by the teacher". It becomes clear that the language classroom in its classical format does not provide students with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence. Moreover, teachers in most cases do complain of the unmanageable class size. Large classes, limited contact hours and little opportunity for intercultural communication are some of the features of the EFL context that hinder pragmatic learning.

However, Rose (1999) argues that despite its disadvantages, the FL classroom presents some advantages. First, the classroom provides a safe place for learners to learn and experiment. In the classroom learners try out new forms and patterns in communication in an accepting environment. For example, they can experiment with unfamiliar forms of address, or attempt shorter conversational openings or closings than they are used to. That might at first make feel abrupt or they might try longer openings or closings that initially might feel too drown out just to get the feel of it. The instructor and other classmates can provide feedback. Second, classes are homogenous and this situation may be helpful in clarifying conflicting pragmatic features, since it offers the possibility of establishing comparisons between learners' mother tongue and the TL. Besides, most teachers and learners in the FL classroom are NNSs and their position as learners towards the achievement of appropriate pragmatic competence in the TL contributes to establish discussions where both languages are compared. Similarly, both teachers and learners not only share the same mother tongue but the same culture and this fact also facilitates a better understanding of which pragmatic features may be common or different in the two cultural systems

Moreover, a comparison of SL and FL contexts revealed significant differences. Kasper (1989) for example, compared conversations between pairs of native speakers of English and German collected in SL settings with conversations between high intermediate German learners of English and English NSs collected in FL settings. The author found out that learners in FL contexts did not employ appropriate interactive procedures, since no chances for active cooperation and negotiation were provided. The author attributed this fact to the learners' being exposed to frontal teaching and suggested that in such settings they should be presented with communicative activities in which they could participate actively and adopt initiating roles.

Other differences have also been observed concerning opportunities offered for learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in both contexts. According to Kasper (2001a), an SL context offers more advantage than an FL setting for developing learners' pragmatic competence. Contrary to FL context, learners in an SL context have a rich exposure to the TL outside the classroom and a lot of opportunities to use it for real life purposes. Learners in SL context may get involved in different situations where they are required to interpret utterances in context or interact with different participants in different situations. In contrast, FL learners lack all these opportunities to be engaged in a genuine communication in the TL. They also do not have a direct with NSs which may provide them with appropriate models to follow. The only source of input in FL settings comes from the classroom. Therefore, it becomes essential in this specific context to create the necessary conditions to allow learners to develop their pragmatic competence.

In sum, the FL classroom lack authentic TL input, interaction in the TL outside the classroom, exposure to diverse contexts and authentic purpose of TL use which exist in SL settings. One of the typical features of the FL classroom that does not apply to the SL context, however, is the common language and culture shared by the teachers and the learners. Nonetheless, in spite of the advantage that may be offered by the SL context, some pragmatic aspects still remain incomplete and need to be developed (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, 2001).It is therefore, necessary and advisable to give teaching pragmatic competence its importance in both SL and FL classrooms. In this sense, the classroom remains according to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan Taylor (2003) a convenient place for providing salient input.

Taking into consideration the important role the SL and The FL classroom can play in giving instruction on pragmatic aspects, many researchers have designed several techniques and various activities to teach pragmatic competence in these settings. Some of these proposals are discussed in the coming sections.

3.12 Proposals for teaching pragmatic competence in the classroom

Learners of diverse proficiency level may experience performance and language-related problems, as a consequence of which they deviate from native speakers' standards and expectations when accomplishing speech acts or producing certain types of discourse or participating in conversations (Thomas, 1983).This kind of deviation may result in pragmatic failures, which though unnoticed in some cases, give rise to funny or anecdotal misunderstandings or even have more serious consequences in others. Therefore, in order to be communicatively competent FL learners should acquire some knowledge and develop the necessary skills that enable them to reach their social communicative goals, as well as, to project their desired identity, by performing adequately in a variety of social and situational contexts.

An area that poses difficulties and challenges to EFL learners is the realizations of appropriate speech acts. Pedagogic intervention can certainly improve L2 learners pragmatic abilities, above all if they are not in direct contact with the L2 or some pragmatic features or nuances are not very salient (Kasper 1997b).Accordingly, in this section we will present an overview of the proposals for teaching pragmatic competence in the FL classroom. Practitioners in the field of interlanguage and instructional pragmatics have suggested different frameworks to teach specific aspects, which coincide in some respects.

In answering the question about the teachability of pragmatics in the EFL context, Brock and Nagasaka (2005:21-24) suggest that teachers should consider adopting the simple acronym SURE to guide them as they help their learners See, Use, Review and Experience. Let us see what this acronym stands for:

- See: Teachers can help their students see the language in context, raise consciousness of the role of pragmatics, and explain the function pragmatics plays in specific communicative events.
- Use: Teachers can help develop activities through which students use English in contexts (simulated or real) where they choose how they interact based on their understanding of the situation suggested by the activity.
- Review: Teachers should review, reinforce, and recycle the areas of pragmatic competence previously taught.
- Experience: Teachers can arrange for their students to experience and observe the role of pragmatics in communication.

These are but very useful guidelines that could be used as a framework by teachers while planning their lessons. It is clear that these steps follow the same principles of input, , output and feedback discussed in sections 3.2, 3.5 and 3.6

Another more elaborate and more practical framework was proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1991)**.**This framework consists of five main steps that follow the three important conditions for learning (i.e. input, output, corrective feedback) already discussed in sections 3.3-3.4 and 3.5.This framework is based on the assumption that EFL learners need exposure to the most typical realization strategies of the speech act under study. This exposure is followed by explanations of the factors in selecting one form rather than another. Finally, learners are given the opportunities to practise and use the speech act. This framework consists of the following steps:

- The diagnostic assessment:

This step consists of assessing learners' level and awareness of the speech act in general and the speech act under study in particular. This consists of acceptability rating tests both oral and written trough which the teacher could assess learners' ability to both understand and produce speech acts.

- The model dialogue: This second phase aims at exposing learners to short natural samples of dialogues where they observe the speech act in use .The objective of this activity is to make learners acquainted with the different participants involved concerning their age, gender, social status and more specifically the distance between them. This is of course in order to help them become aware of the social and pragmatic factors that may affect the speech act under study

- The evaluation of a situation: This third step is a technique that reinforces learners' awareness of the factors that affect the choice of an appropriate speech act strategy. Here, learners are supposed to evaluate different situations.

- Role-plays: This type of activity allows the practice and use of speech acts when preparing this type of activity, teachers should be sure about providing learners with sufficient information concerning the situation and the participants involved.

- Feedback: This step is where learners can detect any inappropriate expressions that have been used during the role play activities. It is at this level that learners are allowed to express their own opinions and perceptions and any noticeable differences between their mother tongue and the TL.

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1991), if these steps are respected and carefully implemented, they will provide learners with opportunities not only to interpret different speech acts but will be able to react in a more appropriate ways when faced with them. To this end ,Olshtain and Cohen (1991 ibid.) proposed pedagogical practices based on exposure to pertinent authentic input mainly the presentation of natural dialogues ,opportunity to produce output by performing role-plays ,and feedback on learners' performances. This framework is particularly relevant to our study since we advocate the ample use of AM to enrich the EFL classroom to raise learners' pragmatic awareness. Therefore, exposure to natural and spontaneous language by NSs would in our humble opinion foster learners' communicative competence by developing their appropriate use of the TL.

A similar model to the one described above was suggested by Judd (1999).In this model Judd proposes five steps to be scrupulously followed in order to teach speech acts and develop EFL learners' pragmatic competence. However, this framework puts a number of conditions specific to each classroom. Conditions such as whether the classroom is an EFL or ESL one, whether the teacher is native or non native speaker, the learners specific needs to learn the TL, and the materials available for use. Once these conditions have been met, Judd (:154) suggests the following steps:

- Teacher analysis of the speech act: The aim of this step is to relate the content of what is to be taught with learners' actual needs.

- Cognitive awareness skills: At this level learners are exposed to the speech act being taught in order to make them understand the appropriate linguistic realizations that can be employed to express that particular speech act.

- Controlled productive skills: It is the stage at which learners are supposed to put into practice the speech act that has been recognized and incorporate it into their pragmatic knowledge.

- Receptive/integrative skills: Here, the learners would witness the speech pattern within actual language use as part of discourse rather than in isolation out of context.

- Free integrated practice: At this stage learners are supposed not only to produce a particular speech act, but also other forms of language in natural conversation. This last step is considered by Judd (1991) as the real test of learning, since at this point learners should be able to use the speech act appropriately not just in isolation but while engaged in actual communicative interaction.

In addition to the aforementioned proposed frameworks presented in a series of steps to be implemented, other techniques in the form of tasks have been proposed for the teaching of speech acts. They generally make use of transcripts of naturally occurring conversations as awareness raising activities. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) proposed what he calls the culture puzzle and the classroom guest. The former is a task where learners are first asked to think about how a particular speech act functions in their own language and culture. The learners are then made aware of differences between rules that distinguish their mother tongue from the TL The latter i.e. the classroom guest is an activity which consists of an interruption that aims at facilitating the incorporation of natural language samples in the classroom. During this interruption the teacher and the guest make a conversation that includes the targeted speech act with learners' focusing on their attention towards this conversation. And to give the learners the chance to listen to the exchanges again, the teacher records the whole conversation. After that, the teacher conducts a discussion about this exchange and two learners are asked to prepare role-plays based on the same situation. Finally, the two recorded conversations are compared and discussed.

Another technique suggested by Rose (1999) to develop learners' consciousness-raising includes the use of video and he calls the consciousness raising technique. This technique consists of a comparison between the learners' mother tongue and the TL. Through an inductive approach learners first, collect data in their mother tongue then get familiar with the strategies employed for the specific speech act and finally compare with the TL.

As can be observed, these techniques rely much on the use authentic conversations, arranging pre-planned conversations, employing video scenes or implementing pragmatic consciousness-raising techniques in order to develop learners' pragmatic awareness about a particular speech act. However, Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan Taylor (2003) believe that the instruction in pragmatics should aim at raising learners' pragmatic awareness in order to help them become familiar with the different pragmatic features of the TL. To do so, the researchers developed a compilation of teaching activities that can be employed with the learners from different proficiency levels and from different cultural backgrounds. In addition to this, they proposed productive activities that deal with pragmatic awareness. And as mentioned earlier in this section in the model proposed by Olstain and Cohen (1991) and Judd (1999), the implementation of awareness activities together with tasks that allow opportunities for communicative practice will certainly contribute in the development of learners' pragmatic competence. The most frequently recommended tasks for use in order to practise different pragmatic abilities are role-plays, simulation and drama.

In reviewing all the proposals and the pedagogical practices suggested so far in the field of ILP, we find that all of them have been theoretically constructed and no empirical studies have been conducted to prove their effectiveness. Therefore, empirical studies have to be carried out in this direction in order to test all the proposals and techniques suggested so far. Such studies will help learners make the difference between different speech acts. Learners will also learn the different linguistic realizations that may be employed in every speech act, as well as learn the mitigators that soften the speech acts. Moreover, they should be taught the factors that affect the linguistic forms chosen i.e. power or social distance since it is important to be aware of not only what is said but also to whom it is said.

3.13 Pragmatic failure

Despite having a more or less satisfactory command of the TL, advanced FL or SL learners still face difficulties at interpersonal level when establishing communication with NSs. Generally, this is the consequence of advanced language learners' lack of communicative competence. In other words, they lack the necessary knowledge and experience to correctly use the sociocultural norms of the TL. Therefore, in order to carry out some communicative tasks they must acquire the linguistic competence which Thomas (1983) divides into two parts, namely the grammatical and the pragmatic competences. The former refers to 'abstract' knowledge of phonology, syntax, and semantics while the latter refers to the capacity to use language effectively in order to fulfill a certain goal and to understand language in context. In fact, learners must possess both competences.

Pragmatic competence then, constitutes an essential element of L2 language ability. The lack of such a competence on the part of learners can lead to what is generally called pragmatic failure. Before defining the concept of pragmatic failure, let us first have a look at the very word failure and see what it means. According to the Standard Encyclopedia Dictionary (1966:288) semantically it means ‘turning out to be unsuccessful, disappointing, or lacking’ while in Collins (1989:151) it relates to being ‘below the required standard’. Coming back to pragmatic failure we find that Thomas (1983:91) defines it as ‘the inability to understand what is meant by what is said’. This happens when two speakers of the same speech community misunderstand one another. Cross-cultural pragmatic failure, on the other hand involves pragmatic failure between interlocutors from different speech communities. Thomas (1983) explains that cross-cultural pragmatic failure has occurred on any occasion ‘on which H (the hearer) perceives the force of S’s (the speaker’s) utterance as other than S intended s/he should perceive it .She gives the following examples to make the point clear:

- H perceives the force of S’s utterance as stronger as or weaker than S intended s/he should perceive it;
- H perceives as an order an utterance which S intended s/he should perceive it as a request ;
- H perceives S’s utterance as ambivalent where S intended no ambivalence;
- S expects H to be able to infer the force of his/her utterance but relying on the system of knowledge or beliefs which S and H do not share.

So, according to Thomas (1983) pragmatic failure occurs when the pragmatic force of a linguistic structure is different from that normally assigned to it by NSs. She also prefers the term ‘pragmatic failure’ to ‘pragmatic error’, while the nature of the pragmatic ambivalence is so, that we cannot say that pragmatic force of a sentence is incorrect, but that has not been able to reach the speaker’s communicative intentions. In the same line, Blum-kulka and Olshtain (1986:166) think that pragmatic failure occurs “whenever two speakers fail to understand each other's intentions". Hence, the cause of our misunderstandings is not due to our inability to understand our interlocutor's words or utterances but the difficulty in communication is that we so often fail to interpret speakers' intentions. Therefore, it is easy to spot a grammar error but we cannot do the same with pragmatic failure. Quite often a proficient non native speaker may fail to select the appropriate linguistic strategy to express a speech act. As a result, he may sound unintentionally rude, uncultured or awkward.

Traditionally, pragmatic failure is classified into two main groups: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Pragamalinguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force that the user assigns to any particular utterance is systematically different from the force generally associated with by NSs of the TL. In many cases this is due to the inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from L1 to L2. On this particular issue Thomas (1983:97) states that:

> pragmalinguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by students onto a given utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language, or when conventional strategies are inappropriately transferred from the speakers' mother to the target language tongue.

However, sociopragmatic failure occurs when learners produce socially inappropriate behaviour. Different cultures have different assessment towards 'size of imposition,' relative rights and obligations, thus affecting linguistic choice. Sociopragmatic failure ,then, refers to misinterpretations which result in violations of the social conditions placed on language use .Here, the failure is caused by misdiagnosis which reflects different value judgments of the relative power or social distance of the interlocutors or the degree of imposition associated with compliance with a given speech act. These different value judgments are reflected in utterances which demonstrate differences from a NS's perception of appropriate formality, intensity, directness, register, politeness, taboo, and different pragmatic ground rules (Thomas ibid.).

This type of classification is drawn on Leech's (1983:11) division of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. The former is applied to the study of the more linguistic aspects of pragmatics while the latter is considered to be the sociological interface of pragmatics .The same author holds that pragmalinguistic failure is linguistic specific whereas sociopragmatic failure is social specific. Moreover, Thomas (1983) suggests that the area of pragmalinguistic failure is fairly easy to overcome. Since, it is simply a matter of highly conventionalized usage which can be taught and possibly learnt. However, sociopragmatic failure is more difficult to overcome by the students since it involves making changes in their own beliefs and value systems.

In addition to pragmaliguistic and sociopragmatic failures, Thomas (ibid.) adds pragama-behavioral failure and psycho-pragmatic failure. According to Thomas both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failures occur in verbal communication. In other words, they involve the use of linguistic forms of the language. However, non-verbal communication occurs together with these two. The author refers to this kind of failure as pragma-behavioral failure. Besides, when the communicative breakdown is not caused by the lack of inability to use or interpret the language appropriately but by unconscious violation of cooperative rules in communication due to the influence of some psychological factors. Participants in an interaction express and interpret ideas inappropriately, which often results in pragmatic failure. The author refers to this kind of failure as psycho-pragmatic failure.

Additionally, most of our errors are caused by pragmatic transfer, which Kasper (1992:207) defines as the "influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of

L2 pragmatic information”. There are several sociolinguistic factors that condition the occurrence of transfer and indicate that learners usually carry out speech acts, such as apologies or requests, in accordance with sociolinguistic norms of their native language. FL and SL learners often select language resources in the TL to communicate in their own thinking set. Therefore, Thomas (1983:101) argues that:

> The inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from a language to another ,or the transferring from the mother tongue to the target language of utterances which are semantically/syntactically equivalent , but which , because of different ‘interpretive bias’, tend to convey a different pragmatic force in the target language.

Pragmatic failures occur when L1 is different from L2 and the language proficiency of L2 learners is restricted. Consequently, this prevents communication and sometimes English people might understand the speaker’s meaning, what the speaker said does not agree with the English language habit, making the utterance difficult to accept. This transfer may be observed at different levels: phonetic, lexical or syntactical.

First, at the phonological level, FL or SL learners may mispronounce certain sounds of the TL, which might result in words having different meanings. Take the case of the **th** consonant which is pronounced /s/ or even /z/ in some languages or /p/ which becomes /b/. Besides, the intonation of languages varies considerably from language to language therefore, the misuse of intonation patterns may result in serious misunderstandings. At the lexical level, we know that languages are differently equipped to express different real world relations, and they certainly do not express all aspects of meaning with equal ease. Pragmatic failures from lexis are just because L2 learners believe that each word in their mother tongue has an equivalent in the TL. However, we know that most words have many different equivalent forms depending on the different context of their use. Sometimes a word in the mother tongue may express a concept that is totally unknown in the TL. The concept may be abstract or concrete; it may relate to a religious belief or a social custom, or even a type of food. Such concepts are referred to as ‘culture specific’.

Finally, there are failures which result from syntax because different languages have their different characteristics which are inevitable to be reflected in thinking set. The Arabic language for instance, differs from English in its sentence structure or its conjugation. Differences in grammatical structure of the mother tongue and the TL often result in some changes on the information content of the message during the process of communication. This change takes the form of adding information to the TL, which is not expressed in the mother tongue. This happens when the mother tongue lacks this grammatical category of the TL. In fact, learning a new language means to establish a new mode of thinking. Therefore, in order to overcome these difficulties FL learners should try to think in the TL i.e. in English.

Moreover, the question that can be legitimately raised is who is to blame for communication breakdowns? We all know that any communication involves two main participants i.e. the addresser (speaker or writer) and the addressee (listener or reader).However, it is usually the addresser who is blamed for any communication breakdown and sometimes if not rarely the receiver. Therefore, when dealing with pragmatic failure it should be fair to take both the addresser and the addressee into account.

When dealing with pragmatic failure, there seems to be a focus on verbal communication and little or no consideration is given to non verbal communication .In fact, pragmatic failure can also be caused by inappropriate use of paralinguistic features such as gestures, facial expressions .This body language differs considerably from culture to another and can be the cause of many misunderstandings or even conflicts. Moreover, in real communication a number of pragmatic failures may be attributed to the psychological factors. The factors such as age, personality, saturate psychological state, anger, anxiety, etc. can make participants in an interaction express and interpret ideas inappropriately compared with the intended ones, which often result in pragmatic failure.

So far, we have discussed different aspects of cross-cultural pragmatic failure, but how can we overcome this impeding phenomenon. Many solutions have been proposed to make learners avoid this kind of failure such as creating a culture-rich environment, introducing pragmatic knowledge through explicit instruction, or even designing cultural syllabuses. However, we believe that the most efficient way is by providing more authentic teaching materials. There is no doubt that students can learn English well only when they are exposed to authentic learning materials ,especially if learners do not have opportunities to have direct communication with NSs. Hence, increasing learners' pragmatic competence requires an immersion in the TL through the use of AM.AM refer to those that involve the social conventions, customs, habits and culture of the TL.

To conclude, we can say that pragmatic failure is such kind of errors that occur in cross-cultural communication when speakers make grammatically correct utterances, but adopt untimely remark, improper expressions or inappropriate ways of speaking in different contexts.As Morain (1986:64) puts it "being able to read or speak another language does not guarantee that understanding will take place". Any communication breakdown resulting from verbal or non verbal factors is bound to violate the pragmatic principles or deviate from the conventions of the TL. However, pragmatic failure is an area of cross-cultural communication breakdowns which has received very little attention from researchers and language teachers.

In my opinion, teachers should provide learners with the necessary tools to make adequate pragmatic decisions in L2. Learners must learn that the codification of a certain message is subject to conventions of use and these can vary from linguistic community to another. In fact, in the teaching of English as a foreign language, pragmatic competence of both teachers and learners should become a great concern. Research studies in pragmatic area have shown that teachers and learners of English as a second or foreign language lack pragmatic competence. Therefore, opportunities should be provided for them to develop their pragmatic awareness.

Moreover, language is inseparable from culture. Any language is associated with a particular culture. Language cannot really be learnt or understood without enough knowledge of the culture in which it is deeply embedded. And without language, culture would not be possible. What needs to be stressed here is that language and culture interact, thus, understanding a language requires understanding the culture. Therefore, learning a foreign language well necessitates more than merely mastering the pronunciation, grammar, and words. It requires learning to see the world as NSs see it, learning the ways in which their language reflects the ideas, customs, and behaviour of their society. So language and culture must be studied together, and great effort must be made in the study of culture in which the TL operates. Learning about culture makes our language fluent, vivid, and elegant.

3.14 Classroom research on pragmatics

The classroom is an educational setting where two or more persons meet for a given period of time for the purposes of learning, for example, languages (Van Lier, 1988).This formal context presents certain characteristics that affect the development of language learning in general and, more particularly, learners' acquisition of pragmatics. These characteristics, according to Allwright and Baiely (1991), involve the participants distribution turn, the topics addressed in the lessons, the tasks to be performed, the tone created during the instructional sessions and the code employed in the classroom. Therefore, classroom organization is essential in terms of what kind of input and opportunities for practice are offered for learners to develop their pragmatic competence

(LoCasto, 2003).Classroom research then, refer to that type of investigation actually implemented in real classroom which studies what is happening in this particular context.

The context in which learners are immersed to acquire the TL is vital in terms of exposure to input and opportunities for practice. Kasper (1989) makes a distinction between natural contexts, which refer to those places where learning occurs while being actively engaged in communication, and SL and FL contexts which are designed specifically for language learning to take place. Kasper (1989) use the terms of non-educational and educational, respectively, to refer to these two contexts. While the former is exemplified by dyadic face to face interaction the latter has been traditionally associated to the type of teaching known as frontal, in which the teacher controls the interaction. It is the distinction between these two types of settings, namely those of SL and FL classrooms, and as well as the advantages or disadvantages they display providing opportunities for developing learners pragmatic competence that are addressed in the presents sections.

3.15 Characteristics of FL/SL language classrooms

Kasper (1989) carried out a comparison of SL and FL contexts with a focus on particular aspects of discourse management (i.e. openings, closings and discourse regulation).The author compared conversations between pairs of NNs of English and German collected in SL settings with conversation between high-intermediate German learners in FL contexts. Results showed that learners in FL contexts did not employ appropriate interactive procedures, since no chances for active cooperation and negotiation were provided. The author claimed that these results might have been due to the fact that learners had been exposed to frontal teaching and suggested that in these settings they should be presented with communicative activities in which they could participate actively and adopt initiating roles.

Some of these differences have also been observed regarding opportunities offered for learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in both contexts. As Kasper (2001a, 2001b) notes, an SL context offers more advantages than an FL setting for developing learners' pragmatic ability. In an SL context, learners have rich exposure to the TL outside the classroom and a lot of opportunities to use for real-life purposes. This fact enables them to develop their pragmatic ability since they may get involved in situations where they are required to interpret utterances in context or interact with different participants in different environments. In contrast, learners in an FL setting lack all these opportunities to be engaged in genuine communication in the TL. Additionally, they do not have a direct observation of NNs that may provide with appropriate models to follow. The only source of input and instances of pragmatic behaviour they may receive comes from the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig,1996,Kasper,1997).Therefore, creating the necessary conditions that allow learners to develop their pragmatic competence in this specific context is essential. But this is also particularly difficult as Rose (1999) points out, since FL classrooms involve large classes and limited contact hours that prevent teachers from organizing an appropriate environment to facilitate the development of learners' pragmatic ability.

Despite all the advantages presented by an FL classroom as regards providing opportunities to foster pragmatic development, Rose (ibid.) also mentions some advantages found in this particular setting. one of these advantages is that FL classes are homogeneous and this situation may be helpful in clarifying conflictive pragmatic features, since it offers the possibility of establishing comparison between learners' mother tongue and the TL. Another advantage is that most teachers in FL classrooms are NNSs and their position as learners towards the achievement of appropriate pragmatic competence in the TL contributes to establish discussions where both languages are compared. In addition, both teachers and learners not only share the same mother tongue, but the same culture as well.

This fact also facilitates a better understanding of which pragmatic features may be common or different in the two cultural systems.

In sum, SL classrooms differ from FL classrooms in a number of aspects, namely those of authentic TL input, interaction in the TL outside the classroom, exposure to diverse contexts, authentic purposes of TL use, and social consequentiality. The only typical feature of the FL classroom that does not apply to the FL context, however, in spite of all the advantages that an SL context may offer for pragmatic development, it has been claimed that even after a long period of contact with the TL, some pragmatic aspects still continue to be incomplete (Bardovi-Harlig,1996,2001).Therefore, teaching pragmatic competence in both SL and FL classrooms have been regarded as advisable and necessary .According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan Taylor(2003),the classroom is a place that, by means of instruction, may provide salient input. Furthermore, instruction can help learners understand language use and provide them with knowledge of the different choices that may be employed depending on the situation they are involved in and whom they are talking to.

Conclusion

In FL or SL language learning, language competence is not equal to pragmatic competence. Language competence can be explicitly taught and learnt, however, pragmatic competence is somewhat beyond that since it requires being familiar with the sociocultural norms of the TL. Without this pre-requisite schematic knowledge of cultural and social norms, no pragmatic competence can be acquired. Only with enhancing pragmatic knowledge and awareness could we help the students improve their pragmatic competence and eventually achieve pragmatic appropriateness in their oral production.

Thus, pragmatic competence is a fundamental component of L2 learners' language ability. Therefore, in this chapter we attempted to explore the necessity of teaching pragmatics in the EFL context. Most studies reviewed in this chapter, provide evidence that an EFL classroom can provide the context and the explicit instruction necessary for learners to begin developing their communicative competence in general and pragmatic competence in particular. We can reach this objective if we shift away from traditional teaching paradigms which focus on teaching language kills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing. Traditional language teaching does not include sufficient pragmatics and this has negative influence on the awareness of pragmatics among both teachers and learners.

In fact, what makes pragmatic competence difficult to teach is the inappropriate choice of the methods and techniques together with the input that we provide our learners with. Therefore, we believe that AM constitute rich resources for teachers to help their learners experience and observe pragmatics at work. Films, TV shows, and many other authentic sources if properly selected and adapted to learners' needs and levels can be effective tools for experiencing and analyzing language use in specific contexts.

In this chapter, we also discussed the teachability of pragmatic competence. We said that pragmatic rules that are different and non-existent in the students' native language need to be given emphasis not implicitly through a simple exposure to the TL but through a systematic explicit instruction. Curriculum designers and practitioners should take into account these aspects of language use because without instruction in pragmatics, pragmatic failure and pragmatic fossilization will persist in the English of FL learners regardless of their language proficiency.

As to which instruction is more effective i.e. explicit or implicit ,most studies conducted so far in the field of interlanguage pragmatics have shown that explicit instruction is better than the implicit one for developing EFL learners communicative and pragmatic competence.

Moreover, we have seen throughout this chapter that in the process of assisting our learners to reach a satisfactory pragmatic competence, three main conditions must be observed respectively, those of input, output and corrective feedback. Therefore, it is now widely recognized that appropriate input suited to the learners needs together with opportunities for output can enhance pragmatic competence. In the EFL context however, where input from natural language is scarce the introduction of spontaneous natural speech captured in authentic data would certainly develop the underlying strategies of speech behaviour.

Last but not least, cognitive theories were and will remain a key approach to explain how learning takes place and how interlanguage pragmatics can be taught .In order to explain the different mechanisms learners activate in order to process knowledge from one stage to another ,we selected two frameworks developed by Schmidt (1993) and Bialystok (1993).These two theories describe how knowledge is first presented to the learners, how they develop the ability to use this knowledge ,and how this new knowledge is finally integrated into their existing cognitive system. In fact, we wanted to know how language is psycholinguistically processed and how this could contribute in developing appropriate pedagogical interventions that help learners acquire the so much sought after pragmatic competence.

Chapter Four: Field Work

Analysis and Interpretation of The Teachers' Survey Data

Introduction

For the present study, we also selected the questionnaire as a data gathering tool because before implementing the theoretical findings ,we wanted to assess teachers' attitudes towards the use of AM in instructional contexts .We wanted to probe their perceptions about the role of using such materials to ameliorate learners' communicative and pragmatic competence .We opted for the use of the questionnaire because such a data collection instrument has become a common practice in the field of applied linguistics.

Some of the reasons that make questionnaires popular in ELT is that they are easy to administer, keep the respondents anonymous and provide a great deal of information. Dornyei (2011:101) states that:"The popularity of the questionnaire is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information that is readily processible". Although there are other means of data collection the questionnaire survey remains the most efficient.First, because it can easily reach a large number of respondents.And second,it is easy to complete and if well constructed can yield data that is relatively accurate,relevant and easy to analyze.

However, despite their popularity,questionnaire surveys have their drawbacks.Many people think that questionnaires are easy to design and always yield reliable results.In fact, this is not always true since good and reliable questionnaires are often hard to design.It is then wrong to assume that anyone with a bit of common sense and good word processing software can construct a questionnaire.To make this point clear Dornyei (ibid:102), argues that: "Just as in everyday life,where not every question elicits the right answer,it is all too common in scientific research to come across questionnares that fail".Therefore,for a questionnaire to accomplish its task as a research tool ,it requires more than the ability to write in English and a bit of common sense.It requires the ability to select and formulate appropriate questions to pilot,distribute and return the questionnaire.

This chapter gives a full analysis and discussion of the data generated by one of the research tools employed in the present thesis.This questionnaire is used to investigate the role of AM in developing learners communicative copmpetence.It focusses on the most appropriate ways of selecting and implementing AM in order to extend our understanding of the issue of AM and find ways of fostering FL communicative and pragamtic competence.Our other aim through using this questionnaire is to explore the different possibilities AM could offer to both teachers and learners in the FL classroom.An examination of this issue will help us find ways in which these kinds of materials may be advantageously adapted to suit the FL teaching and learning context.Such a survey will certainly provide a rationale that accounts for the use of such materials.

4.1 Description of the questionnaire

As far as the process of design of the questionnaire is concerned, it was created taking into account the theoretical part which had place taken previous to the creation of instruments for data collection, other similar researches about the subject and the main goals of the present research. Besides,in the design of the questionnaire we took into consideration the following steps:

- Design of the first version of the questionnaire
- Validation of the questionnaire on the part of experts
- Piloting the questionnaire
- Elaboration of the final version of the questionnaire

Among the two instruments used by educational researchers in general and ELT in particular are questionnaires and interviews.We opted for the use questionnaire because as Mc Donough (1997:105) argues: “it affords a great deal of precision and clarity because the knowledge needed is controlled by the questions”.The elaboration of the questionnaire largely depends on the nature of the issue under inverstigation and the objectives to be attained.Therefore,after having reviewed our hypothesis and the objectives of our study, we set out planning and elaborating the questionnaire in order to address it to English language teachers who were in charge of the oral expression ,pragmatics and general culture modules at the department of English at Biskra university.

4.2 Elaboration of the questionnaire

The basic unit of the questionnaire is the question.In fact,the questionnaire reflects the researchers objectives.The answers to the questions provide the necessary information for testing our hypothesis.Therfore, in the design of the questionnaire we normally formulate a set of questions that reflect the researcher’s beliefs,ideas and expectations about the subject under investigation.In formulating the questions we have to take into account a number of considerations related to the content,structure,format and sequence of the questions.

The choice of the types of questions that are part of the questionnaire is closely related with the scheme of research that we consider and with the types of information we want to obtain.The task of formulating the questions for the questionnaire is not at all an easy task.Our questionnaire has been constructed with view the view of collecting data concerning teachers’ attitudes towards the use of AM to foster learners’communuicative and pragmatic competence.Therefore,we took into considderation a number of elements and there takes a long process of elaboration until the definite version is achieved.

Prior to the elaboration of our questionnaire,there has been revision of the literature on the subject.We also reviewed other researches that directly or indirectly related to the subject of our study and which used the questionnaire as an instrument to collect qualitative data.

Moreover,in the process of elaboration of the questionnaire we have strived to pay special attention to the nature of the questions,the way in which they are planned,the order in which to specify the different questions.The premise had been not to leave any important elements aside consequently the whole process of creation was long and difficult.Firstly,it required discussions with colleagues and experts.Secondly, we felt the necessity to undertake a revision of literature and of the questionnaires designed in other studies that had a relationship with our subject of study i.e. the development of pragmatic competence thanks to an appropriate use of authetic materials.As a matter of fact,The present questionnaire is structured in such a way that it reflects the objective of this study as well as to delimitate information and variables we wanted to obtain.

Our other concern while elaborating the questionnaire was to delimit information and to detect the variables that influence on the use of AM on the development of learners' communicative and pragmatic competence.In the formulation of the different questions in the first draft,we took into account the following criteria:

- Avoiding ambiguity by formulating concrete questions.
- Using simple and clear language
- Respecting the order of difficulty of the questions
- Varrying the questions

The quetionnaire was divided into different sections as follows:

- Background information (Age,sex,degree,place of work etc…)
- Teaching the Oral Expression course
- Learners' competence in communication
- Learners and their pragmatic competence
- Teacher's attitudes towards the use of authentic material

4.3 Validation of the questionnaire

Once the first version of the questionnaire was constructed, we found it indispensable to validate it. This preliminary version contained 5 main sections and 48 questions.Through the validation process we want to know if the instrument used in our study really measures what is meant to measure.In other words,our aim is to see if the information obtained from the use of this instrument is really what we intend to obtain.Therfore, a questionnaire is valid if it really examines the full scope of the research question in a balanced manner.In the present study,we decided to use the validity of contents because we considered that it was the best method that could provide us with more information about the appropriateness of the items and their relevance to the study.

In order to check the validity of the questionnaire,we consulted different experts.The experts were selected with regard to four main axes:

- The teaching of the oral expression module
- The development of FL learners' comunicative and pragmatic competence
- The methodological and pedagogical implications of using AM in the FL classroom
- The teachers' training and develpoment.

The experts selected were a total of six.They were specialized in the fields of didactics of English as a foreign language and research methodology.Most of them are doctors in different universities in Algeria.The consulted university professors are known by their great experience in the field of didactics,applied linguistics and methodology of research.These professors have written deeply on topics which range from the teaching and learning process to the development of instructional materials and syllabus design.We also invited some colleagues who had a relatively long experience and who are in charge of teaching the oral espression course.In order to carry out the process of validation, we counted with four doctors and two teachers of oral expresion representative of their colleagues.The procedure to locate and to contact the experts was done by searching those specialists related to the research field of our work whose studies,researches and experience could be of help for our study.We looked for these researchers of several universities of whom we had knowledge due to their articles, documents or books which would have been published and would be of influence in the area of instructional materials and material development. As far as the practical part was concerned,we tried to locate teachers who had been in charge of teaching the oral communication i.e. oral expression,pragmatics and general culture modules for a relatively long time and who are still in charge of these courses.

Once the experts were selected, we communicated with them to see if they wanted to cooperate.After analyzing the questionnaire the experts made some appreciations that we took immediately into account and several changes were introduced in order to create the final version of the instrument.The comments and observations made by the experts turned round the clarification of terms, ,better sequencing of the elements, better compacting the questionnaire, improvement of the writing, and changes in the punctuation.Once we were given approval by the experts ,we started to write the final version of questionnaire.

4.4 Pilot study of the questionnaire

As any other research tool, the questionnaire should be piloted to check the clarity and comprehensibility of each item. Piloting helps the researcher to check that all the questions are clear and unambiguous. Therefore, Bell (2006:140) argues that “If respondents are confused, irritated or offended, they may leave the item blank or even abandon the questionnaire”. Besides, piloting can reveal the variables that are not sufficiently covered by the questionnaire. So, if a researcher wants all his/her questions to be answered ,s/he has to avoid vagueness, confusion, offence, and ambiguity .To do so, the questionnaire should be tried out on a group that has the same profile as the population of the study.

In the case of our study, the samples of the questionnaire were distributed to a number of teachers that we believe were representative of the population which could constitute the object or field work of our study. This pilot was also aimed at testing different aspects of teaching oral expression and the role of using AM in developing learners' pragmatic competence .This pilot test was also indispensable to identify those items which were unclear, repetitive, and unnecessary. The samples of the questionnaire were distributed to eight teachers .Six of them are full time teachers while two are part time teachers.

Moreover, in order to check the difficulties that our respondents may encounter in completing the questionnaire, we distributed an evaluation sheet that contained five main questions. The teachers volunteers were asked the following questions:

Item One: How long did it take you to complete the questionnaire?

Time	**N**	**%**
30'	02	25
25'	01	12.50
23'	01	12.50
20'	02	25
no answer	02	25
Total	08	100

Table 04: Piloting the Questionnaire: Time taken for answering the questionnaire

According to the results in the above table, the time the respondents took to answer the questionnaire varied between 30' to 40'.It took them less than on minute to answer each item.This duration is quite reasonable.

Item Two : Were the questions clear ?

a. no b. yes

Response	N	%
Yes	04	62.50
No	03	37.50
Total	08	100

Table 05: Piloting the questionnaire : Clarity of Instructions

The colleagues unanimously answered 'yes'.This shows that the wording of the instructions were clear enough and that the respondents could easily understand and answer them.

Item Three: Were any of the questions unclear or ambiguous ?

Response	N	%
Yes	04	50
No	03	37.50
no answer	01	12.50
Total	08	100

Table 06 :Piloting the questionnaire : Clarity of the Questions

The respondents' answers revealed that some questions were really unclear and may lead to equivocal answers.The suspicious items were located and reformulated so as to yield the right responses.

In case your answer is yes ,please indicate which one (s) .

Item number	N	%
Q 11	06	75
Q 17	04	50
Qs 26,27,28	03	37,50
Qs 31,34,38	02	25
Qs 44,45	01	12,50

Table 07 : Piloting the questionnaire : Ambiguous questions

Once the seemingly ambiguous and ill-balanced questions were located and debated with our colleagues, they were rewritten so as to elicit the appropriate responses.In fact, some of the items were a bit unclear because of the colleagues' unfamiliarity with the issue under investigation.

Item Four: Was the layout of the questionnaire clear and attractive?

a.yes b.no

Response	N	%
Yes	06	75
No	02	25
Total	08	100

Table 08 : Piloting the questionnaire : The Layout of the Questionnaire

Regarding the layout of the questionnaire,the colleagues expressed positive views and seemed quite satisfied with the procedure with which the questionnaire was designed. They think that it is well-sectioned and acceptable both in shape and content.

Item Five: Please, add any comment you think necessary.

Most of the comments our colleagues made turned around the rewording of some questions as well as some items that could be added and others that should be omitted.In the light of pilot respondents' comments some slight adjustments were made to improve the questionnaire.In fact, all the reported teachers did not have any doubt about most of the questions. However, there were some concepts related to pragmatics and pragmatic competence which were not clear although they were directly directed to obtain information on the previous knowledge related to teaching communication. They also found that the questions posed covered the main areas of the subject of study.They also agreed that all the basic areas were covered and that there was no outstanding element that did not appear in it as their experience and their previous knowkedge related to teaching oral expression and instructional material development.

It was clear that the questionnaire was understood, and that the different questions extracted the information we wished to obtain, that they did not confuse the reader or generate ambiguity. The questions dissatisfied the needs of the reported teachers, and there were some slight changes related to terminology introduced according to different suggestions that teachers had made. Bell (2006:117) states that "*Reliability* is the extent to which a test or procedure produces the similar results under constant conditions on all occasions". The assessment of reliability provides our research with clarity about the exactitude of the different measures extracted from the instrument, and measures at the same time its consistency.

4.5 Elaboration of the final version

Once the remarks and the suggestions made the experts were introduced, we started the construction the definitive version of the questionnaire .In the design of this instrument all the variables related to our study were taken into account. In fact, the questionnaire in its final version treated the following issues:

- Background information :Age, gender, degree, place of work
- Teaching the oral expression course
- The methodological and pedagogical implications of using AM in the FL classroom.
- The development learners' communicative competence
- Learners' pragmatic competence

The final version of the questionnaire addressed to the teachers contained 5 sections. Each of these sections served a different but a related purpose. The questionnaire also contained different types of questions. It included 41 open ended questions followed by a number of correlations and 7 closed questions. The final version of the questionnaire came off constituted by 5 dimensions and a total of 48 questions.

Sections	Titles of the sections	Items
Section One	Background information	1 to 6
Section Two	Teaching the oral expression course	7 to 17
Section Three	The methodological and pedagogical implications of using AM in the FL classroom	18 to 30
Section Four	The development of learners' communicative competence	31 to 36
Section Five	The development of learners' pragmatic competence	37 to 48

Table 09: Components of the teachers' survey data

4.5.1 Section One: Background information

This section of the questionnaire compiles information about different aspects related to the age, degree held by the teachers, their gender, and their place of work and their length of experience. The information obtained from these data allows us to contextualize our field of research and to establish different relationships and differences towards the personal and professional traits of the teachers that constituted the participating population in our research.

4.5.2 Section Two: Teaching the oral expression course

By means of these questions, we wanted to obtain information related to the objectives, the approach, the instructional materials and the activities adapted in the Oral Expression, Pragmatics and General Culture modules. Teachers are enquired about the quality and type of input used to develop their learners' communicative competence. Regarding the teaching of the oral expression course, they are also questioned about the difficulties they generally encounter and how to overcome such difficulties.

4.5.3 Section Three: The methodological and pedagogical implications of using AM in the FL classroom

The questions which concern the exploitation of AM aim at finding how teachers deal with these types of materials focusing mainly on their sources, the bases on which they are selected as well as their teaching purposes.We also wanted to probe our colleagues attitude towards using AM in the FL classroom and the main hurdles they encounter when attempting to use these type of materials.

4.5.4 Section Four: The development of learners' communicative competence

This section tries to evaluate the answers that teachers provided to the importance of developing learners' communicative competence. It also focuses on the factors that contribute to improve learners' competence in using the TL communicatively .It also tries to find out the extent to which our students are aware of the differences in social and contextual communication strategies between their first language and the TL.

4.5.5 Section Five: The development of learners' pragmatic competence

Throughout these questions that conform this section we would try to obtain fundamental information on pragmatics in general and the teaching of this language aspect in particular .Thus, the information we will be able to gather will be on the one hand on how they judge the importance of pragmatic competence, and on the other hand the role of materials in developing this very competence.

4.6 Data Analysis

In this section, we will proceed to provide a thorough and accurate analysis of the results obtained after having administered the questionnaire. The procedure followed consists of the analysis of each question separately followed by a correlation of the findings generated by the different question items where necessary. This section also ends with a general commentary on the teachers’ responses followed by a general conclusion in the form of a summary.

4.6.1 Section One: Background information: Question Items One through Six

The targeted population of the present questionnaire has been primarily university tutors in charge of different courses such oral expression, general culutre, discourse analysis and pragmatics.The general background information concerning the surveyed teachers such as gender, length of teaching experience, English speaking country visited were collected and analyzed.The return rate of the questionnaire was 87.50%.20 teachers out of 25 completed and returned the questionnaire.

All the teachers who took part in the questionnaire are university awards.The degrees they hold range from BA (licence) to Ph.D.80% of them are full time teachers and hold either a Master’s degree or ‘Magistère degree’ and only a small proportion 13% hold a Ph.D (Doctorate) degree.It is also important to point ou that the majority of the respondents are predominently female teachers with a percentage of 60% while male teachers count less than 40%.

The aim of the third question item in this section is to determine the percentage of teachers who had direct contact with the English language culture.It attempts to find out if the teachers lived in or visited English speaking countries as well as the length of their stay.Such a question will tell us the teachers who are apt to provide learners with the missing socio-cultural knowledge.To our surprise, only four of them stayed for long periods that vary from one year to six years.However,the rest either never visited any English speaking country or had short visits to Great Britain as part of their studies abroad (stages)which was granted by their universities.Of course,short training periods like these are necessary but are not sufficient to help teachers acquire the knowledge about the socio-cultural norms of the TL.In fact the longer the stay is the better it is to develop an insider’s view of the TL culture which in turn can be directly or indirectly transmitted to the learners.However,absence of visits or sporadic visits may promote outsider's view of the English language culture.

As far as the years of experience are concerned,the questionnaire revealed percentages are quite similar among the teachers who have been working from 7 to12 years 30% , those who have been working from 13 to 20 years 30% and with a group of teachers who have been working from 4 to 6 years 20%.The rest of the teachers are distributed into two groups : very experinced teachers 15% with more than 20 years ,and teachers with very little experience from 1 to 3 years 15%.

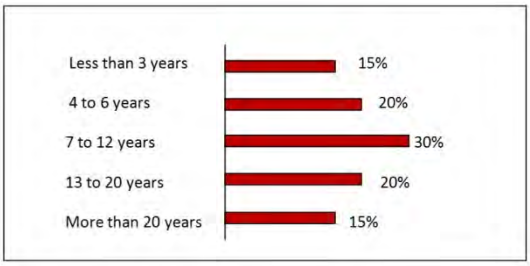

Table 10 : Years of teaching experience

4.6.2 Section Two: Teaching the Oral Expression Course

4.6.3 Question Item Seven

Is teaching the Oral Expression module (OE) one of your major subject?

In fact,we asked our colleagues this question because we believe that developing FL learners' communication skills is closely linked to an adequate implementation of the OE module.Fortunately,all the colleagues anwsered by an overwhelming 'yes'.This arises from their conviction that in appropriately teaching this course,we are in fact developing our learners' communicative competence.

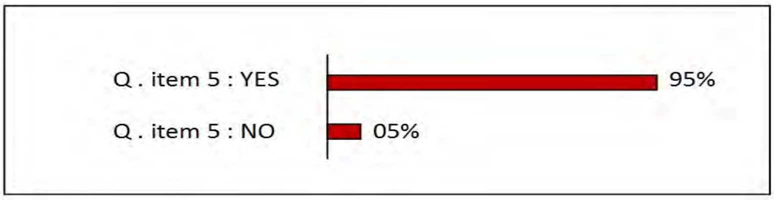

Table 11: Is teaching the Oral Expression module(OE) one of your major subject?

4.6.4 Question Item Eight

How long have you been teaching the Oral Expression course ?

The length of experience of teachers who have been in charge of the oral expression course module varies considerably.In fact,the majority of the respondents lack experience in teaching this course.As shown on the table,only 20% have taught this course for more than ten years.28% are novice teachers generally holding the BA (licence) degree.The remaining minority about 20% with more or less satisfactory experience have been in charge of this module for more than ten years.What is remarkable here is the common spread false belief that teaching this course is easy and therefore,most of the time attributed to novice teachers.This still has negative repercussions on our learners' aural/oral competencies.

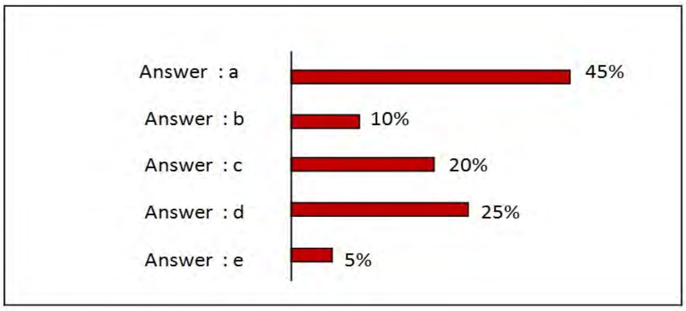

Table 12: Teacher's experience in the teaching of the oral expression course

4.6.5 Question Item Nine

Have you already taught the third year level ?

a.yes b.no

Since the population of our study are third year students of the LMD system,we wanted to determine the number of teacher who have taught this level especially in oral expression.The respondents' answers show that the majority 87.50 are teaching or have already taught this module.

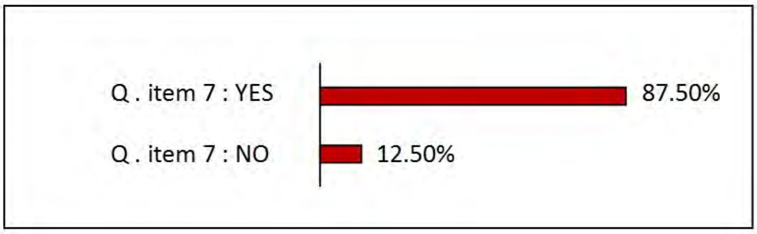

Table 13: Have you already taught the third year level ?

4.6.6 Question Item Ten

In teaching the oral expression course,do you use ?

a. an official program

b. you devise your own program

The aim of this question is to find out whether our respondents use an official established syllabus generally provided by the administration or create their own syllabus.In response to this question,the majority 95% of the respodents seemed not ot be satisfied with what is proposed in the official syllabus since most of them answered that they create their own syllabus.

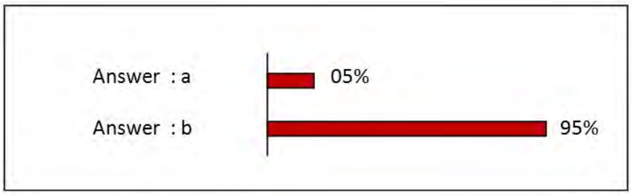

Table 14:The type of program teachers use in the oral expression course

In case your answer is ‘b’, please say why ?

This question item is a follow up to the previous one and targets teachers who selected option ‘b’.They were required to justify their choice.The respondents justified their answer by the fact that the document available at the department of English conerning the content of the course is not more than the title of the course followed by a a very short description with neither specification of the objectives nor an indication whatsoever to the types of instructional materials to be used.Therefore,they recognize that most of the work is being done on a ‘Do it yourself’ basis and teachers rely much on their personal efforts.In fact, it is thanks to the coordination meeting held regularly by the sub-pedagogical committees that a more or less detailed syllabus outline is designed and adopted by the colleagues.

4.6.7 Question Item Eleven

What do you think should be the overall goal of teaching the oral expreassion course?

a. to allow learners to practise the TL orally

b. to make learners communicate meaning

c. to make learners able to use the TL appropriately in different situations

This question item mainly attempts to determine what aspects of language the teachers associate with teaching the oral expression course. 29 % of the respondents think that the main goal of teaching the OE course is to help learners to be able to communicate meaning.Communicating meaning which reflects a rather pragmatic use of the TL is defined by Kasper (2001a:12) as “Communication action in its socio-cultural context .The communicative action need not include only speech acts ,such as requesting,greeting,and apologizing,but also participating in conversation and engaging in different kinds of discourse”.However,another view expressed by our respondents around 66% and to which we adhere postulates that the aim of this course is to help learners use the TL in real life situations and for communuicative purposes.

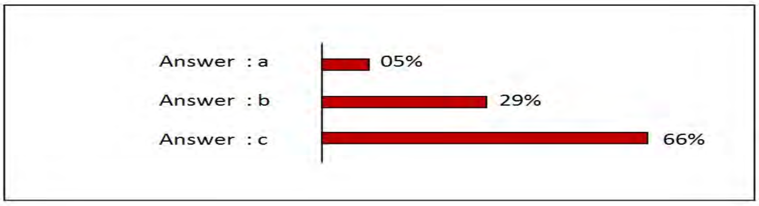

Table 15 : The goals of teaching the oral expression course

4.6.8 Question Item Tweleve

What methodology do you adopt to reach your objectives?

a. the audio-lingual method

b. the communicative method

c. eclecticism

Generally speaking,the methodology that should be adopted in any course is clearly stated in the syllabus outline.However,very often,practitioners are likely to favour one method over another.They usually adopt the method that best suit their teaching realities.As far as teaching communication to third year is concerned,all the teachers agree that at this level learners have normally acquired a more or less acceptable linguistic competence.They all believe that these learners have gone far beyond the mere memorization of structure based dialogues and other controlled activities prescribed by the audio-lingual method.In fact,most of the answers about 70% reflected a high tendancy towards the use of the communicative approach with a few exceptions around 10% that adopt an eclectic method and they may have their own reasons.

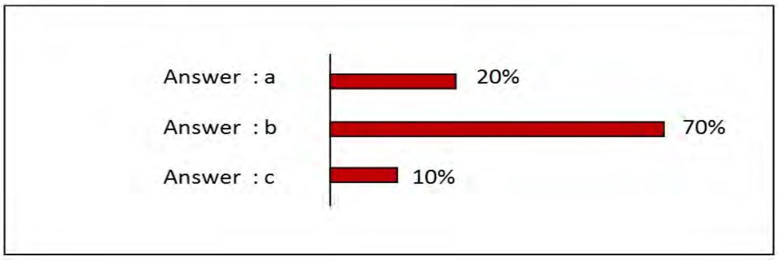

Table16: The methodology adopted in teaching oral expression

4.6.9 Question Item Thirteen

In teaching oral expression you devote more time to:

a. listening

b. speaking

c. balance

Though they are equally important to master,most of the teachers questioned seemed to concentrate more on the productive aspects of the TL.At this level of third year students are expected to have sufficient linguistic resources to express themselves correctly in the TL.50% of the surveyed teachers devote more time to speaking than to listening while 30%

said they spend more time on listening.However,20% of the respondents said that they try to balance between the two skills.

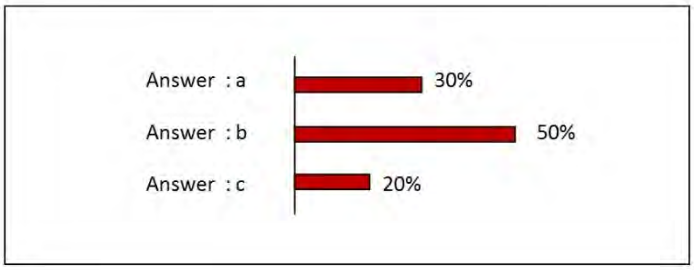

Table17 : The target skill in teaching the oral expression course

4.6.10 Question Item Fourteen

Your students face difficulties in:

a. listening

b.speaking

c. both

With this question item,we wanted to locate our students' difficulties as seen by their teachers.In fact,the majority of our respondents 45.50% think that students encounter significant difficulties when it comes to expressing themselves in the TL.Another important proportion of our respondents around 35% consider that it is at listening comprehension the students have most of their problems.However, A minority 20% estimates that learners face difficulties in both listening and speaking.

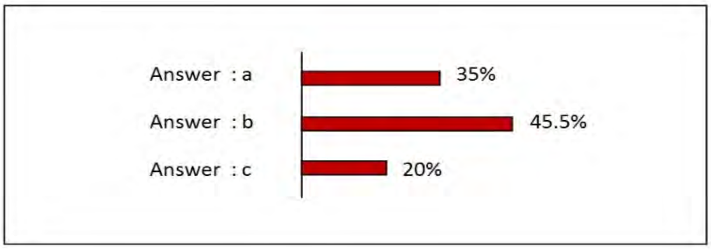

Table18: Students' difficulties in oral expression

4.6.11 Question Item Fifteen

Which variety of English do you use ?

a. RP (Received Pronunciation)

b. GA (General American)

c. both

Since all the teachers of our department are native speakers of Arabic,we asked them this question to find out the variety of English they use in their classrooms.The results amply demonstrate that the surveyed teachers 70% prefer to use RP only 20% use General American.The remaining proportion reports to prefer combining both varieties.

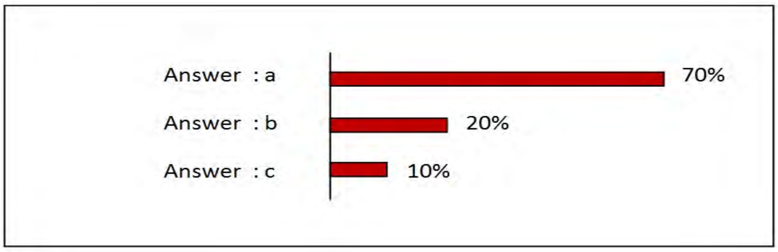

Table19 :The variety of English teachers use

4.6.12 Question Item Sixteen

Which variety of English would you like your students to be exposed to?

a. RP (Received Pronunciation)

b. GA (General American)

In the same line of thought, we wanted to probe our respondents attitudes towards the variety of the English language they think their students should be exposed to.Again, 60% of the teachers responses were in favour of using RP with only 30% for the use of general American.However,a tiny minority about 10% adopted a balanced position and think that students should be exposed to both Englishes.

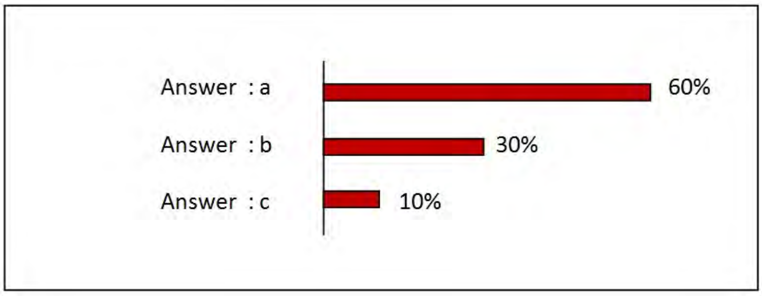

Table 20 : The variety of English teachers favour

4.6.13 Question Item Seventeen

Which types of activities do you usually use in teaching oral expression?

a. role plays

b. plays

c. oral presentation

d. games and quizzes

e. monologues

We all agree that when it comes to third year students ,the subjects are supposed to have reached a satisfactory language proficiency.So,they are at a level where they should be producing the language both in speech and writing.Therefore,the types of activities that we proposed to our respondents involve more productive skills than receptive ones.Moreover,such activities provide opportunities to practise a wide range of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies that our learners need in interpersonal encounter outside the classroom walls.All teachers agree that they should select activities that maximize students' participation.It is no surprise then,that the majority with 40% of the surveyed teachers were in favour of activities such as role plays, while around 25% opted for games and quizzes.Oral presentation or éxposés were classified thirds with 20% followed by plays with 10% and

monolgues with only 5 %.

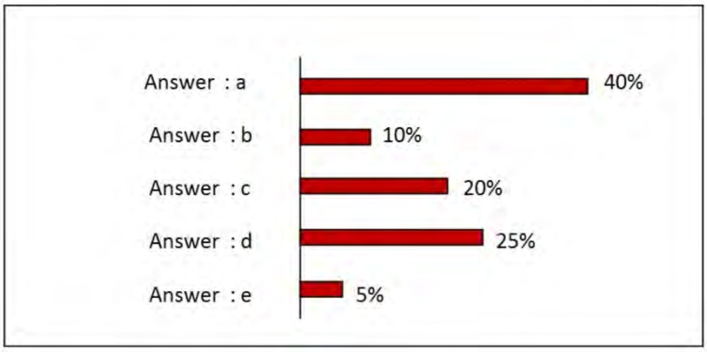

Table 21 : Types of activities teachers use in the oral expression course

4.7 Section Three: The methodological and pedagogical implications for using AM in the FL classroom

4.7.1 Question Item Eighteen

What role do you attribute to input?

a. important

b. very important

The aim of this question is to explore the importance teachers attach to the role of input in the FL classroom.As stated in the theoretical part of this study, there is no teaching without input of some sort.The answers to this questionnaire show that all the respondents seemed well aware of the importance of input.This question won unanimity among the respondents since they all believed that input in ELT was important.Their answers varied from important 38.50% to very important 62.50%.This clearly demonstrates the teachers strong beliefs in the importance of input regardless of the theoretical approach to language teaching.This connection between input and language acquisition is best expressed by Krashen (1982:12) who considers that “successful acquisition as being very bound up with the nature of the language input which students receive”.Whether gathered out of class or brought into the classroom through audiovisual media,input,and more specifically authentic input,is vital for pragmatic learning .Besides,in the FL context where exposure to

English is scarce ,students are supposed to build their own pragmatic knowledge on the right kind of input.

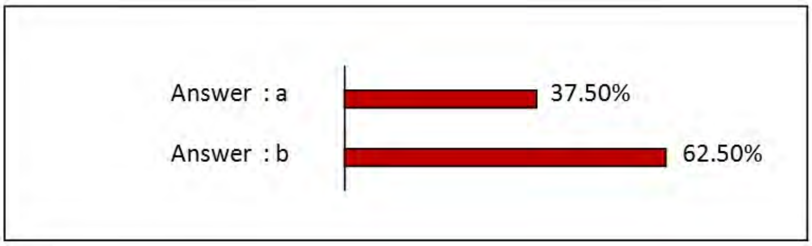

Table 22 : Informants' opinion about the importance of input

4.7.2 Question Item Nineteen

What type of input do you usually use in your classroom?

a. authentic (not specially meant for pedagogical purposes)

b. non-authentic (peadgogical materials)

c. both

It has always been customary among the majority of teachers at different levels to stick to those specially tailored materials.Those materials which are carefully planned by language specialists and which are meant to serve specific pedagogical purposes seem to attract a considerable number of teachers.In fact,teachers rely much on those non-authentic non-natural materials because these kinds of readily available materials make teachers save a lot of effort and time in the preparation of their lessons.The common features of this kind of materials is the deliberate choice of language situations and people to comply with communicative ,structural,or behavioural needs.However,during the last three decades,there were calls for more authenticity in the language classroom.Nowadays, many linguists recommend that the language presented to the learners should be authentic.Authentic simply means any language data that was not initially created to serve any pedagogic purposes.Generally,this kind of materials are produced by native speakers to serve social or cultural purposes.However,bringing such materials into the language classroom is no longer considered as a luxury but a necessity.Moreover,as soon as any authentic material is exploited in the classroom not in the way it was initially produced for, it becomes genuine(Widdowson.1990).

Bearing in mind the importance of the quality of input that is generally either authentic or pedagogic, we want to know the type of input that our colleagues usually expose their learners to.The majority of our respondents 60% seem to be inclined to use AM..Though the majority of the surveyed teachers are willing to use AM there still exists an important portion of our population around 30 % minority who show reluctance towards the exploitation of AM in the classroom.The rest about 10% believe that both materials should be exploited in the classroom.

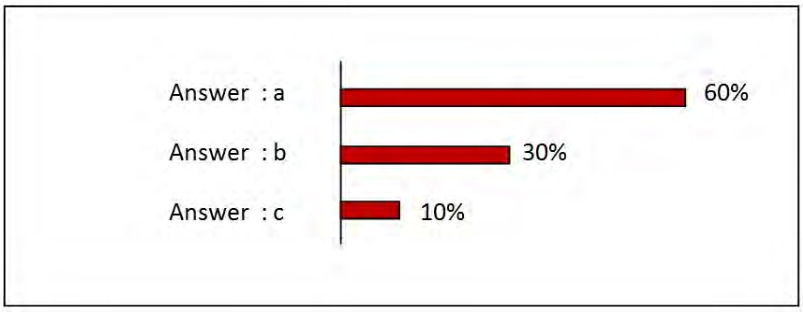

Table 23 : Types of input teachers use in their classrooms

4.7.3 Question Item Twenty

How often do you use AM?

a. always

b. often

c. rarely

d. never

In the same line of thought, we wanted to know about the frequency of the teachers' use of AM.Of the total respondents 50% said always,25% said often,15% said rarely against 10% who said never.Once more the teachers expressed a positive attitude towards AM as most of them seem to use them most frequently.

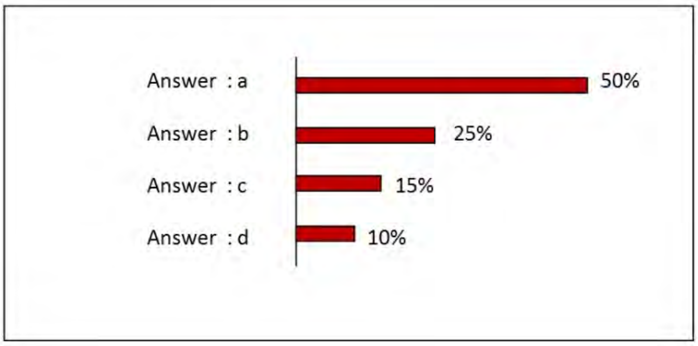

Table24 : How frequently teachers use AM ?

4.7.4 Question Item Twenty One

Which, according to you, are more effective?

a. authentic materials

b. non-authentic materials

A question about the efffectiveness of the type of input was necessary.The purpose behind asking such a question was to find out teachers opinions about the type of input they consider most effective in helping their students develop proficiency in the TL.As far as language learning is concerned,language input is both quantitatively and qualitatively decisive.For a long time,teachers' divine faith in pedagogical materials has had negative repercussions on FL learners' achievements.However,this type of input proved its inefficiency in adequately preparing students to confront real life situations where the TL is used.These considerations accounts for the teachers responses in favour of AM as their main sources of language input.Around 60% of the surveyed teachers acknowledge the effectiveness of AM whereas 40% think that non-authentic materials can also be as effective as authentic materials which confirm the position of certain linguists who think that the effectiveness of each material will largerly depend on how we use it , when we use, and with whom we use it.

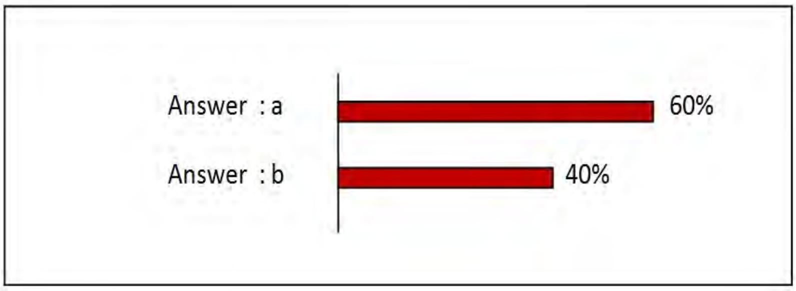

Table 25 : Authentic versus non-aurthentic materials

4.7.5 Question Item Twenty Two

You use AM because thay are:

a. effective

b. motivating

c. interesting

In fact,teachers in the fisrt place should be interested in the type of input they provide their learners with.Moreover,evoking and sustaining interest to learn and actively participate has always been teachers' main concern.Involving students in the teaching-learning process can be achieved in different ways including the type of language input they receive.Indeed,so far the ready made materials tailored by language specialist have failed to involve the learners in the learning process.We all know that involvement is the result of motivation.Motivation as defined by A.Papaplia (1986) is the willingness to persevere in a task.

AM seem to to be perfect means not only to enliven the language classroom but to create motivation through enjoyment as well.The above question is asked bearing in mind all the previous considerations.This question asks teachers how they would qualify AM .The reason behind putting such a question is to gauge teachers' attitude towards the use of AM as input in the language classroom.In fact,we were not surprised to find that the overwhelming majority of the surveyed sample teachers 45% perceive AM as effective teaching input. 35% of the respondents think they are motivating.The rest 20% however,consider them as interesting.

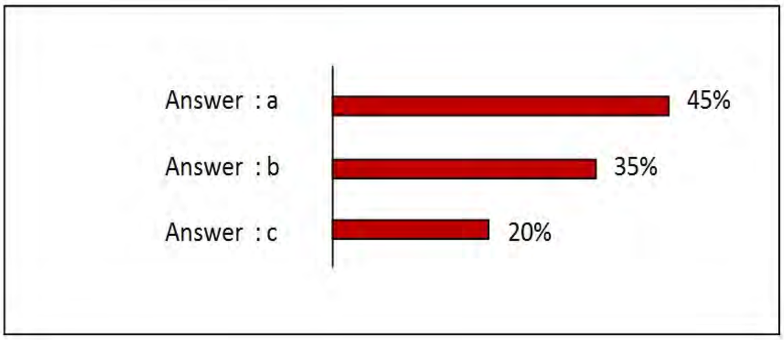

Table 26 : Reasons for the use of AM

4.7.6 Question Item Twenty Three

Which materials do your students better respond to?

a. authentic

b. non-authentic

c. both

It has already been stated in the theoretical part of this study that AM are perfect means that can create opportunities for leraners' participation.In fact, the use of authentic language sources generally lead to greater interest and variety in the materials that learners deal with.As a matter of fact,their incorporation increases learners' motivation and contributes in lowering their affective filter.Another advantage of AM lies in the fact that they constitute powerful motivators,by providing motivation through enjoyment (Karpova,1999).They attract learners' attention because they break the usual class routine by bringing newness.Therefore,the benefits of incorporating AM as an integral part of the classroom practice are tremendous.

Moreover,as any other type of teaching materials AM have their drawbacks.For instance,they may be the cause of frustration especially to those learners whose ears have been accustomed to traditional methodologies that use an overly simplified input that they are not likely to face in real life situations.The challenges students will have to face in case they learn through AM is the rapidity of speech,background noise , the varieties of accents and the overwhelming amount of information.But we think that these shortcomings could be simply attributed to misuse and lack of preparation.

In fact,this question-item is basically connected to the previous one with particular attention to the learners' preferences.This question is of crucial importance because the way students respond to the type of input will undoubdtedly affect the teachers choice of materials to bring into the classroom.Decidedly,teachers'collected responses appear to be consonant with the previous question in that the majority 65% of the teachers said that their students respond better to authentic materials .20% were in favour of non authentic materials .Another important proportion 15% said that their students responded to both types of materials.

Table 27: The kinds of materials the students better respond to

4.7.7 Question Item Twenty Four

How do you find the use of AM?

a. easy

b. difficult

This question item is in fact a follow-up question and which is intended to verify and corroborate teachers' attitude toward their readiness to incorporate AM as a support in their teaching practices.We know that AM are delivered in their raw and natural state and it is up to the teachers to tame them to suit their learners' cognitive,linguistic and communicative needs.Unlike pedagogical materials,AM are unedited and remain uunsimplified in any way.Therefore,teachers who opt for their use are loaded with the burden of finding and selecting the most appropriate materials.In fact,this explains teachers' reluctance to use this kind of teaching materials.

As expected,in response to this question, 75% of the respondents find AM difficult to use against 25% who believe they are easy to handle.

If your answer is 'b',what difficulties do you usually encounter when working with AM ?

For those whose answers is the second option i.e. 'difficult',we asked them an open-ended question with which we wanted to diagnose their difficulties in using AM.We need to mention here that from teachers' answers there are a host of challenges facing teachers who intend to implement AM.Though the sources of AM are abundant,the difficulties reside in the selection of the most appropriate materials which could be in accordance with the learners' objectives and needs.The management of the vast amount of information provided by such materials and the way the teacher is going to implement and adapt the material to existing classroom conditions are but a few examples the diffculties teacher encounter when using AM.Some of the surveyed teachers also complain from the lack of the technological tools with which teachers can efficiently implement AM.And finally,others believe that such types of materials are time consuming because they require a special preparation.

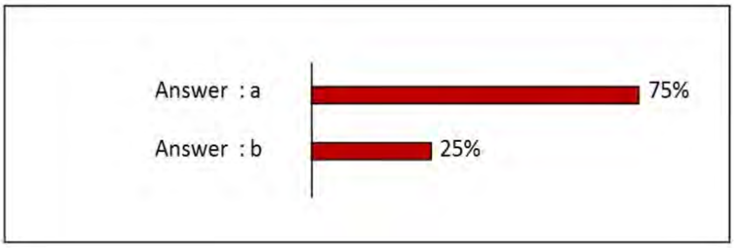

Table 28: Teachers' opinion about the use of AM

4.7.8 Question Item Twenty Five

Which type of AM do you generally work with in your classroom?

a. printed

b. audio

c. video

d. all of them

Moreover,there are other difficulties relating to either the teachers or the the module they teach itself.Some difficulties could be attributed to the nature of the module as well as the time allocated to it.The content of the module may influence the use of AM. Another possible source of difficulty lies in in the fact that some teachers lack both theoretical and practical knowledge about the most appropriate ways to efficiently use AM.Another source of difficulty which prevents teachers from using AM is the lack of the necessary equipments such as modern equipped language laboratories.We all know that the traditional classroom in its actual format does not adequately allow bringing all types of materials.

The results obtained from the previous questions really shows teachers' willingness to use AM in their daily teaching practices.There are clear indications that they are ready to innovate the type of input they present to their learners.Most of them can be described as real innovators who do not resist changes and seem to be prepared to shift away from solely relying on pedagogical materials.

This question item is of considerable interest all the more as it intends to inquire about the type of materials usually exploited by the teachers.Besides this question is twofold.The overtly expressed aim is to find out the type of AM either audio,video or prin -ted which are used by our colleagues.The other implicit aim is to gauge teachers tendancy vis à vis the materials they prefer to exploit.Since choosing either of these materials reflect an attitude which may be highly significant in teachers' daily practices.

The results of the questionnaire suggest that 45% of the sample teachers use only printed materials whereas 25% of them use audio materials.The rest about 20% report using video materials while a tiny minority 05% said they use all of them.

Noticeable about the results of this question is that the majority of our respondents use printed materials of all sorts.This can be explained by the availability of the highly developed xeroxing machines which can duplicate a large number of copies in just a few minutes.Furthermore,opting for the use of printed materials is the result of the so-called traditional methodologies which have for so long relied only on hand-outs as their main sources of language input.It is also safe and sound to say that the situation in our department of English does not really offer favourable conditions for the use of audio and video materials.With the number of students rising continually and with insufficient number of laboratories and teaching equipments,one can understand teachers unwillingness to incorporate such audio-visual language materials.

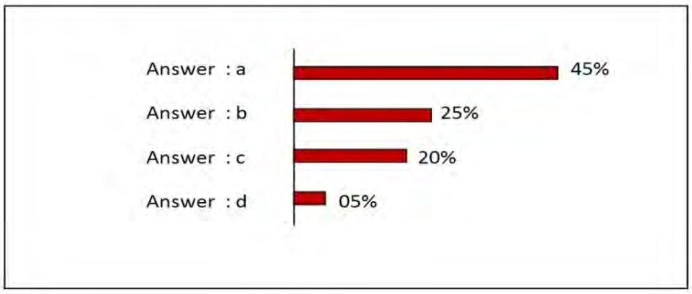

Table 29 :The type of material teacher generally use in their classes

4.7.9 Question Item Twenty six

What criterion do you consider when selecting AM?

a. linguistic

b. cultural

c. cogntive

d. all of them

This question item is an inquiry about the parameters our colleagues adopt in selecting AM for use in the classroom.As said in question item four, teachers are confronted with a host of language data that need refinment to become practically useful in the language classroom.How they pick out the most appropriate materials is the goal behind asking the present question.They are asked which aspect they take into consideration whether the linguistic ,the cultural,the cognitive, or all of them.

Responses to this question item as shown in table 29 below, revealed that about 35 % attach high a priority to the linguistic complexity of the input.However, other respondents about 20% seemed to be conscious of the cultural considerations since they believe that cultural content is of major importance.Moreover,there is another proportion nearly 20% of the surveyed teachers who thought that cognitive aspects should be taken into account. Finally,some respondents 25% consider that these aspects should be altogether taken into account.

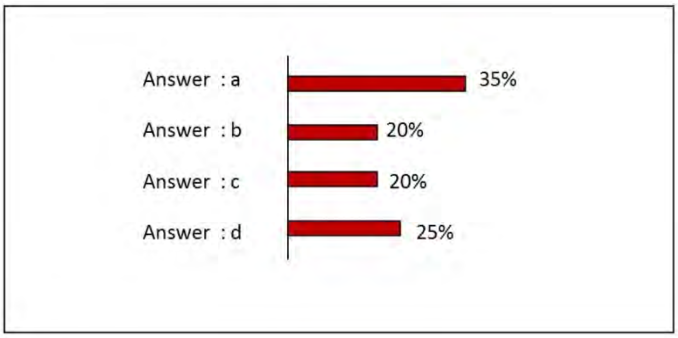

Table 30: The criteria teachers adopt in the selection of AM

4.7.10 Question Item Twenty Seven

These are some of the difficulties your students may face when working with AM,rank them according to their order of difficulty.(Indicate by 1-2-3-4-5)

a. pronunciation (accents,aspects of connected speech etc.)

b. vocabulary (new lexical items,idomatic expressions,specific vocabulary etc.)

c. speech delivery

d. cultural content

e background noise

Foreign learners of English have repeatedly complained of their inability to fully comprehend the English language of native speakers.Students even at an advanced level often confess that they are unable to catch up with native speakers because their English is too fast or unclear.Others expressed disappointment of not being able to understand native speakers' pronunciation.These are just a few of the complaints expressed by our students and which sometimes lead to frustration and anxiety.

In fact, foreign language learners are not accustomed to the normal speed conversation of native speakers, consequently, when working with AM they face various challenges, including rapid speech, background noises, and differences in accents. This is due to the fact the English proposed by such materials does not resemble in any way the one they hear in the classroom.The kind of input to which learners are exposed is generally simplified and adapted to meet their needs and levels. In this respect, Chalker (1994:36) states that learners want "understandable rules that appear to work....prescriptive guidance...simply arranged information...and many are against too much terminology". This actually proves that when used in the FL classroom AM may create serious hurdle to the learners.

Given the aforementioned facts about AM, our colleagues were asked to rank the difficulties their learners may come across when expossed to AM. In fact, being knowledgeable about those barriers has its implications on both the selection and implementation of AM. Moreover, ranking the order of difficulty could well help guide teachers in their preparations in order to avoid the pitfalls that the use of AM can hide.As shown on the table below,our investigation discloses that 41% rank the rate of speech delivery in the first position and believe that it is the main cause of most of the troubles learners encounter when dealing with AM.Indeed,for FL learners,the rate at which speech is delivered by native speakers is fast consequently they cannot get the meaning quickly and lose the thread.This process is automatic in one's language,but for foreign language learner this process is difficult.It is compelling to acknowledge that as the speech rate increases comprehension decreases.

Given the importance of pronunciation 25% of the surveyed teachers classify it in the second position.The pronunciation difficulties reside in learners not being able to process both segmental (vowels,consonants etc.) and suprasegmental features (stress, intonation,elision,linking and weak forms).All of these phonological aspects of connected speech might have been dealt with in the classroom but never really experienced by learners in real life.Another proportion of respondents 17% place vocabulary and grammar in the third position.These replies by the surveyed teachers allow us to make two conclusions.First,many serious comprehension constraints are on the one hand the result of FL learners' poor vocabulary stock.On the other hand,the amount of information which AM are loaded with implies many new words which are generally beyond learners' grasp.

Moreover,the syntactic and grammatical structures usually present in AM completely differ from those formal rules they learned in the classroom.Natural speech is characterized by unfinished sentences,ungrammatical sentences, clichés and collocations .Finally,in the fourth position 10% of the respondents said that some of the learners'difficulties lie in the cultural content of the materials and only 7% were attributed to the background noise.With respect to the difficulties related to cultural content AM can be too culturally biased,or even sometimes shocking for the learners who discover the culture of the TL for the first time.Certain cultural aspects can represent real taboos in the learners'own culture and therefore,may result in repugnance towards the TL.The results of the present questionnaire are displayed on table 31 below.

Difficulties	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Pronunciation	25%	15%	09%	05%	04%
Vocabulary Grammar	17%	08%	07%	05%	03%
Speech delivery	41%	20%	15%	10%	07%
Cultural content	15%	12%	25%	10%	05%
Background noise	07%	09%	12%	15%	20%

Table31: Ranking the difficulties students face when working with AM

4.7.11 Question Item Twenty Eight

Do you keep a special file for AM?

a. yes b. no

Keeping files is a common practice among EFL teachers,therefore,as expected, a solid majority 80% answered positively.Such a favourable attitude unveils teachers positive attitudes towards incorporating AM in their daily teaching practices.

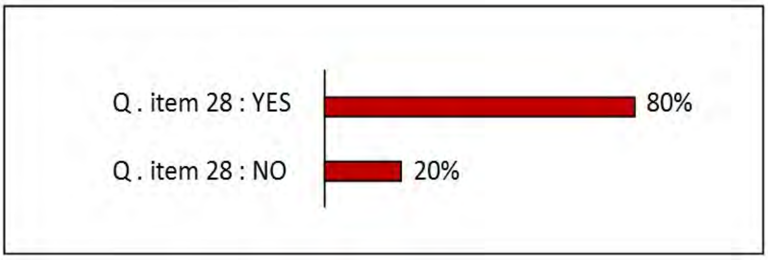

Table 32: Teachers' files of AM

If yes , do you organize your files according to ?

a. the nature of the material (i.e whether the material is audio,video or printed)

b. the type of the material (i.e. whether the material is a film,a play, a song,a show,a radio or TV news bulletin,a newspaper artcicle,a poem etc.)

c. the complexity of the material (i.e.thematic,linguistic or cultural)

d. the teaching goals (different materials serve different objectives)

Unlike pedagogical materials which are usually presented in an orderly and arranged manner, AM are collected from different sources.Therefore, to become user-friendly, teachers have to select them and classify them according to different criteria such as content whether liguistic,or cultural,and the teaching goals they could be used for.

Therefore, from pedagogical perspectives the materials and their content must be graded. With gradation, here, meaning grouping and sequencing any kind of material according to the above criteria.In fact, the present question provides teachers with a set of parameters which can be used in classifying AM in their teaching files and invites them to rank them according to their order of priority from 1 to 4.

This correlation yielded the following results.According to the teachers, AM should be classified on the basis of the nature of the materials.This criterion was most often ranked first by the colleagues with 37.50% followed by an important portion about 32.50% of the respondents who attach high a priority to the complexity of the materials.The teaching objectives that the materials could serve were ranked in the third position with 20% .As expected, the type of the materials were classified in the last position with only 10%.These results clearly indicate that the teachers are well aware of the importance of classifying and grading AM according to their specific nature and their complexity.

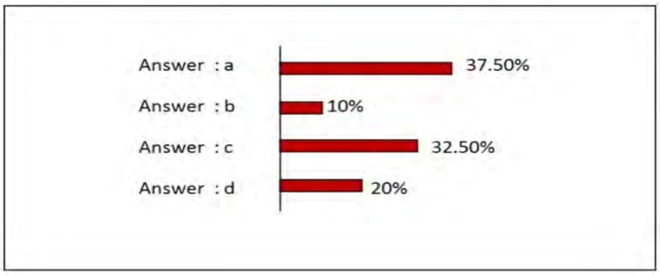

Table 33: Correlation of teachers’ answers to question item twenty eight

4.7.12 Question item Twenty Nine

How would you assess your mastery of telematic communication technology?

a. good b. fairly good c. bad

This question appears of considerable importance as it attempts to evaluate teachers' mastery and competence in the usage of ICT (information communication technology).In fact, asking such a question comes from our humble belief that teachers cannot properly incorporate AM without sufficiently being familiar with a number of technological and telematic tools.The necessity that teachers acquire competency in the use of new tools and telematic resources become evident.In this sense,teachers have to rethink and assume the impact that technologies are going to have upon them.

A quick look at the results displayed on table 34 below reveals that the majority of the surveyed teachers 45% qualify their mastery of technological tools as being good.About 30% manifest having a fairly good competency,whereas the rest i.e. 25 % report having no or bad knowledge in the use of these modern technologies.

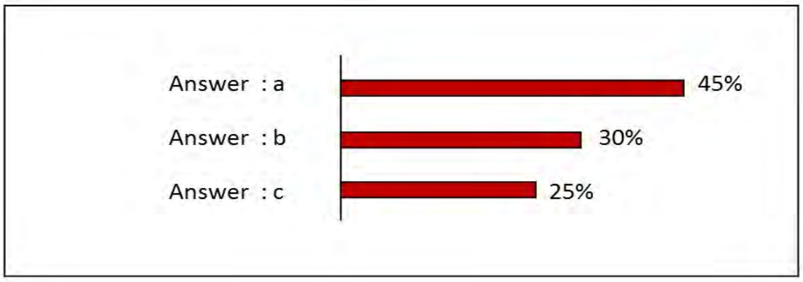

Table 34: Teachers' mastery and competence in the use of telematic tools

4.7.13 Question Item Thirty

How do you qualify training in the use of ICT?

a. compulsory b. optional c. unnecessary

The acquisition of both technical and pedagogical skills to integrate AM requires specific training.This kind of training will enable teachers to have access to reference materials which will give support to their teaching procedures.Bearing in mind the importance of training,we asked the following question to enquire about the importance our respondents attach to training in technical and digital literacy.Technical literacy which has become one of the requirements for twenty first century teachers all over the world.

As shown in the table below,the result of the present questionnaire reveals that the overwhelming majority about 74% perceive training in the use of the technological tools as compulsory whereas 21% qualify it as optional.Only a small minority estimated at 05% think that it is unnecessary.Teachers' appraisal of training in educational technology manifest their need to receive training on the use of the most common communication tools.It is worth mentioning that though many teachers know how to use them as users they lack the specific training on how to use them in their lessons and lectures.

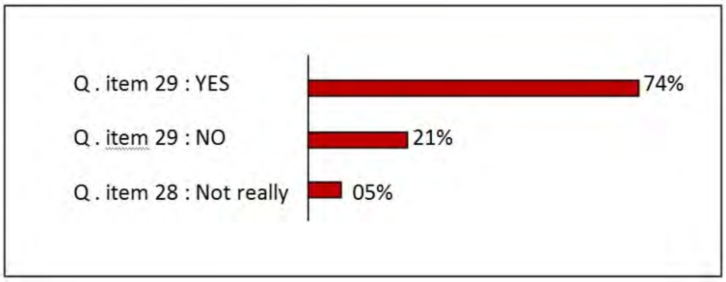

Table 35: Teachers' training in the use of ICT

4.8 Section Four: Communicative Competence

4.8.1 Question Item Thirty One

A learner is considered as having commuincative competence if:

a. s/he masters the linguistic aspects of the TL

b. s/he is able to use the TL language correctly and appropriately

c. s/he is aware of what is socially appropriate in the TL community.

d. s/he use the TL as native speakers do

Communicative competence typically refers to how well someone is able to communicate with others,though this can be elaborated upon and further refined in a number of ways.In fact,this is a fairly simple and superficial idea of what really constitutes communicative competence.Things are not quite simple as this.Instead,we suggest Hymes'(1972) definition that accounted for a speaker's knowledge of the language itself as well as his ability to use the language in its social context.Since Hymes introduced this concept in the world of linguistics in his pioneering work,a vast number of attempt have been made by theoreticians and researchers alike to specify what should learners possess in order to be communicatively competent.

Furthermore, taking communicative competence as the ultimate goal of foreign language learning will inevitably have its impact on our classroom practices.To this end,we asked this question to see if all teachers agree on what characterizes a communicatively competent learner.In fact,the four options constitute important aspects of communicative competence.Our aim was to find out which area of communicative competence they wish their learners to develop.The results obtained through this question item prove that teachers recognize the fact that communicating efficiently in the TL requires more than just linguistic knowledge.It requires the ability to use that language appropriately in the given sociocultural context.The findings of this investigation shown on table 36 below disclose that 48 % of the surveyed teachers think that for learners to be communicatively competent they should be aware of what is socially appropriate in a particular speech community.This clearly indicates that language learning entails acquiring pragmatic competence that dictates appropriate ways of conveying communicative intent in various situations.

The second largest proportion of the surveyed teachers which is estimated at 30%, think that learners' terminal behaviour should be the use of the TL correctly and appropriately.Here,correctness refers to'grammatical competence' (i.e. phonology,morphology, and syntax) while appropriateness is simply equated to 'pragmatic competence' (i.e. vocabulary,cohesion and organization).The present questionnaire also unveiled that 14% of the respondents believe that for students to be competent they have to correctly make use of the linguistic aspects of the TL.This refers to a speakers' lexical,morphological,orthographical,syntactical and phonological knowledge the language.This is the type of knowledge that has traditionally been the staple diet of ELT classrooms.It is worth mentioning that ist is not completely rejected in the cuurent models of communicative competence but rather assumes a lesser role.

Finally,the smallest percentage of the respondents 08 % were over ambitious since they think that learners should acquire a native like communicative competence.In fact,communiactive competence which models itself on educated native speakers and takes their communicative competence as the ultimate goal of foreign langauge learning has been criticised by a number of authors.Kramsch (1998:16), for instance, contends that it is difficult to define native speaker norms "in a time of large scale migrations,cross-national and cross-cultural encounters,and increasing linguistic and pragmatic differences among speakers of the same language".Therefore,it is difficult to agree on what constitues a native speaker competence and much more difficult is to set it as the target of foreign language teaching.

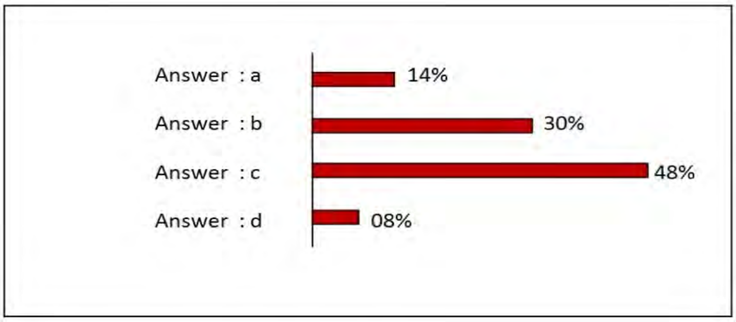

Table 36: what should learners possess in order to be communicatively competent?

4.8.2 Question Item Thirty Two

How would you qualify the barriers your students face when communicating in English**?**

a. linguistic

b. sociocultural

c. both

d. other (Please elaborate)

When attempting to express themeselves in the TL,learners face all sorts of barriers.These can be directly linked to their mastery of the linguistic code of the TL i.e. their mastery of grammar,synatx and phonology or sociocultural and include an appreciation of politeness,social conventions,taboo topics such as kinesics and proxemics.

The question item of the current questionnaire is an inquiry about the nature of students communicative problems.It starts from the assumption that these problems can be of purely linguistic nature ,or of sociocultural nature or both.This also helps gain insights into the teachers involvement into their teaching practices.Such a question could tell us whether our colleagues reflect on their students' performances or not.Being conscious of their learners'learning problems would allow teachers to rethink their methodologies and find appropriate remedies to their students weaknesses.The responses to this question shown on table 37revealed that only 24% of the respondents believe that communicative problems can be attributed to linguisic factors.Some 32% of the surveyed teachers believed that most of the students' troubles in communication result from their unawareness of the sociocultural aspects of the TL.Howevr,considerable percentage 45% of them attribute learners lack of communicative competence to both factors.

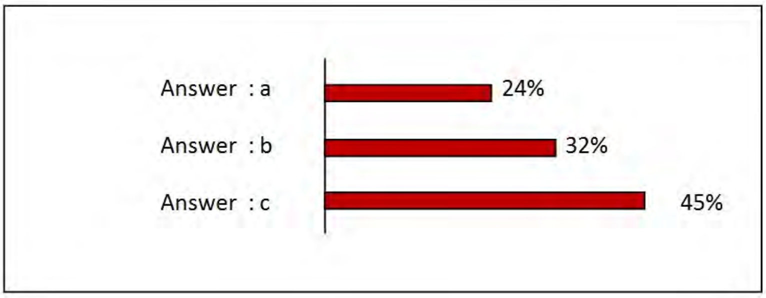

Table 37: barriers students face when communicating in English

4.8.3 Question Item Thirty Three

How would you assess your students' level of competence in communication?

a. good b. above Average c. average d. below average

A question about how the colleagues judge their students level of competence in communication was necessary.This question item appears of considerable interest because being knowledgeable about their students' real level will certainly direct them towards adopting the appropriate methodology as well as selecting suitable materials.

Moreover,research on the acquisition of communicative competence suggests that a complex interplay of psychological,affective, sociographical variables determine the level of proficiency reached by language learners and users (Dewale,2007:141).Therefore,the focus of this question was to give a relative evaluation.In fact,seeking an accurate value judgement would just be impossible because of the aforementioned variables. However,it is a judgement we are all forced to make at a certain point.

In statistical terms,half of the respondents 50% pointed that their learners' communicative competence is generally below the desired level i.e. below average, 20% of them rated their students level as above the average.Those who opted for average accounted for about 20% while only 10% of them qualify their students' level as good.

Based on the data at hand,it is fairly possible to argue that much work is needed to elevate our students' level of communication.Therefore,we have to create an environment where these learners could possibly develop this competency.This will never be attained unless we diagnose our students communicative difficulties and try to alleviate them.

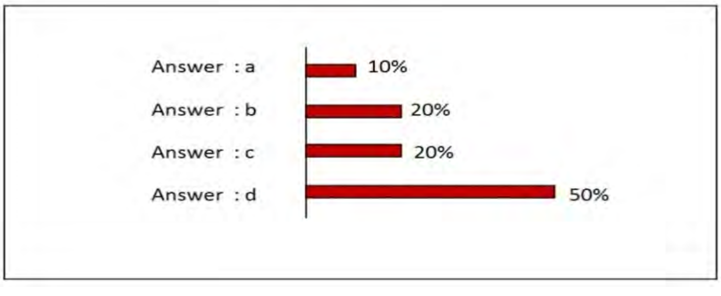

Table 38: Students' level of communicative competence

In case it is below the average, do you attribute this to ?

a. the student himself/herself

b. the instructional material

c. the methododogy employed

d. other,please specify

Again, this question item is a follow up to the previous one.It targets respondents who selected option (d) in answering question 33 above which requires them to evaluate their students level of communicative competence.The responses generated by the present question item show that the majority of the teachers around 41 % attribute this level to individual learners psychological factors or personality traits.These variables pertaining to individual learners are invisible,unpredictable and cannot be under the teacher's control.

Another important proportion around 39% of the surveyed teachers believe that inadequate teaching materials are responsible for the students' low level,while about 20% believe this could be attributed to the methodologies followed so far.In addition to the aforementioned reasons for students low proficinecy in communication,some teachers believe that the problems reside in the lack of time compared to the content of some modules,the lack of coordination among teachers of complementary modules such as phonetics and oral expression or grammar and written expression etc.

4.8.4 Question Item Thirty Four

In your opinion what are the competencies your students should possess to be communicatively competent? *Please arrange the following according to their order of importance from 1 to 5 by putting the appropriate number in the box provided for each option.*

a. linguistic competence

b. sociolinguistic competence

c. discourse competence

d. strategic competence

e. pragmatic competence

All the models of communicative competence reviewed in the theoretical part of this study agree on some basic components of communiative competence namely, those of sociolinguistic,pragmatic,discourse,and strategic competence.Any model we examine, we find that communincative competence is so vast as a domain and complex in nature that even native speakers may not achieve it .Nevertheless, developing FL and SL language learners' communicative competence has been the ultimate goal of teaching for more than four decades.Consequently,the questions that arise are : Are the various components of equal importance ? Or, should we follow an order of priority?

The following question item attempts to gauge the importance teachers attribute to each of these components.The result of the present questionnaire suggests that a high percentage of the sampled teachers ranked liguistic competence in the first position and gave it priority over the other competencies.It was the most often ranked first by the teachers with 41.68 % followed by sociocultural competence with 32.04 %.Discourse competence came in the third position with 30.09 % followed by pragmatic competence with only 23.30%.Finally, and as expected strategic competence was the most often classified in the last position with 10%.

Decidedly, this shows why of all the components, this one has been dominating the language classroom at the expense of the others competencies.Obviously,this has been the result of the teaching approaches and methods as well as the education of non-native speaker teachers.Nobody disputes that grammatical,or linguistic competence is of utter importance and certainly easily teachable but other competnecies are of no less value and should be developped alongside.

Rank	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Linguistic Competence	41.68%	30.03%	17.44%	05.82%	05%
Sociolinguistic Competence	32.04%	30.52%	17.48%	15.56%	05.42%
Discourse Competence	30.09%	18.44%	15.53%	30.42%	05.52%
Pragmatic Competence	23.30%	29.12%	37.86%	09.40%	07.30%
Strategic competence	15.53%	30.09%	18.44%	30.52%	05.42%

Table 39: Ranking then basic components of communucative competence

4.8.5 Question Item Thirty Five

Do you think that a longer exposure to AM will help in developing students' communicative competence?

a. yes b. no c. not really

Developing EFL learners' communicative competence has been in the foreront of FL classes for decades.With the advent of CLT both applied linguists and practitioners realised that communicative competence involved more than knowledge of language structures.Since the inception of CLT ,there have been calls for greater authenticity in the language classroom.To reach this goal,the logical way is to make use of AM.Therefore,given the role AM can play it was hypothesized in the present study that the richer the input provided by AM,combined with appropriate awareness activities,would be able to develop a range of communicative competencies (linguistic, pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic,strategic and discourse competencies).

In this question item,teachers are asked about the role of students'exposure to AM and whether this can help in developing their communicative competence.According to the answers obtained,a solid majority 91.42% of the surveyed teachers think that a longer exposure to AM is really indispensable to develop learners communicative competence.Around 8.58 % of the respondents do not really believe that such exposure is necessary at all.Such results however,reflect the role attributed to AM by the teachers and the need to exploit the potential benefits of AM.

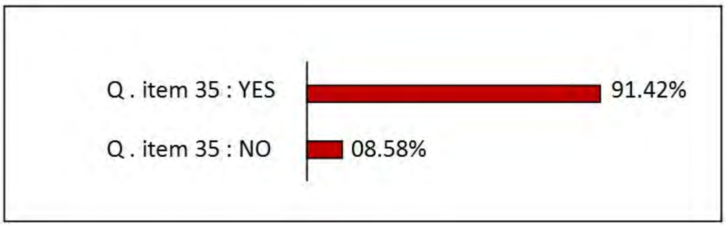

Table 40: The role of AM in developing students' communicative competence

4.8.6 Question Item Thirty Six

Do you think that the only mastery of the structural aspects of the TL will in itself ensure effective communication?

a. yes b. no

The content of foreign language teaching courses have always been defined in terms of the formal elements of the language rather than the identification of the concepts of these elements and what social functions or illocutions they account.Is structural,lexical and phonological knowledge sufficient for our leraners to develop their communicative competence?The tightly structured,lexicogrammatical syllabuses we have been working with in language classrooms for decades may create conforting impression of order and comprehensiveness,but in reality they often only present a tiny fraction of the full richness of the language.

The purpose behind asking such a question is to check whether there is some general agreement as to the type of competence learners should develop in order to to achieve their communicative goals.The responses obtained show that 90% of the respondents are aware that the only mastery of the formal system of the TL does not mean that the learner is competent in communiaction.It has been recognized that the language presented to students in the classroom is a poor representation of the real thing, "far away from that real,informal kind of English which is used very much more than any other during a normal speaking life time"(Crystal and Davy,1975:2).This supports the need for a paradigm shift where syllabus designers,practitioners,material adoptors and evaluators should focus on other areas of communicative competence.

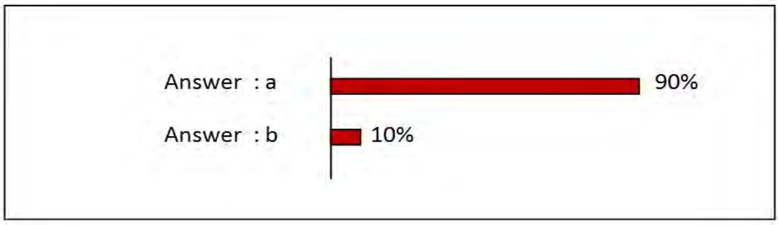

Table 41: Is the only mastery of the structural aspect of the TL sufficient to be communuicatively competent?

If your answer is '**no**', what do you suggest?

The current question item is clearly a follow-up to the previous one.It targets respondents who said 'no' and who were required to suggest alternative complementary areas to the linguistic aspects of the language.The responses generated by the present questionnaire survey show that teachers are convinced that the goal of teaching a language is to increase communicative competence.Being competent means being able to understand and interpret messages,understand the social context in which langauge is being used,apply the grammar rules and employ strategies to keep communication from breaking down (Savigon,1997).Therefore,our colleagues mentioned many other areas that could help us to deepen our understanding of how people make meaning through language.

With respect,to the relative importance of different areas of competence,our respondents mentioned areas such as sociolinguistic competence,discourse competenc,strategic competence and pragmatic competence.However the interaction between these various components remain an area where very little research has been conducted.Byram (1997:10) following van Ek (1986) sees the components of communicative competence as different aspects of the same aspect.We can focus on one particular component but it can never be completely understood in isolation: "At any point one aspect will be central but the others,and their relationship to that aspect,will also be in view”.

4.9 Section Five : The development of learners’pragmatic competence

4.9.1 Question Item Thirty Seven

Why don’t teachers teach pragmatic aspects of the TL?

a. lack of training

b. students’ level

c. time allotment

d. limited knowledge of TL culture and language

e. confusion with which aspects of pragmatics to cover

As practitioners of educational principles and theories,teachers are heavily involved in various teaching and learning processes.Teachers have an essential role in determining what is needed or what would work best with their students.What is noticeable,however,is that in most EFL teaching contexts teachers do not give any attention to pragmatic aspects of the TL.Different scholars have given different reasons for the neglect of pragmatic competence in the language classroom.

In order to gain deeper insights about this neglect ,we asked our colleagues this question to find out its possible reasons.As shown in the table, teachers are asked to choose one of given five options.35 % of the surveyed teachers reported that the most common reasons behind such neglect could be attributed to the lack of training.As explained by Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor(2003:1) “Pragmatics does not receive the attention in language teacher education programs that other area of language do”.Some 30% think this could be explained by students language level whereas 15 % think that think that the main reason is time allotment.Differently stated, 10 % of the respondents believe that the cause may be the teachers limited knowledge of the TL language culture and language.Finally,another 10 % of the respondents think that they are confused as to which aspects of pragmatic competence to teach.

As can be seen,teachers' reluctance to teach pragmatic aspects of the TL could be attributed to different factors.Some are directly related to the teachers' training and readiness to teach this important aspect of communicatice competence while others concern the learners and their linguistic level.

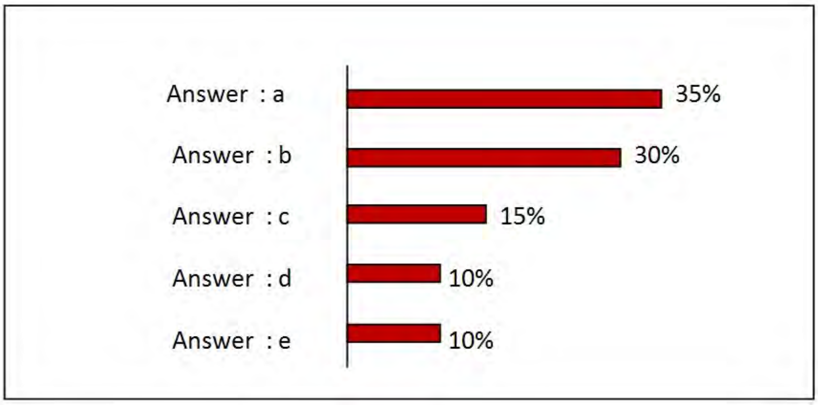

Table 42: Reasons for teachers' neglect of teaching pragmatic competence

4.9.2 Item Thirty Eight

Where do you think your students acquire most of their pragmatic awareness?

a. teacher's talk

b. general culture courses

c. authentic materials(films,magazines,books TV etc.)

d. social on line sites (Facebook,Twitter,etc.)

e. other (Please elaborate)

Typically, an EFL environment is different from an ESL environemnt for language learning,especially the pragmatic aspects of the TL.Some authors think that exposure to the TL in EFL settings is scarce and hinders students'pragmatic ompetence.However,there are other means that could serve as the basis for language input learners receive inside and outside the classroom.The role the different input can play in developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence is essential.

The attitudes the respondents towards the role of input in developing learners'pragmatic competence seem to have developed into a firm belief that it is the corner stone of language learning.The results of the present questionnaire show that the majority of the surveyed teachers i.e. 40 % believe that teacher's talk is a useful source of language input for all levels while about 25% of the respondents think that teachers need to frequently include authentic materials so as to help develop learners'pragmatic competence "because teachers in EFL settings, where there are relatively few opportunities for students to use the language in communicative context".(Brock and Nagasaka,2005) will make use of peadgogical materials as the major source of pragmatic knowledge.The result of this question-item also unveils that some15 % claim that social on line sites provide valuable sourecs of input .Finally, a small proportion 20% believe that some modules such as "General Culture" may help in providing the necesary input to develop EFL learners pragmatic competence.

Clearly, all the respondents, despite their different choices agree on the vital link between the type of input and learners' pragmatic competence.In fact, all the types of input suggested above can bring outside contribution to complement the paucity of pragmatic contents of the TL.However,in order to facilitate the opportunities for teaching and learning pragmatics in the classroom teachers should vary the input.

4.9.3 Question Item Thirty Nine

Will you accept to attend a training program about how to teach pragmatics?

In foreign language context teachers are non-native speakers of English and they need to be well-prepared in order to teach the pragmatic aspects of the TL.In the case of our country,no courses are offered to teachers either during their pre-service or in-service education programs in the area of pragmatics.If teachers,and student teachers undergo pragmatic training programs,“They can help their students see the language in context,raise consciousness of the role of pragmatics,and explain the functions pragmatics plays in specific communicative event” (Brock and Nagasaka,2005:20).Furthermore,the course of pragmatics was included in the curriculum only with the implementation of the LMD system in the ALgerian university.Training on how to teach this new and important course appears,therefore,a necessity rather than a luxury. The main aim for asking this question is to elicit information pertaining to teachers’ perceived needs for professional development.We wanted to find out whether they felt the need for any further professional training and development

The result of the current questionnaire suggest that the overwhelming majority of the sampled teachers 85% were quite unified about the need for further development on the issue of teaching pragmatics.They all expressed their preparedness to attend regular training sessions on how to develop EFL learners’ pragmatic competence.In fact, this is a clear indication that the colleagues are conscious of the importance that should be given to pragmatics in our teaching practices.

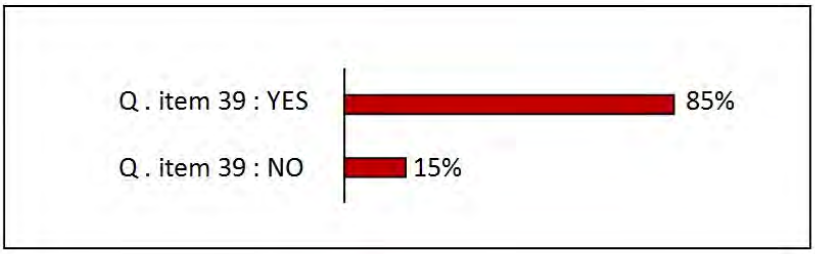

Table 43: Teachers’ readiness to attend training programs teaching pragmatics

4.9.4 Question item Forty

Do you think that teaching a foreign language requires teaching its culture?

a. yes b. no

We cannot dissociate language from its culture.Therefore,when learners learn a language ,they learn about culture.As they learn to use a new language,they learn to communicate with other individuals from other cultures.It is at this level that various problems in intercultural communication start.Being knowledgeable about the TL culture is as important as its grammar or vocabulary.Even more important to the point that a lack of cross-cultural awareness can result in serious misunderstandings and even clashes.Generally speaking,people are much less tolerant of cultural shocks than they are of grammatical or lexical mistakes.

Taking into account the above facts, we asked our colleagues about the importance of incorporating culture into teaching and learning the TL.In theory,all teachers agreed that language is inseparable from its culture.A language cannot exist in vacuum.It has to express some objective function when utterances are made or some text is written.Unlike struture teaching,pragmatics calls for the inclusion of cultural aspects.In practice,pedagogical decisions concerning how to teach culture are quite different from such decisions concerning the teaching of linguistic structures.In fact,we can deduce from this that teachers can decide on the priorities in teaching selected cultural aspects.We also think that the first step towards the acquisition of sociocultural rules of language is a program aimed at sensitizing learners to cultural differences in pragmatic behaviour across culture.

Moreover,it is wrong to assume that the inclusion of general culture module in the LMD system is in itself sufficient .It should be noted here that all the modules of the curriculum can and should introduce the cultural aspects of the TL.What is important is that taechers in the departments of English no longer look at teaching English as a linguistic task only.It is deducible from the teachers’responses that they are willing to move away from the traditional teaching approaches which focus on structures towards intercultural communicative competence.

4.9.5 Question Item Forty One

Is developing your students'pragmatic competence one of your teaching goals?

In Algeria, English is taught as a foreign language.Equipping Algerian learners of English with communicative competence in order to help them communicate effectively in international communication is essential.In other words, learners should be given plenty of opportunities to practise the use of the language that is appropriate to a given situation.Therefore, we asked this question to see whether developing EFL learners pragmatic competence is considered as a teaching goal.

In response to this question, most of the surveyed teachers 95 % believe that developing pragmatic competence i.e. the ability to use language appropriately ,is the ultimate goal of langauge learning.The answers to this question item show that pragmatics is central to langauge use and language learning and pragmatic issues must be addressed in language classrooms.Moreover,in order to successfully reach this goal i.e. developing learners' pragmatic competence learners need to be exposed to appropriate input in the classroom particularly in the foreign classroom.

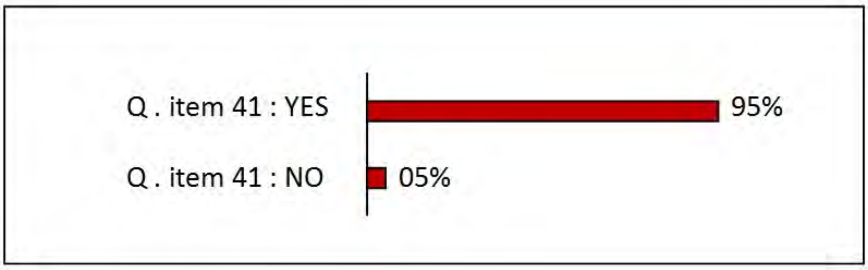

Table 44**:** Is developing your students'pragmatic competence one of your teaching goals?

4.9.6 Question Item Forty Two

In your opinion, how should pragmatics be taught?

a. implicitly b. explicitly

The question whether pragmatics should be taught implicitly or explecitly has not yet been settled down.The present question item addresses the issue of which type of instruction is the most effective for learning the TL.It was no surprise to read that the majority of the surveyed teachers 85 % are in favour of an explicit instruction.They all agreed that the target features are most effectively learned when they are taught explicitly using input enhancement techniques.Thus,explicit pedagogic intervention is seen as necessary in order to develop learners'pragmatic competence.Only a tiny minority of the sampled teachers estimated at 15% advocate implicit or what is incidental learning.However,as Doughty and Williams (1998b) posit that the teacher may choose between these two different pedagogical approaches in order to make the process of second language acquisition easier.On the one hand ,explicit teaching involves directing learners' attention towards the target forms witth the aim of discussing those forms.On the the other hand,an implicit peadgogical approach aims to attract learners' attention while avoiding any type of metalinguistic explanation and thus minimizing the interruption of the communicative situation.

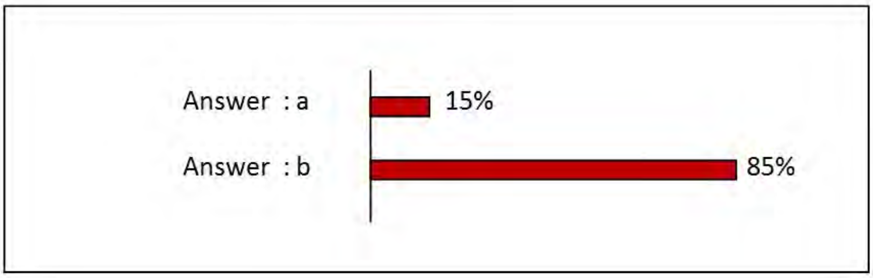

Table45: Explicit or implicit teaching of pragmatics

4.9.7 Question Item Forty Three

Do the materials you use offer opportunities for learners to develop their pragmatic competence?

a. yes b. no

There are various challenges that hamper the English language learning from the perspective of pragmatics.Learners'pragmatic failure can often be attributed to the effect of instruction or the instructional materials,rather than being a result of insufficient pragmatic awareness or incomplete pragmatic control on the part of the learners.One of the problems in the FL context is the type of input our learners receive.Therefore,the current questionnaire serves as a basis to check whether practitioners are satisfied with the type of materials they exploit in their classes.As shown on the table below,The present questionnaire unveils that a very high percentage of the surveyed teachers 70 % expressed their disatisfaction with the materials they are exploiting.The majority of the practiotioners surveyed seemed to be substantially dissatisfied with the content of the materials they use.

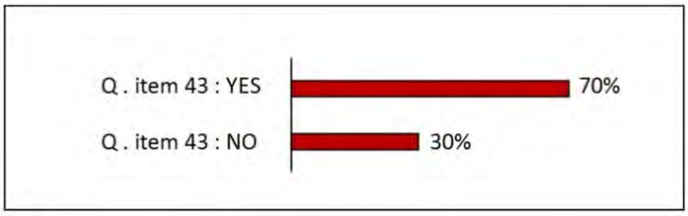

Table 46: Teachers' attitude towards materials they use.

If your answer is 'no', please justify**.**

This question item is a follow up to the previous one.It concerns all the teachers whose answer is 'no'.In fact,most of the comments collected justified their standpoints by the fact that pedagogical materials are inadequate to be reliable sources of pragmatic input for classroom language learners.Furthermore,many teachers think that the lack of exposure to the TL in EFL settings hinders students development of pragmatics.Therefore, to be successfully acquired the TL should be presented through authentic language materials.Most of the surveyed teachers insisted on the necessity to bring outside materials i.e. authentic materials related to pragmatics.They think that in order for students to learn how language really works,they need authentic materials of authentic communication situations.The demand for pragmatic input is particularly relevant when advanced learners are concerned,because at this level,students are expected to be quite proficient language users.In other words,at this university level,they are at an advanced level and competent enough to understand the subtelties of English.

4.9.8 Question Item Forty Four

In your opinion, how could pragmatic aspects be effectively taught ?

a. through awareness raising activities that help learners learn and use the language.

b. through teacher's talk.

c. through explicit teaching using metapragmatic explanation about form function relationship.

d. through exposure to materials reflecting pragmatic aspects.

The challenge for foreign language teaching is whether we can arrange learning opportunities in such a way that benefit the development of pragmatic competence of learners.Pragmatic competence,or the ability to communicate appropriately using the TL,is increasingly recognized as an essential component of communicative competence.Therefore,in order to improve the pragmatic competence of EFL learners arguments have been put forward for the necessity of instruction in pragmatics.(Bardovi-Harlig,2001).However,the question that arises is how we can efficiently teach the pragamtic aspects of the TL.This question item provides teachers with a set of techniques which can be used in teaching pragmatics and invites them to select the one or ones that they deem efficient in developing FL learners pragmatic competence. It also requires them to rank these techniques according to their order of efficiency.

The teachers' classification of the teaching techniques for teaching pragmatics yielded the results that are displayed on table 47.According to the surveyed teachers, the most effective way to teach pragmatics was through awareness raising activities. This technique was most ranked first by our respondents with 35%.Teacher think that before jumping in the teaching of pragmatic aspects of the TL, they should equip their students with strategies that are used for expressing different functions of the TL such as requesting ,complimenting, apologizing, refusing, promising, consoling ,among many other functions. As expected, exposing learners to input that reflect pragmatic aspects won the second position with 30 %.Therefore, in order to be made salient to the learners, teachers think that pragmatic aspects should be presented through AM. In the third position with 20 % came explicit teaching, featuring metapragmatic explanation. In other words, some teachers believe that explicit instruction, positively affects the acquisition of pragmatics compared with mere exposure to the TL. Surprisingly, despite being a very useful source of language input ,for all levels, teacher's talk was classified in the last position 15%.

The answers given by the teachers showed that pragmatic aspects of the TL can be taught and presented to the learners through different ways.However,the teachers seemed to be convinced that the most efficient way to get learners acquire pragmatic competence is through exposure to the TL coupled with appropriate consciousness raising activities.

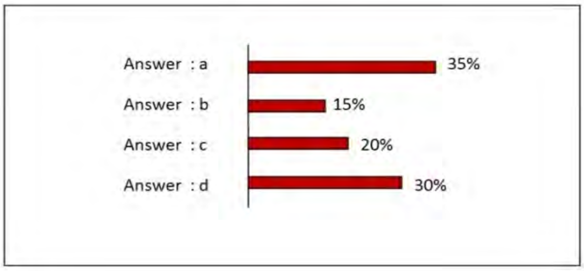

Table 47: The most effective techniques of teaching pragmatic aspects of the TL.

4.9.9 Question Item Forty Five: Which of the following AM are the most efficient in developing learners' pragmatic competence ?(*Please rank the following according to their order of importance from 1 to 6 by putting the appropriate number in the box provided for each option.)*

a. movies

b. TV programmes

c. Internet

d. songs

e. newspaper and magazine articles

f. literature (texts,plays,novels,short stories,poems etc.)

(Please rank the following according to their order of importance from 1 to 6 by putting in the box the appropriate number in the box provided)

The English language presented to the students in terms of spoken and written language may not be the one students need to succeed in communication.Peadgogical materials rarely provide adequate pragmatic information students need to successfully develop their pragmatic competence.Therefore,if teachers and syllabi designers do not strive for the inclusion of authentic materials to substantiate peadagogical materials,students will not acquire the ability to use the TL appropriately according to communication situation.

It is clear that pragmatic competence cannot be achieved overnight unless learners are exposed to and practise authentic language use.This exposure can be realized through different types of audio-visuals and printed authentic materials.In this question item,the surveyed teachers are provided with a set of authentic materials that can be used for teaching and developing pragmatic competence and are invited to classify them according to their order of efficiency.They are also asked to suggest any other type of material they deem important in teaching pragmatics.

The results of the present questionnaire certify that among the provided authentic materials movies were most often were ranked first by the respondents with 40.50% followed by TV progarmmes with 40.50%. Internet sources came in the third position with 36.50% .Songs were given the fourth position with 30 % .As expected, newspaper artticles and literary texts were classified in the last positions with respectively 25 % and 05%.

As can be seen from the above results, audio visual material collected from sources such as TV channels and the Net are considered by teachers as their major sources of language input.The responese further illustrate that most teachers are convinced that direct contact with AM especially in their audio visual form would help in immersing learners in the TL and thereby develop their pragmatic competence.

Materials	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
a. Movies	45.50%	14%	12.50%	22.50%	02.50%	07.50%
b.TV.programmes	40.50%	15.50%	15%	05%	10%	00%
c. Internet	36.50%	17.50%	15%	10%	14.50%	07%
d. Songs	30%	10%	16.50%	16.50%	15%	02.50%
e. Newspaper and magazine article	25%	15%	02.50%	05%	20%	15%
f. Literature	05%	16%	20%	19%	25%	05%

Table 48: Ranking the materials that could best dvelop learners' communicative competence

4.9.10 Question Item Forty Six

Do you think that teaching pragmatics occupies an important place in the teaching of English?

This question item explores the importance attributed to the teaching of pragmatics within the syllabuses of the departments of English in Algeria.This question was answered by all teachers including others from other universities.The overwhelming majorit 80 % of the respondents thought that teaching pragmatics was important.This shows that pragmatics should not be treated as a different aspect that demands diffferent teaching methods.These teachers also in their majority did not study a module as such i.e.called pragmatics when they were reading for their BA or even Magistère degree.

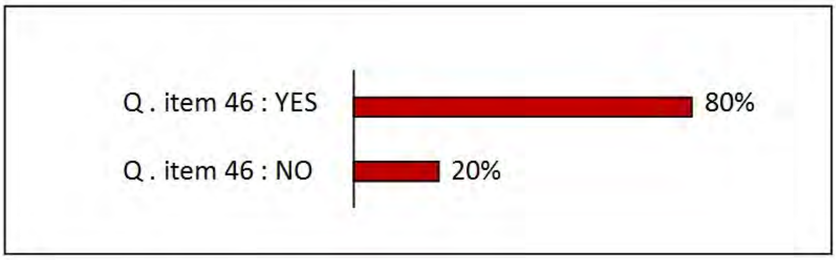

Table 49: The position that pragmatics occupies in the teachinbg of English

4.9.11 Question Item Forty Seven

Do you think that the time alloted to the teaching of pragmatics is sufficient ?

Teachers in most cases complain of the limited contact hours due to unmanageable class size.Teachers usually have overcrowded curriculum to cover and lack the time to spend teaching every pragmatic aspect.Moreover,teacher are often confused about what pragmatic aspects to cover.

In response to this question,the majority of the surveyed teachers 75% believe that the time allocated to the teaching of this module is not enough.This shows that a session per week i.e. an hour and a half is not sufficient to cover both the theoretical and practical sides of the module.

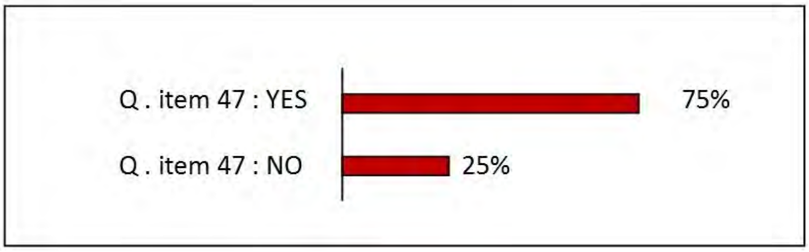

Table 50: Time alloted to teaching pragmatics

4.9.12 Question Item Forty Eight

At which level should the module of pragmatics be incorporated in the curriculum?

a. third Year

b. first Year Master

c. second Year Master

Many teachers, syllabi designers, and linguists expressed the need to incorporate pragamtics in the curriculum.In Agereia this course is included in the third year of the BA (i.e. ‘licence’) and the first and second year of the Master degree.The question that we should ask is whether its incorporation in the third year of the licence is the most appropriate one.The present question item addresses the issue of where the course of pragmatics fits in the existing curriculum.

The surveyed teachers in their majority estimtated at 57% believe that the most suitable level at which this course can be included in the curriculum is the third year.At this level,the learners have gained a satisfactory language proficiency that enables them to acquire pragmatic knowledge and pragmatic competence.Some 25 % believe that it should be incorporated at the first year whereas only a tiny minority 18 % of the respondents prefers the second year for the inclusion of this course.However,we believe that pragmatics instruction should not be aimed at solely serving advanced and proficient EFL learners’language learning nor should it be a complementary peadogogical approach.Pragmatics then should be taught at all levels of instruction.

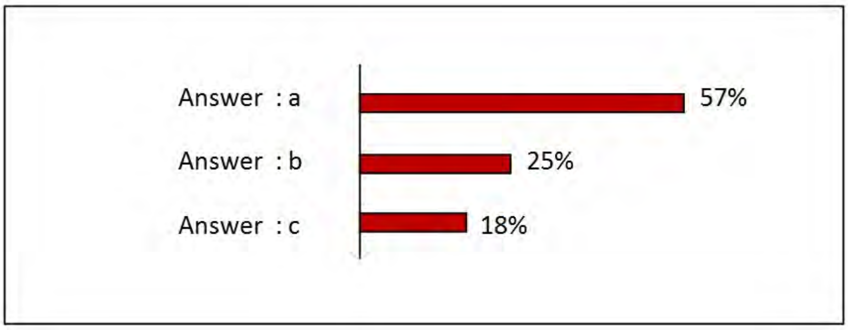

Table 51: The level at which pragmatics should be incorporated in the curriculum

4.10 Comments

Throughout the analysis of the results obtained from the questionnaire,we have made some very important concluding remarks.In general,the results of the questionnaire indicated that the surveyed teachers are substantially dissatisfied with contrived language input that does not help learners develop their pragamtic competence or does not present reality outside the classroom.This is because pedagogical materials and textbooks do not adequately include comprehensible explanations of how conversations works in English.The colleagues are all convinced that pedaogogical materials are inadequate to be used as sources of pragmatic input for classroom language learners.

Moreover, authentic language input is not readily available in EFL context, and teachers typically do not have the skills to create pragmatic learning activities for their learners.Most of the time, teachers in peripheral social context do not have frequent interaction with NSs and are unfamiliar with the rules for contextualized language use.Therefore, training has even been suggested for teachers.

Additionally,the questionnaire analysis showed that all the sampled teachers were aware of the potential benefits of exploiting AM in the classroom.There is a wide recognition among teachers that expoure to AM can really bring the missing sociocultural aspects of the TL.Results also indicated the flagrant lack of language input.

Another important area where there was convergence of views among teachers is related to the importance of acquiring pragmatic ability.Having pragmatic ability means being able to go beyond the literal meaning of what is said or written,in order to interpret the intended meanings,assumptions,purposes or goals,and the kind of actions that are being performed (Kasper,2001c).The analysis of the data revealed that teachers consider that the only acquisition of linguistic competence does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development.Therefore,even advanced language learners may fail to comprehend and to convey intended intentions and politeness.

As far as the teachability of pragmatics is concerned,the results of the questionnaire revealed that teachers recognize pragmatic competence as a key component of communicative competence,involving knowledge of when and how to use particular forms to perform desired functions.Furthermore,the survey also revealed that the teachers consider that pragmatic features are more effectively learned when they are taught explicitly.All the surveyed teachers view expilicit peadogogic intervention as necessary to develop learners' pragmatic ability.With regard to the teachability of pragmatics most of the the surveyed teachers agree that pragmatics is teachable and that pedagogical intervention has a facilitative role in learning pragmatics.According to Takahashi (2001: 182): "The target pragmatic features were found to be most effectively learned when they are under the condition in which a relatively high degree of input enhancement was realized with explicit metapragmatic information".Moreover,the degree of attainment of a second or foreign language pragmatic competence is to a certain extent limited in the classroom environment.Therefore,they claimed that simple noticing and attention to target pragmatic features in the input do not lead to learning.

The result of the survey also emphasized the need for explicit teaching of pragmatic features.The responses revealed that the teachers strongly believe that learners should be given opportunities to be exposed to native-like conversations through the use of AM.To increase such exposure teacher training needs to involve teaching pragmatic aspects of the TL.The pragmatic awareness or the lack of it is very much affected by the type of language input the learners are provided with.

Furthermore,the teachers' teaching practices are not shaped so as to develop learners' communicative competence.Their practices still focus on the more structural aspects of the TL.Therefore,the only way out is to make teachers aware of the necessity to remould their teaching practices in such a way as to make their learners aware of the sociocultural dimensions of the TL.

Conclusion

In the light of the aforegoing data analysis,it becomes clear that the responses and their interpretations sit well with the hypothesis on which of the present study is grounded.The current research has developed from a powerful claim that the only use of peadagogical ELT materials is insufficient to develop learners'communicative competence and that substantial authentic language input is necessary to bring the missing socio-cultural aspects of the TL.Therefore,it was hypothesized that the richer input provided by AM,coupled with appropriate awareness activities,would be better able to develop a range of communicative competencies in learners.

Furthermore,it is fairly possible to infer from the data analysis that teachers are in favour of explicit instruction of pragmatic features of language and recommend the use of authentic models to help learners practice using language in social contexts.The findings also indicated that there is scarcity in pragmatic information contained in ELT pedagogical materials.Consequently,most teachers agree that pragmatic competence cannot be attained unless learners are continually and intensively exposed to and practise authentic language use.

Additionally,the questionnaire analysis showed that the goal of teaching English as a foreign language is to enable learners to communicate effectively in different contexts.It also showed that even a high proficiency linguistic level does not guarantee effective communication.That is why,developing learners' communicative competence ,i.e.the ability to communicate appropriately,is considered as the ultimate goal of language teaching.

More importantly,the questionnaire analysis revealed that the knowledge of the target language' culutre is as important as its grammar.The point is that the lack of cross-cultural awareness can constitute a serious hurdle in the interpretation of a message which is linguistically correct or comprehesible.In fact,teachers' responses clearly indicated that both syllabi designers , material developers and practitioners should pay particular attention not only to form and meaning but to pragmatic features of the TL since pragmatic competence is one of the most important constituents of communicative competence.

Last but not least,our survey has shown that in foreign language context teachers are NNSs of English therefore,one of their most important job requirement is to be well-trained in the teaching of pragmatic features of the TL.However,no regular and sufficient training courses are offered during pre-servive or in-service education.The result is that in most cases teachers do not give much attention to communicative or pragmatic functions in the classroom.In fact, what is deducible from the questionnaire analysis is that teachers are ready to undergo training periods and that a well-designed teacher training should be in place in order to help learners develop their pragmatic competence.Above all,instruction in pragamtics is immature in our country and needs to be developed by providing professional training to teachers.

Chapter Five

Field work: The Experimental Study

Introduction

The conclusions we drew from the previous chapters is that there are many problems which keep our FL learners' communicative competence very poor. Indeed, our learners encounter serious obstacles in both receiving and forwarding messages in the TL. One of the main causes of such a situation is the lack or even the total absence of exposure to authentic English as used in the mainstream society. As FL teachers, our primary concern should be to alleviate our learners' problems and to find the most effective ways to enhance our learners' communicative competence. Therefore, we believe that the most efficient solution is an "immersion" of our learners in the TL through exposure to English as used in real life situations.

The aim of the present study is to explore the effect of a whole semester of exposure to authentic materials on the development of FL learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. To achieve our objective, we compared the development of two groups from the population of third year at the department of English at Biskra University. The experimental group received treatment i.e. exposure to AM while the other group i.e. the control group received no instruction based on AM. The current study was then undertaken to examine the effects of using AM on our third year students' communicative competence. Therefore, in the following chapter, we intend to discuss the exposure of learners to the different materials selected for the experimental programme of instruction. We will also give the reasons underlying the choice of both the materials and the tasks and activities accompanying them.

Moreover, the present chapter represents an overview of the results of the experimental study that lasted for a whole semester. Therefore, in this chapter, we present the results of our study and a discussion of their implications on our research questions and corresponding hypotheses stated in the introductory part of this dissertation.

5.1 Methodological Approach: Main justification

In the field of research there exists a host of methods and research designs including research in the field of education. In order to conduct any research study, researchers usually go through a series of interrelated phases which together make up the design of the research. A research design therefore refers to the general plan of collecting data as well as the procedures followed to analyze the obtained data in order to propose solutions to the problem under investigation. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993:31) a research design can be described as the procedures "for conducting the study, including when, from whom and under what conditions data were obtained. Its purpose is to provide the most valid, accurate answers as possible to research questions".

As far as research in education is concerned, two main approaches have been often adopted by researchers: First, the quantitative (experimental) approach and attempts to control all the variables in an experiment to prove the causative relationship between two things by keeping everything else constant. Second, the qualitative (descriptive) approach and is usually termed ethnography, prefer to allow the theories to reveal themselves naturally from, often, intense and prolonged contact in the field. However, to stick dogmatically to one rather than the other would be a mistake, particularly with respect to research in education where it is impossible to control all the variables. In fact, neither a quantitative nor a qualitative approach is without its problems when it comes to classroom based research.

As far as the present study is concerned , we believe that a mixed approach would certainly serve better the objectives of the current research.We also believe that the choice of the method is most of the time imposed by the nature of the issue under investigation, the data needed and the objectives to be attained. Our research in the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning is an attempt to gather evidence about the effects of the exposure of learners to authentic language materials on the development of their communicative and pragmatic competence. Therefore, in order to investigate the effectiveness of this learning device on our learners' communicative competence and further to test our hypothesis, we opted for the experimental design. This is motivated by the fact that the use of this method allows the researcher to enjoy high reliability of data collection and contributes to the objectivity of the conclusions reached. Besides this kind of method helps to determine whether the predictive hypothesis underlying our research holds true. On this particular aspect of this method Miller (1975:12) holds that:

> The most effective means of testing a prediction is to deliberately manipulate the independent variable and then to observe the consequential changes in the dependent variable. It is only this method of collecting data-the experimental method-which has the power to reveal cause-and-effect relationships in an unambiguous way.

It becomes clear that the experiment is an essential tool for gathering evidence to demonstrate the effects of one variable upon another and is carried out to reveal cause and effect relationship between these variables. In other words, any change in the dependent variable is normally attributed to the independent variable (IV henceforth).The experimenter may manipulate conditions or measure and assign subjects to conditions supposed to be the cause. The dependent variable (DV henceforth) measured by the experimenter is the effect or result. In the present study the IV is the exposure of learners to AM, and the dependent variable is the development of their communicative and pragmatic competence. According to Miller (ibid: 12) : "In the ideal case the experimenter manipulates the independent variable, holds all other variables constant, and then observes the changes in the dependent variable".

However, this remains an ideal case since conducting an experiment in a field of human sciences like education does not always allow the experimenter to have complete control over all the extraneous variables. The researcher in this case should resign himself to their existence eventhough they may jeopardize the experiment. These alien variables are regarded in two ways. They are associated with the subjects' age gender, intelligence, motivation, personality traits etc. and are called 'subject variables', or are associated with the experiment and its conditions and are called 'situational variables'. Nonetheless, the experimenter disposes of tools such as post-tests, pre-test, experiment, and control group and random assignment to control the variables and fulfil the requirements of his experiment .The figure below shows the design of the experiment.

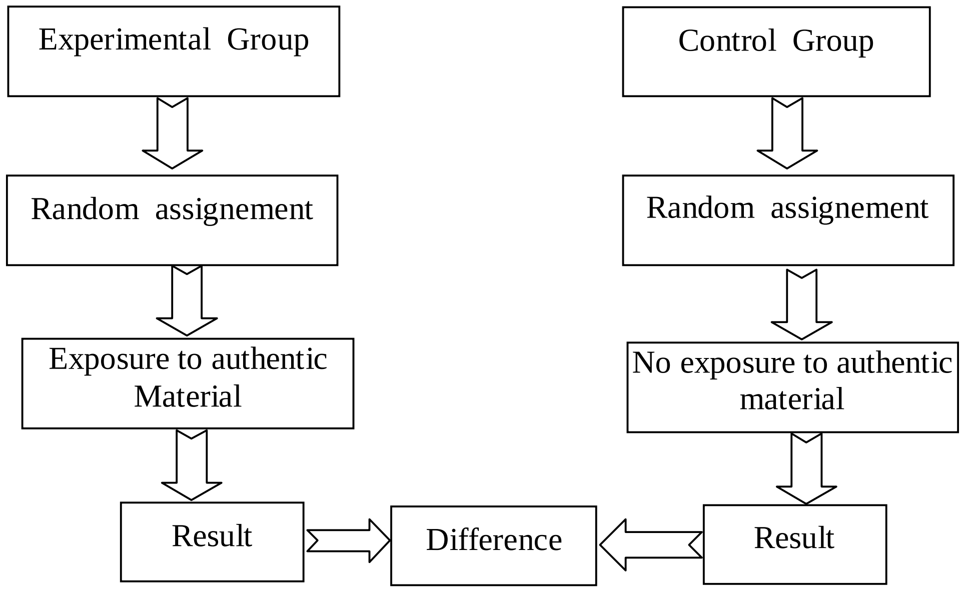

Figure 09 : Design of the experiment

5.2 Subject population and sampling

In order to conduct our experiment and to prove that the only variable that causes changes in our students' communicative and pragmatic competence is the use of AM, we decided to observe two samples from a population of about 300 subjects.The participants in our study are 40 students taken from the population of third year LMD students of the department of English at the University of Biskra. The main reason for the choice of third year students lies in the fact that we assume that after having studied two years at the department of English these students have certainly reached a satisfactory language proficiency level in the TL. We also believe that they have acquired the acceptable linguistic level which enables them to acquire pragmatic competenc. Moreover, these students have spent two years studying English which is in fact enough to reduce the differences between the students and make them more or less homogenous in their linguistic level.

The subjects to be observed were randomly assigned to two groups, the experimental and the control group. These two groups represent a proportion from a large population and we consider them representative of the entirety of the population.

Thus, our experiment was carried out on the assumption that the sampling has been random from a normal parent population and as Miller (1975:19) points out "(…) Subjects are divided into separate groups on the basis of strictly random proceeding i.e. each subject has an equal chance of being allocated to one group or the other". Therefore, our experiments have been conducted according to the empirical assumptions that sampling should be done randomly. To do so, and to ensure randomizing, the two groups have not been divided into equal sized age groups. Concerning age, the overall age-range of the students of the experiments is between 20 and 25. As far as gender is concerned, the number of girls and boys was not equated. In fact, in both groups the number of females exceeds the number of males. Furthermore, we have adopted random sampling to avoid any particular bias (experimenter bias) and thus to consider that every member of the population has the same chance of being selected for the sample as any other (Mook-1982:35).However, it should be made clear that we are dealing with human beings therefore, many unexpected and unwanted variable may intervene and possibly skew the results of our experiments. As a matter of fact, a sampling error or differences between individuals are likely to occur.

Taking into account the above facts, and in order to ensure reliability and validity of our experiment, the criteria of absence of bias has been of chief importance. Besides, we want to be sure that the difference is caused by the independent variable of interest i.e. exposure to AM and not by any other variables such as subject variables or situation variable (confounding/ irrelevant variables).That is why, for the sake of the experimental control, it is essential to ensure that all the differences between the members of the two groups balance out (though they do not perfectly balance out).

The present study makes use of pre-test, post-test and control group design which explains the need for two groups, an experimental group and a control group. The subjects will be randomly assigned to each group to guarantee every individual in the population an equal chance of being chosen. In fact, we wanted to make sure that the difference p is more likely caused by the independent variable, i.e. the exposure to authentic language materials and not by differences in the students' individual abilities (extraneous variables). The choice of the experimental design is to ascertain the effects of AM on learners' communicative competence. The samples will be drawn according to a table of random numbers from the population of the third year students of the department of English at the University of Biskra. Twenty students are assigned to the control group, and twenty students are assigned to the experimental group; to receive the experimental treatment which makes the total number of forty (40) students out of three hundred (300) students registered in the third year.

Bearing in mind that our participants belonged to different groups, we first distributed a background questionnaire which consisted of two main sections. The first section is related to learner's personal information and aims at gathering information about learners' personal background to make sure that our participants' shared similar features and to find out whether their principal exposure to the English language had been in the FL classroom.

Regarding the first section of the questionnaire, we asked for information about biographical details such as age, gender, and mother tongue, and the other aspects related to our participants previous contact with the English language. A summary of this information is provided in the table below:

	Groups	
Description of the individual	**Experimental**	**Control**
Number	20	20
Gender Female Male	 17 03	 16 04
Mother tongue	Arabic	Arabic
Self reported proficiency level Excellent Good Acceptable Average Below average	0 9 7 4 0	0 10 6 1 3 0
Motivation Job opportunities Interest in the English language Travelling abroad Means of communication	11 5 2 2	10 6 2 2
Previous tuition in English	6 Years	6 Years

Length of study at the university	2 Years	2 Years
English Speaking countries visited Yes No	 0 0	 0 0
Other foreign languages Yes No **Contact with people using English** Yes No **Exposure to English outside the classroom** Yes No	 18 0 4 16 3 17	 19 0 3 17 3 17
Tasks and activities	Same	Same
Teaching materials	Authentic	Non-authentic

Table 52: Personal information about the experimental and control group

As can be seen in the previous table, the mean age over the two groups was quite similar, since all students' ages ranged between 19 and 25 years old. Concerning gender, it is worth mentioning that there were more females than males in both groups, which may be related to the more female oriented nature of the degree our participants were involved in. They were also asked to specify what their mother tongue was and, as illustrated in the table above, all the students' mother tongue was Arabic which makes the two groups homogenous.

Another important aspect to find out was the length our participants had studied English in order to avoid differences between them due to the disparity of their knowledge of the TL.As shown in the table above , the participants mean of years was quite similar in the two groups . As far as their knowledge of the English language is concerned, we were also interested to know our learners' self-reported proficiency in the TL. We asked them first to report in the four different skills before actually reporting their overall proficiency in the TL, so we have only presented a general rating. None of the participants reported having an excellent or very low level at English, which seemed to unify the two groups towards a satisfactory level in English.

Apart from all these issues, and considering the fact that all the participants were preparing a degree in English, we also wanted to gauge their real opinions as regards to their motivation to learning English. As shown on table 52, learners' motivations differed according to various aspects. Most participants found that preparing a degree in English was an important instrument when looking for job opportunities. Interestingly, many participants claimed that English was an important language for use as a means of international communication and stressed its usefulness when travelling abroad. Finally, other participants stated that they liked to learn foreign languages particularly English.

Regarding participants' visits to an English speaking country, no one said he had ever visited an English speaking country. Similarly, most of the students reported that in addition to English, they were also studying French. The last question inquired about whether the participants from each of the groups had any contact with English outside the language classroom. Only a few learners said they employed the English language to communicate with other people, mainly throughout the internet, and most of the students did have exposure to English by watching TV, listening to the radio or reading magazines or newspapers.

Taking into consideration all the information mentioned above, which was collected in order to describe the participants in both groups, it seems that they shared general and homogenous features. Most important to acknowledge was the fact that students' main contact with the English language had taken place in the FL classroom. This context as mentioned in chapter two section 2.12 is the only setting where learners may be faced with communicative situations that help them to develop their pragmatic competence.

5.3 The experimental programme of instruction

The crucial question that concerns many teachers and methodologists is the difference between authentic and non-authentic material. The former are said to be designed for native speakers as we said in chapter one section 1.3, they are real texts designed not for language students. Thus, English language newspapers are composed of what we would call authentic language, and the same thing applies for a TV or radio programme, for a British advert or even a chapter from a novel for an English speaking audience.

Increasing concern is given to the use of AM all over the world and many teachers and ELT authors insist that the TL should be presented through AM. So, should we then, only use AM for developing our learners' skills? It seems a good idea, but what effect will they have on our students? What about giving beginners an article from a quality newspaper or a page from Shakespeare?

It goes without further saying that for AM to be effective, they need to be selected on rational bases. Whatever may be said about AM, there is one common feature, it is exposure.In fact, the issue of authentic language materials in language teaching and learning is not supported by a thorough literature, except some references. Yet those authors who support the use of authentic materials focus commonly on the fact of: “exposure”, in other words, the benefit students get from being exposed to the language in authentic materials.However, it remains that for exposure to be efficient and for the input to be comprehensible they require carefully designed tasks and activities.

Indeed, the results of SLA research together with teaching practice have shown that successful language learning takes place when there is extensive, meaningful exposure to the target language and intensive interaction in or with the target language. Van Patten, (1994) stated that scarcity of input might be considered the crucial factor leading to failure in second language learning in a classroom setting.

One rationale for exposure to authentic materials can be found in Krashen's (1982) theory of "comprehensible input". According to this theory, the learners acquire new structures when they are exposed to language that is little beyond their current level of competence, but which is comprehensible through some context. The visually and orally authentic character of these materials gives students a rich and varied context in which to learn the target language. Hence, authentic materials can increase the amount of comprehensible input and can provide target language speech and texts that include sometimes challenging yet understandable portions. It is now clear that exposure to authentic materials, coupled with appropriate activities for practice, really develops all four language skills as well as expands and consolidates other elements of language knowledge such as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

It is also true that authentic materials are often considered too difficult for any but the highest level students, but they still can be used with lower level students if the difficulty of the task is adjusted to suit the learners' level; this means that the level of difficulty can be controlled by the selection of the task. Indeed, the fact with AM is that we can adapt them to meet the particular needs of the students who will use them.

The main concern of ESL/EFL teachers continues to be how to develop their learners' communicative competence. Exposure to authentic materials could be an effective way to accomplish this goal and an approach to language learning whose potential needs to be explored.

So far, we have presented the rationale for the use of AM in the foreign language classroom, and the advantages of such materials. However, we need to mention here the host of challenges facing teachers when using AM. Such as, the selection of the most appropriate materials in accordance with the learners' objectives and needs, the management of the vast amount of information provided by such materials, and the way the teacher is going to implement and adapt the material to the existing classroom setting, and this to name but a few.

The coming sections are intended to discuss the exposure of learners to the different authentic materials, and the activities relevant to each material. They also comport the materials chosen for the study with the reasons behind this choice.

The primary focus in designing the experimental programme of instruction was to demonstrate how we can exploit AM in developing our students' communicative competence in general and their pragmatic competence in particular. In fact, the experimental treatment had two main objectives. First, it was to show how we can properly implement AM and how to adapt them to suit our students' level and needs. Second, we wanted to attract teachers' attention towards the importance of designing appropriate, tasks and activities accompanying every material.

Moreover, we believe that if the results of the experimental programme do confirm our hypothesis that is exposure to AM will improve our students' communicative and pragmatic competence in the TL, we will try to generalize these results to the entire population of the same level.

5.4 Material selection

Most of the research related to authentic materials in the ELT literature generally attempt to explain why they should or should not be brought into the EFL classroom, and how they are to be appropriately used. However, the noticeable fact is the growing consensus among those authors who support the use of authentic materials on "exposure"; in other words they focus on the benefits learners could get from being directly exposed to authentic use of the target language in these materials. Therefore, if the overall objective of using AM in the language classroom is to develop our learners' communicative competence, a careful selection becomes more than indispensable. The diverse and abundant sources of AM represent pitfalls to the teacher and the learners.

Therefore, the materials we used in our experimental treatment were selected with regard to the varieties of English accents since some accents may hinder comprehension. The topics were also selected so as to be at the level of the students' cognitive and linguistic levels as well as their cultural background. In addition to this, the materials were selected on the basis of their length, complexity, density of information (news/lyrics etc…) and the features of casual natural speech.

In fact, with all the inexhaustive and varied sources of raw materials we had at our disposal, it was very difficult at first to make our choice. Finally, for the listening our choice was in favour of songs and an interview in a radio programme recorded off-air. We all know the value of songs in motivating learners and in providing. a positive and secure atmosphere for learning. For the video material we opted for the movie, instead of a news broadcast, a documentary or an interview. This is in fact, again in response to students' interest and motivation, and because there is an obvious challenge that is; if learners can tackle tasks related to a full-length movie their confidence and self-esteem will be boosted.

For the written material, our choice was the newspaper articles and a poem by Robert Frost entitled: ‘The Road Not Taken’. The question that we should ask is why do we choose to work with these kinds of AM? Well, to start with, newspapers are much more current than pedagogical materials and course books. There is also a lot of information in newspapers which make them an excellent springboard for lessons. Finally, there are lots of different kinds of texts in newspapers (narratives, stories, letters, advertisements, report etc.) that deal with different interesting current issues in various domains of life. The second reading material that we selected for the experiment was a poem by Robert Frost. This poem is among the best known, most often misunderstood poems. Blessed with a perfect marriage of form and content arresting phrase wrought from simple words, and resonant metaphor, it seems as if this poem gets easily memorized. One of the attractions of the poem is the dilemma that we instantly recognize because each of us encounters both literally and figuratively. Paths on the fork of a road is an ancient deep seated metaphor for the lifeline with its decisions and choices to make similar metaphor symbolizes for us the nexus of free will and fate. We are free to choose, yet we do not really know beforehand what we are choosing.

The tasks and activities accompanying the materials were carefully devised and graded so as to fulfil their role of improving our students’ proficiency level in listening as well as in speaking. The activities contained a variety of activity types including: multiple choice questions, gap filling, matching, note taking, questions and free discussions. It should be mentioned that these activities were not meant to test but to develop our students’ aural/ oral performance.

The materials and their accompanying activities were sequenced into three basic stages. The first stage consisted of prospective activities which aimed at preparing the learners and warning them up. These are: pre-listening, pre-viewing and pre-reading. The second step is the actual performing of the activities and finally, retrospective activities that is, post listening post viewing and post reading (see appendices).

Moreover, while designing the activities, we took into account the following considerations.

- The tasks should not exceed the students' conceptual and linguistic level.
- The tasks should be motivating and graded from simple to complex.
- The tasks should require learners' involvement.
- The tasks should have a product (i.e. a record to be assessed).

5.5 The authentic written text

As defined by Wallace (1992:145) authentic written texts are "real life texts, not written for pedagogic purpose. They are texts written by native speakers for a native audience". In contrast to non-authentic texts that are especially designed for language learning purposes, authentic texts are written for native speakers and contain real language. They are as Peacock (1997:144) defines them "…materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community". The sources of authentic written materials that can be used in the classroom are infinite and comport literature as a first and primary source in all its genre, drama, novels, short stories and poems etc. As Pound (2012) argued 'great literature is simply charged with meaning to the utmost possible degree'. We can add to these other sources which are more common such as newspaper and magazine articles, menus, brochures and so forth.

Authentic texts should be the kind of material that students need and want to be able to read when travelling, studying abroad, or to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom. Therefore, when choosing materials from various sources, it is worth taking into consideration that the aim should be to understand meaning and not form, especially when using literary texts with the emphasis being on what is being said and not necessarily on the literary form or stylistics. Nuttall (1996) gives three main criteria when selecting authentic text to be sued in the classroom namely, suitability of content, exploitability and readability. Suitability of content can be considered to be the most important of the three in that the reading material should interest the students as well as relevant to their needs. Exploitability refers to how the text can be used to develop the students' competence as readers. A text that cannot be exploited for teaching purposes has no use in the classroom. Just because it is in English does not mean that it can be useful. Readability is used to describe the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new vocabulary form present. Therefore, it is important to assess the right level for the right student.

The choice of authentic materials can also be influenced by variety and presentation. Reading can be made interesting if a variety of texts is used. Students very often find it very boring when dealing with only one subject area as it is the case in ESP. Moreover, whether a text looks authentic or not, is also important when and how presenting it to the students. An authentic presentation through visual aids such as pictures, diagrams, photographs, helps put the text into a context. This helps the reader not only understand the meaning of the text better but also how it would be used. An attractive text will appeal to the students and motivate them into reading. This may seem a superficial aspect but the appearance of the text is the first thing that the student notices. An attractive looking page is more likely to grab the reader's attention rather than a page full of type.

There are other factors that should be taken into account when selecting authentic texts for the classroom and can include whether the text challenges the students intelligence without making unreasonable linguistic demands, whether the language reflects written or spoken usage, whether the language in the text is natural or it has been distorted in order to include examples of a particular language point. It is also important that the text lends itself to the creation of suitable activities. Above all, we have to make sure whether the text make the student want to read for him/ herself something he does not know as well as introduce new and relevant ideas.

In his turn Alderson (2000:28) defines reading as ‘an enjoyable, intense private activity from which much pleasure can be derived, and in which one can become totally absorbed.’ Reading in general has always a purpose. Reading means different things for different people. For some it means recognizing written words, while for others it means an opportunity to teach other aspects of language such speaking, writing and even pronunciation. However, it should be noted here that reading is an integral part of our daily life. It is something that we do every day, taken very much for granted and generally assumed to be something everyone can do.

Furthermore, reading can have three main purposes, for survival, for learning or for pleasure. Reading for survival is considered to be in response to our environment, to find out information and include street signs, advertising, and timetables. It depends very much on the day-to-day needs of the reader, and involves an immediate response to a situation. In contrast, reading for learning is seen as the type of reading that is goal-oriented and done in the classroom under the supervision of an instructor. While reading for pleasure is something that does not have to be done or is not compulsory.

Bearing in mind the importance of the role that reading can play, Nuttal (1996) believes that the main ideas underlying reading are:

- The idea of meaning;
- The transfer of meaning from mind to anther;
- The transfer of a message from writer
- How we get meaning by reading;

- How the reader, the writer and the text all contribute to the process.

In fact, while dealing with texts readers adopt two main processes, either top-down or bottom-up .Readers who adopt bottom processing build up meaning by reading word by word, carefully examining both vocabulary and grammar. Top-down processing is the opposite, where the global meaning is obtained through clues in the text and the reader's good schematic knowledge .Generally this type of processing is associated with good readers who do not read word for word but quickly and efficiently. In fact, the two processes are complementary and work together in decoding the messages carried by the text. Therefore, for reading to occur the two processes are necessary, top-down to predict the meaning and bottom-up to check it.

Authentic materials are good sources for essential language input needed to increase learners' awareness of language usage in written medium in comparison with the simplified pedagogical materials. Authentic written texts could aid and improve learners' reading skill. However, the selection of any authentic text should be done with a clear purpose, as is highlighted by Senior (2005:71) "We need a clear pedagogic goal in mind: what precisely we want our students to learn from these materials". Students feel more confident, more secure when handling authentic materials as long as the teacher gives them the necessary pedagogical support. Certain authentic texts may create difficulties to our learners , one solution to the problem such is to simplify them to suit learners' level. This can be generally done by removing any difficult words or structures. In fact, this can remove some basic discourse features, making the text sound less authentic .The basic parameters to consider when simplifying a text are:

- Linguistic simplicity :grammatical structures, lexical items and readability;
- Cognitive simplicity: age, education, interest of learners;
- Psychological simplicity: does it follow traditional social norms?

Exposure to authentic written texts is achieved through reading printed texts written by native writers for native readers. Literary texts constitute the primary source of authentic written texts and include genres like novels, poems, plays, short stories. We all know that literature is a rich cultural environment which reveals insights in the target anguage and presents language contexts that make items memorable by placing them in a realistic social and physical context. In recent years there has been rising interest in exploiting literary text in the teaching of reading because of the positive impacts they have on foreign language learners. On the role literary texts play on in enhancing the process of language learning Kramsch (2008:12) posits that:

> More than any other text, it is said, the piece of literary prose or poetry appeals to students' emotions, grabs their interest, remains in their memory and makes them partake in the memory of another speech community.In my view, the main argument for using literary texts in the language classroom is literature's ability to represent the particular voice of a writer among the many voices of his/ her community and thus to appeal in particular to the reader.

The reasons for exploiting literary texts in the language classroom is that they constitute an invaluable source of AM and contribute to language learning by exposing learners to different registers, types of language use. Different literary genres may be used to develop different language skills. Poems for example, besides being great motivators they can present a wide range of learning opportunities. They can be exploited for various teaching purposes. A poem can be used to teach communicative activities, to teach lexis, to teach writing and may even be used to teach pronunciation. However, the aim of literature should be to teach the target language through poetry and not poetry itself.

It must be also made clear that while exploiting any literary text whether a poem, a short story, a fairy tale, or drama the focus should be on teaching the language not literature. In other words, any literary text should be handled as any other kind of text and should primarily aim at meaning not form. Moreover, the pedagogic value of any literary text will be determined by the use we make of it. So, the literary text can be used to teach a structure as it can be used to practice a pronunciation pattern. The literary text can also be used for aesthetic purposes.

It essential for our FL learners to be exposed to such texts that are likely to teach them a wide range of lexis, grammar and knowledge about the culture of the TL. However, other sources where Standard English is used can be selected such as newspapers and magazine articles, real advertisements, cooking, recipes, brochures horoscopes, etc. Unlike other authentic materials, written texts whether printed or digital increase learners' motivation and confidence since learners have always something to refer to.

Moreover, the activities that accompany any material are supposed to create a purpose for reading and motivate the learners. In fact, behind any reading activity there must be a clear objective determined by the effects they will have on learners' proficiency. Furthermore, activities should take the form of either skimming or scanning and should be planned along the pre-while and post reading.

5.5.1 Pre-reading activities

This is also called the warm-up or the preparatory phase in which learners are provided with sufficient and adequate context to approach a text, comprehend it and reconstruct meaning. It could also activate or recall the necessary background information related to the topic. These types of activities can be conducted in different ways and may include different techniques such as question/answer, brain storming, associations, using visual aids such as pictures, etc.

5.5.2 while-reading activities

After a pre-reading phase where learners normally get familiar with the text, they start another phase which is comprehension. At this level, the reading activities are meant to check learners' comprehension. Generally, activities are graded from the simple to the more complex where learners have first to skim and then scan the text. Activities may include table filling, multiple choice questions, sentence completion, ordering statements, direct questions, etc.

5.5.3 Post-reading activities

These activities are generally intended to check learners' global comprehension they are conducted after the while-reading phase to collect learners' feedback or their interpretation of the text and provide the teacher with invaluable information on the learners understanding, and their reaction of what they have read. They can take the form of follow-up activities such as giving opinions, analyzing, summarizing, discussing, etc.

5.6 Newspaper articles

Newspapers provide an easily available source of authentic language materials. Newspapers are in fact living textbooks and write history as it unfolds. They reflect with interest the current events and bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world. This is why many courses use real or simulated newspapers articles and most schools and teachers maintain files and articles organized thematically or on the basis of their language. Language learners find newspapers motivating because they offer interesting, relevant topical and varied information. For FL learners they represent keys for opening up the foreign society, its preoccupations, its habitual ways of thought, and its prejudices. Moreover, newspapers are not only authentic in themselves but our response to what we read in them is authentic as well. Obviously our choice of the newspaper articles is based on the aforementioned reasons.

Language teachers generally use newspapers in three ways: to develop various language competencies, including reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary; to focus on aspect of the target society and its culture; and to stimulate discussion of issues raised by the articles. However, there are a number of points to make about the use of newspaper in the English language classroom most centre on the positive advantages newspapers have over other resources, but some also remind us of the difficulties newspaper materials can pose. Most learners find newspapers difficult. They are full of obscure headlines, insular references to unfamiliar cultural and sporting events and personalities, dense columns of printed texts, and much that reflect negatively on the host society. Of course, it is the job of the teacher to give learners confidence by providing them with the missing cultural information which enables them to establish a working familiarity with their content. For this reason learners should be given the opportunity to choose the text they wish to work with. This can be a negative response to texts containing unfamiliar vocabulary.

In terms of culture newspapers are probably the best single source of information about the host culture and about the most important people in the host society. A familiarity with newspapers will also make it easier to understand radio and TV programs, just as familiarity with radio and TV will also make it easier to understand newspapers. It is very noticeable that those learners who succeed with newspapers are those who acculturate most successfully. Another important fact about newspapers is that they are topical which is both an advantage and a disadvantage. They are the freshest of all foods in the language classroom and at the same time those with the shortest shelf-life. Because newspapers date very quickly, it is very important to develop a wide repertoire of activities that may be applied to whatever contemporary materials at hand.

5.6.1 Implementation

Newspapers are amongst the myriad of written texts that could provide authentic language data. In fact, newspapers are living texts that write history as it unfolds, with focus on current events they bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world. In the world at large newspaper have three main roles to play namely, those of informing, educating and entertaining. In the language classroom newspaper articles provide excellent resources for the development of students' reading skills in the TL. They can also enrich learners' new vocabulary in so many fields such as politics, culture, sports, fashion, literature and music. However, there are number of ways in which newspapers could be exploited. Moreover, the newspaper is an exciting resource, and students should begin to sense this excitement as their familiarity with the newspaper increases. Most of the students have not yet developed the newspaper reading habit, so we should make this encounter interesting and enjoyable. One of the teacher's great responsibilities is to challenge students' minds and imagination and become involved in their community and the world around them. However, teachers who work in EFL classroom have harder tasks than teachers who work in ESL classrooms, with all its surrounding cultural richness and its stress on realistic, acculturated language behaviour.

Therefore, whether we work in English as a foreign language context such as Algeria or in an English as a second language such as in Kenya ,newspapers actually encourage us to work in this more 'natural' way .This is because they are plentiful enough even in EFL contexts for us to be able to use them relatively prodigally. Thus, if there is one methodological point we all agree on is that learning should be natural.

In sum, we can say that newspapers are cheap, widely available, and authentic resources that have a crucial role to play in developing learners' reading skills. Nonetheless, to be able to use them to the full as naturally as possible, teachers need to observe certain precautions before bringing them to the classroom. These precautions concern the choice of newspaper extract, the targeted skills, and the tasks accompanying the material.

As we start to work with newspapers, the first thing we should take into account is the choice of the newspaper extract .In reality, this is always directed by the point we want to illustrate or the skill we want our students to practise. Another important consideration that we find particularly important is the selection of activities that enable students to get deeper stage by stage. What is advisable is that students should practise one skill at a time (scanning, matching, summarizing, predicting etc.) by working on a sequence of activities with the same skill focus. Furthermore, each activity should act as a springboard for the coming one and the nature of each activity will vary from step to another. The aim behind all these activities is to promote learners' confidence in the use of newspapers. One more important point teacher should consider is the integration of skills so that students listen, speak, read and write in ways that are natural and authentic.

For the implementation of the authentic reading text we designed sessions of 40 to 50 minutes .Each session is designed to be used with copies of the extracts from newspapers. Moreover, for the experimental treatment we selected three different articles with different issues. The first article was from the *Observer* and deals with developments in technology and its repercussions on employment. The second one is a story taken from the *Sun* .The third were extracts of short stories from different newspapers. (cf appendices 7.8.9)

Furthermore, to illustrate the use of literary texts, we selected a well-known poem by Robert frost entitled: "The Road Not Taken". We chose this poem because we believe that it is among the best known, most often misunderstood poetry. Using simple words and resonant metaphor Frost wrote a poem that is both easy to understand and easy to memorize. The poem consists of four stanzas and is one of Frost's most popular works.

The literal meaning of this poem by Frost is pretty obvious. A traveler comes to a fork in the roads in autumn and needs to decide which way to continue his journey. After much mental debate, the traveler picks the road 'less traveled by'. The figurative meaning is not too hidden either. The poem describes the difficult choices people stand for when travelling the road of life. The words "sorry" and "sigh" make the tone of the poem somewhat gloomy. The traveller regrets the possibilities of the road not chosen behind. He finally realizes that he will not pass this way again. (cf appendix 10)

The activities that accompany the above reading extracts were meant to create a purpose for reading and to motivate the learners. In fact, behind any reading there must be clear objectives determined by the effects they will have on learners' terminal behaviour. Furthermore, the activities that we selected for the reading took the form of either skimming or scanning and were planned along the pre-while and post-reading.

5.7 Authentic listening materials

It is a common principle to any language teaching that listening should precede speaking. It is impossible to ask a learner to produce sounds or utterances of a language without first providing him with a model of the forms s/he is to produce. The first step we have to consider in order to achieve oral fluency is the listener's ability to listen. It is a mistake to assume that listening is a passive skill .In fact, any speaking involves the decoding of a message i.e. listening. Indeed, in any interaction a receptive skill is involved and the speaker continually receives signals such as nods, gestures and non-verbal noises from the listener to confirm that understanding has taken place. On this particular aspect of listening, Littlewood (1981:66) argues that:

> Listening comprehension demands active involvement from the hearer. In order to reconstruct the message that the speaker intends the hearer must actively contribute knowledge from linguistic and non- linguistic sources.

Faced with the basic needs for daily communication and with the rising demand for communication in all the fields for life, listening comprehension is being given special attention. During the two last decades it has been at the centre of different studies of psychology, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics. Rivers (1968), Ur (1984), Rost (1990) and Mc Carthy (1991) to mention a few consider listening comprehension as the basic prerequisite for oral proficiency.

It goes without saying that listening is an active skill indispensable to the reception and interpretation of messages. In fact, listening is an active process by which the listener receives and reconstructs meaning and as put by Wolvin and Coakley (1985:74) “Listening is the process of receiving, attending to, assigning meaning to aural stimuli”.

Despite the growing importance attached to the listening skill, there is no agreement on one definite definition of listening. The commonly agreed upon definition is that listening is understanding speech i.e. what is being said around us and participating in this exchange at the same time. In reality listening is a complex operation that involves many mental processes that operate together to make it possible. The point has been made clear by many researchers such as Brown and Yule (1983) who believe that listening combines different mental operations such as recognizing, analyzing, interpreting, understanding and mainly responding. Brown and Yule (ibid:57) think that comprehension takes place when the listener reaches a “reasonable interpretation of the speaker’s intention”.

From what has been said above, we can deduce that listening involves more than knowing the language. To be able to decode any message, a pre-existent knowledge is required .This knowledge is called schema (plural schemata). Harmer (2001:163) explains this particular aspect of language use and contends that:

> Each of us carries in our head mental representations of typical situations that we come across. When we are stimulated by particular words, discourse patterns, or contexts, such schematic knowledge is activated and we are able to recognize what we see or hear because it fits in patterns we already know.

To be efficient, communication needs such kinds of shared schemata. Without this prerequisite knowledge comprehension becomes difficult. It is at this level that FL learners have difficulties because their cultural and linguistic background is different from the one in the TL. So, schemata or background knowledge refers to the non-linguistic and symbolic conventions surrounding the content of the message. In fact, FL learners are not familiar with this background knowledge which helps them infer and interpret meaning. Learning a language is closely related to learning its culture. Therefore, when we learn a foreign language we do more than learn a linguistic system, in fact, we acquire a degree of familiarity with the foreign cultural system. Thus, in teaching listening comprehension, teachers should pave the way to their students by introducing new and necessary background knowledge to facilitate comprehension.

Very often, a common distinction is made between two sub skills in the analysis of listening. Indeed, “top-down” and “Bottom-up” are two metaphorical terms used to distinguish between two techniques used in the listening activity. These two skills are used inter-dependently and in a hierarchical way. At the bottom level the listener focuses on the forms of the input. The message is received and then “scanned” and processed starting from its smaller elements and ending up with the larger units. Thus, in bottom-up processing the listener’s attention is focussed on such individual elements as phonemes, rendering these into words and phrases, recognizing paralinguistic features, combining all these elements to construct a complete oral message.

On the other hand, listening requires an amount of top-down processing where the listener is greatly helped by his schemata or cultural background. As mentioned in the previous section, schemata refer to prior knowledge, context and participants that allow us to interpret the speaker to the full. In fact, the difference between the two is as the old saying goes: seeing the woods, because of the trees. In other words, we see the whole because of the details. However, it is important for FL learners in particular to combine these two interactive skills because the details can help us understand the whole and vice versa.

5.7.1 Teaching listening comprehension

Current trend in oracy together with the shift away of our contemporary society from printed media towards sound have generated a greater and a stronger focus on how to develop learners’ proficiency in listening. Many recent studies (Rivers (1968) and Celce- Murcia (1995) State that 45 percent of communication is spent on listening, 30 percent on speaking, while only 16 percent on reading and 9 percent on writing.

No one is in doubt that developing the listening skill is fundamental especially for FL learners, but that does not seem to be the case in our classrooms. Many teachers deliberately avoid listening comprehension lessons. Such neglect can be explained by many factors such as lack of technical aids, complexity of tasks and mainly because students are not evaluated in listening comprehension.

So, in terms of listening comprehension teaching we have to consider three major elements, the existing syllabus, the materials and our classroom practices. The official syllabus available at the department of English is not more than a succession of headlines of the main traced objectives to be reached by the end of the year. For the authentic listening materials they are all the authentic texts in the audio type, pieces of spoken discourse or dialogues from real life. These texts can also vary in form and characteristics. They can be in the form of monologues as in speeches, lecture talks or dialogues as in natural conversations between native speakers, commentaries, telephone conversations, or radio programs. Moreover, given the fact that all the teachers are non native speakers, the only place where learners can be exposed to authentic English is the language laboratory. Thus, we think that exploiting the laboratory is essential for providing the students with the necessary exposure to authentic materials. However, faced with a considerable shortage in both audio and video materials teachers usually rely on materials they collect themselves.

5.7.2 Criteria for selecting and designing listening materials

Methodologists, practitioners and other leading authorities all agree that in the design and selection of listening activities and materials, certain fundamental consideration must be taken into account. For material selection, most approaches and methods favour the use

AM. In the coming sections we will discuss some of the commonly agreed upon guidelines.

5.7.2.1 Authenticity

Our objective in teaching a foreign language is not just to satisfy very restricted academic purposes but to enable our learners to use the TL for communicative needs in real life settings.Thus, we would agree with Williams (1990) (cited in Swales,1970:70) as he says that: “The language used in the meetings differs from that used in tapes (…) in being often ungrammatical and containing unfinished sentences, false starts, interruptions”.

Many authors and teachers advocate the use of AM because they believe that it is only through exposure to authentic materials their students can really develop communication skills. Authentic materials include all the audio materials such as recorded dialogues, interviews from read life, radio programmes, news broadcast, songs and other video materials.

5.7.2.3 Comprehensibility

The learner is expected to comprehend any input if it fits with his background knowledge. The learner always tries to match what he already knows with the incoming information. Therefore, for any material to serve its objectives, it should not go beyond the learners’ knowledge whether conceptual, linguistic or cultural. As Rogers and Medley 1988: 472 point out “The primary concern should be that the level of the complexity of the task be appropriate to the cognitive, affective and linguistic abilities of the students”.

5.7.2.4 Relevance

In order to foster our learners’ listening skill and to inculcate good listening habits, we have to take into account our learners’ interests, needs and goals. Therefore, the teacher has to select the most appropriate material that keeps the learners’ motivation and interest high.

5.8 Designing listening activities

In designing classroom listening activities, we have to take into account the level of the students, the type of material that is to be used, and the aim of each listening task and the problems the students may encounter. Moreover, it has become standard to follow these methodological guidelines when teaching listening:

- A warming up sessions where the teacher makes learners familiar with the content of the listening passage. This can be done through visual aids, brainstorming, and word associations or just through question and answer.
- Activities are graded from simple to complex.
- Instructions must be clearly stated and students should know what their task is.
- Students should carry out their tasks independently without the teacher's intervention.
- Feedback is necessary after each task to check and discuss learners' responses.
- Teachers can prepare follow-up activities to further consolidate comprehension and develop effective listening habits.

In addition to these procedural guidelines, listening comprehension tasks are sequenced into three important phases: Pre- listening, while – listening and post – listening.

5.8.1 Pre- listening activities

Pre- Listening activities are set up to make the listeners familiar with the context and the topic of the listening passage. Listeners may need to express their attitudes towards the topic, or just remind them of the things they already know about it. They may also need to be introduced to the less familiar vocabulary which would otherwise create obstacles during listening. According to Rost (1990:232) the role of such tasks is to: "Make the context explicit, clarify purposes and establish roles, procedures and goals for the listening".

In order to prepare the learners for the coming tasks a repertoire of activity type already exists for the pre-listening phase and includes the following techniques:

- Inferring the content of talk, a conversation from the title.
- A picture-based talk related to the topic.
- Discussing the topic to introduce vocabulary and background knowledge.
- Answering questions about the topic.
- Word associations.

Hence, it remains that the most important objective of the pre-listening activities is to contextualize the text, providing information relevant to the text, and making students familiar with its content so that they get "Tuned in" and appreciate the context.

5.8.2 While – listening activities

While listening to any text of any sort learners must be involved in a purpose for listening and are encouraged to listen attentively for the gist or specific information. Students are generally asked to perform activities to gather information for an overall understanding of the text. While listening activities are mirrors that reflect learners' active participation and help them develop their listening strategies.

Moreover, in the choice of the materials and the activity type depends on the level of the students. It is also advisable for teachers to always try the tasks for themselves before presenting them in class.

In fact, a wide repertoire of listening activities is possible and includes the following:

- Ticking multiple choice items.
- Filling table / charts / diagrams, etc…
- Labelling pictures / maps / graphs.

- Ordering pictures.
- Supplying missing words, lines, expressions.
- Sequencing (events – phases).
- True / false statements.
- Listening for specific information (Information – search).

5.8.3 Post – listening activities

Post- Listening activities are all those tasks which are performed after the listening and in which some aspects of bottom-up listening are done. To round off listening sessions, teachers prepare such kind of tasks in order to get immediate feedback. If feedback is postponed to another session, then, it will be difficult to get the same involvement and interest. It is also worth mentioning here that other skills are integrated with listening such as speaking and writing.

Post-listening activities vary depending on the teacher's aim but they generally include.

- Answering questions (Reasoning ,Justifying, comparing, analysing, arguing, and contrasting)
- Summarizing using information collected in previous stages and tasks.
- Writing brief comments, messages.
- Speaking (debates- discussion-reports – Role playing).

5.9 Implementation

In the selection and grading of listening materials we have to take into account the type of text we intend to exploit in listening comprehension. These texts can vary in form and characteristics. They can be in the form of monologue such as in speeches, lectures, talks or dialogues as in natural conversations between native speakers, commentaries and telephone conversations. The second aspect which is worth considering is whether the text is authentic, semi authentic or non-authentic. Usually, we find a diversity of text types used to fulfil different goals.

Moreover, Methodologists, practitioners and other leading authorities all agree that in the design and selection of listening activities and materials, certain fundamental consideration must be taken into account. For material selection, most approaches and methods favour the use AM, but they all stress the importance of three main criteria, namely authenticity, comprehensibility and relevance.

In order to expose our learners to authentic listening materials our choice was rather difficult because of the diversity of sources however, we finally opted for the use of songs and a radio programme. We devoted three sessions of about 55 minutes each to three famous popular songs (cf appendix 12**)** and an interview recorded off air on the qualities of good leaders.(cf appendix 13). We believe that songs are useful for two main reasons: First of all, they are authentic because they are generally popular and written by native speakers for native speakers. In other words, the language is not formal, it is very popular. Secondly, they can be used by teachers as a pedagogical tool to teach different aspects of the language. A song can be used to teach lexis, grammar or pronunciation.

Moreover, students are very enthusiastic and highly motivated to work with songs. Songs also can develop learners' background knowledge with all the historical cultural and even accentual input they provide for the learners. Songs as a matter of fact, provide a relaxing and secure atmosphere in which learners develop their listening speaking and even reading and writing. However, for songs to really foster learning and enhance learners' involvement, they should meet certain conditions. We should first insist that not all the songs are teachable and learnable. Any song carries a message of some sort, and teachers have to be careful in their choice because some songs represent taboos in the learners' culture. In addition to this, teachers should choose the song on the basiss of its music and its lyrics. The song should be melodic and the words relatively easy to follow and to memorize.

Furthermore, the tasks that accompanied the materials were meant to guide and assist the learner in extracting meaning from the listening materials. It is worth noting here that whatever the method applied or the kind of activities selected; they should normally follow the logical sequence of pre-while and post listening.

Moreover, it should be made clear that listening comprehension tasks are designed not to test but to teach. Therefore, tasks should be formulated in a way to help learners to practise the language to be better listeners. Practitioners then should avoid tricky and memory tasks that are of no benefits in improving learners' proficiency and should promote activities that enhance the listening process. Indeed, teachers should choose the right kind of material and appropriate tasks that make learners feel triumphant because they have managed to understand. And because they have been successful, they will feel confident and the barriers are slowly lowered.

5.10 Authentic video materials

Traditionally, listening texts are delivered by audio-cassettes, however, over the recent years video recorded materials began to form the basis for listening comprehension work. Today considerable importance is given to the use of video recordings because of the rich input they provide for learners. Authentic viewing or video offers both the audio and visual information that facilitates comprehension. This is because as Underwood (1989: 96) explains it:

> The uses of video recordings enable teachers to point out the many visual clues which listeners use to help them understand what they hear. Students will see whether the speakers are young or old, happy or angry, requesting or complaining.

Nowadays, methodologists and practitioners argue that exposing learners to authentic videotaped materials allow learners to experience a living language with all its paralinguistic features, intonation and rhythm which they are not likely to witness in any audio taped or printed material. Over the last decades, recorded materials have received immense interest to form the basis for listening and speaking activities. In addition to the already existing cassettes and tapes, it is possible to use radio and TV programmes which can be recorded 'off air'. The VCR (video cassette recorder), the CD player and the data show have become parts of the standard equipments in many schools and universities. It is a direct aid to many areas of language teaching, listening, speaking, reading and even writing can be introduced through video materials .The are many advantages in using video recorded materials. They can be outlined as follows:

- Speakers can be seen, and so the listeners have all the non-verbal clues to decipher the message. They see speakers' facial expressions, their gestures their body movements.
- A variety of listening experiences can be brought to the students. Learners might listen or watch speeches, TV programmes, and news reports with different accents at different speeds.
- Provides students with the opportunity to hear native speakers especially when the teacher's mother tongue is not English.
- Easy to operate and recording can be replayed over and over again.
- The VCR helps students see the physical context in which speech is taking place

Moreover, Students will see whether the speakers are young or old happy or sad, complaining or requesting. In fact, all those clues, such as facial expressions, gestures and intonation that AM contain help viewers to see beyond what they are listening and interpret the message to the full. In addition to the reasons so far mentioned, authentic video materials increase students' motivation and interest as they have a chance to see language as well as hear it, especially when this is coupled with interesting activities.

Furthermore, video materials allow learners to get familiar with some of the cultural aspects of the TL. Authentic video materials are of great value in giving learners an opportunity to see what body language people use(kinesics), how they speak, what they wear. Lonergan (1984) points out that videotaped materials provide visual and paralinguistic clues; proxemics kinesics and vocalization. Furthermore, gestures, facial expressions and other physical movements can be studied as cultural markers and instances of how body language enhances communication. Finally, we can say authentic video materials are better than many other materials in providing clues for comprehension. Add to this that our learners are used to getting knowledge from the screen; therefore, video materials can be privileged tools to enhance language learning.

As stated in section (5.7) there are two processes involved in listening. The first is bottom-up processing where the listener builds up the sounds into words, sentences and meaning. The second is top-down processing where the listener uses background knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Both were utilized with the materials we chose for the listening tasks of our experimental treatment ,in addition to, vocabulary activities, word gap-filling, and listening comprehension, distributed on the three listening stages.(see Appendix)

5.11 Viewing activities

For listening practice, authentic video materials have a very important advantage over the audio recordings and that is "Live" presentation. By this, it meant that both the speaker and the context in which she/he is speaking can be seen. The significant thing also is that for TV or video we use the verbs to watch or to view, we rarely say someone is "listening" to TV.

Very often, we do understand quite a lot by watching, and we do not listen attentively. This is why teachers should design tasks that require listening as well as watching. Generally, the activities that accompany the material are of equal importance, and the design of these activities is the task of the teacher. Moreover, the activities designed to accompany the material will follow the sequence of pre-while and post viewing.

5.11.1 Pre-Viewing

This introductory step is intended to provide the learners with the context for the viewing material as well as the background knowledge related to the theme. Its aim is to engage the learners' interest in what they will be doing and prepares them to perform the activities accompanying the material successfully. They take the form of warm-up discussions, introduction of new vocabulary or even a reading activity if the video-clip is supplied with a script. The time allotted to this step varies between ten to fifteen minutes.

5.11.2 While-viewing activities

At this level of viewing the learners are somehow familiar with the material. So, while viewing, the teacher manipulates the material through play, pause, and rewind or replay depending on the nature of the task students are required to perform. The teacher has at his/her disposal a variety of tasks that s/he can exploit ranging from simple to difficult activities such as note-taking, table filling, MCQ, classifying, completing, ordering, and so forth.

5.11.3 Post-viewing activities

At this stage generally teachers consolidates the language learnt so far. These types of follow-up activities may take the form of a summary of the topic, discussions, answering question related to the topic of the material, highlighting vocabulary, and even writing. Of course, the aim behind this step is the collect feedback to check students’ comprehension.

5.12 Why teach with movies?

Recently film pedagogy has begun to receive much attention. This increasing interest in teaching with films is due to many factors. Firstly it is usually fun and motivating for learners to work with films. Secondly, films are among the best means that present the real world since through films learners are exposed to real-life English in real-life situations. Thirdly, movies help learners memorize expressions and later use them. Furthermore, movies enable learners not only to watch, but to listen and sometimes to write as well. More importantly learners become familiar with the complexity and diversity of the TL culture.

As far as language learning is concerned, movies provide a rich and varied source of authentic language input in context. Learning through movies is an interesting and relevant experience in FL learners' lives since it is easier to make connections between the context and their own thoughts and experiences. As a matter of fact, movies not only promote communicative competence through their interaction with meaningful context but enhance critical thinking as well. Besides, having learners work with movies enriches their vocabulary and their general knowledge of suitable use of linguistic signals, idioms and phrasal verbs. .To show the potential of movies on learners' awareness of differences in pragmatics, prosody and non-verbal communication , Hurley (1992) suggests that by asking learners to role-play identical scenes may help them assess how native like behaviour is. Not far from this, Kellerman (1991) believes that being familiar with the kenesic behaviour of the TL community contributes in the development of learners' communicative competence. Therefore, she favours exposing learners to video or films in the classroom rather than audio-taped materials.

Another important aspect of movies is their non-linguistic value. In fact, movies introduce learners to controversial and, socially relevant and emotionally charged themes.

Movies also display a wide range of topics and social issues thereby, they contribute in the enrichment of FL learners' comprehension and use of the TL as it applies to different contexts. In fact, when we teach with films, we offer our classes a welcome break to traditional teaching practices. It is a break for both teachers and learners.

Teachers who choose to use movies in the classroom have to take into consideration certain institutional constraints such as content, timing and availability. Generally, movies are brought into the classroom taking into account learners' age, culture and linguistic level. Another major criterion in selecting a movie is comprehensibility. Therefore, it is advisable to choose movies with a relatively appropriate speech delivery, clear picture and sound, and standard accent. Moreover, selecting the wrong movie can lead to frustration and learners may end up confused, depressed and even confused that they will never understand real English .So, instead of stimulating learning ,movies can easily turn into a frustrating experience for learners. Given the aforementioned difficulties, there are many measures that teachers can take to make sure that the movie they will use will have both educational and entertainment value. In this sense, we suggest the following guidelines for the selection and presentation of the movie:

- Teachers should preview the movie. This will help him/her to check whether it fits with the objectives and whether its content is appropriate for your students.
- The teacher should prepare discussion questions to prepare his/her students for the viewing of the films.
- Prepare activities that are meant to attract learners to follow the film.

5.12.1 The movie

The movie that we selected for our experimental programme of instruction is a family drama of a white Southerner who discovers that his family history is not what he thought it is was. Fifty years old Earl Pilcher Jr., learning that his biological mother was black and that his half brother, Ray lives in Chicago, drives his pickup to the windy city to meet Ray. Ray, who knows something about Earl's birth and other family, is not pleased to see Earl. Ray blames Earl's white racist father for his mother's death, and he harbors the same hatred for Earl himself. After a brief and unpleasant encounter with Ray, Earl is about to head home when his pickup is carjacked and he gets a nasty head wound from the jackers. Ray, a Chicago cop, reluctantly brings Earl to his home from the hospital because the doctor says Earl needs to stay awake and be watched, and that he should not travel for several days. Ray makes up a story about Earl and he being Korean War comrade for his Auntie T., the sister of Earl's and Ray's mother, Willa Mae, who raised Ray after Willa Mae died giving birth to Earl. But Auntie T., who is blind, sees right through Ray's story and knows who Earl is. When Ray's son, Virgil, returns home from his job as a city transit bus driver and finds Earl sleeping on the couch where Virgil usually sleeps, he demands to know who this white man is and why he is there. Then Auntie T. intervenes and insists that Ray tell Virgil the truth. Overhearing the quarrel, Earl decides to leave and find a motel. Ray goes after him and the two argue, then wrestle and scuffle in a vacant lot. The tussle almost turns out all right until Earl says he's not afraid of tangling “with you or any other nigger on the street ”.Although he makes a half-hearted, lame apology immediately after saying it, Ray is furious and drives away, telling Earl, ”If you need any more help, don't call me. I'm through helping you! ” That night Earl, after getting drunk and being thrown out of a bar, sleeps under a bridge where a bunch of homeless people are camped. Ray, regretting leaving Earl, and urged by Auntie T., goes looking for Earl but doesn't find him. He puts in a call to the police dispatcher asking that as a favor to him the cops keep an eye out for Earl. In the morning Virgil takes the call that Earl has been found. Virgil's ex-wife, Ann, brings Virgil's two daughters, Kindra and Danielle, over, and all seven members of the extended family go on a picnic. There Earl learns that Virgil, who had a promising future in football and started with Ohio State, in his freshman year destroyed his knee and the promise of the career he had longed for. Later, Earl has a heart-to-heart talk with Virgil, telling him he needs to find something to look forward to, that he has an ex-wife who is a good woman and two beautiful daughters. At first resistant to even listening to Earl, Virgil takes what Earl says to heart. Back home, Auntie T. gives Earl a photo of his mama, and tells both Earl and Ray the story of what happened the night Earl was born. She tells Ray he took his newborn baby brother in his arms and said, “This is my baby.” The next day, after Ray takes Earl to the police-impound lot to get back his stolen truck (which has been recovered little damaged except for a few bullet holes resulting from a gun battle the thieves had with police while using the truck in a bank robbery) the two brothers drive to Arkansas together in Earl's truck to visit their mother's grave.

5.12.2 Implementation

For the implementation of the movie we adopted a sequential approach of teaching scene by scene. We avoided showing the film in its entirety in order to avoid the problem of over-load and length. In fact, through sequencing the movie the teacher can develop many activities such as generating a theme-based discussion, practicing listening strategies, illustrating a grammar point, teaching pronunciation, or even presenting cultural background. Moreover, we believe that movies should be chosen not simply for their entertainment value but should present a clear message to enhance classroom discussion. Therefore, a short sequence approach is used for theme based discussion. This discussion allows learners to explore relevant issues raised from a variety of perspectives, develop critical thinking, elicit responses and help learners converse on all aspects of the movie they watch.

Once of the movie was selected, we divided it into episodes and further into segments. These episodes represent single setting scenarios within the movie; approximately five to ten minutes depending on the action taking place. The segmentation provides fine-tuning of the material for the learners by accessing the rich supply of information. The projection of the film was scheduled on four sessions. The activities designed to accompany the material followed the logical sequence of pre, while and post listening. (See appendix)

5.13 Instruments for data gathering

In order to examine our subjects' development in terms of their communicative and pragmatic competence, we distributed several instruments before and after the instructional period in order to ascertain the effects of the instructional programme of instruction. Thus, three types of tests were used in this experimental study (1) listening comprehension tests; (2) oral production tests; (3) written production tests.

In addition to that, we administered a questionnaire after treatment to collect qualitative data from learners' opinions about the tasks they performed during the instructional sessions

All the tests designed for this study were based on previous research in the field of second and foreign language teaching. Therefore, the construction of the situations was reviewed and modified taking into consideration our learners cognitive, linguistic and cultural background. Our testing included a pre-test and a post-test that were composed of two parts, both tests were meant to evaluate our learners' progress in their communicative competence. The listening comprehension pre and post tests consisted of three successive listening tasks that were carefully selected so as to really reflect our learners' aural ability. The tasks were graded from general comprehension to a more detailed comprehension that required careful listening

Our aim is to gather evidence about the effects of exposure to AM on our learners' communicative competence and their pragmatic competence in particular. Our other aim is to analyze the cause and effect relationship between two variables. We, therefore, think that the most suitable method to investigate the effectiveness of authentic materials on our students' oral performance is to conduct an experimental study based on testing students' aural / oral proficiency.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the test scores allowed us to determine the degree of causality between the variables in question, and they also permitted a comparison through a detailed analysis of the scores obtained by both groups. Hence, results showed the learners' degree of achievement in each group.

In order to test our hypotheses and verify the impact of AM on our students' communicative and pragmatic competence, we distributed many instruments before and after the instructional treatment. Therefore, three types of tests were employed in this study. The tests were carried out under the same conditions and were divided into three types: listening comprehension tests, oral production tests, and written production tests. Moreover, a questionnaire was also administered after treatment to collect qualitative data from learners' opinions about the tasks done in class. The following table shows the general characteristics of the oral pre-and post-tests.

			Topic	
Situation	Participants	status	Pre-test	Post-test
1	Student-student	Equal	Talk for students	Scholarship
2	Student-teacher	higher	International conference	Buying books
3	Student-student	Equal	Changing degree	Subject choice
4	Student-teacher	higher	Internship	Summer course

Table 53: Listening comprehension pre-and post-tests.

5.13.1 Listening comprehension tests

No one can deny the central role listening comprehension plays in FL or in SL language learning. Most modern material designers and methodologists are placing an increasing focus on activities that promote the development of this skill .Let us first define the construct. According to Wolvin and Coakley (1985:74) listening comprehension is “the process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli”.It is therefore, essential to consider the special qualities of the aural medium when designing listening comprehension tests. Thus in developing listening tests particular emphasis should be put on the choices of the listening material.

In fact, listening comprehension is different from reading comprehension in a number of significant ways .First, listeners, unlike readers do not have time to review an reevaluate the information presented to them .Second, they must comprehend the text as they listen to it, retain information, and continually adjust their understanding of what they hear in the light of prior knowledge of aural incoming information .These considerations had practical implications while designing listening comprehension tests for both the control group and the experimental group. In fact, the teacher should put himself/herself in the position of the examinee. Therefore, in designing the tasks and the activities we first listened to the passage before presenting it to the learners. This, in reality, can reduce the likelihood of developing questions that may be beyond learners’ level.

Moreover, in selecting the aural passages for the tests we took into consideration a number of factors. The most obvious ones are the level of difficulty, interest, and relevance. Bearing in mind all these requirements, related to the design of listening comprehension tests, we selected tests that best suit our students’ linguistic, cognitive and cultural levels. Besides, in selecting listening comprehension tests for both pre-test and post-test, we kept the same procedure but we varied the activities. Both tests were performed in the language laboratory. (cf appendices 2 &14). Furthermore, in these tests we wanted to systematically cover the following skills:

- understanding and sequencing ideas
- listening for specific information

- interpreting attitude and point of view
- indentifying and interpreting context, topic ,function, information

It is worth mentioning that the time devoted to both the pre-and post test was the same. Each group underwent a test that took one session of about 55 minutes. The basic task types consisted of activities such as multiple choice, gap filling and matching techniques. The texts used for the listening came from different sources such as radio broadcasts, interviews, and public surveys.

5.13.2 Oral production tests

According to Kasper and Rose (2002), there are three types of instrument to collect data on oral performance: authentic discourse, elicited conversation, and open role-play. The main feature common to these three methodological options of spoken interaction is, as the name indicates, the collection of oral interactive production that allows the researcher to examine different discourse aspects. However, taking into consideration the purposes of our study which examines the effects of AM on learners' communicative and pragmatic competence, we were only interested in analyzing learners' general production. Therefore, we did not focus on a specific pragmatic feature but we rather wanted to analyze learners' general communicative and pragmatic development. In fact, dealing with one speech act or a particular pragmatic aspect of the language would restrict our study. Besides, our subjects have now acquired a more or less satisfactory linguistic competence which will certainly enable them to communicate competently in the target language.

For the aforementioned reasons, we took into considerations Bardovi-Harlig's (1999b) assumptions regarding methods of data collection. According to this author, the best research methods in ILP are the ones that fit the research questions of the particular study. The same author suggest that the researcher has to carefully create his/her tasks according to what is already known in the field (Bardovi-Harlig ibid :257).Thus , we decided to create an instrument which consisted of the collection of telephone messages. In this way, we paid attention to our learner' spontaneous production to the situations presented when making the telephone call after being allowed one turn. Moreover, in contrast to written DCT's with limited space, this elicitation instrument enabled learners more freedom in the choice of expressions and language forms they think appropriate to that particular situation.

We designed, then, our oral production tests for both pre-and post-tests that are regarded as phone tasks. (cf appendices17&18).These production tests consist of four situations that varied according to the sociopragmatic factors, namely social distance and status. Although we wanted to pay attention to both variables dealing with politeness (Brown an Levinson, 1987), we found after several stages of piloting these tests that these two variables overlapped, so we decided to focus only on the status. We, therefore, focused on two levels of status, that is to say, equal status (i.e. student-student) and higher status (i.e. teacher-student).In addition to that ,and given the fact that all the participant were university students ,we set all the situation at the university, as a familiar context to our participants.

Moreover, the pre- and post-test had the same lay out. Therefore, we carefully created similar situations with parallel degree of difficulty. In fact, the results of our both pre- and post-tests represent the main sources of data for drawing the evidence about the experimental treatment. Finally, another important aspect that we took in consideration is that each situation was made in a way that learners' production should be spontaneous but restricted by the situation proposed to them. The following table shows the general characteristics of the oral pre-and post-tests.

			Topic	
Situation	Participants	Status	Pre-test	Post-test
1	Student-teacher	Higher	International conference	Scholarship
2	Student-student	Equal	Internship	Buying books
3	Student-teacher	Higher	Talk for students	Subject choice
4	Student-student	Equal	Changing degree	Summer course

Table 54: Oral production pre-and post-tests.

5.13.3 Written production tests

Besides looking at students' oral production, it was necessary to collect their written output. Thus, we decided to employ more than one production research method in order to be able to account for the task effects. According to Kasper and Rose (2002) there are three main types of questionnaires: the DCT (Discourse Completion Task), the MCT (Multiple Choice Test) and the scale response questionnaire. In our case, we opted for the use of the first type since it is related to the collection of written production data.

The Discourse completion task has been employed extensively in the field of ILP because it allows a wide amount of data to be collected in a relatively short amount of time (Houck and Gass, 1996).As noted by Kasper and Rose (2002:90), the fact that they can be easily and quickly administered does not that they are easy to be employed. These two authors also argue that it is designing the DCT that is best suited to the goals of the study that takes time to develop. However, this instrument of data collection has been criticized as Rose (1994) notes for being too artificial by presenting short written segments rather than real life extracts .For this reason, and similar to our oral production test, we decided to create our own written production test. In our choice of this of this procedure, we took into account Bardovi-Harlig's (1999 b) suggestions concerning the use of the DCT since this author thinks that this type of instrument should be tailored to fit each particular research study instead of employing one that has already been used in other ILP studies. Despite its fast and easy administration, we believe, in line with Bardovbi-Harlig (1999 b) and Kasper and Rose (2002) that the difficulty in this type of production test lies in its design and construction.

Taking into consideration all the assumptions from ILP literature on research methods and the fact that the DCT as a pen and paper instrument has been claimed to resemble a test-like method, we decided to collect data by designing our tests. In so doing, we followed Bardovi-Harlig's (op cit) suggestions. This author believes that this kind of instrument should be tailored to fit each particular research study instead of using one that has been used in other studies. To this end, we decided to collect participants' written data by using electronic messages. This decision was made on the basis of previous studies that have used new technologies to collect learners' output. We, therefore, considered the use of email responses as an authentic and readily available task allowing written data collection. Therefore, in order to administer our tests and to gather data for our study the participants were taken in a computer lab rather than the usual classroom where students had to send real email to the people presented in the situations.

Similar to the oral production tests, the pre- and post written production tests had the same lay-out but the situation we designed for each test was different (cf appendices 15&16)**.**The situations were presented to the students as a written production activity forming part of their normal study. The students had to read the situations and respond to them by writing a reply to the content of these situations. They also had to write their names on their production for the researcher to be able to identify and evaluate individual students' work. The table below shows the general characteristics of both the pre- and post-tests:

			TOPIC	
Sit	Participants	Status	Pre-test	Pos-test
1.	Student-teacher	Higher	End of course activity	Next course activities
2.	Student-student	Equal	New computer	Looking for a job
3.	Student-teacher	Higher	Subject opinion	Websites workshop
4.	Student-student	Equal	First year subjects	New printer

Table 55: Written production pre-and post-tests

In fact, the written pre-and post-tests had the same layout but the situations designed for each test were different. In order to conduct these email tasks, we took the students to a computer lab and presented them the four situations as written production activities forming part of their normal module content of written expression. The students had to read each situation and to send an email to the addresses provided. They had to write their own names under the subject in order to know who had sent each email .All the emails were printed for their later analysis .An example of one of the email situations is presented below:

Example: Situation 1(from pre-test)

Your teacher is interested in knowing the problems you meet during the course of pragmatics. He would like you to bring your contribution to solve these problems and suggest solutions. Send him/her an email with the problems and the suggested solutions.

To: seg-lam@yahoo.com

Subject: (your name)

5.14 Testing and scoring procedure

In order to examine our subjects' development in terms of their communicative and pragmatic competence, we distributed several instruments before and after the instructional period in order to ascertain the effects of the instructional programme of instruction. Thus, three types of tests were used in this experimental study (1) listening comprehension tests; (2) oral production tests; (3) written production tests.

In addition to that, we administered a questionnaire after treatment to collect qualitative data from learners' opinions about the tasks they performed during the instructional sessions

All the tests designed for this study were based on previous research in the field of second and foreign language teaching. Therefore, the construction of the situations was reviewed and modified taking into consideration our learners cognitive, linguistic and cultural background. Our testing included a pre-test and a post-test that were composed of two parts, both tests were meant to evaluate our learners' progress in their communicative competence. The listening comprehension pre and post tests consisted of three successive listening tasks that were carefully selected so as to really reflect our learners' aural ability. The tasks were graded from general comprehension to a more detailed comprehension that required careful listening

The main goal of assigning the pre and post tests was to demonstrate the causal relationship between the independent and dependent variable.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the test scores allowed us to determine the degree of causality between the variables in question, and they also permitted a comparison through a detailed analysis of the scores obtained by both groups. Hence, results showed the learners' degree of achievement in each group.

5.1.4.1 Questionnaire after treatment

In addition to the pre-tests and post-tests administered to our subjects, we decided to include another instrument of on the basis of previous research in the field of interlanguage pragmatics ILP that has adopted the use of additional research tools, such as oral and written self-report instruments (Tateyama, 2001; Barron, 2003).However, due to institutional constraints we were unable to use those kinds of self-report data. Thus, we opted for a questionnaire to gather personal information about our subjects' opinions and feelings towards the course.

The questionnaire was distributed to both groups i.e. the experimental and control group (cf appendix 19).It contained four questions and addressed issues directly linked to what students had already learnt in the class. Questions such as whether they liked the activities of the course and how they feel when doing them. In other words, we wanted to know if they were motivated nervous, bored or interested. Our main aim behind administering this questionnaire was to probe our learner's attitudes towards what they were learning during the instructional treatment. We also wanted to examine their awareness and recognition of what they were learning during the treatment period Therefore, it was distributed twice during the course of the treatment period.

5.15 Results: Discussion and interpretation

In order to facilitate analysis and comparison, the test scores obtained from the pre-test to post-test were compared and classified (cf table56).The comparison of the pre-test means aimed at determining the learners' proficiency level and checking if the comparison between the two groups is possible. Then, to check the effectiveness of the experimental treatment we had to compare the post test means of each group.

In addition to this, and to give a clearer picture of the results obtained, we added a frequency distribution of scores. And finally, to provide more evidence about the scores we applied a t-statistics. A first look at table 56 suggests that the control group recorded numerically higher than the experimental groups in the pre-test which confirms the randomization of the groups.

However, the comparison of the scores the groups achieved further showed that the experimental group achieved more progress (figure 11). There was no previous empirical evidence for such differences in the scores, thus, we can say that the gains learners in the experimental group scored can be attributable to the use of authentic material. Perhaps what we can add is that the control group showed no significant difference from pre to post-test. On average, the experimental group outscored the control group and it was sensitive to the effects of our independent variable.

Experimental Group			Control group		
Subjects	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores	Subjects	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores
1	18	19	1	18	18
2	16	19	2	16	17
3	16	19	3	16	17
4	15	19	4	16	17
5	15	19	5	16	17
6	15	19	6	15	15
7	14	19	7	15	15
8	14	19	8	14,5	15
9	14	17	9	14	15
10	13	17	10	14	15
11	13	17	11	14	15
12	13	17	12	13	14
13	13	17	13	13	14
14	12	17	14	13	13
15	12	17	15	12	13
16	12	17	16	12	13
17	11	16	17	12	13
18	10,5	15	18	12	12
19	10	12	19	11	11
20	10	11	20	11	10
N= 20	Σ x 266,5	Σx 342	N= 20	Σ = 277,5	Σ = 290
Mean Σx / N	13,32	17,1		13,87	14,5

Table 56:Scores of of the subject experimental and control groups in the in the pre and post-test

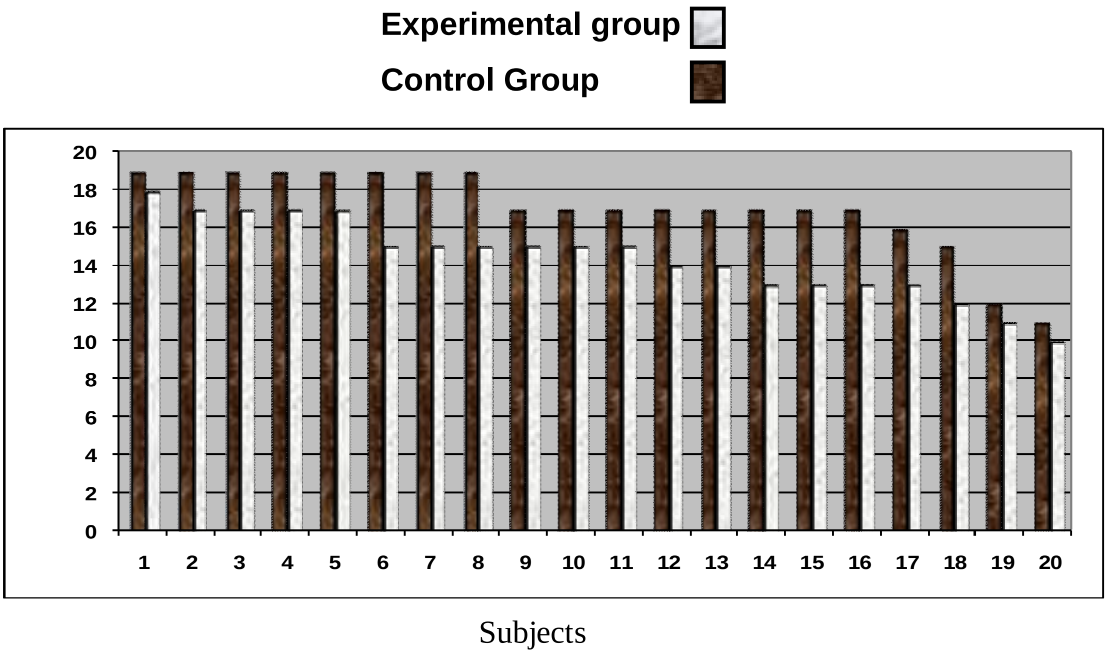

Figure 10 : Comparison of the pre-test scores :Experimental and control group

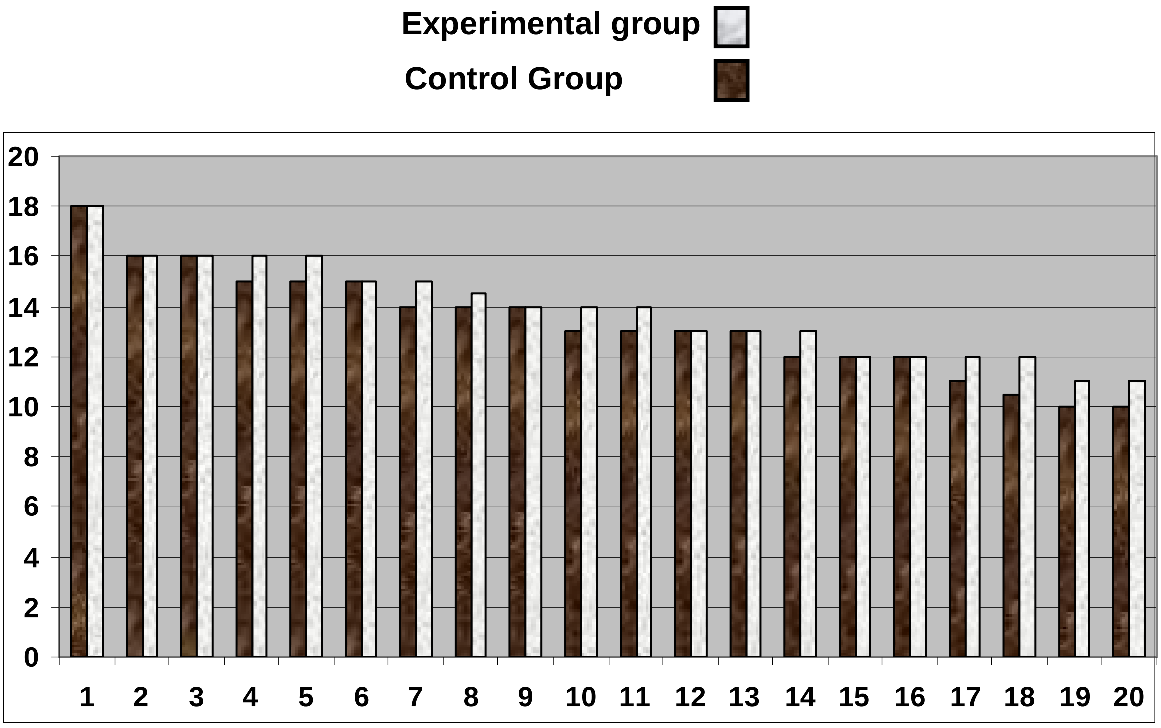

Figure 11: Comparison of the post-test scores: Experimental and control group

Moreover, the comparison of the means and gains the two groups achieved revealed that the experimental group made significant progress (cf table 57). In fact, the experimental group recorded 3.78 points higher while the control group gained only 0.63 points. Respectively, these results suggest that the experimental programme of instruction contributed significantly to the development of communicative competence within the subjects in the experimental group.

		Prestest	Posttest	Difference in the means
Experimental Group N 20	Means	13,32	17,10	3,78
Control Group N 20	Means	13,87	14,50	0,63

Table 57: Comparison of pre-test post test means experimental and control group

Furthermore, Tables 58 and 59 below show the distribution of scores in bands and the frequency of each band. These data indicate that the experimental treatment had an effect on all students' progress in the experimental group, whereas, in the absence of such treatment only a few students achieved better scores in the control group while the rest did not.

So, the students of the experimental group recorded better and higher scores compared with the subjects of the control group. A clearer picture of the changes in frequency distribution of both groups will be demonstrated on the tables below.

	Experimental group	
	Frequency	
Scores	Pretest	Postest
10 – 12	4	1
12 – 14	7	1
14 – 16	6	1
16 – 18	2	9
18 – 20	1	8

Table 58: Frequency distribution of the scores obtained by the experimental group

	Experimental group	
	Frequency	
Scores	Pretest	Postest
10 – 12	2	2
12 – 14	7	6
14 – 16	6	6
16 – 18	4	5
18 – 20	1	2

Table 59: Frequency distribution of the scores obtained by the control group

Furthermore, the figures displayed below show that in the control group the results were static. There was no significant change with little change in the width of distribution. In contrast, students in the experimental group obtained higher and more homogenized results.

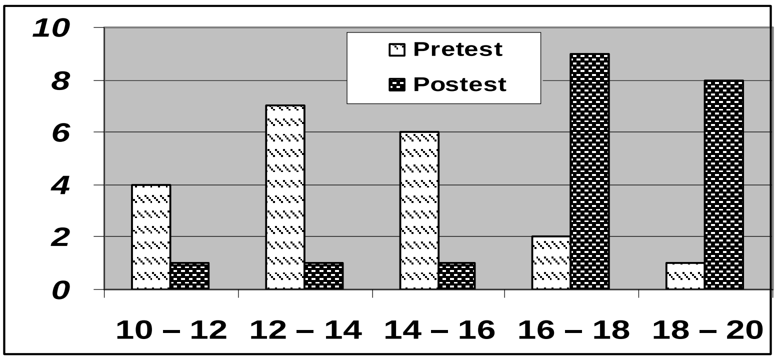

Figure 12 : Histogram of the pre-test and pos-test scores of the experimental group

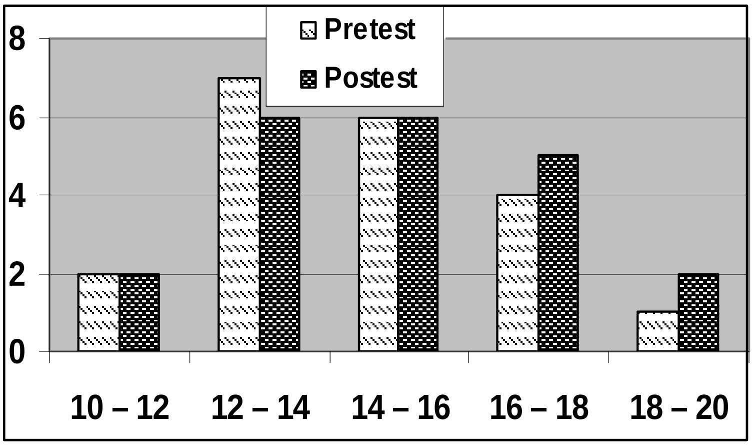

Figure 13: Histogram of the pre-test and pos-test scores of the control group

On average, the experimental group outscored the control group which consolidates our hypothesis (prediction) that using authentic material can improve students' aural/oral performance.

5.15.1 Results : The t - test

The principal goal behind conducting the current study is to show that EFL learners' communicative and pragmatic competences can develop following an instructional programme based on AM. In our experimental design a t-test (t-statistics) was conducted in order to provide evidence for the treatment effects. The main reasons underlying the choice of this test are can be stated follows.

First, the t-test deals with scores and ratios, i.e. figures and values, not with qualitative behavioral categories (to which a test using a nominal scale of measurement, as in questionnaires with yes/no answers and no numerical scores, better fits).

Second, it is a parametric test that makes strong assumptions about the data; it shows that each sample of population and sample of scores are drawn from a normal population. In other words, it shows that the differences obtained do not suggest glaring deviations from normality in the parent population.

Third, using the statistical test, together with the appropriate statistical tables (t-tables) allow us to find the exact probability that the difference obtained between two means (of two independent samples) is due to chance factors ***or*** to the effects of the independent variable, as we will see below.

In fact, the use of the t-test together with appropriate statistical tables(t-tables) allow us to find exact probability that the difference obtained between the two means is due to chance factors on the effects of the independent variable.

Consequently, we had to ask ourselves the following question: was the factor of chance responsible for the results or was it the effect of our independent variable? For this, we have computed the difference between the two groups using Fisher's formula. The difference is 2, 60 the supposing idea is that a p value (difference) of 2, 60 which is considered to be significant needs to be checked. To verify this, we set ourselves a level of significance of 0,05 or 1/20 that is, the results could only be obtained by chance one time in twenty or five times out of a hundred replicated experiments or less and that a difference between two groups does to some extent reflect chance factors.

The t-test of difference between means is a comparison between two groups' means which takes into account the differences in group variation and group size of the two groups. It provides evidence for the treatment's effect .The statistical hypothesis for the "t" test is stated as the null hypothesis concerning differences.

In calculating the t-test for the posttest data, we will consider the following steps:

Step One:

-Statement of the Null Hypothesis- Our null hypothesis (represented as H_0) reads: H_0 = the mean difference between the two groups is zero (null). Or H_0 = There is no difference between the means of the two groups.

- The research hypothesis (represented as H_1) reads: H1 = The mean score of the experimental group is different from the mean score of the control group. Or H_1 = There is difference between the means of the two groups.

Step 2: Choice of the Significance Level:

If we want to reject the null hypothesis and support the research hypothesis, we have to select a probability that a true null hypothesis is being rejected. This is the probability that the mean difference we observe between the experimental and control group is due to chance and not to the experimental treatment that is "exposure to authentic materials".

The probability level fixed for the present study is 0.05 ; that is, we have a probability of 5 percent that the differences between means occurred by chance.

Step 3: We calculate the standard deviation (sd) for each group. The standard deviation shows the relation that a set of scores has to the mean of the sample.

$$\textbf{Sd} = Sd = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x\ 2}{N} - \overline{X}_1^2}$$

With:

- $\sum X^2 =$ sum of squared scores
- $\overline{X}^2 =$ squared mean.
- N = number of subjects .
- $\overline{X} =$ mean

1- We calculate **sd** for the experimental group:

$$sd_e = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X_e^2}{N_e} - \overline{X}_e^2}$$

<u>Posttest:</u>

Experimental group		Control group	
Score X_1	Squared score X_1^2	Score X_2	Squared score X_2^2
19	361	18	324
19	361	17	289
19	361	17	289
19	361	17	289
19	361	17	289
19	361	15	225
19	361	15	225
19	361	15	225
17	361	15	225

17	298	15	225
17	298	15	225
17	298	14	196
17	298	14	196
17	298	13	169
17	298	13	169
17	298	13	169
16	256	13	169
15	256	12	144
12	144	11	121
11	121	10	100
$\Sigma x_1 = 342$	$\Sigma X_1^2 = 5915$	$\Sigma x_2 = 290$	$\Sigma X_2^2 = 4236$

Table 60:Post-test scores: experimental and control group

1-Standard deviation for the experimental group.

$$Sd_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - \overline{X_1^2}}$$

$$Sd = \sqrt{\frac{5915}{20} - (17{,}1)^2}$$

$Sd_1 = 1{,}82$

2-Standard deviation for the control:

$$Sd_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - \overline{X_2^2}}$$

$$Sd_2 = \sqrt{\frac{4236}{20} - (14{,}5)^2}$$

$Sd_2 = 1{,}24$

3-We calculate the t value

The difference in means is:

$$\overline{X_1} - \overline{X_2} = 14{,}5 - 17{,}1 = 2{,}60$$

$$t = \frac{\overline{X_1} - \overline{X_2}}{\sqrt{\frac{Sd_1}{N_1} + \frac{Sd_2}{N_2}}}.$$

$$t = \frac{2{,}60}{\sqrt{\frac{(1{,}24)^2}{20} + \frac{(1{,}82)^2}{20}}} = 5{,}27$$

Conclusion

Throughout our experimental study, we attempted to show how well our learners' communicative competence would improve when exposed to authentic language materials. Our hypothesis is that the listening and speaking skills of our learners will develop as a result of longer exposure to authentic language materials.

As suggested in this chapter, the difference between the pre-and post test means as well as the difference in the gains between the experimental and control group clearly indicate the effectiveness of the exposure to authentic material. Language functions together with the essential language features (grammar, prosody, and lexicon) are better acquired when the learners are exposed to an overwhelmingly authentic material with communicative goals.

In that respect, it is only through authentic materials that our learners will experience English as used in real life with all its features as hesitations, obscure utterances, shifts, turn taking etc.

Moreover, the results achieved by the experimental group reflect the role AM play in motivating learners in their learning enterprise. Thus, we believe that the use of such aterials will build up learners' self-confidence and independence and thereby will be able to use the TL more competently.

General conclusion, Limitations, implications and recommendations

The main objective of the present study was to provide insights into the effects of using AM on the development of FL learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. The basic view that we adopted all along this dissertation was that students' communicative competence will develop following an intensive exposure to AM. In contrast to SL context, FL context has been characterized by an impoverished environment where learners' exposure to the TL is very often limited. Our study then was fueled by the need to focus on the most appropriate ways to exploit AM in the FL classroom in order to develop learner's communicative and pragmatic competence.

There is no doubt that developing FL learner's communicative competence requires access to comprehensible input that is both rich and varied. Indeed, the primary concern of FL teachers is to enhance students' TL proficiency. According to Krashen (1985) :'to guarantee a comprehensible input our learners' need direct access to language as spoken by native speakers i.e. authentic'. In this respect the language classroom needs to be supplemented with ample use of authentic materials. However, the traditional examination driven- education system which overemphasises the teaching of isolated language items or structures have resulted in a flagrant lack of exposure to the realistic use of English in the main stream society. As a remedial measure, substantial input of authentic materials that are adapted to the learners' level and interests will certainly increase their sensitivity to and competence in the target language. Furthermore, authentic materials such as clips from mass media, movies, comics, and best selling essays, short stories have been found appealing because of their realistic, ready-to use language and relevance to learners' cognitive level and experiences.

Moreover, if we look back on our language learning experiences, and consider what elements have remained in our memories over the years, we realise that most of them that have remained are associated with authentic language materials. It is really surprising that these are the materials stayed in our memories when so many others have withered. They are intrinsically related to our emotions and imagination, and create a desire to engage with the materials and understand them. Consequently, a huge amount of language is learnt as we attempt to decode the messages the authors try to convey.

For this reason, it has been argued that the strictly structured lexico-grammatical syllabus that we have been using in our classrooms for so long may give the comforting impression of order and comprehension however, they present only a tiny fraction of the full richness of the language. Let me confess that for a long time I have been boring my learners and myself to death with purely tailored pedagogical materials. Now, I have reached a point where I would like to explore other possibilities. Generally, learners of foreign and second language are exposed to the TL in the formal context of the classroom, and mainly get through the pedagogical materials specially tailored and produced for the purpose of language teaching .The language features of such materials are attended to or simplified. Consequently learners working with this kind of materials may be induced in false expectations about what will happen in ordinary spoken language .Simply this kind of language input lacks one of the basic features of language: its communication.

It is actually in the field of material selection and development that most attention must be paid. In fact, the pedagogical materials generally exploited in the classroom could serve certain purposes at an early stage of learning, yet they may hamper communication and create gaps reflected in the real language and the language proposed by such materials. Besides, pedagogical materials are unable to capture and maintain students' interest due to the lack of relevance, lack of entertainment value, or lack of stimulation. As a result instead of developing learners' communicative they seem to impede it.

With the advent of the functional communicative proficiency approach in the 1970's and all through the 1980's teachers and leading authorities insist that the English presented in the classroom should be authentic not produced for instructional purposes. Today, the focus is on teaching the TL for communication via authentic language materials. It is no accident that models of communicative competence developed in the 80' in parallel with calls for greater authenticity in the literature. This new trend stemmed from the increasing influence of sociolinguistics on the profession and a growing concern that language cannot be dissociated from the context where it is produced. Hymes (1972), for instance, paved the way to a move away from abstract, ideal notions of native speaker competence towards more contextualized performance. Hymes criticized the Chomskyan notion of 'and ideal speaker-listener' and its trivialization of real performance. Hymes'(1972) new definition of competence encompasses both a speaker's knowledge of the language and his/her ability to use that language in a particular social context. Despite its vagueness, this new trend in linguistic sparked a growing interest in pragmatics and slowly many models of communicative competence began to develop. First, with Schmidt and Richard (1980) then, most importantly, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983).The work of these authors resulted in a framework composed of four areas of knowledge namely, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Later, in his turn, Leech (1983) divided sociolinguistic competence into two main competences, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence.

In fact the most notable advances on the previous models is Bachman's (1990) model which identifies pragmatic competence an essential competence of the construct of communicative competence. Since then, the importance of this competence has been maintained in the model of Celce-Murcia et al (1995). A more recent model was also proposed by Uso-Juan and Martiner-Flor whose aim is to show how the four skills serve to build discourse competence for communicative purposes. This model also highlights the importance that should be given to the intercultural component given the rising recognition that is associated to cultural aspects.

Different authors, then, have created different terminology for the same components. For example pragmatic competence is named ‘sociolinguistic’ by van EK(1986), ’illocutionary competence’ by Celce-Murcia et al.(1995).Some researcher have added extra components or merged existing ones in their models. This inability to settle on the same terminology is indicative of the state of flux this area of research is currently in. However, we believe there should a general consensus on the types of communicative competence which exist and appropriate terminology to describe them in order to understand how the different components interact with each other and their relative importance in the teaching learning process.

Throughout our study, we tried to investigate the relationship that exists between exposure to AM i.e. the exploitation of AM in the language classroom and the development of learners’ communicative competence. Our main objective was to demonstrate how AM could be successfully used in the EFL classroom. The basic view adopted along this research is that TL input, especially comprehensible input is the first vital element to language acquisition (Krashen, 1985).Therefore, Krashen (1991) believes that once input is comprehended, it is processed in the brain as intake. He also suggests that the quality and quantity of output generally depends on the quality and quantity of comprehensible input learners process. However, it is essential to define quality and quantity in both input and output. Quantity of input refers to the type of contextualized, unstructured (not intended for foreign language learners) language data contained in AM. Quantity refers to the sheer amount of input that the students can get from AM that surpasses the abilities of a sole instructor.

The quantity of learners' output refers to their communicative competence in being able to transmit understandable messages to NSs with no regard to the grammatical accuracy of their discourse. In other words, they should possess the ability to socially respond to different communicative needs in different situations. Therefore, it was hypothesized that an increase in quantity i.e. exposure through AM would develop FL learners' communicative competence. Since the inception of the communicative approach research have long reported that AM are very beneficial in providing natural, content-rich samples of the TL (Bacon and Finnermann,1990.Liontas,1992) and that reflect current linguistic changes more effectively than the pedagogical materials.AM have also been shown to be motivating since this kind of language input is more likely to be received as intake when it is interesting to the learners(Krashen,1985) and triggers some aspects of his /her background knowledge.

According to Weyers (1999), authentic language materials by their unstructured nature and non –graded linguistic samples provide a more effective environment than the pedagogically prepared materials in exposing learners to genuine language samples much like what they would encounter in the target culture.

On the basis of the above discussion and to show the efficacy of AM in developing FL learners' communicative competence, the author of this thesis adopted two research approaches. On the one hand, a quantitative approach in order to ascertain the cause-effect relationship between AM and the development of students communicative competence .On the other hand a qualitative approach which consisted in collecting data from direct contact with our subjects either the students or the teachers. In fact our experimental study revealed some very significant concluding remarks. At the end of the treatment period, the statistics indicated that the experimental group out-performed the control group. The results clearly showed the significant increases experienced by the experimental group in both listening and speaking which provide quantitative data that support the pedagogical value of AM develops. Indeed, after exposure to AM the subjects in the experimental group had at their disposal more lexical items and demonstrated greater confidence in using and understanding certain speech acts.

The increase demonstrated by the experimental group in their confidence in understanding and producing speech acts is the most telling of the result. Students became increasingly comfortable hearing English, they understood more of the AM that they were exposed to. We also came to the conclusion that such type of materials not only has positive impact on learners' motivation but proved fit to our learners' diverse learning needs as well. To this must be added the important role AM play in creating an interactive environment that promotes interest in the TL.

With reference to the teaching of the 'Oral Expression' course in the Algerian context which offers very little opportunity for real communication in the TL, the author of this thesis argues that the use of AM would really compensate the flagrant lack of direct contact with NSs language and culture.

In fact, the cross-cultural deficiencies which are the characteristics of most FL learners must, indisputably, be attributed to the learners' unawareness of the English cultural norms of daily communication .Therefore, we believe that ample use of AM in the language classroom would equip learners with the necessary knowledge to be able to avoid misunderstandings in the intercultural communication. Moreover, integrating AM with all their cultural aspects would also enable learners to consider the TL as a means of understanding the others, be ready for openness, to avoid discrimination based on ethnocentrism. In other words, they will be equipped with awareness of the TL culture which could help them cultural pragmatic transfer.

Moreover, what emerges from the analysis of the teachers' responses to the different items in the questionnaire revealed their readiness and support to integrate AM in all the modules. It was not surprising that they all expressed their willingness to rethink their teaching practices so as to give the development of their learners' communicative competence high a priority. They all showed a desire to explore possibilities other than the contrived pedagogical materials. They all argue that their learners' communicative competence develops only and only if they are exposed to a rich and varied input via AM. Besides, our respondents' reactions revealed that teaching English still relies on traditional approaches despite the worldwide changes that characterize the modern foreign language teaching and learning.

Coming back again to the teaching of English in the Algerian context, we believe that time is ripe for us to orient the aims of teaching the TL towards the development of learners' communicative competence. Furthermore, the present study has not revealed any systematic approach to teaching pragmatics but has shown that many discourse features and pragmatic aspects and routines could be well developed through a systematic integration of AM in teaching FL.

Having said this, it is also important to mention that the questionnaire after treatment revealed students' marked preference for AM over other pedagogical materials despite their inherent difficulties. It is often argued that learners do not know what is suitable for them, but I consider this as an academic arrogance .As a matter of fact, learners often know better than anyone the input that best suits their language needs.

To sum up the above discussion, we can say that development emerging from different areas of language study such as discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, pragmatics and ethnology have largely contributed in deepening our understanding of the notion of language and the notion of communicative competence. Given the rapid changes, the landscape has changed forever. However, all these practical advancements have not yet made any impact on Algerian EFL classrooms. Therefore, I personally believe that it is high time we opted for a paradigm shift in language learning. Unfortunately teachers, learners and institutions resist change and the status quo is still maintained .For my own part, I really wish this short study will incite practitioners to attempt new ways of doing things and try to bring the fizz back to their classrooms.

Limitations

This Classroom based research is aimed to provide evidence for the effectiveness of AM in the EFL context. Nevertheless, some aspects deserve to be explored in future investigations. These concern limitations attributed to the present research. The first limitation that may be considered important in this study was the selection of AM used in the experimental design. In fact, the choice of the materials was rather difficult given the diversity and abundance of AM. However, our choosing of a number of specific materials was mainly justified taking into account criteria already mentioned in the literature review (cf. chapter1 section 1.13).Therefore, we did our best to select the materials that are representative of the rest of materials. Furthermore, it is important to mention that our focus on the selection of the materials was primarily on the nature of the material. Consequently, we tried as much as we could to vary the sources from audio, video to printed data .In addition to this, AM may be too culturally biased, or sometimes shocking for the learners due to cultural differences. This is again another parameter that complicated and restricted our choice of the materials.

A second limitation resides in the fact that the amount of information provided by the materials could not really be covered through the activities that we designed for experimental treatment. Therefore, in order to overcome such a difficult aspect of AM we designed tasks that reflect the nature, the complexity and the density of information.

Although the findings of this study show that AM and their accompanying tasks were more effective than the usually exploited materials in developing learners' communicative competence, more empirical studies in other situations are necessary before one can make any claim to generalize them. Furthermore, we cannot discard the likelihood that the results would be affected by other variables such participants proficiency level, the types of materials and other extraneous modifying variables. As a result, this makes us view our results with caution about making any generalizations. In this study subjects belonged to third year students majoring a BA in English and consisted of male and female students. However, we believe that some student individual variables may have influenced the results .The case of gender, for instance, has always been claimed to affect learners' motivation and involvement. Thus, we would like to really know whether either just female or male participants yield different results. As a matter of fact, further research that investigates the effect of these and other individual variables on the teachability of pragmatic using AM.

Another limitation concerns the short term effect of instructional treatment .In fact, the post-tests used to confirm the effects of instruction were distributed the week following the end of instructional treatment. However, we would have liked to make use delayed post-test in order to find out whether learners' gains in the communicative and pragmatic competence had been retained some time after the instructional period took place. Unfortunately, due to time constraints this was not possible.

A further limitation has to do with the fact that the results could not really explain how teachers could systematically integrate a specific area of pragmatics into their lessons using AM. In other words, no assessment could prove that those students would really absorb input from AM to develop their pragmatic competence.

Finally, another limitation concerns the fact that the instrument that we designed to collect pragmatic and communicative competence production did not really elicit any interactional data. Therefore, by means of employing other research methods such as role plays where at least two participants are involved, the development of FL learners' communicative competence could be examined in future research. Besides, our results would be ascertained if we made use of other kinds of instruments that elicit learners' self-report data. This sort of methods, would allow a thorough examination of learners' pragmatic development by attention to their thought processes when assessing or producing a particular pragmatic feature.(Tateyama,2001).

To conclude, we can say that despite the above outlined limitations, we hope that our study will contribute to the growing body of research dealing with the role AM play in developing EFL learners' pragmatic and communicative competence.

Implications

The implications of the present study can be viewed from two major angles. On the one hand, the result of this study, we hope, will contribute to further explication of communicative competence in general and pragmatic competence in particular. On the other hand, the study serves as a springboard for better integration of AM into the teaching learning process. In fact, we believe that the potential of language learning can be fully achieved only if it can break out of the mould in which it has been set for so long. Today, the landscape has changed and insights from different areas of study have widened our understanding of what language is and what communicative competence really means .However, there is still a long way to go before these practical implications are yet to make any impact on EFL classrooms. As far as I am concerned, I am deeply convinced about the necessity for a shift in paradigm in English language learning. Unfortunately, there still exist great pressures which resist to any change.

Unfortunately, this is not always the case, especially in Algeria where teachers still tend to devote all their efforts on lexico-grammatical features of language teaching, thus perpetuating the status-quo. However, the author of this thesis draws the attention of the teachers to the fact that it can be extremely time consuming to implement a communicative centred approach using AM. In fact, it first requires some kinds of situation analysis where learners' needs are determined in order to decide how much emphasis to devote to the different components of communicative competence .As we all know, students' mercurial needs will inevitably vary according to different factors such as level of proficiency and their own learning experiences. I really do believe that teachers most of the time are not really completely aware of what is actually going on in their classes. What really emerges from our investigation is the social and psychological dynamics within the classrooms. Therefore, teachers need to make efforts to understand the social and psychological factors at work, and to direct them towards maximizing learning .In fact, this is difficult and problematic in Algeria because of the following reasons:

- Students are often shy and tend to avoid interaction with other members of the class.
- They do not take responsibility for their own learning and tend to rely on the teacher to dictate what to do, how to do it and who to do it.
- Social pressures in Algerian classrooms discourage students from expressing their opinions and feelings openly.

In reality, so many processes affecting language learning are utterly hidden from teachers view: students' needs, their learning goals, their motivation, their interlanguage systems, their learning styles, and their overall communicative competence. Besides, teachers are very often busy with the duty of running their lessons, that they rarely devote some of their time to focus on the social and psychological dynamics of their classes.

The results of our study have shown that AM not only develop a wide range of communicative competences but were strongly appealing to the participants in the experimental group. Moreover, our study is also related to materials development .Language teaching materials have in the past been largely built on lexico-grammatical content. Today, we no longer need to organize content around structural syllabuses. Instead, we advocate the need to provide our learners with rich and varied samples of authentic input. Bearing in mind the fact that in an EFL context learners have fewer opportunities to be exposed to AM, it is now believed that input in the language classroom must be supplemented by means of AM such as videotaping conversations, scenes from various films or recording TV sitcoms.

Moreover, activities based on this kind of materials should be directed towards the development of FL learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. Therefore, it is important to design tasks that not only develop learners' pragmatic awareness but also enhance their production. Consequently, both the materials and the activities should offer opportunities for communicative practice.

It has often been suggested that the language presented through non authentic (pedagogical) materials is less effective compared to AM for a number of reasons. Firstly, despite their precise syllabuses which give the impression of comprehensiveness, they only develop a very narrow range of communicative competencies .This is the result of the dominance of lexico-grammatical content. Secondly, grading syllabuses, moving from what is considered easy to the more difficult, give the impression that we know more about language acquisition than is actually the case .In fact, many aspects of language which are easy to analyze, such as the "s" of the third person singular, can sometimes be hard for students to acquire while others which are more difficult can be easily acquired. Moreover, interlanguage systems generally develop idiosyncratically and difficulty can be largely affected by the extent of our background knowledge of a topic, therefore, grading materials to suit a particular group of learners is often a matter of hit or miss. Therefore, Schumman (1997), claims that there are main elements which determine to what extent we engage with input and these are: novelty, pleasantness, and goal / need significance. Consequently, to lead to sustained deep learning, AM should be selected by both teachers and learners.

Furthermore, there are still a number of difficulties that stand in the way of implementing these kinds of materials. First, it is a mistake to assume that all teachers have direct access to authentic materials. Despite the technological boom and the widespread of the availability of information and communication technologies (ICT), there are still many parts of the world where teachers do not have direct access to AM. In addition to this, most teachers lack understanding and expertise to properly select and exploit AM effectively to meet learners' needs. In fact, we should recognize teachers' lack of knowledge and skill regarding the use of ICT into their specific area, in this case, English as a foreign language. There is an explicit need of pedagogical training in the use of ICT. This constitutes, in my opinion, an essential point when considering the implementation of AM. Training, then, becomes key in order to overcome obstacles (both pedagogical and technical) and make special emphasis on the acquisition of pedagogical skills by teachers .At the same time institutions should plan specific training addressed to English as a foreign language teachers.

Given the above facts ,one can admit that input in pedagogical materials such as course books is often contrived by material writers with language aims taking precedence .This generally results in dull texts which lack naturalness. Consequently, both teachers and learners show less commitment to those tailored material forced onto them than those they choose themselves. Following this, it may not be wrong to say that we actually need a paradigm shift. However, the critical question that we should ask ourselves as Woodward

(1996) did is what exactly should we shift to? We believe that one solution is to provide learners with rich and varied input of AM that could eventually develop a wide range of competencies and adequately meet their needs. We also believe that it is high time we abandoned those lexico-grammatical syllabuses especially at high proficiency levels. Moreover, the communicative competence models developed by many linguists so far could be exploited to provide information to build syllabuses that ensure FL learners' linguistic, strategic, pragmatic and discourse competencies were developed adequately. This is exactly what we tried to demonstrate throughout our study.

In our study, we adopted a more pragmatic approach and the methods were selected on the basis of their potential to shed light into the different aspects of language learning, rather than their theoretical affiliations. As discussed in the introductory parts of this dissertation, combining qualitative and quantitative methods within the same study allows us to zoom in and zoom out on particular areas of interest, and the results from one approach are often able to help explain those from the other. I think that future classroom-based research would benefit more from combining quantitative and qualitative methods in order to better explain the complex and multi-faceted nature of language learning.

Moreover, further work is needed to design reliable and practical tests to assess communicative competence. Contrary to linguistic competence (grammar, phonology vocabulary) whose measures are already well established, this is not the case of for the other components of communicative competence. The tests used in our study were extremely time consuming and proved to be rather unreliable measures of learners' pragmatic competence.

Pedagogical implications

Our research aimed at investigating the exploitation of authentic materials in the English language classroom. Our experiment was conducted in a manner that reflected how authentic language materials could be best used in reality to improve our learners' aural /oral level of performance: On the basis of the results we obtained and the observations we made along the experiment several conclusions were drawn on how to implement authentic materials. The job of the teacher, then, is first to select the most suitable material and second to design appropriate activities.

- Material selection

In selecting materials, teachers meet considerable difficulties. Indeed, faced with a wide range of available authentic language materials from different sources of different levels and different contents, teachers have the complex task to take all these factors into account when using such type of materials

In the light of our present study, we can maintain that it is high time we reconsidered the type of input we use for teaching the listening and speaking skills. The situation we actually have is that our students are continuously exposed to a very restricted non-authentic language in a very constrained classroom setting consequently most of the learners who seemed to be great achievers in the classroom become silent when faced with a realistic communicative situation where they have to use the TL to interact with native speakers.

The causes of such a situation should be attributed to the kind of material which we use for developing listening and speaking and which are often pedagogical where all the features of natural speech are eliminated. Thus, according to the tuition they are given, our learners 'are restricted to function actively in the home' (Lowe 1981: 34). Their English becomes what Bill Lowe identifies as ERP (English for restricted purposes).

Therefore, if we wish to alleviate our learners' difficulties and elevate their level in comprehending and speaking English, a careful selection of materials is necessary. Indeed, when attempting to find the right kind of material teachers have to take into consideration the following criteria:

- The material should be sufficiently interesting for the learners so as to arouse their interest.
- The learners should be familiar enough with the background knowledge of the material i.e. it should go with the learners' cultural schemata.
- To ensure comprehensibility, it is important for the language to be in accordance with the learners' level, needs and objectives.
- The materials and the tasks accompanying them should be perceived by the teacher and the learners as having communicative purposes.
- Teachers should also pay attention to the length of the material so as to avoid information load. Lengthy materials cause boredom and fatigue.
- The presentation of the material should be attractive to capture learners' interest. The teacher should also vary the type of materials from audio to audiovisual to printed materials.
- Teachers should also give special consideration for audio and video materials in terms of sound quality, rate delivery, register, the number of speakers etc.
- Teachers also need insights about the cognitive, affective and socio-cultural needs of the learners.
- Some materials are timeless with a universal topic whereas others can become outdated easily.

In addition to the criteria mentioned above, the teacher being the evaluator of the material will need to ask:

- Does the material help me reach my objectives?
- Does it adequately allow the practice of the targeted skills?

- Can I adjust it to my learners' needs?
- Does it allow the design of a variety of activities?

2- Implications for designing listening and speaking activities

In chapter 2 and 3, we discussed the potential problems our learners encounter in both encoding and decoding messages. A number of these problems have their implications for the design of classroom activities and procedures. We have seen that creating purpose for listening can motivate the learners, and that a pre-listening is necessary to introduce schematic knowledge and some of the language learners will meet in the material. Moreover, certain basic principles of designing tasks and activities must be observed.

- The teacher doesn't simplify the input, but simplifies the tasks.
- The teacher and learners prepare for the listening viewing or reading in many ways.
- The teacher has to make learners familiar with the topic, and has to activate any prior knowledge.
- The teacher's role is also to create interest, purpose for the activities and the confidence to perform the tasks.
- Before setting learners to perform a while listening viewing or reading tasks, the teacher makes sure that learners have understood what it involves e.g. filling a chart a table etc.
- The teachers should respect a hierarchy of tasks: pre-activities – while activities and post activities.
- The learners should carry out the tasks independently without the teacher's intervention. And a feedback session is necessary to check and discuss the responses.

- The teachers should select activities that promote speaking practice and create reassuring classroom environment in which learners use the TL for communicative needs.
- Another key principle in speech production is gradual introduction of more complex tasks ranging from simple pair work to more ambitious activities.

To conclude, we can say that in order to design a useful methodology for developing communicative competence, it is essential to select the materials on the basis of their linguistic and cognitive complexity, length, information load and varieties of spoken English. It is equally important to focus our attention on the type of tasks and activities and their contribution to develop learners' aural / oral performance.

A Call for Further Research

This present study is just a first step towards appropriately selecting, and implementing authentic language materials in order to develop FL learners' communicative competence. Our research attempted to investigate the effects of authentic materials on our learners' oral performance. It tried to shed light on the outcomes of exploiting authentic materials and their impact on learners' communicative competence. However, further large scale research on the exploitation of authentic language materials and the need to include them in language teaching syllabuses will be welcome.

Bibliography

Achiba, M. (2003) .Learning to request in a second language: Child interlanguage pragmatics. Clevedon, England :Multilingual matters.

Adams, T. (1995).*What Makes Materials Authentic?* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 391389).

Alanen, R. (1995).Input enhancement and rule presentation in second language acquisition. In R. Schmidt (ed.) *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning (Technical Report,9)*.Honolulu:University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.pp.259-302 .

Alcaraz, E. (1990). *Three paradigms of linguistic investigation*. Alcoy: Marfil.

Alcón,E. (2000).The role of conversational interaction in the development of a second language: its application to English language teaching in the classroom. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics,*16: 135-154.

Alcón, E. (2001). Developing pragmatic competence in the academic setting:The case of suggestions in NS/NNS advising sessions.In S.Posteguillo,I. Fortanet and J.C.Palmer (eds.) *Methodology and new technologies in language for specific purposes*. Castelló: Servei de Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I. pp. 79-86.

Alcon,E. (2005).*Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in EFL context?*An International Journal of Educational Technology and AplliedLinguistics. 33(3) 417-435.

Alcón, E.and Codina, V. (2002). Practice opportunities and pragmatic change in a second language context: The case of requests. *ELIA: Estudios de Lingüística Aplicada,* 3:123-138.

Alcón, E. and Tricker,D. (1999). The use of 'well' in spoken interaction:An example of what language teachers and learners can get from analyzing spoken discourse.*Australian Review of Applied Linguistics* 2/2:119-133.

Alderson, J.C. (2000) *Assessing Reading* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press *Language Learning.* In B. Van patten & James F. Lee (eds.) Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, pp. 118-39.

Allen, E., E. B. Bernhardt, M. T. Berry & M. Demel. (1988). Comprehension and text genre:An analysis of secondary foreign language readers'.*Modern Language Journal* 72: 63-72.

Allwright,D.and Bailey,K.M.(1991).*Focus on the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Anderson, A. and T. Lynch (1988). *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Argyle, M. (1988). *Bodily communication.* London: Routledge.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words.* London: Clarendon Press.

Bach, K. (1999).*The myth of conventional Implicature*.Linguistics and philosophy,22:262-83

Bachman,L.F.(1990).*Fundamental considerations in language testing*.Oxford:Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. & A. Palmer (1982). The construct validation of some components of communicative proficiency. *TESOL Quarterly* 16: 449-465.

Bacon S., and Finnerman, M. (1990). A study of the attitudes, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input. *Modern Language Journal*, 74,459-473.

Bailey, B. (1997). Communication of respect in interethnic service encounters. *Language in Society* 26: 327-356.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). Pragmatics as a part of teacher education. *ESOL Journal*, 1/3: 28-32.

___________.(1996).Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together.In L. F. Bouton (ed.) *Pragmatics and language learning*,vol.7.Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana.

___________. (1999a). Exploring the Interlanguage of Interlanguage Pragmatics: A Research Agenda for Acquisitional Pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 49/4: 677-713.

____________. (1999b). Researching Method. In L. F. Bouton (ed.) *Pragmatics and language learning*,vol.9.Urbana,IL:University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp. 237-

___________.(2001).Empirical evidence of the need for instruction in pragmatics. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds.)*Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 13-32.

___________. (2002). Pragmatics and second language acquisition. In R. B. Kaplan (ed.) *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.pp. 182-192.

Bardovi-Harlig, K.and Dörnyei,Z.(1998).Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic vs.grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32: 233-259.

Bardovi-Harlig, K.and Hartford, B.S. (1993).Learning the rules of academic talk: A longitudinal studyof pragmatic development.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15: 279-304.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. and Hartford, B. S. (1996). Input in an institutional setting. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18: 171-188.

Bardovi-harlig,K.and Mahan-taylor,R.(2003) *Introduction to TeachingPragmatics*.English Teaching Forum.Indiana University.USA.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. and Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). *Teaching Pragmatics*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of State Office of English Language Programs. Available online at http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/pragmatics.html

Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B. S., Mahan-Taylor, R., Morgan, M. J. and Reynolds, D. W.(1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: Closing the conversation. *ELT Journal*, 45: 4-15.

Barlow, M. (1996). *Corpora for Theory and Pracitce*. International Journal of Corpus Linguistics, 1, 1.

Barron, A. (2003). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context.* Amsterdam: Benjamins.

BECTA, (2003): Virtual Learning Environments in education: a review of the literature. (Online) (retrieved on: 14/4/2010) http://www.becta.org.uk/page_documents/research/VLE_report.pdf

Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T. and Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals.InScarcella,R.C.,Andersen,E.and Krashen,S.D.(eds.)*Developing communicative competence in a second language.* New York: Newbury House Publishers. pp. 55-73.

Bell, J . (2006) *Doing Your Research Project.*A guide for first-time researchers in educat health and social science. Open University Press. Mc Graw Hill Education

Billmyer,K. (1990).I really like your lifestyle :ESL learners learning how to compliment. Penn working Papers in Educational Linguistics,6/231-48.

Blakemore, D. (1992). *Understanding utterances. An introduction to pragmatics*. Oxford and Cambridge: Blackwell.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1982).Learning to say what you mean in a second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 3: 29-59.

___________. (1997). Discourse Pragmatics in T.A. vDjiik (eds) Discourse as social interaction .pp.38-63.London: Sage Publications.

Blum-Kulka, S and Elite Olshtain (1986): “Too Many Words: Length of Utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 8,* 47-61.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J.and Kasper,G.(eds.)(1989).*Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 8,* 47-61.

Boswood, T. (1997). *New ways of using computers.* Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Boufoy-Bastick,B.(2001).Constructivist *pedagogy for authentically activating oral skills in the foreign language classroom.*Paper presented at the Foreign Language Forum (Cave Hill, Barbados, April 23-25, 2001).

Bouton, L.F.(1994). Can NNS skill in interpreting implicature in American English be improved through explicit instruction? - A pilot study. In L. F. Bouton and Y.Kachru (eds.) *Pragmatics and language learning,*vol. 5. Urbana, IL, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp. 88-109.

Bouton,L.F.(1996). Pragmatics and language learning.*Pragmatics and Language Learning, 7,* 1-20. Urbana-Champaign: DEIL, University of Illinois.

Boxer,D.(2003). Critical issues in developmental pragmatics.In A.Martínez-Flor,E.Usó and A.Fernández (eds.) *Pragmatic competence in foreign language teaching* Castelló: Servei de Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I. pp. 45-67.

Boxer, D., and Pickering, L. (1995). Problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELTmaterials: The case of complaints. *ELT Journal, 49,* 44-57

Breen,M.P. (1985). Authenticity in the language classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 60–70.

Brinton,D.M. (1991).The Use of Media in Language Teaching .In Celce Murcia Mariane Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Lnaguage. pp 454-471. Heinle and Heinle.

Brock, M. N. and Nagasaka,Y.(2005).teaching Pragmatics in the EFL classroom?Sure you can! TESSL. Reporter 38,pp. 17-26.

Brown, G. & G. Yule (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H. D. (1987). “Principles of Language Learning and Teaching” (2nd ed). New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc. Pp. 47; 200-1.

__________. (1994). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, P. and Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language usage: politeness phenomena. In E.N.Goody (ed.) *Questions and politeness:Strategies in social interaction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.*

Brown, P. and Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Byram, M. (1997) *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence* Clevedon .Multilingual Matters.

Campbell, R. and Wales, R. (1970). The study of language acquisition. In J. Lyons (ed.) *New horizons in linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Campoy, M. C. and Safont, P. (2001). Pedagogical implications of a spoken corpus For the development of request realisation strategies in foreign language learners of English.In A. Moreno and V. Colwell (eds.) *Perspectivas recientes sobre el discurso.*León: Secretariado de publicaciones y medios audiovisuals. CD-ROM Publication.

Canale,M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards and R.W. Schmidt (eds.) *Language and communication*. London: Longman. pp. 2-27.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics,* 1: 1-47.

Candlin, C. (1993). *Problematising authenticity: whose texts for whom?* Paper presented At the TESOL Convention, Atlanta.

Canning-Wilson, C. (2000).Practical aspects of using video in the foreign language classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal,* vol. VI: 11.

Carroll, S. E. (2006). Salience, Awareness and SLA. In O‟Brien, M. G., Shea, C. and Archibald, J. (Eds). *Proceedings of the 8th Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition Conference (GASLA 2006),* pp. 17-24. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.

Carter, R. A. (1987). *Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. Routledge

Caywood, C. (1995). *Library Selection Criteria for WWW Resources* [Online] [Date of citation: 21/3/2010] .http://www6.pilot.infi.net/~carolyn/criteria.html

Cebrian, M. (2003). *Analysis and Description of the new competencies imposed on teachers to adapt to the society of informatio*n. Pixel-Bit. Revista de Medios y Educación, 20. January 2003. pp 73-80

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z. and Thurrell, S.(1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content s pecifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics,* 6: 5-35.

Cenoz, J. (1999). Acquiring Pragmatic Competence: Implications for learning foreign languages.In S. Salaberri (ed.) Applied Linguistics in Foreign languages. University of Almeria .Publication Services.pp.375-401.

Chalker,S.(1994).“Pedagogical Grammar:Principles and problems” in Bygate et al (Eds.) Grammar and the language teacher.Prentice Hall Internatinal.

Chaudron, C. (1985). Intake: On methods and models for discovering learners' processing of input. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 7: 1-14.

_________. (1988).*Second language classrooms.Research on teaching and learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Christenson, T.(1992). Standard English and the EFL classroom. *English Today* 31:11–15.

Cohen,A.(1996).Speech acts.In S. L. McKay and N. H.Hornberger (eds.) *Sociolinguistics and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

________.(1997).Developing pragmatic ability: Insights from the accelerated study of Japanese. In H. M.Cook,K.Hijirida and M. Tahara (eds.) *New trends and issues in teaching Japanese language and culture(Technical Report,15).*Honolulu:University of Hawaii,Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. pp. 133-159.

Cohen, A. and Olshtain, E.(1981).Developing a measure of sociocultural competence: the case of apology. *Language Learning*, 31/1: 113-134.

Collie, J., & Slater, S. (1987). *Literature in the language classroom:A resource book of ideas and activities*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cook, G. (1997). Languages play, language learning. *ELT Journal*: 51.3: 224-231.

_______.(1999).*Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching* .TESOL Quarterly 33(2):185-209.

________. (2001). The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen. Ludicrous invented sentences inlanguage teaching.' *Applied Linguistics*, 22.3: 366-387.

Corder,S.P.(1967).The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5: 161-169

_________. (1971). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *IRAL*, 9: 147-160.

Cross, D. (1984). News and activity in the media. In B. Jones (ed.), *Using authentic resources in teaching French*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research, 19–28.

Crystal,D.(1985).*A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (2nd edition).Oxford: Blackwell.

_________. (1987). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language.* New York: Cambridge University Press

_________. (1997). *English as a global language*.Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.

Crystal,D.and Davy,D.(1975) *Advanced Conversational English*.Harlow,ESSex: Longman.

Day, R. (ed.). (1986). *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

DeKeyser, R. (2003).Implicit and Explicit Learning.In C.Doughty and M.H.Long (eds.) *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Oxford:Blackwell. pp. 313-348.

Dewaele,Marc.J.(2007) Interindividual Variation in self-perceived Oral Profeciency of English L2 users:in E.Alcon Soler and M.Safont Jorda(eds.) *Intercultural Language use and Language Learning*, 141-165.Birbeck college.London,UK.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. Lantolf and G.Appel(eds.)*Vygotskian approaches to second language research.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex. pp. 33-56.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language Learning* 40:45-78.

________. (2011) *Research Methods in Applied linguistics*.Oxford :Oxford University Press.

Doughty,C.(1988).*The effect of instruction on the acquisition of relativization in English as a second language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Pennsylvania.

Doughty,C. and Williams,J.(1998).*Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

__________. (1998).Pedagogical choices in focus on form.In C. Doughtyand J.Williams (eds.) Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.pp.197-261.

DuFon, M. A. (1999). *The acquisition of linguistic politeness in Indonesian as a Secondlanguage by sojourners in naturalistic interactions*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.

Dumitresco, V. (2000) . *Authentic Materials*. U.S. Dept. of State Forum. Vol. 38, N°.2, pp. 20. Available: http://exchanges.state.gov/forum

Dunkel, P.A. (1995). Authentic second/foreign language listening texts: Issues of definit operationalization, and application. In P. Byrd (Ed.), *Material writers' guide* (pp. 95–106). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Eisenstein, M. and Bodman, J. W. (1993). Expressing gratitude in English. In G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka (eds.) *Interlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.pp. 64-81.

Ellis, N. (1994). Introduction: Implicit and Explicit language learning – an overview.in Ellis (ed.) *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. London: Academic Press.pp.1-31.

Ellis, R.(1985).*Understanding second language acquisition*.Oxford:Oxford University Pres

_______.(1992).Learning to communicate in the classroom:A study of two language learners' requests. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*,14:1-23.

________. (1993). *Interpretation-based grammar teaching*. *System 21*, 69-78.

Ellis, R. and Hedge. (1993).'Second Language Acquisition research: *how does it help teachers? An interview with Rod Ellis.*' ELT Journal 47/1

Eslami-Rasekh ,Z. (2005).Raising the pragmatic awareness of language learners.ELT Journal Volume 59/3;doi:10.1093/elt/cci039.Published by Oxford University Press.

Uso-Juan,E. and Alicia Martinez-Flor.(2008).Teaching Intercultural Communicative Competence Through the Four skills.Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses. 21(2008) 157-170.

Faerch, C. and Kasper, G. (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage requestrealization. In S. Blum-Kulka,J.House and G. Kasper (eds.). *Cross-culturalpragmatics: Requests and apologies*.Norwood, NJ:Ablex.

Fraser, B. (1981). On apologizing. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational Routine* (pp.259-271). The Hague: Mouton de Gruyter. In case we add the section FActors affecting indirectness

_________. (1990). Perspectives on politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 14: 219-236.

Fraser,B. and Nolen,W.(1981).The association of deference with linguistic form. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 27: 93-109. competence in L2. In R. Scarcella, E. Anderson and S. Krashen (eds.). *Developing communicative competence in a second language*. New York: Newbury House, 121-137.

Freeman, D. and S. Holden (1986). Authentic listening materials. In S. Holden (ed.), *Techniques ofTeaching*. London: Modern English Publications, 67–69.

Fukuya,Y.and Clark,M.(2001).A comparison of input enhancement and explicit instruction of mitigators. In L. Bouton (ed.)*Pragmatics and language learning,* vol.10.Urbana,IL:University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp.111-130.

Gardner, R. C. and W. E. Lambert (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition.*Canadian Journal of Psychology* 13: 266-272.

Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies.*Applied Linguistics*, 9: 198-217.

Gass, S, & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course.* Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass,S.M.and Varonis, E.(1985).Variations in native speaker speech speech modification to non-native speakers.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition*,7:37-57.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays of face-to-face behaviour*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Books.

________. (1969). *Where the action is. Three essays*. London: The Penguin Press.

Gonzalez, O. G. (1990). *Teaching language and culture with authentic materials*. Ph.D. dissertation,West Virginia University, U.S.A.

Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English?* London: British Council.

Green, G.(1989).Pragmatics and Natural Language Understanding, Mahwah,NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Grice,H.P.(1967).Logic and conversation.In D,Davidson and G,Hramn(eds.)

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole and J. Morgan (eds.) *Syntax and Semantics, vol. 3:Speech Acts.*New York: Academic Press.

Grundy, P. (1995). Doing Pragmatics, London: Edward Arnold.

Guariento, W. and Morley, J. (2001). *Text and Task Authenticity in the EFL Classroom* in *ELTJournal 55(4), pp 347-353*

Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies* (Studies in Interactional Linguistics 1). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hart, I. (1992). Video, foreign languages teaching and the documentary tradition.*System*, 20:1-13.

Harmer,J. (2001).*The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Harris, R. (1997). *Evaluating Internet Research Sources* [Online] [Date of citation: 2/2/2010] http://www.sccu.edu/faculty/R_Harris/evalu8it.htm

Hassall, T. J. (1997). *Requests by Australian learners of Indonesian*.Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Canberra: Australian National University.

Hatch, E. (1978). Discourse analysis and second language acquisition. In E. Hatch (ed.), *Second Language acquisition: A book of readings*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House: 401-435.

_______.(1983).Simplified input and second language acquisition.In R.W.Andersen (ed.) *Pidginization and creolization as language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. pp. 64-88.

Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Henessey, J. M. (1995).Using foreign films to develop proficiency and to motivate the foreign language student. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28: 116-20.

Hill,T.(1997).*The development of pragmatic competence in an EFL context.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Tokyo: Temple University Japan.

Hinkel, E. (1994). Appropriateness of advice as L2 solidarity strategy. *RELC Journal*, 25: 71-93.

Holmes, J. (1986). Compliments and compliment responses in New Zealand English. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 28(4), 485–508.

Holmes, J., & Brown, D. (1987). Teachers and students learning about compliments. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(3), 523–546.

Horribé, H. (2008). The place of culture in teaching English as an international language (EIL) Hiroshima Institute of technology.JALT Journal,vol.30,N° 2.

Houck, N. and Gass, S. M. (1996). Non-native refusal: A methodological perspective. S.M. Gass and J. Neu (eds.) *Speech acts across cultures*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. pp. 45-64.

House, J. (1988). “Oh excuse me please ...”: Apologizing in a foreign language. B. Kettemann, P. Bierbaumer, A. Fill and A. Karpf (eds.) *Englisch als Zweitsprache*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

________. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a Foreign Language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18: 225-252.

Hughes, G. S. (1981). *A handbook of classroom English.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hurley, D. (1992). Issues in teaching pragmatics, prosody, and non- verbal communication. *Applied Linguistics* 13: 259-281.

Hutchinson, T.and A.Waters (1987).*English for specific purposes.* Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D.H. (1974). *Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Izumi,S.(2002).Output,input enhancement,and the noticing hypothesis.An experimental study on ESL relativization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24: 541-577.

Izumi, S. and Bigelow, M. (2000). Does output promote noticing and second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 34/2: 239-279

Johns,T.F.(1994). *From Printout to Handout: Grammar and Vocabulary Teaching in the Context of Data-driven Learning* in Odlin, T. (ed.) *Perspectives on Pedagogical Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson. D. (2001). The cyber children have arrived. *The Futurist*, Washington.

Jourdenais, R.,Ota, M.,Stauffer,S.,Boyson,B.and Doughty,C.(1995).Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis. In R. Schmidt (ed.) *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning (Technical Report,9)* Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.pp. 183-216.

Judd, Elliot L. (1999): "Some Issues in the Teaching of Pragmatic Competence". In E. Hinkle, ed., *Culture in second language teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge UniversityPress.

Kanagy, R. and Igarashi, K. (1997). Acquisition of pragmatic competence in a Japanese immersion kindergarten. In L. Bouton (ed.) *Pragmatics and language learning,* vol. 8. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp. 243-265.

Karpova, L. (1999). *Consider the Following When Selecting and Using Authentic Mater* TESOL Matters, April-May 1999, pp.18.

Kasper,G. (1982).Teaching-induced aspects of interlanguage discourse.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 4: 99-113.

_________. (1989). Interactive procedures in interlanguage discourse. In W.Olesky (ed.) *Contrastive pragmatics* Amsterdam: John Benjamins. pp.189- 229.

__________. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research*, 8: 203-231.

_________.(1997a).Can pragmatic competence be taught? (*NetWork*, *6*) [HTML document].Honolulu:University of Hawaii,Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.Available online at http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06/

__________. (1997b). The role of pragmatics in language teacher education. In K. Bardovi- Harlig and B. S. Hartford (eds.) *Beyond methods: Components of* language *teacher education*. New York: MacGraw-Hill. pp. 113-136.

_________. (2001b). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 33-60.

_________. (2001c). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*, 22/4: 502-530.

Kasper, G. and Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). Interlanguage pragmatics: An introduction. In G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka (eds.) *Interlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press. pp. 3-17.

Kasper,G.and Schmidt,R.(1996).Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies on Second Language Acquisition*, 18: 149-169.

Kellerman, E. (1991). Compensatory strategies in second language research: A critique, a revision, and some (non-) implications for the classroom. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M.Sharwood Smith & M. Swain (eds.), *Foreign/second language pedagogy research: A commemorative volume for Claus Faerch*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, 142-161.

Kienbaum, B. E.,A.J.Russell and S. Welty (1986).*Communicative competence in foreign language* 135 *learning with authentic materials: Final project report*. Washington: Center for International Education,Purdue University.

King, C. P. (1990). *A linguistic and a cultural competence: Can they live happily together*? *ForeignLanguage Annals* 23.1, 65–70

Kobayashi, H. and Rinnert, C. (2003). Coping with high imposition requests: high vs. lowproficiency EFL students in Japan.In A.Martínez-Flor,E.Usó and A. Fernández (eds.)*Pragmatic competence in foreign language teaching*. Castelló:Servei de Publicacions de l'Universitat Jaume I. pp. 161-184.

Koike, D. A. (1996). Transfer of pragmatic competence and suggestions in Spanish foreignlanguage learning. In S. M. Gass and J. Neu (eds.) *Speech acts across cultures*.Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. pp. 257-281.

__________. (1998). The privilege of the intercultural speaker, in Byram,M.and Fleming, M (eds.), *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective:Approaches through Drama and Ethnography*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.16-31.

Kramsch, C.(2008).*Context and culture in language teaching*.Oxford:Oxford University Press.

Kramsch, C. and Sullivan, P.(1996).*Appropriate pedagogy*. ELT Journal, 50(3) , 199-212.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). Principles *and Practices of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, pp.10-15.

___________. (1985). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and implications. London: Longman.

___________. (1994). The input hypothesis and its rivals. In N. Ellis (ed.) *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. London: Academic Press. pp. 45-77.

Kubota, M. (1995). *Teachability of conversational implicature to Japanese EFL learners.IRLT Bulletin*, 9. Tokio: Institute for Research in Language Teaching. pp. 35-67.

Lakoff, R.T. (1975). *Language and woman's place*. New York. Harper and Row.

Lazar, G. (1999). *A Window on Literature*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

_________. (1973). *The logic of politeness; or, minding your p's and q's*. Chicago: Chicago Linguistic Society.

Lee, W. (1995).Authenticity revisited: text authenticity and learner authenticity. *ELTjournal,49* (4), 323–328.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics.* London: Longman.

LeLoup, J.W.(1997). But I only have e-mail - what can I do? *Learning Languages, 2*,2-6

Leloup, J.W. and. Ponterio, R. (1996). *Choosing and Using Materials for a 'Net'Gain in Foreign Language Learning and Instruction.* In V.B. Levine(Ed.), Reaching Out to the Communities We Serve. NYSAFLT Annual Meeting Series,13: 23-32.

Leow, R, (1997). The effects of input enhancement and text length on adult L2 readers'comprehension and intake in second language acquisition. *Applied Language Learning,* 8: 151-182.

Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

__________. (2000). *Presumptive Meanings*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Liddicoat, A. J. and Crozet, C. (2001). Acquiring French interactional norms through instruction. In K. R.Rose and G.Kasper(eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge:Cambridge University Press. pp.125-144.

Little, D., S. Devitt and D. Singleton .(1989). *Learning foreign languages from authentic texts: theoryand practice.* Authentik in association with CILT.

Little, D. and D. Singleton. (1991). Authentic texts, pedagogical grammar and language awareness inforeign language learning. In C. James & P. Garrett (eds.), *Language awareness in the classroom.*London: Longman, 123-132.

LoCastro,V.(2003). *An introduction to pragmatics: Social action for language teachers*. Michigan: Michigan Press.

Littlewood , W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching: an introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

LoCastro,V. (2003).*An introduction to pragmatics:Social action for language teachers.* Michigan: Michigan Press.

Long, M. H. (1983). Does second language instruction make a difference? A review of research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17: 359-382.

__________. (1988). Instructed interlanguage development. In L. Leebe (ed.) *Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives.* New York: Newbury House.pp. 115-141.

___________. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie and T. K. Bhatia (eds.) *Handbook of second language acquisition.* San Diego: Academic Press. pp. 413- 468.

Lonergan, J.(1984). *Video in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lörscher,W.and Schulze,R.(1988).On polite speaking and foreign language classroom discourse. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*,26: 183-199.

Lyons, J. (1981). *Language, Meaning, and Context.* London: Fontana.

Mackey, A. (1995). *Stepping up the pace: Input, interaction and interlanguage development An empirical study of questions in ESL*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Australia: University of Sydney.

Mackey,A.andPhilp,J.(2003).Conversational Interaction and Second Language Development:Recasts,Responses, and Red Herrings*?The Modern Language Journal,* 82: 338-356.

MacMillan, J. H. and Schumacher, S.(1993). *Research in Education: A Conceptual Introduction.* Addison-Wesley Educational Publishers.

Marsh, D. (1990).Towards Teaching a grammar of culture. In Sarinee (ed) *Language teaching methodology for the nineties*.pp.178-191.Singapore:SEAMO regional language centre.

Martinez-Flor, A., & Fukuya,Y. J. (2005). The effects of instruction on learners'production of appropriate and accurate suggestions. *System.* 33: 463-480.
McArthur,T. (2003).*The Oxford guide to world English*.Oxfpord:Oxford University Press

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McDonough, J .and S. McDonough (1997). *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London. Arnold.

Mc Donough, J. & Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and Methods in ELT.* London: Blackwell.

McGarry, D. (1995). *Learner autonomy: The role of authentic texts*. Dublin: Authentik.

McKay, S. L. (2000) . Teaching English as an international language: Implications for cultural materials in the classroom. TESOL Journal, 9(4), 7-11.

McKay, S. L. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mey, J. (1993). *Pragmatics: An introduction*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Miller, S. (1975). *Essential Psychology: Experimental Design and Statistics*. Clay, R. The Chaucer Press. Ltd. Great Britain.

Mindt, D. (1996). English Corpus Linguistics and the Foreign Language teaching Syllabus. In J. Thomas and M. Short (eds.), *Using Corpora for Language Research*.pp.232-247.London

Mishan, F. (2005). *Designing authenticity into language learning materials*. Bristol: Intellect.

Morain, G. G. (1986). *Kinesics and cross-cultural understanding*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Moroishi,M.(1999).Explicit vs. implicit learning:acquisition of the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries under explicit and implicit conditions. *Proceedings of the third Pacific Second Language Research Forum*, vol.2. Pragmatics and Pedagogy. pp. 217-230.

Morris, C.(1938).Foundations of the Theory of signs :In O, Neurath, R .Carnap and C, Morris(eds.) International Encyclopedia of Unified Science I, Chicago.

Morrow, K. (1977). *Authentic Texts in ESP*. In S. Holden (Eds.)English for Specific Purposes. London: Modern English Publications.

Nemser, W. (1971). *Approximative systems of foreign language learners*. International Review of Applied Linguistics, N°.9, pp. 115-23.

Neu, J. (1990). Assessing the role of nonverbal communication in the acquisition of Communicative

Niezgoda,K. and Röver,C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press. pp. 63-79.

Nikula, T.(2002).Teacher talk reflecting pragmatic awareness: A look at EFL and content-based classroom settings. *Pragmatics*, 12/4: 447-467.

Nobuyoshi,J and R.Ellis (1993) *Focused communication tasks and second Language acquisition*.In ELT Journal vol.47 N° 3.pp.203-210.

Norris,J. and Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50: 417-528.

Nunan,D.(1988). *The learner-centred curriculum*.Cambridge:Cambridge University Press

Nunan, D.(1997). *Listen In*. International Thompson Publishing.

Nunan, D. (1989).*Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Nuttall, C. (1996) .*Teaching Reading Skills in a foreign language (New Edition)* Oxford, Heinemann

Ochs, E. (1993). Constructing social identity: A language socialization perspective. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 26(3), 287–306.

Ohta ,A. S.(2001).*Second language acquisition processes in the classroom:learning Japanese*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Olshtain, E. (1983). Sociocultural competence and language transfer: The case of apology. In S. Gass and L. Selinker (eds.) *Language transfer in language learning.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House. pp. 232-249.

Olshtain,E.and Cohen,A.D.(1990).The learning of complex speech act behaviour.TESL Canada Journal ,7:45-65.

Olshtain, E. and Cohen, A. D. (1991). Teaching speech act behavior to nonnative speakers.In M. Celce-Murcia (ed.) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. pp. 154-165.

Omar, A. (1991). How learners greet in Kiswahili: A cross-sectional survey. In L. F. Bouton and Y.Kachru (eds.) *Pragmatics and language learning*, vol.2.Urbana,IL:University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp. 59-73.

Papalia, A. (1986) *A Research Report on Motivating the Language Learner*. NYSALFT Language Association.Bulletin 38, pp.23-24.

Peacock, M. (1997). *The Effect of Authentic Materials on the Motivation of EFL Learners.* ELT Journal,Vol.51, N°2, pp.144-156.

Petzold, R.(2002). Toward a pedagogical model for ELT.*World Englishes* 21 (3): 422–26.

Pica, T. 1996. The essential role of negotiation in the communicative classroom. *Japan Association for Language Teaching Journal*, 18: 241-268.

Porter, D. and J. Roberts.(1981). *Authentic listening activities. ELT Journal* 36.1: 37-47.

Posner, M. I and Snyder, C. R. (1975). *Attention and cognitive control*. In R. L.Solso (Eds.), Information processing and cognition. Hillsdale. N. J:Lawrence· Erlbaum.Pragmatic Failure", *SSLA* 8: 165-180.

Pound, E. (2012). *How to read Part II. Literary Essays.* In Pierre Guillaume de Roux editions.

Reber,A.S.(1989).Implicit learning and tacit knowledge.*Journal of experimental Psychology*,118: 219-235.

_________.(1993).*Implicit learning and tacit knowledge:An essay on the cognitive unconscious*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J .C. (1990). *The language teaching matrix* . Cambridge :Cambridge University Press .

__________. (2001). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching* Cambridge C.U.P

Richards, J. C and Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge UniversityPress

Richards, J. and Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. CUP and New York :Longman.

Rings, L. (1986). Authentic language and authentic conversational texts. *Foreign Language Annals*19.3, 203–208.

Rivers, W.M.(1968). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills.* The University of Chicago Press.

Roberts, C., Davies, E., and Jupp, T. (1992). *Language and Discrimination: A Study of Communication in Multi-ethnic workplaces*. London: Longman.

Robinson, M.A. (1992).Introspective methodology in interlanguage pragmatics research. In G.Kasper(ed.)*Pragmaticsof Japanese as native and target language (Technical Report,3)*.Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. pp. 27-82 .

Robinson, P. (1995).Attention, memory, and the noticing hypothesis. *Language Learning,* 45(2): 283-331.

Rogers, C. V. and F. W. Medley. (1988). Language with a purpose: Using authentic materials in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* 21.5: 467-478.

Rose, K.R. (1997).Pragmatics in the classroom: Theoretical concerns and practical possibilities.In L. F. Bouton (ed.) Pragmatics and language learning, l vol. 8. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. pp. 267-295.

_________. (1999). Teachers and students learning about requests in Hong Kong. In E.Hinkel (ed.) *Culture in second language teaching and learning*.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 167-180.

_________.(2000).An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22: 27-67.

Rose, K. R. and Kasper,G.(eds.) (2001).*Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rossiter, P. and Kondoh, A. S. (2001). Pragmatic transfer in making requests.In K. Matsuno and S.Yoshijima (eds.) *Foreign language theory:From theory to practice*. Tokyo: Asahi Shuppan. pp. 107-154.

Rost, M. (1990). *Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.

Rutherford, W. E. (1987). Second Language Grammar: *Learning and Teaching*. Longman

Ryan, S. (1998). Using films to develop learner motivation. *The Internet TESL Journal*, vol.IV: 11.

Safont, P. (2001). *Meta-pragmatic perspectives on L3 Acquisition: Analysing Requests in the EAP Context.*Unpublished doctoral dissertation.Castellón:Universitat Jaume I.

________. (2003).Instructional effects on the use of request acts modification devices by EFL learners. In A.Martínez-Flor, E. Usó and A. Fernández (eds.) *Pragmatic competence in foreign language teaching.* Castelló: Servei de Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I. pp. 211-232.

Saussure, F. de (1959). *Course in general linguistics*. New York: Philosophical Library.

Savignon, S. J. (1997). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*. (2nd edition) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Sawyer, M. (1992). The development of pragmatics in Japanese as a second language: The sentence-final particle *ne.* In G. Kasper (ed.) *Pragmatics of Japanese as a native and foreign language.* Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.

Scarcella, R. (1979).On speaking politely in a second language. In C. A.Yorio, K. Perkins and J. Schachter (eds.) *On TESOL '79 - The learner in focus.* Washington, D.C.:TESOL.

Schachter, J. (1990).Communicative competence revisited. In B. Harley, P.Allen,J. Cummins and M. Swain (eds.) *The development of second language proficiency.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Schmidt, R. (1983).Interaction, acculturation and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N.Wolfson and E. Judd (eds.) *Sociolinguistics and second Language acquisition.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House. pp.137-174.

_________. (1993). Consciousness, learning and Interlanguage pragmatics.In G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka (eds.) *Interlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

_________. (2001).Attention.In P.Robinson (ed.)*Cognition and second language instruction.* New York: Cambridge University Press. pp. 3-33.

Schmidt, R. & J. Richards. (1980). Speech acts and second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 1.2:127-157.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

_________. (1976). The classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society*, 5: 1-24.

Searle,J.R.,Kiefer, F.and Bierwisch,M.(eds.) 1980. *Speech act theory and pragmatics.* Dordrecht: D. Reidel Publishing Company.

Selinker, L. (1972). *Interlanguage*. *IRAL*, 10: 209-231.

Selinker, L.and Lamendella,D.(1978). *Rediscovering Interlanguage Pragmatics* .London: Longman Group UK limited.

Senior, R. (2005). *Authentic Responses to Authentic Materials* in *English Teaching Professional* 38, pp71

Sharifian, F.(2005).The Persian cultural schema of Shekastehnafsi: A study in compliment responses in Persian and Anglo Australian speakers. *Pragmatics and Cognition*, 13(2), 338–361.

Sharwood, Smith, M.A.(1985).From input to intake :On argumentation in second language acquisition. In Gass and C.Madden (eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*.pp.394-403)

______________.(1991). Speaking to many minds: on the relevance of different types of language information for the L2 learner. *Second Language Research*, 7/2: 118-132.

_____________.(1994).Second language learning: Theoretical foundations. England: Longman Group.

Shehadeh,A.(1999). Non-native speakers' production of modified comprehensible output and second language learning. *Language Learning*, 49/4: 627-6

__________.(2001). Self- and other-initiated modified output during task-based interaction *TESOL Quarterly*, 35/3: 433-457.

Shi Cun.(1989). *Speeches at the IPrA Roundtable Conference* (1, 2, 3), Xi'an: Teaching Research Issues 2, 3, 4.0

Shook,D.(1994).FL/L2 reading, grammatical information and the input-to-intake phenomenon. *Applied Language Learning*, 5/2:57-93.

Shrum, J .and Glisan, E. (1994).Teacher's Handbook: *Contextualized Language Instruction*. America: Heinle and Heinle.

Siegal, M. (1994). *Looking East: Identity construction and white women learning Japanese*.Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Berkeley: University of California at Berkeley.

Slavin,R.E.(2003).*Educational Psychology*.(7th edition) Ally and Bacon: New York.

Sperber, D.and D. Wilson. (1986). *Relevance*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.Sperber, D.and Wilson,D.(1986). *Relevance: Communication and cognition*. Oxford:Blackwell.

Sperber, D and Wilson, D. (1995). *Relevance: Communication and Cognitio*n, Second Edition, Oxford/Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers, pp. 2–9.

Stalnaker, R.C.(1972).Pragmatics. In D.Davidson and G. Harman (eds.) *Semantics of Natural Language*. Dordrecht: Reidel Publishing Company.

Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stuart. G., & Nocon, H. (1996). Second culture acquisition: *Ethnography in the foreign language Classroom*. The Modern Language Journal 80(4), 431-449.

Swaffar, J. (1985). Reading authentic texts in a foreign language: A cognitive model. *The Modern Language Journal* 69.1: 15-34.

Swain, M.(1985).Communicative Competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass and C. Madden (eds*).Input and second language acquisition*, Rowley, M: Newburry House pp.235

Swain,M.(1993).The output hypothesis:*Just speaking and writing aren't enough*.The Canadian Moderrn Language Review,50/1:pp158-164.

Swain, M. (2000). French immersion research in Canada: Recent contributions to SLA and Applied Linguistics.*Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*,20:199-212.

Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: a step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16/3: 371-391.

Swales ,J.(1990).Genre Analysis. English in Academic and Research Settings.Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Takahashi,S.(1996).Pragmatic transferability.Studies on Second language Acquisition,18 :189-223.

Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching*.Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.pp.171-199.

Takahashi, S. and DuFon, M. A. (1989). *Cross-linguistic influence in indirectness: The case of English directives performed by native Japanese speakers*.Unpublished manuscript.Department of English as a Second Language. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.

Takahashi,T. and Beebe, L.M.(1987).The development of pragmatic competence by Japanese learners of English. *JALT Journal*, 8: 131-155.

Takahashi,T. and Beebe,L.M.(1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction.In G.Kasper and S.Blum-Kulka(eds.)*Interlanguage pragmatics*. Nueva York: Oxford University Press. pp. 138-157.

Tatsuki,Y. (2005).*Pragmatics in language learning.Theory and practice*.Oxford University Press

Taylor, D.(1994). Inauthentic authenticity or authentic inauthenticity? *TESL-EJ, 1*(2), 1–12. Retrieved October 1, 2009, from http://www- writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/ej02/a.1.html.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, 4: 91-112.

__________. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*(2). London: Oxford University Press, 91-112.

_________. (1995). *Meaning in interaction. An introduction to pragmatics*. New York: Longman.

Thompson, C. (1997).Presentation at the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Annual Meeting, Nashville.

Truscott, J.(1998).Noticing in second language acquisition:a critical review. *Second Language Research*, 14: 103-135.

Underwood, M. (1989). *Teaching listening*. London. Longman.

van Lier, L.(1988).*The classroom and the language learner*.New York:Longman.

Van Patten, B. (1990). *Theory and Research in Second Language Acquisition and Foreign*

__________. (2000).Thirty years of input (or intake, the neglected sibling). In B.Swierzbin,F.Morris, M.Anderson, C.Klee and E.Tarone (eds.) *Social and cognitive factors in second language acquisition*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press. pp. 287-311.

Vellenga, H. (2004).Learning Pragmatics from ESL and EFL Textbooks: *How likely? The electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*: Volume 8 Number 2.Northern Arizona University.

Verschueren, J. (1999). *Understanding pragmatics*. New York: Arnold.

Wallace, C. (1992). *Reading.* Oxford :Oxford University Press

Washburn, G. N. (2001). Using situation comedies for pragmatic language teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal*, 10/4: 21-26.

Westphal, G. (1986). *On teaching of culture in the FL Curriculum*. Canadian Modern Language Review, 43(1), 89-93.

Weyers, J. (1998).Tele novelas as a tool for teaching. IALL *Journal of language learning and teaching*, 30-15-26.

White, J. (1998). Getting the learners' attention: A typographical input enhancement study.In C.Doughty and J.Williams (eds.) *Focus on form in classroom second languagecquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 85-113.

Widdowson, H. G. (1972). The teaching of English as communication. *English Language Teaching. 27,* 15-19.

___________. (1979). *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*. London: Oxford University Press.

___________. (1990). *Aspects of language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

___________. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly* 28.2: 377-388.

___________. (1998). Context, community, and authentic language. *TESOL Quarterly* 32.4:705-716.

___________. (2003). *Defining issues in English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wierzbicka,A.(1991).*Cross-cultural pragmatics: The semantics of human interaction*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Wolfson, N. (1983). *An emprirically based analysis of complimenting in American English*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Wunderlich, D.(1980).Methodological remarks on speech act theory.In J.R. Searle, F.Kiefer and M. Bierwisch (eds.) *Speech act theory and pragmatics*. Dordrecht: Reidel Publishing Company. pp. 291-312.

Wyburd,J.(1995).*Suggested Strategies for the use of authentic visual materials*,Tuttalia, 11:9

Yule, G. (2008). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Appendices

Appendix One

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear colleagues**,**

Your timely completion of this questionnaire will help me to bring to fruition my PhD research. This questionnaire is designed with the aim that it may gather verifiable data so as to describe as accurately as possible the role of using authentic materials in developing learners' communicative and pragmatic competence. This questionnaire therefore aims at gathering information about the most appropriate ways of implementing these types of materials in the EFL classroom.

You are kindly requested to join in so as to bring your contribution for an in depth understanding of the issue under investigation.

Thank you very much for taking the time to share your experiences and ideas. It should be also noted that I have taken every precaution that honors confidentiality and anonymity of the participants.

Guidelines: *For each item, please tick the right box or write in the space provided.*

Section One: Personal Information

1. Name of your university: … …………………………......

2. Gender: Female teacher □ Male teacher □

3. Degree(s) held:

BA (Licence) □

MA (Master / magister)

Ph.D (Doctorate)

4. Employment Status:

Full time □ Part time □

5. Length of living/staying in English-speaking countries:

a. Never been to English-speaking countries □

b. Lived □ …………………… Stayed for. □…………………..

6. Work Experience: (Number of years)..

Section Two: Teaching the Oral Expression Course

7**.** Is teaching the Oral Express module (OE) one of your major subjects?

a. Yes □ b. No □

8. How long have you been teaching the Oral Expression course?

3 Years □

3 to 5 years □

5 to 10 years □

More than 10 years □

9. Have you already taught the third year level?

a. Yes □ b. No □

10. In teaching the oral expression course, do you use?

a. An official program. □

b. You devise your own program. □

In case your answer is '**b**', please say why?

11. What do you think should be the overall objective of teaching the oral expression course?

a. to allow learners to practise the TL orally . □

b. to make learners communicate meaning . □

c. to make learners able to use the TL appropriately in different situations . □

12. What methodology do you adopt to reach your objectives?

a. The audio-lingual method. □

b. The communicative method. □

c. Eclecticism. no □

13. In teaching oral expression you devote more time to:

a. Listening. □

b. Speaking. □

c. Balance. □

14. Your students face difficulties in:

a. Listening b. □

b. Speaking b. □

c. Both b. □

15. Which variety of English do you use in your classroom?

a. RP (Received Pronunciation) . □

b. General American. □

c. Both. □

16. Which variety of English would you like your students to be exposed to?

a. RP (Received Pronunciation) . □

b. General American (GA). □

17. Which types of activities do you usually use in teaching oral expression?

a. Role plays. □

b. Plays. □

c. Oral presentation. □

d. Games and quizzes. □

e. Monologues. □

Section Three: The methodological and pedagogical implications for using AM in the FL classroom

18. What role do you attribute to input?

a. Important. □

b. Very important. □

c. Not really important. □

19. What type of input do you usually use?

a. Authentic (not specially meant for pedagogical purposes) . □

b .Non-authentic (pedagogical materials) . □

c. Both. □

20. How often do you use AM?

a. Always. □

b. Often. □

c. Rarely. □

d. Never. □

21. Which, according to you, are more effective?

a. authentic materials b. □

b. non-authentic materials b. □

22. You use AM because they are:

a- Motivating b. □

b- Attractive b. □

c- Demotivating □

23. Which materials do your students better respond to?

a. Authentic □

b. Non-authentic □

24. How do you find the use of AM?

a. Easy □

b. Difficult □

If your answer is ‘b’, what difficulties do you usually encounter when working with AM?

25. Which type of AM do you generally work with in your classroom?

a. Printed □

b. Audio □

c. Video □

d. All of them □

26**.** What criterion do you consider when selecting AM?

a. Linguistic □

b. Cultural □

c. Cognitive □

27**.** These are some of the difficulties your students may face when working with AM, rank them according to their order of difficulty.(Indicate by 1-2-3-4-5)

a. Pronunciation (accents, aspects of connected speech etc.)

b. Vocabulary (new lexical items, idiomatic expressions, specific vocabulary etc.)

c. Speech delivery □

d. Cultural content □

e. Background noise □

28**.** Do you keep a special file for AM?

a. Yes □ b. No □

If **yes**, do you organize your files according to?

a. The nature of the material (i.e. whether the material is audio, video or printed) □

b. The type of the material (i.e. whether the material is a film, a play, a song, a show, a radio or TV news bulletin ,a newspaper article, a poem etc.) □

c. The complexity of the material (i.e. thematic, linguistic or cultural) □

d. The teaching goals (different materials serve different objectives) □

29**.** How would you assess your mastery of telematic communication technology?

a. Good □

b. Fairly good □

c. Bad □

30. How do you qualify training in the use of ICT?

a- compulsory □ b- optional □ c- unnecessary □

Section Four: Communicative Competence

31. A learner is considered as having communicative competence if:

a. S/he masters the linguistic aspects of the TL □

b. S/he is able to use the TL language correctly and appropriately □

c. S/he is aware of what is socially appropriate in the TL community. □

d. S/he use the TL as native speakers do □

32. How would you qualify the barriers your students face when communicating in English?

a. Linguistic □

b. Sociocultural □

c. Both □

d. Other (Please elaborate) □

33. How would you assess your students' level of competence in communication?

a. Good □ b. Above Average □ c. Average □ d. below average□

34**.** In your opinion what are the competencies your students should possess to be communicatively competent? ((*Please arrange the following according to their order of importance from 1 to 5 by putting the appropriate number in the box provided for each option.)*

a. Linguistic competence □

b. Sociolinguistic competence □

c. Discourse competence □

e. Strategic competence □

e. Pragmatic competence □

In case it is below the average, do you attribute this to?

a. The student himself/herself □

b. The instructional material □

c. The methodology employed □

d. Other, specify □

35. Do you think that a longer exposure to AM will help in developing students' communicative competence?

a. Yes □ b. No □ c. Not really □

36. Do you think that the mastery of the structural aspects of the TL will in itself ensure effective communication?

a. Yes □ b. No □

If your answer is **no**, what do you suggest?

....

....

Section Three: The development of learners' pragmatic competence

37**.** Why don't teachers teach pragmatic aspects of the TL?

a. Lack of training □

b. Students' level □

c. Time allotment □

d. Limited knowledge of TL culture and language. □

e. Confusion with which aspects of pragmatics to cover. □

38**.**Where do you think your students acquire most of their pragmatic awareness (competence)?

a. Teacher's talk □

b. General culture courses □

c. Authentic materials (films, magazines, books TV etc.) □

d. Social on line sites (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) □

e. Other (Please elaborate) □

39**.** Will you accept to attend a training program about how to teach pragmatics?

a. Yes □ b. No □

40**.** Do you think that teaching a language requires teaching its culture?

a. Yes □ b. No □

41. Is developing your students' pragmatic competence one of your teaching goals?

a. Yes □ b. No □

42. In your opinion, how should pragmatics be taught?

a. Implicitly □ b. Explicitly □

43. Do the materials you use offer opportunities for learners to develop their pragmatic competence?

a. Yes □ b. No □

If your answer is 'no', please justify.

44**.** In your opinion, how could pragmatic aspects be effectively taught?

a. Through awareness raising activities that help learners learn and use the language. □

b. Through teacher's talk. □

c. Through explicit teaching using metapragmatic explanation about form function □

d. Through exposure to materials reflecting pragmatic aspects. □

45. Which of the following AM are the most efficient in developing learners' pragmatic competence?

1. Movies □
2. TV programmes □
3. Radio programmes □
4. Songs □
5. Newspaper and magazine articles □
6. Literature (texts, plays, novels, short stories, poems etc.) □

(Please rank the following according to their order of importance from 1 to 6 by putting in the box the appropriate number in the box provided)

46**.** Do you think that teaching pragmatics occupies an important place in the teaching of English?

a. Yes □ b. No □

47**.** Do you think that the time allotted to the teaching of pragmatics is sufficient?

a. Yes □ b. No □

48. At which level should the module of pragmatics be incorporated in the curriculum?

a. First Year □

b. Second Year □

c. Third Year □

Further comments. *Please feel free to add any further comments.*

....

....

Appendix Two
Listening comprehension pre-test

Listening :

Task 1 . Listen to the recording and find out the main causes of the disasters mentioned in the report.

Task 2: Listen to the recording and complete the chart below.

Name	Date of sinking	Age of tanker	Location
Aegean sea			
Exxon			
Katina			
Kirki			

Task 03 . Look at the persons listed below. As you listen, decide in what order you hear them speak and complete the boxes with the appropriate letter. Three people will not be used.

A- A Green party campaigner
B- A member of the public
C- A central government spokesman
D- A local inhabitant
E- A ship-owner spokesman
F- A radio newsreader
G- A local official
H- A n insurance broker

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Task 04. Look at the topic listed below. As you listen, put the topics in the order in which you hear then mentioned and complete the boxes with the appropriate letter.

A- Providing aid for the local people
B- Offering compensation payments
C- Preventing future disasters
D- Describing effect on local people's lives
E- Criticising government policies
F- Tightening international regulations
G- Keeping transport costs down.
H- Explaining the causes of the accident.

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Appendix Three
The movie

Title: 'A Family Thing' Copyright 1996.United Artists

Duration: 108 minutes

Synopsis (See page 341/2)

Segmentation: According to the scenes; the duration of a scene is about 8 to 15 minutes

Episode one

Previewing activities

Aim: Film brainstorming .Students answer the following question

1. What kind of movies do you generally watch? (Comedy:, drama, romance, -adventure, horror etc.)
2. What kind of movies would you like to see in class?
3. Name or two three movies you really enjoyed. Give your reasons.
4. What attracts you to see certain movies?
   a- Actor – actress
   b- The story
   c- The country
   d- The scenes
   e- Word of mouth
5. What does the title:' a Family Thing' tell you?

Viewing activities **Segment one** Earl Pitcher's Family

Activity One. **Aim:** To make learners familiar with the content of the movie.

Learners watch the first segment of the movie and answer the following questions.

1. What's Earl Pitcher's job?
2. With whom does he live?
3. Is his father still alive?
4. Who died in Earl's family?
5. What did she leave after her death?
6. What does the letter say?
7. What did she ask Earl to do?
8. What did Earl want to do after he read the letter?

Activity two:_ Segment two: Earl's feelings after the discovery of the truth.

1. How would you describe Earl's feelings after he read the letter?

2. Pick out utterances that show Earl's feelings after the discovered the truth about his mother.

3. What do you think would Earl do after having discovered the truth?

Post viewing : Activities : Class discussion

1. Why do you think his father' wife kept the secret for so long?

2. Why did his father lie?

3. Write a short summary of this episode. Start like this:

Earl Pitcher is an American southerner who lives with his wife and …..

Appendix Four

Episode two

Previewing

Aim: To prepare the students for the next part of the movie.

a. A brief summary of the previous episode through questions.

b. Students are asked to anticipate about what will happen in this episode.

Viewing activities:

Segment one .Activity one: While you watch say whether the following statements are true or false. (Correct the wrong ones)

Statements	True/False
a- Earl thinks it is worth looking for his black half brother.	
b- Earl drives his truck to Chicago.	
c- Ray is a white southerner	
d- Ray works as a bus driver for the city.	
e- Earl got lost in Chicago and couldn't find his nigger brother	
f- Ray was surprised because he has never heard about Earl's story before	
g- Ray was very pleased to meet his half brother Earl	
h- Earl received a warm welcome from Ray.	

Activity two: Watch again the segment and pick out expressions that show Ray attitude to Earl's father.

Segment two. Activity one: While you watch answer the following questions.

a- What happened to Earl in Chicago?

b- Why couldn't he sleep or travel? Why didn't he stay in hospital?

c- Who is Virgil?

d- What did Ray say to Virgil about Earl?

e- Did Ray really save Earl's life in Korea?

f- Why did he lie?

Segment three. Activity one: Watch the following segment and answer the questions below.

a- Why did Earl leave Ray's house?

b- Does aunt T knows about Earl's story?

d- Pick out utterances that show the she knows the story.

Activity two: Find a suitable title to this episode.

Post-viewing: In your own words write a synopsis of this episode.

Appendix Five

Episode three

Previewing: Summary of the previous episode (the main events through question answer technique)

Segment one Activity one: Answer the following questions.

a- Why did Earl leave the house?

b- Pick out expressions that made Ray very angry.

c- Does aunt T know about Earl's story?

d- What did aunt T ask Ray to do that night?

e- Could he find Earl?

Segment two: Watch the following scenes and answer the questions below.

a- Did Earl accept to return to Ray' house?

b- Where did he spend the night?

c- What happened to Earl that night? Mention the main events.

d- Who hit Earl with a rock when he was a boy? Did Earl know that?

Segment three: While you watch answer the following questions

a- What did Aunt T show Ray and Earl?

b- Did Earl know the person on the picture?

c- Now listen to Aunt T telling Ray and Earl the story of thei mother and try to remember as much as you can.

d- Now write the conditions in which Willa Mae died.

Segment four: Watch the last part of the movie and answer the questions below.

a- Why did Ray and Earl drive to Arkansas?

B- In a few lines, sum up the main events of the episode. Give it a suitable title

Appendix Six
Episode four

Aim: A debate session to critically assess the movie.

Procedure: Students watch the whole movie and follow the guidelines below to conduct a debate about the movie.

1. Once you finish watching the movie, provide a synopsis. You don’t need to include all the details.
2. State your opinion about the movie.
3. What characters do you most identify with? Describe their personality traits.
4. In your opinion, what was the message the producer wanted to convey?
5. How does the film relate to the American history?
6. Thumbs up thumbs down.

Appendix Seven
The newspaper article (1)

Title of the article: 35,000 FOR BOY OF SIX OF SIX LABBELLED BRAT

Pre-reading . Aim: To make students familiar with the content of the story.

Procedure: Teacher introduces the term brat.

Teacher encourages students to guess the content of the story.

Teacher introduces new lexical items such as: libel / terror tot Reading comprehension

Activity one . Aim: global understanding of the passage.

Procedure: students skim through the passage and fill in the information below.

Father's name:	Cause of the handicap:
Mother's name:	Place:
Age:	Newspaper involved:
Handicap:	Consequences of the story:

Activity two. Aim: General comprehension of the passage

Procedure: Students read the passage and select the main idea of the text

The story is about:

a- A boy who became handicapped in a car accident.

b- A boy who the cause of the break-up of his parents' marriage.

c- A boy who needs treatment in the USA.

d- A boy who was treated badly by a newspaper.

Activity three. Aim: Detailed understanding of the passage.

Procedure: students read the passage and answer the following questions.

1. How did the Sun label the boy?
2. What claims were made by the Sun newspaper?
3. Why was Jonathan called 'terror tot'?
4. What does the mother say about her son?
5. Why does Mrs. Hunt want the award to be paid in a week?
6. Why did Jonathan's family sue?

Activity four: Aim: to summarize the main events of the story.

Procedure: Students read the passage again and do the tasks below.

1. Supposing you were Jonathan's family would react the same way?

2. Have you ever heard of a similar story in your country?

3. In your own words give a brief summary of the story.

Post-reading

1. Read the text and underline the sentences that show the consequences of this libel that show

2. Pick out sentences of phrases Jonathan's mother's grief.

Appendix Eight

The newspaper article 1

£35,000 FOR BOY OF SIX LABELLED A BRAT

Handicap kid's libel triumph

A BOY of six branded the "worst brat in Britain" by a newspaper won £35,000 libel damages yesterday.

Handicapped Jonathan Hunt was said to have been a "terror tot" who wrecked his parent's home, cut off his own ear and killed the family cat.

But the claims were lies. Tragic Jonathan — the youngest person in Britain ever to sue for libel — had behavioural problems after developing meningitis at birth.

Yesterday Jonathan's 36-year-old mother Josephine, said the stress of the case had helped cause the break-up of her marriage.

And the mother of four revealed that despite the payout she still could not afford treatment her son needs in the US.

The claims were made in the Sun newspaper, which was ordered by the High Court to pay costs.

An article called Jonathan Britain's "naughtiest kid" and quoted Josephine, of Sawsdon, Cambs, as saying: "He's a horror.

"My three others are perfectly normal. I keep asking myself, 'Why me?'"

Later, The Sun carried a letter from Josephine saying her son was handicapped, that he severed his ear in an accident and that the cat had died from sickness.

It was headlined "Monday moan."

Mrs Hunt, who shares the damages, wanted the award paid in a week. But The Sun asked for three weeks to pay because the cheque had to come from their Peterborough accounts HQ.

Mr Justice Otton ordered that the money should be paid as quickly as possible and said: "The Romans managed to get to Peterborough.

"I cannot accept that it will take this company 21 days to pay this cheque."

Appendix Nine

The Newspaper Article (2)

Title of the article: Chips are down for jobs

1. Pre-reading activities

Aim: Preparing the students for the reading tasks. Introducing the issue of the article.

Task: Students answer the following question

a. 1. How often do you read newspapers?

2. Which section do you read in the newspaper?

b. 1. Read the headline and guess what the article is about.

2.While-Reading:

Activity one: Aim: Global comprehension of the passage

1. The text is about: a- Politics

b- Sports

c- Business

d- Employment

Skim through the passage and underline the words, phrases, or sentences that justify your answers.

Activity two. Aim: A more detailed understanding of the text.

Answer the following question.

1. What are silicon chips?

2. What kind of worries were fashionable before the silicon revolution?

3. Who discussed the problem of the effect of the microprocessor on employment, in Nice last week?

3. How many occupations could, in theory, be replaced by microprocessors?

Activity three: Who said what and why?

Aim: To scam the text in order to find and evaluate opinions.

Read the second part of the passage and fill in the tables below.

a-

Name	**Occupation**	**Opinion**	**Optimistic/Pessimistic**

b-

Person	Quote
George Champine	
Carolyn Hayman	
Ray Curnow	

Activity four Aim : More detailed comprehesion of the passage

Answer the following questions according to the passage.

1. In which field and for what purposes are microprocessors already used?
2. In which field and for what purposes do you think they will be used in the future?
3. In what ways could microprocessors change our everyday life?
4. It has been said that the transistor was the first revolution in electronics, and the microprocessor is the second. Do you agree with this statement? Why? Why not?

Activity five.

Compare the Japanese and the British attitude towards microprocessors.

Post-reading. **Follow up activities**. Answer the following questions.

1. In your own words, describe the main issue of the article.
2. Write sentences that describe your opinion and evaluation of the article.

Appendix Ten :The newspaper article 2

Chips are down for jobs

from NIGEL HAWKES, our Science Correspondent in Nice

ARE FIVE million jobs in Britain about to be replaced by tiny chips of silicon? It is a prospect that is sending shivers down the spines of Ministers, civil servants, academics and trade union leaders.

The silicon chips are, of course, microprocessors, minute but highly sophisticated electronic circuits suited to an almost infinite variety of applications, from the humble pocket calculator to the control of entire automated factories and warehouses.

The effects the microprocessor will have on employment are the subject of intense argument. For those who like to keep their worries in fashion, the silicon chip revolution has taken over from pollution, the energy crisis, and the bomb as a subject of concern.

For three days last week a small group which included Government, political, trade union, industry and press representatives discussed the problem at the Sperry Univac Executive Centre at Saint-Paul-de-Vence, near Nice.

Almost everybody agreed there was a problem. The list of jobs that could in theory be replaced by microprocessors is long and alarming.

A report prepared for the Computer, Systems and Electronics Requirements Board, but still unpublished, lists 29 occupations at risk, starting with proof readers and including postmen, draughtsmen, secretaries, filing clerks, meter readers, plateprinters, assembly workers, warehousemen, sales clerks and many others.

But the real issue is not whether jobs will be lost in some sectors of the economy—that is a normal effect of advancing technology—but whether they will be replaced by other jobs in the new industries the microprocessor will replace. There the arguments begin.

The American and Japanese view is that concern over the issue has been exaggerated. Dr George Champine, director of Advanced Systems for Sperry Univac in the United States, claimed that 'literally thousands' of new products would emerge from the microprocessor revolution.

'Every time technology advances people forecast unemployment. The mechanical reaper, the cotton gin, and the first computers 30 years ago were all supposed to cause massive unemployment,' Dr Champine said, 'But it didn't happen.'

Miss Carolyn Hayman, a young economist from the Central Policy Review Staff—the Government's 'Think Tank'—also took a relatively optimistic view. She thought it likely that the service industries could continue to absorb people displaced.

The gloomy viewpoint was put by Dr Ray Curnow, of the First Policy Research Unit at Sussex University, who said that Britain needs to find new jobs at a staggering rate, equal to 6 per cent a year, just to stay where it is.

'It will be economic to use the microprocessor to do the most trivial things,' he said.

One of the trivial things microprocessors can already do is to dispense cocktails. At the press of a button the 'electronic bartender' will deliver a perfect Bloody Mary or a Martini mixed to individual taste. Participants at the seminar were stirred rather than shaken by this news.

The Japanese Government has switched its emphasis away from heavy industries like shipbuilding and steel making and towards microprocessor-based products.

So the option of going slowly in Britain seems to be closed, unless we retreat into a siege economy and ban imports. Either we embrace the microprocessor and lose jobs through displacement or we reject it and lose jobs through a catastrophic loss of international competitiveness. It is a challenging and alarming choice.

from *The Observer*

chips are down: the time has come to face the problem

Appendix eleven
The newspaper article (3)

Title of the article: Euromania

Pre-reading. Aim: To familiarize the students with the content of the article.

Step one: Teacher introduces new voc-items related to the content of the article using word association technique.
Europe – European Union (EU).Economic and political union.

Teacher introduces EU institutions.

The European Commission / The European Council/The European Court of Justice / The European Parliament / The EU Capital / free movement of people , goods and services .

Step two: Teacher introduces Euromania

While-Reading

Activity one. **Aim:** Global understanding of the article.

Students read the article as quickly as possible and select the idea that best summarize the article.

a- The hallowed language of food in Europe

b- The European commission's proposal on the language of food

c- Eurocrats' proposal to unify the language of food

d- Protection of consumers through regulations about the quality of products

Activity two. Aim: detailed comprehension of the article

Students answer the following questions:

1. What has the European Commission proposed recently?

2. What was the EU parliament‘s reaction?

3. What examples of food are mentioned in the text?

4. How does Ken Collins qualify this new proposed regulation?

5. What is the aim behind this new law?

Activity three. Aim: A more detailed analysis of the article

Students read the article and pick out words, phrases, and sentences that express Collin's indignation against this law.

Post-reading. Wrap up activity.

Students read the article and do the tasks below:

1. Who would you agree with: Eurocrats or Collins? Say why?

2. Does the same case exist in you region? Exemplify.

3. Using the above article write a short interview with Collins on the same issue.

Appendix Twelve:The newspaper article 3

Euromania haunts language of food

From GEORGE BROCK
IN BRUSSELS

EUROCRATS are trying to interfere with the hallowed language of food. Outraged members of the European Parliament have told them to stop rewriting the law on which sprouts can be called Brussels sprouts.

Ken Collins, Labour MEP for Strathclyde East, has asked the European Commission to withdraw a proposal which would require eccles cakes to come from Eccles, the Brussels sprout to come only from the Belgian capital and hamburgers to hail from Hamburg. He describes the draft regulation on the "protection of geographical indications and designations of origin" as "meddlesome, unworkable and unnecessary".

In a clumsy attempt to tell consumers about the quality of a product the commission has proposed that any product containing a placename should be "produced or processed in the corresponding geographical area". Mr Collins' splendidly indignant polemic on behalf of Dundee cake and Peking duck explains why the regulation would be unworkable. Limiting himself only to English usage, he lists cakes from Eccles, Dundee and Pontefract, frankfurters and Yorkshire pudding. "Is the commission seriously suggesting," he writes, "that in future they can only retain these names if produced in the places whose name they bear?"

The planned edict in the use of generic names is an attempt at thought control, Mr Collins says. "If people choose to call a particular pastry filled with meat, potato and carrots a 'Cornish pasty', this is because they find it simple and convenient to do so. You cannot control this process by legislation."

Sometimes, however, Jacques Delors, president of the commission, must wonder if he can ever succeed in pleasing anybody. He is now in trouble with the European Parliament's animal welfare group for refusing to *extend* community laws to Europe's 1,000 zoos. The commission has been discussing suggestions that the community should lay down minimum welfare and safety standards for zoos for a couple of years. But M Delors and one of the German commissioners have now stalled the idea on the grounds that the issue should be left to national governments.

Appendix Thirteen

The poem: The Road Not Taken

By Robert Frost

Objectives: a- Read the poem poetically

b- Interpret the poem stanza by stanza

c- Debate on the situations involving making decisions

Pre-reading: Students answer the following questions

1. What kind of choices do you have to make in life .Write down some of them.

2. Before you read: You are going to read a famous American poem about a choice that somebody had to make. It is called 'The road not taken'. Here are some words from the poem check that you understand them.

1. What is the rhyme scheme of the poem?

2. What is the mood created in the poem?

3. Who do you think is talking in the poem?

While-reading: Aim: General comprehension

Activity one: Stanza number one

1. Describe the season shown in the poem.

2. What is the problem encountered by the person in this poem?

3. What are the differences between the two roads?

4. Do you think that it was a difficult decision?

5. What does this stanza resemble in real life situation?

Activity two: Stanza number two. Students answer the following questions.

1. Which road did he choose? Describe it.

2. What did he mean by 'Because it was grassy and wanted wear'?

3. Why do you think he chose the road?

Activity three: Stanza three.

1. What are the evidences that he chose the road less travelled by? I n what line?

2. Does he regret his decision? Why or why not?

Activity four: Stanza four.

1. What do the 16^{th} and 17^{th} lines stand for?

2. What 'difference' does the person mean?

3. In relation to the writer' life, what does this stanza mean?

Activity five: language work

1. What words does the author use to avoid repeating the word 'road'?

2. The author has made several sentences much shorter and has also changed the word order, can you rewrite them?

e.g. The road not taken = The road which was not taken.

And sorry I could not travel both

Then took the other, as just as fair

And having perhaps the better claim

And be one traveler, long I stood

Yet knowing how way leads on to way

Post-reading

1. Do you like the poem? Say why?
2. A moral is something you learn from a story, a poem or an experience. Does this poem have a moral?
3. Think of some major decisions a person makes in his/her life. Make a list with a partner.
4. Have you ever made an important decision? Did you take the road less travelled?

Appendix Fourteen

The Road Not Taken

Two roads diverged in a yellow wood
And sorry I could not travel both
And be one traveler, long I stood
And looked down one as far as I could
To where it bent in the undergrowth

Then took the other, as just as fair
And having perhaps the better claim,
Because it was grassy and wanted wear;
Though as for that, the passing there
Had worn them really about the same,

And both that morning equally lay
In leaves no step had trodden black.
Oh, I kept the first for another day!
Yet knowing how way leads on to way,
I doubted if I should ever come back.
I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:
Two roads diverged in a wood and I—
I took the one less traveled by,
And that has made all the difference.

Robert Frost

Appendix Fifteen

The Songs

Four songs were selected and used in the experimental for the authentic listening materials. Almost the same listening stages and activities were applied with all the songs.

<u>Song n° 1</u>

Title: 'The Logical Song'(Super Tramp)

Duration : 4mns

Main skills: Listening/Speaking

Complementary skills: Note taking/Reading

Procedure:

1. Pre-listening: Aims: -To make students aware of the content of the song.

- To make them involved in listening.

2. While listening:

1st listening: Aim: To identify the theme of the song.

2nd listening: Aim: To listen for the gist for the gist of the song.

Students listen carefully and complete the missing words.

3rd listening : Aim: Self correction

4th listening : Aim : To perform the song

3.Post-listening : Aim : To check and consolidate learners'

A class discussion is conducted on the topic treated in the song.

"The Logical Song" by **Supertramp**

When I was young

It seemed that life was so **wonderful**

A **miracle**, oh it was beautiful, **magical**

And all the birds in the trees

Well they´d be singing so **happily**

Oh **joyfully**, oh playfully watching me

But then they sent me away

To teach me how to be **sensible**

Logical, oh **responsible,practical**

And they showed me a world

Where I could be so **dependable**

Oh **clinical**, oh **intellectual, cynical**

There are times when all the world´s **asleep**
The questions run too **deep**
For such a simple man
Won´t you please, please tell me what we´ve learned
I know it sounds **absurd**
But please tell me who i am

Now watch what you say
Or they´ll be calling you a **radical**
A **liberal**, oh **fanatical, criminal**
Oh won´t you sign up your name
We´d like to feel you´re
Acceptable, respectable, oh **presentable**, a vegetable!

At night when all the world´s asleep
The questions run too deep
For such a simple man
Won´t you please, please tell me what we've learned
I know it sounds absurd
But please tell me who I am, who I am ,who I am.

Song n° 2

Title: In the Ghetto (Elvis Presley)

Duration : 3 mns

Main skills: Listening/Speaking

Complementary skills: Note taking/Reading

Procedure:

1. Pre-listening: Aims: **-**To introduce the theme of the song using the title of the song.

- To make them involved in listening.

2. While listening:

1st listening: Aim: - General comprehension

- Students try to remember as a much as they can from the song

2nd listening: Aim: - Detailed comprehension.

- Students listen carefully and complete the missing lines.

3rd listening: Aim: Correction

-Students listen to the song with the script of the song completed and try to imitate the singer.

- Students sing the song alone.

3. Post-listening: Aim: - To check and consolidate learners' understanding of the song.

- Students were asked to give their opinion about the song.

-The difficulties they met while listening to the song..

- The students were asked about the message the song carried.

- Other aspects that attracted their attention(rhyme, weak forms, contractions, stress and vocabulary items)

In the Ghetto by Elvis Presley

As the snow flies

On a cold and gray Chicago mornin'

A poor little baby child is born

In the ghetto

And his mama cries

Cause if there's one thing that she don't need

It's another hungry mouth to feed

In the ghetto

People, don't you understand
The child needs a helping hand
Or he'll grow to be an angry young man some day
Take a look at you and me,
Are we too blind to see,
Do we simply turn our heads

And look the other way
Well the world turns
And a hungry little boy with a runny nose
Plays in the street as the cold wind blows
In the ghetto

And his hunger burns
So he starts to roam the streets at night
And he learns how to steal
And he learns how to fight
In the ghetto

Then one night in desperation
A young man breaks away
He buys a gun, steals a car,
Tries to run, but he don't get far
And his mama cries
As a crowd gathers 'round an angry young man
Face down on the street with a gun in his hand
In the ghetto

As her young man dies,
On a cold and gray Chicago mornin',
Another little baby child is born
In the ghetto
And his mama cries

Song n° 3

Title: ‘Another Day in Paradise’(Phil Collins)

Duration: 5.22mns

Main skills: Listening/Speaking

Complementary skills: Note taking/Reading

Procedure:

1. Pre-listening: Aims: -To introduce the theme of the song

- To prepare them for the listening tasks.

2. While listening:

1st listening: Aim: To identify the theme of the song.

2nd listening: Aim: To listen for the gist for the gist of the song.

Students listen carefully and complete the missing words.

3rd listening : Aim: Self correction

4th listening : Aim : To perform the song

3.Post-listening : Aim : To check and consolidate learners’

A class discussion is conducted on the topic treated in the song.

Another Day In Paradise

By Phil Collins

She calls out to the man on the street
"Sir, can you help me?
It's cold and I've nowhere to sleep,
Is there somewhere you can tell me?"

He walks on, doesn't look back
He pretends he can't hear her
Starts to whistle as he crosses the street
Seems embarrassed to be there

Oh think twice, it's another day for
You and me in paradise

Oh think twice, it's just another day for you,
You and me in paradise

She calls out to the man on the street
He can see <u>she's been crying</u>
She's got <u>blisters</u> on the <u>soles</u> of her feet
Can't walk but <u>she's trying</u>

Oh think twice...

<u>Oh Lord</u>, is there nothing more anybody can do
Oh Lord, there <u>must be something</u> you can say

You can tell from the <u>lines</u> on her <u>face</u>
You can see that she's been there
<u>Probably</u> been <u>moved</u> on from every place
'Cos she didn't <u>fit</u> in there

Oh think twice...

Appendix Sixteen

The Radio Programme

Title of the programme: Leadership

Main skills: Listening/Speaking

Complementary skills: Note taking/Reading

Procedure:

1. Pre-listening: Aims: To Prepare students for the listening tasks :

a. Students are shown photos of leaders from the past and are asked to guess who they are and the countries they come from. (a list of names is provided but in disorder)

b. Students listen to an extract from a radio interview with a historian talking about the characteristics of leaders and find out which words he is likely to use.

history – great - ambition – fun - side – politician - holiday- hero – teacher –tyrant - unhappy - soldier- work - outstanding - warrior – countryside - business-follower- plunder - wartime - spiritual- dangerous - madman – unemployment

2. While-listening

Activity1: Students listen to the second part of the interview and complete the gaps in the manuscript below.

-But were all the great leaders of the past military chiefs?

- Oh no, of course there were………the great spiritual leaders who have changed the world. Men ………Luther and Gandhi ………I think it is true to say that most people, even today, continue to identify great leadership with military models……….,just consider the criticisms our politicians get fired at them. How often do we hear them being compared unfavourably to wartime heroes such as Churchill o de Gaulle? Even though the job at hand is different .What good military strategy be for dealing with unemployment ?I'm pretty sure it would be of little use ,…….even though these models no longer bear any relation to the complex workings of the modern world, we still measure ministers or company directors against them

Activity 2 : Students listen to the final part of the interview and put the characteristics which the speaker suggests are common to all successful leaders in the order he mentions them.

a) Successful leaders achieve their goals.

b) They are prepared to do anything to achieve their objectives.

d) They know exactly what their jobs are.

d) Their objectives are always for the good of ordinary people.

e) They maintain absolute concentration on their aim.

Activity 3. Students hear various speakers talking about people they admire for their leadership qualities. They will hear the speakers twice.

Task 1. Look at the types of leader listed below. As you listen, decide in what order you hear them mentioned and complete the boxes with the appropriate letter. Three speakers will not be used.

A Research team leader

B Football manager

C Military officer

D TV Director of programmes

E Museum director

F Head of an advertising agency

G Politician

H School headmaster

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Task 2. Look at the leadership qualities listed below. As you listen, put the qualities in the order in which you hear them mentioned and complete t he boxes with the appropriate letter. Three qualities will not be used.

A a good listener

B intellectual courage

C very decisive

D a clear knowledge of goals

E ability to delegate

G very determined

F a sense of humour

H dislike unpleasant behaviour

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

3. Post-listening

Task1. Of the following which do you think are essential for a successful leader?

ambition - arrogance - authority – compassion - courage - determination enthusiasm - generosity - honesty - impartiality - intelligence - self-confidence self-discipline - single – mindedness

Task2. Can you mention Top Ten Impressive Leaders?

Appendix Seventeen

Post-test

Listening comprehension:

Task 01 : You are going to hear somebody asking three members of the public questions about the facilities in an airport. Listen to the interviews and complete the chart below:

Destination			
Reason for travel			
User frequency			
Refreshments			
Speed of formalities			
Parking facilities			
Transport to the airport			
Signposting			

Task 2: Look at the topics listed below. As you listen, decide in what order you hear them mentioned and complete the boxes with the appropriate letter three topics will not be used

A- Voting intentions
B- TV viewing survey
C- Political popularty poll
D- Marriage agency questionnaire
E- Unemployment agency questionnaire
F- Survey for last food products
G- Local facilities survey
H- Travel agency questionnaires

Task 03.

Look at the speakers' reactions listed below. As you listen put the reactions in the order in which you hear them mentioned. Three reactions will not be used.

A- Refuses rudely because she / he does not approve of this type of survey

B- Accepts reluctantly

C- Answers willingly but is doubtful of the relevance to her / him of the questionnaire

D- Answers enthusiastically because the topic interest her/ him

E- Refuses rudely and tells the interviewer to go away.

F- Accepts at first, then refuses to continue when she / he realizes what the subject is.

G- Refuses apologetically because she / he is in a hurry.

H- Accepts willingly but doesn't answer the questions.

01	
02	
03	
04	
05	

Appendix Eighteeteen

Written production test

Pre-test

You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Write and send an email to those people.

Situation 1:

Your teacher is interested in knowing the problems you meet during the course of pragmatics. He would like you to bring your contribution to solve these problems and suggest solutions. Send him/her an email with the problems and the suggested solutions.

To: Pro.delaid@gmail.com

Subject: (your name)

Situation 2:

Your friend has just finished his studies and is looking for a job. What job would you advise him to take up? Send him/her an email giving him advice about the job you think is most suitable for him/her.

To: sellhane@yahoo.com

Subject: (your name)

Situation 3:

Your friend has a degree in Computer science and s/he understands about computers. You want to buy a PC and would like him/her to advise you about computers in terms of both quality and price. Send him/her an email asking him/her for advice.

To: mamdouh_frad@yahoo.fr

Subject: (your name)

Situation 4:

While organizing a workshop on the creation of language labs for next academic year, the head of the department of English is interested in students' ideas about it. In particular he would like to know your opinion about the equipments and materials that could be installed. Send an email expressing your point of view and suggestions for the future labs.

Appendix Nineteen

Written production test

Post-test

You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Write and send an email to those people.

Situation 1:

Your teacher is planning to do an outdoor activity at the end of the course, and would like you to bring your contribution by proposing activities .Can you think of any activities you would like your teacher to do? Send him/her an email with good propositions.

To:

Subject: (your name)

Situation 2:

Your friend is thinking of buying a new mobile phone but s/he does not what type to buy. Send him/ her email suggesting the mobile you think is good in terms of both quality and price.

Situation 3:

The head of your department is interested in knowing students' opinion about the new magazine. He would like to know how this magazine could be improved in the issue. Send the head an email suggesting ideas and changes that could be brought to the magazine.

To:

Subject: (your name)

Situation 4:

The head of your department intends to organize a party at the end of the academic year. He is interested in knowing about students' opinion about the activities, the time, the guests, the prizes etc. You are the representative of the students send him/her an email giving your suggestions.

To:

Subject: (your name)

Appendix Twenty

Oral production test: Phone pre-test

You are going to read different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Make telephone call after reading them.

Situation 1.

You are helping your professor in the organization of the 'International Conference on Internet and Language'. Today you are talking to him/her about arranging a formal dinner with the main guests on Saturday night. You happen to know several restaurants where this special dinner could be organized. Call you professor to discus about the most suitable one.

Situation 2.

Your friend is interested in doing and internship (the practical training you do in a company when you are studying) at a particular company. He signed for this company at the end of last semester to make sure that he could have this choice, but now he has received a letter from the university informing him that he cannot do his internship at this company because there are not enough posts for all students. You call your friend and suggest that he go for a talk to the professor.

Situation 3.

You have received a grant to work on a new project of teaching English to adult beginners. In the first meeting with the director of the project, s/he explains to you that that s/he would like to organize a talk for all the learners about the purpose and the relevance of the project. S/he asks to prepare a poster announcing the talk for next Monday morning .When you arrive home; it occurs to you that most of the learners have an oral exam that day. You call him/ her to discuss the change of the day of talk.

Situation 4.

One of your classmates has told you that s/he thinking about changing to another specialization (from Applied language studies to Civilization and Literature) that she thinks will suit her personal abilities. You think about what this classmate has told you and, when you arrive at home, you realize that Applied language studies has more benefits. Call this classmate and give him/her good reasons for not changing her/his specialization.

Appendix Twenty One

Oral production test: phone post-test

You are going to read different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Make telephone call after reading them.

Situation 1.

One of your classmates is having problems deciding which subject to choose for his/her dissertation – Literature or Didactics - because s/he likes both of them. S/he like didactics would be better, but s/he is not sure. You are thinking about what your classmate has told you and you find out that didactics would suit his abilities better than literature. Call this classmate and explain to him/her the reasons of your choice.

Telephone number: 033542271

Situation 2.

You have started working on a new project with your teacher .One day he tells you that he would like to buy several books related to the content of the project. At that moment you cannot remember any specialized books, but when you arrive at home, it occurs to you that there is one bookshop where on e finds such kind of books. You call your professor to tell him about this bookshop.

Telephone number: 033742601

Situation 3.

One of your friends is interested in applying for a scholarship for next year next year, but he is not sure which university to go. On your way home, you meet another classmate who spent last semester at the university in England. He tells you that he enjoyed his stay at this university because of the facilities offered there and all the professors were very supportive. Call your classmate and try to convince about going there.

Telephone nulber: 033547896

Situation 4.

One of your professors would like to organize a course on the use of PowerPoint. As part of the course, he would like you to invite some teachers from the Computer Science Department for practical presentation of the programme. When you arrive home suddenly you remember the names of some professors. Call the professor in charge of the course and suggest him/her the names of these professors.

Telephone number: 033542545

Appendix Twenty Two

Questionnaire after treatment

You will read several questions about this course. Answer to these questions sincerely expressing your own opinion.

1. What have you learnt so far in this course?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………….

2. Did you like the activities used in the classroom during this course?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………….

3. Did the activities help you improve your communication in English?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………….

4. How did you feel when you were doing the activities?

- Motivated
- Nervous
- Bored
- Interested

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………….