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Investigating the Effect of Authentic Materials on Improving EFL learners'

Pragmatic Competence

The Case of Third Year Students, Department of English, University of Batna 2

Thesis Submitted to Obtain LMD Doctorate Degree in Applied Linguistics and TEFL

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ABSTRACT

The ever-growing demand for English in Algeria necessitates the shift from teaching English as a language to teaching the appropriate use of English to achieve different pragmatic needs and requirements which is supported by the most recent research in the field. The Department of English at the University of Batna is not an exception to this necessity where many teachers are aware of this need and believe that learners' pragmatic competence and communicative abilities should be the focus of teaching Oral Expression. However, there is a gap in knowing the best and most suitable ways of developing learners' pragmatic abilities. Thus, this study aims at investigating this research gap by investigating the role and effect size of authentic materials in developing learners' pragmatic competence in performing four major speech acts which are requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments. Also, it investigates the best ways of implementing authentic materials in teaching Oral Expression through the available literature and the experiment process. Therefore, this study was conducted using an experiment that included a sample of two groups of 91 learners out of 732 third-year learners. The two groups were assigned to be the control group and experimental group to measure the effect of the treatment. A written discourse completion test (WDCT) was used as a post-test and a pre-test, which allowed gathering significant data which prove that authentic materials have developed learners' pragmatic competence in a statistically significant manner compared to the contrived materials used to teach the control group. The findings reveal that authentic materials have a tremendous effect size on developing learners' pragmatic abilities, thus help give more insight on the present gap for future research and practical solutions such as teacher-training workshops.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

This research is based on the simple observation of a teacher, with a fairly humble experience, teaching in both the private sector, in schools for general English classes, and at university. I have observed throughout the years learners in the private schools developing their pragmatic competence and become more fluent and effective communicators if they were compared to university students. The latter reinforced my modest belief that languages must be taught in a different manner rather than the orthodox ways of teaching, which offer abstract course books stripped from their cultural and social settings to a boring set of suggest-less structures that function without any use. This puts learners in a difficult situation that hinders them from acquiring the language by setting the language distant from its use, and therefore, learners will never develop the skill of using the language as it is a 'habit formation'.

Teaching foreign languages has always been revolved around how language is used in a certain context to achieve a certain communicative objective or to do things with words in a pragmatically correct manner, where language functions as a system of symbols, a given underlying grammatical structure, pragmatically effective manner and culturally suitable. All of this is often reflected in authentic materials that have a rich variety of pragmatic and cultural aspects of the target language, they function as a vessel to transmit all that is semantic, cultural, and pragmatic to the learners of English as a foreign language. In addition, authentic materials serve as a linchpin between capital Culture, and everyday culture, lower culture. Thus, learners will certainly develop the skill of knowing about the most important cultural aspects of language, its everyday life use, casual talk, taboos, stereotypes, clever sarcasm, and wit, if they were exposed to the language being vivid in its culture.

As a result, adjusted, eclectic, and sometimes censored course books and syllabi, never serve the main objective of teaching English as a foreign language, which is producing efficient communicators. Such materials result in making learners communicate within a narrow context, and never able to communicate efficiently outside. Moreover, they will be faced with more serious cultural issues if they are not well informed and introduced to the target language and its culture.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The world has been dominated by the English language as a lingua franca since the end of the second world war, by that, teaching English as a foreign language has known widespread all over the world, including Algeria. This widespread use of the English language in many fields made using it a necessity, which resulted in a shift from learning abstract rules and structures of the language, to the focus on developing learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, modern teaching mainly focuses on exposing learners to the target language by using a wide variety of authentic materials to foster learners' pragmatic abilities. However, only a few course books and pedagogical materials include genuine or authentic materials suitable for achieving the aim of teaching English as a foreign language with its growing demand for efficient pragmatic communicators by meeting the real-life demands of this century.

The way native speakers use the language transcends grammar and form to reach a high level of interpretation and pragmatic function, they often have a high level of proficiency and competence, which is related to the long exposure to the language and the availability of input in addition to a high level of transfer (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Thus native speakers' competence is often taken as an ideal objective in EFL, however, to overcome the gap in

competence between native speakers and foreign learners, pragmatics has been recommended as a crucial part of learning EFL (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).

In addition, course books and the national syllabi, in general, offer rich content for classrooms, mainly restricted and adjusted grammar and vocabulary, focusing on selected materials for reading and writing and by this, not involving the four skills. These skills go hand in hand together, and some twin skills are tightly related to each other such as the twin skills of reading and writing, listening and speaking. As a result, the Algerian way of teaching English does not involve all skills, and it is based on reading and writing. This neglecting of listening and speaking, and most audio-visual materials does not foster learners' pragmatic competence. Thus, learners will only develop certain skills at the expense of others, which will result in a gap between what learners learn in the classroom and the language as a living cultural phenomenon itself.

1.3. Aims of the Study

This study aims at investigating the following:

1) The ability of authentic materials to develop third-year learners' pragmatic competence in the Department of English University of Batna 2

2) To what extent could authentic materials help third-year learners develop their pragmatic abilities to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments

3) The ability to effectively implement authentic materials in classrooms

1.4. Hypothesis

Teaching English as a foreign language is mainly a constant shift from accuracy to fluency focus, teachers often tend to shift this focus according to the objectives to be attained, whether to produce grammatically accurate learners with a high sense of form or to produce

pragmatically competent and linguistically fluent learners with a high cultural understanding and intercultural abilities. This shift, taken in a long term, is a historical shift from orthodox ways of teaching form rather than meaning to meaning rather than form. After the revolutionary phase that TEFL has witnessed in the 1960s and 1970s; the focus shifted from form to communicative teaching. Thus, the major objective of TEFL is equipping learners to be efficient and pragmatically competent communicators.

However, somewhere between these two objectives, the main objective of TEFL is lost in Algeria, from old ways of teaching English, to tailored materials which are neither authentic nor genuine. Therefore this study aims at investigating the following hypothesis:

1) Using authentic materials in teaching Oral Expression results in developing learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments

1.5. Research Questions

Tackling these two variables, pragmatic competence and authentic materials raises so many questions to be investigated. These two variables are so complex that it is difficult to limit the questions to be investigated. However, this study tries to focus on the most important questions that are crucial in understanding the nature of these two variables, how can one affect the other, and how can authentic materials be used more efficiently. This study tries to answer the following questions:

1) Does the type of input materials, authentic or contrived, make any difference in developing third-year learners' pragmatic competence?

2) To what extent could authentic materials develop third-year learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments?

3) Does pragmatic transfer from the L1 influence the process of acquiring pragmatic competence when using authentic or contrived materials?

4) What type of materials do learners perceive as more or less 'effective' in developing their pragmatic abilities?

5) How could authentic materials be used to their fullest efficiency in the classroom?

1.6. Methodology

This study aims at investigating the relationship between authentic materials, and their impact, on learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, a pilot study was conducted to establish the existence of the problem, questionnaires were distributed to 11 teachers of oral expression, and the data were collected and analyzed accordingly. Also, we believe that the best way of clearly investigating this relationship is through an experiment. Learners will be divided into two groups, a control, and an experimental group; both groups underwent a test to indicate their proficiency in the English language before the treatment is applied. Afterward, a post-test was designed at the end of the experiment to test the hypothesis and show the effect of the independent variable (authentic materials), on the dependent variable (pragmatic competence). Additionally, another questionnaire was distributed, it aimed at investigating the questions and aims of this study and to collect more qualitative data to explain and give more insight on the quantitative data collected from this experiment.

1.7. Significance of the Study

This study is very important to identify the relationship between authentic materials and learners' pragmatic competence, in addition to trying to fully understand the role that authentic materials could play in making learners efficient communicators. It is highly regarded that our humble attempt might clarify some of the issues surrounding authentic

materials and how they could be used in the classroom, either to achieve the previously mentioned objective or by trying to facilitate the learning process and making it more interesting to the learners, and by that reducing their affective filter for a more efficient learning process.

1.8. Outline of the Dissertation

This study includes two parts, a theoretical one with two chapters and an experimental part which includes three chapters. The first part is two chapters; the first chapter is dedicated to defining authentic materials and explaining their role in the context of education and classroom in a specific manner. In addition, some important theories of learning such as TBL and CLT were discussed and analyzed in terms of their suitability for implementing authentic materials in the classroom in parallel to foster learners' pragmatic competence.

The second chapter, however, aims at defining pragmatic competence, speech act theory in its two versions Austin's (1962) taxonomy of speech acts and Searle's (1969) refined version. Additionally, areas of investigation such as interlanguage pragmatics, contrastive and developmental pragmatics were taken into account to highlight the most important and significant research conducted on pragmatic competence in the field. Another concept that is fundamental to the answering of the questions of this study was tackled being pragmatic transfer; this will be encountered in the fieldwork as predicted through previous research in the field (Kasper, 1992). In addition other cognitive and social theories of the target language pragmatic development were included such as Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990), Bialystock's model (1993), the acculturation model (Schumann, 1986), and sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). Finally, other important concepts such as politeness theory and pragmatic failure were discussed, and most importantly, how pragmatic competence is assessed were included to make a basis for the fieldwork and the various

speech acts being requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals, were discussed for their pragmatic constituting significance for this study.

The second part includes three chapters, the third chapter includes research design, methodology, and the discussion of the results of the pilot study conducted in addition to the selection of materials and their implementation procedures, and the tools used such as the pre-test and post-test. The fourth chapter includes quantitative analysis for both the results of the pre-test and post-test and assessment procedure. Finally, the fifth chapter includes a comparative qualitative analysis for the pre-test and post-test results in addition to WRSR data, also, a summary of the findings, limitations, future implications, and recommendations.

2. Chapter One: Authentic Materials

This chapter aims at defining the concept of authenticity in addition to citing the literature that recommends the use of authentic materials in classrooms and highlighting the role of authentic materials in EFL classrooms. Additionally, other psychological factors related to authentic materials, problems and challenges facing the use of authentic materials, ways of selection and implementation, factors, and the criteria used for selecting authentic materials will be reviewed.

Furthermore, this chapter sheds light on the problem that EFL classrooms face which constitutes the gap between authentic language and the language used in the classroom. Also, this problem will be reviewed in terms of possible solutions that include learning theories that can bridge the gap between what's used in the classroom and the language used outside.

2.1. Defining Authenticity

The use and implementation of authentic materials in EFL is not the innovation of recent years, in fact, it is known to have a long record of use, dating back to the 19th century. Henry sweet, as an example, who is considered to be one of the first linguists, often used authentic materials such as authentic texts in his books. He believed in their ability and capacity in playing a crucial role in learning a foreign language. He argued that natural idiomatic texts have a greater advantage over artificial methods, as they tend to include every feature of the language. However, He believed that artificial schemes often fall in the constant replications of certain grammatical forms and lexicon because of the limited scope that does not include all of the pragmatic and socio-cultural aspects of a language (Gilmore, 2007).

However, the debate over the use of authentic materials emerged after the 1970s, and after Chomsky's debate with Hymes. The latter shifted focus from the form of the language to other pragmatic and socio-cultural competencies involved in learning a foreign language. This

as a whole made learning communication orientated and gave birth to communicative language teaching, which meant more use of authentic texts and materials in EFL.

In general, this debate over authenticity is known to have a complex nature, for a wide range of reasons, and mostly its nature that is related to inter-disciplinary fields and studies such as pragmatics, ICT, language acquisition, cultural studies, and so on... Gilmore (2007) argues that the complexity of this term goes back to the fact that scholars limit their work to their fields and areas of studies, this leads to such expertise being neglected by the others as these findings and insights do not fall into their category of interests. He notes the importance of bridging the gap between these fields to have a better understanding and a unified and standardized definition for authenticity.

Mashan (2005) as cited in (Buendgens-kosten, 2014) notes that authenticity is related to the "realism" in implementing real materials and activities in the classroom, which makes the learning a contextualized experience following a naturally occurring target language with vast access to authentic linguistic materials. In addition, a more focus on learner's autonomy is regarded as necessary.

One interesting approach is Gilmore's where he sets eight different interchangeable uses or outlines of the word "authentic", he argues that it is used in different ways according to material or text itself, participants, purposes and aims of use, the speech act practiced and the social and cultural context. In the following points, we will see the different eight outlines explained in a more elaborated way:

- Authenticity means that the language is produced by native speakers for other native speakers of a given speech community (Porter & Roberts 1981; Little, Devitt & Singleton 1989) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- The material produced is "real" in that regard it is produced by a "real" speaker/writer for example a journalist, for a real audience or group of people, and by all means implying a real message to be delivered. Here, a wide range of materials are considered to be authentic and exposes the learners to a wide possibility of different fields in the language from politics for example to specific domains like scientific space discoveries (Morrow 1977; Porter & Roberts 1981; Swaffar 1985; Nunan 1988/9; Benson & Voller 1997) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- Authenticity is more related to the receiver/participants and the text itself; which means that what makes a text authentic is the relationship between the decoder and the appropriate response or feedback generated as a consequence. Here a distinction is made between genuine and authentic, where genuine is a quality of the passage but authenticity is related to the proper response (Widdowson 1978/9; Breen 1985) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007) this part will be more elaborated in the next section.

- The interaction in the classroom is an engagement where interaction creates a personal process that outlines a context for meaningful communication to take place (van Lier 1996: 128) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- The nature of tasks to be implemented in the classroom makes learning task-based and in a way more authentic as it serves the purpose rather than the form (Breen 1985; Bachman 1991; van Lier 1996; Benson & Voller 1997; Lewkowicz 2000; Guariento & Morley 2001) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- The social context in the learning environment (Breen 1985; Arnold 1991; Lee 1995; Guariento & Morley 2001; Rost 2002) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- assessment (Bachman 1991; Bachman & Palmer 1996; Lewkowicz 2000) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- The cultural competence to behave and think like a group of native speakers (Kramsch 1998) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

From all of these eight outlines, it is clear that authenticity is a very difficult concept to define, it is related to many variables and different fields and it could hold various uses. Gilmore (2007) argues that this term has become a "slippery" concept to identify how evolved our comprehension for the field of EFL is, he notes that in limiting the scope of the concept and its definition to "objectifiable criteria" rather than subjective criteria such as relating authenticity to the learners themselves which make the term useless and meaningless.

As a consequence, Gilmore defines authenticity the same way as Morrow (1977:13) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007) authenticity is an extension of real language, produced by real speakers/writers for a real audience and it is meant to serve a real message or does a certain function. This definition limits the concept to very clear and narrow criteria that can judge a certain material to be authentic or non-authentic. This can serve as an assessment background for learners' use of the language if compared to natives. The features of authentic discourse would be clear and handy, and the resemblance of the output is a standard for assessment.

On the other hand, Widdowson makes a distinction between the term "authentic" and "genuine". He associated the quality of authenticity to the material itself, and by that, the input provided or made by a native speaker, however, the quality of being genuine is more related to the appropriate response or, in other words, a native speaker's response. He notes that: "Genuineness is a characteristic of the [text] passage itself and is absolute quality. Authenticity is a characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader and it has to do with the appropriate response." (Widdowson, 1979:80)

Thus, Widdowson relates the quality of "genuine" to the extension of the naturally occurring discourse or passage, taken as it is to meet a pragmatic communicative purpose directed at interlocutors playing their roles in a communicative social context. Therefore, the quality of being genuine causes an authentic response, or at least, this is the desired aim behind the implementation of using authentic materials. Widdowson (ibid.) notes this desired aim when he says that:

> To present someone with a set of extracts and to require him to read them not to learn something interesting and relevant about the world but 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 that does not correspond to his normal communicative activities, then they cannot be said to be authentic instances of use.

The term authentic is therefore present with the presence of a genuine text, and an authentic response where the language does what it is meant to do. Widdowson notes the importance of the aim and function of the passage in implementing authentic materials in the classroom. It is clear, that answering the question of what makes authentic material authentic? Is related to much more than the genuine nature of the authentic response, a genuine material, in Widdowson's view, can be misused and if the aim does not meet the authenticity of the response is a naturally social and pragmatic context. Such misuse can result in mispresenting the use of the language.

From what has been defined so far, it is clear that the term "authentic" has been overused and its meaning has been broadened to many different interpretations of the term and many interfering factors, that we can classify in the following points:

- The authenticity of the passage itself

- The way it is implemented or the authenticity of the task

- The genuine reaction of the audience or the learner

- The aim behind implementing this task is often in agreement with the genuine reaction if it is well-set and achieved

Hence, the debate of which is authentic, what it is to be authentic, and how to make use of it in a maximum advantage is an overwhelming debate that neglects the basic definitions, which in all means, serve the needed logical conceptualization of the term. However, what makes authentic materials more preferable for teaching EFL is that it serves as a tangible model from the target language. This gives it the advantage of language use that textbooks often lack. (Gilmore, 2004)

As a conclusion, we tend to agree with Widdowson's (1979) definition of authenticity, that the material is created by a native speaker for non-educational purposes and to a native audience. In addition to that, Widdowson (ibid.) includes the aim or the "genuine" reaction that is desired by implementing this authentic material, which often tends to be a native's reaction. This definition is by far a wholesome one because it includes all of the four points deducted from the ongoing debate to define authentic materials and in a way is a basic standard for fieldwork. Thus, we propose this definition to be adopted for the fieldwork of this study.

2.2. Why Use Authentic Materials?

In my humble experience, teaching EFL for six years, I have noticed the great impact of authentic materials on both the learners' level and their psychology. Most often, implementing authentic materials helps to a great extent developing learners' pragmatic competence in Algeria, for their rich cultural content and pragmatic input.

This certainly goes in the same direction as the fieldwork done in non-native countries and Algeria is no exception. Fieldwork, such as (Berardo, 2006) as cited in (Akbari, Omid,

and Razavi, 2016) proves that the implementation of authentic materials has a great significant role in developing learners' comprehension and pragmatic skills. In addition to that, (C. V. Rogers & Medley, 1988) argue that for learners to gain pragmatic skills and become active in the target language, the implementation of authentic materials in the classroom becomes a necessity as they tend to be exposed to real authentic situations that require real and genuine feedback (Henry G Widdowson, 1989). Therefore, the classroom becomes a theatre where real-life situations are brought to the learners to practice the language as a functional tool that brings a pragmatic outcome.

In addition, authentic materials tend to put the learner with direct communication or exposure with the target language, this will eventually as a tool to guide learners through the governing principles and rules of the target language use (Breen, 1985). Yet, this goes beyond language use, in terms of psychological factors, task-based learning becomes the teachers' approach in making the learner feel the context in which language takes place, and by that, transcending the paradigm of teaching language traditionally to taking into account the context in which language develops the meaning in performing a functional use. All of that, in Widdowson's view, generates genuine feedback and fulfills the aim of integrating authentic materials.

This "classic argument", in Peacock's words (1997), either authentic materials are better used, or better not used in EFL often tends to take a positive direction, where studies such as Bacon & Finnemann (1990) show that using authentic materials have a rather motivating and enjoyable impact on the learners, in addition, such implementation brings the learners closer to the target language by making them less remote from the target language and engaging them in functional tasks of real-life situations.

Bacon & Finnemann (ibid.) classify the benefit of using authentic materials in two levels, the first is cognitive which includes providing context for appropriate relative schemes

of meaning in the process of acquiring the target language. The second is the psychological and behavioral motivating impact, which helps learners to a great extent overcoming cultural barriers. This significant classification gave more emphasis on each level to be investigated, and for more empirical studies to take place, especially concerning the affective level, where they argue that more research is needed.

In order to wrap this part of the literature and answer the questions, Morrison (1989) suggested that the main benefits of using authentic materials often tend to be their suitability and aim of design for natives, however, they are to be generalized for their international nature. In addition, authentic materials can be both interesting and motivating for the wide range of materials to be selected and therefore they are an endless shade of possibilities to be exploited which makes them more flexible. As a consequence, authentic materials are often involving current matters, use of and affairs in the target language involving genuine language and interaction.

On the other hand, Berardo (2006) focused more on the exposure of learners with the rich varieties of the target language for their updating content that changes and varies with time, hence making learners connected to the world and current use of the language. Teacher wise, one task can be exploited in many ways, in which the aim differs from enhancing and developing the four skills, which makes it task orientated; or by just focusing on the content and exploiting it to teach grammar and vocabulary. The latter falls in agreement with the previous literature, such as (Morrison, 1989) when it comes to the flexibility of the task itself.

Hence we can conclude in few points:

- Authentic materials expose the learners to real situations and language and stimulate a genuine response

- Learners would feel a sense of achievement after understanding and decoding the authentic text/passage

- Authentic materials are flexible for use and can offer optional aims to be taught or skills to be developed

- Learners stay updated on the current use of the language

2.3. Authentic Materials and the Psychology of the Learner

It is argued that authentic materials often provide an exposure to the target language, yet, this as well, like all the literature viewed beforehand, tends to take a positive orientation rather than a negative one. Bacon & Finnemann (ibid.) studied the attitudes, motivations, and dispositions of university students to authentic materials, the results suggest that motivation is a key factor in the way how learners react and try to comprehend authentic materials. Their learning strategies tend to vary their learning strategies, where noninstrumentally motivated learners tend to use global strategies without decoding or analyzing the input provided. On the other hand, motivated learners show more analytical engagement in learning. However, Bacon & Finnemann (ibid.) recommend that authentic materials should be implemented with reinforcing the will and motivation of the learners by designing curriculums to suit that demand. In addition, meaningful use and evaluation are needed in order to reinforce the positive impact that authentic materials have on comprehension and satisfaction and overcome or avoid the negative drawbacks that can result from using authentic materials, such as frustration. (ibid.)

As a conclusion, Bacon & Finnemann's (ibid.) fieldwork came to shed light on the importance of students' affective needs when exposed to authentic materials with regards to general learning strategies. The results show a positive impact of implementing authentic materials and highlight the role of 'motivation' in making learners either active when it is present or passive when it is absent. Decoding and analyzing authentic input helps avoid cultural issues and makes learners integrated into the target language and culture.

Peacock (1997), on the other hand, argues that it is probable that authentic materials have a significant positive impact on learners' motivation in a learning context. However, little empirical research has been done on the hypothesis that authentic materials have no impact on the learners' motivation, and therefore, this claim, either way, has not been sufficiently tested. Peacock (ibid.) studied the effect of authentic materials on motivation by testing the hypothesis that by implementing authentic materials (in comparison with artificial materials) motivation would either increase or decrease significantly. The motivation was defined in the same terms as the interest in the data and materials used in the classroom within the learning task, and by taking into account the varying different levels of enjoyment and focus during the tasks. (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) as cited in Peacock (1997) In addition motivation was taken into account using self-reported answers and observed behavior.

The results show that learners exhibited more concentration on the task 86 percent of the time when authentic materials were implemented, on the other hand only 78 percent of the time while using non-authentic materials. This difference comes in a contradiction with the self-reported motivation questions because most of the learners reported that authentic materials are not as interesting as non-authentic materials. This contradiction comes in handy to fill the gap in the literature and fieldwork conducted on this hypothesis. Peacock argued that most of the researches do not make a distinction between motivation as self-reported feedback, and concentration and 'interest'. The effect of authentic materials, in this case, is not motivation, authentic materials were 'interesting' for the learners but not motivating in condition.

Gilmore (2007) argues that most of the literature written on this matter, that authentic materials make the learners more motivated, is related to the widespread use of authenticity as a selling point by publishers. Thus, this opinion has met many justifications to support its validity. This claim argues that non-authentic materials are not inherently bad, or as the

famous claim goes, that they only tend to focus on the form because they simply are not designed to focus only on the form but to deliver a message as well. Another claim that has met a lot of criticism is that authentic materials are inherently more interesting, this challenged opinion, in Gilmore's view, is criticized by those who believe that authentic materials have a negative drawback on the learners' psychology. However, motivation is viewed as the result of the implementation of authentic materials rather than being the 'cause' of achievement. (Widdowson, 1996) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

2.4. Problems with Authentic Materials

Going back to defining the term 'authenticity' it is noticeable that there has been an ongoing debate on what is to be authentic? This is a partial issue, concerning the surrounding problems with authenticity. Morrison (1989) argues that authentic materials often tend to be 'too difficult' for higher levels, even though, since this claim has been made, many criticized this stand and considered "rating text difficulty not to be an exact science and is, to some extent, dependent on the learning context in which it is used." (Gilmore, 2007)

However, Morrison argued that authentic materials should be implemented in all levels, and forbidding lower levels this chance of exposure to the target language results in making learners level far less than the skills they obtain from non-authentic materials. This is similar to creating a zone of development of skills, after being exposed to authentic materials, and by the teachers' guidance learners could comprehend and acquire the input, too similar to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, which was inspired by Piaget's model of acquisition.

Furthermore, Morrison notes that authentic materials can be very difficult to perceive especially when it comes to listening where the listener is just passive and seldom active, additionally preparation can be time-consuming. Besides, natural speech flow in authentic settings and contexts such as talk shows is often filled with reduced forms, contractions,

hesitations, interjections, and fewer grammatical forms unlike typical conversational taught English.

Typically, Berardo (2006) shares many points with Morrison (1989) on this matter, however, Berardo adds that authentic materials can be culturally biased where learners are required to have a fairly developed knowledge of the target language and culture where many forms can be mixed which creates a sense of confusion to the learners especially beginners. All of this makes authentic materials, in his view, limited to intermediate to advanced levels. Also, authentic materials often include 'unneeded' vocabulary that confuses the learners and makes them check word-by-word some authentic extracts such as songs and understand absolutely nothing, this can be demotivating and frustrating to the learners. Another point that Berardo emphasized is that authentic materials, which often include current affairs and trends of use of language such as slang, can become outdated very quickly.

On the same point related to culture and authentic materials, Gilmore (2007) argues that English is a language with many cultures, thus asks the question of which C2 is to be targeted? Because English is culturally rich and includes a variety of cultures, learners will again face confusion understanding the target culture. This exact point opens the door for another debate, where (ibid.) states that often learners are unable to express themselves in L2 as suggestive and precise as they do in their mother tongue, bearing this point in relation with many cultures and varieties of English, another risk is facing the learners. In a way, they will be 'dumbed down' in Gilmore's words by an inappropriate model of the target language that succeeds in meeting their current communicative needs but fails to exhibit suggestive and accurate expressions in the target language.

To conclude, there have been a lot of fieldwork and studies by pioneering figures such as (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Berardo, 2006; Gilmore 2004; Miller, 2003; Morrison, 1989) and most often the outcome of implementing authentic materials goes in the same positive

direction to highlight the most important positive outcomes of using authentic materials in the classroom that trump the drawbacks. Some other fieldwork such as Peacock (1997) makes a distinction between concentration and, motivation (observed and self-reported), and enjoyment. However, we can conclude that:

- Most of the fieldwork conducted on the impact of authentic materials on the psychology of the learner is positive

- Many problems are measuring and isolating variables such as motivation from other interfering factors such as interest, concentration, and frustration

- Authentic materials often tend to be a means for integrating the learners into the target language and culture and therefore avoiding any resentment or negative attitudes in the future

- Authentic materials could result in other negative problems such as causing frustration to the learners if the implementation and the materials chosen were not suitable for the levels of the learners, which is an ongoing debate that needs further investigation

- Culture can pose a challenge where learners can be lost between many cultures of the same target language

- Learners can be easily satisfied with an inferior inaccurate model that meets communicative demands but is not proper for use

- There is a debate over the criteria used for selecting authentic materials, especially for lower levels. This might cause other psychological challenges for the lower level learners and raise their affective filter. In addition, adding more preparation time for the teachers might be exhausting

- Using authentic materials might result in negative outcomes as there is no guidance (guide) for the teachers

- The aim behind the implementation of authentic materials can be easily lost between teaching a content-based or skill development and refinement aim

2.5. The English Taught Versus Authentic Materials' English, How Remote?

It is often observed that textbooks tend to use an eclectic method of choosing what's suitable for learners, however, what's chosen is often washed out from any pragmatic or cultural exposure of the learners to the target language. As cited above by Gilmore (2007) that learners often fall into the trap of repeating forms that do not serve any communicative purpose, and if so, this communication would be so limited to generate a genuine response. (Widdowson 1979, 1983, 1989)

This situation poses a challenge of remoteness between the language taught and the language needed outside for communicative tasks, and by that creating a gap between the authentic language and the language presented by textbooks. As a consequence, communicative and pragmatics of speech are often neglected, this means that another conversational analytic, socio-cultural and discourse-based approach is needed. Thus a paradigm shift to focusing on the learners' communicative competence rather than their linguistic competence is taking place. (Gilmore, 2007)

Gilmore (ibid.) argues that discourse awareness is very important in the way we design syllabi, He quotes McCarthy & Carter (1994) that this approach is true to the essence of the language as a communicative tool, the latter would make us better syllabi designers, more efficient in task achievements and aim reaching tutors, and if this view, that language is the discourse, was adopted a shift of paradigm would be a changing force for what the concept of teaching the language is really about.

Hence, moving from the linguistic competence, that has dominated the field of EFL textbooks for decades, is necessary. This competence is so important but making it the focus does not serve communicative demands, unless if the focus is form and vocabulary, which is an old view that learners have to be equipped by a collection of a wide range of vocabulary that is not often needed nor used. Indeed, Gilmore (ibid.) emphasized the importance of the most relevant and occurring words in discourse, and most of them were marginally neglected in textbooks, such as modal verbs.

Gilmore (ibid.) argues that paragmalinguistic competence is usually marginalized in textbooks taking the same views as Kasper (2001), this view blames writers who rely on 'intuitions' about the target language rather than relying on the body of literature and fieldwork done on this point. In addition, some speech acts are often used and others are not, an example is given by refusals that are often used more than how often they occur in natural speech. In this regard, natural speech takes a positive flow and rather leans to agreeing than disagreeing. Pearson (1986) as cited in (Gilmore 2007)

Helen de De Silva and Diana Slade (2000) state that the increasing interest in casual conversations is leading to modern innovative teaching materials in the classroom. This conversational approach lead by Crystal and Davy pays more attention to what hinders communication in the target language for EFL learners in the areas that are often challenging and difficult for the learners. All of this again tends to shift from what is being taught at the moment which is artificially washed out, to bring the English spoken in casual conversations to the classroom.

Furthermore, De Silva & Slade (2000) argue that casual conversations are rich with models of speech which are divided into 'chunks' and 'chat', the first is simply the expressions that have a generic form, however, the chats are considered to be the hyper-interactive parts that might include more than one interlocutor. This view came as a backlash

to the widespread popular belief that normal conversations lack structure, however, such classification shows a more dynamic nature of the language that reflects its essence as being a communicative tool, rather than overly repeated patterns of the language that become of a cliché nature, such as those found in textbooks.

This view was highly supported by Crystal & Davy (1973) However, in contrast to the traditional non-authentic classroom, is quite important to highlight. Teaching authentic conversation passages offers more than non-authentic materials could offer, Crystal and Davy (ibid.) argue that such a conversational approach is the most useful in teaching foreign language learners because it is the least 'artificial' kind of English there is. Conversations tend to embody the essence of the language as a communicative tool and by that opening a wide door for rich unfamiliar ignored patterns and structures to be studied. Another point is that authentic conversations end to have no specific style in their informal spontaneous nature, thus, it can be considered to be the most neutral variety of English without any situational specificity, the wide range of its use where it can be easily orientated towards any theme the interlocutors may wish, and by far this is a superior feature for 'potential for change'. Crystal and Davy (ibid: P.95)

Furthermore, Crystal and Davy (ibid.) argued the stand that considers casual conversations as 'less fluent' considering this view as a 'pejorative' attitude towards conversational teaching, this view that considers overlaps, stops, and hesitations as 'errors'. They noted the fact that such a stand is unfair comparing spoken fluency to that of a written conversation; in addition, such hesitations are not errors as they tend to be creative periods of silence where the other interlocutor is trying to think of something to add to the conversation.

In conclusion, we can see that the reviewed literature is over a pan of the last six decades, this long period has known a great advance in teaching EFL; however, little empirical work has been done to overcome this gap between conversational English and

Classroom English. Therefore, from the literature above, we can conclude by listing some of the most features of conversational English that casual traditional normal classrooms lack, like the following:

- Conversations hold the essence of language, as being a communicative tool and therefore equip the learners by what it is needed to be integrated into and acquire the target language

- Conversations present a wide range of possible structures that make learners pragmatically efficient communicators

- Conversational English is frequently used and therefore most likely to be encountered in many situations rather than classroom English

- Conversations are neutral in nature but their potential for change offers a rich cultural and pragmatic content to be exploited in the classroom

- Conversational English is the most commonly used English, therefore, making it more familiar to native speakers around the world

2.6. Overcoming the Gap, Theories of Learning to Integrate Authentic Materials in the Classroom

2.6.1. Communicative Language Teaching CLT

CLT is the fruit of a cross between fields such as psychology, psycholinguistics, social studies, and human sciences, as cited in (K. R. Rose & G. Kasper, 2001) this development of CLT throughout the last four or five decades came as a result for the prominent different notions of CLT such as Hymes communicative competence model (1971) and another anthropological stand of social philosophy by Habermas (1984). This gave CLT both a psycholinguistic, and another sociocultural perspective. This approach is mainly based upon the term 'communicative competence' that has been debated, overly emphasized, and updated

throughout the last decades. Indeed, defining this 'competence' is mainly related to which phase that definition belongs to and whose definition it is. Sandra J. Savignon (2002) argues that in order to understand the nature of CLT we have to take into account both the European and the American modern and post Second World War conditions and developments of events. Europe needed a great number of working hands, therefore a great number of immigrants and guests came to Europe to find rich cultural speech communities. This development required the syllabus to integrate new reforms by the Council of Europe, where communicative demands and needs were the focus. The language, unlike before, was taken for its functional social use and by that considering language a mere social behavior or practice. This new approach was taken from functional linguistics, where the central understanding of language is "meaning potential" and "context situated" and what learners could *do* with the language. (Firth 1937; Halliday 1978; Van Ek 1975) as cited in (Sandra J. Savignon, 2002) Therefore, this syllabus was mainly addressed to fulfill learners' communicative demands.

On the other hand, the American perspective of communicative competence was the result of Hymes's (1971) criticism of Chomsky's classification of competence and performance. Hymes notion was in a way similar to that European one where the linguistic socio-cultural aspect was taken into account, by referring to language as a social means to practice a social act, which makes it, communicative competence, equivalent to that of Halliday (1978) meaning potential. (as cited in Sandra J. Savignon, 2002)

However, unlike the European notion, Hymes' interest was not teaching language using CLT; he believed that it is impossible to duplicate the cultural norms of natives in the classroom and considered language as social behavior. Meanwhile, Sandra J. Savignon (1971) relied on the term communicative competence to describe the learners' ability to making meaning or meaningful interactions in the target language in contrast to what had been

prominent at that time of reciting rules and schemes of grammar and focusing more on teacher-learner interaction rather than taking into account language as being interaction from the first place.

A decade later, Canale & Swain (1980) developed a theoretical framework of communicative competence that includes sub-competencies such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competencies. This view gave a new dimension to the concept of communicative competence when Canale (1983) as cited in (K. R. Rose & G. Kasper, 2001) included discourse as another competence. However, pragmatic competence was not taken as a well-developed focus to be added as a sub-skill, until a decade later when Bachman (1990) presented another model of communicative competence when pragmatic competence was seen as an informative communicative act in a sociocultural context, this definition made it a bridge between social norms of use and the classic communicative competence (K. R. Rose & G. Kasper, 2001).

Bachman's model characterized pragmatic competence as one of two the most important components of language competence in addition to organizational competence. A decade ago, pragmatic competence was categorized under 'sociocultural competence'; however, Bachman's model revered this to make 'sociocultural competence' and 'illocutionary competence' two main consisting components of pragmatic competence.

Therefore, the change of the conceptualization of the concept 'communicative competence' is observed throughout time, this change eventually affects the CLT method and approach as a whole, the implementation of pragmatic competence in our day and time makes a cornerstone in communicative competence as a holistic term. This latter, makes it crucial, to investigate how suitable is CLT as a teaching method to develop learners' pragmatic competence, therefore, we find this body of literature of high importance that serves our fieldwork later on.

Another important contribution was that of Berns (1990) as cited in Sandra J. Savignon (2002) who provides a collection of eight principles of CLT that go as follows:

- Language is a means to make meaning with a specific clear purpose, therefore teaching language has to be true to this essence of the language

- Language is diverse, and the variety in L1 and L2 is to be recognized and accepted

- Competence is relative

- Varieties of the target language are believed to be precious models for learning and teaching

- Learners' communicative competence is shaped by culture

- There is no single fixed methodology but anything that serves the purpose of language as communication can be used

- Language serves many functions such as ideal, textual, interpersonal, and seeing language as thus will develop learners' competence in each function

- Learners should be integrated into the target language by engaging them in using the language for multiple functions and purposes

This view is very important as it sets the basics of the communicative approach apart from other approaches, however, to clear the confusion of terms, this view does not focus on the form, and by that, neglecting an important competence which is 'grammatical competence'. Many have emphasized that this impression that the focus on meaning means that form and grammar are not important and that learners can express themselves without taking form into account even though communicative competence is regarded as the most important focus, this still needs attention to form. (Sandra J. Savignon, 2002)

Canale & Swain (1980) explained how CLT could take two different dimensions, the first, taking into account basic 'survival' communication (Van Ek, 1976, as cited in ibid.) that

of which learners could use to maintain basic communication such as having a short brief conversation with a native speaker as a guest, traveling for a short period and making basic deals such as going to the grocery store. This type of communication requires form in all its features such as proper pronunciation and rules of grammar and does not require knowledge of the sociocultural norms of use. This by far, shows how the focus on a certain sub-skill or competence included in communicative competence to achieve a certain aim, basic communication in this case.

The second dimension takes into account the norms of sociocultural use, the speech event, the different levels of formality and status between interlocutors. This view according to Canale & Swain (1980) is related to Hymes' rejection of Chomsky's linguistic 'competence' that is equivalent to grammatical competence, and thus 'performance' is the sociocultural competence'. The model of communicative competence that he suggested includes norms and knowledge of rules of use such as to what extent is something formally acceptable, to what extent it is feasible, appropriate concerning the context, and whether any aim is attained and anything has been done using the language. Therefore, Hymes (1972) as cited in Canale & Swain (1980) considers communicative competence to be an integration of all the competencies to maintain a meaningful interaction.

To conclude, CLT is considered to be one of the most important solutions to overcome the gap between the language used in the classroom and the language used outside. This approach caters to the learners' communicative demands and can bring the essence of language as a communicative act to the classroom. The communicative approach, even though, it is a bit complex to define in our day and time and it has received a lot of backlash and criticism over the decades, we deduce from all of the literature above that its misunderstood nature can go back to its ability to cope and change, both strong and weak versions of the communicative approach change according to the sum of learning taking place

and how much focus is dedicated for communication and interaction. The strong version tends to put practice first in a deep end strategy where the learners are exposed to the target language and they have to do the learning on their own, where any possible forms can achieve the meaning and function. However, the weak version considers form and focuses on one form to achieve the meaningful interaction desired, such as focusing only on one tense to do a certain function even though it could be quite possible to use other tenses.

2.6.2. Task-Based Learning TBL

TBL is just an extension of communicative language learning, however, this approach is fairly more recent than communicative language learning. This approach sees the acquisition of language or learning if we could use it in this term interchangeably, as a natural process that takes place in a spontaneous unconscious manner with the involvement of learners' own ability to 'notice' the new patterns of language emerging from the task itself. Dave Willis and Jane Willis in (Ronald Carter and David Nunan, 2001) explain this as follows:

> SLA research suggests overwhelmingly that language learning is a developmental process, which cannot be consciously controlled or predicted by teachers or learners. It seems that language learning - in the sense of acquiring the ability to use the language spontaneously - is powerfully driven by natural processes. But it also seems that these processes can be sharpened and rendered more efficient by an appropriate focus on form. TBL represents an attempt to harness natural processes and to provide language focus activities based on consciousness-raising which will support these processes. (p. 179)

This explains the nature of TBL that emerged in contrast to the PPP approach where the language is presented, with a focus on the form, practiced and then reproduced by the

learners that have to follow the same form. This approach according to Dave Willis and Jane Willis (ibid.) does not make a distinction between 'intake' and 'input', the first being an item of a language presented and practiced, the latter being a part of the natural spontaneous acquisition, and thus empirical research has shown that there is not any relationship with both as what is often presented does not necessarily mean that it is acquired or learned. Intake is considered to be an important concept in TBL, the spontaneous unconscious nature of the input suits the sequence of communicative tasks that TBL offers.

Nunan (1993, as cited by D. Willis &J. Willis in R. Carter & D. Nunan, 2001) defines a task to be a part of the classroom practice that engages the learner in comprehending, manipulating, producing, and interacting in the target language with the focus on the meaning rather than the form in a spontaneous manner. On the other hand, J. Willis (ibid.) defines it to be an activity that involves using the target language by learners for a communicative aim, to achieve a certain outcome. Both definitions take communicative needs and practice into account, where they make the most important achievable outcome. The nature of the task often reflects the nature of communicative competence, where language is seen as a tool that bridges an outcome by the exchange of meanings. This exchange gives a variety to the outcome itself and it can change according to the way the task is being implemented through giving and receiving instructions, filling the gap, solving a problem, or just telling an anecdote for entertainment.

Breen as cited in (Ronald Carter & David Nunan, 2001) identified two types of tasks that would constitute two different types of the task-based syllabus. He noted that the first type is communicative, where the tasks take a shape and a theme of everyday life, according to the setting, the different situations needed, and even the age of learners, in the case of children such tasks include daily everyday life situations such as organizing a trip. This type of task revolves about engaging the learners in meaning exchange in the target language.

The second type revolves around 'metacommunication' or metacommunicative learning tasks; this type of task makes it easy for the learners to be involved in the communicative tasks. Therefore, this type is based upon learners' deduction skills where they are brought to deduce the forms or structures from the situations that they face. In a way, learners can share their understanding of how language functions; it is often called 'pedagogical tasks'

Additionally, D. Willis and J. Willis list some features of TBL summarized to be as follows:

- Learners are free to use any forms of the language to obtain the outcome

- Learning takes place subconsciously and learners don't often notice the forms that they try to reproduce

- Learners work their way through interaction and trying to express meaning and by that create meaning by themselves

- Learners aim to create meaning systems which they have been recently exposed to

- The main goal is to encourage learners to develop their ability to create meaning systems to achieve a certain outcome that may change according to their degree of involvement, level of development, the task presented, and cognitive challenges

To conclude, according to the literature reviewed above, it is clear that TBL takes language use as the driving force of language learning, unlike the weak forms of CLT that take language forms as a priority but language use is highlighted as a secondary concern. TBL embraces language use in well-designed interactive tasks and process-oriented syllabus based upon empirical research such as (Prabhu, 1987) who conducted fieldwork which can be summarized in that the focus on language forms hindered the learning process of acquiring a language, as they tended to do much explaining and little 'doing' anything with the language.

It is, therefore, believed that language development is the outcome of a natural process of acquisition.

2.7. Authentic Materials Implementation and Selection

As suggested above, authentic materials can bring the gap between classroom language and the real target language to be needed for the communicative needs of the learners, as Rogers & Medley (1988) argue that If the learners are going to use and acquire the target language in an efficient way, they must be exposed to the language, authentic, unedited of the real world that they will encounter. In addition to that, authentic materials are important in the classroom because language needs a communicative purpose, however, according to them, learners have to develop their comprehension strategies and cognitive abilities to benefit from this exposure. Therefore, Rogers & Medley (ibid.) emphasize the fact that learners need to develop their cognitive abilities to face the real-word spoken or written language, however, this poses a risk that not all learners will benefit from this exposure, as they tend to have different cognitive and linguistic abilities. Thus the communicative tasks must be tailored for the learners, and be quite varied, focusing on meaning and the form as well, and raise the learners' awareness of the cognitive processes underlying the comprehension of authentic language.

This view came to exist after the wide backlash and popular belief that authentic materials are difficult to understand, and that they are not suitable for all levels. Rogers & Medley (ibid.) strongly disagree with this view and see that the concept of understanding must not include one hundred percent comprehension, as it is famously called, "word by word understanding". They argue that learners, even beginners, can still notice and decode some aspects of the language even though they would never understand all of what it is presented, sometimes they can reach a minimum level of understanding such as understanding the theme, or general idea of the authentic material presented.

This according to Rogers & Medley (ibid.) poses a need for changing the way authentic materials are implemented, instead of focusing on the nature of authentic materials, the way they are implemented is to be tailored to the needs of the learners. In other words, it is the task to be tailored and edited, not the authentic materials implemented.

In addition to that, Rogers & Medley (ibid.) suggest some factors to mind when implementing authentic materials as follows:

- Appropriateness of the text, that is, how compatible is the authentic material presented with learners' cognitive abilities, linguistic level, and even interest

- Appropriateness of the task, simply is how compatible is what the learners are asked to do and what they can actually do

- Appropriateness of the order of the input, from simple to complex concerning their language comprehension strategies

Furthermore, the teacher's role will be selecting the proper materials from a wide range of sources, designing the tasks according to the features mentioned above, and making the learners aware of the needed cognitive skills and strategies to decode the language presented in authentic materials.

On the other hand, Bacon & Finnemann (1990) emphasized the role of learners' affective needs when implementing authentic materials in the classroom when they conducted a study on the implied psychological factors when the learners are exposed to authentic materials such as motivation, attitudes, and willingness to engage in the task. They argued that negative attitudes will affect the way learners engage in listening tasks, for example, if a learner is not interested in listening to authentic materials, they will probably develop an impaired comprehension. As a result, they argue that curriculums and tasks must be designed to convince the learners to engage in dealing with the authentic input presented. Therefore,

Bacon & Finnemann (ibid.) suggest the following points to make learners accept authentic input:

- Authentic input must be a very important and early part of the instruction

- It must be accompanied by a meaningful advance of organizers and comprehension checkers

- It must be included in the evaluation of the learner

Another important contribution is that of Berardo (2006: P.63) where important factors in choosing authentic materials were listed as follows:

- Suitability of content, here some points such as the interest of the learners, relevance to their needs and if it is something that the learner will use outside of the classroom are taken into account

- Exploitability, such as whether the authentic materials will be suitable for teaching purposes, how is the authentic passage going to be exploited, and what skills and strategies can be developed by exploiting it

- Comprehensibility simply is related to the level of difficulty, complexity and the relevance of the vocabulary included

- Presentation, this point includes how authentic is the material perceived, and if it attracts the attention of the learners

Finally, authentic materials are a very important and rich source of authentic input but implementing it can be a bit difficult, especially if the learning is transitioning from traditional classrooms to a more communicative teaching approach. Therefore, learners will certainly find authentic materials difficult to understand and sometimes frustrating instead of having a positive impact on the learners. Hence, it is clear from the literature reviewed above, that this argument can be overcome by proper implementation of authentic materials. Thus the

literature above can be summarized in few points to consider when implementing authentic materials as follows:

- Implementing TBL as the most effective approach where the tasks are tailored according to the communicative needs of the learners and the language that they will face outside, and keeping the authentic materials unedited

- Authentic materials must be chosen carefully and electively to cater to the purpose behind using those in the classroom, and the most important question would be "how relevant and useful is it?"

- A well-selected objective must be put forward before trying to look for authentic materials to be implemented

- The affective psychological side of the learners should be taken into account, as authentic materials can have both negative and positive psychological effects according to the way we expose the learners to them

2.8. Authentic Materials and Culture

As stated beforehand in the reviewed literature, it is agreed that authentic materials expose the learners to the target language, and by that, exposing them to the culture of the target language as well. This point has been debated throughout the decades, the relationship between authentic materials and culture is clear, as the first is considered to be the channel in which culture finds its way to the learners of the language. However, much more ongoing debate about the effects of culture on the learning process and the way learners interact when they are exposed to such cultures through authentic materials. Hence, this point is of great importance and must be investigated.

Cook (1983) argues that the most important part in learning a foreign language is 'the content itself' this view emphasized that learning should be about 'real content' and takes it to be more effective than 'non-authentic content' even though the latter can have some positive

outcomes but not as efficient as real content to be taught. Cook makes a distinction between different types of real content, which could vary from student contributed content, language as content and investing 'interesting facts as content. However, another distinction is made between literature and culture as content, even though, taking culture in its standard wide definition, it is a sum of all social practices, values, believes, religious practices, and literature.

According to Cook (ibid.), some sources of 'real content' are mentioned, however, we will focus on the most important types that show the relationship between authentic materials and culture, they are as follows:

- Language as a content where language can provide more than grammar and function, such as the social norms, varieties of language, phonological aspects, pragmatic norms, and so on...

- Literature as a content where the goal is to increase the learners' emotional awareness about the target language and culture with an authentic nature

- Culture as content which gives students insights into the language being used in its everyday life, authentic use, and all of the social aspects related to it, even though this includes literature as well

- 'Interesting facts' any information about the real world can be used as a source for teaching EFL

Thus, according to Cooks, authentic materials do not only reflect the culture, and learners can have 'integrative motivation' (Gardner and Lambert,1972; as cited in Cook 1983) when learners are exposed to 'real content' and are trying to identify with the target culture. However, even though, Cook insists on the need for real content, his definition of 'real' does not automatically match our days' definition of 'authentic'.

This point was clearly discussed and distinguished through the decades, but Cook's 'real content' by far included and stressed the importance of real genuine content, in contrast to 'imaginary content' that does not necessarily mean today's definition of non-authentic. However, most of the content in textbooks where imaginary characters and dialogues are presented falls into the category of 'imaginary' content.

In addition, Stuart & Nocon (1996) believe that culture is a very important part of learning about the actually lived culture of the target language, this learning process requires tools and skills similar to those mentioned by Rogers & Medley (1988) where the learners will develop certain skills that help them decode the input. In this regard, learners will develop these skills to assist them in negotiating meaning and understanding the communicative passages where language is used.

Additionally, Brown (1990) highlights the importance of having a fairly decent background on the target language, this will help the learners understand more the target language and find it easier to acquire. Brown suggested 'interpretation of discourse', a competence that learners have to develop to decode cultural clues presented in authentic materials. This prior knowledge, according to Prodromou (1992), is already acquired and possessed by the native speech community, however, learners have to be trained and made aware of this interpretation of discourse knowledge, which makes it a very important approach with advanced learners who often deal with authentic materials the most. Prodromou (ibid.) argues that learning about the target culture, 'interpretation of discourse', should be integrated into a 'learner' centered methodology.

Furthermore, Brown (1990) suggests other contexts of language that are value-free, in contrast to the usual EFL context where the target language is rich in cultural values, thus the need for discourse interpretation competence, these contexts are as follows:

- Cosmopolitan English revolves around value-free and materialistic sets of situations such as international travel, entertainment, leisure, and so on...

- Scientific English is neutral and value-free across cultures

However, Prodromou (1988) and Rogers (1982) take a completely different perspective dealing with the target culture in an EFL classroom, where practicing an act of cultural exchange, or learning about the target language the receiving country is under cultural domination and faces the threat of being 'culturally submerged'. (Aiptekin, 1984) This perspective takes a political socio-economical nature, where culture, embedded within authentic teaching materials, can result in mixed feelings from the learners of the target language. An example was given by 'Greece' after the Second World War when Greek learners had a negative attitude resulting from political and socio-economic reasons. By giving this example, Prodromou (1988), explained the reason why authentic materials, TBL and CLT sometimes 'fall flat' when implemented in such classrooms, arguing that if the way authentic materials and the way they were implemented were culturally biased and alienating the students will fail to make a bond with the target culture and shut down to defend their integrity. Thus Prodromou (ibid.) notes the importance of raising learners' awareness of intercultural learning, limiting learners' and teachers' native cultural background from interfering, and if all of that fails, another perspective would go in response to this problem as follows:

- Accepting English as an international language including a set of other 'Englishes' varying in many different countries

- Producing of local teaching materials culturally suitable for foreign learners

- The recruitment of bilingual teachers without any chauvinist tendencies

Additionally, Brown (1990), Prodromou (1992), and Gilmore (2007) note another perspective that takes language teaching in a completely different way. Instead of asking the

question what culture to be taught? The concept of 'cultura franca' is presented to limit the cultural issues that might face both the learners and teachers of EFL, language, therefore, will be reduced to the most relevant features of the language suitable for communication in an international context. This means that language will be stripped from its rich and loaded cultural content and international functions such as English at the airport will be taken into account by course book makers. However, even though this model will have some advantages such as immediate use of the language taught in a limited context, the negative drawbacks overcome such advantages. Gilmore (2007) notes some of these negative drawbacks for such an approach that strips the language from its cultural aspects as follows:

- Writers often give a distorted perspective of the target language to the learners

- This perspective will lead learners to have generalizing fallacies that the target language they are studying is as efficient and culturally communicative as natives

- Learners will assume that all cultures operate as theirs

- Learners will not have a limited concept of their native language as there is no other language to be compared to

Therefore, Gilmore (ibid.) argues further that such models of teaching EFL are doomed to fail for the 'contrived' written by natives who do not possess the ability to dissociate themselves from their own culture and reflect on what a natural international English that a foreigner needs, because having a 'culture free' encounter between two different culture is almost impossible to even with the use of culture-free language (Valdes 1986; Byram 1991, 1997; Kramsch 1993; Nelson 1995).

To conclude, reviewing the literature that has been done on the topic of teaching culture along with the target language takes three different approaches, teaching the target language through the native culture, teaching the target language through many varieties of

culture, and teaching the target language within the target culture. This view has been debated by many; however, neither of them is inherently good or bad. Teaching EFL should always revolve around the needs of the learners, and that should be the linchpin in designing the curriculum and the aims of the course. Noting that language without culture teaching is doomed to fail (Gilmore, 2007); such approaches do not provide what the learners need for their communicative tasks. The risk of using authentic materials, being explained by many, shows that it is worthy of taking, and even though implementing culturally rich authentic materials can be time-consuming but they are the best choice so far to develop learners' pragmatic and communicative abilities.

2.9. Intercultural Learning

Intercultural learning can be defined as an environment where two cultures or more are present, developing a greater ability to interact "sensitively" and "competently" across cultural contexts, and acquiring a sense of awareness of the "subjective" cultural context in addition to our own (Bennett, 2009, p2).

Thus, the term 'context' is emphasized in intercultural learning, however, unlike its widely common use, in intercultural learning, the meaning of the word takes a rather relative perspective. In other words, the context has much subjectivity that can be discovered by another part, such an example is a doctor discovering the context of delusions of the patient. Therefore, culture could be seen in both perspectives, context as an objective term, and as a subjective term as well. Big-C culture is considered to be objective; on the other hand, little-c is the subjective context (ibid.).

Additionally, the definition tackles another point of cultural awareness becoming a developed competence of intercultural sensitivity. Bennett (1986) argues that intercultural sensitivity refers to the complex degree of awareness of cultural differences; where a higher degree of sensitivity reflects a high complex ability to make a difference between cultures.

Many models have been proposed to make intercultural interaction and learning in a specific way easier and avoid the cultural problems that can result from such an interaction some of these models go as follows:

2.9.1. Intercultural Development Model

This model is based upon developing learners' intercultural sensitivity that revolves around the subjective beliefs of the learners, in addition to how cultural differences are perceived and noticed by the learners. This model transforms from ethnocentrism to ethno-relativism (ibid.) which goes through many stages such as denial of difference, defense, minimizing the differences, accepting it, adapting to it, and then integrating that difference into the learners' view of the world. This model can be very successful, however, it requires a lot of training and constant continuous work, and if the teacher or trainer, in this case, fails to overcome one of these mentioned stages it is believed that the learner will retreat to the last stage that they had already overcome.

This model is believed to be the most suitable for learners' to integrate themselves in the target language and by engaging them in the TL and culture; they will be more culturally competent than other outcomes of other models. In the context of authentic materials used as a channel for cultural transfer and exposure, this model seems to be more suitable than the one below.

2.9.2. Cultura Franca Model

Prodromou (1992) conducted an experiment where sentences were collected and constructed from dictionaries and presented to colleagues and EFL learners in contrast with other sentences that were taken from authentic language use. Most of the learners reported that they found the made-up sentences to be easier, in addition to the majority of teachers who considered them more suitable for the classroom. This experiment shows how the model of

lingua franca approaches the context of learning. Gilmore (20017) defines this term as follows:

> The concept of a 'lingua franca' is not something that can be readily codified but for the purposes of ELT, it is most likely to mean a reduced form of English, incorporating what textbook writers perceive to be the most relevant features of the language for communication between non-native speakers in international contexts. (p. 104)

Thus, the language will be emptied from its cultural associations making it a more formal and basic language suitable for international communication ad settings and it can be readily used by two NNS. However, this model can have many drawbacks and risks that can result in making learning culturally incompetent and unable to function properly in a culturally rich context. According to Gilmore (ibid.), some negative aspects of this model can go as follows

- This model replies on textbooks that use contrived materials which are remote from an authentic context and cannot generate a genuine response

- Textbook writers tend to unconsciously include their native norms of interaction which results 'distorted' view of the language to the learners by believing that this model of culturally-emptied language is as valid and communicative as their native L1 or the real authentic TL

- Limiting the learners' exposure to only formal varieties of the TL

Consequently, the "cultura franca" model shows a potential of use in ESP but not in teaching English as a foreign language, the limited and sometimes omitted context results in limiting learners' perception of the language, thus liming their functional, pragmatic performance in the TL.

2.10. Conclusion

In this chapter, a theoretical background of authentic materials and the literature available in the field were reviewed to predict and handle the problems that can face the fieldwork when it comes to authentic materials implementation, and use. More importantly, the problem of remoteness between the classroom and authentic language is considered, reviewed, and thoroughly studied. The next chapter will take off from where we have concluded, taking culture as a mutual ground that relates authentic materials and pragmatic competence.

3. CHAPTER TWO: Pragmatic Competence

This chapter aims at explaining one of the most important variables in this study, pragmatic competence. It is well known that such a field, being pragmatics, is sometimes difficult to define and overcome the challenges that face it as a recent developing area of research compared to the other areas that dominated the field of research for decades before Hyme's and Chomsky's revolutionary contributions. In addition to shedding light on defining the nature of pragmatics and pragmatic competence in precise, other challenges have been tackled such as areas of investigation in pragmatics, pragmatic transfer and its nature, trying to take an insightful analysis of grammar versus pragmatics, the nature of pragmatics in the classroom, politeness theory, speech act theory including the four speech acts investigated in this study which are requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals. Furthermore, the issue of assessing pragmatic competence is tackled and different models of assessing such competence are explained and noted. In addition, this chapter will include some highlights and references to a prominent study (Tello Rueda, 2004a) that investigated the same variable before.

3.1. Defining Pragmatic Competence

As mentioned in the previous chapter, communicative competence has been explained in various models such as Canale's & Swain's (1980) model which included grammatical, strategic, and sociolinguistic competencies, pragmatic competence is included under sociolinguistic competence or 'rules of use' instead of being considered as an independent competence that constitutes the communicative competence. (Rose & Kasper, 2001)

However, years later, Bachman (1995) suggested a completely different model that inversed the way different competencies are included. In this view, language competence includes organizational and pragmatic competencies; the latter includes sociolinguistic competence and illocutionary competence.

Essentially, Austin J. L. (1962) is one of the earliest figures to consider the functional side of the language, considering that speakers can perform actions by saying something. This was based upon the philosophy of language of Morris (1938). Later on, 'pragmatic competence' became equivalent to the knowledge of conditions of appropriate use by Chomsky in contrast to grammatical competence which revolves around the knowledge of structures and forms of the language. Meanwhile, Canale & Swain (1980) define pragmatic competence as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use. Leech (1983) as cited in (K. R. Rose & G. Kasper, 2001) expands the definition of pragmatics to include engagement in discourse and speech events considering pragmatic competence as how members of a speech community achieve communicative and social aims with regarding the 'interpersonal' ties with other interlocutors at the same time.

Leech and Thomas (ibid.) divided pragmatic competence into two levels as follows:

- Pragmalinguistics is all the resources that help to convey meaning and speech acts, in addition to strategies that can make communication-intensive or soft, such as directness and indirectness. In Crystal's (2008) words, it is an approach that starts from the pronoun system of language that examines how people use different forms to express a variety of attitudes and kinds of relationships such as intimacy.

- Sociopragmatics is considered to be, in Leech's words, 'the sociological interface of pragmatics.' This is related to the social perceptions and norms of speech communities such as social distance, power, status and many other aspects involved in communicative acts Crystal (Ibid.) defines it to be the approach that studies 'the way conditions on language use derive from society'.

Bachman (1995) considers pragmatic competence to be a combination of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence, this notion redefines pragmatic competence to include sociolinguistic contextual elements in addition to the functions performed by language practice and use. Thus, pragmatics, according to Bachman involves studying the relationship between signs 'language', the users, and the context of communication and by that adopting Van Dijk (1977) as cited in (Bachman, 1995) description of pragmatics that goes as follows:

Pragmatics must be assigned an empirical domain consisting of conventional rules of language and manifestations of these in the production and interpretation of utterances. In particular, it should make an independent contribution to the analysis of the conditions that make utterances acceptable in some situations for speakers of the language.

This description divides pragmatics into two aspects: the 'pragmatic condition' which determines whether the utterance is acceptable to the speech community and the 'characterization' of the conditions that govern the pragmatic success in various situations. Thus pragmatics deals with the relationship between performed utterances and the intended acts and functions Bachman (Ibid.).

However, despite all of the definitions of pragmatics above, Crystal (2008) makes a clear and holistic definition of pragmatics, which takes all aspects of pragmatics such as context or discourse, participants, the linguistic code, and the social interaction or the relationship of participants in the same speech community, into account in a modern approach. This definition does as follows:

In modern linguistics, [it] pragmatics has come to be applied to the study of language from the point of view of the 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 the other participants in an act of communication. (P. 379)

Thus, communicating does not only revolve around speech acts but goes beyond that to include speech events, participants, and a variety of discourses. Crystal (Ibid.) goes further to explain that pragmatics lies in an interdisciplinary 'area' between semantics, sociolinguistics, and 'extralinguistic context', which leads to difficulties to define pragmatics because of the scope of these domains is not precise. If pragmatics is defined narrowly the definition would be inclusive of the aspects of context that are encoded in a linguistic pattern that constitutes the participant's 'pragmatic competence'. However, being pragmatically competent, in Crystal's words, is being competent in the practice of conversational performance in regards to its principles of use, which includes all features of linguistic use, comprehension, and appropriateness. This definition is similar to that of Bialystok in (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993) which goes as follows:

> Pragmatic competence entails a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts. It includes speakers' ability to use language for different purposes—to request, to instruct, to effect change. It includes listeners' ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions, especially when these intentions are not directly conveyed in the forms—indirect requests, irony, and sarcasm are some examples. It includes command of the rules by which utterances are strung together to create discourse. This apparently simple achievement to produce coherent speech itself has several components—turn-taking, cooperation, cohesion. (P.43)

The mentioned three important components of pragmatic competence will from the ability to use the linguistic codes for a variety of functions, being able to decode what is

mostly nonliteral forms such as sarcasm, and knowing all about the rules that create a coherent discourse, make the foreign speakers reach a native-like competence. Mastering all of these three aspects gives the speaker or listener the ability to properly function within the terms of social and culturally bound use of the language.

To conclude, it is clear that the term pragmatics and pragmatic competence to be more specific changes through time and becomes more and more defined and precise even if the scope is becoming larger to include even paralinguistic and sociopragmatic features. Thus, the most recent definitions tend to be more precise and holistic in nature. Crystal's (1997, 2008) definition is most suitable and accurate for the same reasons mentioned above, in addition to Bialystok's (1993) definition of pragmatic competence, which we tend to opt for as a standard definition.

3.2. Areas of Investigation in Pragmatics

In comparison to other branches of linguistics, pragmatics is considered to be a fairly recent branch, which gives a wide range of topics to be investigated. However, this poses another challenge of the wide range of the matters to be investigated, and sometimes it can be difficult to conduct limited empirical fieldwork. The following areas are a developing scope for research in which many levels are going to be investigated.

3.2.1. Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP)

Interlanguage pragmatics is an emerging discipline where much debate is going around 'defining the term' and 'limiting' or 'expanding' the definition to include or focus on other areas of research. Kasper & Dhal (1991) define ILP as "referring to nonnative speakers' (NNSs') comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2- related speech act knowledge is acquired" (P.216). Thus, IPL includes two areas of research, the first includes a focus on language 'use' and the second emphasizes language learning or acquisition. However, most of the research conducted focuses on the use rather than the acquisition or

development of pragmatic competence. Kasper (1992) notes that "the majority of interlanguage pragmatics studies focus on use, without much attempt to say or even imply anything about development" (p. 204).

3.2.1.1. Focus on Target Language Use.

The focus on the use has been the most dominating research area in IPL, it is often a comparative and contrastive study, where Nonnative speakers (NNS) are compared to native speakers, in regards to the way they use the target language to express and perform apologies, requests, compliments, complaints, expressions of gratitude, refusals, and disagreements. Even though, the focus on the 'use' might entail studying how NNS produce and understand speech acts in the target language.

The empirical studies in this field such as Blum-kulka & Olshtain (1984) Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) and Gabriele Kasper & Schmidt (1996) are based upon a cross-cultural approach where multi-lingual sociopragmatic aspects of speech acts performed by a native speaker and NNS are examined and observed across cultures under a variety of social rules of use. Such studies compare NNS and native speakers and whether they differ in matters of "the 1) range and 2) contextual distribution of 3) strategies and 4) linguistic forms used to convey 5) illocutionary meaning and 6) politeness—precisely the kinds of issues raised in comparative studies of different communities. . . ." (G. Kasper, 1992, p.205)

Therefore, Tello Rueda (2004) notes that empirical user-oriented studies often tend to explore and explain:

- Cross-cultural variation by comparing and contrasting how patterns of speech acts are realized across cultures and different languages

- Sociopragmatic variation by analyzing and describing speech acts in particular speech communities

- Interlanguage variation by investigating the acquisition and development of pragmatic competence by adult NNS

Even though the focus on the use of the target language may seem nit in favor of focusing on acquisition, it can act as a theoretical background that can provide a basic explanation of how pragmatic competence develops in comparison to native speakers.

3.2.1.2. Focus on Target Language Acquisition

This part tends to focus on the central element in Dhal's (1991) definition of ILP that has been ignored, the acquisition of the target language's pragmatic competence. Many have noticed that interlanguage pragmatics does not give much attention to this part, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) stating that "I had come to understand that not only was interlanguage pragmatics not fundamentally acquisitional, but it was, in fact, fundamentally not acquisitional" (p.679) and Kasper and Schmidt (1996) noting that "To date, ILP has thus been primarily a study of second language use rather than second language learning" (p.151). The reason behind IPL being cross-culturally oriented is the fact that most of the IPL is related to the outcomes of empirical ILP rather than SLA.

Kasper and Schmidt (ibid.) highlight the existing studies that focus on acquisition, starting with:

a) Cross-sectional Studies. This kind of study uses 'pseudolongitudinal' designs that study the strategies behind performing speech acts by language learners at various levels of language proficiency, even though, most of these studies are conducted on intermediate to advanced learners. Beginners tend not to master the target language enough to answer WDCT tests; therefore, data collection tools are not compatible with such a level. Many studies were noted by Kasper and Schmidt (ibid.) such as (M. A. Robinson, 1992; T. Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Svanes, 1989; Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross, 1996), these studies found the similar result and a relationship between the level of proficiency and pragmatic competence.

This fieldwork reveals that the more proficient the learners are the better they become mastering the pragmatic rules of use of the target language, and less speech act transfer from L1 to the target language.

b) Longitudinal Studies. Studies of this kind focus on the development of communicative and pragmatic abilities based on observing longitudinal data, this means that learners are observed interacting, sometimes receiving pragmatic instruction, implicitly or explicitly, through a period that sometimes can reach two years. Subjects will often start from an early stage of learning, where they are considered to be beginners, to other intermediate to advanced levels without an exception.

Kasper and Schmidt (1996) cite some important cases where such studies have taken the same longitudinal observatory procedure, such as Ellis (1992) who observed two boys who arrived from non-English speaking communities, they were observed for almost two years and the development of their pragmatic directives in their interlanguage. However, their knowledge was taken from different resources such as transfer from their L1 to the target language.

Kasper and Schmidt (1996) suggested establishing a research agenda that makes ILP more acquisitional and developmental, a list of questions are asked, and answering them is important for ILP being acquisitional, these questions are about:

- The existence of implicit universals of cross-linguistic variation and their role in ILP if they exist

- Measuring remoteness to the target language

- L1's impact on the process of acquiring an L2

- Comparing the pragmatic development in L1 to that of L2

- Stages of development in regards to difficulty, acquisition steps, and accuracy

- The impact of instruction

- The type of input

- Psychological factors' impact such as attitudes and motivation on the acquisition

- Gender and Personality roles

- Perception preceded by production in acquisition models

- Chunk Learning role in the acquisition

- The mechanisms that shift acquisition from a stage to another

3.2.2. Contrastive and Developmental Pragmatics

As mentioned above, in Kasper and Schmidt (Ibid.), the field of ILP is divided between theories and fieldwork focusing on language acquisition or development, and another focusing on language use. This variety gives two divisions, one is contrastive and the other is acquisitional. The latter emerged when the concept of acquisition was introduced to ILP, which made it gain a developmental perspective that investigates how the knowledge of the way speakers perform speech acts is acquired (Kasper & Dhal, 1991). Developmental opt more reliable longitudinal studies to observe the correlation between different periods of times and levels of pragmatic competence proficiency such as Ellis (1992; as cited in Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

However, unlike developmental pragmatics that has a more vertical longitudinal nature, where learners' pragmatic competence is analyzed and measured in the target language, contrastive pragmatics takes a more of a horizontal nature, where pragmatic competence is contrasted and compared through an interlinguistic and cross-cultural nature. Pragmatic and semantic strategies from different cultures and speech communities and studied and compared to deduce how speech acts are realized in different speech communities. However, the findings in contrastive pragmatics make a macro basis for interlanguage and developmental pragmatics, Tello Rueda (2004) notes that "some studies on speech act production have provided essential information to arrive at the set of realization patterns

typically used by native speakers in TL" (p.30). This basis will provide a valuable insight for teaching speech act realization techniques for EFL learners, Cohen and Olshtain (1993) state that "the research literature provides relatively detailed descriptions of realization strategies for perhaps eight speech acts in a variety of situations (i.e., apologies, requests, complaints, disapproval, refusals, disagreement, gratitude, compliments)" (as cited in Tello Rueda (Ibid.)

3.2.3. Pragmatic Transfer

The transfer is vague to define because the definition is not limited to one kind or type of transfer at any time or linguistic level. For example, Odlin (1989) defines pragmatic transfer to be the result of the influence that comes from mutual and different points between the target language and learners' mother tongue or any language that they have acquired before (cited in G. Kasper, 1992: 2005). However, Kasper (Ibid.) notes that "defining pragmatic transfer is no easier because researchers disagree about how to define the scope of pragmatics". However, some argue that the term 'transfer' should be kept only for 'linguistic behavior' and instead of using 'cross-linguistic influence' to refer to nonlinguistic effects such as avoidance strategies, but Kasper (Ibid.) notes that such an approach is not useful where linguistic and nonlinguistic information meet, thus suggesting that the term 'transfer' is suitable to describe linguistic and nonlinguistic features better than 'cross-linguistic influence'. In the next part transfer will be explained further from two different perspectives that give birth to two different types of transfer, one type is considered negative and the other positive.

3.2.4. Types of Transfer

Since pragmatic transfer is considered to be the influence of L1 on learners' perception of L2 or the target language in general, studies have shown that there are two types of transfer. When pragmatic strategies and speech act realization techniques play the same in both L1 and L2 this is often regarded as a positive transfer and is the least investigated, on the

other hand, negative transfer that often results in unmatched patterns being transferred from L1 to L2 this is considered to be negative and unlike the first type, it takes all of the attention of researchers.

3.2.4.1. Positive Transfer

As mentioned above, this is the least controversial type of transfer, where similar patterns of speech act realization from L1 meet the same ones in the target language. At a pragmalinguistic dimension, learners can transfer conventions of making requests such as transferring 'can you' from L1 such as Danish, German, Japanese, Chinese, and Hebrew to the target language being English (Kasper, 1992).

At the dimension of the choice of the strategy in two identical contexts, German learners showed that offered the same strategy as frequently as the native speakers of their L1 did, which reveals how learners choose these strategies that match the target language and by that creating a successful positive transfer. However, Kasper (Ibid.) notes a methodological issue in such transfer where it is difficult to distinguish between learners' overall pragmatic knowledge and their accidental unintentional transfer from L1 to L2 that just happens to find a suitable equivalent in the target language that does not fall under the umbrella of universal pragmatics. In addition to this methodological issue, it is also noted that sometimes positive transfer can result in miscommunication between NNS and native speakers, in this case, the native speakers' pragmatic behavior might be considered inappropriate to NNS. However, positive transfer often results in positive rather than negative outcomes of communication, this leads the attention to fall on the second type, negative transfer.

3.2.4.2. Negative Transfer

Kasper (Ibid.) gave an example of negative transfer that can be explained on a sociopragmatic level where learners are aware of the contextual factors that affect their choice of speech act realization strategies. Japanese learners showed a tendency to opt to different ways of refusing

according to the status of the speaker and hearer, whether it is higher or lower, in comparison to American learners who distinguished that factor in a different manner, whether the status is equal or unequal despite if it is high or low. (Beebe in Gass, Madden, Preston, & Selinker, 1989)

In addition, what is socially acceptable can result in facing cultural and acquisitional difficulties when performing a certain speech act. The same example of Japanese learners is explained in terms of gender and carrying out a speech act, where Japanese female learners reported that it is difficult to perform refusals in the target language because it was 'discouraged' for females to refuse in their culture. This presents a negative drawback of transfer where a certain feature of communicative pragmatic styles transferred from L1 would affect how learners perform in L2.

3.3. Pragmatics and Grammar

Research on the relationship between grammar and pragmatic knowledge tends to be rare, however, one significant study, Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei (1998) which investigated how learners recognize grammatical and pragmatic failures or violations, gives a significant important contribution to the field. In addition to that, the already existing fieldwork on this relationship takes grammar as a micro dimension where systems of forms of language function, then pragmatics as a macro level that includes more social and cultural interfering aspects that govern how those forms function and are 'appropriately' used according to contextualized settings. However, most of the fieldwork relied on debunking the hypothesis that pragmatic competence increases with how grammatically accurate or competent the learners are, by that, showing that grammatical development does not automatically mean a correspondent increasing relationship with the level of pragmatic competence, which results in an imbalance between their grammatical and pragmatic competences (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, Ibid.). But by going back to ILP's focus on language use and language development,

we can relate this to how grammar is taught which in a way constitutes some pragmatic needs, or focusing on the use and rather learning from it. This goes in the same direction where grammatical competence in regards to pragmatics, has been ignored in the field of ILP for its focus on the user rather than the development. Thus, a recap to the definition of communicative competence is needed, because both pragmatic and grammatical competencies have been included as sub-competencies in communicative competence as a whole (Canale and Swain, 1980, 1983; Bachman, 1990). This gives two trends of research, one that claims that learners cannot learn pragmatics without grammar, and the second states that learners can be pragmatically competent without possessing a high level of pragmatic competence (Rueda, 2004).

3.3.1. Grammar or Pragmatics Which Comes First?

This question takes two trends, the first which argues that grammar comes before pragmatics, Rueda (2004) summarized this trend in few points as follows:

- Grammar, then pragmatics ignores the fact that adult learners are already pragmatically competent and will transfer that competence positively to the TL

- Universal pragmatic competence is ignored, therefore, sociopragmatic variation will not be noticed by the learners

- This trend is supported by research that shows how advanced learners of L2 do not perform correct pragmatic acts in the target language despite their developed grammatical abilities

On the other hand, the view that pragmatic competence precedes grammatical competence, L1 learners' pragmatic competence, universal pragmatics, and sociolinguistic variation are emphasized and taken into perspective. Therefore, studies such as Schmidt's (1993, as cited in Rueda, 2004) exhibit that the lack of pragmatic competence does not necessarily mean that learners will not be less pragmatically competent.

In addition, this debate could be seen from a different perspective, that is, it is often difficult to distinguish what is grammatical and what is pragmatic. The following quote will explain more in different words:

> Adopting a code versus inference distinction, we applied it (the distinction) not just to clear cases of conversational implicatures, but mainly to various cases where deciding whether some form–function correlation is coded or inferred is not straightforward. As we saw, even though there is general agreement in the field on a code versus inference distinction, researchers do not necessarily classify specific phenomena in the same way. What some analyze as code, others analyze as inference. (Ariel, 2008: p.306)

Ariel here uses the term inference for pragmatic function or strategy, and code for a grammatical linguistic level. The distinction between what is grammatical and what is pragmatic is very difficult distinguish, in the same words Ariel (Ibid.) argues that despite the cognitive differences between cod and interference, these two still come in contact, and most of what is considered to be grammatical are pragmatically stimulated from the origin of grammar. In addition, codes most often develop out of the speakers' inference presented in codes or forms. Thus, the constant trial and use of grammar sometimes can generate new forms to express certain pragmatic needs, this after evolves into new forms and form-function correlation offering new patterns of grammar to fulfill certain pragmatic functions. Therefore, this contribution by Ariel can be taken as an argument-settling perspective, at least at the time being.

3.4. Pragmatics and FL Classroom

After the revolutionary communicative teaching approach and task-based learning, classrooms have been in constant change and shift from old classroom teaching to more communicative oriented aims, even though this change is sometimes slow, but it is taking

place. Widdowson (1983) states that a classroom is a setting where the target language is brought and imitated in the classroom, therefore, the communicative aspects of natives are often duplicated in different ways and manners to reach native-like proficiency and meet native-like norms of use. Thus, many second and foreign language materials and course books are opening to the idea of including rich pragmatic content and approaches in their syllabi. As a consequence, the fieldwork done on native speaker discourse became a basis for designing such approaches. Rose & Kasper (2001: p.4) note that to understand how classroom activities and context shape the learning process and outcomes of L2 or FL pragmatics, three important questions must be asked and investigated, these questions are:

- What opportunities for developing L2 are offered in the classroom?

- Does pragmatic ability develop in a classroom without instruction in pragmatics?

- What effects do various approaches to instruction have on pragmatic development?

Rose and Kasper (Ibid.) argue that the first and third questions require data-based classroom research, which can be a useful contribution to classroom-based interlanguage pragmatics. However, an answer to the second question can be found and deduced from the available literature in ILP. The answer to this question is provided in the section dedicated to 'pragmatic transfer' where fieldwork and early research have shown that adult learners are often already competent in their L1 which shares some universal grammatical conventions with the target language, in addition to some pragmatic aspects and strategies that can be transferred from L1 to L2 successfully.

Additionally, and following Widdowson's view that learners will be exposed to the target language in the classroom, which in many ways, tries to imitate that of native speakers' communicative context, authentic materials play a major role in doing that, as mentioned in the first chapter of this study. Yet another contribution that emphasized the role of pragmatic

instruction could shed a light on how interlanguage pragmatics functions in a classroom context. Wildner-bassett (1994) emphasized that to make learners communicatively proficient, their pragmatic abilities must be investigated to include more suitable pragmatic knowledge and instructions in the design of the syllabi. Here a distinction has been made, declarative knowledge is anything that learners know about the target language procedural knowledge such as knowing 'how to do or perform. In Rueda's (2004) words, declarative knowledge is about developing learners' pragmatic awareness and procedural knowledge is practicing the target language abilities.

3.5. Cognitive Theories of TL Pragmatic Development

In the field of acquisitional pragmatics, there have been a lot of studies and fieldwork investigating children's acquisition of pragmatic competence, however, little has been done to investigate how adults acquire L2 pragmatic competence (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). This is a very important and crucial part of this study, where two cognitive approaches that will explain how adults acquire second language pragmatic competence in this part.

3.5.1. Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

This view considers that the exposure alone does not often result in acquisition taking place, however, more variables make acquisition take place. Schmidt (1990) investigates, based on recent fieldwork in experimental psychology, the role of conscious awareness in developing learners' pragmatic competence. Thus this view came with the conclusion that it is a necessity to bring the learners' awareness to the attention to the socio-pragmalinguistic information to be acquired. Therefore, making the learning process of pragmatic instruction explicit, however, 'incidental implicit learning' can still take place, even though noticing plays a major role in facilitating the pragmatic input. This makes collecting data rely on

learners' self-report, and adopts activities that encourage the learners to notice the pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic features of the TL (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993: p.19).

Furthermore, Schmidt (1990) notes that the two major approaches in TEFL that revolve around teaching conversational English can be either, indirect, where conversational competence is regarded as the product of conversational interaction, here learners acquire and develop their pragmatic and conversational abilities while using and negotiating meaning in the target language, by that group work and TBL are conducted and emphasized. The second approach takes a rather direct way of teaching where the focus is mainly on the strategies that make conversations go on and meet the target language norms instead of taking it as a side or resulting product of interaction. Schmidt's (1990, p.35) claims that "for the learning of pragmatics in a second language, attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features is required", and that "attention is subjectively experienced as noticing, and that the attentional threshold for noticing is the same as the threshold for learning". In addition, he argues that despite incidental and implicit acquisition are both possible, paying attention to the relevant features of the pragmatic input and trying to notice their importance in incidental acquisition 'are both facilitative'.

3.5.2. Ellen Bialystok's Model

This model is a contrastive approach of how adult learners acquire their pragmatic competence in comparison and contrast to how children acquire their first language pragmatic acquisition. This two-dimensional model of language acquisition and use of pragmatic norms shows that the ways children and adults acquire pragmatic competence are completely different. The way children acquire language is often pre-examined to deduce and notice the maps, patterns, or schemes of language functioning before developing control strategies needed for successful linguistic use. On the other hand, adult learners take a completely

reversed approach to acquire pragmalinguistic competence, adults seek control over the norms of using the pragmalinguistic input to perform a certain function appropriately and being able to decode and comprehend pragmatic input in a certain TL context.

Precisely, Bialystok (1993, p.44) summarized children's ability to develop their pragmatic competence in three different aspects of pragmatic competence, these pragmatic aspects are:

- The ability to increase the variety of speech acts

- The ability to modify the speech to suit social contexts

- The mastery and control of conversation and discourse

This summary will be used later on and compared to adults learning a second language and their ability to develop their pragmatic competence. In addition, two sides of the model (analysis and control) require two different descriptions of the learners' competence, the first takes language processing ability from a cognitive perspective, and the second takes into account the demands of the tasks. Therefore, language proficiency, in Bialystok's words, is the 'fit' between the processing abilities of the learners and the task demands imposed by a sociolinguistic context, which means, if the two are compatible the learners will perform well, and if the demands are 'excessive relative' to the learners' abilities, there will be difficulties that will face the learners.

In conclusion, the findings of this model note that children's pragmatic competence evolves through three different stages as follows:

- The intended meaning focus, where the form used to express it is neglected

- Noticing and realizing the different speech resources that express different meanings

- Becoming conscious and aware of the choice forms learned and the context in which they are uttered (Bialystok 1994, as cited in Rueda, 2004, p56)

This outcome, when compared to the way adults acquire L2 shows that it is a reversed process, whereas children first focus on the intended meaning stage, adults often try to start with the functional side of use and try to gain control over the functional use of the language in performing in situational contexts.

Consequently, these two different models offer different but 'compatible' approaches that explain how pragmatic development takes place, unlike Bialystok who takes the cognitive dimensions into account, Schmidt focuses more on the conditions that govern the intake (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993).

3.6. Social Theories of TL Pragmatic Development

Many theories socially explain TL pragmatic development, and some take a socio-cognitive approach that gives attention to both cognitive and sociolinguistic aspects. Rueda (2004) mentions many social theories and models behind TL pragmatic development, however, we find some of those interesting and significantly contributing to this study.

3.6.1. The Acculturation Model

This model is based on the belief that if learners are to acquire the target language, they have to integrate into the target language and that the learners will only acquire the target language only to the 'degree' that they 'accultrate' (Schumann, 1986). That is, Schumann proposing that the learners are in a position of remoteness or 'irremoteness' where the condition of acculturation results in acquiring the TL. In addition, learners will see the native speakers of the TL as a reference, by which, they desire to adopt all of the values and the lifestyle of the TL speech community. However, a distinction is made, the social and

psychological openness of learners and the contact with the target language norms and native speakers is necessary but adopting the norms is not.

Furthermore, Schumann (Ibid.) suggests that acculturation is a cluster of social and psychological or affective factors that make up 'acculturation as one variable. Social variables in words are all of the variables interlinked with two social groups who are in contact but using two different languages, one group is the foreign learners and one is the speech community. These factors (dominance, attitude, assimilation, adaptation, preservation, and enclosure) can either facilitate or hinder and inhibit contact between the two mentioned groups, therefore, affecting the degree to which learners 'accultrate', by that, affecting the learners' acquisition in the process. Other variables are noted and these relate on a personal level with the learners, by considering them 'individuals'. These 'affective factors' that influence acculturation are language shock, cultural shock, motivation, and ego permeability.

3.6.2. Sociocultural Theory SCT

Even though this theory starts from a cognitive stand and explanation of the acquisition of L2, however, it goes beyond organizing and using the minds to perform a speech act. According to Vygotsky, higher processes that happen in the mind cannot be studied through experimental or introspective methods. He believed that mental activities can only be investigated when an observation takes place in a longitudinal study when they are presented in a 'pathological performance' (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995).

Lantolf & Pavlenko (Ibid.) notes that "the language acquisition device is not located in the head of the individual but is situated in the dialogic interaction that arises between individuals engaged in goal-directed activities", this explains the sociocultural dimension of SCT. In addition, the process of creating meaning is the outcome of dialogue and a sentence

becomes an 'utterance' instead, taking a sociocultural pragmatic dimension instead of being a target of mere linguistic analysis.

3.7. Speech Act Theory

This is one of the most influential studies that gave ground to the field of pragmatics, it goes back to Austin J. L (1962), who based his work on Morris' (1938) work that was mainly on the philosophy of language. Searle et al. (1980) define speech act theory to be a theory that undertakes the assumption that the smallest unit of communication is neither a sentence nor an expression, but it is a performative act, with a certain functional use such as requests, questions, stating, thanking, and ordering. Any speaker who performs one of these speech acts by uttering one of these utterances, however, the linguistic structure or unit, in this case, a sentence, is not to be confused with the performance of the 'act' itself.

Asutin (1962) notes that such speech acts like requesting, ordering, and apologizing are called 'illocutionary acts', these acts often result in effecting the hearers on a level beyond their understanding of the illocutionary act, such effects are convincing, amusing, persuading and annoying and they are called 'perlocutionary acts'. The peaker makes illocutionary acts in order to have a perlocutionary act. An example of a colleague making a request 'can you open the window please?' at a workplace shows how the perlocutionary act is performed by the hearer when he opens the window. In addition, a third type which is 'propositional acts' is used to make a reference and to make a distinction between illocutionary and propositional acts.

Searle (1970) suggests a new taxonomy of speech acts based on the three most important linguistically significant dimensions of the differences between illocutionary acts, these three dimensions in, Searle's words, are the illocutionary point, direction of fit, and expressed psychology. He argues that Austin's (1962) taxonomy did not offer a clear attempt

to distinguish between the different types of illocutionary acts, lack of clarity, and confusion. He presents five 'basic kinds of illocutionary acts as follows:

- Representatives or assertives such as claims and assertions

- Directives such as requests, instructions, and suggestions

- Commissives such as promises

- Expressives such as apologies and compliments

- Declarations such as making a declaration

The next part, however, will take into account the different most occurring speech acts and that this study will investigate in the context of developing learners' pragmatic competence. However, following the steps of Tello Rueda (2004) an explanation of each speech act according to the main works in the field will take a similar pattern.

3.7.1. Apologies

According to Searle's (1976) framework, apologies are considered to be expressive speech acts; thus, they relate to other expressive speech acts in regards to their characteristics. Apologies, like thanking, complaining, and complimenting, often take place after the event (Bergman & Kasper, 1993). Additionally, apologies just like complaints express a result of events that constitute 'norms infringement' where the speaker puts himself as 'responsible for the event that proceeded (ibid).

Apologies thus can be defined in Bergman's and Kasper's words to be as "compensatory action to an offense in the doing of which the speaker was causally involved and which is costly to the hearer". This plays as a 'remedial interchange' after a social infringement had already taken place, adopting Goffman's (1971 as cited in Bergman & Kasper, 1993) classification of apologies, which goes as follows

- Apologies that reflect virtual offenses, which take a more linguistic nature and can be adjusted or corrected by a simple apology

- Apologies for tangible damage, these often are followed by an offer for a material compensation

However, as simple as they may seem, apologies can take different culturally specific patterns, which leads the NNS to sometimes fail to express an apology. Bergman and Kasper (1993, p.83) highlight the different formulas used to express the two different types of apologies, specific to American English, where 'excuse me' is used for a 'ritualistic' apology that reflects a virtual offense, as a territory invasion signal with strangers in addition to disturbing someone's physical space, or as an announcement for leaving from an 'on-going' interaction.

Additionally, Cohen & Olshtain (1981 as cited in Tello Rueda 2004) apologies take three different levels or formulas, starting with the apology itself by expressing regret, the need to make an apology, and a request for forgiveness. The second formula or level describes the situation that leads to the unfortunate situation and mainly attempts to explain the conditions that have resulted in this situation. Finally, the third formula can be admitting the responsibility, self-blame, the unintentional will, and admitting that the person deserves an apology.

3.7.2. Compliments

According to Searle's (1976, p.10) classification, compliments, just like apologies, are considered to be expressive speech acts, complimenting and thanking include events in which the hearer is praised to be 'praiseworthy' by the norms of the speech community, which characterizes the event as 'praiseworthy occasion' (Bergman & Kasper, 1993).

Furthermore, speech acts can vary to a great degree from a culture to another, Wolfson (1981) conducted a study in which the American English way of complimenting was compared to Japanese and Indonesian complimenting patterns. The study shows that compliments can serve in various situations, like greetings, conversation starters, substituting speech acts for thanking, and even apologizing. Additionally, it was observed that Americans use compliments too excessively. These findings emphasize the cultural differences in performing the same speech act and the various problems that can result from that such as misunderstandings and problems with translation.

3.7.3. Requests

Following Searle's classification (1976), requests are considered to be a directive act. Trosborg (1995, p.8) defines requests as:

> ...an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker. The act may be a request for non-verbal goods and services, i.e. a request for an object, an action or some kind of service, etc., or it can be a request for verbal goods and services, for example, a request for information.

In addition, requests can take different times in the future, either requesting with an immediate expectation of the act to be performed or at a later stage, in Trosborg's words, "request-then". However, unlike complaints and apologies, requests are pre-event when the intention of the speaker to perform the cat proceeds the event of the action taking place.

Furthermore, requests can take different natures, they can be performed as a small favor, but it can vary in the degree of 'imposition' to become a face-threatening act, in which

the requester imposes and performs power over the requestee to change his behavior. Thus requests can vary from 'begging to order' (Machiko Achiba, 2003).

Moreover, requests can take two different strategies, they can be either direct or indirect. In Trosborg's words (1995) when a speaker doesn't want to show impositive intention explicitly they often adopt 'hinting strategies' and by that implying what they'd like the listener to perform, such as 'it is cold here as a hint for the speaker to close the window or turn on the heater. Thus, indirect strategies are defined "as utterances in which the speaker's meaning and the propositional content are not identical" (Holtgraves, 1986 as cited in Machiko Achiba, 2003). On the other hand, direct requesting strategies are defined as "utterances in which the propositional content (sentence meaning) of the utterance is consistent with the speaker's intent (speaker meaning)" (Holtgraves, 1986, as cited in Machiko Achiba, 2003), which means that direct requesting strategies are more explicit and serve one function and one illocutionary act, unlike indirect strategies that tend to convey more than one and by that becoming more ambiguous and less efficient than direct requests (ibid.).

3.7.4. Refusals

Unlike the other mentioned speech acts, refusals tend to have a very different nature, with discourse features that make it easier to analyze. They often occur in response to speech acts that take initiative such as requests, suggestions, invitations, and offers (Morrow, 1995). Also, refusals are considered to be of a discourse internal, unlike requests which tend to be external by initiating different topics and establishing various contexts according to Edmondson's (1981) taxonomy (ibid.). Therefore, refusals can be defined as follows:

Receipt of a request does not commit the receiving agent to accept it - a

refusal will be modeled as an assertion that the agent is not committed to the

goal of a prior request. Unlike the request, where the requester is attempting to have the addressee take on a particular mental state, that of commitment to a future action that will have an associated cost, the refusal is simply an attempt by the original requestee to make known to the original requester that she will not ever commit to the requested action. (Smith & Cohen, 1996, p.27)

In other words, a refusal is simply the requestee freeing herself from the requester's obligation presented by the original request.

Additionally, refusals, being one of the most popular speech acts to analyze for their easy nature, often tend to be simply brief and 'self-contained' avoiding ambiguity and lack of clarity and yet still be fairly indirect (Morrow, 1995). Also, refusals are a face-threatening act, where the listener can see the expression on the refusing side's face. This makes refusals quite sensitive among cultures, as Rubin (1983, as cited in Morrow, 1995) states that: " a great deal of knowledge is required to send or receive a message of 'no' ".

3.8. Politeness Theory

This theory started from Gricean and face-to-face interaction rituals by Goffman (1967), this background made it possible for many figures such as Lakoff (1972), Leech (1983), Brown and Levinson (1987) to establish politeness as a field significant to pragmatics and important for future research. Lakoff (1972) defines politeness to be a system of interpersonal relationships that are aimed at facilitating interaction by avoiding confrontation and conflict that is inherently found in any interaction. Leech (1983) regards politeness as one of the maxims that guide conversations, and by that, regarding politeness as one of the 'social goals' that the speaker intends to achieve falling under 'interpersonal rhetoric' without assuming the speaker's communicative intention, however, it plays a role in how the speaker chooses certain forms and utterances to suit this communicative intention, about this he says:

Politeness does not serve here as a premise in making inferences about S's communicative intention. Thus, the PP does not seem to help in understanding S's intention although it plays a role in S~s choosing the appropriate expression of his communicative intention ... Thus the PP may help to understand reasons S had for choosing the particular content and form of what he said, but usually does not help to infer S's intention. (1983. P38)

Thus, he introduces the term 'relative politeness' where politeness is relative to the context, where he notes that we can consider 'under-politeness' and 'over-politeness'.

However, unlike Lakoff and Leech, Brown and Levinson (1987) take a more face-oriented perspective rather than a Grice-based approach. Brown and Levinson begin from the assumption that all adult members of a speech community have a 'face' or self-image which consists of a negative face, including personal preserves, freedom from imposition and to act, and the right of non-disturbance, also, a positive face which consists of their self-image and a deep desire to be approved of and appreciated by others. Thus, the notion of face for Brown and Levinson is based on Goffman's (1967) philosophy of face. In other words, the face is an emotional façade that people tend to establish cooperative communication based on facial expressions. Here speakers who engage in a conversation tend to avoid face-threatening acts, FTA, which tends to be less suggestive of politeness. They distinguish between two different types of politeness based on the notion of the face:

- Positive politeness is oriented at showing the hearer that he is respected and liked, and by that directed at the hearer's face, where their wants meet and are the same

- Negative politeness tends to be more formal and assertive and oriented towards 'partially satisfying the hearer's face. Their 'wants' are different the speaker claims territory and interference in the hearer's freedom of action and it is often followed by an apology.

Furthermore, Fraser (1990) notes the fact that most of the literature on politeness lack consistency, and the term 'polite' is never explicitly addressed in terms of definition. Therefore, he notes four major perspectives on politeness.

3.8.1. The Social Norm View

This view considers politeness to be an outcome of historical understanding of the term, which goes deep in the culture of the speech community. What is often polite for such a speech community is whatever falls in agreement with the norms of this society, unlike what contradicts these norms that are considered to be 'rude'. An evaluation takes place when these actions take place, the evaluation is 'positive' when the act meets the norms and it is considered negative when it does not.

This view differs from a speech community to another, and it is believed to be related to good manners and the style of which the individual speaks. In an English-speaking community, polite speech style is often associated with a high degree of formality.

3.8.2. The Conversational-maxim View

This view is based on the works of Grice (1967) under the cooperative principle, and when it is broken it might suggest that one part does not think highly of the other. However, this work was limited, the notion of politeness was later on developed by Lakoff (1972). Despite extending Grice's work when it comes to politeness, her definition of politeness is vague and often is not mentioned (Fraser, 1990).

3.8.3. The Face-saving View

This view includes the works of Brown and Levinson (1987) where they adopt the notion of 'face' in addition to taking Grice's conversational maxims view as valid. According to Fraser (1990) and their notion summarized above, none of their works attempt to define what politeness is.

3.8.4. The Conversational-contract View

This view is presented and elaborated by Fraser (1975, 1990), it adopts both notions of cooperative principle and Face, however, it differs from Brown's and Levinson's (1987) notion with the belief that before every conversation, the interlocutors behold a 'set' of rights and responsibilities which guide the interlocutors' expectations from this interaction. Yet, during the span of the interaction a 'negotiation' of 'the contract' may take place if the context changes, therefore, the initial rights and responsibilities will be adjusted accordingly. In addition, sometimes these rights and responsibilities are 'forced' and imposed by 'social institutions and cultural norms which decide the discourse turn-taking, and the roles of each speaker.

3.9. Pragmatic Failure

Thomas (1981) refers to this linguistic phenomenon as the inability to comprehend the intended said meaning which has received little to no attention by researchers and teachers. Blum-kulka (1986) describes it as a phenomenon that takes place when the intention of two speakers or more are misunderstood or not understood at all, which can happen between two speakers regardless of their cultural background. Thus, pragmatic failure can occur between two speakers of the same speech community. Thomas (1981) notes that different backgrounds of interlocutors can shape and give unique backgrounds for each speaker, such as jobs, regional differences, political stands, and even class differences (p .91).

Furthermore, Thomas (ibid) suggests this area of cross-cultural communication breakdown includes two areas as follows:

3.9.1. Pragmalinguistic Failure

This type is the easiest one to overcome for its grammatical contextualized use that can be taught grammatically, it occurs when pragmatic failure is simply a result of lack of command

of learners' pragmalinguistic abilities, precisely lack of command over their grammatical competence, caused by a mistake or error, thus leading native speakers or NNS to misinterpret the intended meaning. It can be simply defined as a grammatical failure that results in a misrepresentation of the intended meaning.

3.9.2. Sociopragmatic Failure

The latter is more complicated, for its nature that involves meta-linguistic knowledge that includes learners' systems of beliefs based on the pragmalinguistic level mentioned above. Thus it is simply defined as a 'social error' caused by a lack of awareness of the social rules of use or the world (context). It is often caused by negative pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2, the difference in culture-specific politeness strategies, taboos, social distance, and power.

3.10. Assessing Pragmatic Competence

Bachman (1990) used the term of 'language proficiency' testing to refer to testing general knowledge of the language, competence and ability to use it in multiple contexts, or the communicative competence, which have been used interchangeably and often opted to use 'language' ability to be more specific focusing on the 'use' rather than knowledge of rules. In addition, Bachman introduces a vital distinction between 'test', 'evaluation' and 'measurement', noting that "the process of measurement is described as a set of steps which, if followed in test development, will provide the basis for both reliable test scores and valid test use", also "measurement in the social sciences is the process of quantifying the characteristics of persons according to explicit procedures and rules." (1990, p. 19) This definition includes three key features or characteristics of measurement which are:

- Quantification which includes taking features graded in quantitative scales, categories, and rankings such as A, B, C, good, bad, and excellent to be measured, such numerical ranking is needed for analysis and interpretation later on

- Characteristics can be physical or mental and for both numerals, ranking can be used. However, physical attributes can be observed directly, mental attributes can only be ranked and measured indirectly. Such mental abilities can include intelligence, motivation, attitudes, and the ability to use the language

- Rules and procedures have to be explicit and clear to avoid random assignment and rankings

However, another approach was mentioned (ibid.) where the term ability was swapped by 'performance' where correct performance is attributed to a high level of performance.

Tests, on the other hand, are defined as a measurement too aimed at showing a certain attribute of a person's behavior, which makes a test a type of measurement (Carroll 1968, as cited in Bachman 1990). Evaluation, however, is defined as "systematic collection of data to rank or make a decision." (Weiss 1972 as cited in Bachman, 1990) Therefore, this definition does not necessarily include testing; it could include many other tools such as observation, verbal description, and letters of reference, and so on... Thus in contract to testing needs constant data gathering tool for specific psychological or pedagogical aims based on performance, which will constitute a base for an evaluation later on.

Furthermore, a more detailed notion has been developed where pragmatic competence was taken broadly under Lyle F. Bachman's & Palmer's (1996) approach to defining linguistic competence, here pragmatic competence was a major competence that includes illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence as mentioned before in other sections in this study. Therefore, the context was taken into account as a major element in assessing pragmatic competence.

Kasper and Dhal (1991) take the concept of assessment of pragmatic competence in terms of 'data collection procedures' which includes two types, the first is perception comprehension and the second is production using discourse completion tests (DCT) and role-plays. DCT was first developed by Levenston and Blum (1978, ibid) which often tends to take

the nature of contextualized situations that requires a certain reply to or using the investigated speech act. However, Role-plays are associated with noticing authentic language use, which tends to take a descriptive nature.

In addition, Hudson et al (1992) developed a framework that includes six methods of assessing pragmatic competence based on Bachman's and Palmer's (1989) model of pragmatic competence, which were later on explained and cited by Dean & Changseob (2011) these six methods of testing go as follows:

3.10.1. Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT)

This type of test requires the learners to read a contextual situation that focuses on one of the speech acts, with varying degrees of politeness, which involves speakers of different roles, statuses, and prestige, and then write an appropriate response.

3.10.2. Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test

This type is similar to WDCT, however, learners here are asked to read that situational context, and then choose one response to that speech act setting. This kind is often used in ICT and web-based tests such as Roever (2006).

Many other studies that opted to use DCT or one of its variants are mentioned by Kasper & Dhal (1991) and Kasper & Rose (1999) such as Takahashi & Beebe (1987) in the case of performed refusals by Japanese learners of English of different proficiency levels, Omar (1991) by investigating greetings performed by Kiswahili learners of English of different levels of proficiency, Robinson (1992) in the case of refusals performed by Japanese learners of English and finally, Hill (1997) in the case of requests done by Japanese English learners of varying levels of proficiency.

3.10.3. Oral Discourse Completion Tests (ODCT)

Such tests give the learners' the same written situation, however, their answers will be recorded afterward when they are asked to respond to the situation, such as Hudson et al (1992).

3.10.4. Discourse Role-Play Test (DRPT)

Unlike ODCT, DRPT tests require pair work, after reading the written situation, the learners are asked to role-play the situation with each other and say what is needed to be said in such a context. The most influential studies that assessed pragmatic competence according to Kasper & Dhal (1991) and Kasper & Rose (1999) using role-plays are, Trosborg (1987) by investigating how Danish learners perform apologies in the target language, Takahashi & DuFon (1989) by studying how intermediate and advanced Japanese learners of English performed requests in the TL, Torosborg by investigating apology, request and complaints performed by Danish Learners of English, and Houck & Gass (1996) in the case of refusals performed by Japanese learners of English.

3.10.5. Discourse Self-Assessment Test (DSAT)

Similar to all of the tests mentioned above, the learners are asked to read a contextual situation; however, learners in this case judge their pragmatic ability.

3.10.6. Role-Play Self-Assessment (RPSA)

This type of test is based on learners evaluating their pragmatic competence after listening or watching a record of themselves trying to respond to a written situation.

In conclusion, pragmatic tests have been debated throughout the decades, even though they propose a way in which performance could be evaluated. These tests have a lot of positive and negative or weak amounts of strength, for example, they tend to have a 'unitary' nature in Dean's & Changseob's (2011) words, this nature only allows testing one speech act

at once and does not offer a holistic assessment unless many tests were conducted. In addition, Beebe and Cummings (1985) as cited in (Beverly & Hartford, 1992) note the points of strength of discourse completion tests such as collection a wide range of authentic data, forming a primary taxonomy of formulas and strategies that often happen in spontaneous speech, distinguishing what is contextually and socially considered polite responses from rude ones and by this having a deeper insight on the social and psychological features that affect learners' pragmatic ability and finally, discovering the cognitive patterns of the various speech acts in the mind of the speaker.

3.11. Conclusion

In this chapter, the term pragmatic competence was investigated in a way that makes the realization of this study come to a clear conclusion and a solid basis for the upcoming fieldwork. The most important notions such as speech acts included in this study, ways of assessment, politeness theory, ways of teaching pragmatics, and the most important and prominent studies that investigated pragmatic competence in the field of research.

4. CHAPTER THREE: Research Design and Methodology

After establishing a firm theoretical basis for this research, by critically reviewing and evaluating the available literature on pragmatic competence and authentic materials, it is worthwhile to go in-depth into the investigated case study. This chapter aims to thoroughly explain the nature of the fieldwork conducted throughout this study. It includes a well-detailed structure of the used methodology and the logical process followed to reach the data and results in the following chapters. This includes the initial pilot study questionnaire and the language placement test structures, the rationales behind them, and the results obtained. In addition, it includes the research design, the population, the sampling, and the Pre-test and Post-test.

4.1. Research Design

4.1.1. Sample and Population

To investigate the effect of authentic materials on the development of pragmatic competence of third-year students of English at the department of Batna, we opted for an experiment to test the treatment's effect on the dependent variable. The population was chosen for a reason, as third-year students are believed to possess better linguistic abilities than their first and second-year counterparts. Both control and experimental groups were randomly selected, the control group was selected to be Group 8 and the experimental group to be group 9. The population makes up 723 students, and the sample 91 learners with 48 learners in the control group and 43 in the experimental group.

Due to administrative restrictions, it was difficult to apply any other techniques of sampling to guarantee a certain higher level of randomness and representation of the population. However, the sample of 91 learners out of a population of 723 learners is quite representative.

4.1.2. Procedure

To conduct the experiment and investigate the effect of authentic materials on third-year learners' pragmatic competence, different tools and techniques were used to test learners' pragmatic competence before and after the application of the treatment. First, before conducting the experiment a pilot study was conducted using a questionnaire to get the views of oral expression teachers on the use of authentic materials and pragmatic competence. 11 teachers were asked after the piloting of the questionnaire we 4 expert teachers. After, the control group and experimental groups were both given a placement test to test their linguistic abilities. Learners' linguistic abilities could hinder the process of learning and comprehending pragmatic cues in the target language if their level is not good enough and by that affecting the effectiveness of the treatment. However, all of the learners scored above the required level, and by that, the threat of the linguistic factor is eliminated before the beginning of the experiment.

Afterward, both the control and experimental group were given the pre-test which is a written discourse completion test to test their pragmatic abilities before the application of the treatment. A post-test is later on conducted to measure the effects of the treatment on the dependent variable.

The experiment took over 6 months where the learners in the control group were taught using contrived materials often made by the teacher or found in coursebooks to teach them a variety of speech acts that are tackled and included within the scope of this study such as ways of making requests, compliments, apologies, refusals. On the other hand, the experiment group was taught by using authentic materials made by native speakers for other reasons than education. The same curriculum was taught using two different kinds of materials, authentic and contrived. This is going to be explained in detail in the following

sections. Finally, the learners were given retrospective written self-report questionnaires to get their self-assessment of their pragmatic abilities before and after the experiment in addition to their attitudes towards the materials used in teaching them. The diagram below gives a brief illustration of the research design adopted to conduct this experiment.

Figure 1

The Research Design Used to Conduct the Experiment

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                           ┌─────────────────────┐
                           │   The Population     │
                           └─────────────────────┘
            │                                              │
            ▼                                              ▼
┌───────────────────────────┐              ┌───────────────────────────┐
│  The Experimental Group    │              │     The Control Group      │
└───────────────────────────┘              └───────────────────────────┘
            │                                              │
            ▼                                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                         The Language Test                            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                              │
            ▼                                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                           The Pre-test                              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                              │
            ▼                                              │
┌───────────────────────────┐                             │
│       The Treatment        │                             │
└───────────────────────────┘                             │
            │                                              ▼
            ▼                                              
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                          The Post-test                              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                              │
            ▼                                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        The Written Retrospective Self-Report Questionnaire          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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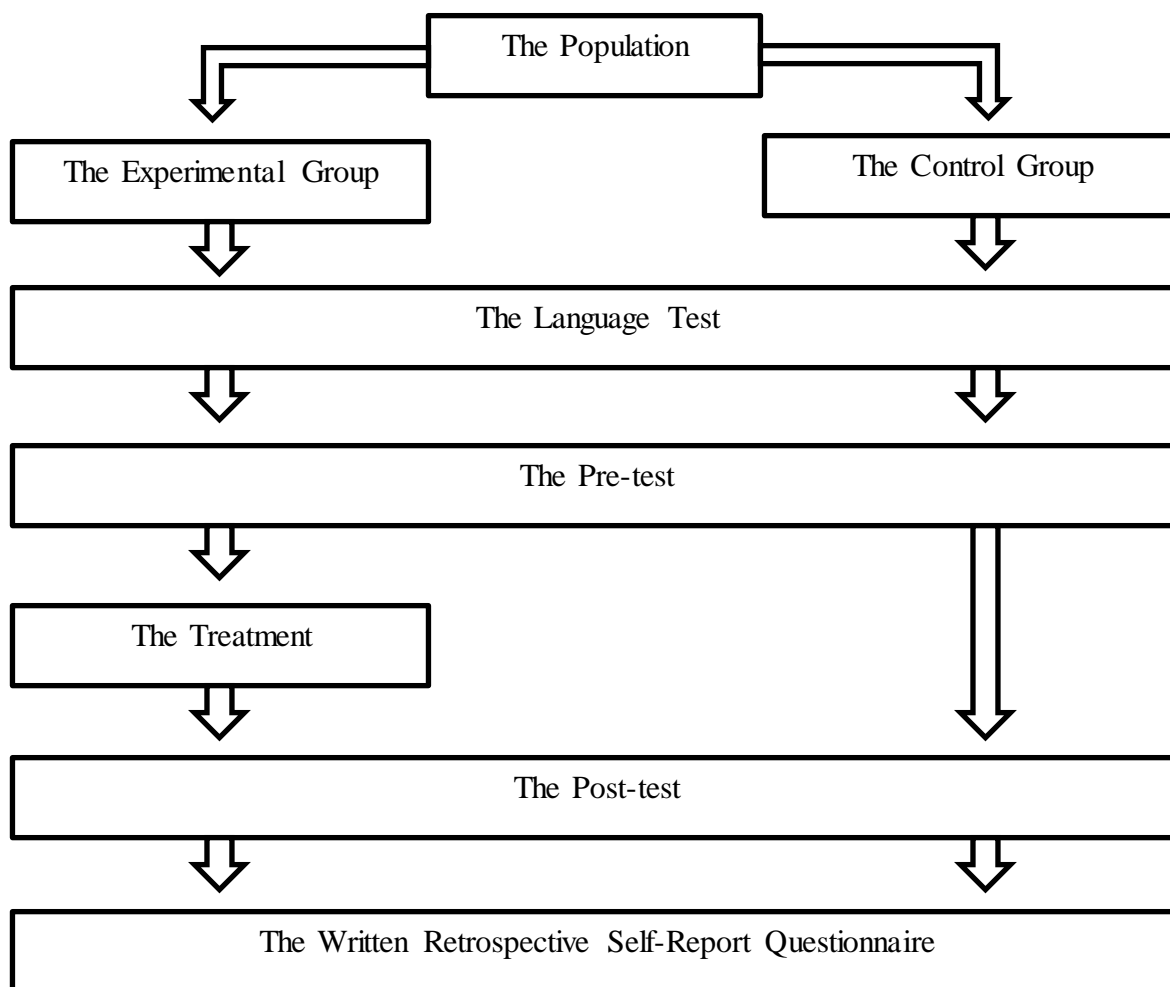
4.2. The Questionnaire

To give the study a strong basis before experimenting, we were obliged to understand the nature of the problem and its existence in the chosen setting and sample. To collect the required data, a questionnaire was designed and delivered to teachers of oral expression and pragmatics after facing difficulties in conducting interviews with the subjects. As it is widely known, interviews and questionnaires are the two most used tools in academic and educational research. Interviews are often more precise and give better qualitative data, however, it was difficult to arrange to meet a larger sample of teachers and conduct the interviews properly and effectively. As a result, we opted for using questionnaires that could be answered in a different setting and even delivered via email or in-person if required. In more detail, the questionnaire was chosen as an instrument for collecting the required data practically and straightforwardly providing clear data that is easier to analyze (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, n.d.). However, even though questionnaires are a simple yet effective tool to gather data, these benefits are counterbalanced by the time and effort taken to develop and refine them to gather the required data.

Therefore, it was crucial to follow these steps to make the questionnaire effective in gathering the required data:

4.2.1. Operationalizing the Questionnaire

In this step, the general and specific purposes of the study are taken and turned into researchable interests about whom we can gather data, in addition to the setting. This questionnaire aims at obtaining a detailed description of the use of authentic materials by third-year oral expression teachers to develop their students' pragmatic competence. In addition to this, other sub-interests that make up the aims of the study were also included along with the framework of the theoretical part and literature review.

4.2.2. Planning the Questionnaire

The preliminary planning of the questionnaire is a crucial and important step in designing questionnaires for the reason that it enables the researchers to anticipate the type and range of responses that will be elicited by the questions (L. Cohen et al., n.d.). This will be refined more in the next stage. This questionnaire was first planned in a flowchart that enabled the anticipation of the types of responses and therefore the types of questions to be included and in three sections, the first gather basic data on the background of the teachers, the second gathers data on the different kinds and uses of authentic materials and the last section includes developing the learners' pragmatic competence.

Giving the fact that this is a simple questionnaire with a simple aim and small sample, the questionnaire includes structured questions with follow-up open-ended questions. Structured questions often require a rigorous piloting process to avoid ambiguity and provide more precise answers when dealing with large samples. However and as a result of the limitations encountered and the simple role of this questionnaire, structured questions were followed with open-ended questions to gather more qualitative data and avoid any limitations structured questions may result in.

4.2.3. Piloting and Refining the Questionnaire

After planning, the questionnaire was given to 4 teachers of oral expression and pragmatics with a wide experience in teaching and relevant research for piloting. The teachers helped refine the questionnaire's content and structure before it was distributed to the sample of 11 teachers of pragmatics and oral expression. The results of piloting the questionnaire were used to refine the questionnaire and the ambiguous questions were paraphrased to make them clearer. An open section was included to get the teachers' input by asking them to leave

any comments that may help refine the questionnaire. However, the questions before that went as follows:

Are the questions clear?

	Nº
Yes	2
No	2

If the answer is no, please mention the ambiguous questions

	Nº
Question 3 Section ii	2
Question 7 Section ii	2
Question 4 Section iii	1

Is the questionnaire's length practical?

	Nº
Yes	4
No	0

4.3. The Questionnaire's Data Analysis

4.3.1. Section One: Background Information

This section collected data related to the participants including qualification and experience, this helps to give more context to the collected data and understand the participating sample. As the results show, most of the participants hold MA or Ph.D. And only 1 participant holds a BA degree. Similarly, the results of the second question that collects data on the experience acquired, it is clear that most of the teachers (8 out of 11) are experienced in the field of ELT or teaching pragmatics.

Table 1

The Questionnaire's Section 1

Qualification	Nº
BA (License)	3
MA (Master/Magister)	7
PhD. (Doctorate)	3

Experience	Nº
1-5 Years	3
5-10 Years	4
10+ Years	4

4.3.2. Section Two: The Use of Authentic Materials

This section collects data on the different ways teachers implement authentic materials in the classroom in addition to whether they rely more on using authentic materials or non-authentic materials. Also, this section collects data on the teachers' belief that authentic materials play a role in improving the learners' pragmatic competence, or if they believe that non-authentic materials are capable of having the same effect. Another area included is how often the teachers use authentic materials, the kinds of authentic materials they use and if they face any difficulties implementing authentic materials in their teaching.

Question 1, what type of materials do you use in teaching Oral Expression?

The data collected shows that the teachers use non-authentic and contrived materials more. On the other hand, one reported that they sometimes use self-made materials. This goes in agreement with the hypothesis that TEFL in Algeria is often non-authentic materials centered.

Table 2

Question 1, Types of Materials Used by the Teachers

Type of Materials	Nº
Authentic Materials	3
Non-Authentic Materials	7
Others (self-made)	1

Question 2, which type do you think is more capable of developing learners' pragmatic competence?

The data collected in this question shows that there is a certain disagreement between the subjects, half believe that authentic materials help develop learners' pragmatic competence with the other half having a contrary opinion. This is quite significant because it necessitates investigation and thus, making the aim of this study more significant.

Table 3

Question 2 Teachers' Opinions on Authentic Materials

Type of Materials	Nº
Authentic Materials	5
Non-Authentic Materials	5
Both	1

Question 3, do you think that the long exposure to authentic materials helps developing learners' pragmatic competence? Why?

The data collected by this follow-up question emphasizes the current disagreement between the teachers and provides more qualitative data. Five teachers argued that the long exposure to authentic materials enables the learners to develop their pragmatic competence and ability to perform speech acts because of the culturally and pragmatically rich content that

authentic materials include. On the other hand, 4 teachers argued that exposure to authentic materials does not affect how learners perform speech acts in the target language.

Table 4

Question 3 Teachers' Opinion on the Exposure to Authentic Materials

	Nº
No	4
Yes	5
Other (No Specific Answer)	2

Questions 4 & 5 how often do you use authentic materials and what authentic materials do you often use?

The data collected by these questions show that most of the teachers never use authentic materials in teaching oral expression or pragmatics. Only 4 of the teachers reported that they use more authentic articles than podcasts, in contrast, to never using authentic films.

Figure 2

Question 5 & 4 the Kind of Authentic Materials Used and Frequency of Use
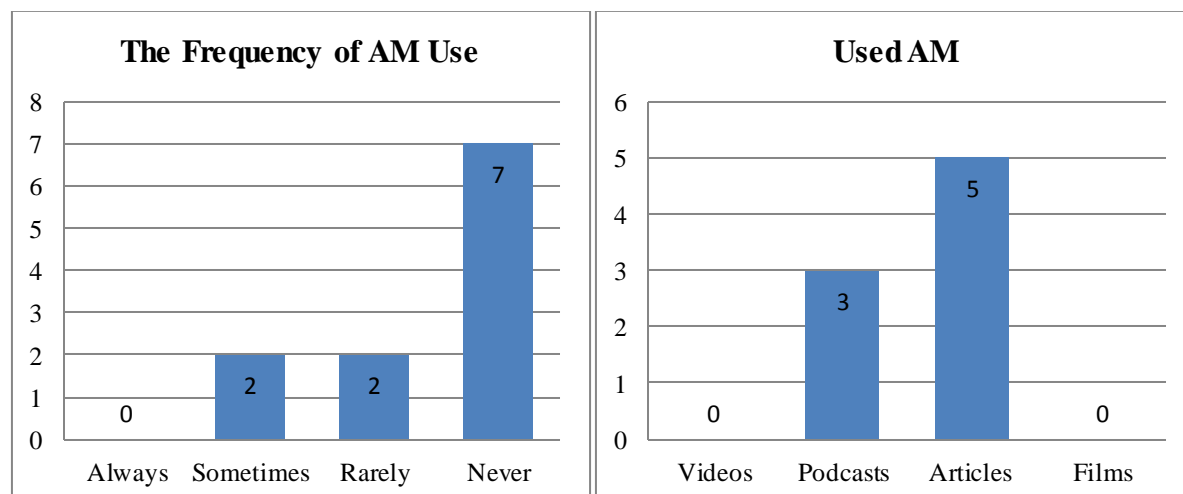
Questions 6&7, is it difficult to use authentic materials, and do you think the teachers require training to implement authentic materials in their Oral Expression classes?

These questions gathered important data that show that even some of the teachers consider using authentic materials they still face difficulties implementing them in the teaching of oral expression. Most of the teachers have emphasized the issues they face such as lack of training, materials, and equipment to implement authentic materials in their teaching. As the previous data suggest, most of the participants have a fair experience teaching oral expression, and their feedback on the need for training to use authentic materials is significant.

Figure 3

Questions 6 & 7 Difficulties Faced Using Authentic Materials and Lack of Training
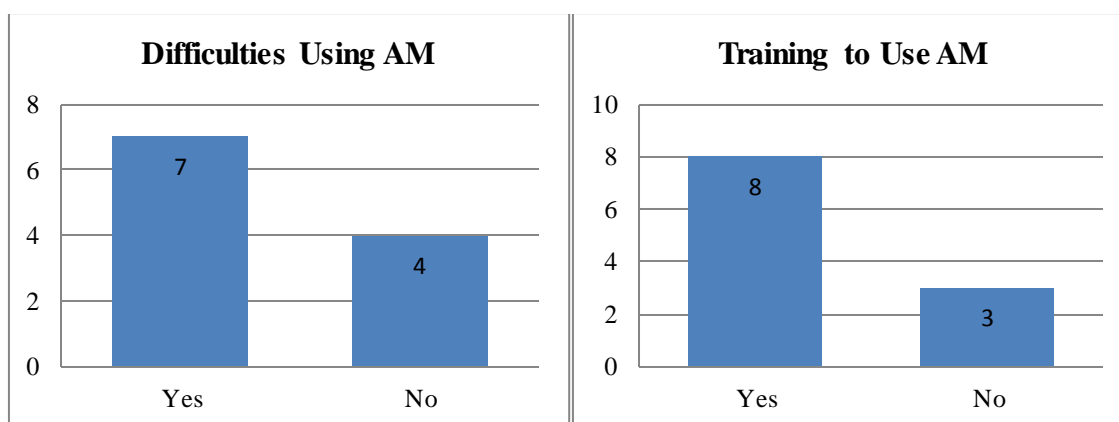
4.3.3. Section Three: Developing Pragmatic Competence

Questions 8 & 9: What's the aim behind teaching EFL & do you refer to the pragmatics of the English language while teaching Oral Expression?

The data show that 6 teachers understand that the importance of teaching oral expression is to develop the pragmatic and communicative abilities of the learners, in contrast to 4 who believe that it is more important to develop the learners' accuracy and grammar.

However, one teacher emphasized the importance of both. This goes in agreement with the literature collected in the previous chapters. This is also clear in question 3, where the teachers are asked if it is enough to equip the learners with the language form without any reference to its pragmatics and the data were identical to that of question 2.

Figure 4

Question 8 and 9 the Teachers' Aims behind Teaching Oral Expression
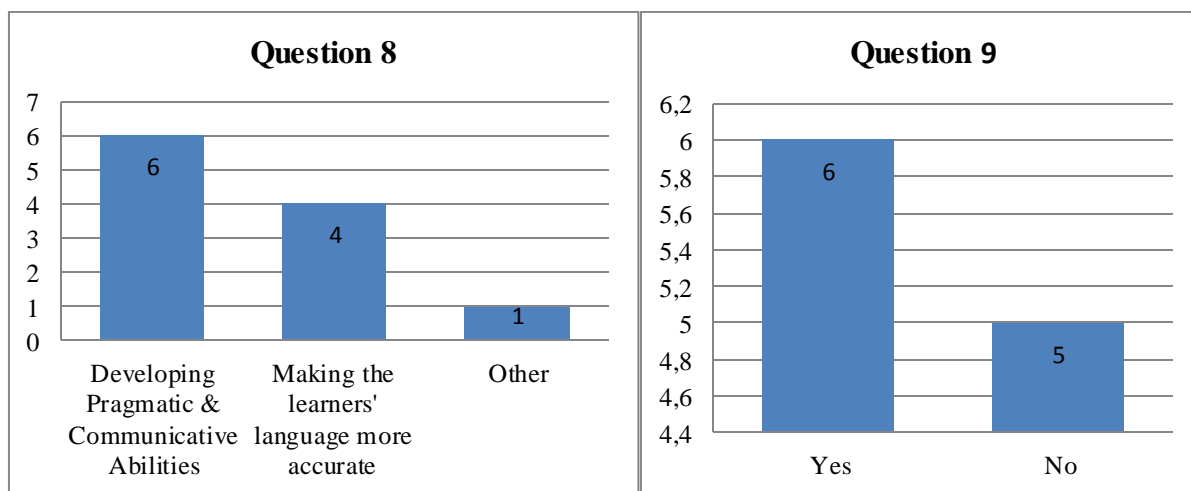
Questions 10 & 11: is it important to teach pragmatics and are your students aware of the pragmatics of the target language?

These questions collected important data as shown in the bar charts below. Most of the teachers believe that it is important to teach the pragmatics of the TL however, most have also answered that their students are not aware of the importance of the pragmatics of the TL.

Figure 5 *Questions 10 and 11 the Importance of Pragmatics in EFL & Oral Expression*
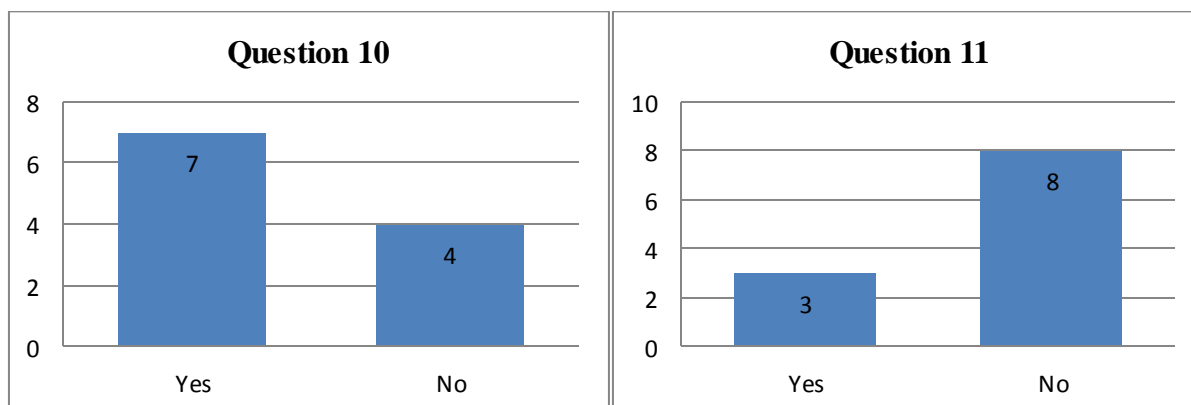
Question 12 & 13: How often do pragmatic breakdowns and failures happen in your classroom, & how should you deal with pragmatic interference from the mother tongue?

The data collected show that pragmatic breakdowns and failures do happen regularly which could be the result of the lack of use of authentic materials as shown in section 2, and which agrees with the hypothesis and the reviewed literature. Additionally, the participants equally ignore and correct these breakdowns. 3 participants argued that these pragmatic failures and breakdowns are only corrected when they are relevant to the content of the lesson.

Figure 6

Pragmatic Failures and Transfer
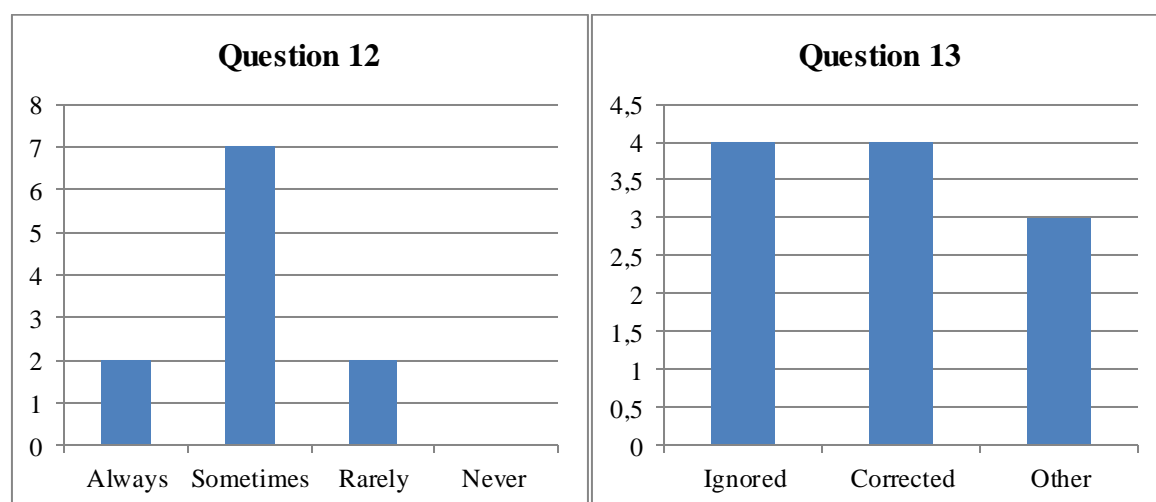
Question 14: What teaching methods do you believe are the most suitable for developing learners' pragmatic competence?

The data gathered show that the teachers believe that TBL and CLT are the most useful learning methods to develop the learners' pragmatic abilities and two teachers had a different opinion by reporting that immersion and the natural approaches are the most suitable for developing learners' pragmatic competence.

Figure 7

The Teaching Methods Used by Oral Expression Teachers
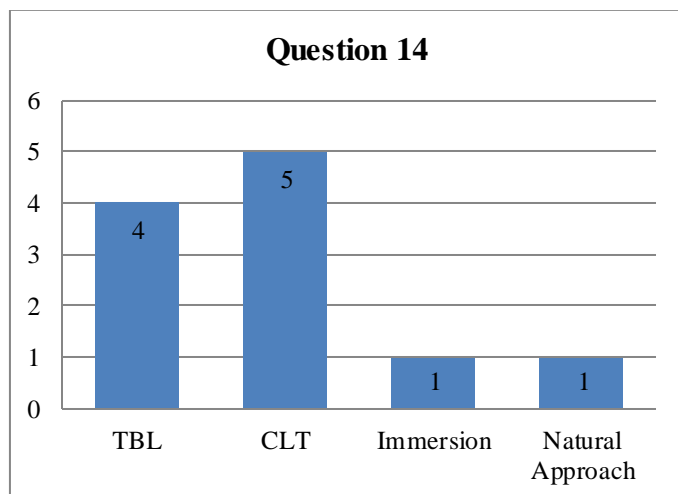
4.4. The Discussion of the Questionnaire's Results

This simple questionnaire served as an effective tool in gathering basic data and contextualizing the reviewed literature before conducting the experiment. The insights gathered and provided are not perfect and the questionnaire's effectiveness was limited to the small number of the sample. However, it can be clear that the following points are important findings for this study.

4.4.1. The Ambiguity of the Relation between Authentic Materials and Pragmatic Competence

Based on the collected data, it is clear that there is a certain level of ambiguity surrounding the relationship between authentic materials and pragmatic competence. This is also reflected in the reviewed literature in the first section. Additionally, what makes this ambiguity stand even more is the lack of implementation of authentic materials in teaching oral expression and pragmatics. This issue requires investigating to prove whether authentic materials have a positive impact on developing the learners' pragmatic competence in the

context of Algerian university students and a more specific context, the students of the third year, department of English at the University of Batna.

4.4.2. The Lack of Training and Equipment

The ambiguity discussed in the previous chapter made the implementation of authentic materials in teaching oral expression more difficult for the teachers who possess a fair and long experience teaching oral expression. These difficulties require training and equipping the teachers with the required equipment. The latter could be as simple as some techniques such as flipped classroom technique or exploiting the learners' mobile devices.

4.5. The Language Test

Previous literature such as (Garcia, 2004) emphasizes the importance of the comprehension abilities of EFL learners in understanding pragmatic features of the target language. Garcia's (2004) findings suggest that there is a correlation between the linguistic competence and pragmatic competence, in that high-level learner possess a certain set of linguistic skills which enable them to understand the meaning in context. Unlike low-level learners who may struggle to comprehend the target language pragmatics. As a result, learners become more aware and able to understand the pragmatic features of the target language when they are intermediate and above. Therefore, this posed the need for a language test before the experiment to limit the linguistic factor and the language level of the learners' and have more information on the participating sample, both CG and EG took a placement test in addition to interviews to limit the margin of error that the placement test has.

Thus, for the effect of the authentic material to be measured, the linguistic level of the learners should as well be measured; hence, the test was adopted in this study.

4.5.1. The Description of the placement test

The placement test used in this study is designed by Straightforward McMillan team based on The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The latter is an international language scale that measures language ability based on the learners' linguistic competence created by the Council of Europe. The CEFR includes six levels as follows: C2 and C1 levels for advanced language users, B2 and B1 for upper and lower intermediate users, and A2 and A1 for elementary and beginner users.

Thus, the adopted test measures the learners' linguistic competence which includes 50 multiple-choice questions that test the learners' grammar, vocabulary, and functional language from A1 (beginners) to B2 (upper-intermediate). However, if the learners score100 that might mean they are C1 or C2 because the test is only limited to testing language competence between A1 and B2. Therefore, if the CG and EC achieve more than B1 as average, the language level is controlled and the treatment will be more effective. As a consequence, this test is compatible with this study because the minimum required is B1 level and any levels above that do not affect the results. The levels and the obtained scores are better explained in the table below.

Table 5

CEFR Scores' Brackets and Their Equivalent Level

Level	A1	A2	B1	B2
Score	0-30	31-55	56-80	81-100

Another point is the reliability of this test, which has been used for years in the school that I work for to place the learners in the required groups. More than 2830 learners have taken this test on moodle platform with a margin of error of less than 3%.

4.5.2. Results & Discussion

The placement test was printed then delivered to the control group and experimental group who make up a sample of 91 learners out of 723 third-year students. The learners took the test and the scores ranged between B2 and A2 level as a minimum, only 3 subjects scored 31-55 which makes a minority that falls under the required and recommended level of B1. Most of the subjects scored between 56-80 and 81-100 with a mean score of 76.14, which is within the range of high B1 level scores. This means that the sample able to perform using the language without any linguistic difficulties that may hinder the development of their pragmatic competence.

Table 6

The Language Test Results

Level	A1	A2	B1	B2
Score	0-30	31-55	56-80	81-100
Participants	0	3	50	38
Mean Score			76.14	

Additionally, both control and experimental groups' scores were analyzed and treated independently. This allowed testing whether both groups are linguistically homogenous. The control group's mean is 78.10 in comparison to 73.95 scored by the experimental group. This could be the result of the fact that the control group includes 5 more subjects than the experimental group. Overall, both means are close, and both are in the range of a high B1 level.

Table 7

The Comparison of the Language Test Results of CG & EG

		CG	EG
N	**Valid**	48	43
	Missing	0	5
Mean		78.10	73.95
SD		16.23	10.34

4.6. The Instrument: Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT)

As already discussed in the literature review, testing pragmatic competence can be a difficult task especially considering that many different tests have different and varying criteria to be tested. This study uses a written discourse completion test for how easy and straightforward the process of testing pragmatic competence becomes. This type of test requires the learners to read a contextual situation that focuses on one of the speech acts, with varying degrees of politeness, which involves speakers of different roles, statuses, and prestige, and then write an appropriate response. The learners then have to complete the missing discourse or dialogue and by that provide the required speech act according to the described situation, setting, social distance, and status.

The instrument used to test the sample's pragmatic competence in this study is a WDCT originally designed and developed by Blum-Kulka (1982) for comparing and testing speech act realization of learners. The following is an example taken from the test used and originally designed by Blum-Kulka (1982) the Example below of a test item is designed to elicit a request:

At a students' apartment

Larry, John's roommate, had a party the night before and left the kitchen in a mess.

John: Larry, Ellen and Tom are coming for dinner tonight and I'll have to start cooking soon:

_____

 Larry: OK, 111 have a go at it right away.

This WDCT was later used and adapted by many fieldwork studies throughout the years. It has been edited, modified, and adapted to suit the needs of the different aims tackled by every study. For instance, Tello Rueda (2004) edited the test to include other speech acts such as compliments, apologies, refusals, and requests. The latter has been the version adapted to conduct this experiment.

4.6.1. The Adaptation of the Instrument

The original instrument includes 16 items that include different situations that vary in social distance and dominance. These 16 items seldom include requests. However, the adapted version in Tello Rueda (2004) included 4 speech acts which are apologies, requests, refusals, and compliments. This version was adopted by this study and used to measure the impact of the treatment on the learners' pragmatic competence.

The adapted instrument includes 20 items. These items were adopted from Tello Rueda (2004) to include the speech acts of making apologies, refusals, and compliments, which were not included in Blum-Kulka (1982). The adapted instrument in Tello Rueda (2004) still takes the same structure and concept of Blum-Kulka (1982) in testing the speech acts included.

4.6.1.1. The Problem of Raters

The original instrument used patterns of making speech acts generated by native speakers; these patterns are later used to be compared with the results of the Hebrew speaking sample. The patterns originated by the native speakers had distinguishing features such as the

use of imperatives, permission directives, ability questions, question directives, existential questions, willingness questions, why not questions, desire statements, obligation statements, and hints.

All of this was conducted by using trained native speaker raters, who could rate the appropriateness of the speech acts performed. This posed a challenge to this study, especially when taking into account the fact that the rater is a non-native speaker. However, taking into account the grading criteria mentioned in Blum-Kulka (1982) mentioned in the paragraph earlier gave a clear insight on how to rate the given speech acts.

Additionally, Tello Rueda (2004) designed a precise analytic scale to assess the answers of the subjects to the situations. This analytic scale solves the issue of native speaker raters by using features of appropriate native speakers' pragmatic answers. The answers provided by the subjects were assessed according to a Likert scale of 1 to 5. This Likert scale of the items provided is based on 7 mini-individual scales that include the features of speech act realization. The mean of the scores obtained from these 7 mini scale-based features is the score of each item. The features and the form of the scale go as follows:

1) Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.

Inappropriate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely appropriate

This feature grades the ability of the learner to comprehend the speech act that the situation requires. For instance, the learner may apologize in a situation that requires a complement. If the learner is unable to identify the speech act required this shows that the learner could not operate with the context of the speech act, and therefore, the answer of the item is considered to be completely inappropriate.

2) Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.

Leads to communicative breakdown 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 Communication flows smoothly

This feature assesses the learners' ability to use authentic language that might be the result of the exposure to native speakers and authentic materials. Additionally, it assesses their competence and skill in dealing with the situation using the required vocabulary and culturally accepted expressions from the target language.

3) Amount of speech used and information is given.

Inappropriate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely appropriate

This feature assesses the learners' ability to say enough to perform the required speech act, extremely long answers, or extremely short answers might affect the performance of the speech act.

4) Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.

Very inaccurate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely accurate

This assesses the learners' ability to use the language comprehensively and coherently to perform the speech act. It deals with the grammatical structure and the choice of words such as word collocations to express the intended meaning to perform the speech act.

5) Levels of formality, expressed through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.

Inappropriate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely appropriate

Learners' ability to understand levels of formality often results in performing accurate speech acts. The situations provided in the post-test and pre-test vary in formality and by that, the way of responding to these situations differs according to the interlocutor who is being addressed. Therefore, this feature assesses the speech acts performed according to formality.

6) Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.

Inappropriate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely appropriate

The choice of strategy and directness varies from a situation to another and from a speech act to another. Learners' responses are assessed by analyzing their directness and choice of strategy in this feature.

7) Levels of politeness are expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.

Inappropriate 1- 2- 3- 4- 5 completely appropriate

This feature revolves around assessing the learners' responses based on their expressed politeness through the expressed formality, directness, and politeness markers. Thus, this feature takes into account the previous feature 5 and feature 6 and how they are combined to form a polite speech act when required.

Therefore, to conclude the issue of raters, this method used in Tello Rueda (2004) offers a systematic and effective solution to the absence of native speaker raters. Even if this method that relies on this analytic scale is effective and offers a practical solution it is still far from perfect. The fact that every test sheet consists of 20 items and that every item has to be assessed according to an analytic scale of 7 features, makes this time and effort consuming.

4.7. The Pre-test and Post-test

Following the experimental design, the pre-test was designed to measure and assess the learners' pragmatic competence in the target language in the experimental and control groups before the application of the treatment. The WDCT test includes 20 items which include 5 situations where an apology is required, 5 situations where a compliment is performed, 5 situations that include the necessity to perform requests, and finally 5 situations where a refusal is needed to be performed. These situations are graded out of 5. This final grade is obtained after analyzing the responses provided by the learners based on the 7 features analytic scale. The latter uses a Likert scale, the mean of the 7 Likert scales gives the final score for every item.

The post-test on the other hand is identical in form, the number of situations, speech acts, and method used to assess the responses individually using the analytic scale. This post-test aims to measure the effects of the treatment on the experimental group after applying the

treatment, and then comparing the data to those obtained by the pre-test check the appendices for a full version of the pre-test and post-test.

4.8. The Adaptation of the Situations in the WDCT

Most of the situations provided in Tello Rueda's (2004) tests are designed according to the life of students on campus and at university in general. Therefore, the situations were perfectly suitable to the sample in this study.

However, some situations were heavily influenced by the international nature of the American universities which required some slight adjustments. For instance, some situations included Latin American culture that had to be adapted to our Algerian context. Additionally, the situations in Tello Rueda (2004) included different varieties of situations that vary in formality, politeness, and status, this was kept intact.

4.9. The Materials & Conducted Approach

4.9.1. The Selection of Materials

The materials selected to conduct this study fall into two categories, the first is contrived and non-authentic often found in coursebooks where the language is made by voice actors and the dialogues are well-written and produced. However, as mentioned before in the theoretical part, these materials often lack the cultural and pragmatic aspects of the genuinely produced language.

The second kind of these materials is the treatment, authentic materials. From the literature reviewed, Widdowson's (1979) definition of authenticity stood as the most suitable for fieldwork. This definition emphasizes that the material is created by a native speaker for non-educational purposes and to a native audience. In addition to that, Widdowson (ibid.) includes the aim or the "genuine" reaction that is desired by implementing this authentic material, which often tends to be a native's reaction. Thus, in addition to the literature

reviewed, a framework has been developed to select the most appropriate authentic materials. The authentic materials selected and used for this study had to be or result in the following:

- Authentic in nature which means that the language is produced by native speakers for other native speakers (Porter & Roberts 1981; Little, Devitt & Singleton 1989) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- "Real" in that regard it is produced by a "real" speaker/writer for example a journalist, for a real audience or group of people, and in all means implying a real message to be delivered (Morrow 1977; Porter & Roberts 1981; Swaffar 1985; Nunan 1988/9; Benson & Voller 1997) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- The materials should generate a genuine response and this context a genuine need to perform a speech act and encourage an engaging interaction that results in meaningful communication in the classroom (Widdowson 1978/9; Breen 1985) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

- Provide a social context that is going to be the learning environment in the classroom (Breen 1985; Arnold 1991; Lee 1995; Guariento & Morley 2001; Rost 2002) as cited in (Gilmore, 2007)

Additionally, the materials selected had to close the gap between classroom language and real target language required for communication in the real world (Rogers & Medley 1988), in that the language is required to be authentic, unedited of the real world that they will encounter. Thus, the materials were chosen with the following factors in consideration (Rogers & Medley ibid.):

- Appropriateness of the text, that is, how compatible is the authentic material presented with learners' cognitive abilities, linguistic level, and even interest

- Appropriateness of the task, simply is how compatible is what the learners are asked to do and what they can actually do

- Appropriateness of the order of the input, from simple to complex regarding their language comprehension strategies

Therefore, and based on the previous framework and literature, the selected materials fall under the required characteristics. The materials selected varied from videos, audio, podcasts, and authentic texts. These materials included segments or sections where one or more of the speech acts taken under the scope of this study such as apologies, requests, compliments, and refusals.

Videos and podcasts such as Joe Rogan Experience, H3H3 podcasts, news segments such as BBC, CNN, Fox News, reality TV shows, apology YouTube Videos, and more were selected as long as they fall under the above-mentioned criteria and serve the aims and purpose of the lesson. It can be noticed that most of these videos have an interaction between two or more parts, which allows the mentioned speech acts to be used in addition to a variety of different formalities and varieties of the English language. The different levels of formality and status give pragmatically rich content to be analyzed and taught.

In addition to this, emails, letters, tweets, social medial posts, and speeches were introduced to the learners as well as long as they served the purpose and provided the required speech acts.

4.9.2. Curriculum Design

To conduct this study a curriculum was designed and developed according to the aim of the study. The curriculum involved many aspects of a normal oral expression class in addition to the implementation of the four speech acts and authentic materials for the experimental group and contrived materials that include the speech acts with the control group. The lessons lasted two hours long, along a period of six months. The curriculum could be found in the appendices.

Also, authentic materials are a very important and rich source of authentic input but implementing it can be a bit difficult, especially if the learning is transitioning from traditional classrooms to a more communicative teaching approach. Therefore, learners will certainly find authentic materials difficult to understand and sometimes frustrating instead of having a positive impact on the learners. Hence, it is clear from the literature reviewed above, that this argument can be overcome by proper implementation of authentic materials. Thus the literature above can be summarized in few points to consider when implementing authentic materials as follows:

- Implementing TBL as the most effective approach where the tasks are tailored according to the communicative needs of the learners and the language that they will face outside, and keeping the authentic materials unedited

- Authentic materials must be chosen carefully and electively to cater to the purpose behind using those in the classroom, and the most important question would be "how relevant and useful is it?"

- A well-selected objective must be put forward before trying to look for authentic materials to be implemented

- The effective psychological side of the learners should be taken into account, as authentic materials can have both negative and positive psychological effects according to the way we expose the learners to them

4.9.3. The Pedagogy and Lesson Plans

By adopting Task-Based Teaching as the most suitable method of implementing authentic materials in the classroom, the task became the central element to implement authentic materials and get the learners to reach the required level of interaction for the internalization and personalization of the in input. Nunan (1993, as cited by D. Willis &J. Willis in R. Carter & D. Nunan, 2001) defines a task to be a part of the classroom practice

that engages the learner in comprehending, manipulating, producing, and interacting in the target language with the focus on the meaning rather than the form in a spontaneous manner.

Therefore, the tasks provided are meaning-oriented rather than form, where learners are encouraged to notice the target language in chunks rather than a grammatical form and understand the use of it in a social and contextualized situation. Different politeness indicators, degrees of formality, and status are included in the task and are often used for assessment at the end of the lesson. As a result, the following procedures were implemented:

4.9.3.1. Lesson Planning

At this stage, the lessons are planned according to the chosen materials, listening track, a video, or a reading text. Lesson planning followed a clear and unified structure that uses Test, Teach, Test model in addition to the most effective pedagogical way of approaching the implementation of a material within a lesson which is pre-tasks, while-tasks, post-tasks. The lesson plans were all planned accordingly in addition to implementing TBL. In the following section, every step is explained in detail.

Test Before You Teach. In this step, the learners are given a task to test their performance of the aims of the lesson before they are taught to measure the effectiveness of the lesson after teaching. These tasks are often simple, to know what the learners know and measure their performance, thus the teacher should avoid any correction and perhaps write the common mistakes on the board for a later delayed collective error correction.

Teach. During this step, the materials are introduced and the target language is deduced with some guided and controlled practice which allows the learners to internalize the pragmatic input. This step consists of three different kinds of tasks, which are:

A. Pre-listening, reading, video tasks. In this stage the learners get a lead-in to the materials and get their receptive and cognitive abilities ready, this task could be used as a pre-teach of difficult lexis as well, if the material includes some words that are considered to be difficult for the learners.

B. While Listening, Reading, Watching Tasks. During this stage, the target language is deduced by the learners and brought to their attention and noticing mechanism, here filling the gaps activities can be very simple yet effective.

C. Post-Listening, Reading, Watching Tasks. After, learners get some controlled practice such as ordering the sentences or utterances, phonology work, connotation work, and use according to different social settings tasks. Here the learners notice the language and work on internalizing it as a mechanism in their minds. Tasks such as guided dialogues and role-plays can be very effective at this stage and real-life use can be highlighted simultaneously.

Test. During this stage, the learners are given a free-practice activity such as class mingles, where they are stimulated to use the target language freely without any aid from the teacher to simulate a real-life context and genuine use. During this stage, the objectives of the lesson are measured and mistakes can be auto-corrected by the learners themselves at the end of the task.

4.9.3.2. The Nature of the Task

Tasks can have different natures according to the different stages mentioned above; however, they all share one common goal which is maximizing interaction between the learners especially at the stage of teaching them the target language or testing their acquisition of the objectives.

4.10. Conclusion

The methodology used in this study was explained in detail in this chapter, from the initial questionnaire that this study used to investigate the teachers' use and views towards the use of authentic materials in developing the learners' pragmatic competence at the department of English, University of Batna. Most of the teachers expressed the lack of use of authentic materials to enhance the learners' pragmatic abilities, which unveils an area for investigation.

Additionally, this chapter explains in detail the experimental design including the population, sample, the control, and experimental group, in addition to the language test that measures the learners' linguistic ability to confirm if the experiment is feasible without having the language barrier affecting the results of the experiment. The materials, syllabus design, and lesson planning, and format were also explained in detail to provide clarity of the procedure adopted to apply the treatment.

Also, the pre-test and post-test were thoroughly explained, especially the process of adapting the versions found in Blum-Kulka (1982) and Tello Rueda (2004) to the needs of this study. Therefore, this chapter is the gate to the fieldwork carried, and the introduction to data analysis.

5. CHAPTER FOUR: Description & Analysis of Data

This chapter presents a full description of the data collected using the pre-test and post-test, including a detailed comparison between the control group and experimental group to test learners' ability to perform the required speech acts and discover whether the control and experimental group are statistically and significantly different in terms of speech acts performance of requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals. Also, and more importantly, the data collected by the post-test and pre-test are compared to test the hypothesis provided and measure the effects of the treatment by using a paired samples t-Test. Additionally, the data obtained in this chapter will be analyzed and discussed further in chapter 5 to provide a detailed analysis of the obtained results.

5.1. The Results of the Pre-test

As mentioned before, the pre-test was designed to measure the learners' target language pragmatic competence before the application of the treatment, in addition to comparing how homogenous the control and experimental groups are. The test consists of 20 items; these items are divided into 4 sections, and every section includes one of the four speech acts which are: apologies, compliments, requests, and refusals. The items are later graded for 1-5, 1 being inappropriate speech act realization and 5 being very appropriate and native speaker-like. Every section is assessed out of 20, which is the sum-up of the five items having a full grade of 5 for each. Thus, the sum of these scores of the four sections is 80 if all of the speech acts realized are appropriate and correct.

This format makes it easier to analyze and categorize the data, especially after coding the individual items according to the speech act being tested and the ordinal number. For example, A.1 stands for apology item one, C1 stands for compliment item 1, RE stands for

requests and RF stands for refusals. The data collected using this pre-test is later used to compare the effect of the treatment before and after.

5.1.1. Apologies

This section includes five different items that describe situations where apologies are performed by the control and experimental group. These situations or items tend to vary in degrees of formality, social distance, statuses and require different levels of politeness. The apologies performed by the learners are assessed using the analytic scale provided in Tello Rueda (2004). The data collected from both groups go as follows.

5.1.1.1. The Control Group

The data collected from the control group were analyzed by using one-sample statistics in SPSS. The results show that their ability to make requests is often heavily influenced by the use of their mother tongue pragmatics. As a consequence, the control group performed in an average way when it dealing with situations that require the performance of apologies in the target language. The 48 learners have a mean of 10.90 with a standard deviation of 3.41 as shown in the table below.

The situations provided varied in degrees of politeness and social distance between the interlocutors described in the situation and the learner or the subject taking part in the test. Most of the four items provided show similar use of the target pragmatics and results; however, most of the learners struggled with item 5.A. This item describes a situation where the learner has to apologize in a certain higher level of formality compared to the other items, where the learner is required to apologize to his supervisor for coming late. This high formality level situation was often under the required level with a mean of 2.1.

Table 8

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of CG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	5. A
CG, Apologies, Pre-test	48	11.05	10	2.94	17	5	1.9

5.1.1.2. The Experimental Group

Similar to the control group, the data obtained using a one-sample test in SPSS. The results are similar to those obtained from the control group. The learners' use of the target language performance of apologies was influenced by their mother tongue and it often resulted in some similar patterns of pragmatic failure or misunderstanding of status and levels of formality. Most of the learners in the experimental group struggled with item 5. A that requires apologizing formally as mentioned in the previous section. The mean score of the answers provided to 5. A is 1.9. Additionally, the learners' performance was average where most of the learners' scores ranged around 10 with a mean of 11.05 and standard deviation of 2.94.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of EG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	5. A
EG, Apologies, Pre-test	43	10.90	12	3.41	17	0	2.1

5.1.1.3. Overall Comparison

The learners in the control and experimental group showed similar patterns of answering where they scored similar scores. Their performance of apologies in the target

language shows many similarities such as the influence that their mother tongue pragmatics has on their performance of the speech acts in the target language. This can be observed in the table below where the means of the control and experimental group were close to identical with a mean score of 10.9 for the control group and 11.05 for the experimental group. The difference between the two means is 0.15 which makes it an insignificant level. Additionally, the learners struggled with the same item of a high-level formality where the mean scores of their performance in this item are 0.2 different. Overall, the control and experimental group are homogenous based on the provided data which show similar means, and item that they struggled with the most.

Table 10

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & EG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	5. A
CG, Apologies, Pre-test	48	11.05	10	2.94	17	5	1.9
EG, Apologies, Pre-test	43	10.90	12	3.41	17	0	2.1

5.1.2. Compliments

Identical to the Apologies' section, this section includes five different items that describe situations where compliments are required by the control and experimental group. These situations and items vary in the degrees of formality, social distance, statuses and require different levels of politeness. The same analytic scale is used to assess the answers provided by the learners (Rueda 2004).

5.1.2.1. The Control Group

The data collected using this section was analyzed by using a one-sample test on SPSS just like the previous section. The learners' scores were average with a standard deviation of 3.288 from the mean of 11.50. The learners' ability to perform compliments in the required setting often resulted in successful pragmatic interaction; however, the answers provided were influenced by the use of their mother tongue pragmatics. Most of the learners struggled with item 3.C which involves a situation where they had to make a compliment in a formal way to their supervisor. The mean of their scores answering 3.C is 1.7, which is below average if compared to the other situations provided and that include a less formal use of compliments. The table below shows in detail the data obtained in this section.

Table 11

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	3.C
CG, Compliments, Pre-test	48	11.50	10	3.28	16	3	1.7

5.1.2.2. The Experimental Group

Following the same method, the data were analyzed. The results of the experimental group show that the learners' ability to make and performing compliments is slightly above average with a mean of 11.11 and a standard deviation of 2.93. The learners' ability to make compliments is very similar to that of the control group. The learners also struggled with the same item 3.C with a mean of 1.85. The compliments made by the learners were influenced by their mother tongue pragmatics and they had struggled with the high level of formality situations. The table bellows illustrate the data collected and their means.

Table 12

Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	3. C
EG, Compliments, Pre-test	43	11.44	13	2.93	18	4	1.85

5.1.2.3. Overall Comparison

The control and experimental groups' ways of performing compliments are almost identical. The learners in the control and experimental groups have almost the same means of 11.50 and 11.44. Also, the learners in both groups had close low standard deviations of 3.28 and 2.93 which show that the scores were close to the mean.

In addition to that, the learners used the same patterns of making compliments with the same mother tongue pragmatic interference in the target language performance of compliments. This is clear as the learners struggled with the same item of high formality where they had to make compliments to their supervisors. The table below shows the means and the required data that are explained in this section.

Table 13

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & the EG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min	3. C
CG, Compliments, Pre-test	48	11.50	10	3.28	16	3	1.7
EG, Compliments, Pre-test	43	11.44	13	2.93	18	4	1.85

5.1.3. Requests

Following the same methodology, this section includes five different items that describe situations where requests are performed by the control and experimental group. These situations and items vary in the degrees of formality, social distance, statuses and require different levels of politeness. The same analytic scale found in Tello Rueda (2004) is used to assess the answers provided by the learners.

5.1.3.1. The Control Group

This section included five situations with different formalities, social distance, and politeness requirements. These situations collected data on the sample's way of performing requests in the target language. The answers collected from the control group were below average with a mean of 8.44 out of an overall of 20. The learners struggled with the degrees of politeness and indirectness required to perform the requests in a pragmatically sound way in the target language. Their requests tended to be more direct, lacking native speakers' way of forming requests and word order, in addition, to the complete absence of expressions of politeness when addressing someone with a higher status and degree of imposition.

These observed errors in performing requests are very familiar to some ways of making requests in the learners' mother tongue pragmatics. The table below shows the noticeable low mean and low standard deviation which shows that most of the answers were clustered around the mean 8.44 and far from being pragmatically appropriate in the target language.

Table 14

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Requests, Pre-test	48	8.44	10	2.24	13	03

5.1.3.2. The Experimental Group

Similar to the results of the control group, the experimental group's answers were below average and did not reach the required level of pragmatic competence in the target language. The learners' answers were too direct, and the learners did not use expressions from the native speakers' perspective, these expressions give the learners the required level of formality and pragmatic appropriateness to establish successful communication.

However, the absence of such expressions could lead to a pragmatic failure and consequently leads to communication breakdowns. This is illustrated through the mean score of the learners' replies to the situations given the WDCT where the mean of the answers is 9.19 with a low standard deviation that shows that most of the answers were close to the mean. This low standard deviation proves the answers were mostly below the average score of the section which is 20. Therefore, the learners' ability to perform requests could be described to be below average.

Table 15

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Requests, Pre-test	43	9.19	10	1.63	13	06

5.1.3.3. Overall Comparison

The table below shows the means of the scores of the control and experimental groups. Both groups scored below average even if the experimental group's mean is slightly higher than the control group. This slight difference is far from significant because most of the answers were below the average and the standard deviation of 1.637 is too low which shows how close the scores were from the mean of 9,19. Both groups showed the same patterns of answers which tended to be more direct, lacking authentic expressions used by the native speakers and influence by their mother tongue pragmatics or way of performing requests.

Table 16

Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & the EG, Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Requests, Pre-test	48	8.44	10	2.24	13	03
EG, Requests, Pre-test	43	9.19	10	1.63	13	06

5.1.4. Refusals

This final section is identical to the other sections in form, methodology, and method of assessment, it includes five different items that describe situations where refusals are performed by the control and experimental group. The situations are different in the degree of formality, social distance, statuses and require different levels of politeness. The same analytic scale found in Tello Rueda (2004) is used to assess the answers provided.

5.1.4.1. The Control Group

The data collected by using the WDCT section related to refusals show average use and performance of refusals by the learners of the third year at the English Department of Batna with a mean of 11.71 and a standard deviation from the mean of 2.76 which shows a fair level of varying answers that do not all fall around the mean.

However, the standard deviation still shows that most of the learners have a slightly above-average way of performing refusals in the English language. The learners' ability to perform refusals is heavily affected by their mother tongue's way of performing refusals and often is generic that tends to be the same even if the situation requires different levels of formality and politeness.

This shows that the learners do not often perceive the required pragmatic difference between them and other interlocutors, or perhaps they have been taught using contrived materials that offer generic answers to certain situations. Also, the learners' way of performing refusals is similar to that noticed when dealing with other speech acts included within the scope of this study. The learners did not use expressions that the natives use, and they often struggled with pragmatic failures and levels of directness.

Table 17

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of CG, Refusals

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Refusals, Pre-test	48	11.71	13	2.76	17	7

5.1.4.2. The Experimental Group

The answers provided by the experimental group to the situations were similar to those provided by the control group. The learners' ability to perform refusals is average according to the mean of the scores which is 11.09 and a standard deviation of 3.30 which is slightly higher than that of the control group. This shows that this group includes some outliers who gave answers that are distant from the mean, either high scores with the appropriate way of performing requests or low scores with inappropriate performance.

Also, the learners' answers lacked native speaker expressions to perform refusals in addition to their mother tongue interference in the way they performed the required refusals. Overall, their ability is slightly above average and can be improved.

Table 18

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of CG, Refusals

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Refusals, Pre-test	43	11.09	10	3.30	16	0

5.1.4.3. Overall Comparison

Both of the control and experimental groups provided data that showed their ability to perform refusals in the English language. The learners have a similar way of performing requests where they both scored similar means with slightly close standard deviation and distant answers from the means. The learners' refusals were influenced by expressions used in their mother tongue, and they struggled with over-using direct refusals without paying attention to the politeness and formality of the situations provided.

They also over-used generic ways of refusing in most of the situations without any variation even if the situations varied. However, even if the learners' ability to perform refusals is slightly above average, both control and experimental groups are on the same level of performance. This puts the learners at the same level, and by that, even if there are some slight differences in the means and standard deviations, the groups are homogenous when it comes to performing refusals.

Table 19

The Pre-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & EG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Refusals, Pre-test	48	11.71	13	2.76	17	7
EG, Refusals, Pre-test	43	11.09	10	3.30	16	0

5.1.5. The Pre-test's Global Scores

The pre-test tested the learners' ability before applying the treatment, authentic materials, to the learners. The results were assessed according to Tello Rueda's (2004) analytic scale and then compared in detail between the control group and experimental group. As could be noticed, the control and experimental groups' abilities to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments are very close and similar where the means were so close and sometimes almost identical.

As a consequence, the learners' global scores means are very close, with the control group scoring slightly higher with 43.08 in comparison to 42.60 scored by the experimental group. Although the means are not identical, they are very close and there is a little difference between them. However, it is worth mentioning that the two groups scored slightly above the average 40 out of 80, which puts the learners' performance in the two groups in the average

bracket as the tables below show. This explains how homogenous the control and experimental groups are, and sets the ground for the treatment to be applied.

Table 20

The Pre-test's Global Scores' Means of the CG & EG

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Global Scores, Pre-test	48	34.08	50	8.67	57	22
EG, Global Scores, Pre-test	43	42.60	49	8.90	55	20

Additionally, the means' distribution of the learners' ability to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments on the analytic scale is identical between the control group and experimental group, except for some very minor differences. On the one hand, the learners in the control group often scored between 2 and 3 on the analytic scale for every feature. These 7 features are used to assess every answer provided by the learners to the pragmatic situations described in the WDCT. These micro scores' distribution of means on the analytic scale shows that most of the learners in the control group have a decent and appropriate ability to use the speech act that the situation required, with some high level of failure with some of the learners.

Also, the learners struggled with the use of typical speech act expressions that give a variety of replies to the various situations provided, however, the answers the learners gave were generic most of the time. Other features that the learners struggled with are the use of formality and titles, in addition to the phrasing strategies that the learners used which resulted in low scores when it came to the levels of politeness shown by formality levels, directness strategies, and politeness markers. However, most of the learners scored high with accurate linguistic abilities to express what they intended to express. The analytic scale below provides

more insight into the spread and distribution of the mean scores of the learners in the control group.

Table 21

The Means of the Scores of the CG on the Analytic Scale, Pre-test

1	Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
2	Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.						
	Pragmatic Failure	1	**2**	3	4	5	Smooth Conversation
3	Amount of speech used and given information.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
4	Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.						
	Inaccurate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Accurate
5	Levels of expressed formality through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	3	4	5	Completely appropriate
6	Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	3	4	5	Completely appropriate
7	Levels of politeness expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	3	4	5	Completely appropriate

On the other hand, the experimental group has an almost identical way of performing the required four speech acts. The learners in the experimental group struggled with first the ability to use the speech acts in the situations provided by the WDCT similar to the control group. Additionally, the learners had high tendencies of struggling with the different levels of formality, however, they scored slightly better than the control group, with the mean of the control group being 2 out of five when expressing levels of formality by the use of titles and phrasing, unlike the experimental group whose mean is 3 out of five, see the table below.

Finally, it can be seen that the control and experimental groups are homogenous on different levels, starting from the mean scores acquired in performing every speech act out of the four included in this study, to a macro level of the global mean scores and even on a micro-level of assessing every speech act performed. The control and experimental groups are homogenous on many different levels even if there were some minor differences between the mentioned groups, therefore, these are regular disparities that any two homogenous groups could have.

Table 22

The Means of the Scores of the EG on the Analytic Scale, Pre-test

1	Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
2	Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.						
	Pragmatic Failure	1	**2**	3	4	5	Smooth Conversation
3	Amount of speech used and information given.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
4	Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.						
	Inaccurate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Accurate
5	Levels of formality expressed through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
6	Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	3	4	5	Completely appropriate
7	Levels of politeness expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	3	4	5	Completely appropriate

5.2. The Results of the Post-test

Similar to the pre-test, the post-test followed the same format of 5 different situations for every speech act included in this study, every speech act is ranked out of 5, which makes the sum of 20 full points for every section. The 4 sections make a sum up 80 points. Also, and to analyze data simple and clear the same coding used in the pre-test is used in the post-test as well.

Furthermore, the same methodology was used to assess the answers provided by the learners using the analytic scale which includes 7 items that assess different features that make an appropriate speech act realization. These items all include a Likert scale that assesses these features on a scale of 1-5, 1 being pragmatically inappropriate and 5 being very appropriate. The mean of the seven scores is the score given to assess every speech act.

5.2.1. Apologies

This section is identical in form to the pre-test, which includes five different items that describe situations where apologies are performed by the control and experimental group. The

situations themselves are different than the pre-test, however, just like the pre-test, they vary in degrees of formality, social distance, statuses and require different levels of politeness. The apologies performed by the learners are assessed using the analytic scale provided in Tello Rueda (2004).

5.2.1.1. The Control Group

The data collected in this section from the control group shows that the learners have slightly better than the average way of using the required features assessed by the analytic scale, and by that, they have a decent way of performing apologies. The learners' mean of performing apologies is 12.94 out of the complete score of 20, in addition to a low standard deviation which is 1.29. The latter shows that most of the answers were close to the mean and that most of the learners provided decent speech act performances without outliers.

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Apologies, Post-test	48	12.94	14	1.29	11	16

Thus, the learners showed an acceptable level of understanding of the required speech act to be performed, and by that, they were able to use the speech act that the situation requires. Additionally, the learners could use some diverse generic ways of apologizing even if they were unable to recognize some of the different levels of formality required and unable to choose the appropriate strategies that could make some speech acts indirect. However, even if the learners still struggled with this point, they could perform better linguistically accurate apologies than the ones they used to perform in the pre-test. Therefore, there could be noticed an acceptable level of enhancement of performing apologies by the control group.

5.2.1.2. The Experimental Group

The data collected from the experimental group who were the subject of the treatment, authentic materials, have shown a significant change in the way they performed apologies in the target language. The learners' performance was assessed by the analytic scale and the mean of their scores is 17.23 and standard deviation of 1.21.

Hence, the learners' way of performing apologies shows a great deal of awareness of the context that influences the way they form the needed apologies. As a consequence, the learners were able to use the speech act intended with an advanced mastery of levels of directness, politeness strategies, and even the use of authentic expressions that natives often use. These expressions were more flexible and far from generic in the way that the learners could easily adapt them to the different situations in the WDCT that require different levels of formality, indirectness, and strategy choice. Also, the learners' apologies were linguistically accurate with the use of some pragmatic strategies that often shape their use of grammar according to the intended and performed speech act.

Table 24

Post-test Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Apologies, Post-test	43	17.23	17	1.21	19	14

5.2.1.3. Overall Comparison

It could be observed that the learners in the experimental group could perform apologies more appropriately than the learners in the control group. The learners in the control group showed an acceptable level of performing requests after being taught traditionally and

using contrived materials. However, these contrived materials made their apologies generic and inflexible which made their ability to perform requests according to the varying situations and the varying degrees of formality, politeness, and directness limited. Thus, they often could recognize the speech act required, and they were linguistically accurate, but they failed to choose the right strategy and adapt their apology to the situations.

Nevertheless, the learners in the experimental group were more competent in identifying the required strategies and use them to respond to the varying situations. The learners could provide authentic apologies similar to those used by natives and adopted them throughout their exposure to the authentic materials that carried this required language. Additionally, the learners in this group were able to apologize in a flexible manner that changes according to the context of the situation. Their awareness of the politeness markers, formality, and status levels, in addition to their choice of strategy to perform the required apology, made their way of performing apologies accurate and competent unlike those learners in the control group. Thus, it is clear that the learners in the experimental group outperformed the learners in the control group, even if the control group learners have made some noticeable progress.

Table 25

Post-test Descriptive Statistics of the EG & CG, Apologies

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Apologies, Post-test	48	12.94	14	1.29	11	16
EG, Apologies, Post-test	43	17.23	17	1.21	19	14

5.2.2. Compliments

Similar to the pre-test this section includes 5 different situations, with different degrees of formality and statuses. The learners provided the required speech act in situations according to the different degrees of formality, politeness, and statuses. These situations are later assessed using the analytic scale. The results obtained from the control and experimental group are first explained and then compared in this section.

5.2.2.1. The Control Group

The learners in the control group could perform compliments appropriately and acceptably. The mean of their scores is 13.38 and standard deviation of 1.34 and a mode of 13, the latter shows the most frequently occurring value or score by the experimental group. Thus, most of the answers ranged between 11 as a minimum score and 16 as the maximum. The table below shows the data discussed in detail.

Also, the learners' compliments were often linguistically accurate with an average way of using the required strategies to perform compliments in the right context and using the required levels of politeness and indirectness when the situation requires. The learners showed a great deal of awareness identifying the required speech act, however, they sometimes struggled with the choice of words and often used generic inflexible expressions that they thought were suitable for most of the situations. This has led them to score better than the pre-test; however, their scores did not reach higher means because of the inflexibility they showed while performing requests generically and not use some expressions that can be flexible and typical from the native speakers' perspective.

Table 26

Post-test Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Compliments, Post-test	48	13.38	13	1.34	16	11

5.2.2.2. The Experimental Group

The learners in this group scored higher than in the pre-test. Their scores are a reflection of the way they performed compliments. The learners showed great mastery of performing compliments taking into account all of the pragmatic and linguistically required aspects of performing the required speech act according to the varying situations. First, the learners showed an advanced awareness of the intended speech act that the situation requires them to elicit and they often realized the levels of formality involved and the politeness required to perform the speech act. Thus, all of that enabled them to choose the appropriate strategies.

Additionally, the learners' compliments were often flexible and far from generic, which made them include typical expressions that the native speakers would consider authentic and pragmatically accurate. Also, and since the compliments were pragmatically appropriate, there were no pragmatic failures or communication breakdowns. All of this is reflected through the data collected from this group which is included in the table below. The learners' mean score is 17.49 with the most frequently achieved score of 17 and maximum scores of 20 which is the full score of the section, and 15 as a minimum score.

Table 27

Post-test Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Compliments, Post-test	43	17.49	17	1.75	20	15

5.2.2.3. Overall Comparison

The two control and experimental groups have shown a progression in the way they perform compliments according to the situations provided in the WDCT after they struggled with levels of formality and the inability to respond properly to situations that require a high level of formality and politeness. However, it can be observed that the scores obtained by the experimental group are higher and often reflect a better mastery of performing compliments.

The experimental group's most frequently occurring score is 17, while the most frequently obtained score by the control group is just 17. This is reflected through the mean where the experimental group has a higher mean of 17.49 in comparison to just 13.38 by the control group. Additionally, the scores obtained by the experimental group ranged between 15 as a minimum score and 20 as a maximum and the full score of the section, however, the scores obtained by the control group were average ranging between 11 as a minimum score and 5 less than the full score as a maximum value. Thus, it can be observed that the learners taught using authentic materials in the experimental group scored way higher than those in the control group.

Table 28

Post-test Descriptive Statistics of the CG & the EG, Compliments

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Compliments, Post-test	48	13.38	13	1.34	16	11
EG, Compliments, Post-test	43	17.49	17	1.75	20	15

5.2.3. Requests

Similar to the other sections in form and methodology, this section collected data from the control and experimental groups on the way they perform requests in the target language English. These requests were assessed using the analytic scale, and then data collected reported in this section. Also, the situations in this section varied from different statuses, levels of formality, and levels of imposition from the interlocutors.

5.2.3.1. The Control Group

The requests performed by the learners in the control group tended to be average even if there is a certain noticeable development in the way they make requests. However, even though there is a certain noticeable development, this proves to be insufficient. The mean of the scores achieved by the learners is 13.29 with the score of 14 being the most frequently achieved by the learners. Additionally, this could be observed in the range of their answers which varied between a minimum score of 11 which is average at best to 16 out of 20, which happens to be appropriate enough. Thus, the learners' scores were decent, especially when taking into account the fact that they could establish successful communication after understanding what speech act the situation requires and their performance after.

The requests performed by the learners were often generic and inflexible, where the learners tended to use almost the same forms and expressions with the different situations which require a change in the politeness and directness of the speech acts being performed. As a result, the learners could communicate in a pragmatically appropriate manner, but the answers were limited, generic, and far from those that could be established in a genuine interaction between two interlocutors. The table below shows the discussed data in detail.

Table 29

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Requests, Post-test	48	13.29	14	1.22	16	11

5.2.3.2. The Experimental Group

The requests performed by this group tended to be linguistically and pragmatically accurate, the learners always understood the situation in the WDCT and provided requests that are flexible in form and bore the most important parameters of politeness markers, indirectness, phrases that the natives often use. Also, the requests performed were authentic and use which made pragmatic failures non-existent. The table below shows the data obtained in this section. As it can be observed, the learners' scores ranged between 16 and the full mark 20, with the most frequently obtained score which is 19, and a mean of the scores of 18.12. These numbers reflect the mastery of performing requests in the target language by the experimental group.

Table 30

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Requests, Post-test	43	18.12	19	1.13	20	16

5.2.3.3. Overall Comparison

Similar to the learners' requests in the control group, the requests performed by this group witnessed a noticeable development. Yet, unlike the requests performed by the learners in the other group, the requests performed by the experimental group have far more significant development**.** The mean score of the experimental group is 5.17 higher than that in the control group, also the maximum score obtained in the control group is the same minimum score of the experimental group.

These superior numbers obtained by the experimental group are the result of the way the learners in this group performed requests after being exposed to authentic materials. These requests are often flexible in nature and form according to the situation provided, where the learners show a great deal of awareness of the different social and pragmatic features that govern the use of requests in different contexts such as politeness markers, the use of expressions, and phrases that elicit different levels of formality and politeness. Additionally, the learners often used indirect and direct requests with the different levels of formality imposed by the situations in the WDCT.

However, the requests performed by the control group tended to be generic and lacked flexibility where they often used the same forms of requests in different situations which require different forms and strategies. The phrases used by these learners were similar in most

of the situations, unlike those generated by the experimental group who used various phrases and utterances to respond to the situations. Overall, the requests performed by the experimental group were very appropriate and indicated mastery of performance, unlike those generated by the control group.

Table 31

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & EG Requests

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Requests, Post-test	48	13.29	14	1.22	16	11
EG, Requests, Post-test	43	18.12	19	1.13	20	16

5.2.4. Refusals

This section collected data on the way the learners performed refusals in the control and experimental groups after the application of the treatment to the experimental group. The methodology and form of this section are identical to those before this in the pre-test and post-test. However, the situations included are not the same in the pre-test, even if the same rationale of using different situations that vary in pragmatic contexts and features is still adopted in this section.

5.2.4.1. The Control Group

The learners in the control group scored a mean of 13.21 and a mode of 12 while performing refusals. These statistics are similar to the statistics of the scores obtained by this group in the other sections of the post-test. However, the minimum score obtained in this section is 8, which is the lowest if compared to the other sections in the post-test. The learners still scored 16 out of 20, which is identical.

Additionally, it can be observed that the learners' way of performing refusals is similar to that used when they perform apologies, requests, and compliments. The learners still performed better than the pre-test, however, their progression and development of performing refusals are still average, just like that in the other speech acts included.

Additionally, the learners have performed refusals in the same manner, by using generic expressions that do not often suit all of the situations provided in the WDCT. The refusals were often inflexible and did not take into account the different situations which require either a more formal or less formal way of refusing. Also, most of the refusals did not sound indirect when needed, which makes them limited.

Table 32

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG, Refusals

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
CG, Refusals, Post-test	48	13.21	12	1.48	16	8

5.2.4.2. The experimental Group

Much the same as the other sections and the speech acts performed by the experimental group, the performance of refusals shows a noticeable and significant development. The learners' scores mean of 18.53 which is a very high mean and very close to the full mark of 20, just like the mode, which is the most frequent score of 19. The way refusals were performed is advanced which made the scores vary between a minimum of 16 that happens to be way above average and the complete full mark of 20 as shown in the table below.

This significant performance goes back to the way the learners performed refusals. These refusals were often suitable for the situations being described in the WDCT, in which the learners could always understand the situation being described and the levels of formality, politeness, and directness that lie behind the choice of phrases, titles, and strategies to perform the required refusals. Additionally, the learners often gave linguistically accurate phrases that can be judged to be typical and authentic from the native speakers' perspective. Also, the learners were often aware of the amount of speech to be produced in every situation, in that they were aware of how long or short their refusals needed to be according to the situations.

Table 33

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the EG, Refusals

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Refusals, Post-test	43	18.53	19	0.98	20	16

5.2.4.3. Overall Comparison

The scores obtained by the control and experimental groups reflect the level of development they achieved throughout the experiment. Both groups have shown certain yet varying levels of development where the control group fell behind the experimental group. The latter showed a significant level of growth and development in the way the learners performed refusals. This could be seen in the table below, where the learners in the experimental group outperformed the control group with a mean of the obtained score in this section of 18.53 in the first contrast with 13,21 in the latter. Additionally, the learners' scores varied between the full mark and 16 in the experimental group with the scores ranging between only 8, which are below average to 16 which is an appropriate performance.

However, the score of 8 could be considered to be an outlier as it only occurred once and the mode of 12.

Thus, this significant difference could is the result of the fact that the learners in the experimental group could generate more authentic and flexible refusals that changed according to the situation provided. The latter required a certain high level of awareness and understanding of the pragmatic features such as politeness markers, degrees of formality, status, and social imposition. All of this shapes the choice of strategy, directness or indirectness, and length of the refusal itself. However, the refusals generated by the control group lacked all that has been mentioned above, in addition to the generic and inflexible nature of them which did not change when the situations change as well. Therefore, it could be observed that the experimental group who were exposed to authentic materials have outperformed the control group in performing refusals in the target language.

Table 34

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the CG & EG, Refusals

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Refusals, Post-test	43	18.53	19	0.98	20	16
CG, Refusals, Post-test	48	13.21	12	1.48	16	8

5.2.5. The Post-test's Global Scores

The global scores results show that the learners in the experimental group outperformed the learners in the control group in performing the four speech acts included in the scope of this study. Both groups have shown a certain level of development and progression, where the learners either improved their way of performing the speech acts

drastically, which is the case with the experimental group or just improved their competence in performing these speech acts slightly, just like the learners in the control group.

On the one hand, the learners in the control group scored between the score of 46, which is slightly above the average 40 out of 80 as a full mark, and 58, which was the maximum score achieved. This average way of performing requests could also be observed by the mean of their scores which is 52,81 and the most frequently acquired score of 52 being acquired 8 times and 51 being acquired 6 times. These two most frequently scores are slightly above average and sit in the middle of the maximum and minimum scores acquired as could be seen in the table below.

Table 35

The Post-test's Descriptive Statistics of the Global Scores

	N	Mean	Mode	SD	Max	Min
EG, Global Scores, Post-test	43	71.35	70	1.74	79	69
CG, Global Scores, Post-test	48	52.81	52	2.87	58	48
The Difference	-5	18.54	18	-1.13	21	21

On the other hand, the learners in the experimental group scored between the minimum score of 69, which is 21 points higher than the minimum score in the control group and 11 points higher than the maximum score in the control group. Additionally, the mode which is the most frequently achieved score in this experimental group sits in the middle of the maximum and minimum scores, which makes it very close to the mean. Mode 70 was achieved 15 by 15 learners which make up 34.8% of the experimental group, in addition to 10

learners who achieved the score of 71, which makes up 23.2%. Thus 58% of the learners achieved a score equivalent to or slightly above the average.

Furthermore, the differences in performance between the control and experimental group which is observed by the scores obtained by both groups are just a reflection and assessment of the way they performed the included four speech acts. The learners in the control group provided speech acts which were often in agreement with the speech acts the situations intended to elicit, where the learners realized what speech act needs to be performed and performed it in a linguistically accurate manner. However, the learners often struggled with the use of typical expressions that the natives could deem authentic from their perspective and they often provided answers which are generic and did not reflect the different levels of formality, politeness, and indirectness imposed by the situation. The learners' way of dealing with these situations and performance of speech acts in the control group is average and is shown in the table below that shows where the means performance of every speech act lie on the analytic scale used to assess the performance of the learners.

Table 36

The Means of the Scores of the CG on the Analytic Scale, Post-test

1	Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
2	Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.						
	Pragmatic Failure	1	**2**	3	4	5	Smooth Conversation
3	Amount of speech used and information given.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
4	Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.						
	Inaccurate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Accurate
5	Levels of formality expressed through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
6	Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.						
	Inappropriate	1	**2**	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate
7	Levels of politeness expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.						
	Inappropriate	1	2	**3**	4	5	Completely appropriate

Unlike the learners in the control group, the learners in the experimental group provided speech acts that were often linguistically and pragmatically accurate. The learners excelled in identifying the type of speech act in the situations and often could identify the different levels of formality, politeness and directness the situations impose. This could be observed in their use of flexible and far from generic speech acts that vary in formality, politeness, and social distancing that could often be perceived by the learners. The speech acts provided by these learners were often authentic in nature and flexible in use. All of this could be observed in the means of the analytic scale of every item and speech act combined and their approximate dispersion on the scale itself.

Table 37

The Means of the Scores of the EG on the Analytic Scale, Post-test

Analytic Scale Experimental Group Post-test						
1 Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.						
Inappropriate	1	2	3	4	**5**	Completely appropriate
2 Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.						
Pragmatic Failure	1	2	3	**4**	5	Smooth Conversation
3 Amount of speech used and information given.						
Inappropriate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Completely appropriate
4 Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.						
Inaccurate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Accurate
5 Levels of formality expressed through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.						
Inappropriate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Completely appropriate
6 Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.						
Inappropriate	1	2	3	4	**5**	Completely appropriate
7 Levels of politeness expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.						
Inappropriate	1	2	3	**4**	5	Completely appropriate

To conclude, the learners in the experimental group who were exposed to the treatment and taught by using authentic materials, outperformed the learners in the control group in every speech act performed and they often scored much higher. They often generated flexible and authentic expressions that varied according to the different situations, unlike the learners in the experimental group, who showed a slight difference in performance than the performance they provided in the pre-test, however, their scores were not high enough to

consider this difference significant. Additionally, the learners in the control group did not often perceive the different levels of formality, politeness, and indirectness because of their generic speech acts that tended to be the same from a situation to another.

5.3. Summary of the Results of the Pre-test and Post-test

Following the experimental design, the sample of the third-year learners was divided into two groups, the first is a control group and the second is an experimental group. The learners in the control group were taught using traditional contrived materials designed by non-native or sometimes native speakers but always for the objective of use within the classroom. This language tends to be generic and often lacks the pragmatic skills and competencies that the learners require to establish a fully meaningful communication in the target language.

On the other hand, the learners in the experimental group were taught using authentic materials which were made by native speakers and for any other objectives but using them within the classroom. Unlike contrived materials, these materials offer authentic and genuine pragmatic content which often takes into account all of the other social, pragmatic, and communicative skills which surpass the linguistic competence and its use.

Thus, to evaluate whether a statistically significant difference existed between the performances of speech acts in both groups before applying the treatment to the experimental group, the learners in both groups were tested by conducting an independent samples t-Test. Therefore, the level of significance of the P-value alpha (α) is considered to be 0.05, and the critical value was counted to be (CV = ± 1.990), thus any statistically significant difference between the groups should include a P value in which the level of significance is less than Alpha (Sig < α 0.05).

The learners in the control and experimental groups scored similar scores which can be observed in the table below. The learners' scores in the control and experimental group were almost identical with means of 43.08 for the control group, and 42.60 for the experimental group. Thus, the results of the independent sample t-Test were not significant, indicating that the control group (M = 43.08, SD = 8.67) was not significantly different than the experimental group (M = 42.60, SD = 8.90), t (89) = 0.26, this can also be observed by looking at the confidence intervals of the difference (CI) in which the lower and upper values of -3.19 and 4.14 cross the value 0.

Table 38

Comparison of the Pre-test's Mean Scores of the CG & the EG

Group Statistics					
	Groups	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**SD Error Mean**
Pre-test Scores	**CG**	48	43.08	8.67	1.25
	EG	43	42.60	8.90	1.35

After the pre-test and the application of the treatment, the learners took the post-test to measure the effects of the treatment on their performance of speech acts in the experimental group in comparison to the performance of the learners in the control group in order to test the existence of a statistically significant difference between the groups. Thus, the test followed the same methodology in the pre-test, in which independent samples t-Test was conducted. The level of significance of the P-value alpha (α) is considered to be 0.05 and the critical value was counted to be (CV = ±1.990). As a result, any statistically significant difference between the groups should include a P value in which the level of significance is less than Alpha (Sig < α 0.05).

Therefore, and based on the values mentioned above, it can be observed that the experimental group performed better than the control group. The learners' mean of scores is 71.35, unlike the noticeably low mean of 52.81 of the control group. Additionally, the CI

values are -19.51 as a lower value and -17.55 as an upper value. It can be observed that both upper and lower values do not cross the value 0, which rejects the assumption of equal variance between the control and experimental group. As a result, the results of the independent sample t-Test were significant, indicating that the control group (M = 52.81, SD = 2.87) was significantly different than the experimental group (M = 71.35, SD = 1.74), t (89) = 3.541 > ±1.990 (CV).

Thus, and based on the results obtained from the independent samples t-Test, the null hypothesis is rejected, and by that, the alternative hypothesis that authentic materials enhance learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals is accepted.

Table 39

The Post-test's Independent Samples Test Statistics

	t	df	Sig	MD	CI 95%	
					Lower	Upper
Equal Variances not Assumed	-37.57	78.64	.000	-18.53	-19.51	-17.55

In addition to the independent samples t-Test that was conducted, which compares the means of the control and experimental groups at a fixed point in time, and does not test the effect of the treatment on the same group and the statistically significant variances in two different points in time, a paired samples test was also conducted. As a result, using both ways of testing gives the results more credible ground. The first independent samples test showed a clear significant difference between the control and experimental group after the treatment and showed that both groups were insignificantly the same before applying the treatment. Thus, a paired samples test is also used to test the statistical significance of the difference

between the pre-test and post-test for each group individually. This will also allow the measurement of the effects of authentic and contrived materials and to what extent they affected learners' pragmatic competence later on.

The results of the paired samples test show that the control group has scored a mean difference of 9.72 higher between the pre-test and the post-test, (M1-M2 =-9.72, SD = 8.99) which shows that the learners have developed the way they perform the target speech acts. Additionally, the t and p-value show that the change is statistically significant (t= 7.49 > ±1.990 CV, α=0.00).

On the other hand, the results of the paired samples test show that the experimental group mean score difference between the post-test and the pre-test is way higher than that of the control group, with almost three-fold the mean difference of the control group (M1-M2 =- 28.74, SD = 8.93), this shows that the treatment, authentic materials, had a higher effect size than the traditional way of teaching. Also, the results were proven to be statistically different with the upper and lower values of -25.99 and -31.49 not crossing the value zero, and an alpha value lower than 0.05 (t= 7.49 > ±1.990 CV, α=0.00).

Consequently, it can be observed that the results of the control and experimental group are both statistically significantly different when comparing the results by using a paired sample test. Both groups have scored significant differences, however, it can be observed that the experimental group's scores and mean the difference between the pre-test and post-test is three times higher than that of the control group.

Thus, it can be deduced that the P-value does not always reflect the effect size of the treatment on the independent variable. This requires the use and calculation of Cohen (1988) effect size (d), which provides a measurement of the effect size of the variables on the dependent variables, with the following values' classification: d=0.10 being a very small

effect, d=0.20 as a small effect, d=0.50 as a medium, d=0.80 for large effect. Sawilowsky (2009)expanded this classification by adding d=1.20 for a very large effect, and d≥ 2.00 for a huge effect.

After calculating Cohen's d of both pairs, pre-test and post-test mean scores of the control group, and pre-test and post-test means of the experimental group, it can be observed that the effects of the treatment on the experimental group are huge (d=3.21), and the effects of teaching traditionally on the control group is large (d=1.08). Hence, it is concluded that the effect of authentic materials on developing the learners' performance of the four speech acts is greater than the effect of using contrived materials.

Table 40

The Comparison of the Paired Samples Test of the CG & EG

		MD	SD	95% CI		t	df	sig
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	**CG Pre-test – CG Post-test**	-9.72	8.99	-12.34	-7.11	-7.49	47	.00
Pair 2	**EG Pre-test – EG Post-test**	-28.74	8.93	-31.49	-25.99	-21.09	42	.00

Table 41

Authentic Materials Effect Size according to Cohen and Sawilowsky.

Effect Size	Very Small	Small	Medium	Large	Very Large	Huge
d	0.01	0.20	0.50	0.80	1.20	2.0+
CG's *d*				1.08		
EG's *d*						3.21

To conclude, the comparison of the results of the control and experimental groups using independent samples *t*-Test shows that the experimental group is significantly and statistically different than the control group, and by that proving that the effect of the treatment resulting in this difference did not happen by chance. However, even if the results of the experimental group were clearly higher than any observant, the P-value is limited to showing the significance and not measuring the effect. As a result of this, a paired samples test was required to test the learners' performance within the individual group at two different points in time, before applying the treatment and after. This resulted in further insight and description of the results, where it is clear that both groups had a significant difference between the post and pre-test, however, comparing the means difference and the Cohen's d values shows that the effects of the treatment were greater than those measured in the control group.

5.4. Conclusion

In this chapter, the data obtained by the pre-test and post-test were explained and discussed in detail to give a clear explanation and relevant discussion of the data. The results of the pre-test were compared first speech act by speech act to understand the way the control and experimental groups performed these speech acts before the application of the treatment. Then the global means of the scores were compared to find any statistically significant differences between both groups.

Thus, discussing the results obtained in the pre-test revealed that the learners in the control and experimental groups showed similar patterns of performing speech acts, and they often scored average or below-average scores. Additionally, there were no significant differences in the ways the learners performed the targeted speech acts in the target language. Both of the groups struggled with a certain level of influence from their mother tongue

pragmatics and they often failed in performing speech acts that varied in degrees of formality, directness, and politeness.

After applying the treatment to the control group, it became apparent that the learners in the experimental group outperformed the learners in the performance of the four targeted speech acts by comparing every speech act performance of both groups. Additionally, it was clear that the learners who were exposed to authentic materials mastered performing the four speech acts better than those in the control group by comparing the global means of both groups' post-test results. This showed a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups, and by that confirming that there is a significant development in the way that the learners performed the speech acts in the experimental group; thus, proving the alternative hypothesis to be accepted.

However, using an independent samples test was not enough to assess and measure the effects of the treatment and it only provided the existence of a significant difference. As a consequence, the results were also compared by adopting a paired samples test, by this, the results of the same group were compared between the post and pre-test. This revealed the existence of a statistically significant difference in both groups, which shows a certain level of development taking place in the control group and a greater development in the experimental group. However, by calculating Cohen's d, it appears that the effect of the treatment and the development was almost three-fold that in the control group.

6. CHAPTER FIVE: The Interpretation of Results and Conclusions

This fifth chapter marks the final step in this thesis. It includes qualitative data gathered from the learners in the control and experimental groups to get their attitudes towards the use of authentic materials to improve their pragmatic abilities to perform the four speech acts included in the scope of this study. This feedback is crucial in understanding how the learners feel about their pragmatic abilities after studying using authentic materials for months, in addition to their feedback on the implementation of authentic materials used in the classroom in comparison to the use of contrived materials.

Additionally, this chapter includes a qualitative interpretation of the results of the experiment where the results of the pre-test and post-test were compared to measure the effect of the treatment on the way the learners performed requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments. Also, it includes a revisit to the hypothesis, research questions, and aims to provide the obtained answers and evaluate the efficiency of the methodology chosen to conduct this study and by that provide the required answers, and last gives implications and recommendations for future research.

6.1. Qualitative Interpretation of the Results

The results of the pre-test's WDCT showed that the learners in the control and the experimental groups were statistically indifferent when it comes to their abilities to perform the required speech acts. Both groups struggled with the same features and could perform pragmatic speech acts in an almost identical manner. Additionally, the learners struggled with the same items that included the same levels of formality and especially those requiring a certain level of indirectness. However, after applying the treatment the way the learners performed these speech acts in the control group and experimental group was not the same. Indeed, both groups have shown a certain level of development, yet as mentioned in the

previous chapter, the learners in the control group did not develop their abilities to the same extent as the learners in the experimental group.

The learners in the experimental group could out-perform those in the control group after being exposed to authentic materials, unlike those in the control group who were taught using contrived materials and often using materials found in EFL coursebooks. Therefore, and from the results in chapter four, it is clear that the effect of authentic materials was greater than that of contrived materials by three-folds. In the following parts, I will provide a detailed interpretation of the results obtained of the four speech acts included, in addition to some noticeable features that were involved in the way the learners performed requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments, such as pragmatic interference, pragmatic failure, and the learners' language level.

6.1.1. Apologies

The learners in the control and experimental groups performed apologies in the same manner in the pre-test. They generated apologies that were identical in form and nature which resulted in the apologies being generic and inflexible according to the levels of formality and politeness the situation requires. Additionally, the expressive nature of apologies puts the speaker in a position of responsibility to the situation that proceeded or "norm infringement" (Bergman & Kasper, 1993), which leads the speaker to adopt a very polite and sensitive position when performing apologies. This requires the NNS learners to be very sensitive towards the degrees of politeness chosen to perform this speech act. Thus, this explains why both groups struggled with the degrees of politeness required in the pre-test.

Furthermore, learners often struggled with the formula of generating apologies. Native speakers' apologies often fall under three formulas according to Cohen & Olshtain (1981), where they start the apology itself by showing regret, the need to make an apology, then

asking for forgiveness. The second way of apologizing begins with describing the context and conditions which resulted in this situation that requires apologizing. The third way of apologizing begins with self-blame, admitting responsibility, or unintentional will then followed with admitting that the hearer deserves an apology.

However, unlike any of these situations, the learners in the control and experimental groups generated apologies that often started with "forgive me", "I am sorry!" then a promise it will not happen again on rare occasions. This pattern is often used in the mother tongue language, where Algerians often apologies in one word or a very short utterance such as "forgive me".

After exposing the learners' in the experimental group to authentic materials, the learners began generating different formulas of apologies, such as the previous three mentioned formulas. The learners said enough in a native speaker's manner and they could always recognize the speech act being performed which resulted in the absence of any pragmatic failures. Additionally, the learners' flexibility in forming the three different formulas used by native speakers enabled them to generate apologies that are suitable to the different levels of formality and politeness that the situations required.

Nevertheless, the learners' average performance in the control group can be explained by the way they made apologies which tended to be similar and almost identical because of the generic nature of contrived materials and the language they possess. The learners generated apologies that followed one formula and this often happened in all of the situations provided with the different levels of formality and politeness.

Therefore, it can be deduced that the learners' in the experimental group out-performed their peers in the control group because they could get rid of the interference of the mother tongue pragmatics and also acquired various ways of performing apologies which

enabled them to be more competent and generate various forms of apologies. On the other hand, the control group's inability to generate different formats and patterns of apologies resulted in a generic use of apologies and rare occasions of pragmatic interference from their mother tongue when they felt unable to perform apologies suitable to high formality and politeness situations.

6.1.2. Compliments

The results obtained from the control and experimental group after the pre-test and post-test reveal the way the learners performed compliments before applying the treatment on the experimental group, and by that, they gave a clear effect size assessment of the treatment on the learners' way of performing compliments.

First, the learners showed similar patterns of performing compliments after taking the pre-test. This only reflects the most used way to perform compliments by NNS Algerian learners of the Department of Batna. This expressive speech act is less frequently used in the learners' mother tongue compared to English. This leads the learners to perform compliments generically and only to serve as compliments, unlike the way natives use compliments to serve other functions, Wolfson & Manes (1980) comparative study showed that compliments are often used by English native speakers, especially Americans, compared to other languages. Accordingly, native speakers often use compliments as conversation starters, greetings, thanking, and even apologizing. On the other hand, the learners in the control and experimental groups used compliments in a heavy mother tongue-influenced manner and they were often limited to only complementing generically.

Additionally, the learners in both groups used almost the same formulas to perform compliments in English. These formulas tended to be simple and direct in semantics and syntax. The learners used the following formula in most of their compliments: pronouns

(mostly it and you) + adjective (mostly good great). On the syntax level, the learners limited the function of compliments to complimenting only.

However, after the pot-test and the application of the treatment on the experimental group, it appears that the learners in this group who were taught using authentic materials could use compliments in a very versatile manner which allowed them to even use compliments for other functions such as conversation starters. The learners often used other functions such as thanking by complimenting and sometimes used sarcasm to give the compliment a humorous tune. This shows that the learners mastered the syntactic and even the semantic nature of compliments. Nevertheless, the learners did not use compliments in this way in the control group even if they have witnessed an average development in the way they perform requests, this is still limited to the syntactic level, and it shows that they did not develop their awareness and use of the semantic features of performing compliments.

Additionally, Wolfson & Manes (1980) argue that compliments are limited and simple in syntax but rich and versatile in semantics. They deduced formulas in which native speakers perform compliments to formulas that often include a set of verbs and adjectives, some of these formulas are:

-Pro/Noun + Verb (to be/look) + (really) + Adjective

-Pronoun (often demonstrative) + Verb to be + Article (a/an) + Adjective

- Embedding Phrase (often I think/I really wanted to tell you) + Phrase 2 + Adjective

These three formulas often appeared in the way the learners performed compliments in the experimental group, in addition to using the compliments to perform other functions and the occasional introduction and use of sarcasm. Unlike the control group who were not exposed to authentic materials, by that, they often used the first and second formulas with

being solely restricted to performing compliments without any being aware of the semantics of using compliments to do other functions.

Therefore, all of these differences could be linked to the use of authentic materials to develop the learners' way of performing compliments in the target language in the experimental group. The fact that the learners understood the semantics of compliments and began using them for other functions, using different formulas and different levels of formality and politeness reflects the semantically rich content that authentic materials hold. However, the generic and often semantically poor way the learners used to perform compliments in the control group is only a reflection of the use of contrived materials which often strip the language from its semantics.

6.1.3. Requests

Similar to the other speech acts results analyzed previously, the learners in both groups struggled with making requests in the pre-test. The learners had an identical way of forming requests, which tended to be direct, short, and often lacked the use of any modal verbs. These modal verbs are often considered to be mood changers and they take a simple direct request from being perceived as bossy to being perceived as polite.

The learners' requests in both groups were very direct, short and sometimes they included an occasional use of please at the beginning of the sentences, which is often perceived to be odd in the target English language and is considered to be transferred from their mother tongue pragmatics. The formulas the learners often followed when performing requests in the target language was as follows:

- Please + Imperative

- Imperative + Please

As it can be observed, these forms are short and direct despite the different levels of imposition that can take a request somewhere from begging to ordering and the opposite (Machiko Achiba, 2003). Additionally, this could sometimes result in a pragmatic failure if the addressed interlocutor interprets these more like orders than requests.

However, after the post-test, the learners could form better requests in the experimental group. The learners could form various formulas to make requests in English including mood changers such and formulas such as would+ clause + please, could and can, and indirect requests such as "would + if" and changing the pronoun of you too I and make the request less direct by making it about the addresser and not the addressed.

Furthermore, the learners showed great command and understanding of the situations that hold different levels of imposition resulting in different levels of formality and politeness. It can be observed that the learners here greatly benefited from the exposure to authentic materials which resulted in them having flexible formulas of requesting which could be used to address different situations with different degrees of imposition.

On the other hand, the control group still performed requests better than the way they did in the pre-test but they were outperformed by the learners in the experimental group. The contrived materials used to teach these learners resulted in them using some generic requests using mood changers such as would, and could but failed at generating indirect requests using if+ would formula. Also, the learners often struggled to adjust their requests according to the situations and the different levels of imposition they hold. The learners were often too polite when it is not necessary or less indirect than what is needed. However, this would not result in a pragmatic failure which puts these ways of requesting in the average mark.

6.1.4. Refusals

Refusals are a unique speech act that takes a great deal of knowledge and competence to perform, as Rubin (1983) puts it, a great amount of knowledge is required to say no. Thus, it is often difficult to say no especially in an indirect manner without making the answer ambiguous and unclear (Morrow, 1995). The learners in both groups in the pre-test had to refuse the offers in the situations provided indirectly when needed and still be clear, which resulted in them struggling with the performance of refusals in situations that require a higher level of formality and politeness, especially in the situations which hold a higher level of imposition on the speaker.

The learners' refusals were often short and sometimes consisted of a one-word reply "no" and sometimes it was followed with an excuse. Also, the learners sometimes provided longer refusals which were unclear and resulted in a communication breakdown and as a result a pragmatic failure. This is the result of negative pragmatic transfer which is reflected in the longer formulas that the learners used in the control and experimental group and failed to make clear their position towards the speakers' request. However, unlike this latter negative transfer, the first formula of "no + excuse" is also the result of positive transfer from the mother tongue pragmatics. However, these formulas which were the result of either positive or negative transfer were inflexible towards the different degrees of imposition, formality, and politeness required in the situations, which made them sound repetitive and far from authentic.

However, after the exposure to authentic materials, the learners enhanced their abilities to form refusals and the formulas used. The learners made their requests less direct by using if and would clauses, in addition to an apology or the use of cannot to show the inability to accept (I am sorry + if + would/cannot clause) in addition to apologizing then using have to

show that the speaker is obliged to refuse (I am sorry + I have to refuse). Thus, the learners in the experimental group also adjusted these formulas according to the different degrees of formality and politeness imposed by the situation. This shows a great deal of mastery and awareness of the socio-cultural aspects of the target language which require the refusal to be direct and indirect and yet clear when necessary.

Nevertheless, the learners in the control group who were taught using contrived materials showed the same level of development they showed performing other speech acts, yet failed to be more flexible and indirect when required. The learners' refusals still used mood changers and apologized when performing refusals, yet they could not adjust these formulas to the situations provided.

Thus, it can be clear that authentic materials not only make the learners able to perform better refusals, but often help the learners form the required awareness that provides the required understanding of the speech event, and give them more formulas they could use properly in the required situations. On the other hand, contrived materials succeeded in lessening the effects of negative pragmatic transfer by equipping the learners with the most used and basic formulas to refuse politely, but failed at making them aware of the necessity of adapting these formulas to the different situations.

6.1.5. Pragmatic Failure

It can be noticed that the learners in the control and experimental groups have struggled with understanding the situation and the kind of response or speech act it requires the interlocutor to perform. This is considered to be a pragmatic phenomenon which is called pragmatic failure, as it had already been included in the literature review, definitions such as Thomas' (1981) and Blum-kulka's (1986) define it to be the inability to comprehend the intended meaning and the intention of the interaction. This can be considered too broad of a

definition as it includes both kinds of pragmatic failure such as pragmalinguistic failure, which is the result of weak language command, and a mere syntactic error, on the other hand, sociopragmatic failure is more complex and it is the result of the failure to understand the social rules of the target language and is often considered to be the result of negative transfer.

However, since the learners took a placement test which showed that their linguistic abilities are upper-intermediate to advanced, few of them struggled with the linguistic forms of performing these speech acts in the pre-test. Yet, all of them did not have this kind of negative transfer in the post-test. As a consequence, it can be noticed that the learners who were exposed to the treatment of those who were not exposed to it did not face any problems with their use of grammar which could result in a pragmatic failure.

On the other hand, the learners had more sociopragmatic failures before the treatment in the experimental group, and yet almost did not have any failures of this type after in the post-test. It can be observed that authentic materials' effect on the learners resulted in them being more aware of the sociopragmatics and semantics of the English language and eliminated negative pragmatic transfer by giving more available formulas to performed the target speech acts, equipped with the awareness acquired, the learners did not have any need to go back to their mother tongue to perform the speech acts.

Nevertheless, contrived materials failed in eliminating the problem of sociopragmatic failure even if they succeeded in eliminating the first type, which is structure-based. The issue with contrived materials is the lack of flexible formulas that can be used differently to address different situations that require various levels of formality, politeness, and social distance, in addition to the lack of awareness they provide. This results in the learners not being able to perform in the pragmatic context as required, resulting in them adopting generic utterances

which are rarely adapted to the situations, or result in the learners transferring from their mother tongue to fulfill the need of performing as the situation requires.

6.1.6. Pragmatic Transfer

Throughout the pre-test and post-test, the learners have shown different degrees of pragmatic transfer in the control and experimental groups. First, the learners in the control and experimental groups were often taking some formulas used in their mother tongue to perform the target speech acts in English. However, after being exposed to the treatment in the experimental group, most of the learners did not rely on their mother tongue pragmatics to perform the speech acts because of the various formulas and the awareness provided by authentic materials.

However, the learners in the control group showed similar levels of pragmatic transfer in the pre-test and post-test. This is the result of being limited to generic uses of utterances that are rarely adapted to speech events or situations. Contrived materials, or teaching by using traditional materials gave fewer options to the learners and less awareness of the sociopragmatic features of English which resulted in them resorting to transferring from their mother tongue.

Still, the learners sometimes succeded in positively transferring some techniques and formulas which are similar or identical to those in the target language to perform speech acts. This is considered to be a positive transfer, especially in the case of refusals where the learners could borrow formulas that were similar from their mother tongue, however, these formulas were short and reflected the directness required to disagree in their mother tongue. Thus, most of the transfer the learners used is considered to be negative because the techniques and formulas do not match resulting in pragmatic failure or ambiguity most f the time.

6.1.7. Politeness

Similar to pragmatic failure and pragmatic transfer, the learners in the two groups struggled with understanding the different degrees of politeness required, or they could understand the required level of politeness but they did not have the strategies required to address it. The learners' way of performing the targeted speech acts was often short, too direct, and lacked the required various techniques used to address a higher imposition interlocutor, politely and formally.

After the treatment, the learners in the experimental group could perform better speech acts that can be considered suitably polite. The learners could perform speech acts that varied from direct to indirect whenever the situation was imposed. They could also address higher status interlocutors with the required levels of politeness and formality, this goes in the other direction where they could talk to lower status interlocutors such as friends in the required polite speech acts. This shows that the learners could master different techniques and formulas which could help them understand the required level of politeness and then address it with the needed formula.

On the other hand, learners who were taught using contrived materials did not perform using the levels of politeness required. The learners used generic formulas which were the result of the generic nature of contrived materials. This often put the learners in a neutral position where they were often polite enough to perform without having the other part misunderstand their intentions. However, on other occasions, the learners' speech acts could be considered either less or more polite than what is needed.

6.2. The Retrospective Written Self-Report (RWSR)

This retrospective was written self-report is a questionnaire designed to gather qualitative nominal and categorical data on the way the learners in the control and experimental groups felt about the way they performed requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals before this experiment was conducted and after the application of the treatment to the experimental group. In other less technical words, the learners were asked how they felt about their abilities using the four included speech acts before they studied using authentic and contrived materials and after. Additionally, the learners' in both groups reported their attitudes towards the effectiveness of studying using authentic materials in comparison to the other traditional materials. All of this assesses the psychological impact authentic materials have on the learners.

Therefore, the RWSR includes two sections, a first section where the learners report their self-assessment of their pragmatic competence before and after the experiment, and a second section where they report their attitudes towards the materials used. Thus, the questions are often a Likert scale where the learners answer on a scale of one to five; the data is later gathered and analyzed accordingly. For more insight, a full version of the RWSR is included in the appendices (check Appendix G).

6.2.1. RWSR Data & Discussion of Results

6.2.1.1. Question One

In this question, the learners in the two groups rated the way they performed the four speech acts included in this study and by that included in their oral expression class to be weak on a scale of 5. This scale starts with 1, very weak, 2 weak, 3 average, 4 stands for good performance, and 5 stand very good. Additionally, most of the learners felt the same way about the way they performed every speech act included without any significant differences

between the speech acts. Also, the groups were not statistically different; both of the groups have rated their performance to be weak with the mean of their ratings ranging between the minimum average of 2.15 and maximum average of 2.33. The mode on the other hand shows that the learners rated most of their skills as weak, which is the value equivalent to two and the most occurring in the data as the table below shows.

Table 42

Descriptive Statistics of the RWSR results of Question 1

		N	Mode	f of Mode	% of Mode
Q1 Apologies	**CG**	48	2	24	50
	EG	43	2	24	50
Q1 Compliments	**CG**	48	2	22	45.8
	EG	43	2	23	45.9
Q1 Requests	**CG**	48	2	23	45.9
	EG	43	2	21	43.8
Q1 Refusals	**CG**	48	2	24	50
	EG	43	2	24	50

In addition to all of this, the overall assessment of the speech acts by the control and experimental groups before the experiment reveals that most of the learners in the two groups rated their pragmatic abilities to perform the targeted speech acts to be mostly weak or very weak. For instance, most of the control group learners assessed their abilities to be weak or very weak with a combined percentage of 65%; on the other hand, the experimental group assessed their abilities to be weak or very weak with a percentage of 63%. Also, none of the learners assessed their abilities to be very good in the two groups.

Therefore, the results obtained from this section show that the learners did not feel confident in the way they performed requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments before they participated in the experiment. These results are similar to the results of the pre-test, which shows that the learners were objective in their assessment of the way they performed these speech acts.

Figure 8

The Overall Self-assessment of the Learners' Competence before the Course
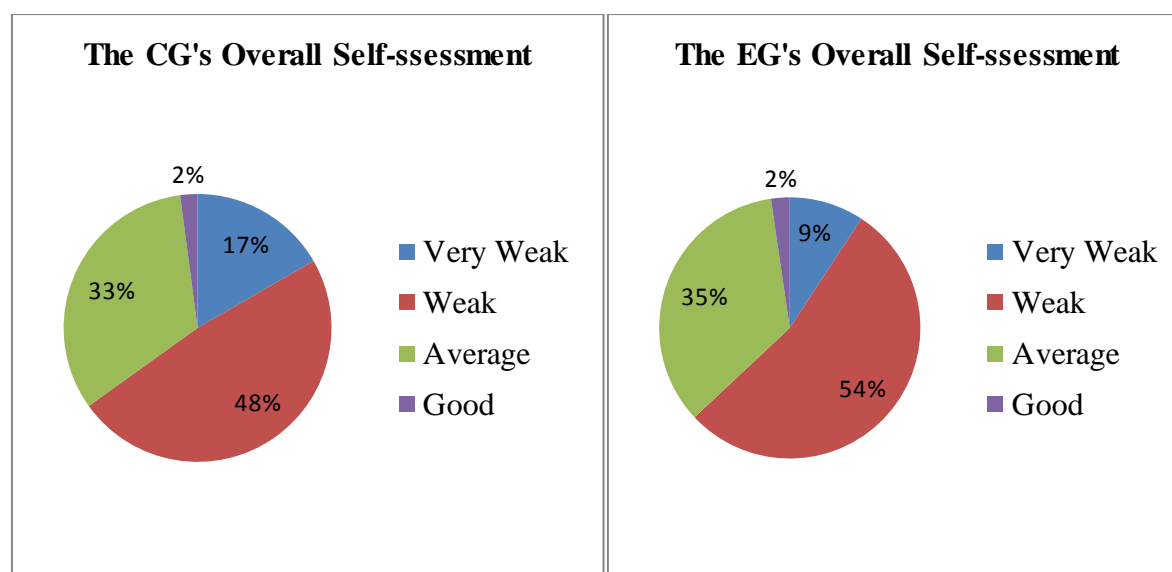
6.2.1.2. Question Two

Following the same scale and methodology of assessment, the learners assessed their pragmatic abilities to perform the speech acts after completing their oral expression class and participating in this experiment. Unlike the first question, the learners reported different data in the control and experimental groups.

Most of the learners in the control group felt more confident about the way they perform the speech acts in comparison to the assessment they provided before the completion of the oral expression class. Most of the learners rated their abilities to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments to be average which is revealed by mode 3, and the high

percentage of the learners assessing their abilities to be average across the four speech acts, this percentage ranges from 47.9% as a minimum and 72.9% as a maximum percentage, thus, this data reflects the scores of the pre-test where the learners scored above average.

Nevertheless, the learners in the experimental group reported similar data in the rising level of confidence in the way they performed the speech acts after studying using authentic materials, however, their assessment is different and higher than that of the control group. Most of the learners in this group assessed their abilities to perform the speech acts after being exposed to authentic materials to be very good, which makes the most frequently occurring assessment with the mode of 5 and frequency of 21 that makes 43.9% of the experimental group. This high percentage reflects how confident the learners feel about their abilities and it matches their posttest scores.

Table 43

Descriptive Statistics of the RWSR results of Question 2

		N	Mode	f of Mode	% of Mode
Q1 Apologies	**CG**	48	3	35	72.9
	EG	43	5	21	43.8
Q1 Compliments	**CG**	48	3	34	70.8
	EG	43	5	23	47.9
Q1 Requests	**CG**	48	3	25	52.1
	EG	43	4	24	50
Q1 Refusals	**CG**	48	3	23	47.9
	EG	43	5	28	58.3

Furthermore, the overall assessment of the speech acts by the control and experimental groups reveals significant differences similar to the significant differences between the

learners in the two groups and the scores they obtained. The learners in the experimental group out-performed those in the control group and their assessment of the way they perform the speech acts reflects this difference. The learners in the control group rated their performance of the speech acts after the post-test to be mostly average with the percentage of 66% and only 24% assessed their abilities to be good. On the other hand, the learners in the experimental group assessed their abilities to perform the speech acts to be mostly very good with the percentage of 53% and 44% assessed their abilities to be good.

Additionally, only 1% of the learners in the control group feel that their abilities are very good and only 24% felt good about their abilities. Also, 9% of the learners in this group still feel that their abilities are weak. Different from the experimental group, none of the learners felt that their abilities are weak and only 3% felt they are weak. These significant differences reflect the scores obtained by the two groups after the treatment and the impact of authentic materials on the experimental group who not only scored higher in the post-test but also are aware of the difference that the treatment made on their abilities before and after.

Figure 9

The Overall Self-assessment of the Learners' Competence after the Course
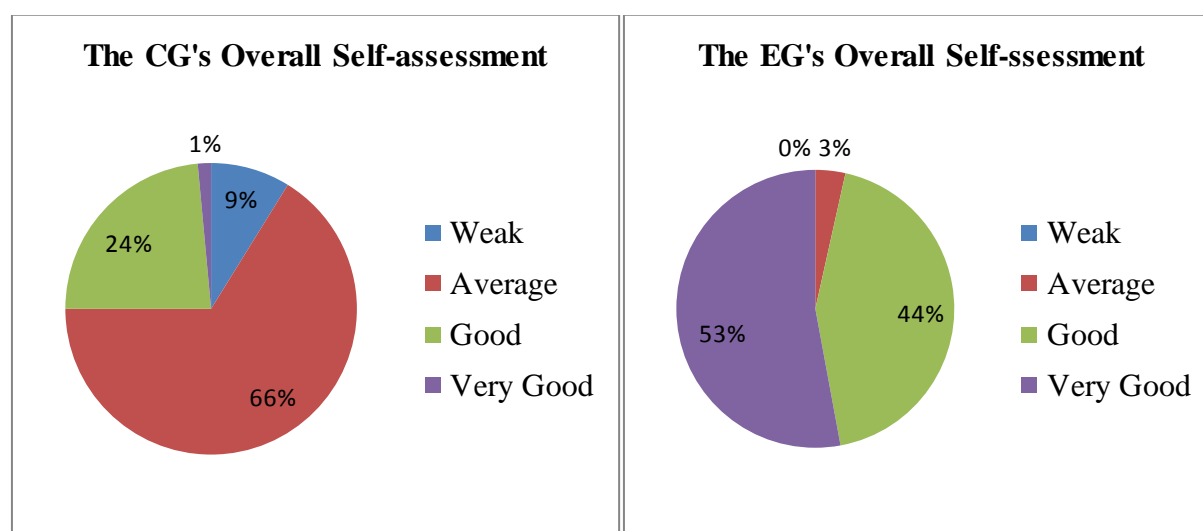
6.2.1.3. Question Three

In addition to evaluating the learners' pragmatic abilities before and after the experiment, the learners were asked whether they expect future problems in performing the given speech acts in this study in the hypothetical situations provided in the WDCT using English. The learners were given the choices, yes, no, and maybe which makes the data collected nominal.

The results of this question show that more than half of the learners taught using authentic materials believe that they will not have any problems with the performance of the speech acts in future situations with 54.2%, and only 35.7% reported that they might have some issues. On the other hand, 31.3% of the learners in the control group reported that they believe they will not have any issues with situations that require the performance of the included four speech acts. However, more than a third of them, 35.7% believe that they will have issues, unlike the control group who believe that none of them will have issues with the speech acts and the situations in the future.

Thus, it can be observed that most of the learners in the experimental group feel more confident in the way they perform the speech acts and feel that they will not face any problems performing the speech acts in the required situations. However, the learners in the control group who were taught using the traditional contrived materials do not feel as confident. The learners in this control group gave different answers and a third of them gave every answer, this shows that the learners who were not taught using authentic materials do not feel confident about their abilities to perform the speech acts properly. Therefore, this clearly shows the impact of authentic materials on the learners' confidence; it also goes hand in hand with the results of the post-test which confirmed the hypothesis.

Table 44

The Learners' Attitudes towards their Pragmatic Competence after the Post-test

		N	f	%
No	**CG**	48	15	31.3
	EG	43	26	54.2
Maybe	**CG**	48	16	33.3
	EG	43	17	35.7
Yes	**CG**	48	17	35.7
	EG	43	0	0

6.2.1.4. Question Four

In addition to the learners self-assessing their pragmatic abilities and confidence towards performing the speech acts, this section collects data on the way the learners feel towards the materials used in this study. The learners are given the chance to assess the materials using three options, useless, useful, and very useful, which give us nominal and qualitative data.

The results of the question show that the learners in the control group assess the contrived materials used to be most useful with the majority of the learners reporting that they are using with 72.9%. However, 18.8% of them believe that the materials used are useless, which makes up 9 learners out of 48. Additionally, only 8.3% of them believe that the materials are very useful.

On the other hand, all of the learners who were taught using authentic materials in the experimental group believe that the materials used are either useful or very useful. Thus, unlike the control group, none of the learners in the experimental group believe that the

materials used are useless. On the contrary, almost half of the learners reported that the materials used are very useful, and only 8.3% had the same assessment in the control group.

These results show that the learners in the control group and experimental groups are aware of the impact of the materials used to teach them. Additionally, the assessment of the learners is objective when compared with their results in the post-test. The learners in the experimental group showed better results and their assessment of the materials is high, unlike those in the control group, who scored average and assessed the materials used to be most useful, which is an average assessment.

Table 45

The Learners' Assessment of the Materials Used

	Assessment	f	%
CG	**Useless**	9	18.8
	Useful	35	72.9
	Very Useful	4	8.3
EG	**Useless**	0	0
	Useful	23	53.4
	Very Useful	20	46.6

6.2.2. Summary of the Results

The RWSR aimed at collecting data on the way the learners feel about their pragmatic abilities before and after the experiment in addition to the way they felt about performing the speech acts in future situations which assesses the learners' confidence. Also, it aimed at gathering data on the way the learners assess and perceive the usefulness of the materials

used. All of this answers some research questions provided in this study, in addition to giving more qualitative insight into the data collected in the previous chapter.

The learners showed similar assessment to their abilities before taking the experiment and completing their oral expression course where both groups felt that their abilities to perform the speech acts included in this study be mostly average and sometimes weak. This goes hand in hand with the results of the pre-test during which the learners mostly scored average scores. On the other hand, the learners in the control group rated their abilities to perform the speech acts after the experiment to be average and only a few reported that their abilities are very good. Also, most of the learners in this group did not feel so confident about their abilities, which also matches their average performance in the post-test, even if there was a certain level of decent development.

Furthermore, the learners in the experimental group highly assessed their abilities to perform the required speech acts and felt more confident about them. The learners' answers here match their scores in the post-test where they out-performed the control group. The experimental group's great results and high self-assessment are the results of the effect of authentic materials on the learners' abilities. This is also reflected in the way they assessed the materials where almost half of the learners believed that the materials used were very useful. Unlike that, the learners in the control group mostly assess the usefulness of the materials as average.

6.3. Revisiting Research Hypothesis, Aims & Questions

6.3.1. Hypothesis

This study was all based on investigating the use of authentic materials in teaching Oral Expression to develop the learners' pragmatic abilities in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments. Thus the hypothesis of this study goes as follows:

- The use of authentic materials in teaching oral expression results in developing learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments

As a result, the research design was set where two groups were chosen randomly to participate in this study from the Department of English, University of Batna 2. The learners were in the third year at that time, and these learners from the third year were chosen because of their more developed linguistic abilities, unlike their second colleagues and the first year. This choice helped avoid the effect of the linguistic level of the learners in the target language, which was later on tested using a placement test to test whether the language level could be an affecting factor.

As the results of the test show, the learners were mostly B2 level and above on the European Framework of References, which means that the language was not a factor that could affect the results of this study. Additionally, the learners took the pre-test to measure their pragmatic abilities before the treatment and a post-test to measure the effects of the treatment in addition to a self-assessment retrospective questionnaire for the learners.

The results of the control and experimental groups show that the learners in the experimental group who were taught using authentic materials outperformed their peers in the control group who were taught using traditional contrived materials. Also, the difference between the two groups' performances was proven to be statistically and significantly different and caused by authentic materials and not by random odds. The independent samples t-Test results were significant, indicating that the control group (M = 52.81, SD = 2.87) was significantly different than the experimental group (M = 71.35, SD = 1.74), t (89) = 3.541 > ±1.990 (CV).

This indicates that authentic materials had a significant effect on the pragmatic abilities of the learners to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments. Thus, the

null hypothesis is rejected, and by that, the alternative hypothesis that authentic materials enhance learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals is accepted.

6.3.2. Research Aims & Questions

This study includes multiple aims and research questions that were discovered and answered throughout this study. In this part, the answers to the research questions are summarized with a reference to the research aims, which will be given proper insight by discussing the answers to the research questions. In short, the research aims are the following:

- The ability of authentic materials to develop third-year learners' pragmatic competence in the Department of English University of Batna 2
- To what extent could authentic materials help third-year learners develop their pragmatic abilities to perform requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments
- The ability to effectively implement authentic materials in classrooms

Thus, these aims are closely related to answering the research questions, so summarizing the research questions results in discussing the investigation of the aims. The research questions go as follows.

Do authentic materials make any difference in developing learners' pragmatic competence in comparison to contrived materials?

This research question is the main investigation of this study, which was all built based on research and experimental design to answer it. The results of the post-test and RWSR show that the learners benefited to a great extent from authentic materials which developed the learners' pragmatic abilities in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments better than the contrived materials used on the control group.

The learners in the experimental group, who were taught using authentic materials, showed more versatile and flexible abilities in dealing with the different situations they encountered in the WDCT, unlike those who were taught using contrived materials who showed a certain level of development in the way they performed the speech acts but they were not able to adjust the different degrees of indirectness, politeness strategies, formality and the formulas required to the various situations.

Also, the learners rarely used negative and positive pragmatic transfer to transfer some formulas and expressions from their mother tongue pragmatics to the target language. The learners in the experimental group, however, tended to be more flexible and generated more native speakers-like formulas to address the situation. Thus, it is clear that both authentic materials had a positive impact on the learners' abilities to perform the speech acts, but authentic materials have a far greater positive effect which will be discussed in the next question.

To what extent could authentic materials develop third-year learners' pragmatic competence in performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments?

The results of the independent samples t-Test were not enough to measure the effect size of the treatment, because comparing the data and using the alpha value only gives statistically significant differences between the control and experimental groups. The two groups were statistically and significantly different, yet another paired-samples t-test was conducted to measure the difference within the groups in two different points in time, comparing their scores in the post-test to the pre-test. This allowed us to measure Cohen's *d* which measures the effect size and gives it a classification that allows us to compare the effects.

After calculating Cohen's d of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the control group, and pre-test and post-test means of the experimental group, it was clear that the effect of authentic materials on the experimental group is huge (d=3.21) in comparison to the effects of teaching traditionally on the control group which is a large effect (d=1.08). Therefore, it is clear that the effect of authentic materials on developing the learners' performance of the four speech acts is greater than the effect of using contrived materials.

Thus, the answer to this research question is clear. In quantitative measures, the effect of authentic materials on enhancing third-year learners' pragmatic abilities is threefold that of contrived materials. Authentic materials had such a great impact on the way the learners performed requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments to the extent that learners in the experimental group out-performed the learners in the control group in all of the speech acts. Additionally, this is also reflected in the way the learners rated and assessed the materials used in the WRSR questionnaire, where most of the learners thought they were more useful.

Also, when analyzing the formulas and patterns generated by the learners in the experimental group it can be observed that the formulas are more flexible to the situation and carry more understanding of the semantics of the target language. The learners could use more indirect and formal language when needed and direct and less formal when the situation requires. Thus the speech acts generated by this group can be described to be more native-like in semantics and formulas. However, the learners in the control group failed to generate speech acts similar to those of the experimental group. The learners sometimes used formulas and expressions borrowed from their mother tongue pragmatics, which is resulted in them struggling to adapt their speech acts to the situations. This is one of the effects of contrived materials, as they provide the learners with generic formulas with less semantics of the target language, unlike authentic materials.

Does pragmatic transfer from L1 influence the process of performing pragmatic speech acts after being exposed to authentic or contrived materials?

Pragmatic transfer from the learners' mother tongue to the target language has occurred through the span of this experiment at different degrees. First, the learners' speech acts in the control and experimental groups were heavily influenced by their mother tongue semantics in the pre-test, which resulted in pragmatic failure and the generation of linguistically obscure speech acts. However, after the treatment, the pragmatic transfer occurred less in both groups. In the control group, the learners could often answer without being heavily influenced by their L1, unless if they were struggling with adapting their speech acts to the various situations.

However, the learners in the experimental group were rarely affected by their L1 after being exposed to authentic materials, the learners were not very affected by it and they were performing independently in the target language. This shows how contrived materials lessened the linguistic transfer that occurs, but authentic materials could almost eliminate it.

Additionally, the learners in the control group were still affected by the two types of pragmatic transfer. The learners often successfully used formulas that were used in their L1 to perform the same speech acts in the target language. This successful use of L1 formulas in the target language is considered to be positive, in contrast to the other type where the learners used formulas that only exist in their L1 and do not exist in the target language. This could still cause problems with the way they performed pragmatically.

To conclude, authentic materials were successful in minimizing and eliminating the frequency of pragmatic transfer, unlike contrived materials which failed to do so and could only lessen it. Thus, the pragmatic transfer could still be a problem after the exposure to

contrived materials and it did not affect the process of performing speech acts after being exposed to authentic materials.

What type of materials do learners perceive as more or less 'effective' in developing their pragmatic abilities?

The RWSR provided an answer to this question. The control and experimental groups were given the chance to evaluate and assess the materials used to teach them oral expression throughout this experiment. Most of the learners in the control group considered the materials used in teaching them (contrived materials) to be useful. However, just a few of them considered these materials very useful, and more learners considered them to be useless than very useful. However, all of the learners who were taught using authentic materials in the experimental group considered these materials to be either very useful or useful and none of them reported them to be useless. Thus and based on all of this, it is clear that the learners believe that authentic materials are more useful than contrived materials.

How could authentic materials be used to their fullest efficiency in the classroom?

This question was partially answered in a theoretical manner in the literature review, thus for the sake of avoiding redundancy, the practical experience gained from this experiment will be the focus of the answer in this section.

Therefore, authentic materials could very tricky to use especially when the level of the learners isn't as advanced as it should be. Authentic materials often carry heavy cultural and pragmatic content which sometimes makes it difficult for the learners to understand if they were introduced to these materials without a good warmer or pre-teach. Thus most of the time, the learners are given the required warm-up activities which help pre-teach some of the difficult aspects of speech to be seen in the lesson.

Additionally, the lessons took the format of TTT or test, teach, test with a delayed correction and feedback at the end of the lesson. This format helped to first introduce the theme of authentic materials used, which allows the learners to predict the lexis and activate their linguistic abilities, in addition to pre-teaching the required difficult language. Afterward, this is followed by testing the learners' knowledge and performance of the TL to quantify and measure the learning which took place after teaching. This gives a solid and concrete way of assessing the achievement of the objectives in addition to giving the chance for any delayed correction to take place. A sample of the lesson plan is provided in the appendices to give a full insight on this point.

Also, interaction is key in exploiting the cultural and pragmatic value of authentic materials, as Widdowson (1983) puts it the authenticity of authentic materials is also affected by the authenticity of the task. Therefore, for authentic materials to be as effective as possible, the task should also stimulate authentic interaction. Therefore, the lesson is based on TBL where the learners and the task are the centers of the lesson and the most important part of any classroom.

Furthermore, the materials should be selected carefully. These materials should always come after analyzing the needs and the level of the students; this will allow using authentic materials without editing or adjustment. Therefore, selecting the materials should always be the first step when creating the lesson around them. Thus all of these points could be summarized as follows:

- The careful selection process of the materials which cater to the level and needs of the learners
- Following TBL where the learners and the task are the centers of the attention of the lesson

- The careful lesson planning revolves around maximizing the interaction between the learners based on the authenticity of the materials and task

- The careful planning of lessons in TTT allows the assessment of the achievement of the objectives

- Including effective warm-up and pre-teach activities at the beginning of the lesson to facilitate the comprehension of the authentic input

- Planning the implementation of authentic materials in a three step-process of pre-authentic material tasks, during the use of authentic material tasks, and post authentic material tasks.

- Always allowing the learners to deduce the target language and its use in a guided discovery process.

6.4. Evaluation of Methodology

This part evaluates the methodology used in this study. It gives an objective and a detailed evaluation for the methodology used in the research design and evaluates its effectiveness, in addition to evaluating the materials or tests' and questionnaires' effectiveness in providing answers to the research questions by collecting the required data. Also, it evaluates the methodology or pedagogy used while teaching the control and experimental groups. Therefore, this evaluates the overall effectiveness of the study and gives accounts for how things could have been better implemented for perhaps future research.

6.4.1. The Evaluation of the Research Design

This study adopted the experimental design to conduct the study and the experiment in general. This design is believed to be the most suitable to show the effects of the treatment on the experimental group in comparison to the control group. Therefore, the results provided by this research design were significantly important and valid to investigate the given hypothesis.

However, the sampling of the control and experimental groups did not follow any systematic technique of sampling. The procedure of sampling was random because two groups were randomly assigned to the researcher by the administration and little was there to do to follow any effective sampling technique because of time and students' academic duties, which made it difficult to change their timing or groups.

However, even if the sampling techniques were not thoroughly planned and investigated, the control and experimental groups followed an alphabetical order considering their last names by the administration. This allowed the learners to be randomly selected to be parts of the groups assigned. Also, the pre-test and the language tests' provided homogenous results which revealed that the groups were statistically indifferent which means they were from the same population.

Furthermore, the research design format of teachers' questionnaire, language test, then pre-test, treatment, post-test and finally retrospective questionnaire gave significant and well-detailed data which were the result of this research design's ability to effectively limit the intervening factors such as language level from affecting the results of the treatment or absence of treatment.

6.4.2. The Evaluation of Tests and Materials

This study used different tests and materials to obtain the required data to answer the questions and hypothesis of this research. These tests and materials are evaluated as follows.

6.4.2.1. The Pilot Questionnaire (the teachers' questionnaire)

This questionnaire was effective in gathering the initial data required before conducting this experiment. It aimed at investigating the oral expression and pragmatics teachers' use of authentic materials to develop the learners' pragmatic competence and their

attitudes towards authentic materials and pragmatic competence. This questionnaires' insight was crucial in setting the ground for this study by revealing the lack of use of authentic materials and awareness of the importance of pragmatics; thus, providing future implications and recommendations after obtaining the results.

The questionnaire also revealed that most of the teachers are aware of the benefits of using authentic materials and the necessity of developing the learners' pragmatic competence but they were not fully aware of the extent to which authentic materials could help achieve that aim. The teachers also showed a lack of training to use authentic materials to develop the learners' pragmatic and communicative abilities, which could help provide them with teacher training workshops in the future.

6.4.2.2. The Language Test

This language test which is based on the European Framework of References and designed by MacMillan Education and provided for free use on their website was simple yet very effective in determining the language level of learners. The test was very accurate in this study in that all of the learners were properly placed in their linguistic levels. Additionally, the learners were also given short interviews after the test and the beginning of the experiment, which only confirmed the accuracy of the test adopted. Therefore, the use of this test in this study was thoroughly planned and it was very accurate in measuring the learners' linguistic abilities.

6.4.2.3. The Written Discourse Completion Test WDCT

This test was essential in measuring the effects of the treatment on the dependent variable. Thus, answering the most important questions of this study. Measuring the pragmatic abilities of the learners is a difficult task, however, the WDCT designed by Blum-Kulka (1982) made it possible to measure the learners' way of performing requests, apologies,

refusals, and compliments. The WDCT's nature of describing the situation and its social and pragmatic qualities enables the learners to generate the intended speech acts, which is exactly what is required to assess the speech acts.

However, even if the test was perfect in what has been described formerly, it was still in need of adaptation to suit the format of the study and the Algerian context because it was initially designed for Hebrew speaking participants (check the adaptation of the WDCT in Chapter 4 for more details). Also, the test was limited to the written form which was not always sufficient to measure and assess all of the pragmatic features such as face-threatening acts and phonetic features such as intonation which could also give more insight into politeness strategies. The choice of WDCT was planned, even if it solely provides written features, to solve the problem of native speaker raters or interviewers who should go through detailed training to assess the learners' pragmatic competencies.

The issue of raters has been the major issue with the use of WDCT and avoiding the use of the Oral Discourse Completion Test (ODCT). The absence of trained English native speaker interviewers made it impossible to use OWDCT. However, this study adopted Tello Rueda's (2004) analytic scale to solve the problem of raters. The scale was designed by native speakers and based on the literature provided in the field of pragmatics. This analytic scale was very effective in assessing the learners' speech acts stimulated by the situations.

Therefore, and based on the data collected and circumstances, it is clear that the WDCT was very effective in measuring the learners' pragmatic performance of requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments. Thus, it successfully answered the most important research questions in this study.

6.4.2.4. The Written Retrospective Self-Report (WRSR)

This short questionnaire which was inspired by Tello Rueda's (2004) work was effective in gathering qualitative data that gave more insight into the quantitative results of the WDCT. This questionnaire helped gain more insight and get the learners' assessment of their pragmatic abilities in performing the four speech acts before they were subjects in the experiment and after. The results of this part of the questionnaire matched those of the pre-test, where the learners performed in an average way in the two groups, and they also assessed their performance to be average. They also reported a minor and average development in the control group after the post-test and being exposed to contrived materials which match their average development in their performance in the post-test. On the other hand, the learners in the experimental group reported significant development which is reflected in the results of the post-test. Therefore, it is clear that the WRSR was effective because its results match those of the pre-test and post-test.

6.4.2.5. Contrived and Authentic Materials

The authentic materials selected for this experiment followed a rigorous procedure where the objective of the lesson, the level of the learners, learning styles, and the different formalities of the speech acts provided was the main focus in choosing them. The learners often reacted differently to the authentic materials provided, especially because they often enjoyed videos more than listening to podcasts, audios, and authentic texts.

Additionally, the videos used in this experiment were the most effective in allowing the learners to see the complete speech event and natives interacting in a lively manner and producing the required speech acts. The videos often carried linguistic, semantic, and metalinguistic features that the learners often found useful in developing their pragmatic

abilities. Thus, it can be deduced that authentic videos were the most interactive and enjoyed by the learners and for the features mentioned above, they were the most effective.

On the other hand, contrived materials did not result in the same levels of interactivity that authentic materials produced. The learners often enjoyed contrived videos as well, even though these videos lacked some of the features that authentic videos have and failed in creating the same authentic reaction that the learners had with authentic videos. Also, the learners rarely struggled with the language provided in the contrived videos, unlike the authentic ones. These difficulties in understanding the language in authentic videos were easily overcome by the good use of group and pair-work where peer-scaffolding or peer-learning helped the learners to understand them better in addition to the pre-while-post technique.

As a consequence, authentic materials were the overall best in developing the learners' way of performing the four speech acts, which could be observed in the scores of the post-test. Therefore, by evaluating the materials used, it is clear that authentic materials were effective and the process of choosing them was effective as well.

6.4.2.6. The Lessons and Lesson Planning

This study used the most scientific lesson planning method to plan lessons that can measure the achievement of the objectives, which are test, teach, and test TTT. This method allows the teacher to observe the development of the performance of the learners tangibly and throughout the lesson. The latter formed micro-units of this experiment which allowed seeing the effect of authentic materials taking place after every lesson (check Appendix F).

TTT first starts with testing the learners' ability before applying the treatment authentic materials on the experimental group and contrived materials on the control group then using that same material to teach the learners the target language which often happens to

be requests, apologies, compliments, and refusals. The learners were later tested to see if they internalized the input and started generating genuine target language in a freer task. This also allowed the teacher to assess the success of the lesson ad whether it required being redone or readdressed in the future because some lessons were not always as successful.

Additionally, implementing a pre-while-post technique of implementing and exploiting the materials was very effective in allowing the learners to first pre-learn some difficult concepts, predict the existing language in the material, in addition to setting the theme before the material, also teaching them effectively by avoiding the learners from struggling with the difficult language to testing what they have learned in post-tasks. This also allowed the good implementation of task-based learning.

Therefore, this combination of TTT, pre-while-post, and TBL was very effective in generating a real learning experience for the learners in the control and experimental group. It was also flexible and suitable to teach by using authentic and contrived materials in a unified manner and by that eliminating any possible differences or intervening factors. It also allowed assessing and reflecting on the achievement of objectives.

6.5. Limitations

This study faced multiple issues and limitation which could be overcome by the implementation of different methods and techniques and sometimes they were overcome by adopting a different measure or test. Also, some of these limitations affected how the study was conducted but did not affect the validity of the results of the methods used, even if, they could result in having to reevaluate the procedures more critically. Some of these limitations and the solutions provided are:

-The Teachers' Questionnaires. The study first aimed at using interviews to gather more detailed qualitative data from the teachers of oral expression and pragmatics. However, this was difficult to manage and set interview dates with the teachers because of availability and time constraints which resulted in using a questionnaire instead. This questionnaire was first printed and distributed to the administration, which took a very long time and the loss of some copies that were never returned. As a consequence, the questionnaires were converted to Google questionnaires and sent by email to the teachers, which has proven to be more effective. However, this limited the number of teachers chosen to participate and by that limiting the data gathered.

-The Rise of Hirak. During the process of this study which takes the form of a longitudinal study, Algeria has witnessed the rise of marches all over the country protesting the political situation in Algeria starting from the 2nd of April 2019. These protests lead to raising the number of absences which resulted in canceling many classes. This caused the experiment to last longer, and by that, scheduling additional classes to overcome the issue.

-The Problem of Testing Pragmatic Competence. This study first aimed at implementing oral discourse completion tests which allowed to record real-time interactions which often tend to carry more semantic non-verbal pragmatic features which help assess the learners' pragmatic competence in a more detailed and effective manner. However, this would require the use of well-trained English native speaker raters to assess the learners' pragmatic competence, which was inaccessible to the study. As a consequence, WDCT was opted instead to measure the learners' pragmatic competence by using Tello Rueda's (2004) analytic scale to assess the learners' performance. Thus, the problem of raters resulted in adopting a different measurement and method. However, even though this new measurement was adopted, the results still stand valid well-detailed. The only limitation is not including non-verbal pragmatic and spoken features.

6.6. Recommendations and Future Implications

This study provided a rich insight and understanding of the way authentic materials could positively affect the pragmatic competence of performing requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments in the context of third-year Algerian students of English at the department of the University of Batna 2. The results clearly show that both contrived and authentic materials have a positive effect on the learners' pragmatic abilities, however, those benefits coming from contrived materials are often far limited and generic compared to the large and significant effect that authentic materials have.

These significant results emphasize the importance of using authentic materials in the Department of English at the University of Batna, and the necessity of shifting the teaching of EFL from linguistics form-based abilities to tackle the learners' needs of performance and use. This ever-growing need in the Algerian context for the use of English in the different sectors of life also raises the demand for the competence of use rather than knowledge of rules. This study can also serve as a starting point and a reference for future teacher training programs to equip university teachers of Oral Expression and Pragmatics with the awareness needed to use authentic materials to their fullest and raise their awareness of pragmatics to provide the learners with proper development of using the target language in a pragmatically sound manner.

Furthermore, the research available on developing learners' pragmatic competence in Algerian universities is scarce and is often limited in scope. Most of the research conducted in the context of EFL pragmatics and teaching English in Algeria comes from three Universities such as DENDENNE (2013), University of Constantine 1, Idri (2014) University of Bejaia, Lamri (2014), Lamri (2016) University of Biskra, and all of these universities are situated in the North East of Algeria, with the complete absence of large cross-cultural and pragmatic

comparative studies that compare the Algerian dialect's pragmatics in comparison to the English pragmatics.

As a consequence, there is a necessity for a large-scale cross-cultural study of speech acts realization patterns in Algeria. This would allow further detailed insight into the way Algerian learners perceive the pragmatics of the target language and more insight into the pragmatic transfer that takes place when teaching EFL. Therefore, this would become a reference study for other studies that take into account the development of pragmatic competence of Algerian EFL learners.

6.7. Conclusion

This study investigated the effect of authentic materials on EFL learners' pragmatic competence of performing requests, apologies refusals, and compliments in the case of third-year students, Department of English at the University of Batna 2. The findings of this study support and confirm the hypothesis that authentic materials help enhance the learners' pragmatic abilities to perform the mentioned speech acts. However, it raised another question on how effective can contrived materials be in enhancing the learners' pragmatic competence if they were thoroughly planned and enriched with semantic and pragmatic features that authentic materials have, which happens to fall out of the scope of this study. This question would make a solid basis for another study and future research in the same department, thus it would complete the significant findings of this study.

Additionally, this study succeeded in addressing and answering the research questions asked at the beginning of this study. The main question was answered by confirming the hypothesis, which was proven, authentic materials do enhance learners' pragmatic competence and to a great extent. Authentic materials were proven to have a large positive impact on making the learners able to perform the required speech acts.

Also, this study explored the best and most suitable ways in implementing authentic materials in teaching EFL with developing learners' pragmatics as the main aim. TTT and TBL were a very significant combination that helped maximize the interaction between the learners and measure the achievements of objectives in an observable manner. This maximized interaction between the learners, in pair and group work, gave the authentic tasks stimulated by the authentic materials used, an authentic context for authentic target language generation and use. As a consequence, this resulted in the learners prefer authentic materials and report them as more useful.

Furthermore, another question on pragmatic transfer was investigated. Learners often tended to resort to pragmatic transfer from their mother tongue to the target language English when they struggle to find authentic formulas used to perform the speech acts in the target language. In addition, learners sometimes resorted to transferring to address the different levels of formality, politeness, and directness. All of this transfer tended to be negative most of the time, especially with learners taught using contrived materials, even if they sometimes succeeded in positively transferring from their mother tongue to the target language when the patterns are identical.

To conclude, this study is one of the fewest studies conducted in this field in the Algerian context with the absence of large-scale cross-cultural comparative studies that analyze the patterns of speech acts conducted by Algerians in their mother tongue and the pragmatics of English. This kind of study will reveal the way Algerians perform speech acts in their mother tongue to understand the way they comprehend the English pragmatics. Thus, this will serve as a reference to smaller-scale studies such as this study which investigated only four speech acts in the context of third-year learners at the department of the University of Batna 2. As a consequence, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to the Algerian context and can only be generalized to third-year learners at the Department of Batna 2.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The Pilot Questionnaire

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to collect data about developing learners' pragmatic competence through the use of authentic materials. It aims at identifying teachers' opinions and attitudes towards this crucial area of research, your answers will be of great help and importance, thanks in advance.

i.   Background Information

1. Qualification:
　　　a- BA (License)　　　　□
　　　b- MA (Master / Magister)　□
　　　c- Ph.D. (Doctorate)　　　□

2. How long have you been teaching oral expression?
....

ii.   Authentic Materials

1) What type of materials do you use in teaching Oral Expression?

A-Authentic (made by and for natives and not for a pedagogical purpose)　□

B- Non-authentic (made by natives or EFL speakers and intended for a pedagogical purpose)
□

C- Others…

If others please mention them

……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………………………

2) Which one do you think is more capable of developing learners' pragmatic competence?

A-Authentic materials □

B- Non-authentic materials □

Why?..
....

3) Do you think that longer exposure to authentic materials will help in developing learners' pragmatic competence?

YES□   NO□

4) How often do you use authentic materials?

a- Always □

b- Sometimes□

c- Rarely□

d- Never□

5) Which authentic materials do you often rely on?

A- Videos □

B- Podcasts□

C- Articles□

D- Films□

E- Others□

If others specify

………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………….…………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………….

6) Is it difficult to use authentic materials in the classroom?

YES□   NO□
If yes, please mention some hardships that teachers encounter when using authentic materials

……
……
……

7) Do teachers require training in ICT to use Authentic Materials?

YES□   NO□

 iii.   Pragmatic Competence

8) What is the aim behind teaching EFL?

a- Developing Learners' pragmatic and communicative abilities □

b- Making them grammatically accurate and developing their knowledge of the forms of language □

c- Others □

Explain……………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………..

9) Do you prefer the pragmatics of the English language while teaching?

YES□   NO□

10) Is it important to teach pragmatics?

YES□   NO□

11) Are your students aware of the importance of pragmatics in using the target language?

YES□   NO□

12) How often do pragmatic breakdowns and failures happen in your classroom?

a- Always □

b- Sometimes□

c- Rarely□

d- Never□

And how do you deal with them?

....
....
....
....

13) How should teachers deal with pragmatic transfer when it interferes with students' use of English?

Example: taking an expression from Darja and literally translating it to English.

A- This should be neglected

B- This should be corrected with the reference to the target language

C- Others

Please specify if you answered others

....

....

....

14) What teaching methods do you believe are the most suitable for developing learners' pragmatic competence?

....

....

....

Appendix B

MacMillan's Language Test

Tick in the correct answers to fill the gaps.

Question n°01

I _____ from France.

☐is ☐are ☐am ☐be

Question n°02

This is my friend. _____ name is Peter.

☐Her ☐Our ☐Yours ☐His

Question n°03

Mike is _____.

☐my sister's friend ☐friend my sister ☐friend from my sister ☐my sister friend's

Question n°04

My brother is _____ artist.

☐the ☐an ☐a ☐__

Question n°05

_____ 20 desks in the classroom.

☐This is ☐There is ☐They are ☐There are

Question n°06

Paul _____ romantic films.

☐likes not ☐don't like ☐doesn't like ☐isn't likes

Question n°07

Sorry, I can't talk. I _____ right now.

☐driving ☐'m driving ☐drives ☐drive

Question n°08

She _____ at school last week.

☐didn't be ☐weren't ☐wasn't ☐isn't

Question n°09

I _____ the film last night.

☐like ☐likes ☐liking ☐liked

Question n°10

_____ a piece of cake? No, thank you.

☐Do you like ☐Would you like ☐Want you ☐Are you like

Question n°11

The living room is _____ than the bedroom.

☐more big ☐more bigger ☐biggest ☐bigger

Question n°12

The car is very old. We're going _____ a new car soon.

☐to buy ☐buying ☐to will buy ☐buy

Question n°13

Jane is a vegetarian. She _____ meat.

☐sometimes eats ☐never eats ☐often eats ☐usually eats

Question n°14

There aren't _____ buses late in the evening.

☐some ☐any ☐no ☐a

Question n°15

The car park is _____ to the restaurant.

☐next ☐opposite ☐behind ☐in front

Question n°16

Sue _____ shopping every day.

☐is going ☐go ☐going ☐goes

Question n°17

_____ seen fireworks before?

☐Did you ever ☐Are you ever ☐Have you ever ☐Do you ever

Question n°18

We've been friends _____ many years.

☐since ☐from ☐during ☐for

Question n°18

_____ seen fireworks before?

☐Did you ever ☐Are you ever ☐Have you ever ☐Do you ever

Question n°19

Jeff was ill last week and he _____ go out.

☐needn't ☐can't ☐mustn't ☐couldn't

Question n°20

These are the photos _____ I took on holiday.

☐which ☐who ☐what ☐where

Question n°21

We'll stay at home if it _____ this afternoon.

☐raining ☐rains ☐will rain ☐rain

Question n°22

He doesn't smoke now, but he _____ a lot when he was young.

☐has smoked ☐smokes ☐used to smoke ☐was smoked

Question n°23

Mark plays football _____ anyone else I know.

☐more good than ☐as better as ☐best than ☐better than

Question n°24

I promise I _____ you as soon as I've finished this cleaning.

☐will help ☐am helping ☐going to help ☐have helped

Question n°25

This town _____ by lots of tourists during the summer.

☐visits ☐visited ☐is visiting ☐is visited

Question n°26

Excuse me, can you _____ me the way to the station, please?

☐give ☐take ☐tell ☐say

Question n°27

They _____ in the park when it started to rain heavily.

☐walked ☐were walking ☐were walk ☐are walking

Question n°28

You _____ pay for the tickets. They're free.

☐have to ☐don't have ☐don't need to ☐doesn't have to

Question n°29

He said that his friends _____ to speak to him after they lost the football match.

☐not want ☐weren't ☐didn't want ☐aren't wanting

Question n°30

How about _____ to the cinema tonight?

☐going ☐go ☐to go ☐for going

Question n°31

I wasn't interested in the performance very much. _____.

☐I didn't, too. ☐Neither was I. ☐Nor did. ☐So I wasn't.

Question n°32

_____ this great book and I can't wait to see how it ends.

☐I don't read ☐I've read ☐I've been reading ☐I read

Question n°33

Take a warm coat, _____ you might get very cold outside.

☐otherwise ☐in case ☐so that ☐in order to

Question n°34

What I like more than anything else _____ at weekends.

☐playing golf ☐to play golf ☐is playing golf ☐is play golf

Question n°35

She _____ for her cat for two days when she finally found it in the garage.

☐looked ☐had been looked ☐had been looking ☐were looking

Question n°36

We won't catch the plane _____ we leave home now! Please hurry up!

☐if ☐providing that ☐except ☐unless

Question n°37

If I hadn't replied to your email, I_____ here with you now.

☐can't be ☐wouldn't be ☐won't be ☐haven't been

Question n°38

Do you think you _____ with my mobile phone soon? I need to make a call.

☐finish ☐are finishing ☐will have finished ☐are finished

Question n°39

I don't remember mentioning _____ dinner together tonight.

☐go for ☐you going to ☐to go for ☐going for

Question n°40

The horror movie wasn't just frightening! It was ____ terrifying!

☐extremely ☐absolutely ☐very ☐fairly

Question n°41

We usually ____ the shopping in a supermarket

☐make ☐do ☐have ☐go

Question n°42

It's cold so you should _____ on a warm jacket.

□put □wear □dress □take

Question n°43

I don't go to _____ on Sundays.

□job □office □work □factory

Question n°44

Can I help you? Thanks, but I'm just _____.

□watching □looking □seeing □shopping

Question n°45

There was a nice meal and a band at the wedding _____

□ceremony □reception □speech □group

Question n°46

Bob has had a very interesting ____ . He has had jobs in many countries and industries

□carrier □job □career □work

Question n°47

I think it's very easy to _____ debt these days.

□go into □become □go down to □get into

Question n°48

He _____ off his holiday until after the winter

□took □put □called □logged

Question n°49

Jane is always poking her nose in other people's business. She's so _____!

□inquisitive □obedient □playful □unreliable

Question n°50

During his stay in Indonesia, he went _____ with malaria.

□off □up □down □over

Appendix C

A Sample Lesson Plan

Main Linguistic Aims:
 	
• To present and practice 8 expressions related to bargaining for suitable prices as follows :
  - 4 phrases for bargaining prices down (for active future production)
  - 4 phrases commonly used to respond to attempts to haggle (for improved future receptive comprehension)
Subsidiary Aims:
 	
• To listen for details in a dialogue of a tourist negotiating prices in a gift/souvenir shop

Learning Outcomes: • SS will be better able to bargain prices down while traveling • SS will be better able to respond to attempts to haggle while traveling
Professional Aims: • To maximize STT by implementing speaking tasks throughout the lesson • To give clear instructions and ICQS • Ensure the integration of effective phonology practice
Assumptions made: • SS possess some basic knowledge of some expressions that they use to bargain prices, yet these expressions can be heavily influenced by their mother tongue, as a result, expressions such as I will give you \$x/give me \$x/I can only give \$x are expected to be used and other forms that can be related to their mother tongue
Anticipated problems & solutions (for teacher & students): • P SS might confuse the meanings of the verbs in the expressions used in naturally spoken English such as 'to do', 'come off' or 'to knock off' as phrasal verbs and word collocations with a common verb such as 'to do' are sometimes confusing to the learners • S One should always refer to the context of using these verbs and expressions and get the learners to notice and deduce the meaning • P There is not any specific grammatical pattern or form that can be used to bargain, the expressions are naturally occurring and not

fixed, some could be related to specific collocations such as 'to do'
- SS will learn the expressions by noticing them being used in a meaningful context that is relevant to their experiences and interests

Aids & Materials:

- A photo of a souvenir shop
- A teacher-made recording of a tourist bargaining prices
- Teacher-made Worksheets

Stage descriptor	Linguistic aim(s) of stage	Time	Teacher activity	Student activity	Interaction focus	Assessment method
Warmer	-To set the context for the TL and engage the Ss in the theme by asking and answering some context-related questions	1 3	-T introduces the Ss to the context by introducing a photo and activating their schemata and asks the following question "What is this place?" -T instructs the Ss to ask the following questions in pairs "What items do you usually buy when traveling? Do you sometimes find that souvenirs are pricy/expensive?"	-Ss look at the photo and give feedback -Ss work in pairs, ask and answer the questions about their personal experience	Ss>T S>S	-None

Test	-To check Ss' way of negotiating and pinpoint their needs	5	-T divides the Ss into two groups, buyers/costumers and shop owners -T explains that shopping Ss must buy items on the worksheet by offering possible prices and that shop owners must sell for the most expensive they could -T Asks ICQS then monitors and checks Ss' way of negotiating and their needs -T writes the expressions that Ss use to negotiate on the board	- Ss follow the instructions and then negotiate prices	T>Ss S>S	-T listens to the Ss' conversations and writes the expressions they use on the board
Teach 1 (Listening for Gist)	-To present the TL in a natural context	2	-T explains that the Ss are about to listen to a recording of a woman buying some souvenirs in a shop and asks them		Ss>T	-Brief feedback

			to answer the following questions "What is the person trying to buy?" "Do they agree on a price or not?" "Does the person end up buying anything?" -T asks Ss to discuss in pairs then report to class	-Ss listen then answer the question in pairs then report to class -Ss give feedback	S>S Ss>T	-By answering the gist questions the Ss will show understanding of the context and the target language used
		3				
Teach 2 (Listening for	-To get the Ss to notice the target language within the context of	2	-T gives gapped phrase worksheets and asks Ss to predict the missing	-Ss work in pairs and try to predict the words	S>S	-Ss will be able to predict what part of speech goes in each gap ex: verb,

Details)	meaningful use		words			noun…/even some words that they caught from the Listening for gist
		3	-T asks Ss to listen and try to fill the gaps with the words they hear then plays the recording	-Ss listen and fill the gaps	S	
		3	-T asks Ss to check in pairs then plays the recording again	-Ss check in pairs then listen again	S>S	-Ss will find the words, if not all, the full TL phrases will be introduced in the next stage
		(2)flexible Play again if needed				
Teach 3 (The TL)	-To introduce the sentences explicitly to the learners using function-based CCQs	5	-T reveals the answers and the sentences on the board and asks the Ss to work out the meaning	-SS work in pairs and find the meaning and use in addition to	S>S	-T asks some CCQs of the function and meaning of the TL

			and use in addition to categorizing them in terms of making an offer, responding, accepting, and rejecting	categorizing the expressions		expressions and Ss will provide answers
		6	-T highlights, elicits, and blockchain-drills the connected speech and the assimilation of /d/ + /j/ into /dʒ/ and /d/ into a /b/ before /p/ within the expressions as a whole within the sentence by modeling with a stronger learner then with the rest of the class	-Ss listen and repeat	T>Ss	-T listens to the Ss repetition individually to assess
Controlled	-To provide controlled	4	-T explains that Ss have to order the prompts to	-Ss order the prompts to make	T>Ss	-T corrects the mistakes and

Practice	practice using the TL		make sentences that include the TL expressions	sentences		checks their understanding by the number of the correct and wrong answers
		5	-T corrects the answers then asks them to rearrange the sentences to make a dialogue	-Ss order the sentences to make a dialogue	S>S	
			-Ss Role-play the dialogue	-Ss role-play the dialogue		
		2			S>S	
Freer Practice	-To check Ss' way of negotiating and tests/measures the learning that took place	5	-T divides the class into buyers and sellers and instructs the Ss to use the same handout they used at the beginning of the lesson and explains that they have to	-Ss walk around the class and try to negotiate prices with sellers	T>Ss S>S	-T takes notes/keeps track of the mistakes Ss make
	-To find the Ss'					

			negotiate for the cheapest price possible and that shop owners must not sell under the best price possible -T explains that it is a class mingle and Ss can move around the class -T gives Ss some time and asks them to swap roles -T monitors for possible mistakes			-Ss will be able to produce some genuine target language with minor grammatical, word order, or phonological mistakes
				-Ss swap roles		
weaknesses and mistakes to work on in the delayed reflection part		4			S>S	
Delayed Error	-To provide feedback on the mistakes that Ss	3	-T elicits some mistakes on the board and asks	-Ss correct the	T>Ss	-T gets the Ss to peer and self-

Correction	made especially the common ones		Ss to correct them	mistakes	Ss>T	correct at this stage
Reflection	-To let the Ss reflect on the learning that took place and how this could be useful in their lives	2	-T asks the Ss which new expressions they will be most likely to use when they next use English on a holiday	-Ss provide answers	T>Ss	-T assesses the learning that took place by getting the SS to point out the most useful TL they have learned

Target Language Item	Example Sentence	Analysis of Form	Meaning / Use	Pronunciation features to focus on	Additional Notes
Can you do it a bit cheaper? *Collocations with do* *'do=sell'*	*Can't you do it a bit cheaper? I can't pay that much.*	Interrogative form Can't+subject+**do**+object+**a bit** (quantifier)+**cheaper** (adjective in the comparative form)	It is often used to get a lower price than what is declared, used by the client *'do=sell'*	/ kənjʊ 'dʊ ɪt ə brˈʧiːpə?/ connected speech in / kənjʊː/ and /brˈʧiːpə/	
Could you do it for £xx? *Collocations with do* *'do=sell'*	Could you do it for £30?	Interrogative form Could/can/would+subject+do+object+for +sum of money	It is often used to give an offer when negotiating *'do=sell'*	/kə'dʒʊ 'dʊɪt fɔː £30?/ The assimilation of /d/ + /j/ into /dʒ/ and connected speech in /kədʒʊ/ and /dʊɪt/	

Can you **knock off** another £xx? **Phrasal verb** **Knock off= get a discount or a reduction in price**	*Can you knock off another £30?*	Interrogative form Can+subject+**knock off** (phrasal verb) +another+sum of money	It is often used to get a discount on the things to be sold	/kənjʊ nɒkɒf əˈnʌðə £30?/ The connected speech in /kənjʊ/ and /nɒkɒf/	
Go on then. **Phrasal verb** **Go on= I agree**	*Go on then.*	Affirmative **Go on** (phrasal verb) **+then**	It is used when a person agrees and approves the offer presented	/gəʊɒn ðɛn/ The connected speech in /gəʊɒn/	
I'm not sure about that **A standard/fixed expression**	Uhm, I'm not sure about that.	Negative I+am+not+sure+about+that	It is used to show polite disagreement	/aɪm nɒt ʃʊər əˈbaʊðæt/ Connected Speech in / əˈbaʊðæt/	
I haven't got that kind of money	It is too expensive; I haven't got that kind of money!	Affirmative I+ Haven't got+ **that kind/sum** of money	It is used to show that the proposed price is too expensive and that the other side cannot afford it	/aɪ hævnt gɒt ðət kaɪndəv ˈmʌni/ The connected speech in / kaɪndəv/	
Come off it! **Phrasal verb**	Ah, that's just an unfair price, come off it!	Affirmative **Come off** (phrasal verb)+ it	It is often used to show strong disagreement and or disbelief, in this	/ˈkʌm ɒfɪt! / The connected speech in / ɒfɪt! /	

Come off it= I strongly disagree			context it shows strong disagreement		
I could probably do it for about £xx *Collocations with do* *Probably do+it+for=Sell for a possible offer*	I could probably do it for 500	Affirmative I+**could probably do+it+ for £xx**	It is used to give a certain offer or price	/aɪkəb ˈprɒbəbli <u>dʊ</u>ɪt fər əˈbaʊt …/ The assimilation of /d/ into a /b/ before /p/ in addition to the connected speech in /aɪkəb/ and /<u>dʊ</u>ɪt/	
It's a deal **Standard/fixed Expression**	-Shop Assistant: Go on then. Alright, a mug for 20 and the keyring for 5;	**Affirmative** **It+is+deal**	It is used to show agreement or that the offer is accepted	/ɪtsə diːl/ The connected speech in /ɪtsə/	

Appendix D

The Pre-test

Name:

Group:

Read the situation then write the required request, refusal, apology, or compliment

1. A) Two weeks ago, Sarah, one of the undergraduate students in the "linguistics" class you assist, asked you to write a letter of recommendation on her behalf to participate in a study abroad program in Spain. With all your school duties, you have completely forgotten about the letter. Today, Stephanie asks you for the letter and mentions that the deadline for her application is in three days.

You say: _____

Stephanie: that's alright, we still have some time.

2. A) Your friend invites you for dinner at his place. When it is time to leave, you grab your jacket from one of the chairs in the living room and accidentally drop a beautiful ceramic piece standing on top of the end table. It breaks. Your friend has brought that ceramic from Egypt (his home country) on his last visit.

You say: _____

Your friend: Well, I am not sure what to say!

3. A) You and your friend are going out to do some shopping. The two of you agree to meet in In front of the theater at 4 pm. You get stuck in traffic and you end up arriving at 4:30. You arrive and find your friend upset and waiting for you.

You say:_____

4. A) One of your parents asks you to do the housework of the day as they are not going to be around for the whole day. You get some urgent work to do and they arrive before you do any housework. Your parent is asking you about the housework.

You say:_____

5. A) You had arranged a meeting with your supervisor and came 30 minutes late, you knocked on the door and you are allowed to get in.

Supervisor: You are late, today.

You say: _____

1. C) You got paired with a colleague to do an oral expression project. After few days of working together, you get fond of and admire your colleague's work ethics and commitment to teamwork. You say something nice and flattering about this.

You say: _____

2. C) As a part of your homework in TEFL, you get to teach your classmates for 30 minutes. Your classmates participate very actively when you finish you say something nice.

You say: _____

3. C) Your professor organizes a conference on "linguistics and culture". The conference is a complete success, and the next time you see him, you say something flattering and positive about the conference.

You say: _____

4. C) Your classmate worked hard on decorating the classroom, which now looks marvelous. You say something positive and flattering.

You say: _____

5. C) Your mother makes an outstanding and delicious dish for dinner; you loved the dish and your mother's work.

You say: _____

1. RE) You are leaving for a vacation on Monday at 7 a.m. and you need to be at the airport two hours before your flight's departure. You need a ride to the airport, so you decide to ask your friend Dana, who is not a morning person for this favor. You are having lunch with her.

You say: _____

2. RE) You are attending your grammar class, your professor explains a difficult grammar point and you do not seem to understand it very well. You would like a further explanation and clarification from your professor.

You ask him: _____

Professor, no problem, I will explain again!

3. RE) You are having dinner and you need more salt, the salt shaker is next to your dad. You ask your dad to pass it.

You say: _____

Dad: Right on the way!

4. RE) You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You don't know the student, but you decide to ask him to turn the music down.

You say:_____

Student: no problem mate, good luck with your revision.

5. RE) Your sibling makes a mess of your shared bedroom and you cannot stand this mess. You do not have time to tidy and organize the bedroom. You ask your sibling to clean and tidy the room.

You say:_____

1. RF) Your father asks you to come with him to get something for the house, you are so busy and under lots of pressure because of the load of homework you have. You need to do the work done, so you have to refuse.

You say:_____

2. RF) A friend and a classmate of yours did not do his homework due to some unsolved family issues. He asks you to do his homework for him, you have plenty of work to do as well, and believe that this is unethical, you have to refuse.

You say:_____

Your friend: No problem, I will ask someone else.

3. RF) You are invited to a birthday party by one of your classmates. Sadly, you have some serious plans for the same day as the party. You refuse the invitation.

You say:_____

Your friend: Life comes first; we can always throw another party!

4. RF) Your professor offers to change the timing of the class, you live far and cannot make it at that time. You have to refuse.

You say:_____

5. RF) A family member is moving out today. She calls you asking for help with the moving but you are very busy doing schoolwork. You have to refuse.

You say:_____

Appendix E

The Post-test

Name:

Group:

Read the situation then write the required request, refusal, apology, or compliment

1. A) A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam, I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam: _____

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

2. A) You had arranged a meeting with your supervisor and came 30 minutes late, you knocked on the door and you are allowed to get in.

Supervisor: You are late, today.

You say:_____

Supervisor: It is all fine, try to come back earlier the next time.

3. A) You forget your best friend's birthday, you meet him/her the next day then you remember that you forgot after hearing him/her say:

It was such an amazing party last night, I wish you were there!

You say:_____

Your friend: ow! That's alright.

4. A) You walked by a friend and accidentally stepped on his/her foot

Your friend: ouch!

You say:_____

5. A) You borrowed your colleague's laptop but you lost all of his/her data and files, you bring it back after.

You say:_____

Your colleague: how did that even happen?

1. C) Your roommate has just returned from shopping. S/he has bought a new pair of shoes. You say something flattering and positive about his shoes.

You say:_____

Your roommate: thanks!

2. C) Today, during your "creative writing" class, one of your classmates gives a presentation. When he finishes, he goes back to his seat, which is very close to yours. You say something flattering and positive about the presentation.

You say:_____

3. C) You come across your friend on campus. This is the first time you see him in his new glasses. You say something flattering and positive.

You say:_____

Your friend: oh! Thank you very much.

4. C) You are in English class at University. One of your friends lectures about a topic in English. He

speaks fluently and you are astonished by his English proficiency. How would you compliment him?

You say:_____

Your friend: that was so nice of you, thanks!

5. C) Your friend is a painter. He shows a portfolio of his paintings to you. They are so beautiful. How

would you compliment him/her?

You say:_____

Your friend: that's flattering! Thank you very much.

1. RE) Larry, your roommate, had a party the night before and left the kitchen in a mess. You are expecting some friends soon and would like this mess cleaned by Larry.

You say:_____

Larry: OK, I'll have a go at it right away.

2. RE) You are now shopping in a department store. You see a beautiful suit and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the suit.

You say:_____

Store assistant: alright, here you go.

3. RE) You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You don't know the student, but you decide to ask him to turn the music down.

You say:_____

Student: no problem mate, good luck with your revision.

4. RE) You are watching a football game. Your father comes and stands just in front of you blocking your view. You want to ask him not to block your view.

You say:_____

Your father: right away!

5. RE) This is the first day of your "Introduction to Economy" class. The class is just starting and you realize you did not bring a pen to take notes. You do not know the student sitting next to you, but you think he might have an extra pen.

You say: _____

1. RF) Your friend is moving out today. She calls you asking for help with the moving but you are very busy doing schoolwork. You have to refuse.

You say: _____

Your friend: alright, thanks anyways.

2. RF) Your professor is coordinating a field trip for tomorrow morning. As her teaching assistant you need to go on the trip and help her with all the arrangements. However, you have a bad cold and you feel you cannot go. You call the professor to refuse his offer.

You say: _____

3. RF) one of your colleagues in a class you assist, asked you for help to write a letter of recommendation on her behalf to participate in a study abroad program. With all your school duties, you have no time for that and have to refuse to help him/her.

You say: _____

Your colleague: that's fine; I will do it on my own.

4. RF) A neighbor invites you for his/her wedding but you are not a social person and do not usually attend weddings. You have to refuse and turn down this invitation.

You say: _____

5. RF) Your teacher asks you to come next week to study on a Thursday afternoon but you have to go home and live far, you kindly refuse.

You say: _____

Appendix F

The Analytic Scale

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1 Ability to use the speech act that the situation was intended to elicit.

    Inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   Completely appropriate

---

2 Use of typical expressions and speech from the native speaker's perspective.

    Pragmatic Failure   1   2   3   4   5   Smooth Conversation

---

3 Amount of speech used and information given.

    Inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   Completely appropriate

---

4 Linguistic accuracy of the expressions.

    Inaccurate   1   2   3   4   5   Accurate

---

5 Levels of formality expressed through word choice, phrasing, and use of titles.

    Inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   Completely appropriate

---

6 Levels of directness, indicated by verb form or strategy choice.

    Inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   Completely appropriate

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7 Levels of politeness expressed through formality, directness, and politeness markers.

    Inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   Completely appropriate

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Appendix G

The Written Retrospective Self-Assessment Report (WRSR)

1. Rate your performance of requests, apologies, refusals, and compliments before starting your Oral Expression class (1- very weak performance- 5 excellent performance)

Requests: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Apologies: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Compliments: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Refusals: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

2. Rate your performance of requests apologies, refusals, and compliments after completing your oral expression class (1- very weak performance- 5 excellent performance)

Requests: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Apologies: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Compliments: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Refusals: 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

3. Do you anticipate finding any difficulties expressing yourself in English in the hypothetical situations in the test (WDCT)?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Most likely

4. Rate the materials (listening tracks, videos, texts...) used in your Oral Expression class 1 = useless 3 very useful

Useless 1 – 2 – 3

Useful 1 – 2 – 3

Very Useful 1 – 2 – 3