

**Sudan University of Science and Technology**

**Collage of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research**

# **The Impact of Communicative Use of Pragmatics on University Student' Improvement in English**

**أثر إستعمال لغة الإتصال علي تحسين مستوي أداء الطالب الجامعي في اللغة  
الإنجليزية**

A case Study of University of Al-Butana- Gezira State- Sudan

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English (EFL)

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# DEDICATION

*To Family and friends.*

## **Abstract**

The present study covers a general overview of the methods and techniques which The Impact of Communicative Use of Pragmatics on University Student' Improvement in English. The main fourfold objectives are identifying are: investigate the impact of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting, analyze textbooks in terms of their pragmatic contents, explore opportunities/possibilities of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting and discover whether students can choose appropriate language in real- life situations. The researcher used descriptive analytical method. As well as the researcher used the questionnaire and the test as tools for data collection method. Also the samples of the study are students of Faculty of Education, University of Albutana, and the teachers of English, who are studying Master programme in Faculty of Education, (Hasahisa) Gezira University. The researcher used Statistical packages of Social Sciences, (SPSS). After the analysis of the collected data, there are some findings such as the using of pragmatics in real life will develop the communicative use of English language, also there is a neglecting for speaking skill inside the classroom, as well as, the weak knowledge about English language of learners community stands behinds the poor of communicative abilities, also teaching method is a chance for developing competence in communication, in addition to the exposition of students to English culture assists in improving pragmatics competence. Furthermore, the study includes some recommendations which facilitate teaching process and Suggestions for further studies in the same field.

## ملخص الدراسة

قصدت هذه الدراسة إلي بحث الطرق والتقنيات التي تحسن استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في مواقف الحياة اليومية بالنسبة لدارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية. تضمنت هذه الدراسة عددا من الاهداف وهي معرفة الأثر في تدريس استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في الأوضاع المختلفة، أيضا تهدف الدراسة الي تحليل محتوى كتاب الطالب المدرسي لإستخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في المواقف المختلفة، كما تهدف الدراسة إلي كشف الامكانيات والفرص لتدريس استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في المواقف اليومية المختلفة. إستخدم الباحث طريقة الوصف التحليلي، كما إستخدم الباحث الإستبانة والإختبار كأدوات إلي جمع البيانات من عينة الدراسة التي تتمثل في طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية، في كلية التربية، جامعة البطانة. بينما تمثلت العينة الاخرى من اساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية بالمرحلة الثانوية اثناء دراستهم برنامج ماجستير تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية تم إختيارهم عشوائيا من ضمن الطلاب والأساتذة. إستخدم الباحث البرنامج الإحصائي لعلم الإجتماع (SPSS) وخلال هذا التحليل أظهرت الدراسة عدد من النتائج منها: إستخدام اللغة في الحياة اليومية يطور استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية بطريقة صريحة، أيضا هنالك تجاهل لمهارة المخاطبة داخل الفصل الدراسي، كما ان ضعف معرفة الطلاب باللغة الإنجليزية قد أثرت سلبا علي مقدرات الطلاب في المخاطبة الصريحة، كما أن طريقه تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية تساعد في تطوير مقدرة التواصل بين الدارسين، بالإضافة اي تعريض الدارسين الي الثقافة الإنجليزية تساهم في تحسين مقدرة استخدام اللغة . وقد تضمنت الدراسة بعض التوصيات التي تساعد في عملية التدريس وبعض المقترحات لدراسات مستقبلية في نفس مجال البحث.

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## List of Abbreviations

<b>CCSRS</b>	Cross Cultural speech Act Realization Project
<b>CLT</b>	Communicative Language Teaching
<b>EFL</b>	English As Foreign Language
<b>ESL</b>	English As Second Language
<b>GP</b>	General Pragmatic
<b>GPQ</b>	General Pragmatic Questionnaire
<b>GPT</b>	General Pragmatic Test
<b>GTM</b>	Grammar Translation Method
<b>ILP</b>	Interlanguage Pragmatic
<b>L1</b>	First Language
<b>L2</b>	Second Language
<b>MDCT</b>	Multi-Choice Discourse Completion Test
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package Of Social Sciences
<b>NNs</b>	Non Native Speaker
<b>NNSs</b>	Non Native Speakers
<b>TEFL</b>	Teaching English As Foreign Language
<b>TESOL</b>	Teaching English To Students Of Other Language
<b>UEE</b>	University Entrance Exam
<b>WDCT</b>	Written Discourse Completion Test

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### **1-0 Background:**

Nowadays English is the language of globalization, international communication; commerce and trade, music, and media. Therefore, different motivations for learning it comes into act. As Richards & Rodgers, (2001).state,(English is no longer viewed as the property of the English-speaking world, but it is an international commodity sometimes referred to English as an International Language).

Recent methods and approaches in teaching English as EFL /ESL focus on English as a practical tool and world commodity rather than a cultural enrichment. Due to such circumstances, the approach which survived in the new millennium is Communicative Language Teaching. Indeed, the principles of this approach are as follows:

Language learning is communicative competence, learners learn a language through communication, and fluency and accuracy are important keys of authentic and meaningful communication

With the explicit recognition of the role of pragmatic competence in communicative ability, (Bachman 1990; Bachman and Palmer 1996; Canale and Swain 1980), abundant second language (L2) research has examined production of pragmatic function. Pragmatic production refers to the ability to perform speech functions appropriately in social contexts (Thomas 1995). In L2 pragmatic the production, ‘appropriateness’ is reflected at multiple levels. It reflects the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic and abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2. When examining appropriateness,

these multiple criteria should be defined clearly in order to understand what a successful pragmatic production entails.

Hence, pragmatics should be an important asset for students learning at various levels of education. Pragmatic skills should be one of the objectives of teaching language alongside other linguistic skills to help learners develop pragmatic competence. However, instruction of English or the learning environment, most commonly comprises of: non-native language teachers, who have no relevant trainings, a fairly large classroom full of learners with very dissimilar aptitudes, teaching materials that are mostly textbooks, printouts, or grammar.

The acquisition of pragmatic strategies people use in order to achieve their communicative goals in daily communication is particularly difficult since it requires the contextualization of language use. It is assumed that while the linguistic competences, i.e. knowledge of the language system in its lexical, grammatical, semantic and phonological dimensions and skill in its use (Trim 2005), are at the core of language use and language learning.

## **1- 1The Statement of the Study**

We believe that the present issue is worth analysis because we noticed over the five years we spent in studying English that most of the EFL learners' performance was better in reading, writing and listening than speaking. In fact, learners face many difficulties to express themselves in the foreign language, so most of our Sudanese learners are good in understanding what they hear, but they are unable to express about themselves.

So pragmatic competence is considered to be a major component of communicative competence. Yet, little attention has been paid to. Therefore, learning a foreign

language always entails learning a second culture (Schmitt, 2002). Williams (1994) argues that the learning of a foreign language is not just learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it also includes a change in self-image, an adoption of new social and cultural behaviors. Therefore, studying a language is more than just acquiring the rules of grammar. Learners must be able to use the language as well, but textbooks are not that reliable in this regard, Pragmatic ability is not only fundamental to the smooth functioning of society, but has not received considerable attention in the EFL contexts. English language textbooks present the language to students in terms of written and spoken language, but their presentation of the language is not rich in metalanguage and metapragmatic explanations.

## **1 – 2 The Significance of the Study**

The significance of the study stems from the fact that the use of pragmatics in real-life will develop the communicative use of learners in dealing with English language as it is the first language in the world. It can help syllabus designers to revise English language syllabuses and improve the quantity of pragmatic features and the quality of their presentations in the textbooks. It can be a worthwhile resource for teachers who are interested to develop their own teaching materials for teaching pragmatics. It would be helpful for textbook writers, who are wishing to have an informed opinion on the pedagogical implications derived from research on pragmatics; it fills the research gap that exists in studying challenges and opportunities to teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting. The research will be of importance for other researchers to look into the field attentively. It is generally believed that the use of pragmatics in real-life plays important roles in learning, because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning.

## **1- 3 Objectives of the Study**

The study aims to:

- 1- Investigate the impact of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting.
- 2- To revise into the relationship between communicative use and students' improvement .
- 3- Explore opportunities/possibilities of teaching pragmatics in an EFL setting.
- 4- Discover whether students can choose appropriate language in real- life situations.

## **1- 4 Questions of the Study**

- 1- What is the impact that perceived by English language teachers to develop students' pragmatic competence?
- 2- To what extent do students' textbooks provide pragmatic information for learners to acquire pragmatic competence?
- 3- How do the teachers perceive students' textbooks pragmatic contents whether they are challenges or opportunities?
- 4- To what extent students choose appropriate language in accordance with the requirements of a given situation/context?

## **1 – 5 Hypotheses of the Study**

- 1- Students textbooks lack of communicative use for EFL learners.

2- English language teachers know that learners' textbook contents do not include pragmatics.

3- English language teachers do not know the contents of EFL learner's textbooks of pragmatics are appropriate for them.

4- EFL learners do not use the appropriate language based on provided situations.

## **1.6 Methodology of the Study**

In this study, a descriptive research methodology will be used. This study will be conducted both quantitatively and qualitatively through survey General Pragmatic Questionnaire (GPQ) that will be administered to the teachers of English language to investigate the Improving EFL learners' communicative use of pragmatics in real-life situation. The general pragmatic questionnaire, composed of 20 items, focused on the learning of L2 pragmatics. Thus, cultural familiarity, politeness strategies, familiarity with speech acts and situations, and strategies for meaning conveyance were investigated through different items on ranging from 'agree' not sure and 'disagree.' Also the researcher used General Pragmatics Test (GPT) to measure the general knowledge of pragmatics on the learners of English language in the university.

## **1.7 Limits of the Study**

This research will be limited in Improving EFL Learners' Communicative Use of Pragmatics in Real-Life Situation made by the eleven and twelve batch teachers of ELT graduate studies learners in Gezira University, Faculty of Education, Hasa and students of English language, Faculty of education, Rufaa'.



# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2-0 Introduction**

Mastering a foreign language involves far more than simply learning its grammatical, lexical and phonological aspects. When students interact with other people in L2, they should be able to understand what speakers mean, when they produce an utterance and respond linguistically appropriately to the situation. However, speakers may choose to convey their intended meanings explicitly or implicitly, which may cause communication breakdowns. If the interlocutors are native speakers, they may also refer to cultural allusions that non-native speakers may not be aware of. Aspects such as the ability to recognise the unsaid, understand cultural references and manage the conversation appropriately are studied under the science of pragmatics, a linguistics sub-field.

Teachers and researchers therefore, are in the need to look for strategies that help students in the process of making them able to communicate in a natural way and be more participative in their English classes, increasing as a result the student-talking time. One of the most visible features that students bring to class is a low level of in-class participation (Tani, 2005), and one of the most interesting aims in teaching L2 is finding ways to help students improve their oral fluency. This is especially true in countries where learners share a common mother tongue and have little or no exposure to the L2 outside the classroom (Al-Sibai, 2004). Some researchers have pointed out that one of the skills producing anxiety is speaking. (Macintyre and Gardner,1991). Thus it would seem that in a foreign language context, speaking is definitely not easy.

According to Snell (1999) a common problem for EFL teachers is dealing with a passive class, where students are unresponsive and avoid interaction with the teacher. This is especially true when a teacher seeks interaction in a teacher-class dialogue, such as asking questions to the class as a whole, expecting at least one student to respond. Sometimes students may understand the questions and want to participate, but they do not have enough vocabulary as well as pronunciation, intonation, stress, etc, that give them confidence for producing responses. Similarly, very old strategies such as asking for repetition in pronunciation, and asking for understanding without contextualizing the learner to the discussion, or no strategy used at all, interfere with the oral fluency development in classrooms. Throughout several observations to students they are facing different kinds of problems such as; lack of vocabulary, shyness, nervousness, accuracy and fluency difficulties, evidenced through the students' low class participation and involvement. In addition, the teacher-talking time reflected in the teacher centered classes provided the students little opportunities to develop their oral language. So the researcher will cover a brief background about CLT besides to its characteristics and problems sources, then there are some definitions of pragmatics as a science, after that various definitions of pragmatic competence, as well as major studies on pragmatic competence and the types of competence in teaching process furthermore why we teach pragmatic and the role of pragmatic competence in teaching and learning FL, moreover the researcher will present some information about speech act, its levels, its types, its theory, why students learn speech act and how to do that by using many activities in addition to that what do learners have to acquire in order to be pragmatically competent.

## **2-1-1The Communicative Language Teaching:**

Recently more language teachers have noticed the failure of focusing approach in developing learners' communicative ability in real-life situations, and have shifted to adopt the communicative language teaching approach. The approach highlights learners' communicative qualification. It is indicating that ability, both linguistic and applied, is the knowledge developed and acquired through exposure and use of the target language. (Kasper, 1997). Based on Richards and Rodgers (2005) both American and British proponents now see it as the most comprehensive approach and a method that aims to: (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and relationship.

One of the teaching methods that teachers are using nowadays to facilitate the communication process in the classroom is the “Communicative Language Teaching” (CLT). It is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as both, the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. It is also referred as “communicative approach to the teaching of foreign languages” or simply the “Communicative Approach”. Hattum (2006) In addition, the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (2001) in its second chapter says that:“communicative language competences are those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means”.

It analyses the communicative language competence comprising linguistic competence, including lexical, grammatical, phonological and syntactical skills; sociolinguistic competences, involving rules of politeness, norms governing relation between sexes, classes and social groups; and pragmatic competences, engaging structure, coherence

and thematic organization of speech. In other words, the communicative approach is used in our own daily living experiences, not only in oral, but also in written interchanges. It is an important aspect for the management of the foreign language. Structure, coherence and thematic organization of speech. According to the above definitions, the communicative approach is based on the idea that learning a language successfully comes from communicating a real meaning. When learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn how to use the language. For example, teachers can have their students to practice question forms by asking them to find out personal information about their classmates. In this way, the students are involved in a meaningful communication.

Decker (2004), Communicative Language Teaching claims that students are in the need of implementing this methodology in order to gain confidence in using English. CLT approach gives low profile to teachers' roles and adds more frequent talking time to students throughout pair work and small group discussions, extended exchanges on high interest topics and the integration of the four skills; namely speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Similarly, Savignon (1972) used the term "communicative competence" to characterize the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to recite dialogs or perform on discrete-point test of grammatical knowledge. The teacher's job then, is to get their students to communicate using real language by providing them with instruction, practice, and above all opportunities to produce English in activities which encourage acquisition and fluency. Therefore, teachers should design activities that involve students' cultural aspects based on their real life situations, to be used inside the classroom in order to help them develop their oral skills. In spite of the positive influence of CLT in

classroom practices to promote students' oral abilities, there are some difficulties that Tsou (2005) states. Factors such as lack of vocabulary, low level of English, lack of contact with the L2 and low motivation to learn the language are hard issues that most language teachers have to face to get their students to respond in language classroom-interactions. In addition, according to Decker (2004) reports abound on the practical difficulties of implementing a communicative approach when teaching English in English-as-a-Foreign language (EFL) settings. These settings are environments in which students have little exposure to English outside the classroom. The same situation is faced by our students who do not have or do not look for chances of practicing their English knowledge in a context different from school, which interferes with the expected results of the communicative approach implementation. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a cover term for a number of approaches that developed in the 1970s in critical reaction to audio-lingual teaching methods and their unsatisfactory results. They all criticize the mechanistic nature of audio-lingual pattern drills which fail to prepare learners for a productive use of the target language in the many different communicative situations of everyday life. The common goal of communicative approaches is communicative competence (Power, 2003).

A number of reports in the literature deal with CLT innovations in EFL contexts. Many have proposed that most EFL teachers have found it challenging to use CLT. For instance, Burnaby and Sun (1989) reported that teachers in China found it difficult to deploy CLT. The constraints cited include the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class size and schedules, resources and equipment, the low status of teachers who teach communicative rather than analytical skills and English teachers deficiencies in oral English and sociolinguistic and strategic competence.

In the year 2003 Iranian pre-university English course underwent a reform. The principal goal was to propose a shift away from the long-established grammar-translation curriculum practice towards teaching for communicative competence. The stated goal was to make pre-university English language instruction more communicative. The major justification was that English should be used communicatively by the learners preparing themselves for university entrance and not just learned about.

## **2-1-2The CLT Characteristics**

From the above review of the CLT literature, we can draw upon some of the CLT major features. They are greatly different from those of the grammar translation method, so different that it has been a reaction away from traditional method and initiated the communicative era in the TEFL history.

(1) The CLT sets the communicative competence as its desired goal because it views language as tool for communication. It holds that language should be learned through use and through communication. Based on this notion, the teacher usually creates real life situations in classes and has students to play roles, simulations true-to-life interactions, and other communicative activities in order to learn to use language appropriately in different types of situations, to use language to perform different kinds of tasks and to use language for social interaction with other people. Thus, language can be learned as it is actually used in real communication. This communicative feature fundamentally differs from that of the traditional method, thus making anew history in the modern foreign language teaching. In contrast, the grammar translation method sets the linguistic competence as its desired goal, which goes away from the essence of language as a tool for communication. It stresses only language structures, sounds or words, thus separating language from use, situation and role.

(2) The CLT insists that interactional speaking activities used in the classroom. Be instances of real communication, based on a genuine information gap. Communication takes place when the receiver doesn't already know the information in the sender's message. In other words, there is an information gap, which is filled by the message. In classrooms, the gap exists when a teacher/ student in an exchange knows something that the other student does not. If students know today is Monday and the teacher asks, "What day is today?" and they answer, "Monday, then the exchange is not really communicative. Consequently, the CLT is violently opposed to such exchanges. It argues that the activities without information gap are mechanical and artificial and even harmful because they will lead students away from the use of the language for communicative purposes. Therefore, in classrooms, no matter how simple a sentence is, the teacher must be aware of its possibility for communication.

(3) The CLT stresses two-way communication. When communicating in real life, we do not say to ourselves, nor monologize as in a drama play, but always exchange the information with others. Therefore in classes, the teacher usually brings students' initiative into full play, limits his talking time and prevents the cramming method in order to let them practice more. Thus students will become active agents communicating throughout the classes rather than passive recipients. This is also a critical difference from the traditional "one-way" teaching the teacher repeats what the book says while students take notes quietly. For example, in China students are constantly told from children to sit quietly and listen to the teacher, and not to stand up and speak out unless called upon.

(4) The CLT ensures that students have sufficient exposure to the target language. This exposure provides many opportunities for language acquisition to occur. Students are encouraged to create and internalize language; they are not asked to learn by memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary. Therefore students' communicative competence can be developed as they try to deal with a variety of language situations. However, in traditional classrooms, the teacher uses the native language to conduct lessons, thus preventing students from acquisition of the target language. Finally, the CLT embraces all four skills. By integrating listening, speaking, reading and writing, students can not only develop these skills but also constantly combine them in use as people use them in real life situations. In contrast, method emphasizes reading in isolation and treats listening, speaking, reading and writing as separate subjects, as a result of training students to become what we call "deaf-mutes of English". Since the CLT stresses language use, many teachers think, and we admit, that it may overlook language usage teaching. So they raise the questions like: "Does it require existing grammar-based syllabus to be abandoned or merely revised". This may be the case because we agree that linguistic competence is a part and a solid foundation of communicative competence. This disadvantage will inevitably lead to the further negative effect: it encourages some grammatical inaccuracies. Language is like an ocean consisting of, so to speak, so many syntactic and lexical details as well as so many functional and notional possibilities that obviously no student is able to cover them all in his or her study. This is especially true of the students trained under the CLT, since they are bound to sentences' particular functions. Thus, they are sometimes unavoidably required to express what they have never come across in their study. In this case, they are forced to create something of their own. As they lack the knowledge of grammar, they are likely to make grammatically incorrect sentences. Therefore, the CLT encourages some grammarian accuracy.



However, this problem can be solved by adding language-knowledge teaching into the communicative teaching practice. Because "there is no single text or authority on communicative language teaching, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" (Gautom,1988: 82), because its theoretical base is " somewhat eclectic"(Richards and Rodgers,1986:71),and because it is only an " approach" within which there can be many different methods, we can use it as an eclectic method, collecting many advantages from other methods, including (retaining)the techniques from the grammar translation method to teach language knowledge. Thus, both linguistic and communicative competences can be fully developed. Although the CLT has some unsolved problems, it has far more advantages over disadvantages and can serve China if the problem is solved satisfactorily. It has been employed in recent years by EFL teachers in widely diverse settings in the world. By applying it into our classrooms we can catch up with the rapid development in the study and application of CLT to TEFL in many foreign countries in recent years.

### **2-1-3 Problem Sources**

#### **2-1-3-1EFL Learners Have Low Intrinsic Motivation to Communicate in Foreign Language**

Since the emergence of CLT the only group of people having difficulty using it are not the teachers. Students are also to be taken into account in this case. An important question to ask is: Do EFL students need to speak English and communicate in this language?. In a setting where English is a foreign language, students usually learn with low intrinsic motivation; English may be deemed irrelevant with students' needs because the language is not part of their everyday life. On the other hand, in a setting where English is a second language, students have high intrinsic motivation because the language is a part of everyday life. By living in a second language environment, students have a higher chance to use the language whether to communicate with others

or for professional needs, as in searching for a job (Adi, 2012). Without an English-speaking environment, motivation becomes more a product of curricular demands, pressure from exams, and academic and professional success, instead of demand for communication. As Widdowson (1998) perceived, the English language teaching that takes communicative competence as the invariable goal doesn't fit in the EFL contexts where learners' engagement in social interaction with native English speakers is minimal (Wei, 2011). Stern (1992) argued that one of the most difficult problems in making classroom learning communicative is the absence of native speakers. Apparently, CLT are more successful in English as a Second Language (ESL) context because students have the motivation to work on oral English because they need it in their lives. In contrast, in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, due to some physical limitations, such as the purpose of learning English, learning environments, teachers' English proficiency, and the availability of authentic English materials, CLT meets much more difficulties during its application.

Sano and Harmer (2001) for instance, point out that the Japanese students they studied generally did not feel pressing need to use English, therefore the goal of communicative competence seemed too distant for them. Unlike ESL learners who need to use the TL in everyday life for surviving in the target culture, EFL learners generally do not have adequate access to the TL outside of the classrooms and normally return to the real world speaking their mother tongue as soon as they leave the classroom (Campbell, 2004).

Without a clearly established need or goal, students without a specific personal interest in speaking English will lack motivation. While there are long-range needs for the students--from abstract ones such as the broadening of one's social perspective and more concrete ones such as English for business purposes--students are not likely to be

conscious of these needs, especially with the more pressing need of passing entrance exams (Poza, n.d.), and when this need evaporates after entering university, so will the motivation to maintain the skill and to expand upon it.

### **2- 1- 3-2CLT Teaching Method is not Compatible with University Entrance Exam**

The impact of a test on teaching and learning is commonly referred to as the washback effect. The structure of University Entrance Exam (UEE) plays a very significant role in determining the teaching methodology and materials used in EFL contexts. EFL teachers are under the pressure of UEE to change the way they teach in the classroom.

For instance, as stated by Ghanbari and Ketabi (2011) the structure of University Entrance Exam (UEE) in Iran that values grammatical learning above language knowledge and communication negatively affects the CLT English course. In fact, UEE has a determining role in the whole program. The most important thing in high school education is to help students pass the University Entrance Exam. So, the teachers are obliged to emphasize grammatical and reading skills, rather than communication. They teach most of the textbooks according to GTM; moreover, they pay more attention to those components of lessons like vocabulary and grammar, which are tested in UEE not other connected parts. UEE has also its influence on the students. Students study English just to pass the Exam. It really dictates learners what to seek for in the text-book and what to expect their teachers

Entrance exams, via their power to determine the course of students' lives, have become the focal point of education in many EFL contexts. Since one's career is often determined by which university one attended, and since the university one attends is determined by these exams, students and their teachers mainly attend to the vagaries of the tests, focusing their energies on answering the questions as they are expected to be answered. Since the majority of these exams focus on assessing aspects other than

communicative ability, they would negatively affect the CLT methodology, no matter how hard the teacher may try to apply CLT principles (Poza, n.d.).

### **2-1- 3- 3 CLT Lacks Clear Cut Assessment Procedures**

Assessment is considered as one of the major challenges of communicative language teaching. Norris and Ortega (2000) distinguished four types of measurement: Metalinguistic judgment (e.g., a grammaticality judgment test) Selected response (e.g., multiple choice) Constrained constructed response (e.g., gap-filling exercises) Free constructed response (e.g., a communicative task) Free constructed responses are best elicited by means of tasks. Task-based performance can be assessed either by means of a direct assessment of task outcomes or by external ratings. The former is possible only with tasks that have a single correct outcome. An example would be a spot-the-difference task, where learners are asked to interact in order to find a specified number of differences in two similar pictures. In this task, assessment would consist of establishing whether the learners were able to identify the differences. External ratings involve assessing different qualities of a task performance such as accuracy, complexity, and fluency. Considerable expertise is required to ensure that the ratings are valid and reliable. However, a great number of EFL teachers do not have such a skill, so they prefer to adhere to the traditional methods with their standardized, objective tests that mainly measure learners' knowledge about language (Ellis, 2008). One other major difficulty is the fact that most of our standard tests emphasize the objectivity nature of our scoring and evaluation procedures, something that does not seem to be very reasonable in CLT (Kalanzadeh and Bakhtiarvand, 2011). Evaluating oral skills would also require one-to-one interviews, calling for a great deal more time and manpower and increased difficulty in evaluation consistency. Performance anxiety might also increase relative to written exams, especially if foreign examiners are used.

## **2-1 -3-4 CLT is not Always Compatible with EFL Home Culture and Values**

One of the implementation problems of CLT is that the approach is not always appropriate with the socio cultural context in which it is used. Culture is often considered as a barrier in creating a communicative form of English learning in EFL contexts. Rogers and Everett (1971) claim that an innovative method has a far better chance of being accepted if it can be seen to be compatible with existing values and practices (Lamie, 2004). In adopting CLT in foreign language learning, teachers and policy makers are likely to accept implicitly and subconsciously certain assumptions concerning their pedagogical roles and goals as cultural guides (Talebinezhad&Aliakbari, 2001). The hidden but inescapable assumption is that meaningful language use is culture bound and culture specific.

In the EFL setting, the home culture and the EFL classroom/textbook cultures are very often at odds, and the values and teaching methods presented in class are alien and therefore often unappreciated. The culture in many EFL contexts (collectivist societies) is one that has a long tradition of unconditional obedience to authority. The teacher is seen not as a facilitator but as a fount of knowledge, which is delivered without any concession to students and which students „struggle to attain“ (Holliday, 1994). In such cultures, the centrality of the teacher is the culturally and socially sanctioned basis of teaching (Edge, 1996).

The teacher is the authoritarian purveyor of knowledge, one to lead and to draw matters to a correct conclusion. An authoritarian, cold and unproductive classroom climate to a westerner may not be perceived that way by the participants of a collectivist society. There, hierarchy determines the nature of teacher–student interaction, which is facilitated by mutual respect. First names and physical proximity can make things uncomfortable and unfamiliar. The world outside and the classroom may be paradoxically at odds (Chowdhury, 2010). Biggs (1997) refers to „the inside/outside rules“ of class participation: „Student talk is “outside” (inappropriate) when inside the classroom, but “inside” when outside the classroom“. This type of primarily didactic, product-oriented and teacher-centered (Liu, 1998; Zhenhui, 2000) tradition is incompatible with CLT methodology. Liao (2004) adds that the Asian cultural context assumes the teacher as the central figure that must be honored and that students must passively listen to the teacher. This general Asian culture prevents genuine communication from happening in class, making it a hindrance in the application of CLT. The formal relationship between teacher and student where the teacher is assumed to be a superior, omniscient figure while the students are a group of individuals who must obey and receive the teacher’s explanations as they are clearly will not create a communicative learning environment. The high-considerateness nature of Asian communicative patterns where students are not encouraged to interrupt, must respond positively, and speak in a flat intonation, also make it less likely for communicative interactions to occur in language learning.

Learners of different cultures also have different learning styles. These learning styles can influence the successful implementation of communicative language teaching either positively or negatively. For instance, Zhenhui (2001) in *Matching Teaching*

*Styles with Learning Styles in East Asian Contexts* states that in East Asia, most students see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners.

Cultural constraints inhibit the communicative competence of these students and limit the choices they could make elsewhere. It appears from the above discussion that the problem lay not so much with the competence of students as with the overall cultural orientation to the academic atmosphere. The students want the teacher to be an information provider and if you are not one, it is sometimes taken as if you don't know much, and that's a part of our culture. It all comes down from the family image because even at home there is someone who is really the head of the family and it is this concept that has also come down to the classroom and the students see the teacher as their guardian, one who would truly guard them and give them all their answers to their questions and queries (*Chowdhury, 2010*).

### **2-1-3-5 There are not Enough Teacher Training Courses to Promote Awareness of Teachers**

Teachers have a constructive role in the development of better curricula. The precondition for this effective participation is to have dynamic teacher training courses which would help teachers learn the „how“ of change in progress. Awareness raising is an important issue in any process of change or innovation. Teacher training courses have an important role in creating situations to facilitate reflection and contemplation for the teachers as important agents of change (Lamie, 2004). Teachers in many EFL classes are typically not required to have any special TESOL certification or training in linguistics. In-service teacher training courses along with conferences, workshops and seminars can be quite effective in promoting the awareness of teachers. Through involving teachers in teaching practice activities, they could learn the realities directly

from the context. The literature of change theory abounds with the assumption that change is a painful process (Fullan, 1991; Pinar, 1999). The resentment and resistance that teachers feel towards external attempts to impose change (Goh, 1999) must be compounded when no discussion or collaboration takes place (Fullan, 1991; Hadley, 1999). Easen (1985, p.71) comments that imposed change itself will not be successful, unless the process of personal change is also considered. Even those teachers who are willing to change, however, must be given the support to do so, as Li (2001) suggests and Carless (1999, p.23) confirms: „Without sufficient retraining, even teachers initially enthusiastic about an innovation can become frustrated by problems in implementation and eventually turn against the project“. Teachers, who have been professionals in the traditional methodology of Grammar-translation, may be suddenly faced with the communicative apparatus and be asked to implement it in their routine classroom activities. Such an abrupt transition dramatically affects their confidence and subsequently leads to the adoption of some conservative attitude in their teaching (Ghanbari and Ketabi, 2011). One problem is that these in-service training courses are few in number in many EFL contexts or the teachers do not have enough opportunity to attend them. Moreover, the theory-transmitting nature of these courses in some EFL contexts prevents teachers to practically experience teaching in the new program: In-service training courses bombard the teachers with theories mostly adopted from western status quo knowledge of the practice. They do not come down to the realities of the particular EFL context. Therefore, it demands the change initiators to mediate the methodologies derived from the western societies and philosophical paradigms according to the realities of the context they aim to create change. Teachers with theories mostly adopted from western status quo knowledge of the practice. They do not come down to the realities of the particular EFL context. Therefore, it demands the change initiators to mediate the methodologies derived from the western societies and



philosophical paradigms according to the realities of the context they aim to create change.

## **2- 1-4-1 Creating the Right Kind of Interaction is A major Issue for Teachers**

The CLT approach attempts to involve learners in more authentic and interactive learning tasks that promote both comprehensible input and learners' language output. Students develop their language proficiency by having opportunities to produce comprehensible output. Classroom activities in which students work together in pairs or small groups to complete some task allow for more student-generated talk (Crandall, 1994; Echevarria, Vogt & Short 2004; Glaudini Rosen & Sasser, 1997; Grabe & Stoller, 1997). However, creating the right kind of interaction for acquisition constitutes a major challenge for teachers. From among the learners who participate in the interaction, only some of them engage in meaning negotiation. The others simply listen. Even when acquirers do talk, they do not often make the kind of adjustments the comprehensible output hypothesis claims are useful in acquiring new forms.

Pica (1988) concluded that instances of comprehensible output were "relatively infrequent" (p. 45). In her study of ten one-hour interactions between low level ESL acquirers and native speakers (teachers), only 87 potential instances of comprehensible output were found, that is, interactions in which the native speaker requested "confirmation, clarification, or repetition of the NNS utterance" (p. 93). These 87 interactions contained only 44 cases in which the non-native speaker modified his or her output (about four per hour), and of these 44, only 13 modifications involved grammatical form, about one per hour. Such situation could be even severe in the case of EFL context where the majority of interactions are limited to learner-learner

interactions. Output and especially comprehensible output is too scarce to make a real contribution to linguistic competence. A problem all output hypotheses have is that output is surprisingly rare (Krashen, 1994). In the case of comprehensible output, the problem is especially severe. Comprehensible output in response to requests for clarification is usually quite infrequent. Moreover, there is additional evidence that "pushing" students to speak is unpleasant for them. When asked what aspects of foreign language classes are the most anxiety-provoking, students put "talking" at the top of the list (Young, 1990). Laughrin-Sacco (1992) reported that for students in beginning French classes, "for nearly every student speaking was the highest anxiety-causing activity" (p. 314). Although all aspects of using and learning a foreign language can cause anxiety, listening and speaking are regularly cited as the most anxiety provoking of foreign language activities (Horwitz; Horwitz ; Cope, 1986 ; MacIntyre, Gardner, 1994).

## **2- 1- 4 -2Setting Learner for More Natural, Real Needs**

Many EFL learners have the need to pass university entrance examinations, but this is a poor need to focus one's education on. It is artificial and temporary. So, it is better to help learners set more natural, real needs. As established earlier, many students will have to use English in their future careers. To make this fact more immediate and real to the students, perhaps the teaching materials should be changed to reflect these specific needs. Data could be gathered from real people who use English in their careers, and integrated into lesson plans in addition to travel, correspondence and other potential uses already recognized. Perhaps students themselves could be asked to consider what other possible uses they would have for language, and lessons could be shaped around their perceived needs (Poza, n.d.). Usually conducting a need analysis is the common practice for setting goals to identify what students' needs, wants and expectations are.

### **2-1- 5 -3 Giving Teachers the Opportunity to Attend Regular Training**

English EFL teachers presently employed should be given the opportunity to improve their skills. In order for these teachers to make progress, they must be given what they need to make it work. Schools will have to make serious commitments toward giving teachers the time and opportunity to attend training regularly, and, if possible, sabbaticals to study abroad. In-service teacher training courses along with conferences, and workshops can greatly help EFL teachers to deal with the innovation and change of methodology. The educational system should also provide the teachers with enough opportunity to attend these in-service training courses because the majority of teachers do not attend such courses due to the lack of enough time. Moreover, teachers with greater English speaking skills and TESOL qualifications should be given priority in new hiring.

### **2 -1-5-4Developing Teaching Methodto Appropriate the Local EFL Context**

The majority of EFL teachers are faced with the problems and contradictions when adopting CLT as it is a methodology mainly developed for western countries. Despite its initial claim to be appropriate an approach for EFL situation, CLT seems to be more suitable for ESL situations (Ellis, 1994, 1996; Shamin, 1996; Valdes & Jhones, 1991). To indicate this fact Edge (1996:18) points out that it seems necessary that rather than relying on expertise, methodology, and materials controlled and dispensed by Western ESL countries, EFL countries should strive to establish their own research contingents and encourage method specialists and classroom teachers to develop language teaching methods that take into account the political, economic, social, and cultural factors' and most important of all, the EFL situations in their countries. They should also devise

teaching methods, appropriate to their learners, their colleagues, and their societies (Kalanzadeh and Bakhtiarvand, 2011).

### **2-1-5-5 Adapting CLT to the Realities of the EFL Context**

EFL teachers who adopt CLT can justify their teaching to learners and the specific learning situation they are faced with. CLT cannot be seen as a panacea for the problems that have been. There isn't a fix framework of CLT. As learners and the learning contexts are dynamic, when CLT is applied to a certain context, the adaptation and innovation of it is necessary (Blake, 2000). Li (1998) emphasizes the flexibility that CLT offers-contrary to popular misconception, he suggests, CLT is not defined and practiced within cautious perimeters. He recommends that EFL countries should adapt rather than adopt westernized forms of CLT, meeting the immediate needs and recognizing the local constraints.

### **2-2 Some Definitions of Pragmatics as A science**

Numerous definitions of pragmatics, and one of interest in second language pedagogy has been proposed by Crystal (in Kasper, 2001, p. 2) as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.” In other words, pragmatics is defined as the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context. Kasper (2001, p.2) indicates that communicative actions includes not only using speech acts (such as apologizing, complaining, complimenting, and requesting) but also engaging in different types of discourse and participating in speech events of varying length and complexity. Leech and Thomas (in Kasper, 2001) divided pragmatics into two components, namely Pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic. Pragmalinguistic refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational on interpersonal

meanings. Such resources include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and other range of linguistic forms which can soften or intensify communicative acts. An example is given by Kasper in which two forms of apology are proposed as in *Sorry* and *I'm absolutely devastated- couz\ld you possibly find it in your heart to forgive me?* Both utterances are expressions of an apology, but definitely are uttered in different contexts. Here the speaker uttering the latter apology has chosen some pragmalinguistic resource of apologizing. Sociopragmatic has been described by Leech (1990, p. 10) as the sociological interface of pragmatics, referring to the social perceptions underlying participant's interpretation and performance of communicative action. Speech communities differ in their assessment of speaker's and hearer's social distance and social power, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in particular communicative acts (Holmes, 2001). Sociopragmatic is about proper social behavior. Learners must be made aware of the consequences of making pragmatic choices.

Pragmatics is a relatively young linguistic discipline – compared to, for example, phonetics and syntax – which began to establish itself as an independent area of linguistic research only about 40 years ago. Linguistic pragmatics has its foundation in language philosophy and developed as a result of ideas concerning the functions and use of language by philosophers such as Wittgenstein (1953: in Bach, 2004), Austin (1962), Searle (1969, 1975, 1976) and Grice (1968, 1975). The term *pragmatics* itself goes back to another philosopher, Peirce (1905), and his work on pragmatism. Morris (1938), who defined pragmatics as ‘the study of the relation of signs to interpreters’ (p. 6). It has to be noted, however, that his definition was based on a semiotic<sup>2</sup> view the cornerstones of pragmatics theory, Pragmatics is the way we convey the meaning through the communication. The meaning includes verbal and non verbal elements and

it varies according to the context, to the relationship between utterers, also to many other social factors. Its dynamic growth makes English an international language that connects people all around the world.

According to Leech (1974), Charles Morris introduced the first modern definition of pragmatics, and since then many other specialists have continued to conceptualize this branch of linguistics. Morris originally defined pragmatics as "...the discipline that studies the relations of signs to interpreters, while semantics studies the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable" (as cited in Leech, 1974, p. 172). Kasper (1993) defined the term as "the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context" (p. 3). Here, there are included the words action and context, two crucial elements of speech acts in language. Kasper used the term linguistic action which defines the capacity of the learner to produce an utterance. He also put emphasis on comprehension as well as production, a distinction that is particularly relevant for second language learners' daily lives. Crystal (1985: 240) defined pragmatics as:

... 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.

This definition analyzes pragmatics from the perspective of the users. It takes into account the different choices that speakers are able to make when using the target language, depending on the social interaction of their communication. The notion of choice leads to another aspect into consideration useful to language learners, namely, developing the ability to make the right choices among a variety of pragmatic elements. Crystal considered pragmatics as the study of the communicative action in its sociocultural context. Thus, it can be said that individuals have some sort of pragmatic

competence which allows them to use language in different and concrete situations, in varying contexts. Therefore, pragmatic competence is mainly studied at the social level within the limits of speech acts and social acts, interactions or at the interactional level.

## **2- 3 Various Definitions of Pragmatic Competence**

Thomas defines pragmatic competence as “the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand in context” (Thomas, 1983: 94), and she and Levinson distinguish between Pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic competence. Pragmalinguistic competence refers to the use of appropriate language to accomplish a speech act, whereas sociolinguistic competence refers to the appropriateness of a speech act in a particular context.

According to Bachman (1990), language competence could be fall into organizational competence and pragmatic competence. The former consists of grammatical competence and textual competence, and the later is of illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Illocutionary competence refers to the ability to understand the communicative behavior and know how to accomplish some communicative purpose; sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use the language tactfully Inspecific social context.

Leech and Jenny Thomas (1983) divide pragmatics into Pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistics. The former refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. The later is described as “the sociological interface of pragmatics”, referring to the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of communicative action. Liu Shaozhong proposes that

pragmatic competence is “language user’s ability to recognize what context he or she is in and what the speaker explicitly and implicitly means and to convey his or her intention accurately” (Liu Shaozhong 1997: 26). He Ziran (1997) puts forward that pragmatic competence can be explained as the ability to use language appropriately in practical communicating situation, which focuses on the ability to produce proper and appropriate sentences and therefore to interpret the speaker’s utterances according to different speech contexts.

Chomsky (1965) distinguished between the notions of *competence* and *performance*. In his definition, *competence* is the intuitive knowledge of rules of grammar and syntax and of how the linguistic system of a language operates, and *performance* is the individual’s ability to produce language. As a reaction to Chomsky’s somewhat limited definition of competence, Hymes (1972) proposed communicative competence, which is the knowledge and ability that an individual possesses to use and interpret language appropriately in the process of interaction and in relation to social context. Possessing grammatical knowledge alone does not result in successful communication; the knowledge of how to use the forms of the language (i.e. grammar) in a way that is appropriate to the situation or context in the speech community is also important. In Hymes’s much quoted formulation, it is a competence: “when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner”

(Hymes, 1972, p. 277). Similarly, Saville-Troike (1982) defines communicative competence this way:

Knowing not only the language code, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. It deals with the social and cultural



knowledge speakers are presumed to have to enable them to use and interpret linguistic forms. (p:22)

Gumperz (1982) describes communicative competence in interactional terms as the knowledge of linguistic-related communicative conventions that a speaker must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation. Both Hymes's and Gumperz's formulations of communicative competence recognize grammar and linguistic knowledge as a resource to perform communicative functions in light of appropriateness in context. Through the pragmatics of language use, one could better understand how language is used with its structures and how it is interpreted within a given context.

Bachman (1990 p. 89-90) indicates that pragmatic competence is concerned with the relationship between utterances and the functions that speakers intend to perform through these utterances (illocutionary force) and the characteristics of the context of language use that determine the appropriateness of utterances. Leech (1983) claims that: we can really begin to understand the nature of language only if we understand pragmatics, the study of language used in communication. That is, pragmatic competence entails a variety of abilities to use language for different purposes.

The concepts of sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence are used interchangeably by researchers because both concepts make reference to the appropriate use of language depending on contextual factors. Bachman's (1990) model of the components of communicative language ability offers a clear version of pragmatic competence by broadening its definition to include both illocutionary competence (i.e., the ability to express and understand the illocutionary force of

language functions) and sociolinguistic competence (i.e., the sensitivity to or the control of the appropriate conventions of language use according to the sociocultural and discursual features of the language). More specifically, Cohen (1996) proposes two distinct levels of abilities required for acquisition of pragmatic competence: (a) sociocultural ability to determine which speech act is appropriate given the culture involved, the situation, the speakers' background variables and relationship; and (b) sociolinguistic ability to choose the actual language forms for realizing the speech act (e.g., *sorry* vs. *excuse me*; *thanks* vs. *I appreciate it*). Similarly, when talking about pragmatic competence, Thomas (1983) makes a distinction between pragmalinguistic knowledge, which refers to the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, and sociopragmatic knowledge, which refers to the perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior.

Therefore, pragmatic competence consists of pragmalinguistic competence, which refers to the knowledge of appropriate forms of language, and communicative strategies that affect the intended pragmatic force, and sociocultural competence, which refers to assessment of contextual factors in light of the appropriate schemata of speech events and language behavior in a given culture.

The most frequently researched pragmatic competence in second language acquisition (SLA) is the ability to use speech acts appropriately. These studies provide a lens to define illocutionary acts and to know the appropriate contexts for using a given strategy. Different cultures may have different means and expressions for communicative intentions; thus, learners have to figure out what constitutes

appropriate speech act behavior in terms of principles of politeness, use of native-like routines, and knowledge of the target social structure and values.

Every culture and language system has conventional ways of structuring words and sentences. Hymes (1972) states that for any speech community, there are preferred ways of formulating and expressing certain ideas that involve a familiarity with the language conventions shared by the members of the speech community. Coulmas (1981) refers to the conventionalized forms as routine formulae. That is, the occurrences of highly conventionalized pre-patterned expressions are closely associated with communicative situations. Routine formulae are a part of speakers' pragmalinguistic knowledge because they have specific illocutionary discourse organization and politeness functions associated with them. They are also a part of speakers' sociopragmatic knowledge in that their use is governed by contextual factors of the speech situations. As Coulmas (1979) puts it:

Only knowledge of the relevant dimension of social situations and their relative weight guarantees an understanding of the meaning of formulas which are tied to them. The ability to identify and differentiate standard communicative situations and their proper association with routinized linguistic means for their mastery, thus constitutes an essential part of common sense knowledge of social situations. (p. 242)

Coulmas (1981) further indicates that routine formulae are a serious problem for non-native speakers, and this has been supported by almost all interlanguage pragmatic studies (e.g., Eisenstein and Bodman 1986; House 1988). The study of the form and structure of language use is inseparable from the study of pragmatic competence because it is through the various linguistic codes that one displays one's pragmatic *competence*. Therefore, more focus should be addressed in the pragmatic

nature of the use and function of routine formulae in communicative language learning contexts.

## **2 – 3 – 1 Major Studies on Pragmatic Competence**

Many linguists have used the term *competence* in different contexts to refer to different types of Knowledge. The term competence however was originally set out by the father of linguistics Noam Chomsky. In his book 'Aspects of the Theory of Syntax', he defines competence as:

“Linguistic theory is primarily concerned with an ideal speaker-listener. In completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.”  
(Chomsky 1965:30)

Later, Chomsky put the distinction between competence (the speaker's or hearer's knowledge of languages) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations). This study put forward the distinction between the knowledge on one hand and the use of this knowledge on the other. However Chomsky did not explain whether this knowledge includes the idea of 'ability'. It seems that Chomsky equated 'competence' with 'knowledge', but he did not present a clear distinction between 'knowledge' and 'the ability to use this knowledge' for communicative purposes.

Language learning came to be seen as a social and cognitive process. As Richards (2001) concludes, Second Language acquisition theory today remains influenced by

Chomsky's view of linguistic competence and universal grammar, as well as Vygotsky's view scaffolding process which focuses on the gap between what the learner can do and the next stage in learning which occurs through negotiation.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence as a consistence of four aspects: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. According to Canale (1983), grammatical competence refers to mastering the linguistic code of the language that is being learnt; sociolinguistic competence means knowing the sociocultural rules of the use of the second language; discourse competence refers to the ability to select and arrange lexical items and syntactic structures in order to achieve well-formed texts; strategic competence refers to the ability to command verbal and non-verbal devices in order to compensate insufficient mastery or to enhance communication.

Bachman (1990) suggested that language knowledge includes two types of knowledge that a second language learner must internalize:

- a) Organizational knowledge that knows how to control the formal structure of a second language so as to produce correct sentences and organize these in texts. It subsumes grammatical and textual knowledge.
- b) Pragmatic knowledge, which involves knowing how words and utterances can be assigned specific meanings in context and function according to the user's intentions. This knowledge is also structured in lexical knowledge, functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge. The above concepts of communicative competence have one thing in their central that is Pragmatics.

An influential quotation of Chomsky is that:

“linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatical irrelevant conditions as many limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance” (Chomsky, 1965).

Here, Chomsky’s ‘knowledge’ refers to the grammatical knowledge, for Chomsky believes that the competence of a speaker should allow him to produce and understand the infinitely large set of sentences and utterances. And the so-called ‘homogeneous speech community’ doesn’t exist in real world.

In 1970, Campbell and Wales put forward that Chomsky’s concept of competence should be extended from solely grammatical competence to include a more general communicative ability. An English learner acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate to the communicating context. According to Hymes’ opinion, linguistic competence includes language knowledge and grammatical skills or techniques (Hymes, 1972). Grammar knowledge is part of communicative competence. He puts forth the concept of communicative competence, which is composed of four parameters:

- 1). Whether (and to what extent) something is formally possible;
- 2). whether (and to what extent) something is feasible;
- 3). whether (and to what extent) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

4). Whether (and to what extent) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what is doing entails. (1971: 12) And also, Hymes believes that speech act consists of eight elements: SPEAKING. S stands for setting and scene; P for participants; E for ends; A for acts sequence; K for key; I for instrumentalities; N for norms and G for genres. Hymes' communicative competence not only includes Chomsky's "knowledge" but also the "skills" to use the language; not only a variety of rules in language system, but rules in language use. Communicative competence has been the central paradigm in second language teaching since the early 1980s. After a systematic study of communicative competence, Canale and Swain sum up its four components: the grammatical competence, the sociolinguistic competence, the strategic competence and the discourse competence. Widdowson (1978) holds that grammatical ability can be regarded as the equivalents of Chomsky's "linguistic competence" while the other three parameters embody the appropriateness of language use in specific contexts; they are what the "pragmatic competence" concerns. Therefore, they are thought of as "pragmatic competence". In other words, communicative competence is equal to grammatical competence plus pragmatic competence. Their relations can be expressed by illustration: Communicative Competence, Grammatical competence, Pragmatic competence (i.e. linguistic competence), (sociolinguistic competence), (discourse competence) (strategic competence).

### **2-3-2 Studies Focusing on Speech Acts**

I will review two studies that address more general issues: L2 learners' ability to understand conversational implicatures (Bouton, 1988) and English learners' awareness of pragmatic norms and perception of politeness in their L2 (Hinkel, 1996). The aim of Bouton's study was to examine whether the cultural and L1 backgrounds of learners of English would affect their ability to understand the implied meaning of an utterance in English. The ESL learners in his investigation, who had just commenced their study at an American university, represented six different groups (Germans, Japanese, Koreans, Mainland Chinese, Spanish/Portuguese, Taiwan Chinese). The instrument used in this study was a multiple choice questionnaire containing detailed descriptions of particular scenarios. Each scenario violated one of Grice's maxims (e.g. Joan: 'Do you have a lot of relatives?' Fran: 'Does a dog have fleas?' 1988, p. 91) and was followed by four possible interpretations of the utterance, one literal, two distracters and the correct meaning. Bouton's findings showed that the results of all learner groups differed significantly from those of the American English native speakers. Thus, all of the L2 learners encountered difficulties when interpreting implied meaning. Interestingly, the statistical analysis also revealed significant differences between the learner groups, which indicates that L2 learners of different language backgrounds may experience difficulties in interpreting utterances in varying degrees.

In a study that focused on requests and apologies, Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) administered a pragmatic judgment test to native speakers and three groups of learners of Hebrew in Israel who varied according to their length of residence in the target environment. Although Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's study is not strictly cross-sectional, since, for instance, the amount of time spent in Israel differed from two to 10 years for



members of group 2, whereas members of group 1 and 3 had spent less than 2 years and more than 10 years, respectively, in the target context, their findings provide some interesting insights into the temporal effect of a sojourn in the L2 context on learners' pragmatic awareness. The instrument used contained eight scenarios, which were followed by six possible apologies or requests that could be made by the speaker. The participants were asked to assess the appropriateness of the six utterance options by rating them as 'appropriate', 'more or less appropriate', or 'not appropriate in the particular context'.

The results revealed that the ratings of those learners who had lived in Israel for more than 10 years were similar to those of the native speakers, whereas there were significant differences between the scores of native speakers and learners who had spent less than two years in the L2 context. For example, learners who had spent more than 10 years in the target environment tended to accept more direct strategies, which were similar to the native-speaker participants, whereas learners with less than two years experience tended to reject those strategies. Based on their findings, Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) noted that 'changes over time of non natives' response patterns reflect a process of approximation of target language norms' (1985, p. 321).

Focusing on a variety of pragmatic norms, Hinkel (1996) employed a questionnaire to examine L2 learners' awareness of politeness and appropriateness in their L2 host country. Her ESL learners were enrolled at an American university and spoke five different native languages: Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean. Participants in this study were asked to rate a number of statements included in the questionnaire, such as 'In the US, when you need information, it is more appropriate to

say “Tell me . . .” than “Could you/ Would you tell me . . .”.’ (1996, p. 57). Hinkel found that, although the individual L1 group scores for the questionnaire items tended to vary somewhat, her ESL learners generally were aware of the pragmatic norms of the L2. She suggests that a possible reason for this result could be a combination of language learners’ motivation to succeed in their L2 at a foreign university and their exposure to the target language in the L2 context.

The impact of exposure to the second language in the host environment could also explain why Bouton’s learners experienced difficulties when interpreting implied meaning. While Hinkel’s (1996) learners had lived in the United States for more than 2 years on average, Bouton’s learner participants had only recently moved to their host country. It could also be argued that identifying implied meaning based on the more abstract examples in Bouton’s multiple choice tasks is inherently more difficult than deciding whether it is necessary to apologize to a teacher after missing their class.

The review of studies comparing L2 learners’ and native speakers’ pragmatic awareness has shown that while some studies reported significant differences between learners and native speakers (Bouton, 1988; Hinkel, 1997), others did not (Carrell&Konneker, 1981; Tanaka &Kawade, 1982; Kitao, 1990; Hinkel, 1996). Possible reasons for these different findings may be task difficulty, differences in learners’ proficiency levels and/or amount of exposure to the L2 in the target environment.

### **2-3-3 Types of Competences in the Process of Language Teaching**

As it was mentioned above, communicative approach and the term competence brought into discussion different aspects of the communicative competence; all these aspects are interwoven and they can be included in a broader term, pragmatic competence. As it was stated above pragmatics is defined as a science which studies and considers simultaneously the utterance and the utterer, the action and the intention. In order to understand better the development of pragmatic competence in language teaching, the competence types can be briefly analyzed as the following, based on various linguists 'points of view.

#### **1-3-3-1 Sociolinguistic Competence**

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to interpret the social meaning of a linguistic item and to decide and use language in an appropriate social meaning for communicative purposes. As Savignon (1983:37) mentions, "Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of socio-cultural rules of discourse and language. It requires 'an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of interacting'".

As Erton (2007) further explains in his article Applied Pragmatics and Competence Relations in Language Learning and Teaching, the sociolinguistic information which the speakers convey to each other share a pragmatic competence which helps them to interpret and act in different situations by making use of different contextual clues. There are also included components like: 'culture' and 'interaction', which reflect the fundamental concepts of verbal and non-verbal communication.

### **2-3-3-2 Interactional Competence**

Kramsch (1986: 367) in her article *From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence* defines the term 'interaction' as “. . .interaction entails negotiating intended meanings, i.e., adjusting one’s speech to the effect one intends to have on the listener. It entails anticipating the listener’s response and possible misunderstandings, clarifying one’s own and the other intentions and arriving at the closed possible watch between intended, perceived, and anticipated meaning”.

As Erton (2007) concludes, considering this definition, it can be said that interactional competence not only makes the use of structural rules of language, but also runs the psycho-linguistic and socio-linguistic functions of language which help to provide accuracy and clarify to the mutual comprehension of the speech acts covered in the course of a conversation. Thus, the so called ‘functional competence’, involves the ability to establish the tie between the question and its equivalence in particular real life situation, recognizing the speaker’s intention by evaluating his/her body language, awareness of the semiotic symbols used, types of social interaction (i.e. introducing, greeting, farewell, etc.), the communicative functions of language, acting accordingly and appropriately.

### **2-3-3-3 Cultural Competence**

Lyons (1990:302) defines the term culture as, “Culture may be described as socially acquired knowledge: i.e. as the knowledge that someone has by virtue of his being a member of a particular society.” Thus, cultural competence can be defined as the ability to understand and use language in a way that would be understood by the members of that culture. According to Le Page (1978:41), “When we come to the central question of ‘competence’ we have to ask: ‘What is it an individual needs to know, in order to operate as a member of this society?’ A society only exists in the competence of its

members to make it work as it does; a language only exists in the competence of those who use and regard themselves as users of that language, and the latter competence is the essential mediating system for the former.”

Here, the term competence is regarded as a living social action which effects social behaviour in order for the latter to be achieved clearly and to avoid misunderstandings.

### **2-3-3-3 Communicative Competence**

H.G. Widdowson (1989:135) described the communicative competence, “. . . communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules for the composition of sentences and being able to employ such rules to assemble expressions from scratch as and when occasion requires. It is much more a matter of knowing .A stock of partially pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and a kit of rules, so to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments are necessary according to contextual demands. Communicative competence in this view is essentially a matter of adaptation, and rules are not generative but regulative and subservient”.

Thus, as Widdowson said, communicative competence is the ability to put language for communicative purposes. The communicative competence considers language as a tool used for communication. This competence focuses on the development of four language skills, and on the correlation between the skills.Canale and Swain (1980) considered the term communicative competence as a mediator which refers to the relationship between grammatical competence (the knowledge of the rules of language) and the sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of the rules of language use)

### **2-3-3-4 Strategic Competence**

Canale and Swain (1980) defined strategic competence as an ability which deals with the knowledge of language and the ability to use this knowledge effectively and appropriate to purpose in order to take an active part in communicative interaction.

As Erton (2007:64) further clarifies, "... the strategic competence is the link that ties 'everything' together. A typical example for this case can be: if you are late to a meeting and if you need to find a good excuse, the white lie that you utter at that time is a product of your strategic competence which reflects criteria of the competence types that the language user has. However, under the title strategic competence the critical and the creative aspects of the human mind can also be considered as well." Thus, under such speaking terms, there is accordance between strategic competence and critical thinking.

Richards (1998:95) says, "Critical reflection refers to an activity or process in which experience is recalled, considered and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to a past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as the basis for the evaluation and the decision-making and as a source for planning and action." "

As Richards mentioned as well, critical thinking is part of an evaluation of language and information, both being based on experience and knowledge. There might be included other factors such as: accuracy, coherence, unity. As such, this process can be considered as a strategy between questions and answers stimulating critical thinking.

### **2-3-3-5 Discourse Competence**

Erton (2007: 64) says:

“... discourse competence deals with the ability to arrange sentences into cohesive structures. In Discourse Analysis, the term discourse competence is studied within the limits of conversational interaction where language is considered a tool for successful communication. Such interactional patterns can be of great variety.”.

As Akmajian (1997:369) exemplifies:

“There are many forms of discourse and many forms of talk exchange. Letters, jokes, stories, lectures, sermons, speeches, and so on are all categories of discourse; arguments, interviews, business dealings, instruction, and conversations are categories of talk exchanges. Conversations (and talk-exchanges in general) are usually structured consequences of expressions by more than a single speaker.”

Therefore, the development of discourse competence helps the language learner to gain insight by experiencing different interactional patterns in varying socio-cultural and physical contexts.

### **2-3-3- 6 Pragmatic Competence**

Pragmatic competence refers to the ability to comprehend, construct, and convey meanings that are both accurate and appropriate for the social and cultural circumstances in which communication occurs. Blackman (cited in Barron, 2003, p. 173) identified pragmatic competence as one element of communicative competence, placing pragmatic competence as part of illocutionary competence, which is a combination of speech acts and speech functions along with the appropriate use of language in context in simple terms, Pragmatics is about culture, communication, and

in the case of second languages, about intercultural communication. In order for second language learners to acquire pragmatic competence, they need to acquire cultural understanding and communication skills.

According to Watzlawick, on Novinger (2001, p.19) “We cannot communicate. All behavior is communication, and we cannot behave.” Every behavior or action can be considered communication, and each of our actions reflect our cultural background including our opinions towards gender, religion, sexual orientation, lifestyle, politics and even personal space.

## **2- 4 Why Teach Pragmatics in Language Classes**

The study of pragmatics explores the ability of language users to match utterances with contexts in which they are appropriate; in Stalnaker’s words, pragmatics is "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed" (1972, p. 383). The teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners’ sense of being able to find socially appropriate language for the situations that they encounter. Within second language studies and teaching, pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use such as choice of address forms.

As Bardovi-Harlig (1996) advocate, teaching pragmatics because quite simply, observation of language learners shows that there is a demonstrated need for it and that instruction in pragmatics can be successful.



Kasper & Schmidt (1996) explain further that learners show significant differences from native speakers in the area of language use, in the execution and comprehension of certain speech acts, in conversational functions such as greetings and leave takings, and in conversational management such as back channeling and short response.

The goal of instruction in pragmatics is not to insist on conformity to a particular, target-language norm but rather to help learners become familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language. With such instruction learners can maintain their own cultural identities (Kondo) and participate more fully in target language communication with more control over both intended force and outcome of their contribution. The first issue is to make language available to learners for observation. Some speech acts, such as invitations, refusals, and apologies often take place between individuals, and so learners might not have the opportunity to observe such language without being directly involved in the conversation.

As Gallow points out, even maintaining a conversation in English requires a certain amount of knowledge underlying responses that prompt a speaker to continue, show understanding, give support, indicate agreement, show strong emotional response, add or correct speaker's information, or ask for more information; Berry also discusses the importance of learning how to take turns, and demonstrates that listening behaviors that are polite in one language, may not be polite (or recognizable) in another.

The second issue is salience. Some necessary features of language and language use are quite subtle in the input and not immediately noticeable by learners; for example the turns that occur before speakers actually say “goodbye” and the noises that we make when encouraging other speakers to continue their turns are of this type. Differences in making requests by asking “Can I” (speaker-oriented) versus “Can you” (hearer-oriented) might not be immediately salient to learners. By highlighting features of language and language use, instruction can inform the learner.

## **2- 5The Role of Pragmatic Competence in the Process of Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language**

We don't learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience.” (Dewey, 1938, p. 13) Dewey makes a simple but powerful point: experience is not the source of learning, but rather it is reflection on this experience. The four skills in language learning; reading writing, listening and speaking do not occur in isolation in communicative texts or activities. In order to shape a good pragmatic competence for the language learner, the following should be taken into consideration .1- The goals and the objectives of a language course should be designed to meet the needs of the language learner to help them develop and improve their communicative competence. Since the primary goal of learning a foreign language is to provide fluency and accuracy in written and spoken modes of communication, first, the language teacher and the learner should pay attention to design communicative activities which would help to develop the summarizes communicative competence. Stern:

(1983:346) ‘competence’ in language teaching as

a) The intuitive mastery of the forms of language

- b) The intuitive mastery of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and sociocultural meanings, expressed by the language forms.
- c) The capacity to use the language with maximum attention to communication and minimum attention to form.
- d) The creativity of language use.

Obviously, the term competence invites both the teacher and the learner to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic skills, in order to achieve complete and accurate communication.

2. The language teacher should design the course material to engage the learners in the pragmatic, coherent and functional uses of language for communicative purposes. As Erton (1997:7) claims: “The functional study of language means, studying how language is used. For instance, trying to find out what the specific purposes that language serves for us, and how the members of a language community achieve and react to these purposes through speaking, reading, writing and listening.”

The pragmatic competence of the learner must be well developed; consequently he or she will be able to conduct communication with accuracy. The development of coherence and the ability to react in different situations show a good level of functional competence. The grammar of the target language should not be taught in isolation with its use. The learner should be able to put his or her knowledge of language into practice.

3. There are a number of activities useful for the development of pragmatic competence. Moreover, they should raise the learners’ awareness of the importance of such competence in the process of acquiring the target language. As Mey (1993:185-6) states, “Linguistic behaviour is social behaviour. People talk because they want to

socialise, in the widest possible sense of the world either for fun, or to express themselves to other humans, or for some 'serious' purposes, such as building a house, closing a deal, solving a problem and so on."

Thus, Mey claims that, language is a tool for human beings to express themselves as social creatures and the language used in that particular context is important in terms of linguistic interaction that takes place. Such a context naturally presupposes the existence of a particular society, with its implicit and explicit values, norms, rules and laws, and with all its particular conditions of life: economic, social, political and cultural admits Mey(1993:186-7)

## **2.6 Speech Acts**

Making a statement may be the paradigmatic use of language, but there are all sorts of other things we can do with words. We can make requests, ask questions, give orders, make promises, give thanks, offer apologies, and so on. Moreover, almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience.

The theory of speech acts is partly taxonomic and partly explanatory. It must systematically classify types of speech acts and the ways in which they can succeed or fail. It must reckon with the fact that the relationship between the words being used and the force of their utterance is often oblique. For example, the sentence 'This is a pig sty' might be used non literally to state that a certain room is messy and filthy and,

further, to demand indirectly that it be straightened out and cleaned up. Even when this sentence is used literally and directly, say to describe a certain area of a barnyard, the content of its utterance is not fully determined by its linguistic meaning--in particular, the meaning of the word 'this' does not determine which area is being referred to. A major task for the theory of speech acts is to account for how speakers can succeed in what they do despite the various ways in which linguistic meaning underdetermines use.

In general, speech acts are acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. For example, a statement expresses a belief, a request expresses a desire, and an apology expresses regret. As an act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience identifies, in accordance with the speaker's intention, the attitude being expressed.

Some speech acts, however, are not primarily acts of communication and have the function not of communicating but of affecting institutional states of affairs. They can do so in either of two ways. Some officially judge something to be the case, and others actually make something the case. Those of the first kind include judges' rulings, referees' calls and assessors' appraisals, and the latter include sentencing, bequeathing and appointing. Acts of both kinds can be performed only in certain ways under certain circumstances by those in certain institutional or social positions.

### 2.5.1. Levels of speech acts

How language represents the world has long been, and still is, a major concern of philosophers of language. Many thinkers, such as Leibniz, Frege, Russell, the early Wittgenstein, and Carnap (q.v.), have thought that understanding the structure of language could illuminate the nature of reality. However noble their concerns, such philosophers have implicitly assumed, as J. L. Austin complains at the beginning of How to Do Things with Words, that 'the business of a [sentence] can only be to "describe" some state of affairs, or to "state some fact", which it must do either truly or falsely'. Austin reminds us that we perform all sorts of 'speech acts' besides making statements, and that there are other ways for them to go wrong or be 'infelicitous' besides not being true. The later Wittgenstein also came to think of language not primarily as a system of representation but as a vehicle for all sorts of social activity. 'Don't ask for the meaning', he admonished, 'ask for the use'. But it was Austin who presented the first systematic account of the use of language. And whereas Wittgenstein could be charged with having conflating meaning and use, Austin was careful to separate the two. He distinguished the meaning (and reference) of the words used from the speech acts performed by the speaker using them.

Austin's attention was first attracted to what he called 'explicit performative utterances', in which one uses sentences like 'I nominate ...', 'You're fired', 'The meeting is adjourned', and 'You are hereby sentenced ...' to perform acts of the very sort named by the verb, such as nominating, firing, adjourning, or sentencing. Austin held that performatives are neither true nor false, unlike what he called 'constatives'. However, he came to realize that constatives work just like performatives. Just as a suggestion or an apology can be made by uttering 'I suggest ...' or 'I apologize ...', so an assertion or a

prediction can be made by uttering 'I assert ...' or 'I predict ...'. Accordingly, the distinction between constative and performative utterances is, in Austin's general theory of speech acts, superseded by that between saying something and what one does in saying it. This broader distinction applies to both statements and other sorts of speech acts, and takes into account the fact that one does not have to say 'I suggest ...' to make a suggestion, 'I apologize ...' to make an apology, or 'I assert' to make an assertion.

The theory of speech acts aims to do justice to the fact that even though words (phrases, sentences) encode information, people do more things with words than convey information and that when people do convey information, they often convey more than their words encode. Although the focus of speech act theory has been on utterances, especially those made in conversational and other face-to-face situations, the phrase 'speech act' should be taken as a generic term for any sort of language use, oral or otherwise. Speech acts, whatever the medium of their performance, fall under the broad category of intentional action, with which they share certain general features. An especially pertinent feature is that when one acts intentionally, generally one has a set of nested intentions. For instance, having arrived home without one's keys, one might push a button with the intention not just of pushing the button but of ringing a bell, arousing one's spouse and, ultimately, getting into one's house. The single bodily movement involved in pushing the button comprises a multiplicity of actions, each corresponding to a different one of the nested intentions. Similarly, speech acts are not just acts of producing certain sounds.

Austin identifies three distinct levels of action beyond the act of utterance itself. He distinguishes the act of saying something, what one does insaying it, and what one does by saying it, and dubs these the 'locutionary', the 'illocutionary' and the 'perlocutionary' act, respectively. Suppose, for example, that a bartender utters the words, 'The bar will be closed in five minutes,' reported by means of direct quotation. He is thereby performing the locutionary act of saying that the bar (i.e., the one he is tending) will be closed in five minutes (from the time of utterance), and what is said is reported by indirect quotation (notice that what the bartender is saying, the content of his locutionary act, is not fully determined by the words he is using, for they do not specify the bar in question or the time of the utterance). In saying this, the bartender is performing the illocutionary act of informing the patrons of the bar's imminent closing and perhaps also the act of urging them to order a last drink. Whereas the upshot of these illocutionary acts understands on the part of the audience, perlocutionary acts are performed with the intention of producing a further effect. The bartender intends to be performing the perlocutionary acts of causing the patrons to believe that the bar is about to close and of getting them to want and to order one last drink. He is performing all these speech acts, at all three levels, just by uttering certain words.

There seems to be a straightforward relationship in this example between the words uttered ('the bar will be closed in five minutes'), what is thereby said, and the act of informing the patrons that the bar will close in five minutes. Less direct is the connection between the utterance and the act of urging the patrons to order one last drink. Clearly there is no linguistic connection here, for the words make no mention of drinks or of ordering. This indirect connection is inferential. The patrons must infer that the bartender intends to be urging them to leave and, indeed, it seems that the reason his utterance counts as an act of that sort is that he is speaking with this



intention. There is a similarly indirect connection when an utterance of 'It's getting cold in here' is made not merely as a statement about the temperature but as a request to close the window or as a proposal to go some place warmer. Whether it is intended (and is taken) as a request or as a proposal depends on contextual information that the speaker relies on the audience to rely on. This is true even when the connection between word and deed is more direct than in the above example, for the form of the sentence uttered may fail to determine just which sort of illocutionary act is being performed. Consider, by analogy, the fact that in shaking hands we can, depending on the circumstances, do any one of several different things: introduce ourselves, greet each other, seal a deal, or bid farewell. Similarly, a given sentence can be used in a variety of ways, so that, for example, 'I will call a lawyer' could be used as a prediction, a promise, or a warning. How one intends it determines the sort of act it is.

### **2.5.2 Communicative and Conventional Speech Acts**

The examples considered thus far suggest that performing a speech act, in particular an illocutionary act, is a matter of having a certain communicative intention in uttering certain words. Such an act succeeds, the intention with which it is performed is fulfilled, if the audience recognizes that intention. This is not by magic, of course. One must choose one's words in such a way that their utterance makes one's intention recognizable under the circumstances. However, as illustrated above, the utterance need not encode one's intention. So, in general, understanding an utterance is not merely a matter of decoding it.

A specifically communicative intention is a reflexive intention, this is an intention part of whose content is that it be recognized, indeed be recognized partly on the basis that

this is intended. Accordingly, it is an intention whose fulfillment consists in its recognition. This feature distinguishes acts of communication from most sorts of acts, whose success does not depend on anyone's recognizing the intention with which they are performed. One cannot succeed in running a marathon just by virtue of someone's recognizing one's intention to do so, but one can succeed in stating something, requesting something, etc., by virtue of one's addressee recognizing that one is stating it, requesting it, etc. This is success at the illocutionary level. It is a further matter, a condition on the success of perlocutionary act, whether the addressee believes what one states or does what one requests.

### **2.5.3 Types of speech acts**

Pretheoretically, we think of an act of communication, linguistic or otherwise, as an act of expressing oneself. This rather vague idea can be made more precise if we get more specific about what is being expressed. Take the case of an apology. If you utter, '[I'm] sorry I didn't call back' and intend this as an apology, you are expressing regret for something, in this case for not returning a phone call. An apology just is the act of (verbally) expressing regret for, and thereby acknowledging, something one did that might have harmed or at least bothered the hearer. An apology is communicative because it is intended to be taken as expressing a certain attitude, in this case regret. It succeeds as such if it is so taken. In general, an act of communication succeeds if it is taken as intended. That is, it must be understood or, in Austin's words, 'produce uptake'. With an apology, this is a matter of the addressee recognizing the speaker's intention to be expressing regret for some deed or omission. Using a special device such as the performative 'I apologize' may of course facilitate understanding (understanding is correlative with communicating), but in general this is unnecessary.

Communicative success is achieved if the speaker chooses his words in such a way that the hearer will, under the circumstances of utterance, recognize his communicative intention. So, for example, if you spill some beer on someone and say 'Oops' in the right way, your utterance will be taken as an apology for what you did.

In saying something one generally intends more than just to communicate--getting oneself understood is intended to produce some effect on the listener. However, our speech act vocabulary can obscure this fact. When one apologizes, for example, one may intend not merely to express regret but also to seek forgiveness. Seeking forgiveness is, strictly speaking, distinct from apologizing, even though one utterance is the performance of an act of both types. As an apology, the utterance succeeds if it is taken as expressing regret for the deed in question; as an act of seeking forgiveness, it succeeds if forgiveness is thereby obtained. Speech acts, being perlocutionary as well as illocutionary, generally have some ulterior purpose, but they are distinguished primarily by their illocutionary type, such as asserting, requesting, promising and apologizing, which in turn are distinguished by the type of attitude expressed. The perlocutionary act is a matter of trying to get the hearer to form some correlative attitude and in some cases to act in a certain way. For example, a statement expresses a belief and normally has the further purpose of getting the addressee form the same belief. A request expresses a desire for the addressee to do a certain thing and normally aims for the addressee to intend to and, indeed, actually do that thing. A promise expresses the speaker's firm intention to do something, together with the belief that by his utterance he is obligated to do it, and normally aims further for the addressee to expect, and to feel entitled to expect, the speaker to do it.

Statements, requests, promises and apologies are examples of the four major categories of communicative illocutionary acts: constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgments. This is the nomenclature used by Kent Bach and Michael Harnish, who develop a detailed taxonomy in which each type of illocutionary act is individuated by the type of attitude expressed (in some cases there are constraints on the content as well). There is no generally accepted terminology here, and Bach and Harnish borrow the terms 'constative' and 'commissive' from Austin and 'directive' from Searle. They adopt the term 'acknowledgment', over Austin's 'behabitive' and Searle's 'expressive', for apologies, greetings, congratulations etc., which express an attitude regarding the hearer that is occasioned by some event that is thereby being acknowledged, often in satisfaction of a social expectation. Here are assorted examples of each type:

Constatives: affirming, alleging, announcing, answering, attributing, claiming, classifying, concurring, confirming, conjecturing, denying, disagreeing, disclosing, disputing, identifying, informing, insisting, predicting, ranking, reporting, stating, stipulating  
Directives: advising, admonishing, asking, begging, dismissing, excusing, forbidding, instructing, ordering, permitting, requesting, requiring, suggesting, urging, warning.

Commissives: agreeing, guaranteeing, inviting, offering, promising, swearing, and volunteering.

Acknowledgments: apologizing, condoling, congratulating, greeting, thanking, accepting (acknowledging an acknowledgment)

Bach and Harnish spell out the correlation between type of illocutionary act and type of expressed attitude. In many cases, such as answering, disputing, excusing and agreeing, as well as all types of acknowledgment, the act and the attitude it expresses presuppose a specific conversational or other social circumstance.

For types of acts that are distinguished by the type of attitude expressed, there is no need to invoke the notion of convention to explain how it can succeed. The act can succeed if the hearer recognizes the attitude being expressed, such as a belief in the case of a statement and a desire in the case of a request. Any further effect it has on the hearer, such as being believed or being complied with, or just being taken as sincere, is not essential to its being a statement or a request. Thus an utterance can succeed as an act of communication even if the speaker does not possess the attitude he is expressing: communication is one thing, sincerity another. Communicating is as it were just putting an attitude on the table; sincerity is actually possessing the attitude one is expressing. Correlatively, the hearer can understand the utterance without regarding it as sincere, e.g., take it as an apology, as expressing regret for something, without believing that the speaker regrets having done the deed in question. Getting one's audience to believe that one actually possesses the attitude one is expressing is not an illocutionary but a perlocutionary act.

#### **2.5.4 Direct, Indirect and Nonliteral Speech Acts**

As Austin observed, the content of a locutionary act (what is said) is not always determined by what is meant by the sentence being uttered. Ambiguous words or phrases need to be disambiguated (see *AMBIGUITY*) and the references of indexical and other context-sensitive expressions need to be fixed in order for what is said to be

determined fully (see DEMONSTRATIVES AND INDEXICALS). Moreover, what is said does not determine the illocutionary act(s) being performed. We can perform a speech act

(1) directly or indirectly, by way of performing another speech act,

(2) literally or nonliterally, depending on how we are using our words, and

(3) explicitly or inexplicitly, depending on whether we fully spell out what we mean.

These three contrasts are distinct and should not be confused. The first two concern the relation between the utterance and the speech act(s) thereby performed. In indirection a single utterance is the performance of one illocutionary act by way of performing another. For example, we can make a request or give permission by way of making a statement, say by uttering 'I am getting thirsty' or 'It doesn't matter to me', and we can make a statement or give an order by way of asking a question, such as 'Will the sun rise tomorrow?' or 'Can you clean up your room?' When an illocutionary act is performed indirectly, it is performed by way of performing some other one directly. In the case of nonliteral utterances, we do not mean what our words mean but something else instead. With nonliterality the illocutionary act we are performing is not the one that would be predicted just from the meanings of the words being used, as with likely utterances of 'My mind got derailed' or 'You can stick that in your ear'. Occasionally utterances are both nonliteral and indirect. For example, one might utter 'I love the sound of your voice' to tell someone nonliterally (ironically) that she can't stand the sound of his voice and thereby indirectly to ask him to stop singing.

Nonliterality and indirection are the two main ways in which the semantic content of a sentence can fail to determine the full force and content of the illocutionary act being performed in using the sentence. They rely on the same sorts of processes that Grice discovered in connection with what he called 'conversational implicature' (see IMPLICATURE), which, as is clear from Grice's examples, is nothing more than the special case of nonliteral or indirect constatives made with the use of indicative sentences. A few of Grice's examples illustrate nonliterality, e.g., 'He was a little intoxicated', used to explain why a man smashed some furniture, but most of them are indirect statements, e.g., 'There is a garage around the corner' used to tell someone where to get petrol, and 'Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance has been regular', giving the high points in a letter of recommendation. These are all examples in which what is meant is not determined by what is said. However, Grice overlooks a different kind of case, marked by contrast (3) listed above.

There are many sentences whose standard uses are not strictly determined by their meanings but are not implicatures or figurative uses either. For example, if one's spouse says 'I will be home later'. She is likely to mean that she will be home later that night, not merely sometime in the future. In such cases what one means is an expansion of what one says, in that adding more words ('tonight', in the example) would have made what was meant fully explicit. In other cases, such as 'Jack is ready' and 'Jill is late', the sentence does not express a complete proposition. There must be something which Jack is being claimed to be ready for and something which Jill is being claimed to be late to. In these cases what one means is a completion of what one says. In both sorts of case, no particular word or phrase is being used nonliterally and there is no indirection. They both exemplify what may be called 'implicature', since part of what is

meant is communicated not explicitly but implicitly, by way of expansion or completion.

### **2.5.5 Philosophical Importance of Speech Act Theory:**

The theory of speech acts has applications to philosophy in general, but these can only be illustrated here. In ethics, for example, it has been supposed that sentences containing words like 'good' and 'right' are used not to describe but to commend, hence that such sentences are not used to make statements and that questions of value and morals are not matters of fact. This line of argument is fallacious. Sentences used for ethical evaluation, such as 'Loyalty is good' and 'Abortion is wrong,' are no different in form from other indicative sentences. Whatever the status of their contents, they are standardly used to make statements. This leaves open the possibility that there is something fundamentally problematic about their contents. Perhaps such statements are factually defective and, despite syntactic appearances, are neither true nor false. However, this is a metaphysical issue about the status of the properties to which ethical predicates purport to refer. It is not the business of the philosophy of language to determine whether or not there are such properties as goodness or rightness and whether or not the goodness of loyalty and the rightness of abortion are matters of fact. The above argument is but one illustration of what Searle calls the 'speech act fallacy'. He also identifies examples of the 'assertion fallacy', whereby conditions of making an assertion are confused with what is asserted. For example, one might fallaciously argue, on the grounds that because one would not assert that one believes something if one was prepared to assert that one knows it, that knowing does not entail believing. Grice identifies the same fallacy in a parallel argument, according to which seeming to have a certain feature entails not actually having that feature.



For philosophy of language in particular, the theory of speech acts underscores the importance of the distinction between language use and linguistic meaning. This distinction sharpens the formulation of questions about the nature of linguistic knowledge, by separating questions about capacities exercised in linguistic interaction from those specific to knowledge of language itself. A parallel distinction, between speaker reference and linguistic reference, provokes the question of to what extent linguistic expressions refer independently of speakers' use of them to refer. It is common, for example, for philosophers to describe expressions like 'the car', 'Robert Jones' and 'they' as having different references in different contexts, but it is arguable that this is merely a misleading way of saying that speakers use such expressions to refer to different things in different contexts.

### **2.5.6 Speech Act Theory:**

Speech act theory attempts to explain how speakers use language to accomplish intended actions and how hearers infer intended meaning from what is said. Although speech act studies are now considered a sub-discipline of cross-cultural pragmatics, they actually take their origin in the philosophy of language.

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

only intended in part, to record or impart straight forward information about the facts (...). (Austin, 1962, p. 1).

Philosophers like Austin (1962), Grice (1957), and Searle (1965, 1969, 1975) offer basic insight into this new theory of linguistic communication based on the assumption that “(...) the minimal units of human communication are not linguistic expressions, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking, and so on” (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989, p.2). Austin (1962) defines the performance of uttering words with a consequential purpose as “the performance of a locutionary act, and the study of utterances thus far and in these respects the study of locutions or of the full units of speech” (p. 69). These units of speech are not tokens of the symbol or word or sentence but rather units of linguistic communication and it is “(...) the production of the token in the performance of the speech act that constitutes the basic unit of linguistic communication” (Searle, 1965, p.136). According to Austin’s theory, these functional units of communication have propositional or locutionary meaning (the literal meaning of the utterance), illocutionary meaning (the social function of the utterance), and perlocutionary force (the effect produced by the utterance in a given context) (Cohen, 1996, p. 384).

### **2.5.7 Are Speech Acts Universal or Culture and Language - Specific?**

Speech acts have been claimed by some to operate by universal pragmatic principles (Austin, (1962), Searle (1969, 1975), Brown & Levinson (1978)). Others have shown them to vary in conceptualization and verbalization across cultures and languages (Wong, 1994; Wierzbicka, 1985). Although this debate has generated over three

decades of research, only the last 15 years marked a shift from an intuitively based approach to an empirically based one, which “has focused on the perception and production of speech acts by learners of a second or foreign language (in the most cases, English as a second or foreign language, i.e., ESL and EFL) at varying stages of language proficiency and in different social interactions” (Cohen, 1996, p. 385). Blum Kulka et. al., (1989) argue that there is a strong need to complement theoretical studies of speech acts with empirical studies, based on speech acts produced by native speakers of individual languages in strictly defined contexts. The illocutionary choices embraced by individual languages reflect what Gumperz (1982) calls “cultural logic” (pp. 182-185). Consider the following passage:

The fact that two speakers whose sentences are quite grammatical can differ radically in their interpretation of each other’s verbal strategies indicates that conversational management does rest on linguistic knowledge. But to find out what that knowledge is we must abandon the existing views of communication which draw a basic distinction between cultural or social knowledge on the one hand and linguistic signaling processes on the other. (pp. 185-186)

Differences in “cultural logic” embodied in individual languages involve the implementation of various linguistic mechanisms. As numerous studies have shown, these mechanisms are rather culture-specific and may cause breakdowns in inter-ethnic communication. Such communication breakdowns are largely due to a language transfer at the sociocultural level where cultural differences play a part in selecting among the potential strategies for realizing a given speech act. Hence the need to make

the instruction of speech acts an instrumental component of every ESL/ EFL curriculum.

### **2.5.8 Why should EFL Students Learn to Perform Speech Acts?**

When foreign language learners engage in conversations with native speakers, difficulties may arise due to their lack of mastery of the conversational norms involved in the production of speech acts. Such conversational difficulties may in turn cause breakdowns in interethnic communication (Gumperz, 1990). When the nonnative speakers violate speech act realization patterns typically used by native speakers of a target language, they often suffer the perennial risk of inadvertently violating conversational (and politeness) norms thereby forfeiting their claims to being treated by their interactants as social equals (Kasper, 1990, p. 193). Communication difficulties result when conversationalists do not share the same knowledge of the subtle rules governing conversation. Scarcella (1990) ascribes high frequency of such difficulties to the fact that “nonnative speakers, when conversing, often transfer the conversational rules of their first language into the second” (p. 338). Scarcella provides the following example. (Bracketing indicates interruptions.)

- 1) speaker A: Mary’s invited us to lunch. Do you wanna go?
- 2) speaker B: Sure. [I’m not busy right now.[Why not?
- 3) speaker A: [Good [I’ll come by in about thirty minute
- 4) speaker B: Think we oughta bring [anything?
- 5) speaker A: [No, but I’ll bring some wine anyway. (1990, p. 338)

In this exchange, the native speaker B inaccurately concluded that the nonnative speaker A is rude since like many Americans, he regards interruptions as impolite. Rather than associate rudeness with A's linguistic behavior, however, B associates rudeness with A herself. B's reasoning might be as follows: A interrupts; interruptions are rude; therefore, A is rude. Such reasoning is unfortunate for A, who comes from Iran where interruptions may be associated with friendliness, indicating the conversationalist's active involvement in the interaction. (Scarcella, 1990, p.338).

Learners who repeatedly experience conversational difficulties tend to cut themselves from speakers of the target community, not only withdrawing from them socially, but psychologically as well (Scarcella, 1990). "Psychological distance' or a 'high filter' might be related to a number of factors, including culture shock and cultural stress" (Scarcella, 1990, p. 343) All these factors ignite a cycle that eventually hinders second language acquisition.

1. First, the learners experience conversational difficulties.
2. Next, they become "clannish", clinging to their own group.
3. This limits their interaction with members of the target culture and increases solidarity with their own cultural group.
4. That, in turn, creates social distance between themselves and the target group.
5. The end result is that the second language acquisition is hindered since they don't receive the input necessary for their language development. (Scarcella, 1990, p. 342)

## 2.5.9 How to Teach Speech Acts?

Cohen (1996) claims that the fact that speech acts reflect somewhat routinized language behavior helps learning in the sense that much of what is said is predictable. For example, Wolfson & Manes, (1980) have found that adjectives *nice* or *good* (e.g., "That's a nice shirt you're wearing" or "it was a good talk you gave") are used almost half the time when complimenting in English and *beautiful*, *pretty*, and *great* make up another 15 percent.

Yet despite the routinized nature of speech acts, there are still various strategies to choose form - depending on the sociocultural context - and often a variety of possible language forms for realizing these strategies, especially in the case of speech acts with four or more possible semantic formulas such as apologies and complaints. Target language learners may tend to respond the way they would in their native language and culture and find that their utterances are not at all appropriate for the target language and culture situation. (Cohen, 1996, p. 408). Scarcella (1990) provides second language instructors with a number of guidelines intended to reduce negative consequences of communication difficulties and increase the learners' conversational competence through improving their motivation:

1. Stress the advantages of conversing like a native speaker.
2. Stress that it is not necessary to converse perfectly to communicate in the second language.
3. Impress upon learners that they should not be overly concerned with communication difficulties.
4. Help students accept communication difficulties as normal.

5. Provide students with information about communication difficulties.
6. Do not expect students to develop the conversational skills needed to overcome all communication difficulties.
7. Provide communicative feedback regarding student success in conveying meaning and accomplishing communicative objectives.
8. Teach students strategies to help them overcome communication difficulties in the real world. (1990, pp. 345-346) Components Underlying Speaking Effectiveness:

"Language proficiency is not a unidimensional construct but a multifaceted modality, consisting of various levels of abilities and domains (Carrasquillo 1994:65).

## **2.7 Interaction as the Key to Improving EFL Learners' Speaking Abilities**

The functions of spoken language are interactional and transactional. The primary intention of the former is to maintain social relationships, while that of the latter is to convey information and ideas. In fact, much of our daily communication remains interactional. Being able to interact in a language is essential. Therefore, language instructors should provide learners with opportunities for meaningful communicative behavior about relevant topics by using learner-learner interaction as the key to teaching language for communication because "communication derives essentially from interaction" (Rivers 1987:xiii).

Communication in the classroom is embedded in meaning-focused activity. This requires teachers to tailor their instruction carefully to the needs of learners and teach

them how to listen to others, how to talk with others, and how to negotiate meaning in a shared context. Out of will learn how to communicate verbally and nonverbally as their language store and language skills develop. Consequently, the give-and-take exchanges of messages will enable them to create discourse that conveys their intentions in real-life communication.

### **2.7.1 Small talk**

The ability to get along with people in society may correlate somewhat with how well a person can engage in brief, casual conversation with others or an exchange of pleasantries. Talk of weather, rush hour traffic, vocations, and sports events etc., may seem "meaningless," but it functions to create a sense of social communion among peers or other people. So, at the initial stage, adult EFL learners should develop skills in short, interactional exchanges in which they are required to make only one or two utterances at a time, such as:

1. A: I hate rush hour traffic.

B: Me too.

2. A: Boy, the weather is lousy today.

B: Yeah. I hope it'll stop raining.

As the learners get more experience, they will be able to use some of the simple exchanges and know how to open conversations.

### **2.7.2 Interactive Activities**

Since most EFL learners learn the target language in their own culture, practice is available only in the classroom. So, a key factor in L2 or foreign language development is the opportunity given to learners to speak in the language-promoting interaction. Teachers must arouse in the learners a willingness and need or reason to speak. A possible way of stimulating learners to talk might be to provide them with extensive exposure to authentic language through audio-visual stimuli and with



opportunities to use the language. Likewise, teachers should integrate strategy instruction into interactive activities, providing a wealth of information about communicative strategies to raise learners' awareness about their own learning styles so that learners can tailor their strategies to the requirements of learning tasks.

In designing activities, teachers should consider all the skills conjointly as they interact with each other in natural behavior, for in real life as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill (Nunan 1989). Effective interactive activities should be manipulative, meaningful, and communicative, involving learners in using English for a variety of communicative purposes. Specifically, they should (1) be based on authentic or naturalistic source materials; (2) enable learners to manipulate and practice specific features of language; (3) allow learners to rehearse, in class, communicative skills they need in the real world; and (4) activate psycholinguistic processes of learning.

Based on these criteria, the following activities appear to be particularly relevant to eliciting spoken language production. They provide learners with opportunities to learn from auditory and visual experiences, which enable them to develop flexibility in their learning styles and also demonstrate the optimal use of different learning strategies and behaviors for different tasks.

### **2.7.3. Aural: oral activities**

With careful selection and preparation, aural materials such as news reports on the radio will be fine-tuned to a level accessible to particular groups of learners. These materials can be used in some productive activities as background or as input for interaction. In practice, students are directed to listen to taped dialogues or short passages and afterwards to act them out in different ways. One example which we have

used in our micro-teaching practice in Northern Illinois University is jigsaw listening. A story is recorded into several segments on an audio cassette tape. Teachers either have each student listen to a different segment or divide the class into small groups and make each group responsible for one segment. After each student/group has listened to a segment, students are provided with a worksheet of comprehension questions based on the story. Then, students work together in groups on an information gap activity. They negotiate the meaning of the story and answer questions, which motivates students to speak.

#### **2.7.4. Visual: oral activities**

Because of the lack of opportunity in foreign language settings to interact with native speakers, the need for exposure to many kinds of scenes, situations, and accents as well as voices is particularly critical. This need can be met by audiovisual materials such as appropriate films, videotapes, and soap operas. They can provide (a) "the motivation achieved by basing lessons on attractively informative content material; (b) the exposure to a varied range of authentic speech, with different registers, accents, intonation, rhythms, and stresses; and (c) language used in the context of real situations, which adds relevance and interest to the learning process" (Carrasquillo 1994:140). While watching, students can observe what levels of formality are appropriate or inappropriate on given occasions. Similarly, they can notice the nonverbal behavior and types of exclamations and fill-in expressions that are used. Also, they can pay attention to how people initiate and sustain a conversational exchange and how they terminate an interactive episode. Subsequent practice of dialogues, role-playing, and dramatizations will lead to deeper learning. Visual stimuli can be utilized in several ways as starter material for interaction. Short pieces of films

can be used to give "eyewitness" accounts. An anecdote from a movie can be used to elicit opinion-expressing activity. Likewise, nonverbal videos can be played to have students describe what they have viewed. While watching, students can focus on the content and imitate the "model's" body language. In this way students will be placed in a variety of experiences with accompanying language. Gradually, they will assimilate the verbal and nonverbal messages and communicate naturally.

### **2.7.5 Material-aided- oral activities**

Appropriate reading materials facilitated by the teacher and structured with comprehension questions can lead to creative production in speech. Story-telling can be prompted with cartoon-strips and sequences of pictures. Oral reports or summaries can be produced from articles in newspapers or from some well designed textbooks such as *Culturally Speaking*, written by Genzel and Cummings (1994). Similar material input such as hotel brochures can be used for making reservations; menus can be used for making purchases in the supermarket or for ordering in a restaurant. In fact, language input for oral activities can be derived from a wide range of sources that form the basis for communicative tasks of one sort or another, which will help learners deal with real situations that they are likely to encounter in the future.

### **2.7.6. Culture-awareness: oral activities**

Culture plays an instrumental role in shaping speakers' communicative competence, which is related to the appropriate use of language (e.g., how native speakers make an apology and what kind of form the apology is to take). Generally, appropriateness is determined by each speech community. In other words, it is defined by the shared social and cultural conventions of a particular group of speakers. Therefore, it is essential to recognize different sets of culturally determined rules in communication. Just as Brown and Yule (1983:40) say, "a great number of cultural assumptions which would be normally presupposed, and not made explicit by native speakers, may need to

be drawn explicitly to the attention of speakers from other cultures." Cultural learning illustrated by activities and strengthened through physical enactment will motivate students.

Teachers can present situations in which there are cultural misunderstandings that cause people to become offended, angry, and confused. Then, thought-provoking information and questions can follow each description or anecdote for in-class discussion. Students can be asked to analyze and determine what went wrong and why, which will force students to think about how people in the target culture act and perceive things and which will inevitably provide a deeper insight into that culture. This kind of exercise can strike a healthy balance between the necessity of teaching the target culture and validating the students' native culture, which will gradually sharpen students' culture awareness.

By and large, using audiovisual stimuli brings sight, hearing, and kinesthetic participation into interplay, which gets students across the gulf of imagination into the "real experience" in the first place. Meanwhile, the task-oriented activities give students a purpose to talk. Ideally, the flexibility and adaptability of these activities are essential if the communicative needs of learners are to be met. With the limited time available in class, it is necessary to follow open language experiences with more intensive structured situations, dialogues, and role-playing activities. These will give students both the chance and confidence actually to use the language.

In conclusion, speaking is one of the central elements of communication. In EFL teaching, it is an aspect that needs special attention and instruction. In order to provide effective instruction, it is necessary for teachers of EFL to carefully examine the factors, conditions, and components that underlie speaking effectiveness. Effective

instruction derived from the careful analysis of this area, together with sufficient language input and speech-promotion activities will gradually help learners speak English fluently and appropriately.

## **2.8.What Do Learners Have To Acquire In Order To Be Pragmatically Competent?**

### **2.8.1 The Ability to Perform Speech Acts**

Numerous studies have recognized that the ability of learners to use appropriate speech acts in a given speech event and to select appropriate linguistic forms to realize this speech act is a major component of pragmatic competence. As early as 1979, Rintell asserted that “pragmatics is the study of speech acts”, arguing that L2 learner pragmatic ability is reflected in how learners produce utterances to communicate “specific intentions,” and conversely, how they interpret the intentions which these utterances convey (p. 98). Fraser (1983) also describes pragmatic competence as the knowledge of how an addressee determines what a speaker is saying and recognizes intended illocutionary force conveyed through subtle “attitudes” (p. 30) in the speaker’s utterance. Among empirical studies of speech act behavior, Cohen (1996b) lists studies of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) as the most comprehensive studies, both in depth and breadth. These studies compared the speech act performance of NSs of different languages with that of learners of those languages (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). One of the consistent findings in these studies is that, although the typology of speech acts appears to be universal, their conceptualization and verbalization can vary to a great extent across cultures and languages. In other words, L2 learners may have access to the same range of speech acts and realization strategies as do NSs (Fraser, Rintell, & Walters, 1980; Walters, 1979), but they can differ from NSs in the strategies that they *choose*. Therefore, it is

clear that L2 learners must be aware of L2 sociocultural constraints on speech acts in order to be pragmatically competent.

On the most general level, the acceptable situational circumstances for a particular speech act are culturally relative. Examples abound. While Americans often use indirect complaints (complaints not directly about the addressee) as a solidarity strategy, Japanese learners of English tend to avoid this speech act because it is perceived to be face-threatening behavior and problematical in their L1 (Boxer, 1993). In Alaska, Athabaskan Indians find Americans ridiculously garrulous because it is inappropriate to talk to strangers in Athabaskan culture. Silence is an acceptable type of conversation in Athabaskan culture, and people often sit quietly with each other without saying anything (Scollon&Scollon, 1995), whereas in American culture silence is uncomfortable once interlocutors have been introduced to each other. American learners of Indonesian may not understand why it is a compliment to mention someone's new sewing machine or shopping habits, unaware of the fact that in Indonesian culture such remarks imply approval of an addressee's accomplishments (Wolfson, 1981). And finally, learners of Arabic must know that in Egyptian culture, complimenting pregnant women, children, or others by saying they are attractive is believed to draw harmful attention from the Evil Eye, jeopardizing the safety of the addressee (Nelson, El Bakary, & Al Batal, 1996). In addition to culturally acceptable mappings of speech events to speech acts at the macro-level, choosing appropriate pragmatic strategies is necessary for speech act ability.

Wolfson (1981) noted a tendency among middle-class Americans to make their compliments original and less formulaic in order to convey sincerity, while Arabic speakers prefer proverbs and ritualized phrases. In a study of compliment responses performed by native speakers of Mandarin Chinese and of American English, Chen

(1993) found an overwhelming preference for rejection of compliments by Chinese speakers as compared to Americans.

Learners also have to be aware of differences in the linguistic forms that an L1 and an L2 use in realizing pragmatic strategies. According to Schmidt and Richards (1980), Czech speakers may not identify the English modals *can* and *could* as indicating a request; Japanese speakers may not recognize the English conditional form *would* as carrying imperative force; and speakers of Spanish, Hebrew, Swahili, and Yiddish may perceive the construction *Let's* as ungrammatical. Some researchers have focused on specific semantic formulas or combination of formulas and found cross-cultural differences in: (a) preference for a particular semantic formula by Hebrew learners of English (Olshtain, 1983), (b) sequencing and frequency of semantic formulas by Japanese learners of English (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990), and (c) choice of head semantic formulas by Korean learners of English (Murphy & Neu, 1996), and so on. So far, what L2 learners must know for successful speech act performance has been presented in a “top-down processing” manner (Kasper, 1984, p. 3): learners first have to recognize the extra-linguistic, cultural constraints that operate in a NSs’ choice of a particular speech act appropriate to the context. They also have to know how to realize this speech act at the linguistic level and in accordance with the L2 sociocultural norms. Cohen (1996a) terms this “sociocultural knowledge:” a “speaker’s ability to determine whether it is acceptable to perform the speech act at all in the given situation and, if so, to select one or more semantic formulas that would be appropriate in the realization of the given speech act” (p. 254).

### **2.8.2. The Ability to Convey and Interpret Non-literal Meanings**

Simply put, pragmatics is the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and their *uses*, whereas semantics, which is closely related to pragmatics, is the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and their *referents*. Grice (1975) distinguishes between *sentencemeaning* which refers to the propositional meaning of an utterance, and *speaker meaning* which refers to the indirectly conveyed meaning beyond the surface-level linguistic forms of an utterance. From this perspective, pragmatic competence is concerned with the ability to bridge the gap between sentence meaning and speaker meaning in order to interpret the indirectly expressed communicative intention. The process by which interlocutors arrive at speaker meaning involves *inferencing*, which is guided by a set of rational and universal principles that all participants are expected to observe for successful communication, namely, *the Cooperative Principle*. According to Carrell (1984), “one aspect of pragmatic competence in an L2 is the ability to draw correct inferences” (p.1). Fraser (1983) also includes the ability to interpret figurative language as part of pragmatics because utterances that are overt and deliberate violations of the conversational maxims (e.g., *the future is now* as a violation of the maxim Quality, *I wasn't born yesterday* as a violation of Quantity) require the ability to recognize and interpret conversational implicature.

However, it must be kept in mind that while many researchers assume Grice's maxims to be universal, these maxims are not implemented and interpreted in the same way across cultures.

Keenan (1976), for example, pointed out that Grice's first sub-maxim Quantity, *be informative*, (e.g., *She's either in the house or at the market*) is inappropriate in the Malagasy society of Madagascar. Due to a fear of committing oneself to an assertion,



Malagasy norms of conversation regularly require speakers to provide less information than is required – even when a speaker has access to the necessary information. Furthermore, even when the participants in a conversation share an understanding of maxims, the same utterance may result in an L2 learner drawing a different implicature from a NS because different cultural backgrounds engender different values and customs. For example, Bouton (1988, 1994b, 1996, 1999) found that there was a significant difference in the way NSs of English interpreted the same implicatures from the way seven ESL learner groups with different L1 backgrounds did; the learner groups differed both from the NSs and among themselves. Since the language proficiency of all the learners was essentially the same, Bouton attributed these differences to their different cultural backgrounds.

In addition, certain types of conversational inferences may be particularly difficult for L2 learners to understand. Carrell (1984) showed that it was easier for ESL learners to draw inferences from semantically positive predicates than for presuppositions. As the above-cited studies indicate, the ability to draw non-literal meaning is surely part of L2 pragmatic competence.

### **2.8.3 The Ability to Perform Politeness Functions**

Brown and Levinson (1992) posit universal principles for linguistic politeness based on a social rationale. As Leech (1983) and Thomas (1995) note, indirectness increases the degree of optionality and negotiability on the part of hearer and thereby reduces the imposition on the hearer. However, as a number of cross-cultural pragmatic studies on politeness point out, the application of this principle differs systematically across cultures and languages. Greek social norms, for example, require a much higher level of indirectness in social interaction than American ones, while Israeli norms generally allow even more directness than American ones (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1987). Similarly,

House and Kasper (1981) observed that German speakers generally selected more direct politeness than Americans when requesting and complaining.

Wierzbicka (1985) found that some Polish requests use the imperative form as a mild directive when in English this might be considered rude. All these studies demonstrate that the ability to choose the appropriate linguistic directness with reference to the L2 norm is crucial for pragmatic competence.

Politeness phenomena have been studied from multidimensional perspectives (Fraser, 1990). Among them, a number of studies indicate that social-indexing or social discernment – manifested by systematic linguistic variation along various social dimensions – is one of the universal principles for politeness. For example, power affects the level of directness of English requests used by Hebrew learners (Blum-Kulka, Danet, & Gerson, 1985), distance affects the level of directness (Ervin-Tripp, 1976) and the length of English requests by NSs (Wolfson, 1986) and French learners (Harlow, 1990), status affects the level of directness of various types of face-threatening acts by Japanese learners of English (Beebe & T. Takahashi, 1989a; Beebe et al., 1990), and age affects utterance length in thanking behavior by ESL learners (V. Cook, 1985), and so on.

Indeed, virtually all languages have forms of social-indexing (Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, & Ogino, 1986). However, the level of sensitivity to social factors when determining linguistic directness is clearly subject to cross-cultural variation. For example, in Japanese the use of polite expressions is more normative and prescriptive than in English. That is, in Japanese there exists a much stronger link between the relative social status of interlocutors and appropriateness of linguistic forms than in English because the choice of linguistic forms in Japanese inherently carries social

information (Fukushima, 1990; Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1988, 1989). However, in contrast to Japanese, Yeung (1997) found that Chinese speakers' use of polite requests in English was only significantly influenced by the factor of imposition. Yeung suggests that this is due to L1 influence in that unlike Japanese or Korean where linguistic choice is strictly governed by the relative status of the interlocutors, Cantonese is not an honorific language. Face-saving – the mutual monitoring of potential threats to interlocutor face and the devising of strategies to maintain face – is another notion of politeness posited as a universal phenomenon. From this perspective, politeness is conceptualized as strategic conflict avoidance.

Once again, a concern that arises here for L2 learners is that the conceptualization of face varies across cultures. In other words, Brown and Levinson's (1992) notion of *positive* and *negative* face is not applicable to all cultures and languages. For example, in questioning Brown and Levinson's claim that Japanese culture is negative-politeness oriented, Matsumoto (1988) argues that what is characteristic of Japanese culture is its emphasis on acknowledging one's relative position in society and not the rule *not to impose on individual freedom of action*, thus making the Japanese concept of face “concern for social interrelationship” (p. 405).

Agreeing with Matsumoto, Mao (1994) proposes a new definition of face, “the relative face orientation,” consisting of two types of face – individual and social face (p. 471). For example, the Igbo of Nigeria have a dual notion of face: “individual face” which refers to one's own desires and “group face” which refers to one's need to observe socially prescribed ways of behavior (Nwoye, 1992, p. 326). In Greek society, the distinction between “in-group” and “outgroup” has great importance. Since Greeks emphasize the in-group relationship, requests that might be face-threatening under the

same circumstances in another culture imply no imposition in Greek culture at all – e.g., *I'm taking a cigarette. Whose are they?* (Sifianou, 1993, p. 71).

Likewise, Ewe-speaking Africans use a genuine apology when someone has hurt himself/herself, whereas English speakers would use a sympathy expression. This is because of Ewe group oriented culture; Ewe speakers believe that others' unhappiness is also their responsibility (Ameka, 1987). To summarize, Brown and Levinson's claim that there are universal principles of politeness does not seem to be valid. For instance, their notion of face is individualistic in nature and therefore cannot be applied to non-Western cultures which emphasize group harmony rather than individual autonomy. Indeed, encoding and decoding politeness is achieved inculturally specific ways. Therefore, in developing pragmatic competence, learners have to become familiar with the cultural ethos associated with politeness as shared by members of the L2 community.

#### **2.8.4 The Ability to Perform Discourse Functions**

Most of the time, achievement of communicative intent in naturally occurring conversation requires a number of turns at talk between two interlocutors. Accordingly, as Blum-Kulka (1997b) points out, “a full pragmatic account would need to consider the various linguistic and paralinguistic signals by which *both* participants encode and interpret each other's utterances” (p. 49). Van Dijk (1981) also extends the notion of speech act to apply to a sequence of utterances constituting a stretch of discourse, that is, the “macro speech act” (p. 195). Kasper (2001a) notes that speech act performance is often *jointly* accomplished throughout the whole discourse through a sequencing of implicit illocutionary acts rather than any explicit expression of the communicative intent. For this reason, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) express the concern that

learners need to be aware of discourse differences between their L1 and the L2 in order to acquire pragmatic competence. At the observable behavioral level, what should L2 learners acquire in order to communicate their intentions successfully in discourse? It seems that two types of discourse management ability are at work: (a) the ability to interpret and fill the discourse slot as L2 conversational norms dictate, and (b) the ability to recognize and produce discourse markers correctly in terms of their pragmatic functions.

First of all, some researchers focus on the ability to smoothly enter into and end discourse. Literature on conversational analysis has demonstrated that conversation closing is accomplished mostly in conventional ways. However, a neglected area in this discussion is that conventions clearly vary across cultures, and that this is a major source of pragmatic failure.

Omar (1992, 1993), for example, found that advanced American learners of Kiswahili in Tanzania were well aware of the L2 norms for lengthy and elaborate conversation openings and closings. However, they were still unsuccessful due to their unwillingness to reopen a closing after goodbyes because the conventions of their L1 determine goodbyes as terminal exchanges. Edmondson, House, Kasper and Stemmer (1984) found that German speakers tended to use lengthy, content-oriented, non-ritualized expressions, whereas English speakers preferred routine formulas such as territory invasion signals (e.g. *Excuse me*), topic introducers (e.g., *There's something I'd like to ask you*), extractors (e.g., *I really must go now*), and sum-ups (e.g., *Let's leave it at that, then*). Thus, as Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992) contend, "closings are culture specific, both in their obligatoriness and structure" (p. 93).

Other researchers look at adjacency pairs when investigating whether learners are able to respond to ritualized speech acts in a contextually appropriate manner. Kasper (1984) observed that an advanced learner failed to interpret the interlocutor's inquiry about his well-being as an "opening-sequence [frame] specific [to] phatic talk" (p. 11). In Jaworski's (1994) study, advanced Polish learners of English failed to perceive the formulaic nature of greetings, interpreting them as requests for information. House (1993) also found that German learners of English often did not recognize that questions asking about their recent situation were preparatory moves for inviting.

Yet, Ebsworth, Bodman and Carpenter (1996) report a different pattern: In responding to greetings, learners tend to adhere to ritualized routines and remain formal, lacking the repertoire of creative language use. According to these researchers, it is generally contended that greetings are purely phatic and only convey attitudes (e.g., sincere vs. insincere) rather than facts – thus only requiring a formulaic answer or sometimes no answer at all – but that in natural interactions, Americans often give an honest answer containing content to friends and acquaintances.

Wolfson (1989) contends that whereas native English speakers show variation in their types of compliment-responses, perceiving compliments mainly as solidarity builders, Korean and Japanese learners tend to recognize compliments as formulaic conversation openers and respond with a simple *thank you* or even with silence.

In addition, learners also tend to transfer the illocutionary force or significance of pauses or silences from their L1 to the L2. This can be misleading in natural conversations with NSs of that L2 (Austin, 1998; Scollon & Scollon, 1995). As Celce-Murcia and Olshatin (2000) observe,

“there are [cross-cultural] differences in the length of pauses that are ‘tolerable’ within the conversational flow (i.e., in one culture these may be extremely short and when conversation stops for any reason...in another culture pauses of some length may be expected, and perhaps even considered polite, in that they allow for reflection and avoid overlaps with other speakers)”(p. 173).

Secondly, the ability to use discourse markers appropriately also appears to be an important aspect of discourse pragmatics. Scarcella (1983) notes that even highly proficient learners have “discourse accents” which are manifested in their inappropriate use of discourse markers: Spanish learners of English used more consecutive pause fillers such as *you know anduhm* than NSs, assuming that these fillers were functioning to maintain their speaking turn as in their L1 (p. 306).n However, the NSs sometimes interpreted these fillers as signals that the learners wished to relinquish their turns at talk. Kasper (1979) also found that German learners of English often produced contextually inappropriate gambits, e.g., using *yes* as a cajoling tag, *I think* as the firm statement of belief. Quite similarly, House (1993) observed that German learners of English misused the formula *As I told you*, directly translating this neutral L1 cohesive device into the L2 where it carries a rather aggressive and irritable tone.

Appropriate back-channeling behavior has also been discussed as part of pragmaticability. Boxer (1993) observed that the overuse of back channels without a more substantive response by a Japanese learner of English discouraged rather than encouraged his counterpart’s continuation. Blanche (1987) observed different conceptualizations of back-channeling behavior between Japanese students and their

American English teacher: The teacher continued the class not realizing until much later that the students' nods coupled with vocalizations of *yes* at the right places were not signals of understanding, but simply expressions of attending. Berry (1994) also reports on inappropriate back-channeling behavior by Spanish learners of English caused by cross-culturally different turn-taking styles; these learners' frequent interruptions and longer back channels to display their interest were actually interpreted by the NSs as lack of interest. In sum, conversational routines are often used on a habitual rather than a conscious-processing level (Wildner-Bassett, 1994). It should be noted, however, that for smooth day-to-day, face-to-face interactions these routines also carry cultural meanings, expressing cultural appropriateness and tacit agreements. Thus, the appropriate use of routines clearly plays an important role in L2 pragmatic ability.

### **2.8.5 The Ability to Use Cultural Knowledge**

The four aspects of pragmatic competence discussed so far considerably overlap with each other. In other words, they do not operate independently but interact with each other in complicated and yet systematic ways that govern learner linguistic behavior. More importantly, specific L2 culture-bound knowledge has been discussed as a deciding factor that underlies different aspects of pragmatic ability. This places culture at the heart of L2 pragmatic competence. Jiang's (2000) metaphor effectively captures the nature of language and culture as a whole: "communication is like transportation: language is the vehicle and culture is the traffic light" (p. 329).

Considering that culture regulates all language use and that every conversational exchange between a learner and a NS of a language is a form of intercultural encounter (Richards & Sukwiwat, 1983), second language acquisition is indeed "second culture acquisition" (Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996). Although some traditional pedagogies assume L2 culture learning to be a natural consequence of L2



language learning (as it is in L1 acquisition), others consider culture to be an outcome of conscious learning. It is simplistic, however, to state that culture is important and must be learned: Cultural beliefs are subconscious systems and, therefore, it is difficult to make them explicit. The interdisciplinary nature of pragmatic competence calls forth a need to acquire pragmatic knowledge in a holistic context, encompassing all the discrete components of pragmatic ability, including discourse management ability and, most importantly, culture (Austin, 1998). In this context, Blum-Kulka (1990a) proposes a model of “general pragmatic knowledge (GP)” where an L2 learner’s GP for a speech act is organized as schema containing the L2 linguistic forms used for the speech act (p. 255). This schema, in turn, is governed by aL2 “cultural filter” (p. 256) which decides the situational appropriateness of the L2 linguistic forms. Consonant with Blum-Kulka, Wildner-Bassett (1994) advocates a solid connection between culturally bound schema, a specific situation, and an utterance appropriate to that situation: If L2 learners acquire L2 cultural knowledge about archetypal structures of speech events, they will not only be able to better understand a given speech event in general, but effectively participate in that given speech event using appropriate speech acts. In order to acquire L2 cultural knowledge, however, a more precise and conceivable description of L2 cultural rules of behavior is necessary. Responding to this call, Wierzbicka (1994) proposes the notion of “cultural script”, a specific type of schema, in order for learners to understand “a society’s ways of speaking” (p. 2). Cultural scripts capture characteristic L2 cultural beliefs and values, but avoid ethnocentric bias by using culture-independent terms (Goddard, 1997; Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997). For instance, in a situation where an American’s car brushed against a Japanese child who had run into the street, the American may not understand why his Japanese counterpart would be upset and expect an apology when the American was not at fault. This is because he has not yet learnt the Japanese cultural grammar *if something had happened to someone because I did something, I have to say*

*something like this to this person: "I feel something bad"* (Wierzbicka, 1994, p. 5). According to Wierzbicka, Japanese culture is often mistakenly characterized by the tendency to apologize too frequently.

However, the above cultural script accurately captures the Japanese norm that seeks harmony among the social members, without relying on the English speech act verb *apologize* which becomes a source of the stereotyping. As another example, Ranney (1992) observed that in medical consultation with L2 speakers, Hmong learners of English referred to their L1 cultural scripts for speech event discourse patterns, often causing misunderstandings during speech acts such as asking questions, giving information, showing approval, or giving advice. Thus, acquiring accurate L2 cultural scripts can prevent pragmatic failure, as well as being a useful guide for acquiring L2 culture without potential stereotyping. While the other aspects of pragmatic competence discussed in previous sections are undoubtedly important, they can only be put to use if one has acquired the broader background of cultural knowledge.

### **Previous Studies:**

It is necessary to review the empirical studies concerning development in L2 pragmatic competence worldwide. One of the first longitudinal developmental studies on L2 pragmatic competence was conducted by Schmidt (1983). In this study, Schmidt collected data on the acquisition of English by a Japanese adult living in Hawaii. He mainly analyzed an obvious transfer of Japanese sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic norm. Later, Schmidt and Frota (1986) kept on doing this research and provided certain evidence of the development in conversational ability.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) focused on 16 adult L2 students' developing ability of producing suggestions and rejections in the environment of academic advising sessions. It was found that students' sociopragmatic ability seemed to develop faster than their pragmalinguistic ability.

Siegal (1994, 1996) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the speech production of three English learners and one Hungarian learners of Japanese as L2. It found that the learner subjectivity and proficiency had great influence on the development of learners' pragmatic competence.

Barron's (2003) study also made a contribution to the research on the pragmatic development. She examined how 33 Irish learners of German developed their ability of speech act realization in a studying abroad context.

Besides the longitudinal studies, a number of cross-sectional studies are also concerned with. Scarcella (1997) examined politeness strategies applied respectively by 10 beginners and 10 advanced learners of ESL. It showed that the participants' ability of choosing politeness forms outweighed that of using the forms appropriately.

The Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-kulda&Olshtain, 1984) investigated the speech act of requests and apologies in eight language varieties. With those data, Blum-Kulka's (1989) study showed one of the frequently used request strategies was conventional indiretness.

Fukushima's (1990) study was aimed at the request performance of Japanese EFL learners. Results showed that the participants' request was direct regardless of different social contexts.

Garcia (2004) investigated the pragmatic awareness of low and high proficiency ESL learners. It was found that the target speech act could be successfully identified by the ESL learners to different extents.

The above reviewed studies can be summarized as follows: first, most of them managed to record the development of L2 pragmatic competence by working on the development of either production or comprehension of particular speech acts (Request, apology, greeting, etc.). Second, most of the subjects investigated were with L1 backgrounds other than Chinese. Third, the data were collected by means of learning diaries, Discourse Completion Task, oral production task, etc. It is evident that there are very few empirical studies investigating the development of L2 pragmatic competence in China.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter is concerned with the methods and procedures used for the findings. The researcher focuses in the Improving of EFL Learners Communicative Use of Pragmatics in Real –Life Situations in the area of the study. This chapter consists of the research methods applied in this study; it includes: the data collection methods, the population target, the selection of samples, data collection instruments, data collection procedure and the data analysis methods.

### **3.1 Data Collection Tools**

The primary focus of interest in pragmatic research is the manner in which data is collected and analyzed. The researcher used descriptive analytical method. A variety of methodological approaches exist: quantitative, at its most basic, quantitative research must be précised, produced reliable and replicable data, and must produce statistically significant results that are readily generalizable, thus revealing broader tendencies. Quantitative research also provides researchers the administrative advantage of collecting a large corpus of data from many individuals in a short period of time.

Some researchers emphasize the importance of using qualitative approaches to complement the largely quantitative tradition of individual difference research (Hashimoto, 2002, p. 35). For example, Kasper (1998) pointed out that the multi-method approach could first reduce any possible task-bias, and consequently could increase in the level of objectivity in the findings. Second, similar findings from a number of instruments lead to a higher degree of reliability than reliance on a single source (p. 105). Barron (2002) criticized this “mixed methods” approach, arguing that

“it cannot be assumed that each approach will bring the same as the other approach to light or that where there are discrepancies in results that the one (or other) result will be overridden” (p. 81). Likewise, in the investigator’s view the multi-method approach cannot be seen as a ‘cure-all’ or as an easy process. The prevailing view that more data leads to greater reliability must be strongly reconsidered.

### **3.2 Population**

The population, targeted is EFL learners at Sudanese Universities and English language teachers at secondary school level.

### **3.3 Samples of the Study**

The samples of the study were chosen randomly of English language teachers among post graduated ELF learners from Gezira University, faculty of Education – Hasa-hisa and Albutana University, Faculty of Education, Rufaa’. The total number of female participants was 45, whereas male participants were 15 in number. Their age range was between 21 and nearly all participants had already received an average of more than ten years of formal English instruction in institutes, school and universities. The participants were majoring in English Language Teaching ELT, whom selected randomly from them batch four; the total number was 60 students. Also the second sample was chosen randomly from. Al-butana University, faculty of Education students batch three who were studying English language , the sample was about 60 students.

### **3.4 Data Collection**

The first step in developing an instrument to measure the communicative use of pragmatics was to review about Improving EFL Learners’ Communicative Use of Pragmatics in Real-Life Situations. Based on the review, the construct of pragmatic motivation was defined as the driving force to acquire L2 pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competencies, i.e. the impetus to learn the appropriate use of L2 in

real-world situations, appropriate L2 pragmatic strategies, L2 speech acts and their appropriate realization patterns and production, L2 politeness strategies, and L2 pragmatics routines. So the researcher used Discourse Completion Test Supporters of the WDCT assert that this test is able not only to test learners' pragmatic awareness, but also to assess learners' production on certain speech acts. In this test, the learners are asked to respond appropriately in written form based on short situational descriptions given. Thus, they also have to pay attention to some variables, such as social distance, relative power, and degree of imposition in each situation before giving their response, namely Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT) as well as a questionnaire which concerns with the questions of the study and its hypotheses.

### **3-5 Data Collection Procedure**

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study to determine the practical feasibility of the inquiry and to ensure clarity of the Discourse Completion Test. In the main study, participants first signed a consent form confirming their willingness to participate. The researchers provided the participants with detailed instructions about the tasks in their L2. The instruments were administered individually and each participant was asked to complete the written close WDCT and the questionnaire. The WDCT, composed of 12 items, while the questionnaire consists of 20 statements focused on the impact of teaching, construct and status of general communicative use of pragmatics on EFL learners in real life situations. The statements were written in Standard English using comprehensible vocabulary and structure so that the participants could easily read and comprehend them.

### **3-5-1 Validity of the Questionnaire**

The researcher deemed that the questions and the responses language to the appropriate intentionality with the flexibility in planning them within clarity about objectives and openness to various ways of achieving the responses. The test and the questionnaire were validated by the jury of three assistant professors specializes in English language. They based their comments on the following criteria:

- (i) The clarity of the items, instructions and the statements.
- (ii) The simplicity of the items, and how they related to the subject.
- (iii) The language used

Options are provided especially for sample, an aptitude for asking good questions and listening carefully to the advice given by the policy makers and the open dialogue shared with some of them with researcher's willingness.

### **3-5-2 Reliability of the WDCT**

In statistics, reliability is the consistency of a set of measurements often used to describe a test. For the reliability of the test, the study used the split- half method: A measure of consistency where the test is splitted in two and the score of each half of the test was compared with one another. The test was distributed to 10 students. The coefficient correlation formula was used to calculate the correlation:

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$



0.772681	CORREL
0.871765	RELIA
0.933684	VALID

$$x R y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

Where

R: reliability of the test

N: number of all items in the test

X: odd degrees

Y: even degrees

$\sum$  sum

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{2 \cdot R}{1 + R}$$

$$\text{Val} = \sqrt{\text{reliability} \cdot \sum}$$

$$N = 30$$

$$\sum x y = 3933$$

$$\sum x \sum y = 15692$$

$$\sum x^2 = 4774$$

$$\sum y^2 = 3285$$

$$(\sum x)^2 = 138384$$

$$(\sum y)^2 = 96721$$

The analysis shows that there was strong positive correlation between the answers given to the items asked:

PsQ. =067%

WDCT is implemented among the targeted sample of the students that to reflect performance, ideas concepts and decisions. To measure the researcher concentrated on the test which gives the same results if reapplied on the same group or other relevant group.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

A Prior to the field study the researcher used this test which contains a number of questions in accordance with the level meant. The responses of each group are analysed automatically by using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4- 0Introduction

This chapter introduces and describes data analysis. For the presentation of the results the researcher used SPSS percentages, tables and figures for more explanation.

#### 4- 1 the Analysis of the Test Questions

The test was set in order to measure information of the students in pragmatics.

Table (4-1) the use of pragmatics in real- life will develop the communicative use English language

Valid	Frequency	Percent
True	49	81.7
False	11	18.3
Total	60	100.0

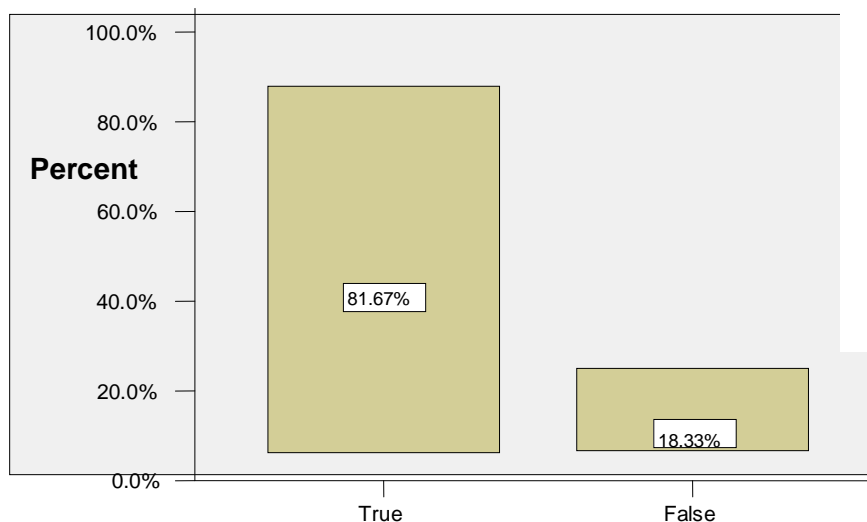
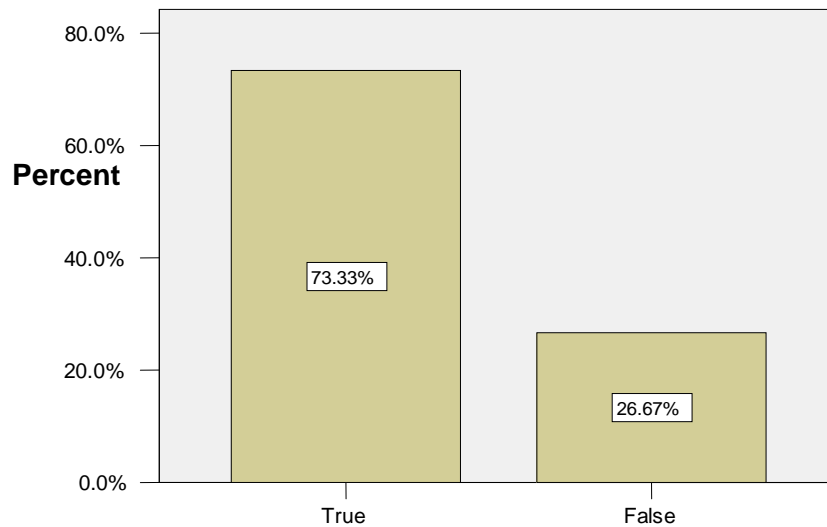


Figure (4.1)the use of pragmatics in real- life will develop the communicative use English language

According to the information in the table above 49 (81.67%) said that: the use of pragmatics in real- life will develop the communicative use English language is true while 11 (18.33%) of the students said false.

**Table (4- 2)** the use of pragmatics in real- life plays important roles in learning English

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	True	44	73.3
	False	16	26.7
	Total	60	100.0



**Figure (4- 2)** the use of pragmatics in real- life plays important roles in learning English

As seen from the above in table (4.2) 44(73.33%) of the sample said that: the use of pragmatics in real- life plays important roles in learning English where as 16 (26.67) answered were false.

Table (4-3) introducing instruction inside the classroom through Pragmatic.

	Frequency	Percent
True	33	55%
False	27	45%

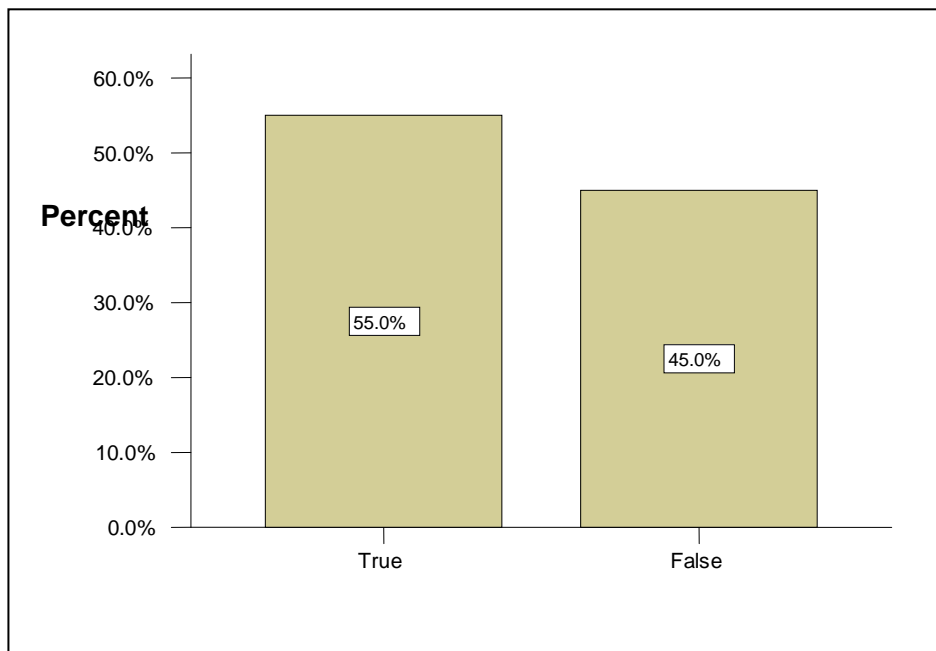


Figure (4-3) Pragmatic should be introduced through instruction inside the classroom.

According to the data shown in table (4-3) 33(55%) of the students answered in the option of true while 27(45%) said false for the statement of Pragmatic should be introduced through instruction inside the classroom.

Table (4-4) performing speech function appropriately in social contexts refers to the ability to pragmatic production.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	True	47	78.3
	False	13	21.7
	Total	60	100.0

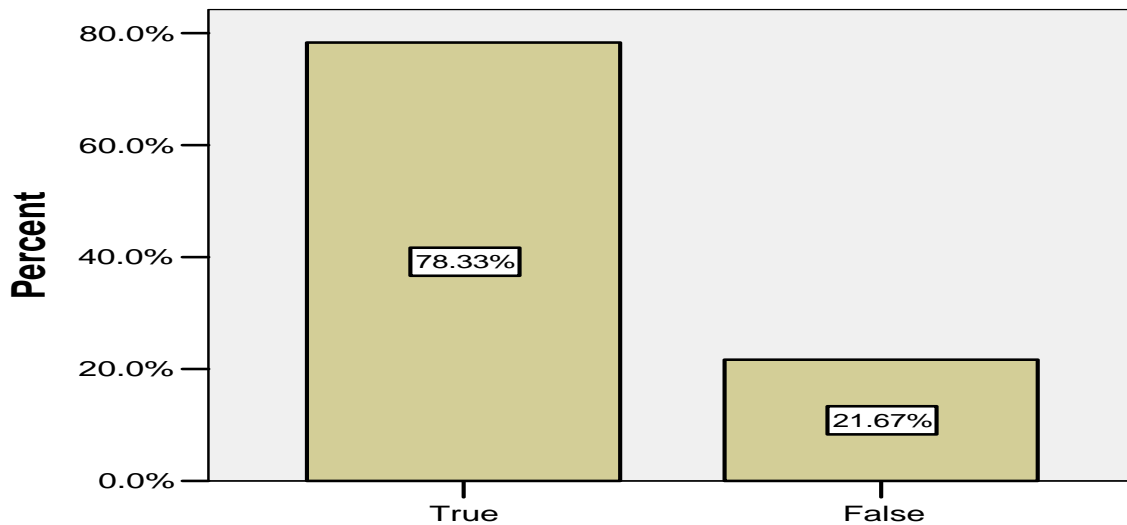


Figure (4-4) performing speech function appropriately in social contexts refers to the ability to pragmatic production.

As seen from the table above that 47(78.33%) of the students answered true for the fourth statement, which said Pragmatic production refers to the ability to perform speech function appropriately in social contexts, while 13 (21.67%) said false.

Table (4-5) evaluating students level of competence in communication.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Good	26	43.3
	Acceptable	24	40.0
	Poor	10	16.7
	Total	60	100.0

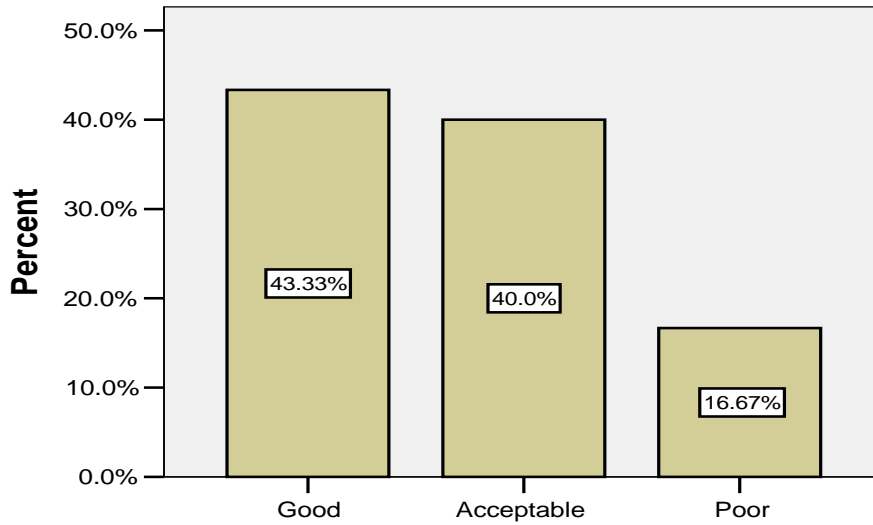


Figure (4-5) evaluating students level of competence in communication.

It is clear from the table above we notice that the levels the students vary on the competence in communication the researcher find that 26(43.33%) are good in competence n communication, while 24(40%) are good, and the rest of the sample are poor in communication.

Table (4- 6) evaluating students linguistic pragmatics competence

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very Satisfying	13	21.7
	Satisfying	26	43.3
	Not Satisfying	21	35.0
	Total	60	100.0

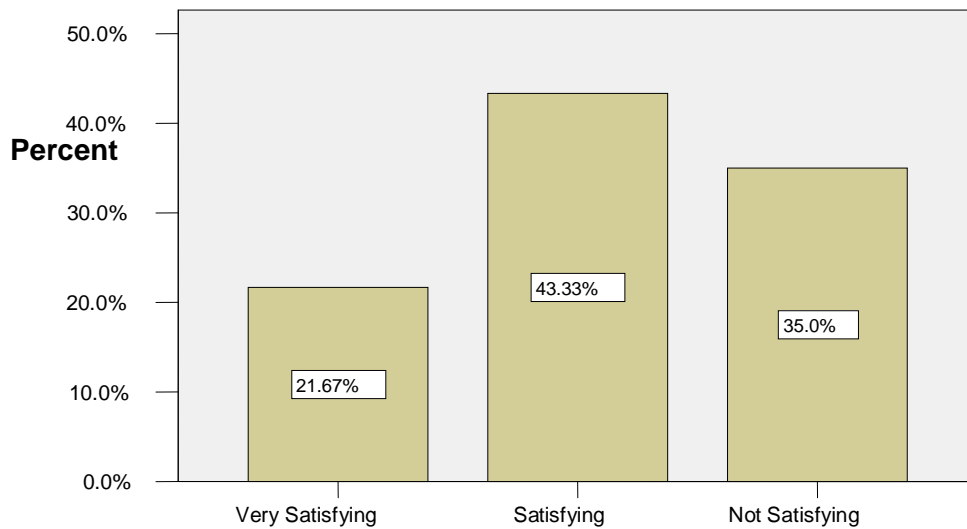


Figure (4- 6) evaluating students linguistic pragmatics competence

According to information on the above table, the students evaluate themselves 13(21.67%) say that their level in linguistic pragmatics competence was very satisfying while 26(43.33) say that their level was satisfying; whereas 21(35%) say that their level was not satisfying.



Table (4-7) expecting level of communicative competence when: a student is considered as having achieved the:

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	He talks a grammatically correct language	27	45.0
	He has the appropriate things to say in a wide range	11	18.3
	He is creative and in using the language in classroom	22	36.7
	Total	60	100.0

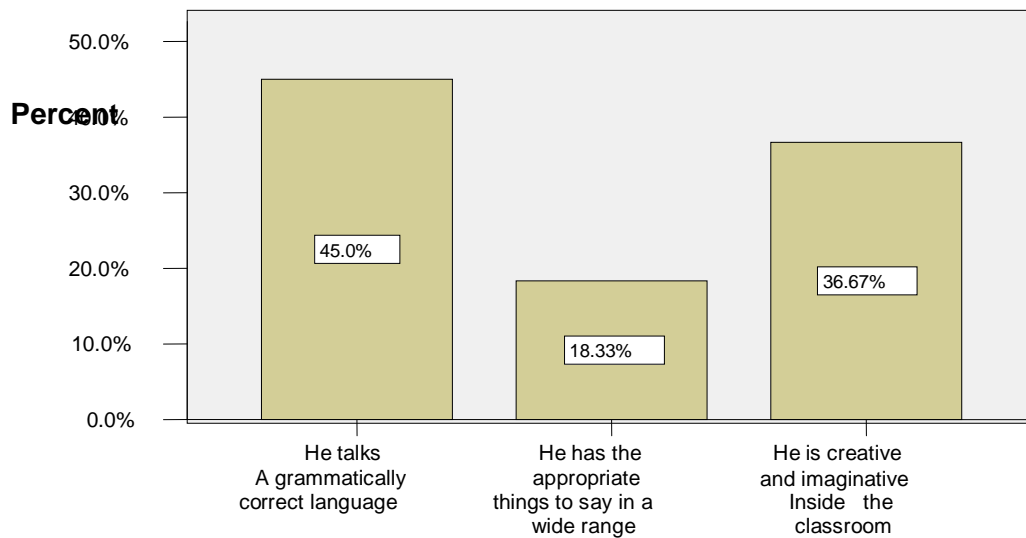


Figure (4-7) expecting level of communicative competence when: a student is considered as having achieved.

From the above table, 27 (45%) of the student achieved the expected level of communicative competence when: they talk grammatically correct language as well as 11(18.33%) of the students that have the appropriate things to say in a wide range, more over 22(36.67%) of the students were creative and imaginative inside the classroom.

Table (4-8) neglecting speaking is in the classroom

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	40	66.7
	No	20	33.3
	Total	60	100.0

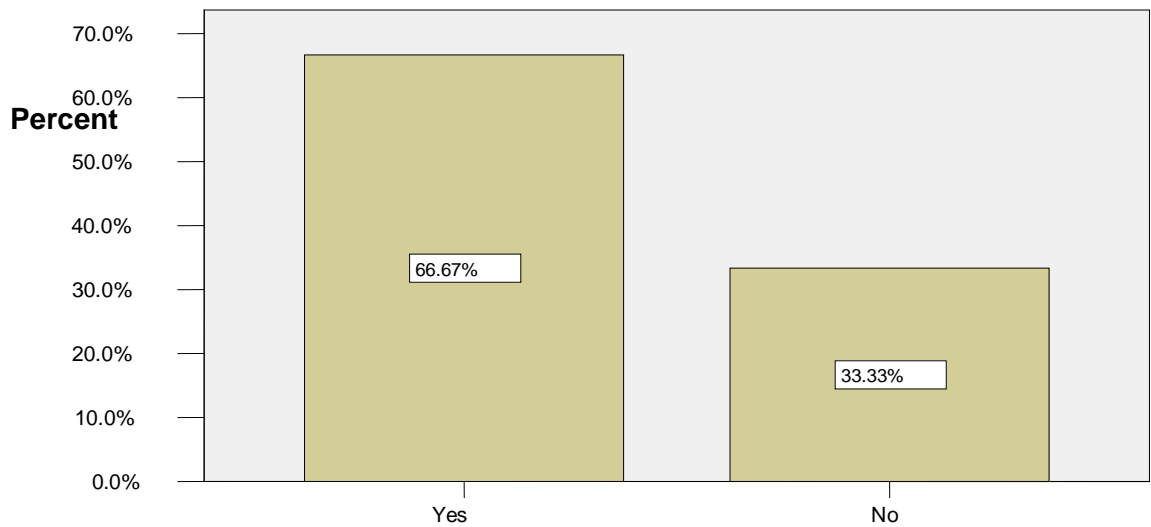


Figure (4-8) neglecting speaking is in the classroom

Two thirds of the student's views about the neglecting of speaking inside the classroom were positive while the third of the students view about this statement was negative.

Table (4-9) causing of learners' poor communicative abilities is the poor knowledge about the FL speech community's cultural rules and social norms.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	34	56.7
	No	26	43.3
	Total	60	100.0

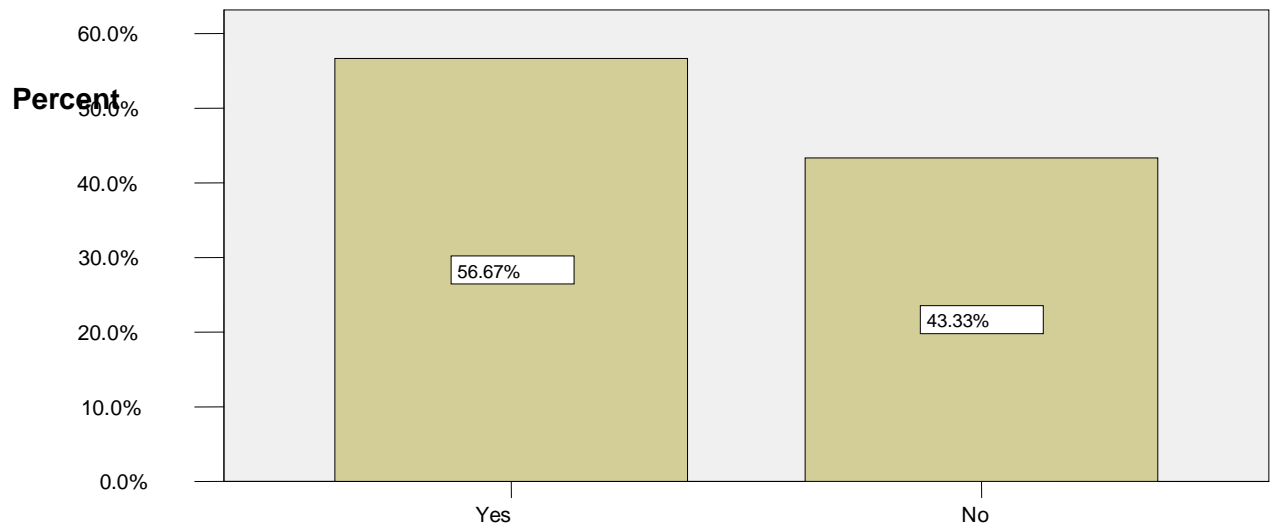


Figure causing of learners' poor communicative abilities is the poor knowledge about the FL speech community's cultural rules and social norms.

Based on the information on the above table, 34(56.7%) of the questioned students agreed that the poor knowledge about the FL speech community's cultural rules and social norms is the cause of learners' poor communicative abilities, where as 26(43.3%) of the students not agree not agree about this statement.

Table (4-10) attaining pragmatics in real life situation through the audio lingual method or the communicative approach

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	30	50.0
	No	30	50.0
	Total	60	100.0

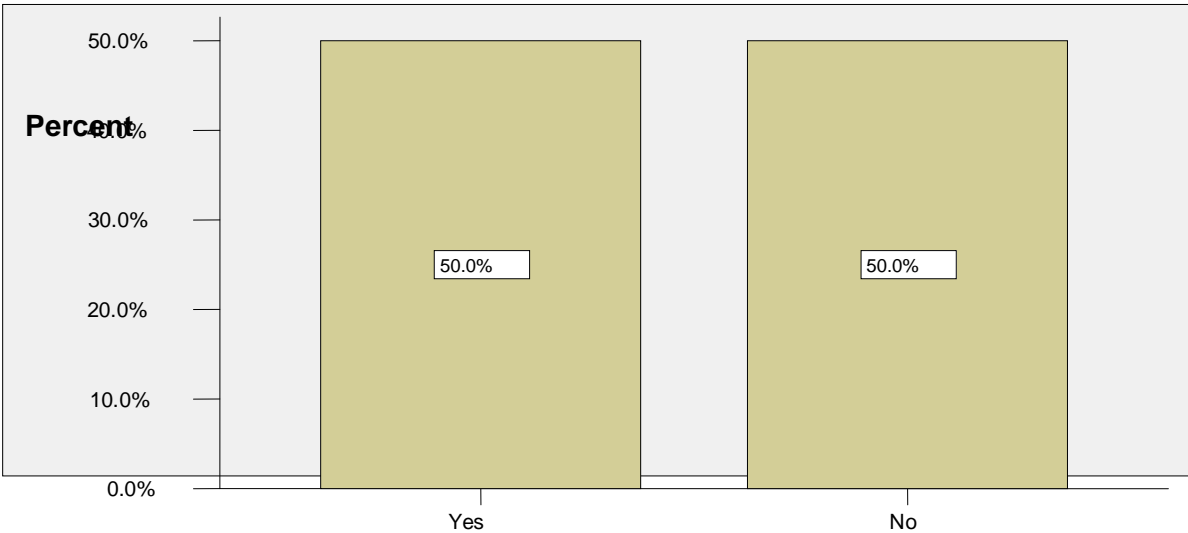


Figure (4-10) attaining pragmatics in real life situation through the audio lingual method or the communicative approach

As seen in the above table half of the students agreed that the audio lingual method is the most appropriate to attain pragmatics in real life situations, while the second half of the students believe that the communicative is suitable method for this role.

Table (4-11) developing competence of communication through the method of teaching pragmatics.

		Percent	
Valid	Yes	48	80.0
	No	12	20.0
	Total	60	100.0

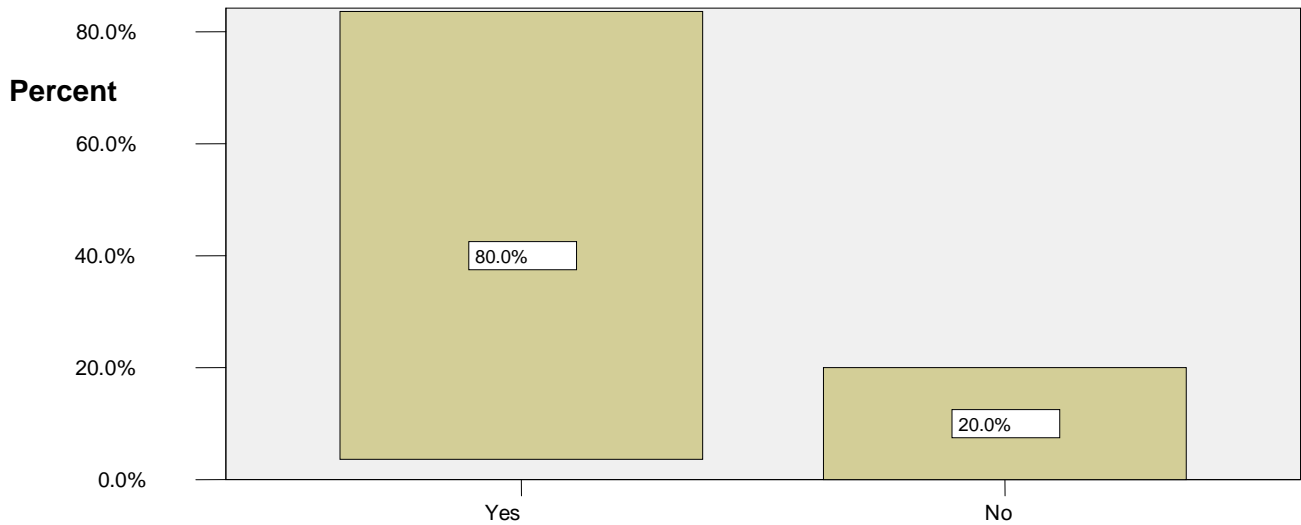


Figure (4-11) developing competence of communication through the method of teaching pragmatics.

Based on the information on the above table, 48(80%) of the students answered with yes about teaching method is an opportunity to develop competence in communication through pragmatics while 12(20%) answered with no.

Table (4-12) exposing students to the English culture improves their pragmatics competence and therefore their communicative competence

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	42	70.0
	No	18	30.0
	Total	60	100.0

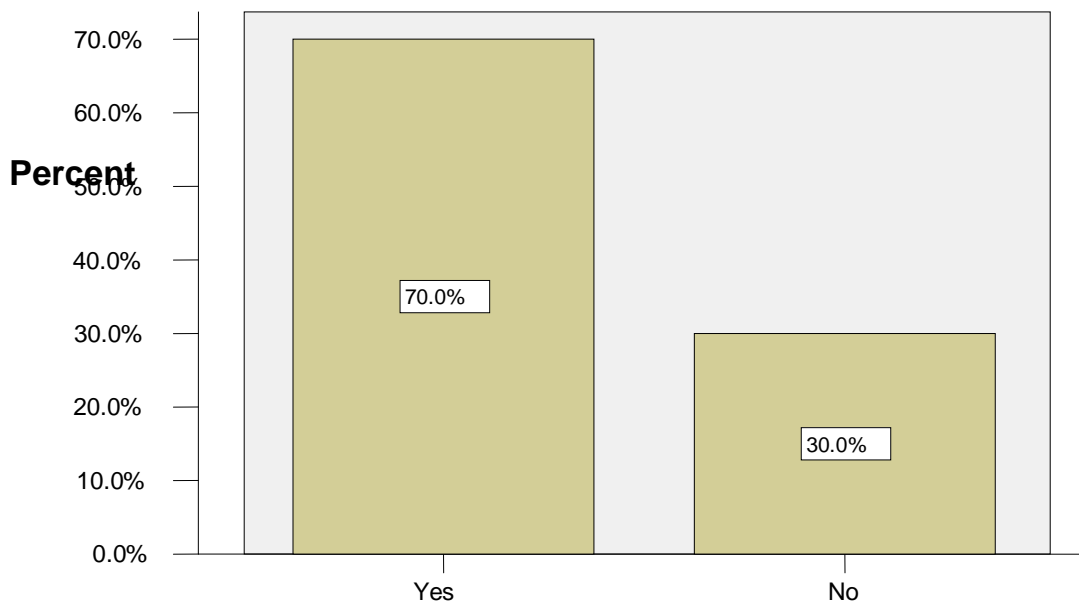


Figure (4-12) exposing students to the English culture improves their pragmatics competence and therefore their communicative competence

It is clear from the above table 42(70%) said yes for that that exposing students to the English culture improves their pragmatics competence and therefore their communicative competence, while 18 (30%) said no.

## 4.2 The Results of the Test Analysis

Based on the analysis of the test statements the following are the results of this analysis: The using of pragmatics in real life will develop the communicative use of English language; and play an important role in English learning, also the students prefer that pragmatics should be introduced through instructions inside the classroom; as well as pragmatics production means that the ability to perform speech function appropriately in social contexts. Furthermore, the students levels in competence of communication were shared between good and acceptable, in addition to their linguistics pragmatic competence vary between very satisfying, satisfying and not satisfying. Besides to that nearly half of the students will achieve the level of communicative competence when the talk a grammatically correct whereas the rest of the second half was shared n when the students use the language in a wide range and in a creative or imaginative inside the classroom, beside to most of the students view was that there was a neglecting for speaking skill inside the classroom, as well as , the poor knowledge about FL community stands behinds the poor of communicative abilities. Also the student's views were shared between the using audio-lingual and communicative methods to attain pragmatics situations, moreover, the most students view was that teaching method was a chance for developing competence in communication, in addition to the exposition of students to English culture assists in improving pragmatics competence.

### 4-3The Analysis of the Questionnaire Statements

The statistical analysis of the questionnaire statements are shown the following tables and diagrams

**Tables (4-3-1) Data analysis and Dissection**

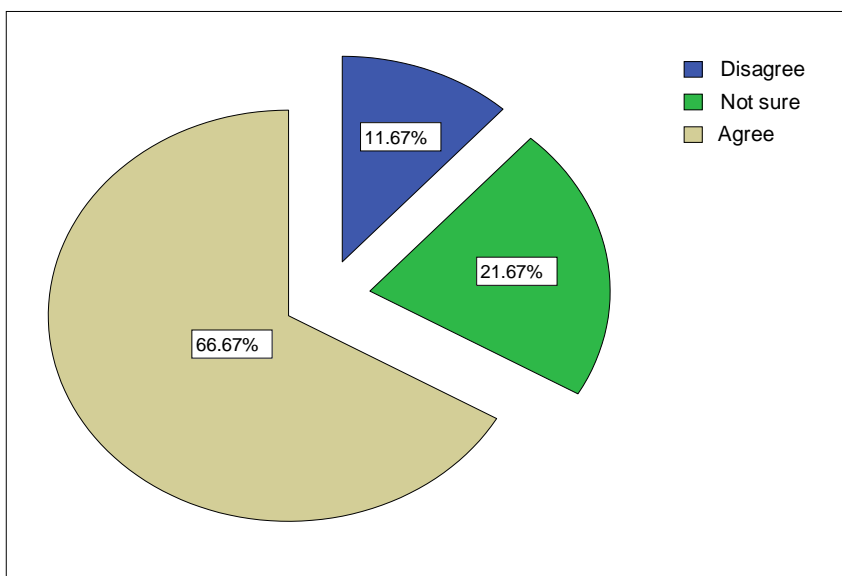
NO	STATEMENTS	N	MEAN	Std. Deviation	T	DF	Sig. (2-tailed )	RESULT	REPORT
1	S1	60	2.55	.699	6.092	59	.000		
2	S2	60	2.25	.895	2.164	59	.035		
3	S3	60	2.60	.669	6.948	59	.000		
4	S4	60	2.78	.490	12.375	59	.000		
5	S5	60	2.80	.514	12.051	59	.000		
6	S6	60	1.70	.830	-2.801	59	.007		
7	S7	60	1.90	.933	-.830	59	.410		
8	S8	60	1.72	.940	-2.334	59	.023		
9	S9	60	1.83	.886	-1.457	59	.150		
10	S10	60	2.45	.790	4.411	59	.000		
11	S11	60	1.75	.876	-2.211	59	.031		
12	S12	60	2.42	.766	4.216	59	.000		
13	S13	60	2.62	.666	7.170	59	.000		
14	S14	60	2.58	.766	5.902	59	.000		
15	S15	60	2.78	.524	11.585	59	.000		
16	S16	60	2.52	.770	5.197	59	.000		
17	S17	60	2.70	.619	8.761	59	.000		
18	S18	60	2.83	.557	11.580	59	.000		
19	S19	60	2.43	.789	4.254	59	.000		
20	S20	60	2.52	.792	5.055	59	.000		

Test Value = 3



Tables (4-3-2) Using L1 instructions by English language teachers.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	7	11.7
	Not sure	13	21.7
	Agree	40	66.7
Total		60	100.0

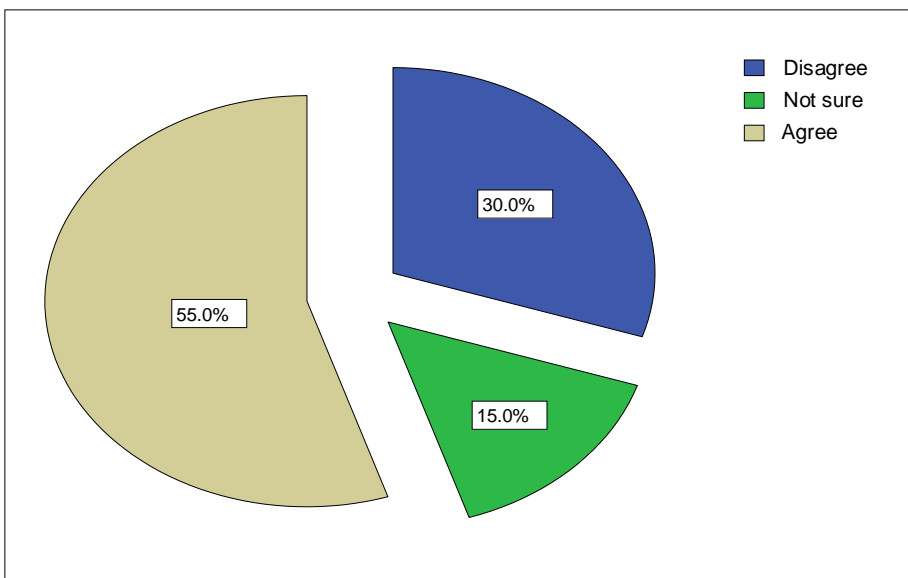


As seen in the above table that, 40 (66.7%) of the teacher agreed that they used L1 in their instructions, whereas 13(21.7%) not sure about that, and 7(11.67%) disagree about the statement.

Table (4-3-3)Using the target language in their instructions for the students by

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	18	30.0
	Not sure	9	15.0
	Agree	33	55.0
	Total	60	100.0

Teachers.

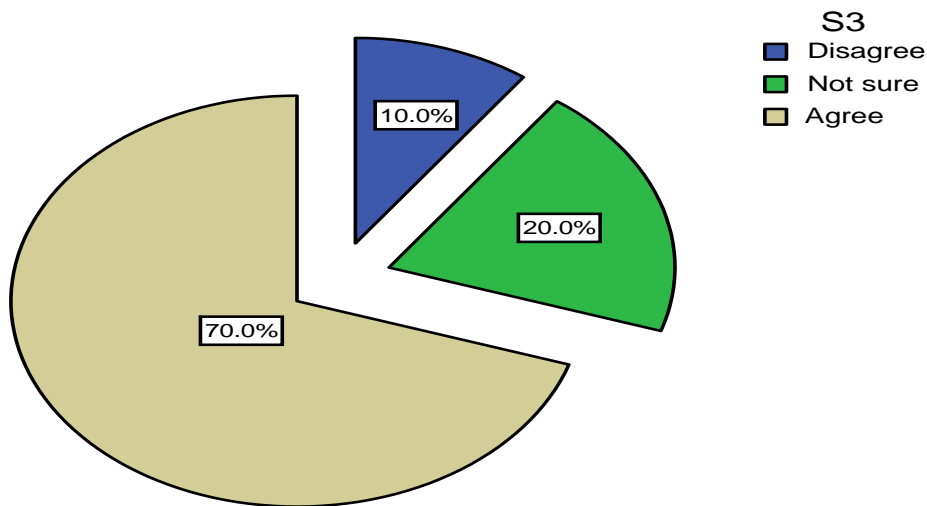


Based on the information of the above table, 33(55%) of the respondents were agree that teachers do not use the target language in their instructions for the students, 18(30%) were disagree, and 9(15%) were not sure about this statement.

Table (4-3-4) Using of Grammar Translation Method by most of Sudanese English

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	10.0
	Not sure	12	20.0
	Agree	42	70.0
	Total	60	100.0

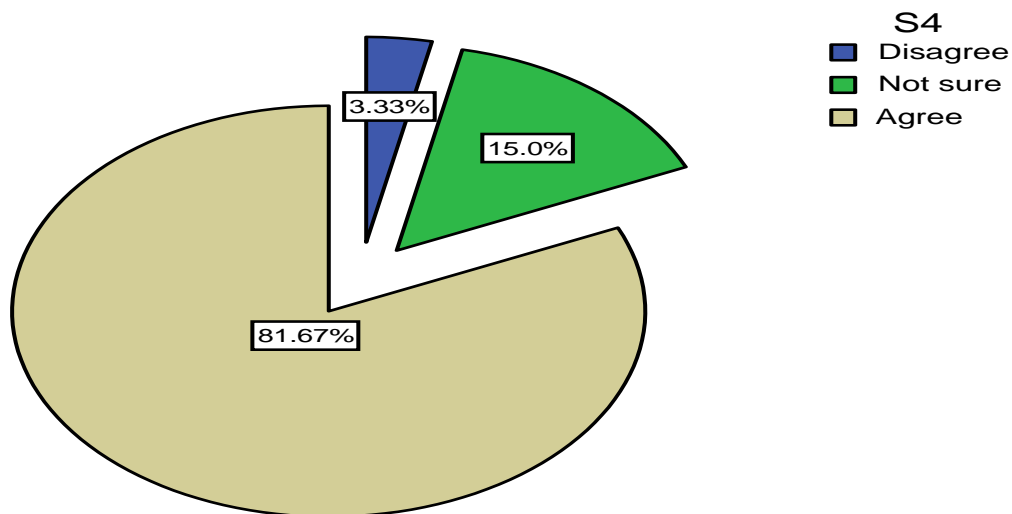
language teachers.



From the above table that 42(70%) of the questioned teachers agree that most of Sudanese English language teachers use Grammar Translation Method, 12(20%) were not sure, and 6(10%) were disagree.

Table (4-3-5) needing of implementing communicative approach in their teaching process by most of Sudanese English language teachers.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	3.3
	Not sure	9	15.0
	Agree	49	81.7
	Total	60	100.0

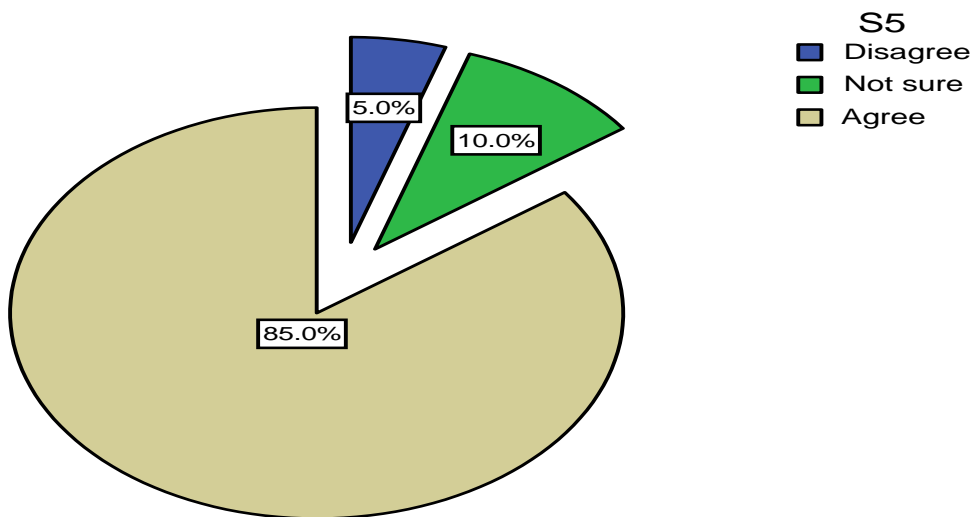


It is clear from the above table that 49(81.7%) of the respondents were agree that most of Sudanese English language teachers need to implement communicative approach in their teaching process, 9 (15%) were not sure, and 2(3.3%) of the sample were disagree.

Table (4-3-6) the needing of training in how to make the situation of the classroom communicative one for most of Sudanese English language teachers.

**S5**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	3	5.0
	Not sure	6	10.0
	Agree	51	85.0
	Total	60	100.0

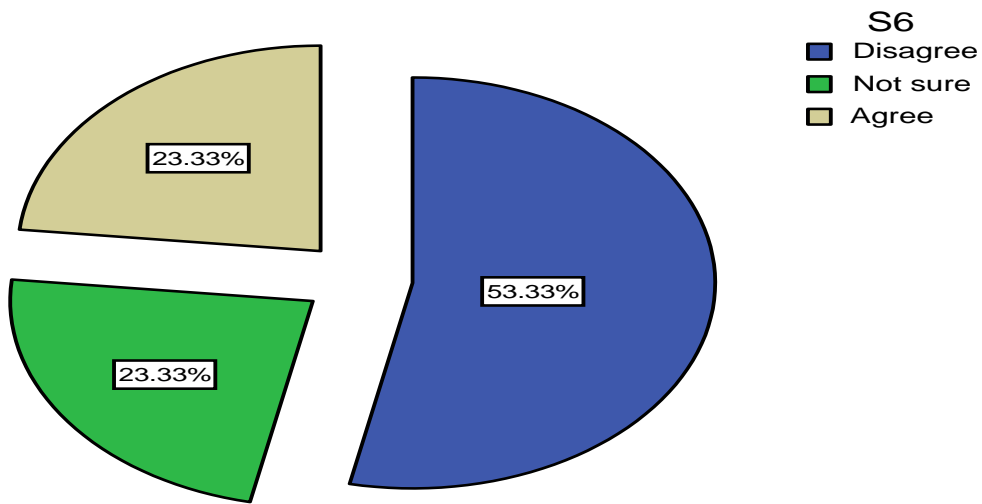


As seen from the above table that 51( 85%) of the sample agree that most of Sudanese English language teachers need training in how to make the situation of the classroom communicative one, while 6(10%) were not sure and 3(5%) were disagree.

Table (4-3-7) providing pragmatic information for learners to acquire pragmatic competence through Students' textbooks.

**S6**

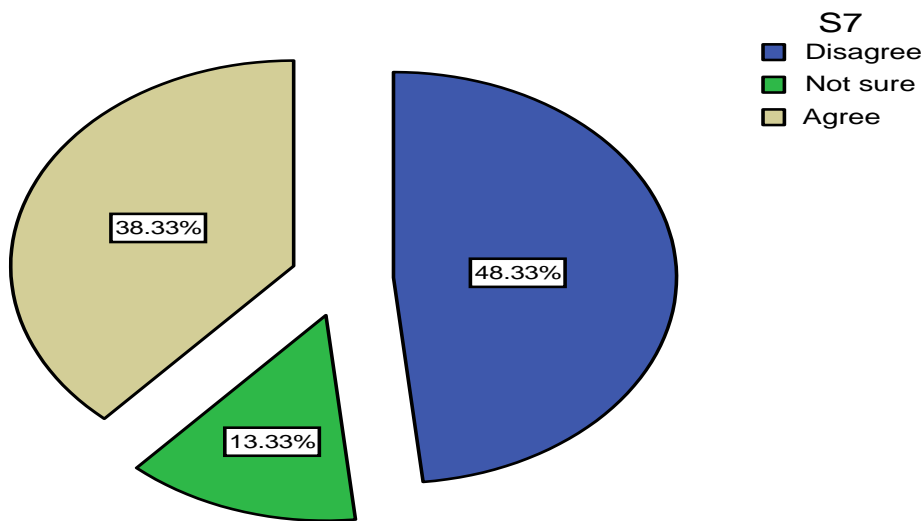
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	32	53.3
	Not sure	14	23.3
	Agree	14	23.3
	Total	60	100.0



According to the data of the above table, 32 (53.3%) of the questioned teachers were disagree that Students' textbooks provide pragmatic information for learners to acquire pragmatic competence, while the rest of the respondents shared between not sure and disagree.

Table (4-3-8) providing the students with communicative activities through Student's textbooks.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	29	48.3
	Not sure	8	13.3
	Agree	23	38.3
	Total	60	100.0

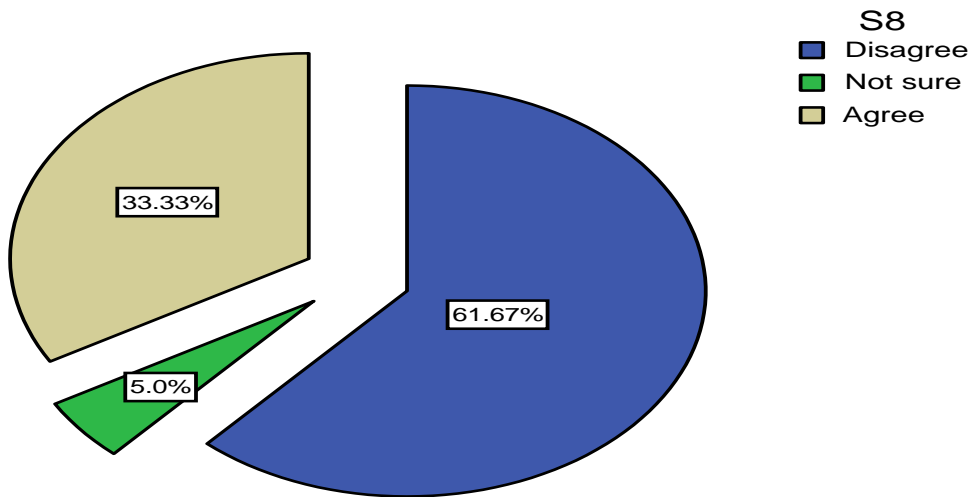


It is clear from the above table that, 29(48.3%) of the respondents disagree with that the Student's textbooks provide the students with communicative activities, 8 (13.3%) were not sure while 23(38.3%) were agree with the statement.

Table (4-3-9) encouraging the students to use the language outside the classroom by Student's textbooks.

**S8**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	37	61.7
	Not sure	3	5.0
	Agree	20	33.3
	Total	60	100.0



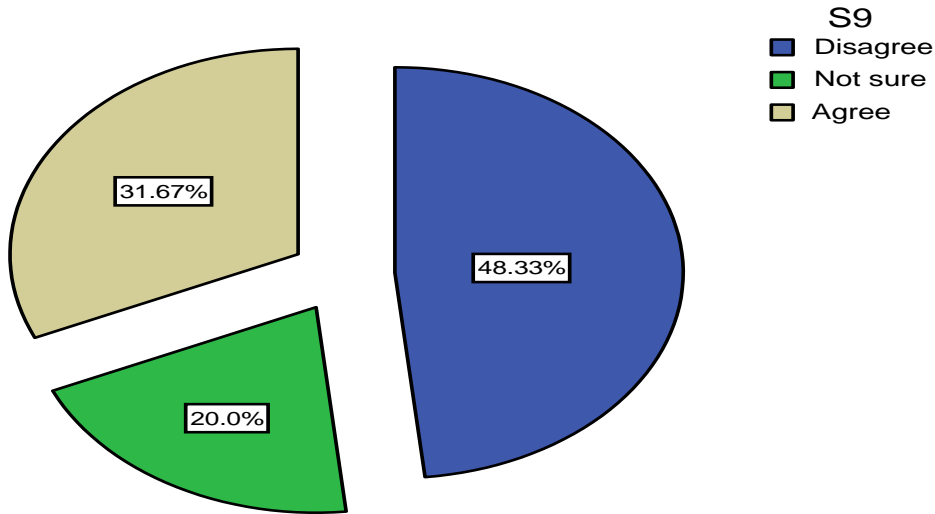
As seen from the above table that, 37 (61.7%) of the questioned teachers were disagree with Student's textbooks encourage the students to use the language outside the classroom, 20 (33.3%) were agree, while 3 (5%) were not sure with the statement.



Table (4-3-10) assisting the students to acquire cultural uses of the target language through Student textbook.

**S9**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	29	48.3
	Not sure	12	20.0
	Agree	19	31.7
	Total	60	100.0

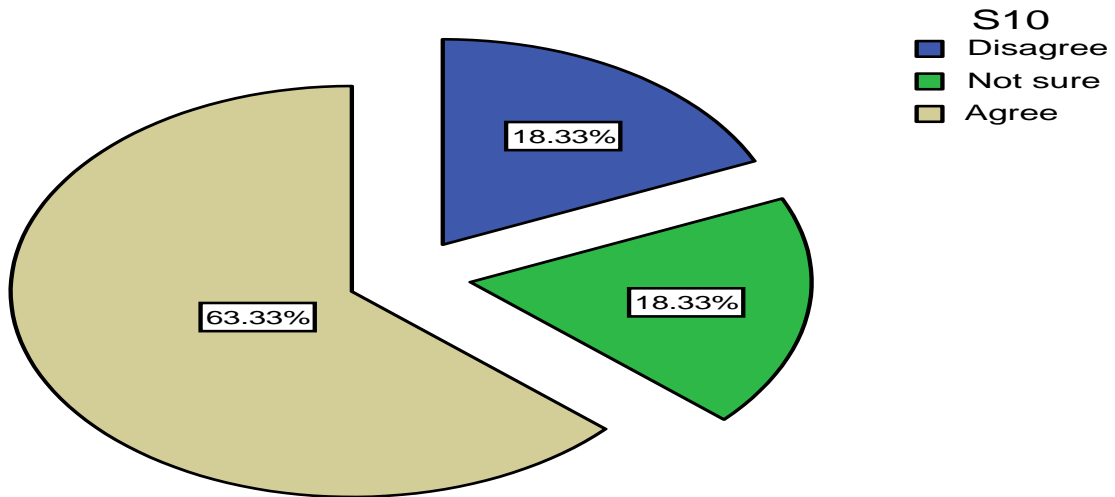


Based on the data of the above table that, 29(48.3%) of the sample disagree with Students textbook assist the students to acquire cultural uses of the target language; 12(20%) not sure about that and 19(31.7%) were agree with the above statement.

Table (4-3-11) reflecting the daily use of target language and suitable situations through Student's textbooks.

**S10**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	11	18.3
	Not sure	11	18.3
	Agree	38	63.3
	Total	60	100.0

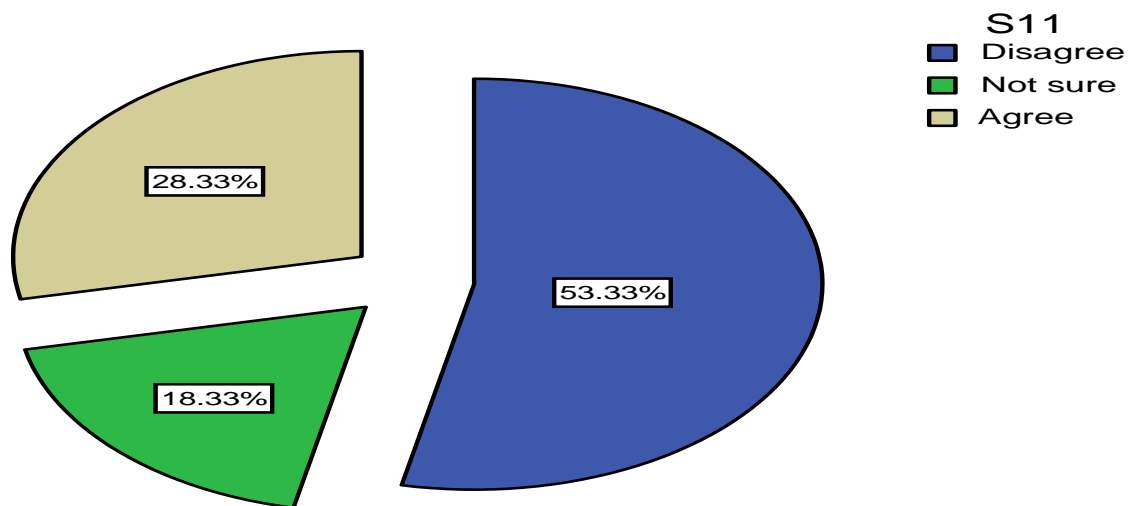


from the above table that 38(63.33%) of the questioned teachers agree that; Student's textbooks lack suitable situations that reflect the daily use of target language; whereas the rest of the subject share the same rate between disagree and not sure.

Table (4-3-12) the using of communicative method and techniques by the teachers in EFL classes.

**S11**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	32	53.3
	Not sure	11	18.3
	Agree	17	28.3
	Total	60	100.0

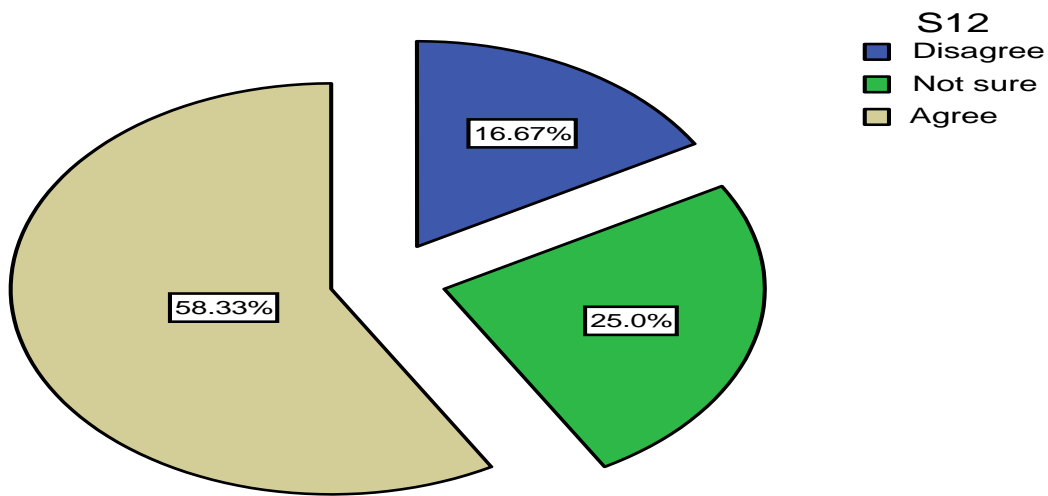


It is clear from the above table that, 32(53.3%) of the subjects were disagree that methods and techniques teachers use in EFL classes are communicative one; 11(18.33%) were not sure, while 17(28.33%) were agree.

Table (4-3-13) the containing of pupil's books in not pragmatics.

**S12**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	16.7
	Not sure	15	25.0
	Agree	35	58.3
	Total	60	100.0

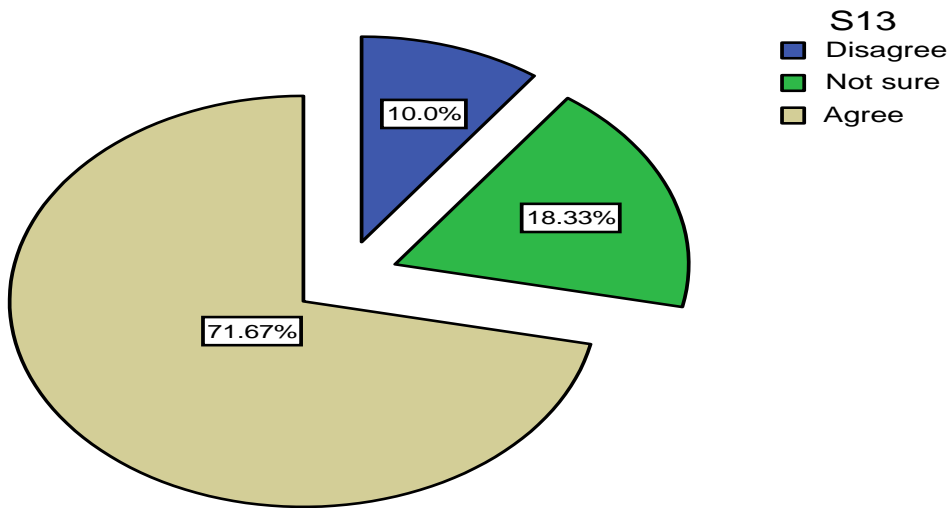


According to the information showed on the above table,35(58.3%) of the questioned teachers, agreed that teachers do not know whether pupil's books contain pragmatics or no, while 15(25%) were not sure, and 10(16.7%)were disagree.

Table (4-2-14) neglecting the role of situational language in improving student's competence by EFL teachers.

**S13**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	10.0
	Not sure	11	18.3
	Agree	43	71.7
	Total	60	100.0



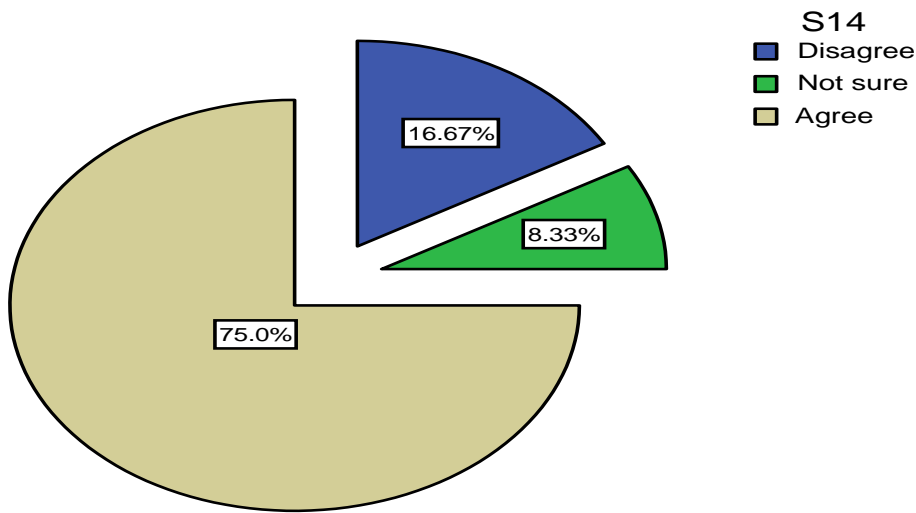
Based on the information on the above table, 43(71.7%) of the questioned teachers agreed that EFL teachers neglect the role of situational language in improving student's competence, while 11(18.3%) were not sure, and 5(10%) were disagree about this statement.

Table (4-3-15) satisfying the learners' needs in Pragmatic contents in student's

**S14**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	16.7
	Not sure	5	8.3
	Agree	45	75.0
Total		60	100.0

textbooks.

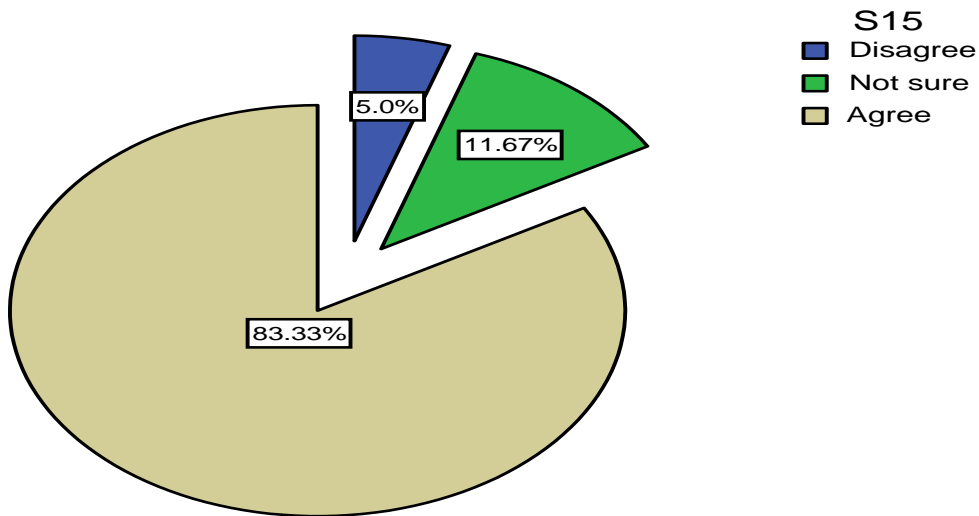


As seen from the above table that, 45(75%) of the questioned teachers were agreed that pragmatic contents in student's textbooks do not satisfy the learners' needs; while 10(16.67%) were disagree and 5(8.3%) were not sure.

Table (4-2-16) reflecting the cultural dimensions of the native speakers by Pragmatic contents in student's textbooks.

**S15**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	3	5.0
	Not sure	7	11.7
	Agree	50	83.3
	Total	60	100.0

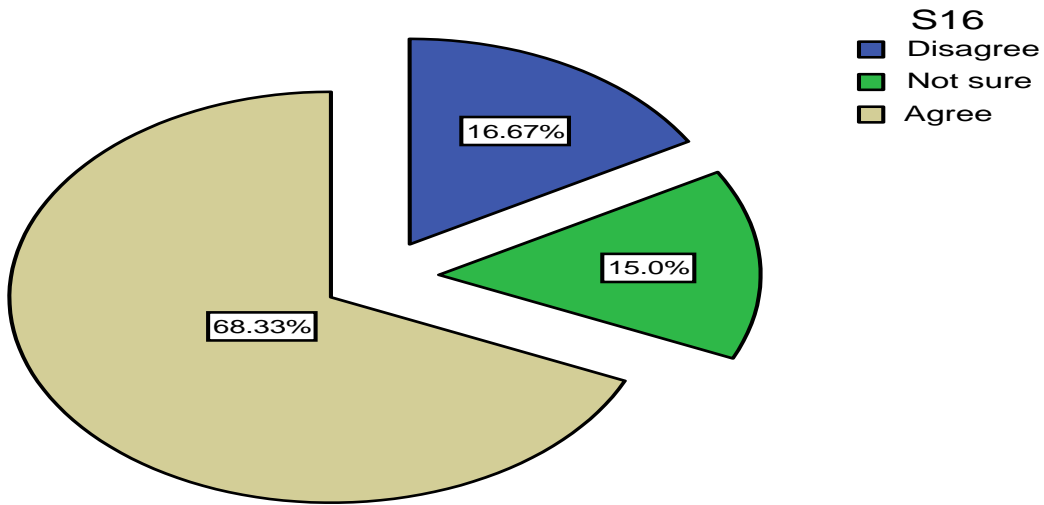


It is clear from the above table, 50 (83.3%) of the sample agree that pragmatic contents of student's textbooks do not reflect the cultural dimensions of the native speakers, while 7(11.7%) were not sure, and 3(5%) were disagree.

Table (4-3-17) aware of the uses of situational language by EFL students.

**S16**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	10	16.7
	Not sure	9	15.0
	Agree	41	68.3
	Total	60	100.0



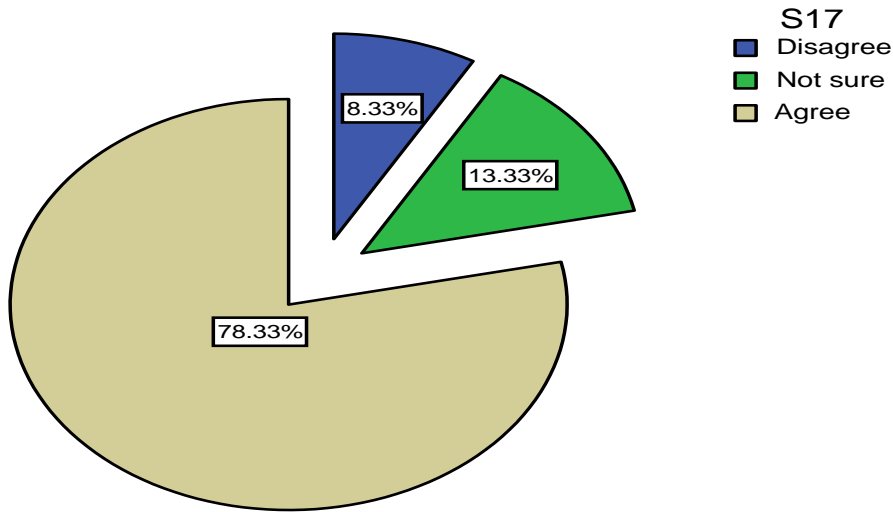
More than two thirds of the questioned teachers were agree that EFL students are not aware of the uses of situational language; while the t last third was share between not sure, and disagree.



Table (4-3-18) the feeling of ashamed to use the language outside the classroom by EFL Sudanese students.

**S17**

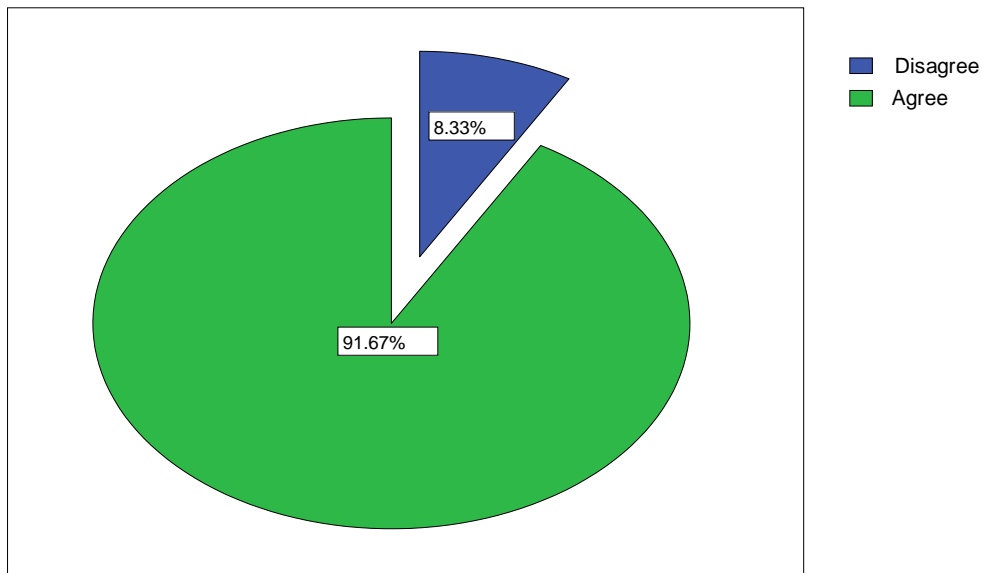
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	5	8.3
	Not sure	8	13.3
	Agree	47	78.3
	Total	60	100.0



As seen in the above table that, 47(78.3%) of the questioned teachers agree that EFL Sudanese students feel ashamed to use the language outside the classroom; while 8(13.33%) were not sure and 5(8.3%) were disagree about this statement.

Table (4-3-19) Focusing on how get a good marks rather than acquiring the language by EFL Sudanese students’.

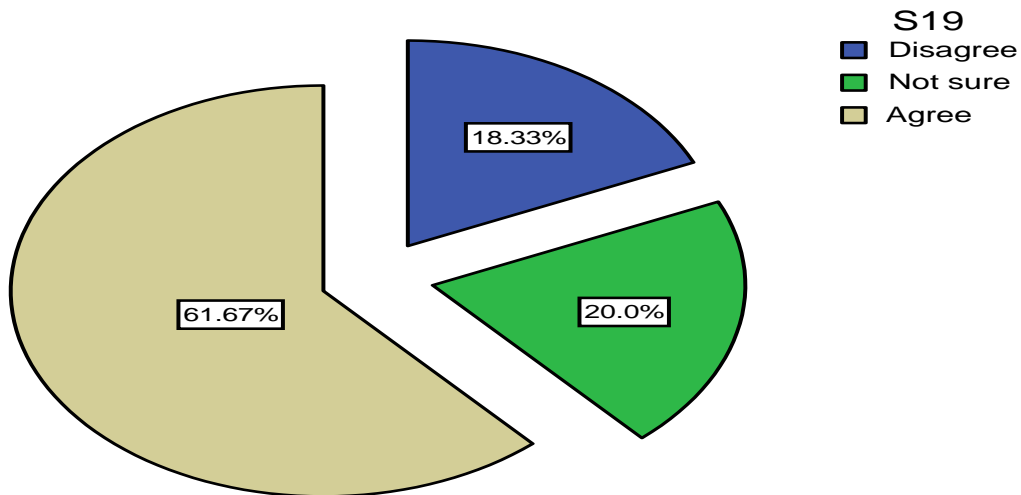
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	5	8.3
	Agree	55	91.7
	Total	60	100.0



It is clear from the above table most of the teachers questioned 55(91.7%) agree that EFL Sudanese students’ focus on how get a good marks rather than acquiring the language.

Table (4-3-20) the negative effects of Grammar Translation Method by Sudanese EFL learners.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	11	18.3
	Not sure	12	20.0
	Agree	37	61.7
	Total	60	100.0



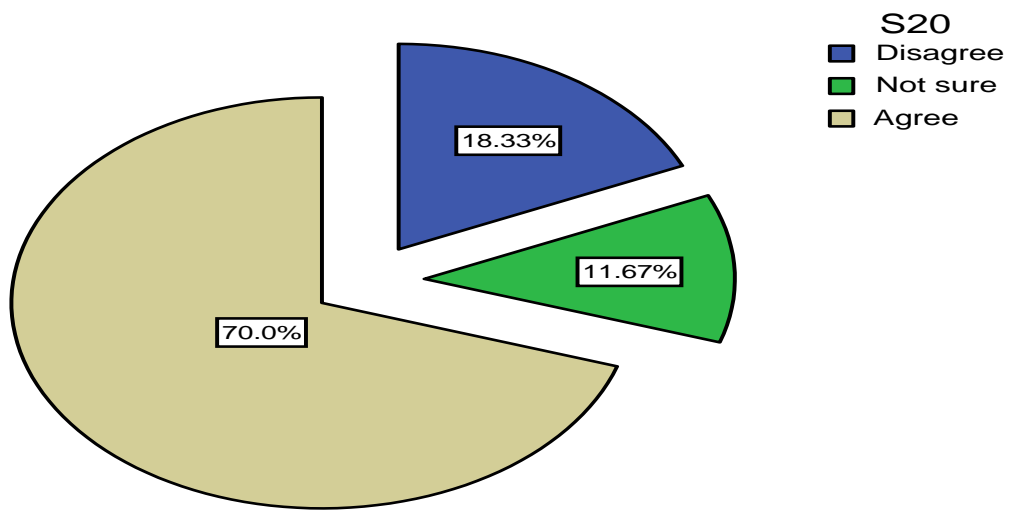
As seen in the above table that 37(61.7%) of the sample agree that grammar translation method has negative effects on Sudanese EFL learners; 11(18.33%) were disagree and 12 (20%) were not sure.

Table (4-3-21) Using of situational language appropriately by most of Sudanese EFL

**S20**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Disagree	11	18.3
	Not sure	7	11.7
	Agree	42	70.0
	Total	60	100.0

learners



Based on the information on the above table 42 (70%) of the teachers questioned agree that most of Sudanese EFL learners do not use situational language appropriately, while 11(18.33%) disagree, and 7(11.67%) were not sure about this statement.

#### **4.4 The Results of the Questionnaire Analysis**

According to the analysis of the questionnaire statements the following are the results:

Most of the Sudanese English language teachers use the Arabic language in their instructions for the EFL learners so the teachers ignore to use the target language, also the teachers use grammar Translation Approach which emphasizes on reading and writing and ignores listening and speaking, so most of Sudanese EFL teachers need to implement the communicative language teaching in their teaching process, in addition to that Sudanese English teachers need training in how to change the situation of the classroom into communicative one, add to that students' textbooks does not provide pragmatics elements for the learners to acquire pragmatic competence, further to this students' textbooks does not provide with communicative activities, as well as the students' textbooks does not encourage the students to use the language outside the classroom, also students' textbooks does not assist the students to acquire the cultural uses of the target language, beside to that students' textbooks lack suitable situations that reflect the daily uses of the target language. Thus the outcomes for the previous results are that the methods and the approaches that the teachers used are not communicative one also Sudanese English language teachers do not know whether the students' textbooks contain pragmatics situations or not, moreover, EFL teachers neglect the role of situational language in improving students competence in the language uses, also pragmatics contents in students' textbooks does not satisfy the learners needs, and, does not reflect the cultural dimension of the native speakers, in addition to EFL learners do not aware of the uses of situational language, so the result is that most of Sudanese EFL learners feel a shame to use the language outside the classroom, because, they just focus on how to get good marks in the exams rather than to acquire the language, as a result of the negative effect of Grammar Translation

Approach on Sudanese EFL learners, hence the most of Sudanese EFL learners lack of the uses of situational language appropriately.

#### 4.5 Testing Hypotheses in Relation to the Results

The topic tries to ensure and test the hypotheses that may answer previous questions.

**Hypothesis one:** Students textbooks lack communicative situations for EFL learners.

According to statistical analysis of table (4.4) two thirds of the respondents agree that pragmatic production refer to the perform of speech act production in real life situations, and this what our textbooks lack moreover in table(4.8) 66% of the questioned students agree that speaking skill is ignored inside the classroom, as well as, in table (4.11) 80% of the sample agree that the methods of teaching is an opportunity for developing competence in communication, also in tables(4.3) and (4.3.3) more than the half of the respondents agree that there isn't communicative situations, also according to the analysis of table (4.3.1) most of Sudanese English language teachers use L1 in their instructions so the teachers do not use the target language inside the classroom, furthermore, as the result in table (4.3.4) 70% of the questioned teachers agree that most Sudanese English language teachers use Grammar Translation Approach, which ignore listening and speaking, in addition to the analysis of table (4.3.5) most of respondents agree that most of Sudanese English language teachers need to implement communicative language teaching in their teaching process, thus all the above information is an evidence for that Students textbooks lack communicative situations for EFL learners.

**Hypothesis Two:** English language teachers know that learners' textbook contents do not include pragmatics:

According to the analysis of table (4.3.7) more than the half of the respondents disagree that the students textbooks provide pragmatics information for the learners to acquire pragmatic competence, also in table (4.3.8) 48% of the questioned teachers disagree that students textbooks provide the students with communicative activities which reflect pragmatic, as well as nearly two thirds of the respondents disagree with that students textbooks encourage the student to use the language outside the classroom, and this according to the weakness of the students to use the language properly as showed in table(4.3.9), in addition to according to table (4.3.10) nearly half of the questioned teachers disagree that students textbooks assist the students to acquire cultural uses of target language and this emphasizes that the students textbooks do not contain pragmatic uses,also according to table (4.3.11) 60% of the respondents agree that students textbooks lack suitable situations that reflect the daily use of the target language. All of the results which mentioned above ensure that the teacher know that the students textbooks do not contain pragmatic.

**Hypotheses Three:** English language teachers do not know the contents of EFL learner's textbooks of pragmatics are appropriate for them.

Based on the analysis of table (4.3.12) 32 (53.3%) of the respondents teachers disagree that the methods and the techniques that used in EFL classrooms are communicative and this emphasises that student's textbooks lack of a suitable situations for the daily use of the target language, instead the teachers depend on the using of Grammar Translation Approach. Moreover in table (4.3.13) 35(58.3%) Of the respondents agree that teachers do not know whether the student's textbooks contain pragmatic or not, so this appears in shortage of using real life contexts like: thanking, refusing, apologizing, condoling and other contexts. As well as in table (4.3.14) 43 (71.3%) of the respondents agree that Sudanese English language teachers neglect the role of situational language in improving student's competence, thus as the result of the lack

of this items in the contents of students textbooks. In addition to in table (4.3.15) 45 (75%) of the respondents teachers agree that the contents of pragmatic in students' textbooks are not satisfying EFL learners needs to acquire the language. Further to that in table (4.3.16) 50 (83.3%) of the respondents agree that the contents of pragmatic in students' textbooks do not reflect the cultural dimensions of the native speakers, so what do we expect from the learners who not aware of the culture of the native speakers.

**Hypotheses Four:** EFL learners do not use the appropriate language based on provided situations.

According to the analysis of table (4.3.17) two thirds of the respondents agree that Sudanese EFL learners are not aware of using the situational language, because they were not taught to use it, moreover, in table (4.3.18) most of the respondents agree that Sudanese EFL learners feel ashamed to use the language outside the classroom, so they need to be motivated to use the language in or outside the classroom. Instead as it was analyzed in table (4.3.19) most of the respondents agree that Sudanese students focus on how to get good marks in the exams rather than to know how to use the language appropriately in or outside the classroom, beside to as analyze in table (4.3.20) two thirds of the respondents agree that Grammar Translation Approach, has a negative effects on Sudanese EFL students as it focus on reading and writing, and ignore listening and speaking, as well as in table (4.3.21) most of the respondents agree that Sudanese EFL learners do not use the situational language appropriately, because they are have not got the ability to do this. Thus the result from the above information as analyze in the previous tables which emphasizes that Sudanese EFL learners do not use the language based on the provided situations and contexts.



## **4.6 Conclusion**

The most important conclusion that I can draw from this study is that, Improving EFL Learners' Communicative Use of Pragmatics in Real-Life Situations, can be released through the use of situational language and contexts that reflect the real life of the target language, as well as the concentration of the communicative language teaching, by using the integration skills, so this can be shown in the analysis of the test and the questionnaire, through SPSS, the researcher first comment about the tables of the test then the tables of the questionnaire, then, the result of the tools of the study and at last the test of the hypothesis of the study.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter includes the findings of the study based on the analysis of the study tools, beside to the recommendations and the proposed suggestions.

#### **5.1 The Findings**

The using of pragmatics in real life will develop the communicative use of English language; and play an important role in English language learning, also the students prefer that pragmatics should be introduced through instructions inside the classroom; as well as pragmatics production means that the ability to perform speech function appropriately in social contexts. Furthermore there is a neglecting for speaking skill inside the classroom, as well as, the poor knowledge of learners community stands behinds the poor of communicative abilities,also teaching method is a chance for developing competence in communication, in addition to the exposition of students to English culture assists in improving pragmatics competence. In addition to most of the Sudanese English language teachers use the Arabic language in their instructions for the EFL learners so the teachers ignore to use the target language, also the teachers use grammar Translation Approach which emphasizes on reading and writing and ignores listening and speaking, so most of Sudanese EFL teachers need to implement the communicative language teaching in their teaching process, in addition to that Sudanese English teachers need training in how to change the situation of the classroom into communicative one, add to that students' textbooks does not provide pragmatics elements for the learners to acquire pragmatic competence, further to this

students' textbooks does not provide with communicative activities, as well as the students' textbooks does not encourage the students to use the language outside the classroom, also students' textbooks does not assist the students to acquire the cultural uses of the target language, beside to that students' textbooks lack suitable situations that reflect the daily uses of the target language. Thus the outcomes for the previous results are that the methods and the approaches that the teachers used are not communicative one also Sudanese English language teachers do not know whether the students' textbooks contain pragmatics situations or not, moreover, EFL teachers neglect the role of situational language in improving students competence in the language uses, also pragmatics contents in students' textbooks does not satisfy the learners needs, and, does not reflect he cultural dimension of the native speakers, in addition to EFL learners do not aware of the uses of situational language, so the result is that most of Sudanese EFL learners feel a shame to use the language outside the classroom, because, they just focus on how to get good marks in the exams rather than to acquire the language, as a result of the negative effect of Grammar Translation Approach on Sudanese EFL learners, hence the most of Sudanese EFL learners lack of the uses of situational language appropriately.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Based on this study's findings, the researcher recommends the following:

EFL teachers must give their instructions for the learners by using the target language, also the students textbooks must contain pragmatics materials like: speech act functions, social contexts and communicative activities that reflects the daily use of the target language, as well as speaking skill must be given the best interesting, also the students must be exposed to English culture through audio-visual means which motivate them to acquire the target language. For these reasons I deem English

teachers should implement this kind of methods in their teaching for English to Sudanese EFL learners. In addition to the teachers must use CLT instead of GTA, It can be recommended that using the methodology suggested in this study the teacher talking time could decrease and the student talking time could increase fulfilling the requirements of the communicative language teaching CLT of promoting learner-centered environments and using communicative methodologies in the learning process. For this the teachers must be given training in how to use the CLT, as well as the students must be encouraged to use the target language in or outside the classroom.

### **5.3 Suggestions**

The following are the suggested topic for further research:

Factors Affecting Speaking Skill outside the Classroom.

The Impact of CLM on EFL learners Speaking Skill.

What is the influence of the neglecting of speaking skill on Sudanese EFL learners?

What is the impact of exposing Sudanese EFL learners to English culture?

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**Sudan University of Science & Technology**  
**Faculty of Graduate Studies & Scientific Research**  
**English Language Department**



This questionnaire is designed as tool for collecting data for analytical descriptive research of PH.D at SUST.

**Title: the impact of Communicative Use of Pragmatics on university students improvement in English**

**Please** have the kindness to response with the necessary answers to the following questions by ticking the appropriate boxes.

No	The Statements	Agree	Not sure	Disagree
1-	English language teachers use L1 in their instructions.			
2-	Teachers do not use the target language in their instructions for the students.			
3-	Most of Sudanese English language teachers use Grammar Translation Method.			
4-	Most of Sudanese English language teachers need to implement communicative approach in their teaching process.			
5-	Most of Sudanese English language teachers need training in how to make the situation of the classroom communicative one.			
6-	Students' textbooks provide pragmatic information for learners to acquire pragmatic competence.			
7-	Student's textbooks provide the students with communicative activities.			

8-	Student's textbooks encourage the students to use the language outside the classroom.			
9-	Students textbook assist the students to acquire cultural uses of the target language.			
10-	Student's textbooks lack suitable situations that reflect the daily use of target language.			
11-	Methods and techniques teachers use in EFL classes are communicative.			
12-	Teachers do not know whether pupil's books contain pragmatics or not.			
13-	EFL teachers neglect the role of situational language in improving student's competence.			
14-	Pragmatic contents in student's textbooks do not satisfy the learners' needs.			
15-	Pragmatic contents of student's textbooks do not reflect the cultural dimensions of the native speakers.			
16-	EFL students are not aware of the uses of situational language.			
17-	EFL Sudanese students feel ashamed to use the language outside the classroom.			
18-	EFL Sudanese students' focus on how get a good marks rather than acquiring the language.			
19-	Grammar Translation Method has negative effects on Sudanese EFL learners.			
20-	Most of Sudanese EFL learners do not use situational language appropriately.			

## Students test

Dear students

This Test is designed as tool for collecting data for practical research of PH.D at Sudan University of Science and Technology (SUST).

**Title: the impact of Communicative Use of Pragmatics on university students improvement in English** Please have the kindness to response with the necessary answers to the following questions either by True or False, by choosing Yes or No, complete the sentences.

### Question one:

*A/ Write whether these statements are TRUE or FALSE*

- 1- The use of pragmatics in real- life will develop the communicative use English language.
- 2-The use of pragmatics in real- life plays important roles in learning English.
- 3- Pragmatic should be introduced through instruction inside the classroom.
- 4-4-Pragmatic production refers to the ability to perform speech function appropriately in social contexts.

### B/ Choose the best answer:

5-As far as graduated students are concerned, how do you evaluate your level of competence in communication?

- Good
- acceptable
- poor

6-How do you evaluate your linguistic pragmatics competence.

- Very satisfying
- Satisfying
- Not satisfying



7- A student is considered as having achieved the expected level of communicative competence when:

- he talks with a grammatically correct language
- he has the appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts
- he is creative and imaginative in using the language

8- Do you think that speaking is neglected in the classroom?

Yes  No

9-Do you think that the poor knowledge about the FL speech community's cultural rules and social norms is the cause of learners' poor communicative abilities?

Yes  No

10-What approach do you think is the most appropriate to attain pragmatics in real life situation?

- The audio lingual method Yes
- The communicative approach No

11- Do you think your teaching method is an opportunity to develop competence in communication through pragmatic ?

Yes  No

12-Do you think that exposing students to the English culture improves their pragmatics competence and therefore their communicative competence?

Yes  No