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**Investigating the Effect of the Teach-to-the-Test Approach on Learners'  
Communicative Abilities: Case of First-Year EFL Students at the  
University of TLEMCCEN**

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of  
“Doctorat” in Didactics and Assessment in English Language Education

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**2020**

## **STATEMENT OF ORIGINALTY**

I, the undersigned BEMMOUSSAT Nabil Djawad, declare that my thesis entitled *“Investigating the Effect of the Teaching-to-the-Test Approach on Learners’ Communicative Abilities: Case of First-Year EFL Students at the University of Tlemcen”* does not contain any materials which have been submitted previously, wholly or partly, in candidature for any other academic degree, diploma or qualification.

BEMMOUSSAT Nabil Djawad

## ABSTRACT

Language is, by definition, the most fundamental means of human communication. The word ‘communication’ suggests that people talk to each other, ask and answer questions, and initiate and respond. In other words, they take alternatively an active and passive role in a conversation. Likewise, teaching a language is to inculcate in the learners the ability to express themselves in a like manner. However, a test-oriented teaching, for the ‘serious’ intent to boost test scores, has always posed a critical dilemma in language teaching. Teachers are forced, in the name of accountability, to abandon meaningful language teaching and communicative methodologies for the sole sake to record high scores in learners’ academic transcript. This deliberate deviation from the mandated syllabus is dictated by high standardized testing and high-stakes examination. The present study was carried out with a sample population composed of two groups of EFL students belonging to two different academic years (2017/2018 and 2018/2019). The data collection tools employed in this pilot experimental study, a pre-test, which would play the role of a diagnosis test and the springboard to the made-to-measure remedial activities, and a post-test. Much of the fact-findings have been collected through a series of assessment procedures, questionnaires and conversations with students, teachers and managers at the different levels of the English Language Department. The purpose behind dealing with the dialectical relationship between teaching and testing is to search for what language teachers, educators, and any party who is directly or indirectly concerned about the education system need to know about effective teaching and efficient testing. The study, hopefully, will be of some help for teachers to implement a teaching-testing model which would serve as a springboard to compensate for the EFL learners’ serious weaknesses at the level of their communicative skills and abilities.

**Key words:** Test-oriented teaching, accountability, communicative abilities, standardized tests, high stakes exams

## **DEDICATIONS**

*I dedicate this work to my father who spent most of his life in the service of teaching people*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

**BICS:** Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

**CALP:** Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

**CBA:** Competency-Based Approach

**CBE:** Competency-Based Education

**CBP:** Competency-Based Pedagogy

**CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ELTM:** English Language Teaching Methodologies

**EIL:** English as an International Language

**ESL:** English as a Second Language

**ESP:** English for Specific Purposes

**EFA:** Education for All

**IATEFL:** International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

**ICT's:** Information and Communication(s) Technology(ies)

**MENA:** Middle East and North Africa

**TEFL:** Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**TENOR:** Teaching English for no Obvious Reason

**TESL:** Teaching English as a Second Language

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# **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The present research work is, in fact, an attempt to remap the boundaries of EFL on the basis of a more or less balanced teaching-testing perspective in a bid to develop effectively EFL learners' communicative abilities. However, even though, the heart of the matter in language teaching has always been a concern closely relating to the general principles underpinning the different methodologies, the 'what-to-teach' and the 'what-to-test' questions have always had the lion's share. Parents would most probably worry about what best to be taught to their children as well as to demand for the best teaching-learning 'road maps' conducive to the success of their offspring. While the others, not least, teachers, are still in search for an educative pedagogy to help them better cope with a delicate issue and daunting task of how to strike the balance between an effective teaching and an efficient testing.

Needless to recall, today's global world is witnessing an increased demand, a relentless exigency and an urgent need for a high-quality education. Therefore, a high premium ought to be placed on ESL and EFL as a consequence of the shift of English from the status of an international language to that of a global one. This paramount-importance demand is a sheer illustration of the cardinal role education, not least English Language Education, can play in affording today's world with functionally literate and fully responsible global citizens who, in turn, are duly expected to significantly contribute to the socio-economic development of their nations and to better cope with meeting the requirements of the globalization phenomenon. Indeed, in educating the citizens of tomorrow's world, we are told, we should be preparing them to better cope with changes in our increasingly globalised world

The significant metamorphosis English Language Education has witnessed through, from a teacher-centred pedagogy to a more learner-centred education, from a textbook-based teaching to a task-based approach, from a summative assessment to a formative assessment, is indeed a vivid picture of language educators commitment and teachers deep concern in an attempt to

search for the different ways to accommodate appropriately teaching to testing on the basis of continuum whose end point is communicative competence in its wider sense, hence to compensate for the shortcomings and weaknesses resulting from the hegemony of a high-exam centric system.

The core issue of curriculum teaching has not yet been definitely sorted out, however, even though, after many years of continual change, update, and improvement of the English Language Teaching Methodologies. Worse still, the issue has even reached its utmost serious state as the main stakeholders' concern, not least parents and the educational authority, is shifting from students' latent potential and academic progress to students achievement and performance in exams. Accordingly, the word 'achievement' has lost its intrinsic meaning and turned out to refer to nothing more than scoring high on standardized tests and high-stakes exams. This 'unhealthy' and 'unethical' teaching-learning practice has corrupted English Language Education, and led to pernicious effect on learners' communicative abilities.

Arguably, in the field of language teaching, the concept of communicative competence, in its wider sense, is of crucial value. Learners are required to develop their communicative skills in order to be able to fulfil diverse tasks in their daily life using the target language 'English'. Yet, pedagogically speaking, if we look closer at this ubiquitous teaching approach, which in its down-to-earth dimension means to teach what will be tested, a rather suspicious way of teaching, so to speak; a logical question might arise: Are pupils really learning how to communicate?

Not so sure, simply because exams are all undertaken in a written form, hence, oral use of language is almost totally neglected. The oral skill, which is the hallmark of a communicative-based learning, is left to the margin. As a consequence, one can suppose that first-year EFL students should have a tremendous lag in their communicative abilities, despite the fact that these learners scored well in English in the Baccalaureate Examination. Their communicative competence is but a one side of the coin, i.e. it is solely limited



to the written format. The oral one, which is, the most active and productive skill in language learning is neither taught nor tested, hence, one can deduce that the prescribed objective of the secondary school syllabi which dictates that communicative skill is a must to have for learners is, conclusively, just ink on paper and the exam results are, the least we can say, misleading.

To better grasp what is actually wrong with an exam-centric education system, one should dig deeper in order to understand how the nature of the relationship between teaching and testing ought to be. No one would deny the fact that testing is a vital component of any instructional programme throughout the world; it has always been viewed and labelled as a ‘necessary evil’, but, it is that very evil which is supposed to be the sole means to assess and promote learning. This paradoxical assertion would lead us to assert that teaching and testing are intimately interrelated and complete each other, in the sense that there is no testing without teaching, nor is there teaching without testing. Analogically speaking, they represent two sides of the same coin.

However, the increasing focus on exam performance has accentuated the pressure on teachers and geared them towards a selective-focussing teaching and caused them to do deliberately great harm to the broader learning process. To function properly, a test is supposed to assess the teaching/learning process at large; narrowly speaking, it is bound to provide a way to measure students’ demonstration of learning, qualitatively, i.e. how well and quantitatively, i.e. how much. In very practical terms, a test helps answer a triadic-oriented question: How much did the students learn? How well did they learn it? And, how well did we teach it? In this sense, the test should reflect what was taught in order to be a reliable, practical and yield valid results.

To meet the criteria of reliability, practicality and validity, teachers need to be familiar with the general guidelines and have a sound knowledge of the key concepts underpinning the different test-types. Such familiarity and mastery will serve as a platform for teachers, especially novice and less experienced, to devise a practical test which can be relied on so as to yield

valid indices about the learning progress as well as the teaching process. This assessment literacy will not only educate teachers about testing solely, but will extend its benefits to instructions as well. Arguably, a lack of literacy about assessment will but aggravate the already *status quo* the Algerian education system is living.

The teaching-to-the-test approach has now become commonplace and its alarming wide spread use has touched many educational institutions worldwide, and the Algeria education system is no exception. The major goal underpinning English teaching in Algeria is to make learners able to communicate, express their ideas, argue, maintain discussions and avoid discussion breakdowns. Yet, sometimes, what is prescribed as objectives is just ink on paper. Unfortunately, at present time, the immediate goal and the principle motivating drive pupils to learn English is to pass examination.

This shift in interest has led to the emergence of successful learners on exam seats, but ineffective and very incompetent ones in real life context. Moreover, the success of learners in high-stakes exams, such as the Baccalaureate exam, will afford them an opportunity to enter university and embark on a higher education. As an immediate deleterious result, EFL teachers at university level will find themselves facing students who only excel in reproducing faithfully exact forms of knowledge in exam seats rather than having considerable skills in dealing with the language communicatively.

It is this growing concern in the teach-to-the-test approach and its negative impact on EFL learners' communicative abilities, not least communicative competence, that provide the basis for this research work. In this context, the research work will address the following research questions:

1. How deep does the test-oriented teaching and achievement-based pedagogy influence students' abilities to make active use of the English language?

2. How can EFL teachers at university level help their students make up for their potential communicative weaknesses in English language?
3. What are the available alternative ways and procedures teachers can make use of to improve the education quality?
4. Which effective teaching approach can be elected to displace the teach-to-the-test approach in an attempt to secure a good quality education yet, by no mean, risk students' potential to score high in exams?

In an attempt to provide satisfactory answers to the aforementioned research questions, we have constructed hypotheses which formally assume that:

1. First-year EFL students display some serious deficiencies in terms of language use. This represents a major handicap affecting negatively their communicative abilities as a result of an English Language Education which draws heavily on the principles of the teach-to-the-test approach at the secondary education level as a preparation for the Baccalaureate Exam.
2. First-year EFL students can be offered supplementary learning sessions based on a syllabus exclusively designed to meet their linguistic needs. This compensatory language adjustment would consist of communication-based activities.
3. A strong assessment literacy coupled with a judicious application of this literacy might help enhance the effectiveness of instructions which would be conducive to an education of high quality.

4. There is a wide array within a communicatively-responsive pedagogy to shift focus from a sheer teach-to-the-test oriented approach and exam-centric English Language Education to a more communicative language learning

The research work is framed into four interrelated chapters. Chapter One outlines the review of literature underlying the teach-to-the-test approach. It stretches into a description of the nuts and bolts of the approach in question, exploring its scope and principles of inquiry, describing its basic concerns and identifying its key concepts. It also examines the growing interest in the teach-to-the-test and scrutinizes its negative repercussions on EFL learners' communicative abilities. The chapter ends up with the general assumption that any teaching that is exam centric, with a deliberate intent to boost learners' scores narrowing down the curriculum, deserves no room in an EFL classroom.

Chapter Two provides a detailed description of the different methodologies which the Algerian EFL classrooms have witnessed and experienced along the prescribed curriculum and mandated textbooks. It highlights the hegemony of the teach-to-the-test approach and the extent to which item and curriculum teaching has forced EFL teachers to abandon fruitful instructional activities and give way to boring, repetitive test-preparation practices. It also incorporates a discussion of the ways to implement a productive pedagogy in order to respond positively to the demands of communicative-skill using in the English language. Finally, the chapter culminates with an emphasis on learning the language for meaningful communication.

Chapter Three, in illustration, outlines the principles underpinning the teach-to-the-test approach through experiential studies in a specific context, allowing for the mapping of the approach's ends onto concrete practice. It addresses in part a plea for change in English Language Education in EFL classrooms. It also strives to scrutinize a specific methodology of teaching, and

its specificity lies in the complexity of the fact that, even though it has been acknowledged to be harmful. It culminates with the administration of a series of test aiming to gauge and subsequently to improve EFL learners' communicative abilities.

Chapter Four looks beyond the current context, and attempts to highlight and discuss ways which teachers, experienced and novice, can elaborate and implement to shift focus from a test-oriented teaching to a more communication-based EFL teaching/learning. It places a high premium on functional-situational context teaching. It also strives to identify major roles that mindful teachers ought to perform in a bid to help learners, bright or dull, motivated or detached, to trigger off their communicative language potential. The chapter terminates with a high recommendation to develop learners' target culture which will in turn empower them to become competent fluent users of the English language.

**CHAPTER ONE**  
**THE TEACH-TO-THE-TEST APPROACH:**  
**A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

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**THE TEACH-TO-THE-TEST APPROACH:**  
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## **1.14. Conclusion**



# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **THE TEACH-TO-THE-TEST APPROACH: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

### **1.1. Introduction**

A leitmotiv has become recurrent among most teachers in our educational institutions: ‘our tests are driving our teaching’. This handful of words has become heresy to teachers, regardless of their subjects of specialism. This educational practice has forced teachers, in the name of accountability, to abandon motivating, insightful and fruitful ways of imparting knowledge for boring and repetitive test-preparation materials. Important language items may get overlooked as teachers prepare students for other items that are to be included in the test. Thus, the increasing importance attached to scoring well, in exam performance, has accentuated the rhythm and piled the pace on both teachers and students and driven them to narrow down and to distort the true vision of teaching and their perception of what the term ‘achievement’ actually means.

True, tests are driving the curriculum forcing teachers, at times willingly and, at times reluctantly, to devote their time, to focus their effort and to exploit their energy on preparing learners for tests. Again accountability is important in English language Education<sup>1</sup>. EFL teachers must be able to demonstrate that students are learning English that allows them to successfully perform

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<sup>1</sup> The terms ‘English Language Teaching’ and ‘English Language Education’ might be semantically and didactically equivalent, but we prefer to use English Language Education in an attempt to be truly educative and to give a broader value and meaning to the language learning process. Language education can claim to have social significance, and to contribute to the student’s general education by introducing them to cultures other than their own.

linguistically, socio-linguistically and pragmatically various speech acts in different communicative situations (See 1.7. and 1.8.).

Admittedly, the best preparation for any EFL test is to teach a good EFL curriculum; a curriculum<sup>2</sup> which, in its broadest scope and narrowest sense, serves and preserves the learners' needs, and interests taking into account the local dimension and the global perspective<sup>3</sup>. A sound English Language Education background can prepare student to perform well. The reverse is not true, however, in the sense that in that very specific context, teachers are testing not instructing. Our EFL learners are in most need of a well-rounded education. With a focus on testing activities and little learning opportunities, students cannot develop the competencies and skills that will help them cope positively with the needs of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

This present chapter starts by shedding the light on the relationship between teaching and testing, not least in English Language Education. It also presents an overview of language testing and strives to provide definitions to the key-concepts underlying testing in relation to the teach-to-the-test approach, bearing in mind that this issue is under-researched. It can, hopefully, help language teachers, students and other stakeholders reconsider their views and perceptions of what 'achievement' actually means in the context of English Language Education. It is clear that testing, in ESL/EFL context, plays a crucial and critical role in the field of education as it is viewed as an asset which contributes to the individual's personal and social growth.

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<sup>2</sup> In its broadest scope, a curriculum includes a student's entire learning experience; in its narrowest sense, it simply refers to educational textbooks and materials (Woulds and Simpson, 2010).

<sup>3</sup> Arguably, the globalization process and the elimination of the physical national boundaries due to the extraordinary development of the world of ICT's coupled with the re-emergence of regional thinking and the revival of ethnic and regional cultures have given birth to the political motto 'Think global, act local' (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996), translated into English Language Education as 'global thinking, local teaching' (Berman, 1994). An appropriate English Language Teaching Methodology ought to account for both the global and local needs of our EFL learners.

## 1.2. Teaching to the Test: Defining an Approach

Teaching to the test is a phrase or term used to refer to the implementation of a set of pedagogical practices which focuses on preparing learners for standardized tests<sup>4</sup> and high-stakes exams<sup>5</sup>. What is more, in the mind of many applied linguists, educationalists and teachers, item teaching, curriculum teaching, test-oriented teaching and teaching to the test are all too often used interchangeably. Originally, the term can be traced back to the establishment of an association or an incidence of Campbell's Law, which states, as its major underlying principles, that a social indicator, be it a success or a breakthrough, tends to distort the process it is intended to monitor.

The teach-to-test approach draws heavily on the principles underpinning Campbell's Law. In the opinion of many teachers and language testing experts, drawing an analogy between the cart and the oxen, note that the cart is being

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<sup>4</sup> A standardized test, as its name denotes, is an exam which has been devised from experimentation to check solely its practicality, reliability and results validity. It is also a test for which norms have been established; it provides fixed procedures in terms of time limits, response format, and number of questions and for scoring the test. Menken (2008) posits that standardized tests are all too often used by education systems for high-stakes decision making.

<sup>5</sup> The notion of 'high-stakes' test or exam has been defined differently, yet in a converging way. Popham (2009) ascribes 'high stakes' to any test whose aggregate results were reported publicly or which received media coverage. The *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* defines "a high-stakes test [as a one which] is used to provide results that have important, direct consequences for examinees, programs, or institutions involved in the testing."(p.176). A "Low-stakes test [as a one which] is test used to provide results that have only minor or indirect consequences for examinees, programs, or institutions involved in the testing" (p.178). On the other hand, Wikipedia describes 'high-stakes testing as a test with important consequences for the test taker. Passing has important benefits, ... . Failing has important disadvantages, such as being forced to take remedial classes until the test can be passed...." . Many stakeholders hold a very positive attitude towards high-stakes exams; they upgrade them excessively to the extent that their results "**are seen, rightly or wrongly, by students, teachers, administrators, parents, or the general public, as being used to make important decisions that immediately and directly affect them**"(Madaus 1988, p. 87). Additionally, he notes high-stakes testing "**directly and powerfully influences how teachers teach and students learn**" (ibid, p. 30).

put before the oxen. This is another way of saying that the cart of testing is being pulled by the oxen of teaching. This analogy confirms, in one way or another, the idea that truly tests are driving our curriculum. Yet, pedagogically speaking, things ought to work more appropriately the other way round. Needless to recall, a strong linguistic foundation is conducive to preparing learners to perform well. Analogically speaking, the teach-to-the-test approach, as a teaching-testing procedure, has become both ‘carrot and stick’, defining respectively what teachers ought to teach and what learners ought to learn.

### **1.3. Campbell’s Law**

Campbell's law is an adage-like law which was elaborated and put forward by the American psychologist and social scientist Campbell. Essentially, he posits, rightly or wrongly, that *“The more any quantitative social indicator is used for social decision-making, the more subject it will be to corruption pressures and the more apt it will be to distort and corrupt the social processes it is intended to monitor.”* (Campbell, 1985 p. 85). In lines with the teach-to-the-test approach, he clearly states that,

*Achievement tests may well be valuable indicators of general school achievement under conditions of normal teaching aimed at general competence. But when test scores become the goal of the teaching process, they both lose their value as indicators of educational status and distort the educational process in undesirable ways.*

(Campbell, 1985, p. 123)

By cause and effect relationship, Campbell's law can be seen as an illustrative and clear example of what social scientists would call, the ‘cobra effect’ and/or by extension the ‘rat effect’. The basic social science principle of Campbell's Law has all too often been deliberately used to point out the negative outcomes of high-stakes testing. This may range from form of a test-oriented teaching to outright and downright cheating.

### **1.3.1. Cobra Effect**

The term ‘cobra effect’ originally comes from a funny event set at the time India was a British colony. During that time the British government was very much concerned by the great number of highly venomous cobra snakes in New Delhi. In an attempt to get rid of these noxious and poisonous reptiles the Indian-British government offered therefore bounty for every caught snake. Initially the strategy proved to be very successful as large numbers of cobras were killed in exchange of the reward. Eventually, however, dishonest people began to breed cobras for the income. When the government got wind of the trick, the reward programme was scrapped and cut off; this caused the cobra breeders to set free the worthless snakes. Consequently, the apparent solution for the problem did not yield the expected results; the situation got even worse. This became known as the ‘cobra effect’.

### **1.3.2. Rat Effect**

The term ‘rat effect’ originated in a similar incident set at the time of French rule of colonial Vietnam. The colonial authority put in place a bounty programme which offered a reward for every dead rat. To obtain the reward, rat hunters would provide the severed rat tail. Ironically, the French colonial officials, however, began seeing tailless rats in Hanoi. The rat catchers would capture rats, lop off their tails and then free them back in the sewers so that they could procreate and produce more rats, thereby increasing the Vietnamese rat catcher’s income.

### **1.3.3. Campbell’s Law: Reflection and Pedagogical Implications**

The teacher is not simply a practitioner who is bound up to cover a syllabus in the sense that he is expected to go through it line by line with a serious implication that if the syllabus is not completed then there will be some negative consequences on the learning outcomes. This question is another fundamental issue which represents the paradox of education. What we attempt

to explain here, is to uncover parallels to Campbell's Law as we look at the ways in which our deep culture of learning and in-class pedagogical practices have unfolded. Hopefully, this will be of great help to teachers to strike the balance between the goals underlying EFL teaching-learning and the objectives of testing.

Yet, as long as grades and marks are used as signposts to learning and seemingly reliable pedagogical indices, our education system needs to go through a radical change and metamorphosis of what an effective teaching is and what the profile of a good EFL teacher ought to be. Grades and marks can be engineered the way the education system is gearing the testing process. Appraising grades and inflated marks are deliberately used to mask the serious deficit in our student's content knowledge. This approach has served to undermine the communicative abilities of the Algerian EFL students. Campbell's Law, metaphorically illustrated through the cobra effect and rat effect, is indeed a concrete example of the 'side-effects' that are likely to result from of a teaching whose primary aim is to focus on test results, hence a test-oriented teaching. Yet, how to avoid unintended consequences when setting goals remains the crux of the matter to be documented in the present research work. This pedagogical perspective reflects, as it were, a serious endeavour to change the traditional relationship of assessment to learning, therefore effective teaching.

#### **1.3.4. Effective Teaching**

Admittedly, every teacher aims to be effective in the sense that *“every teacher wants to have a positive, remarkable, and lasting influence on students' lives”* (Stronge, 2018, p. 15). Though the qualifier 'effective' is an elusive term, we therefore, define it in relation to teaching in the sense that an effective teaching is that way of imparting knowledge which produces higher

than predicted gains on national assessments<sup>6</sup>. To be so, four variables condition, shape and determine effective learning:

1. Teacher's behaviour
2. Learner's behaviour
3. Classroom interaction
4. Learning outcomes

Ethics and morals have to be at the heart of the teaching-testing process too. They should represent the counter weight by exerting an opposed force which is to provide balance, stability and effective teaching to the mechanics that come into play in the education system. Ultimately, over and above, *“any academic accomplishments, the teacher should have a certain moral rectitude”* (Patterson, 2015). English Language Education should be oriented towards the mastery of real content knowledge and not just towards exam achievement. What is more, focus on a test-oriented teaching would deny our students valuable experiences they actually need to cope with the 21<sup>st</sup> century requirements.

#### **1.4. Twenty-First Century Skills**

The advent of the third millennium has radically changed the education system at large and by extension research and other related areas. This new twenty-first century vision of education has imposed new learning paradigms, new teaching practices and new testing models requiring a set of skills that are needed to positively cope with the exigencies of the new century. The incorporation of the twenty-first century skills in the Algerian school curricula, in general and in English Language Education in particular, is an important step

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<sup>6</sup> National assessments evaluate learning outcomes on the basis of criteria and expectations set by the Ministry of National Education. These forms of assessment can be defined not only as exercises aiming to describe the level of achievements of individual students but of an education system or clearly defined part of as well (EFA Monitoring Report, 2015 p. 190). National standardized tests are predominantly curriculum based and subject oriented.

towards promoting high-quality education<sup>7</sup> and building up a sustainable knowledge society<sup>8</sup>.

The future prospect of education in Algeria depends directly on how broadly and deeply Algerians reach a high level of literacy – 21<sup>st</sup> Century Literacy. This intellectual capital of citizens represents the driving force in today’s digital age. Stakeholders need to be engaged **“to replace the antiquated status quo of factory-style schooling ... to develop young innovators who possess the problem-solving skills, creativity and optimism needed to lead us in the future”** (Wagner, 2015 p. 2). Thus, it is important to define in clear terms what these skills are.

The concept of twenty-first century skills can be defined in relation to a set of competencies, including teamwork, leadership, critical thinking and creativity (Mitchell et al. 2010). Additionally, another study defines twenty-first century skills in relation to pedagogy in terms of problem-solving learning and experiential learning (Bell, 2010). However, in both senses, the common core value is the centrality of relevance, applicability and transferability of the knowledge and skills provided to students (Rotherham and Willingham, 2009). In sum, the locus of a twenty-first-century pedagogy is shifting from knowledge accumulation towards skills acquisition. The skills acquisition pedagogy

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<sup>7</sup> ‘High-quality education’, as a comprehensive term, has been since its early use in *Tomorrow’s Schools of Education: A Report of the Holmes Group* (1995) the subject of much discussion and heated debates among educators. Any attempt to give a valid definition to ‘high-quality education’ would distort its nature and therefore would be too vague and over-simplistic. It is an elusive term. Green (1980, p. 120) ironically yet illustratively defines it with reference to the **“education that the rich provide for their sons”**.

<sup>8</sup> The notion of “knowledge society” emerged towards the late 1990s and is particularly used as an alternative by some in academic circles to the “information society”. Yet there has been a great deal of reflection on the issue. UNESCO views “information society” as the building block for knowledge societies. Information society is to be linked to the idea of technological innovation; knowledge society to the social, cultural, economic, political, and institutional transformation, and a more pluralistic and developmental perspective.



undeniably will serve as a platform and acts as a springboard for autonomous self-directed and lifelong learning.

#### **1.4.1. Critical Thinking and Assessment**

Critical thinking has been defined as the ability to think clearly and rationally about what to do or what to believe. This definition of the term seems somewhat over-simplistic and very down to earth. From a pedagogical standpoint, it is *“to ingrain into the individual’s working habits, methods of inquiry and reasoning appropriate to the various problems that present themselves”* (John Dewey, 1910). In other words, it is a thinking that is purposeful, reasoned and goal-directed (Halpern, 1997).

Critical thinking is a term used in the field of education and educational psychology to describe forms of learning, thought, and analysis that go beyond the memorization and recall of information and facts. In sum, it is a cover term which may be used to describe many different forms of learning acquisition. Yet, what are the academic life skills of a university graduate? *“To be able to think constructively, argue coherently, judge passionately and tackle problems effectively”* (Lewis Elton In The Times Higher, July 21 2000).

Critical thinking entails many different kinds of academic skills that are *sine qua non* conditions for success in today’s digital age. As societies pass through changes that cannot go unnoticed, the skills that students need so as to be able to negotiate the complexities of life change too. In the twentieth century, a person who had acquired the 3 R’s, i.e. reading, writing and arithmetic (calculating) skills was considered literate. It has only been in recent years that the educational institutions have expected students to learn to read critically, to write persuasively to think and to reason logically. These critical thinking skills can be summarized as follows:

- Developing sound logical, convincing arguments and using the information in meaningful ways.

- Analyzing situations from different angles and perspectives without any form of subjectivity or bias.
- Calling into questions taken-for-granted assumptions to reach new form of evidence.
- Having recourse to practical intelligence or imaginative ways to cope with new complex situations or problems.
- Formulating and structuring penetrating and thought-provoking questions.
- Processing complex information on the basis of logical thinking
- Using comprehensive integrative testing in an appropriate and graded way.

It is worth noting that some researchers tend to use the terms ‘critical thinking’ and ‘higher-order thinking’ interchangeably, while other scholars view ‘critical thinking’ as a form of ‘higher-order thinking’. Stepping further, some use the terms ‘critical thinking’ and ‘problem solving’ synonymously; yet for others, critical thinking is a form of ‘problem solving’. Regardless of the shades of meaning and nuances associated with the different terms, the core value across the different terms is the centrality of high-quality education. As highlighted by numerous studies, it should be noted that the hegemony of the teach-to-the-test approach highly prevailing in Algerian EFL classrooms and overtly driving the curriculum has negatively affected the quality of English Language Education.

#### **1.4.2. Critical Thinking and the Teach-to-the-Test Approach**

Arguably, the main driving force in the twenty-first century is to inculcate in students and equip them with those skills that closely relate to academic life skills, not least critical thinking. Successful communication in English will be reached and made possible only if the communicative potential of Algeria’s EFL students is fully developed. It should be no surprise that the way students are taught and tested in English *leaves a lot to be desired*. Exam

English has become the hallmark and a distinguishing characteristic of almost all EFL tests, standardized tests and test quizzes.

The urgency for building, on sound communicative basis, the linguistic abilities of EFL students to meet the needs of the communicative skills of the twenty-first century has become a must and a priority. Based on his studies Levin (2017) notes that how well students do on current tests in no way correlates to how productive they will be in the workforce, and by extension to our EFL students, in interactive communication with native speakers of English. Such interactions require knowledge of etiquette or the rules of speaking<sup>9</sup> often unique to a particular speech event (See 1.8.2.).

It is worth noting that critical thinking calls into question the way educational institutions ought to measure learning acquisition. Illustratively, multiple-choices testing formats have been common and institutionalized in high-stakes exams and standardized tests for many decades now. A heavy reliance on such testing formats emphasizes and eventually places much importance on factual retention and recall over critical thinking and other skills. This is another way of saying that, ***“If schools largely test and award grades for factual recall, teachers will therefore stress memorization and recall in their teaching, possibly at the expense of skills such as critical thinking that are vitally important for students to possess but far more challenging to measure accurately”*** (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2013). In sum, to view education as a bridge building to passing examinations is sheer fallacy. Education ought to be seen as an asset conducive to personal and social growth, i.e. a sound investment in human capital. Consequently, seen from this angle,

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<sup>9</sup> In sociolinguistics, SPEAKING or the SPEAKING model, is a socio-linguistic study put forward by Hymes (1972) as part of his new methodology referred to as the Ethnography of speaking. This communication paradigm helps assist the identification and labeling of the different components of interactional linguistics that was driven by his view that, in order to speak a language correctly, one needs not only to learn its vocabulary and grammar, but also the context in which words are used. In essence, the learning the components of the SPEAKING model is essential for linguistic competence in the Chomskyan sense.

the teach-to the-teach approach can to a large extent stifle students' critical thinking.

### 1.4.3. Critical Thinking and Rote Learning

Basically the teach-to-the-test approach favours a form of learning that heavily relies on the memorization of knowledge and the recall of information. However, the memorization-recall process is considered to be the darker side of the teach-to-to-test approach. Thus, the memory versus the intelligence ambivalence is at the core of this part. Critical thinking is an essential skill to knowledge acquisition, or what is called procedural knowledge<sup>10</sup>, and almost all educational institutions throughout the world are stressing the importance of teaching critical thinking skills in order to develop this type of knowledge. Students must be able to analyze, evaluate, interpret, or synthesize information and apply creative thought to form arguments, solve problems or reach conclusions (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2013).

In sum then, critical thinking is not 'simply something' that relates to the accumulation of information; it is, in fact, a reflective process onto oneself to evaluate and improve one's ideas creatively. However, it should be noted that in many high-stakes tests, regrettably, one must say that learners' success is highly conditioned and greatly determined by their "*abilities to reproduce fixed bodies of knowledge*" (Schweisfurth, 2011 p. 423). Transposed to the Algerian educational arena, this pedagogical vision can be translated faithfully yet jocularly into what rote memorization denotes in many students' and teachers' minds as, "*Your merchandize has been returned to you*". This state of affairs, once again, clearly illustrates the negative learning consequences of the teach-to-test approach and its heavily emphasis on rote learning.

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<sup>10</sup> A considerable difference sets apart the terms 'declarative knowledge' and 'procedural knowledge'. The former involves **That** is the case, for example, that H is the eighth letter of the Latin alphabet, that London is the capital of England, or that Americans speak English. While, 'procedural knowledge' involves **How** to do something, for example, ride a bike. At times one may find difficulties to explain how things are done.

In this very specific context, it should be noted that the 2008 World Bank Report<sup>11</sup> severely expressed its disapproval vis-à-vis Education in MENA region. The Report notes that MENA countries still cling tenaciously to the very traditional-oriented education based on repetition and rote memorization, heavy use of the chalk-and-talk technique, out-dated curricula<sup>12</sup>, a common nation-wide implementation of standardized high-stakes exams and a teacher-centred pedagogy which, in no way, leads to active interaction between teacher and learners.

In an article addressed for the UNESCO, Scott (2015, p. 1)) called into question the prevalence of the teacher-centred pedagogy. She notes that, “... *experts recognize that the ‘transmission’ or lecture model is highly ineffective for teaching twenty-first century competencies and skills, yet widespread use of this model continues.*” Therefore, education quality poses a serious challenge<sup>13</sup>.

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<sup>11</sup> ***“This region [Arab world] as a whole has made significant progress over the last decade in terms of school access and retention. Education quality poses a challenge: an enormous gap exists between the number of pupils graduating from schools and those among them mastering a minimum set of cognitive skills. Yet, achieving education for all, which is essential to a wide range of individual and development goals, fundamentally depends upon the quality of education available.”*** In the same vein, it is also noted that, “... *gaps exist between what education systems have attained and what the region needs to achieve ... MENA countries continue to lag behind many comparator countries, ... education systems do not produce the skills needed in an increased competitive world. Unemployment is particularly high among graduates, and a large segment of the educated labor force is employed by governments ... the education systems in the region need to follow a new path of reforms*” (MENA World Bank Development Report, 2008, pp. 1-2).

<sup>12</sup> Experts and specialists in education virtually all argue that the traditional curricula, originally developed for the industrial age, is no longer effective in the information age of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Mitchell et al., 2010). Additionally, in many parts of the world the current curricula are preparing students for jobs that are likely not to exist by the time they graduate Rotherham and Willingham (2009).

<sup>13</sup> Since the emergence of a global movement that calls for a new model of learning for the twenty-first century, it has been argued that formal education must be transformed to enable new forms of learning that are needed to tackle complex global challenges. Literature on this topic offers compelling arguments for transforming pedagogy to better support acquisition of twenty-first century skills. However, the question of how best to teach these skills is largely overlooked. Experts recognize that the ‘transmission’ or lecture model is highly ineffective for teaching twenty-first century

## 1.5. Teach-to-the-Test Approach and Education

No need to recall, the right to education is one of the human rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human rights<sup>14</sup>. Yet, education<sup>15</sup>, as put forward by UNESCO experts, is viewed as a *sine qua non* condition to improving and bettering individuals' welfare and national economic growth. What is more, to take part actively and effectively in today's globalized world, fundamentally, depends upon the quality of education that is imparted to the learners. However, the focus on access to education all too often overshadows attention to quality in many countries and Algeria is no exception.

The mass education-based policy of the 1970s and 1980s and the quantity-oriented discourse of policy-makers, which negatively impacted economic returns on Algerian education, were doomed from the start. Education, an asset conducive to personal and social growth, was hijacked and manipulated for political purposes. This policy was initiated by Algeria's

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competencies and skills, yet widespread use of this model continues. In spite of worldwide agreement that learners need skills such as critical thinking and the ability to communicate effectively, innovate, and solve problems through negotiation and collaboration, pedagogy has seldom adapted to address these challenges. Rethinking pedagogy for the twenty-first century is as crucial as identifying the new competencies that today's learners need to develop. This paper, the third and last in a series on the Futures of Learning, explores pedagogies and learning environments that may contribute to the development and mastery of twenty-first century competencies and skills, and advance the quality of learning (Scott, 2015).

<sup>14</sup> Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, art. 26/1 and 26/2).

<sup>15</sup> The Education For All goal of universal education specifies that not only that all children have access to school and complete their education but, and equally importantly, that they receive an education of good quality too (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2014). In Algeria the rate of compulsory education oscillates between 96% and 98% in primary education and more than 95% in middle school education (Office National des Statistiques, 2017).

second President Houari Boumédiene (1965-1978) in parallel with his 'populist-schooling policy' of providing universal, free public education. However, not only is this abundance of 'literate uneducated' young human capital<sup>16</sup> being underutilized, but its productivity is being diminished by an education system that is failing to provide them with even the basic skills needed to respond positively to the demands of today's world and subsequently behave like full responsible world citizens and contributing members of their society.

The admission of a high number of average-ability students with low communicative abilities, as is the case of most EFL students, ineluctably leads to a decline in academic standards. One dare say that Algeria, like many less developed countries, has high-scoring students with no life skills, yet they hold university degrees. All what our learners need is a well-rounded education; an education which, in addition to developing academic skills, it furnishes students with experiences that nurture a well-anchored aptitude in critical thinking, problem solving teamwork and leadership skills - higher-order thinking skills, However, a good working knowledge of foreign languages, not least English, is regarded as a sign of a well-rounded education. Hence language skills are therefore part and parcel of what one has come to call 21<sup>st</sup> century skills.

What is more, it is worth pointing out that an education system which is characterized by a high drop-out rate and a great number of repeaters doubtlessly implies that students are not being adequately prepared to advance towards subsequent stages of education (El Nashar, 2012). This social vested benefit consisting in a substantial expansion of access to education has been accomplished at the expense of the quality of education being provided, namely

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<sup>16</sup> The World Bank (2007) defines *human capital* as the broad and diverse range of knowledge, skills and capabilities necessary for individuals' success in life and work achieved through a high-quality education. This is another way of saying that high-quality education is seen as the most important investment in human capital.

higher education Yet, the university as a tertiary education institution,<sup>17</sup> has never been a crèche for adult learners, nor an alignment of lecture halls and tutorials for mediocre dunces.

Since the establishment of Oxbridge in the 11<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries respectively the university has since then been considered as the flagship of the educated elite. An elite, so to speak, who has been endowed and imbued with a dialogic pedagogy, including analytical skills, a constructivist orientation, much farther away from the principles underpinning a teach-to-the-test-oriented pedagogy and its positivist orientation<sup>18</sup>. This is another way of saying that a positivist-based English Language Education impedes the achievement of quality education and slows down the development of EFL learners' communicative abilities.

## 1.6. Communicative Abilities

Admittedly, the ability to communicate effectively and meaningfully in English has become now the rationale in EFL classrooms. This demonstrates the extent to which communicative abilities have become a goal and

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<sup>17</sup> The terms *higher education* and *tertiary education* are alternative terms used to refer to programmes offered by universities. In Algeria the term higher education is used more commonly than tertiary education. Actually, the term tertiary education is a relatively recent one. Previously the more common term was higher education, but tertiary education will be used throughout this article in order to reflect the growing diversity and programmes. Today, tertiary education encompasses new types of institutions such as, university colleges or higher institutes and schools.

<sup>18</sup> Two antagonistic pedagogical orientations relate to the issue of quality in education: positivism and constructivism. In this very specific context, Leu (2005, p. 26) notes that ***“Positivist orientations to learning emphasize the acquisition of facts, [a fact-and-skills-based educational paradigm] while constructivist orientations emphasize the interpretation of facts and the construction of knowledge. Until very recently, education systems in most countries have been based firmly on positivist principles, featuring the teacher at the center of the instructional process transmitting information through ‘chalk and talk’ to students, primarily for the purposes of memorization. Since memorizing information is no longer regarded as adequate learning, and analytical skills are increasingly in demand, many countries have recently adopted reforms or new paradigms of teaching and learning based on constructivist principles”***. In sum then, constructivism implies that learners are therefore encouraged to construct their own knowledge instead of copying it from an authority, be it a book or a teacher (Kanselaar, 2002). As an active construer of knowledge, the student learns through interaction with his mates in a socially investigatory way. The constructivist paradigm emphasizes ‘authentic assessment’ focusing on presentation of student projects and advocating portfolios.



communicative practice has become part of classroom activities. Thus, communicative English language abilities can be defined as a battery of day-to-day realities intended,

*to develop an ever improving capacity to use English to communicate with others, to acquire, develop and apply knowledge, to think and solve problems, to respond and give expression to experience; and within these contexts, to develop and apply an ever-increasing understanding of how English is organized, used and learned.*

(Clark 1996, p. 37)

Note that reference is made to discourse and text in English, to the production as well as the reception of language. A teach-to-the-test approach does not abide by and conform faithfully to the aforementioned abilities in Clark 's quotation.

Yet, what is meant by communicative abilities in very down-to-earth terms and what do they entail? Communicative abilities refer to a set of skills and competencies which allow the language learner to perform the following tasks:

- To accurately express thoughts both orally and in writing.
- To competently build up a coherent discourse.
- To gain the interlocutor's aim and intention in their very details.
- To process information denotatively and connotatively.
- To meaningfully convey one's ideas and desires.
- To understand the communicative value of linguistic elements in context.
- To be able to operate on both the verbal and non-verbal features of discourse.
- To predict the communicative course of action.
- To sustain discussion and argumentation in a continuous way.
- To have control over one's use of language in stressful situations.

In sum then, knowing a language denotes a multi-faceted learning process: it involves the ability to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences, the ability to use it effectively in social situations, the ability to select the appropriate style, and the ability to match it to context. In sum, one ought to say that successful language learning requires a battery of mixed abilities. The consensus on the knowledge of a language is well expressed by unningsworth's remark:

***Knowing a language does not stop at the ability to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences ... Knowing a language means being able to use it effectively in social situations, selecting the appropriate style, matching language to contexts, perceiving speaker's intention, and performing successful speech acts.***

(Cunningsworth, 1983 p. 8)

Thus, as noted by Abbs and Freebairn (2009, p. 1), ***“to operate effectively in the real world, students need plenty of opportunity to practice language in situations which encourage to communicate their needs, ideas and opinions.”***

However, it should be noted that,

***The acquisition of linguistic skills does not seem to guarantee the consequent acquisition of communicative abilities in a language. On the contrary, it would seem to be the case that an over emphasis on drills and exercises for the production and reception of sentences tends to inhibit the development of communicative abilities.***

(Widdowson, 1978 p. 67)

Arguably, Widdowson's quotation is a convenient summary of the consequences that are likely to result from a teach-to-the-test-oriented language teaching. Here one comes to another problematic issue and complex facet of language teaching. How ought teachers to deal with the linguistic skills, not as a self-sufficient achievement, as Widdowson (1978) noted, but as a vital component and important aspect to be supplied to the puzzle of communicative competence? In other words, how can the interaction between linguistic competence, communicative competence and pragmatic competence and its

contribution to the development of the learner's communicative abilities be handled? This interaction aroused hot debates and passionate discussions opposing structuralists and post-structuralists approaches to language teaching.

## **1.7. Communicative Competence**

Needless to say, the concept of communicative competence has been dealt with from multiple perspectives that include many influential models namely Canale and Swain's 1980 model, Bachman's 1990 framework, Celce-Murcia's model 1995, and Bachman and Palmer's 1996 model (See Appendix I). From a structuralist standpoint, the term communicative competence came in deliberate contrast to the term linguistic competence. In coining the term, Hymes (1972) wanted to shift the focus from a purely linguistic and asocial dimension to a more involved social function of language use with close reference to Chomsky's linguistic competence and its narrow vision on language as a formal system devoid of any social substance.

Originally, the term communicative competence was defined as *“What a speaker needs to know in order to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings”* (Hymes, 1972, p. 278). The Council of Europe (2001, p. 9) made a step further and gave a more elaborate definition of the term to denote, *“A person's ability to act in a foreign language in linguistically, socio-linguistically and pragmatically appropriate ways”*. This definition seems to be all-inclusive and somewhat comprehensive in relation to the original definition.

### **1.7.1. Rules of the Language and Rules of Speaking**

From a socio-linguistic standpoint, communicative abilities involve two complementary set of rules: rules of the language, i.e. grammatical competence, and rules of speaking, i.e. discourse rules. This is to say that in language pedagogy, the learner needs to know both: the formal properties underlying the system of the target language and the social rules of use which

bear the appropriateness of the well-formation of sentences according to particular social situations. Such a need is explicitly formulated by Hymes in a very comprehensive way,

*We have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events and so evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features, uses ... and attitudes toward communicative conduct.*

(Hymes, 1972, p. 277)

Given this new dimension governing language use in terms of appropriateness, Hymes found it necessary to expand Chomsky's notion of competence to cover contextual and social rules. He coined the term 'communicative competence'

### 1.7.2. Linguistic Competence

In the 1950s and 1960s, arguably, knowing a language was equated with knowing the grammar of that language. Grammar is to be taken in the prescriptive sense of the word. Linguistic competence was seen as the knowledge underlying our ability to produce and understand sentences. *In Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) Chomsky makes a cogent distinction between what the speaker of a language knows implicitly, or what he calls, linguistic competence, and what he does, or what he calls, linguistic performance. In this very specific context, he notes that, "*We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)*" (Chomsky 1965:4).

Yet, such a seminal distinction between the two facets of language entails a marked emphasis on linguistic competence through a set of idealized abstractions and the ignorance of individual idiosyncracies or variations as

irrelevant details of one's language behaviour. Therefore, Chomsky's notion of native speaker is, in essence, an idealized abstraction, hence inoperative, asemantic and devoid of social reality.

### 1.7.3. Linguistic Competence Vs. Communicative Competence

The terms linguistic competence and communicative competence are to be viewed as complementary, and, in no way, should they be put in an antagonistic context. For Hymes, adding the qualifier 'communicative' to the substantive 'competence' was deliberate and meant,

*... rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole.*

(Hymes 1972, p. 278)

From a sociolinguistic standpoint, the socio-cultural dimension which speakers need in order to understand and use linguistic is of paramount importance in the context of communication and forms an integral part of the learner's communicative language abilities. Thus, a move towards a more integrated theory of the term communicative competence has overtly manifested itself and marked its presence in language pedagogies, especially in English language teaching methodology. It is thus that Ingram (1985, p. 226) notes, "*The notion of communicative competence evolved in order to account for the fact we have already observed that linguistic competence does not adequately account for how language is used or the forms that occur in actual use.*"

Hymes' view of communicative competence encompasses a two-fold aim: linguistic knowledge and the ability to put that knowledge into use in speech acts. Subsequently, other more terms, at times alternative and at times complementary, have been advocated and put forward to describe what is meant to know and be able to use language knowledge and by extension to our

context, what is meant to learn a foreign language<sup>19</sup>. Of these terms are Bachman's (1990) Communicative Language Ability, BICS and CALP<sup>20</sup>.

Unlike Chomsky's concept of competence, Hymes' concept of communicative competence has always been used with a purely positive ring to it. It has undeniably had a significant effect on the promotion and development of language teaching methodology, not least Communicative Language Teaching? According to Wilkins,<sup>21</sup>

***The argument in support of this idea [communicative competence] that we should consider the communicative purposes of language learning from the beginning stems principally from the particular idea of the conventions of use of the language.***

However, the difference between linguistic competence and communicative competence is set forth by Hymes in clear and precise terms,

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<sup>19</sup> In his article, 'What Does It Mean To Learn a Foreign Language' Cunningsworth (1983) provided an almost exhaustive list of the reasons acting as drivers to learning a foreign language. Among the most obvious reasons, he notes that learning a language involves learning to use the linguistic resources provided by the language. However, such use requires a good working knowledge of the language. This linguistic knowledge, or linguistic competence, is a *sine qua non condition* to fully exploit and optimally use the resources at hand. What is more, needless to recall, a good mastery of the linguistic components and pragmatic dimension of an international language or a language of wider communication such as English, is necessary to overcome, or at least, reduce the language barrier and therefore to facilitate communication at a worldwide level. Note that reference can also be made to Hutchinson and Walter's quotation, when talking about learning languages in the past, "**A knowledge of a foreign language had been generally regarded as a sign of a well-rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary. Learning a language was, so to speak, its own justification**" (1995, p. 6).

<sup>20</sup> BICS, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, and CALP, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, refer to the length of time required by language learners to develop conversational skills in the target language. BICS refer to the linguistic skills needed in everyday, face-to-face interaction. While CALP focuses on proficiency in academic language or language used in the classroom in the various content areas. Language teachers need to draw a difference between social language use and academic language acquisition (Cummins, 2008).

<sup>21</sup> Excerpt from Wilkin's article *Current Developments in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language*, presented at a seminar on the *Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language*, organized by the Royal Society of Arts in December 1976.

*Linguistic theory treats of competence in terms of the child's acquisition of the ability to produce, understand and discriminate any and all of the grammatical sentences of a language ... Within the social matrix in which it acquires a system of grammar a child acquires also a system of its use, regarding persons, places, purposes, other modes of communication, etc. – all the components of communicative events, together with attitudes and beliefs regarding them. There also develop patterns of the sequential use of language in conversation, address, standard routines, and the like. In such acquisition resides the child's sociolinguistic competence (or, more broadly communicative competence), its ability to participate in its society as not only a speaking, but also a communicating member.*

(Hymes, 1974, p. 75)

In the same line of thought, Spolky (1978) notes that communicative competence, as a cover term and used in comprehensive way, involves not just the phonological, grammatical and semantic aspects of linguistic competence, but sets the rules governing the appropriateness of various forms with close reference to the topic, setting, and audience, in other words, the context of situation to use Malinowky's and Firth's term.<sup>22</sup> Yet, what does the foreign language mean to the language learner? The answer to this question resides in the hermeneutic view of language.

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<sup>22</sup> The term 'context of situation' is associated with two scholars, first the Polish anthropologist B. Malinowsky and later the British linguist J. R. Firth. Both were concerned with stating meaning in terms of the context in which language is used, but in rather slightly different ways. In the present context, Firth's definition seems more appropriate in the sense that he suggests the following categories:

The PARTICIPANTS in the situation: persons and personalities (their statuses and roles).

The ACTION of the participants: what they are doing (including both their VERBAL and NON-VERBAL ACTION).

The RELEVANT OBJECTS OF THE SITUATION: the surrounding objects and events, insofar they have some bearing on what is going on.

The EFFECTS OF THE VERBAL ACTION: what changes were brought about by the participants in the situation had to say.

#### 1.7.4. The Hermeneutic View

The German theorist in language education Hunfeld provides an answer to the fundamental question underlying language learning: what does the foreign language mean to the learner? Among many things, he provides the following outline:

*..., for example, the obligation to adapt, to repeat the conventionally sanctioned phrases, to play a role, to identify [with members of another group]. But it also means being able to compare one's own world with that of others, to broaden one's experience of language and language use ... , it means border crossing, blockade, disturbance – in sum, to use Humboldt's words; it means 'acquiring a new way of viewing the world.*

(Quoted in Kramersch, 1993, p. 183)

Arguably, the notion of *Weltanschauung*<sup>23</sup> is at the core of this quotation. The learner's ability to behave either as insider or outsider to the target speech community largely depends on his or her understanding of the cultural dimension conveyed by the utterance or message as well as on his or her degree of integrativeness. Does a test-oriented teaching account for all those things making up in one way or another the rationale of language learning, not least English Language Education? Presumably, a test-oriented language teaching hinders the development of the learners' communicative competence.

### 1.8. Communicative Competence Revisited

As mentioned earlier, the term communicative competence heavily influenced the language teaching methodologies in the 1970s and 1980s in the sense that it gave a new impetus to Communicative Language Teaching. In his book *Teaching Language as Communication* (1978), Widdowson presents a very important and significant approach to language. He views language in terms of a binary opposition, i.e. he presents a view of the relationship between

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<sup>23</sup> *Weltanschauung* is a concept fundamental to German philosophy and epistemology and refers to a *worldview* or a *wide world perception*. Additionally, it refers to the framework of ideas and beliefs forming a global description through which an individual, group or culture watches and interprets the world and interacts with it (Underhill, 2011).



language as a formal system or a set of the formal properties of language and language as a set of communication values in text and discourse<sup>24</sup>. He sets a seminal distinction between *usage* to refer to our manifestation of our knowledge of the language system, and *use* to denote our manifestation of our knowledge of the language system to achieve some kind of communicative purposes.

In response to the needs of a globalized world in which professional mobility between countries has become commonplace, a situational-based language syllabus and a functional-oriented language teaching have imposed ‘their rules of the game’ and compelled language teachers to shift their focus from language as ‘grammar’ to language as ‘communication’. This movement has contributed strongly to the advent ‘communicative classrooms’ and the development of the learners’ communicative language abilities and consequently paying scant attention to the teach-to-the-test approach and its heavy grammar-oriented bias.

As the goals of foreign language teaching have become clearer and more precise<sup>25</sup>, i.e. to enable learners to interact successfully with members of other societies, ***“So the explorations of applied linguists into the components of communicative ability assumed increased relevance and usefulness to the work of classroom teachers and material designers”*** (Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom: *A framework for teaching and learning*, 2016, p. 46). The key sub-components of communicative competence can be listed as:

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<sup>24</sup> The term ‘discourse’ has always been used in a variety of different ways for a variety of different purposes. In this context, it is used to when talking about speech, whereas ‘text’ is used when discussing writing (cf. Riley, 1985 p. 2 and Carter, 1993 p. 22).

<sup>25</sup> In the past the main reasons for teaching-learning foreign languages, or what used to be called “Les Langues Vivantes Etrangères”, were not well defined. As was posited, ***“A knowledge of a foreign language had been generally regarded as a sign of a well-rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary. Learning a language was, so to speak, its own justification*** (Hutchinson and Walter, 1995, p. 6).

*grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.* These will be explored inasmuch as they supply important pieces to the puzzle of the communicative abilities of language learners.

### **1.8.1. Grammatical Competence**

The term linguistic competence is also used as an alternative term to grammatical competence. As the name implies, both linguistic and grammatical competence are concerned with a sound and intuitive knowledge of the language system in terms of form and substance or meaning. Stern (1983) refers to these two aspects in his answer to the question: What is meant to learn a language? *“The language user knows the rules governing his native language and he can ‘apply’ them without paying attention to them. ... The native speaker has an intuitive grasp of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and socio-cultural meanings expressed by language forms”* (Stern, 1983, pp. 342-3).

In this sense, linguistic competence denotes a knowledge of pronunciation, spelling, lexis, morphology, syntax and semantic. In sum, it involves a thorough knowledge, so to speak, of the three levels of language analysis in addition to the mechanics underlying language. In so doing, the learner is acquiring linguistic competence in the target language. Thus, linguistic competence is part and parcel of communicative competence in the sense that, *“It is impossible to conceive a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent”* (Faerch et al. 1984, p. 168).

Arguably, the role of grammar and the focus on accuracy have always been an issue of capital importance and much concern in language teaching. Teachers need to address the ‘grammar issue’ seriously and sensitively. Communicative language Teaching has been somehow ‘tolerant’ towards

accuracy and, that tolerance has always been in favour of fluency. This state of affairs reflects the accuracy-Vs-fluency endless debate opposing traditional and modern approaches to language pedagogy<sup>26</sup>. A high standard of formal correctness has never been an issue of concern in communicative classrooms. Here lies the difference between ‘focused’-classroom activities aiming at developing accuracy and ‘unfocussed’-classroom activities aiming at developing rather fluency.

It is, of course, of no avail to dismiss the teaching of grammar. This is to state that grammar deserves its fair share of specific attention in language teaching. In close relation to this point, Cunningsworth (1987, p. 18) contends that, ***“Few, if any, writers on language learning would disagree that the internalisation of grammar rules is central to language learning and that any teaching programme which omits grammar is not really teaching language in the full sense of the word.”*** In sum, grammatical structures are the basic building blocks of language.

In the same line of thought, Crystal (1990) regards grammar as the skeleton, and Rivers (1991:3) the framework within which language operates. Drawing an analogy between the grammar of a language and a ‘boneless chicken’, ironically she responds to an interviewer’s question on the importance of grammar in the language learning process, as well as to those who de-emphasize it by ***‘...saying that we don’t need to teach grammar ...is like saying that you can have a chicken walking around without bones’.***

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<sup>26</sup> In this very specific context, it should be noted that, ***“The stress in second [and foreign] language learning and teaching [has shifted] from a language-based curriculum to a communication-based curriculum, and greater importance is placed on functional approaches. This orientation leads to a recognition that linguistic accuracy is only one component of proficiency and to an emphasis on communication as opposed to the memorization of linguistic forms for discrete-point test items”*** (Chastain, 1989 p. 49).

An instance in which a knowledge of grammar becomes *a sine qua non* is in the use of contextualization cues. The following examples illustrate how grammar (use of auxiliary verbs to express additions to remarks, agreements and disagreements with affirmative and negative remarks) provides intellectual stimulation as well as language practice, and ultimately facilitates the learning of the various practice-specific, pragmatic uses of language:

X: Mary may know.

Y: *Do you think Mary knows? Or Is Mary likely to know?*

X: I went to Bristol last week.

Y: *And so did Peter.*

X: I haven't seen him.

Y: *And neither have I.*

X: I was very rude with her.

Y: *Oh, (so) yes you were.*

X: The lift wouldn't come down.

Y: *No, it wouldn't.*

X: You gave him my address. Didn't you?

Y: *(Oh) no I didn't.*

X: She didn't do it on purpose.

Y: *(Oh) yes she did.*

X: I could have stopped the thief as he was escaping.

Y: *Why didn't you?*

Admittedly, grammatical structures, or linguistic competence at large, highlight, in a considerable extent, the socio-culturally patterned webs of linguistic behaviours. However, heavy concentration on grammar work can kill any enthusiasm for language learning. Above all, the teacher is in a better position to account for the specificities of the teaching situation, to know what his learners need, what their interests are, what should be done to overcome the failures, and ultimately to contribute to the improvement towards a greater effectiveness in language teaching. This is the goal/aim/objective/purpose all language teachers strive to achieve.

### 1.8.2. Sociolinguistic Competence

As its name implies, sociolinguistic competence denotes the ability to use language that is appropriate and accepted to social contexts. In plain pedagogical words, it refers to the process of inculcating in language learners what is socially conform to the ‘speaking rules’ (Hymes, 1972). Alptekin (2002, p. 58) describes “*social context to refer to culture-specific contexts that include the norms, values, beliefs, and behavioural patterns of a culture*”. What is more, in more interactive terms, sociolinguistic competence also refers to the ability to select topics that fit properly well for a communicative event. The key to communication, spoken or written, rests heavily on one’s sound ability to express one’s intended meaning which is not always as easy as one would expect.

As part of the development of sociolinguistic competence, language learners must learn how to produce and understand language in different sociolinguistic contexts, accounting for factors such as the status of participants, the purposes of interactions, and the norms or conventions of interactions (Freeman & Freeman, 2008). Even the most sophisticated and the most well-formed grammatical sentences or utterances may convey a message that is entirely different from that which the speaker or writer intended. Grammar and lexical meaning alone do not help learners to express their message in conformity with the social context which plays a significant role in expressing and conveying accurately the intended meaning in individual’s messages. For example, the forms of address which participants can use, such as first names or surnames, *Hello/Hi* or *Good morning Mr./Mrs./Miss...*, in sum, the forms of address which are subject to clearly defined choices (alternation rules or selection rules).

### 1.8.3. Discourse Competence

Discourse competence is a component of communicative competence. It is assumed that a sound knowledge of the grammatical system coupled with a large repertoire guarantee an effective use of language in all situations. Yet, such a view is erroneous and, in way, can be it a necessary and sufficient condition for effective communication. A ‘discoursally’ competent speaker or writer is inherently able to proceed to an arrangement of words, phrases, clauses and sentences in order to build up appropriately the structure of a text in total conformity with a particular genre. All too often, discourse competence closely relates to familiarity with genres, such as conversations, interviews, and reports (Connor and Mbaye, 2002).

In very down-to-earth terms, discourse competence refers to the ability to make larger patterns of stretches into meaningful wholes (Canale and Swain, 1980). It attempts to study *“the organization of language above the sentence, or above the clause, and larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges and written units”* (Stubbs, 1983, p. 1). Two main aspects form the basis of discourse competence: cohesion and coherence (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1995).

Cohesion refers to the use of linking words and expressions, such as conjunctions or adverbial phrases, to connect ideas. A text that makes sense is logically a coherent text. This aspect denotes clearly and logically types of cause-and-effect relationships, and problem-solution between ideas, facts or events. Discoursal knowledge is intimately linked to cultural ethos and requires selecting appropriate grammatical structures. This is another way of saying that discourse competence closely relates to grammatical competence and also overlaps with sociolinguistic competence.

### 1.8.4. Strategic Competence

Strategic competence has been defined as *“how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open”*

(Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 25). In essence, strategic competence consists in using a set of strategies, also called communication strategies which the learners intend to make use of in order to get the message across so as to compensate or overcome their imperfect command of the target language. These strategies involve paraphrasing, avoidance of difficulties, simplifications and so on.

Clearly, having recourse to those strategies is a way out to keep the continuation of the conversation on going and at the same time can serve as signals to the listener to act as a prompter. However, one may ask the question: Can strategic competence be developed or, at least be taught? Teacher can inculcate in their learners how to formulate appropriate questions for requesting help, for example, ‘What does this mean?’, ‘What does that mean?’, ‘How do you say ... ?’ , and the language to be used for vocabulary items, for example, ‘what do you call a person who ...?’ and ‘What do you call a thing that ... ?’. It should be noted that the development of strategic competence is an important issue which needs to further addressed in language teaching, and particularly in EFL classrooms.

### **1.8.5. Fluency**

It is worth remembering that fluency as an additional component of communicative competence was included by Faerch et al. (1984). This component was deliberately introduced to draw a clear-cut division between strategic competence and fluency. In this way, Faerch et al. (1984, p. 168) note that, “*Whereas strategic competence presupposes a lack of knowledge, fluency covers speakers’ ability to make use of whatever linguistic and pragmatic competence<sup>27</sup> they have.*” Yet, what does ‘fluency’ mean in relation to the notion of communicative competence?

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<sup>27</sup> Pragmatic competence can be defined as, “*The ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and understand language in context*” (Thomas 1983, p. 94).

Actually, the term ‘fluency’ closely relates to language output and it exclusively deals with oral production of speech. It is therefore the ability to link stretches of speech together with ease and without strain or inappropriate slowness or undue hesitation. In more precise, clearer and more pedagogical terms, fluency can be defined as the ability to answer in a coherent way within the turn-taking framework, to pronounce and to articulate correctly and clearly the morphophonemic speech sounds with the right stress and intonation patterns in ‘real time’ (Johnson, 1979). This ability is nothing but fluency *par excellence*.

Needless to recall, fluency is a very sensitive issue as part of the teaching-learning process. English language Teaching Methodologies have addressed the issue of how to develop fluency from a multi-different language perspective. Many textbooks have been designed to incorporate fluency development activities, yet, in the form of drills. Those fluency drills, in their most part, aim solely at developing the learners’ linguistic abilities to link syntactic segments correctly and appropriately, most of the time, under the form of substitution exercises with the provision of prompts as in:

**Linguistic Model:** I played tennis yesterday.

**Teacher:** soccer

**Student 1:** I played soccer yesterday.

**Teacher:** visit my mother

**Student 2:** I visited my mother yesterday

However, the teaching of conversational gambits to develop fluency in language learners proved to be a positive endeavour, particularly in those who need to develop their communication skills for study or professional purposes. Our EFL students are in a felt need for gambits to increase their communicative abilities. The test-oriented English language grammar teaching-learning



process has significantly impacted their communicative abilities. Worth noting that a conversational gambit is,

*... any lexis (word, phrase, expression, or sentence) that has its own special meaning and use in helping to express more fluently and effectively what we want and mean to say. Like so much of English, gambits often cannot be broken down or understood through their individual parts or through grammatical analysis. The words make sense only when they are used together.*

(Tweedie, 2009, p. 7)

Pedagogically speaking, conversational gambits, like idiomatic expressions, are to be learned as a whole. The effective use of these lexical phrases gives a seal of naturalness to the conversation and help to initiate, control and direct one's speech, in other words, they help learners to produce language output easily and fluently. Gambits are used in a conversation to hold the floor, for example, *'I'd like to make another (quick/related) point'*; to interrupt, for example, *'Can I just come in here'* or to respond, for example, *'I agree with that in part but ...'*. A list of conversational gambits can be formulated, though, in no way can it be exhaustive; EFL teachers may add to each category items which they feel are important, relevant and interesting for their learners (See Appendix III).

## **1.9. Reflections and Pedagogical Implications**

A number of considerations has been proposed, analyzed and synthesized in this part. They have provided evidence on the elaboration and refinement the term communicative competence has gone through the years. In other words, an illuminating account of how the linguistic dimension has shifted focus away from a purely theoretical orientation to a new field of common-sense experience. True, linguists as researchers and language teachers as practitioners have moved outward to unveil that our linguistic behaviour is governed and determined by rigid and sound social and cultural norms. However, linguistic competence in the target language is a priority and

necessary condition for effective social communication and cultural appreciation.

What is more, the advent of the concept of communicative competence coupled with its sub-components which are, in essence, a definite challenge to Chomsky's linguistic competence have given a new impetus to the field of foreign language teaching methodology. The redefinition of the aims of language teaching in terms of communicative competence has seen the formal grammatical basis of English language teaching widely balanced or even replaced by socio-linguistic and socio-cultural orientations. This hybrid dimension of language, linguistic, social, pragmatic and cultural, has, therefore, given rise to a new approach to Communicative Language Teaching.

Arguably, a high level of language proficiency does not guarantee the ability to communicate effectively, such proficiency must be coupled with knowledge of the socio-cultural aspects, i.e. these socio-cognitive constructs manifested through concepts, beliefs, attitudes and others which provide the rules and materials for our daily interaction with our surrounding. These constructs are manifestly linguistic in the form of words and expressions and/or non-linguistic expressed through non-verbals (See 1.10.) This would lead us to say that a sound pedagogical language course should systematically incorporate the formal, communicative, pragmatic, and cultural facets of the language. Thus, a balanced interplay between these different dimensions ensures overall language proficiency. A test-oriented teaching, with its teach-to-the-test bias, pays no, or at least, scant attention to those very details.

A great deal of the recent literature on language curriculum and course design and syllabus has dealt with the integration of the semantic categories with the grammatical system including not only notions, functions and settings, but also the attitudes and roles with which language learners must be familiar in order to operate effectively in the true context of utterance. Ideally, so to speak, a sound language background alongside a detailed knowledge of the socio-

cultural patterns facilitate active interaction and participation, or to use Schumann's term adaptation<sup>28</sup>. This usage-use of language can make up the learner's battery of communicative abilities.

### 1.10. Non-Verbal Behaviour

Another aspect of communicative abilities which deserves its fair share of attention in this research work is non-verbal behaviour. And as the old proverb has it, *we speak with our mouth, but we converse with our body*. McNeil (1992) argues that utterances and gestures are intertwined in the sense that the former provides the linguistic and the latter the supplies imagistic element to culture. This clearly reflects the importance of the non-linguistic elements, whether they be facial expressions, head, hand or eye movements, gestures and the like, in conversational activities. The configuration of these non-verbal phenomena are culture determined, and as such, as one would expect, they differ from one speech community to another.

From a communicative standpoint, these non-linguistic elements all too often add support, emphasis or stress particular shades of meaning to what people are talking about. For example, *nodding the head* signifies and emphasizes verbal agreement or comprehension or sometimes, encouragement for a speaker to continue a course of action, *a shrug of the shoulders* means "I don't know", sometimes with the added implication "I don't care", "It doesn't make any difference to me" or "I feel neutral about it". Similarly, *wagging the index finger* means "No, don't do that" or "Stop doing that", in most cultures. It would be, of no avail, to list the different aspects of non-verbal behaviour. But it will be sufficient to point out the more salient cultural differences between the Algerian and British culture and analyze them on a cross-cultural basis (See

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<sup>28</sup> Schuman (1978) noted that, **"the process of becoming adapted to a new culture is defined by various types of social and psychological integration of learners with the target language group"** (1978, p. 29). In this regard, he views adaptation as an attempt to preserve and maintain one's life-style and values along with adapting and incorporating the linguistic and cultural elements of the target group. In this case, adaptation is viewed as an attempt to become bilingual (See 4.6.3.).

Appendix IV). These fundamental aspects of communication undeniably reflect an anthropological orientation which is the case in the present research work, and in no way does its neglect undermine or downgrade the scientific dimension the present research work is aiming to.

The relevance of the non-verbal behaviour is of paramount importance in the language teaching-learning process as an integral part of the development of the learner's communicative abilities. To use it in a culturally-appropriate way is, so to speak, to supply an important piece to the 'puzzle' of communication. Admittedly, a knowledge of the language system *per se* does not constitute, its own right, a sufficient body for effective and successful communication, thus, mastery of the non-verbal behaviour is a *since qua non* condition for language teachers, and in no way should it be played down in a language classroom. In this respect, Dipietro (1987, p. 36) posits that, "***Non-verbals such as gestures, body posturing, do more than embellish the verbal content of discourse. They are part of it***". This is another way of saying that some of them are clear indicators that the listener is actually following, processing information and therefore making appropriate inferences. In sum then, these non-verbals can act as back-channelling signals expressing, interest or carelessness, involvement or detachment and comprehension or misunderstanding of the content. Also in support of this contention and in the same line of thought, Arias remarks that "***these verbal and non-verbal systems are connected and the use of one without the other might cause a disequilibrium***" (Arias 1996:32).

### **1.11. Conclusion**

Our concern in dealing with the teach-to-the-test approach at large arises from the urgent and pressing need to find out more about consequences that can negatively affect English Language Education in general and our EFL learners' communicative abilities in particular. We are concerned here with how to

develop EFL learners' communicative competence, which in turn contributes to an optimal use their communicative abilities. Since Hymes proposed the idea in the early 1970s, the term communicative competence has been expanded and elaborated considerably leading to the proposal of various types of competencies. However, the basic idea of communicative competence remains the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real situations.

The language teaching-learning process in general, not least English Language Education, should not be viewed in terms of a set of linguistic skills and sub-skills, i.e. in relation to linguistic competence in the Chomskyan sense. There are other skills and competencies that come into play and are of equal importance. If linguistic competence is to be considered as the skeleton, as viewed by Crystal (1990) and Rivers (1991), the other components, aforementioned, represent the 'flesh and the soul' of language in its ambivalent dimension, i.e. *usage* and *use to use* Widdowson's (1978) terms.

English Language Education in Algeria needs to be reconsidered and redrawn in the light of the new world order in which the ability to communicate appropriately and effectively has become a must and a good working knowledge of the English language imposes itself *de facto* as sign of a well-rounded education. Any teaching that is exam oriented should be regarded as a 'curse' doing much harm than good. The teach-to-the-test approach, with its deliberate bias on achievement solely, ought to be viewed from that angle, and deserves no place in our EFL classrooms.

**CHAPTER TWO**

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA:  
THE HEGEMONY OF THE TEACH-TO-THE-TEST  
APPROACH**

## **CHAPTER TWO**

# **ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA: THE HEGEMONY OF THE TEACH-TO-THE-TEST APPROACH**

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## CHAPTER TWO

# ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA: THE HEGEMONY OF THE TEACH- TO-THE-TEST APPROACH

### 2.1. Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the present situation relating to the English Language Education in the light of the teach-to-the-test approach. As a way of start, it provides a somehow detailed historical view of English Language Education in Algeria. Then, it strives to give an in-depth analysis of the current situation, with a particular focus on the teaching-testing ambivalence. Next, it moves on to a discussion of the French language shifting, at times from the status of a first foreign language to that of a second language, in addition to the newly-imposed role the English language ought to perform within the globalization framework. The last part of the chapter will attempt to provide a record of the different problems and issues EFL teachers have been encountering and experiencing in the teaching of English as a global language due to the deeply-rooted culture of learning highly characterized by an ever-growing hegemony of the test-oriented teaching; academic achievement *oblige!*

The late 1980s and early 1990s marked definitely the end of the over-dominance of the one-political party ideology in Algeria. This historical event heralded a new era of democracy imposing, however, new ‘rules of the game’ to the Algerian politico-economic system and the initiation of multi-fold reforms which have led to implementation of the open-door policy. This newly-exercised policy has affected, in one way or another, English Language Education at the different levels of the educational system, namely middle, secondary and tertiary assigning a higher status and a more ‘prestigious’ label to the English Language. This new orientation has further stressed and up-

graded the importance of English as a global and positively affected the teaching-learning process. Officials and decision-makers are well informed of the capital importance the English language plays at both the local, regional and global levels in today's digital world of communication.

## **2.2. The Algerian School: Role Mission and Perspectives**

It is worth noting that until the late 1960s the education system in Algeria was mostly based on the French system in terms of the overall content programme, textbooks and organization. Today, almost sixty years later, the Ministry of National Education *still hasn't found what it's looking for*, in the sense that, it is still in search for an 'appropriate' education system which is to meet the demands of an ever-growing sector and an ever-demanding system.

Additionally, with the Arabization<sup>29</sup> process, the Algerianisation of the teaching staff and the democratisation of schooling (See 1.5.), the Algerian School had been geared to develop deliberately in response to a specific ideology, an ideology in which the Arabo-Islamic component became the number-one-reference criterion in syllabus and course designing. The French instructional programmes were, therefore, incompatible with the Algerian socio-political reality. However, this educative orientation proved to be a barrier both to learning and pedagogical innovation in Algeria, and would lead to the demise of the education system. In down-to-earth terms, one may simply say that the Algerian system of education had been established with the purpose of fulfilling the needs of the ruling party. That was then.

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<sup>29</sup> The Arabization process also called in many Arab countries Arabicization (cf. *The Ecology of Arabic: a Study of Arabicization* by Al Sharkawi, 2010) was effectively implemented in 1971 as part of a large scale nationwide language planning policy whose rationale was to replace the French language by Arabic in virtually all sectors, not least education.

However, as rightly pointed out by Bolitho (2012, p. 35), ***“In educating the citizens of tomorrow, we are told, we should be preparing them to cope with change in our increasingly globalised world”***. Today’s Algerian school mission is urgently asked to move beyond the heavy and pressing political considerations and embark upon a common sense experience in which the Algerian student is required to behave as a world citizen sufficiently well-informed in a bid to strike the balance between the local and the global.

Admittedly, in relation to the teach-to-the-test approach in the context of English Language Education, the best preparation for any EFL test is to teach a good EFL curriculum (See 1.1.); a curriculum which, in its broadest scope and narrowest senses, serves and preserves the learners’ needs, and interests taking into account the local dimension and the global perspective<sup>30</sup>. A sound English Language Education background can prepare students to perform well. The reverse is not true, however, in the sense that in this very specific context, teachers are testing not instructing. Our EFL learners are in most need of a well-rounded education. With a focus on testing activities and little learning opportunities, students cannot develop the competencies and skills that will help them cope positively with the needs of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

Needless to say, since the independence of the country in 1962, several models of education system have been implemented in an attempt to meet the exigencies of a particular period in the socio-economic development of the country<sup>31</sup>. This illustrates that there has been somewhat a deep concern among

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<sup>30</sup> Arguably, the globalization process and the elimination of the physical national boundaries due to the extraordinary development of the world of ICT’s coupled with the re-emergence of regional thinking and the revival of ethnic and regional cultures have given birth to the political motto ‘Think global, act local’ (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996), translated into English Language Education as ‘global thinking, local teaching’ (Berman, 1994). An appropriate English Language Teaching Methodology ought to account for both the global and local needs of our EFL learners.

<sup>31</sup> In 1984 the *Foundation School*, derived from the former Eastern World models of education, was introduced with much fanfare. This system gives pupils only three - instead of four – years of middle education before entering Secondary Schools. Today, however, this system is one of the most frequent subjects for public debate in the country. This approach has had a far-reaching and long-lasting effect on many aspects of the educational system. First of all, it has influenced drastically the

education policymakers about many aspects of education. However, educationalists' attempts at reforms have always been well intended, but rarely have professionals had the opportunity to participate in the solving of sensitive background educational issues. On the other hand, worth noting that, the pseudo-reform committee meetings are deliberately orchestrated to gain the acceptance of what already been taken before the meeting, and allow only 'cosmetic changes'. In other terms, unquestioning acceptance to authority has always been the hallmark of exemplary good behaviour and obedience towards authoritative bodies and institutions.

Furthermore, since the end of the one-party system and the advent of political pluralism in the late 1980s and early 1990s, demands for the reformation and improvement of the education system and a return to quality education have been made the hobbyhorse of many political parties. Yet, they succeeded in their purpose of removing some of the esoteric political jargon commonly used in discussing key topics in education. Yet, test-oriented teaching still takes the lead and drives the curriculum at different levels of the education system.

### **2.3. English Language Education: State of the Art**

Actually, the teaching of English in Algeria has become an integral part of the school curriculum in the late 1930s and early 1940s, i.e. dating back to

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general style of teaching, which has tended to give priority to acquiring factual knowledge through memorization and imitation rather than developing independent and analytical styles of thinking through the development of critical thinking. A second effect has been its heavy emphasis on science and technology at the Primary and Middle School levels at the expense of what are known as 'the three Rs' (Reading, writing and Arithmetic), which seek to develop the intellectual, emotional and cultural aspects of the child. The prevailing belief was that Algeria needed more scientists and technicians for the economic take-off stage. This has resulted in low-quality education and a high drop-out rate –two highly debated topics in the education literature. Originally, the system was introduced on grounds of efficiency, and as a 'remedy' to the high rates of failure that struck down Primary and Middle School education. Yet, this pseudo-remedy has not yielded the expected outcome; it has added a further layer to the complexity of the situation: an under-resourced educational system characterized by depressingly substandard academic levels, alarmingly-increasing school loss and a problem of language use that has not yet been definitely sorted out.

the colonial times when Algeria was under the French rule. To back up such an academic fact, some French prescribed EFL course-books<sup>32</sup>, namely the *L'anglais vivant* Series: *Classe de sixième*, *Classe de cinquième*, *Classe de quatrième*, and *Classe de troisième*, by P. and M. Carpentier-Fialip and J. Marty (Classiques Hachette, 1935) can act as concrete evidence and a case in point. The course-books in question are illustrative examples, *par excellence*, of what a grammar-translation based syllabus is (See Appendix V).

From a diachronic-dotted continuum, the late 1960s marked the end of the reign of the legendary grammar-translation method to give place to the direct method and subsequently to the structural approach. Teachers realizing the vital importance and the place of effective communication, in terms of notions and functions<sup>33</sup>, in language pedagogy had embarked therefore on Communicative Language Teaching in the mid-1980s which, with the advent of globalization and its educational level of integration, gave place to the Competency-Based Approach in 2003.

### **2.3.1. ELTM: A Series of Approaches and Methods**

The history of English Language Teaching Methodology in Algeria does not differ much from that of other countries in different continents. Yet, a less significant difference still resides in the use of acronyms and abbreviations<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>32</sup> The terms *textbook* and *coursebook* are all too often used as synonyms. To a question, "Is there a difference between textbook and coursebook?" J. C. Richards answered, "The terms are used interchangeably. Yet, some years earlier, he viewed the difference as follows: '***I see textbooks as sourcebooks rather than coursebooks. I see their role as facilitating teaching, rather than restricting it.***' (Richards, cited in Hinkel, 1999 p. 201).

<sup>33</sup> Originally, Communicative Language Teaching drew on the semantic values the terms *notions* and *functions* carry. At first, it was labelled *notional syllabus* and *functional syllabus*, then in a hybrid way the *notional-functional syllabus* (Cf. Wilkins, 1978).

<sup>34</sup> The terms *acronym* and *abbreviation* are all too often used interchangeably. Some initial-letter abbreviations are pronounced like words. These are often called acronyms. Articles are usually dropped in acronyms, for example, BICS and CALP -Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and

designated to refer to the teaching of English in a particular geographical area. TEFL is the acronym used to the teaching of English in Europe and North Africa, while TESL is the acronym used to refer to the teaching of English in Americas and Asia. ELT, a more comprehensive one, is used to describe contexts and situations relating to the teaching of English in Britain. In sum then, TEFL, TESL and ELT all boil down to the same goal!

ELTM in Algeria, all too often viewed diachronically as a tale of ambition and accomplishment, is riddled with stories of failures grand and small<sup>35</sup>. Along this methodological path, English Language Education has embraced the different methods and approaches that came into vogue starting from the very classical Grammar-Translation Method, to the relatively recent one, the Competency-Based Approach, or CBA for short, en passant by the Direct Method, the Structural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching. These approaches and methods have importantly influenced EFL teachers' vision of foreign language teaching and considerably impacted EFL learners' culture of foreign language learning.

### 2.3.2. Prussian Method

The Grammar-Translation Method, also known in America as the Prussian method, developed pedagogically some time in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century.

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Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency- (See 1.7.3.) . However, some abbreviations are made from first letters of several words. This often happens with the names of organizations, for example, the BBC. These abbreviations are most stressed on the last letter (Swan, 2005).

<sup>35</sup> In this very specific context, it is worth noting that there had been an attempt to introduce English as a first foreign language at the primary school level (fourth year of Foundation School, see 2.2.) to displace the French language. In the academic year 1993-94 it was implemented in some classes but that pilot experiment has not been generalized since then. In the area of Tlemcen it was carried out in five primary schools: Abou-Tachfine, Imama, Hennaya, Nedroma and Bab-El-Assa. However, the war of languages, French Vs. English, turned out to be in favour of the French language, as **“between 1993 and 1997, out of two million school-children in grade four, the total number of those who chose English was insignificant – between 0.33% and 1.28%”** (Queffélec et al. cited in Benrabah, 2014 p. 51). This U-turn policy is an illustrative example that **‘language ... planning, as well as teaching, has always responded to considerations imbued with partnership far from the sociolinguistic reality of the country’** (Miliani 2001:14). The introduction of English was viewed as magic solution to all possible ills: economic, technological and educational ones (Miliani, 2000).

Actually, the method drew on the principles of the language pedagogy advocated by the German scholastic philosophy in the late 18<sup>th</sup> and early 19<sup>th</sup> centuries as a result of a series of drastic educational reforms aiming at the scholarly pursuit of excellence. Needless to say, the Kingdom of Prussian, formerly Germany and Austria, had a long-standing tradition in the field of foreign language teaching, not least of which is the quality of the teaching of Germanic-origin languages. Their educational system has always been exemplary.

The Grammar Translation Method heavily influenced the arena of foreign language learning, especially Latin and Greek. With the advent of the Direct Method, it was phased out in many parts of the world by many educational authorities in the late 1960s. The method was viewed as the most suitable and appropriate method to help learners appreciate foreign language literature as well as gear them grow intellectually<sup>36</sup>. However, as the proverb goes, *Old habits die hard*, the Grammar-Translation Method is still *alive and kicking* in many EFL classrooms throughout the world. This prevalence made it the most popular method and the method that really stood the test of time. In this very specific context, Miliani notes that, ***“Practice shows that traditional methods continue to prevail despite the progress achieved in methodology. It seems, therefore, that the methodological routine continue more than ever as it is subject to a superficial coating of new labels...”***<sup>37</sup> (Miliani, 1998, p. 14).

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<sup>36</sup> The Western traditional culture of learning foreign languages, also called *Les Langues vivantes*, was mainly oriented towards learning Latin and Greek. These two languages, being considered from a philological standpoint ‘the most logical’, ‘the most advanced’ and the richest languages of the world, were therefore thought to develop students’ logical thinking skills, to promote their sense of intellectuality and to lead them ***“to the ‘mental dexterity’ considered so important in any higher education study stream”*** (Orrieux, 1989, p. 79), (See 1.4.1.).

<sup>37</sup> Researcher’s own translation; the original quotation reads as follows: ***« La pratique nous montre que les méthodes traditionnelles continuent de sévir en dépit des progrès méthodologiques réalisés. Il apparaît ainsi que la routine méthodologique continue de plus belle car soumise à l’habillage superficiel de labels nouveaux... »***

Convincingly, many long-experienced teachers firmly posit that, compared to many modern and learner-centred approaches and methods which supposedly had failed to “deliver the goods”, the Grammar-Translation Method has produced excellent results and high academic standards. In support of this contention, Schaffner (2002) portrays the following notes about the Grammar-Translation Method in the sense that it improves verbal agility, expands the students’ vocabulary in L2, develops their style, improves their understanding of languages work, consolidates L2 structures for active use, and monitors and improves the comprehension of L2.

In attempt to explain such a state of affairs, many applied linguists, foreign language educators and language teachers advance some concrete and objective reasons which still support and contribute to the making of the Grammar Translation Method the most popular and the most widely used teaching method in ESL and EFL settings.

1. The Grammar-Translation Method requires few demanding skills from the language learner.
2. Grammatical rules and translation tests are easy to construct and can be objectively scored.
3. Many standardized language tests still do not aim to test learners’ communicative abilities, therefore, students need not move beyond grammar analogies, translations and other written-oriented exercises.

(Brown, 1994)

Admittedly, the many positive points of the grammar-translation method namely its practicality and simplicity has promoted its popularity within the lines of teachers and made its finish line hard to be accept amongst many teachers.

### **. 2.3.3. Grammar and Test-Oriented Teaching**

A grammar-oriented teaching and the teach-to-the-test approach make a perfect marriage. The memorization of the grammar rules and the application

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of the deductive processing to the language tests are illustrations of a harmonious union. In this very specific context, is there another way, but memorization and rote learning, to memorize and learn the past and past participle forms of irregular verbs in the English language? Can effective communication in English be achieved and *get the message across* efficiently without first and foremost a thorough accuracy in the manipulation of irregular verbs? Analogically, can a student perform a multiplication operation without *a priori* the development of one's mental arithmetic ability by learning by heart the times tables? The genius is the exception

There was a time when a good mastery of the grammatical system of a language was seen as the very core of the language teaching and language ability and it was thought, therefore, unthinkable not to test it. True, it is somehow axiomatic to assert that a lack of grammatical ability sets limits and barriers to learners' communicative abilities. An exchange of simple conventionalized sentences about the weather in a context requires a good command of elementary grammatical sentences. The following conversation is an illustrative example of the importance of grammar knowledge in performing daily speech acts:

**John:** I really want to go to the beach this weekend.

**Mary:** That sounds like fun. What's the weather going to be like?

**John:** I heard that it's going to be warm this weekend.

**Mary:** Is it going to be perfect beach weather?

**John:** I think so.

**Mary:** Good. I hope it doesn't cool off this weekend.

**John:** I know. I really want to go to the beach.

**Mary:** But you know that British weather is really unpredictable.

**John:** You're right. One minute it's hot, and then the next minute it's cold.

**Mary:** I really wish the weather would just stay the same.

**John:** I do too. That way we can have our activities planned ahead of time.

**Mary:** Yeah, that would make things a lot easier.

In addition to a number of words and phrases that closely relate to conversations about the weather, some knowledge of basic grammar is needed for an EFL learner to successfully perform and take part in such a situation. First, the difference between *this* and *that* as demonstrative adjectives and pronouns is required to construct sentences as: *That sounds like fun, Yeah, that would make things a lot easier* and *That way we can have our activities planned ahead of time*. Secondly, our learner would know that *heard* is the past form of the irregular verb *hear*. Thirdly, the phrase *is going* is used to refer to future events that have been planned before. Lastly, the use of the modal *would* in *I really wish the weather would just stay the same* and *Yeah, that would make things a lot easier* describes the consequences of an imagined event.

A grammar items-oriented teaching may be beneficial in its own right in the sense that it provides a language exercise *per se*. In what way does it contribute to the development of the language learners' communicative abilities? Yet, ***“this [type of teaching] does not necessarily determine its place, or even determine that it has a place in a language course”*** (Halliday et al., 1964, p. 255). This language teaching vision would lead us to reformulate two fundamental questions: How much of a language a learner ought to know? and How well of a language a learner can perform? Put simply in a very practical way, one may say that one learns to do things and to perform actions by doing and performing them. The teacher's effort should not be directed at informing learners about a language for the sake of passing tests successfully, but at enabling them to use it for successful communication.

A learner's mastery of a language is ultimately tested and assessed by how well he can use it to achieve communicative purposes, not by how much he knows about it for specific set tasks and language tests. In an illustrative way, Alexander (1967) makes use of a comparison between learning a language and learning to play the piano, he comes up with the conclusion that,

***A student who has learnt a lot of grammar but who cannot use a language is in the position of a pianist who has learnt a lot about***

*harmony but cannot play the piano. The student's command of a language will therefore be judged not by how much he knows but how well he can perform in public.*

(Alexander, 1967, p. vii).

Admittedly, a language user's competence can only be judged when this speaker takes part in real, day-to-day, communicative situations, in this context, the speaker's use of the language will determine whether he/she actually has or has not good commands of the language.

#### **2.3.4. Grammar-Oriented Teaching and Testing**

A language course with a grammar-oriented bias has always been the subject of controversial debate and heated discussions among applied linguists and language teachers. Yet, the term *grammar*<sup>38</sup>, as such, is an ambiguous term denoting different meanings and orientations in language pedagogy. It is used to describe:

- a set of prescriptions and norms about language forms and their use for a particular language (prescriptivism)
- a description of language behavior by proficient users of a language (linguistic competence)
- the structures and rules compiled for instructional and assessment purposes (pedagogical grammar)
- the structures and rules compiled for instructional purposes for teachers (reference grammar)

(Adapted from Larsen-Freeman and Celce-Murcia, 2008, 518)

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<sup>38</sup> In its widest sense, the term *grammar* describes the generalized statements of the regularities and irregularities found in a particular language. In other words, a grammar of language is a detailed and precise of the language's possible sentence structures, organized according to certain general principles. Lily, famous renaissance grammarian, defined grammar as the art of writing and speaking correctly. .

However, from a more pedagogically-oriented use, Larsen-Freeman (2003) coined the term ‘*grammaring*’ to denote the ability to use grammar structures accurately, meaningfully and appropriately as the proper goal of grammar instruction. The *ing*-suffixation is deliberately added to refer a dynamic process of grammar using. This means that in order for students to overcome the passive and inert knowledge problem and transfer what they can do in communicative practice to real communication beyond classroom walls; a psychological similarity between the conditions of learning and the conditions of use has to be established (Segalowitz, 2003). This approach bridges, in one way or another, the gap between *usage* and *use* in the sense it was originally put forward by Widdowson (1978). In so doing, it necessitates how grammar, in its comprehensive dimension, ought to function at the discourse level (See 1.8.).

Following the teach-to-the-test principles in assessing grammar, the testing of the language items is generally done in a de-contextualized way by means of,

*... discrete-point items such as sentence unscrambling, fill-in-the-blanks, error correction, sentence completion, sentence combining, picture description, elicited imitation, judging grammatical correctness, and modified cloze passages. Such formats test grammar knowledge, but they do not assess whether test takers can use grammar correctly in real-life speaking or writing.*

(Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 533)

However, with the advent of communicative-based language teaching in the late 1970s and early 1980s, a marked orientation from viewing “*language proficiency in terms of knowledge of structures*’ ... *to the ability to integrate and use the knowledge in performance, which could best be assessed through the production and comprehension of written texts and through face-to-face*

*interaction under real-time processing conditions*”<sup>39</sup> McNamara and Roever, 2006, p. 43-4).

On the other hand, in line with such a trend, test-oriented teaching tends to discard the socio-communicative value of language clinging to traditional psychometric methods in assessing out-of-context chunks of grammar pieces and vocabulary compilation<sup>40</sup>. Thus, measuring test takers’ ability to use language in social contexts has been overlooked (McManara, 2006). In a similar vein, Lantolf and Poehner (2010) advocate a “dynamic assessment”. They argue that higher order thinking (See 1.4.1.) emerges from our interactions with others, so dynamic assessment involves testing the examinee before and after an intervention designed to teach the student how to perform better on the test. The student’s final score represents the difference between pre-test (before learning) and post-test (after learning) scores (Lantolf and Poehner cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2006 p. 535).

### **2.3.5. Grammar: A Controversial Issue**

It goes without saying that grammar, in its widest and narrowest senses, has its fair share and due value in the language learning process. However, its place within the language teaching framework has always been a subject of controversies. What is more, some language teachers, not least long-

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<sup>39</sup> Worth noting in this context that, *“By the 1970s, changes in society, educational measurement and theories of language learning resulted in a shift toward the sociolinguistic period. [Canale and Swain (1982) and other refer to this as ‘communicative competence’ or ‘the proficiency approach’ (Barnwell, 1996).] During this period, a new shift occurred from discrete-point testing toward tests meant to measure meaningful communication. By the early 1980s, training in various approaches to assessing communicative competence became available to instructors”* (Malone, 2008, p. 227).

<sup>40</sup> The psychometric-structuralist period, also called the ‘modern’ and ‘scientific’, insisted on the introduction of measuring tools and statistical methods to shift to testing that can be objective, precise, reliable, and therefore, scientific and easily quantifiable. However, one of the main criticisms that can be made to psychometric-methods of testing is the fact that they focus considerably on an atomistic view of language as well as on the idea that, mistakenly, knowledge of the language elements is conducive to knowledge of the language.

experienced, step further so as to assert that it is a truism to assert that grammar represents the skeleton of a language Crystal (1990). In other terms, it serves as the building block of a language. In lines with such view and to back up this assertion, Cunningsworth (1987, p. 18) posits that ***“Few, if any, writers on language learning would disagree that the internalisation of grammar rules is central to language learning and that any teaching programme which omits grammar is not really teaching language in the full sense of the word.”***

Along the same lines, Rivers (1981, p. 3) assigns to grammar ***“the framework within which language operates”***. In comparing grammar of a language to a “boneless chicken”, surprisingly she responds to an teacher’s question on the importance of grammar in the language learning, as well as to those who play down the role of grammar by ***‘...saying that we don’t need to teach grammar ...is like saying that you can have a chicken walking around without bones’***. (Rivers quoted in Benmoussat 2003, p. 16).

Nevertheless, it is widely accepted that language education which puts much emphasis a grammar-oriented teaching is more likely to render the language teaching-learning process dull, boring and routine based rather than fun, interesting and innovative, affecting negatively the process of learning with its triadic perspective – educational, pedagogical, philosophical<sup>41</sup>. This can have a detrimental effect on the process of learning. Put differently and in close relation to the teach-to-the-test approach, the use of isolated grammar items, out-of-context sentences and de-contextualized use of language can have detrimental effect on the language education process.

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<sup>41</sup> Three perspectives have been identified in foreign language education: pedagogical, educational and philosophical. The pedagogical perspective views English Language Education as a part of the school curriculum. The educational perspective considers English Language Education as a way to prepare the learner to behave as a world citizen, and is therefore a component of the profile of a well-educated person. The philosophical perspective, however, goes further so as to see English Language Education as a way to develop the sense of tolerance vis-a-vis others’ differences promoting in this sense cross-cultural understanding which would lead ultimately to world peace.

To avoid falling into the trap of the deadly routine highly characterized by of a dull and boring daily performance, well-informed teachers should *a priori* take into very serious consideration the very specificities of the language education context. They are, so to speak, in a much better position than anyone to identify what their learners needs and wishes are, what their interests and worries are, what ought to be done to get around the lacks and failures, and eventually to bring a set of palliatives. These palliative-based pedagogical measures undeniably would help move the current situation away from the *status quo* and would contribute to an improvement of the teaching situation and a betterment of the learning outcomes. This language education orientation ought to be the rationale of a promising language classroom, not least English language education.

### **2.3.6. Translation: Another Controversial Issue**

From a pedagogical standpoint, translation is viewed as a fifth skill. This position of translation in language pedagogy holds true and can do good to the teaching-learning process only if placed within its original framework, i.e. the Grammar Translation Method. Outside that grammar-translation framed setting, translation as a well-established discipline, ought to serve other socio-communicative purposes preparing learners for real-life situations in their jobs and studies (Boris, 2002) requiring a thorough linguistic knowledge (linguistic/grammatical competence) of both the source and target languages. As such, and as reported by Halliday et al.,

*Translation is, in fact, an extremely complicated and difficult task. It is far from being the simple, obvious exercise it is sometimes described to be. In its usual form it is more appropriate to the advanced stages of a university special course, when the literary and historical styles are being studied, than to the early stages of acquiring practical skills in a foreign language.*

(Halliday et al., 1964, p. 268)

Admittedly, when translation turns to be an aid to language learning, this may lead to a distorted and erroneous word-for-word exchange doing much harm

than serving as a useful pedagogical aid. True, translation requires a sensitive consideration of both form and content. To this end, three levels of translation can be identified: word-for-word translation, literal translation and free translation. The word-for-word translation, as its name implies, supplies substitute equivalents in the target language. The literal translation advocates that the linguistic structure of the source text be followed, but is normalized according to the rules of the target language. The free translation, however, states that the linguistic structure of the source language be ignored and an equivalent is found based on the rules of the target language. The following example, translated into the French language, illustrates how each level operates within its scope: *It's raining cats and dogs.*

Level 1: Word-for-word translation: *Il est pleuvant chats et chiens.*

Level 2: Literal translation: *Il pleut des chats et des chiens.*

Level 3: *Il pleut des cordes.*

In lines with the teach-to-the-test approach, how can translation be of help to our EFL students? The learner is given a list of vocabulary items, at times in a context and at times out of context. He is asked to write down the words with their equivalent in French to memorize them and to use them in a rather systematic and spontaneous way. The aforementioned example is an illustration of such variations in case the learner possesses a good working knowledge of the French language in terms of both grammar and semantics. Worth noting also that, in ***“foreign-language acquisition, [sic] many texts tend to be isolated fragments, because they are used to check student mastery of specific features (vocabulary, syntax, etc.), whereas texts in translation classes are coherent, run-on texts”*** (Dollerup, 2005, p. 81). This another way of saying that translation is actually a discipline in its own right with its



regulating rules and structured teaching based on a thorough mastery of the two language systems- the source text and the target text<sup>42</sup>.

However, many teachers note that the learners' poor command of the French language is another serious handicap. At present, it does not help in explaining English words and structures as it used to do in the past. They make this point clearer when they assert that the French language, because of its linguistic affinities with the English language, had contributed enormously and effectively to the development of the English Romance-origin words and to the consolidation of many aspects of the grammar of English. Arabic becomes a useful aid only at the lexical level.

### **2.3.7. Translation: A Blessing or a Blessing in Disguise**

The use of the mother tongue in language learning classrooms has always aroused conflicting ideas leading to an antagonistic discourse to the extent that the issue has become a sensitive one often considered a 'taboo' topic among teachers. With the fading away of the Grammar Translation Method and the advent of more 'language-in-context methods and communication-based approaches, translation systematically had lost its place in language classrooms, totally banned from the arena of language pedagogy and declared an outlaw in second and foreign language classrooms.

However, with the advent of globalization and the implementation of a language learning imbued with the principles of the intercultural approach in the 1990s (Byram and Morgan 1994; Byram and Fleming 1998; Kramsch 1998;

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<sup>42</sup> Klaudy (2003) draws a clear-cut distinction between pedagogical translation and real translation. Pedagogical translation can serve as a device to improve the learner's language proficiency. It has a three-fold aim: 1. it gives both the learner and the teacher the opportunity to practise, consolidate and test the language knowledge respectively. While real translation does not serve as a tool but represents the goal *proper* of the translation process. Put simply, the object of real translation is to convey a message of some sort, i.e. information about reality, contained in the source language, whereas in pedagogical translation it is the message, i.e. information about the learner's level of language proficiency. In gross then, we can talk about real translation "**only if the aim of translation is to develop translation skills**" (Klaudy, 2003, p. 133), and, we can speak about pedagogical translation only if the goals of translation activities aim to develop learner's language proficiency.

Risager 1999), positive attitudes have started to emerge towards the revival of translation-based pedagogies and the re-use of L1 and a reintroduction of translation activities in language classrooms. This rehabilitation, so to speak, is thought to be part of a long vested interest in the sense that translation deserves somehow a legitimate place as a pedagogical tool (Widdowson 1978, Harmer 1991, Ur 1996). *“Most authors agree that translation is most useful as a quick and easy way to present the meaning of words and contextualized items, and when it is necessary to draw attention to certain differences that would otherwise go unnoticed.”* (Benmostefa, 2013, p. 119)

## 2.4. Direct Method

Admittedly, no one would deny that the Direct Method, as an ‘antidote’, came as a direct reaction against the inherent shortcomings of the Grammar Translation Method. This new method emphasised the process of language learning through a bridge building leading to a direct contact with the target language in concrete and meaningful situations with a particular focus on the use of everyday vocabulary and structure. The following represents a somewhat exhaustive list of the principles underpinning a direct-method based language teaching:

- Grammar is taught and illustrated through meaningful and concrete situations.
- Introduction of new lexical items in the same lesson so that to give the target language meaning and a sense of naturalness.
- Focus on oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.
- Concrete meanings through object lessons and abstract ones through the association of ideas.
- Illustration of grammatical forms and patterns through visual presentation and body movement.
- Extensive listening and imitation and repetition until language on forms become established.
- Focus on in-class activities.

(Adapted from Mackey, 1965, pp. 149-50)

From a pedagogical standpoint, the implementation of the direct method was strongly advocated to in effect ease the burden at two fundamental levels:

1. Substitution of the formal explicit teaching of grammar teaching by a direct language contact.
2. Translation activities by concrete meaningful language use

#### **2.4.1. Direct Method Vs. Grammar-Translation Method**

In comparing the direct method to the Grammar-Translation Method, Rivers' (1981) long quotation clearly summarises the 'assets' of the former over the latter:

*A direct method class provided a clear contrast with the prevailing grammar-translation classes. The course began with the learning of the foreign words and phrases for objects and actions in the classroom. When these could be used readily and appropriately the learning moved to the common situations and settings of everyday life, the lesson often developing around specially constructed pictures of life in the country where the language was spoken. Where the meaning of words could not be made clear by concrete representations, the teacher resorted to miming, sketches or explanations in the foreign language but never supplied native-language translations.*

(Rivers, 1981, p. 182)

River's illustration of a classroom where the teacher applies the direct method can succinctly draw in the readers mind an atmosphere of a classroom dominated by a functional-oriented learning which, in a graded manner, takes the learner through divert tasks in the target language but in no way takes reference from the native language, it is a context target language-oriented *par excellence*.

*From the beginning, the students were accustomed to hear complex and meaningful sentences which formed part of a simple discourse, often in the form of question-answer interchange. Grammar was taught explicitly and deductively as in the grammar-translation class but was learnt largely through practice. Students were encouraged to draw their own structural generalizations from what they had been learning by an inductive*

*process. In this way, the study of grammar was kept at a functional level, being confined to those which were continually being used in speech. When grammar was taught more systematically, at a later stage, it was taught in a foreign language with the use of foreign language terminology.*

(Rivers, 1981, p. 182)

It can be said that as an in-class set of pedagogical activities, the direct method offered an exciting and interesting framework of learning a foreign language through the association process. However, *“Since students are required at all times to make a direct association between phrases and situations, it is the highly intelligent student with well-developed powers of induction who profits most from this method, which can be discouraging and bewildering for the less talented”* (Rivers, 1981, p. 34).

At times it was difficult for the teacher to surmount such learning issue. To cope positively such serious problem, educators highly advised the use of the learners’ L1 to explain complex grammatical structures and patterns. In the same line of thought, where it was difficult to establish the meaning of words and phrases by demonstration and dramatisation, teachers were strongly recommended to give very brief explanations in L1. This ‘weak’ or ‘moderate’ version of the direct method led to re-baptise it the “Direct Method Revisited”.

#### **2.4.2. Direct Method in Practice**

The direct method was officially introduced in Algeria’s EFL classrooms in the very early of the 1970s when the English language was taught at the level of the 3<sup>rd</sup> Grade of Middle School Education<sup>43</sup>. Broughton’s *Success With English: Coursebook 1* was the mandated EFL textbook for the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grades. The textbook is designed along the lines of the British culture and draws clearly on the principles of the direct method. It consists of thirty-six Units. The first eighteen Units were taught during the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade and the others

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<sup>43</sup> Noteworthy is that the Algerian education system is divided into three distinct levels: primary-school education, middle-school education and secondary-school education. Pupils who embark upon secondary-school education are channeled into different tracks, also called streams: literary, scientific, technological and technical, pre-determining their career prospects.

during the 4<sup>th</sup> grade. As noted in *Success With English Teachers' Handbook 1*, **“Success with English is a flexible course and the classroom teacher must know best at what pace he can use it”** (Barnett et al. 1998, p. 25). Appendix VI provides a detailed outline of the different types of lessons and language activities the textbook offers to both teachers and pupils. From a cultural standpoint, *Success With English: Coursebook 1* was largely considered as inappropriate in the sense that the topics dealt with did not fit the Algerian context. Reference is made to statements like *Martin is Jillian's boyfriend* and *Jillian is Martin's girlfriend* (see 2.4.3.)

### **2.4.3. Direct Method and Teach-to-the Test Approach**

The direct method and the teach-to-the-test approach can make a perfect union. The teacher, acting as a priest, can gear the content of the course towards activities revolving around activities focussing on oral skills to develop fluency, to have a good command over the English language in all its dimensions, linguistic, social, pragmatic and communicative. The development of the oral skills plays a role of capital importance in a communication-based teaching/learning. To be faithful to the teach-to-the-test, the teacher ought to devise the same activities for testing purposes. In this way, the method and approach learn how to strike the balance between the teaching requirements and the testing needs and remain faithful to their ‘covenant’. As they focus on language use in meaningful situations, they can move together towards the same goals and objectives, growing in perfect harmony. The following example illustrates such symbiosis:

Question: *Who's that man over there?*

Answer: *It's Martin.*

Extension: *He's Jillian's boyfriend.*

Question: *Who's that girl over there?*

Answer: *It's Jillian.*

Extension: *She's Martin's girlfriend.*

*Here is a man.*

*He has a big head.*  
*He's a man with a big head.*

*Here is a girl.*  
*She has big eyes.*  
*She's a girl with big eyes.*

(Success With English Coursebook 1, p. 51)

The direct method revisited offered hope for a more integrated language learning. The hope that teaching and testing, by purposefully opting to learn how to cope with the target language in terms of *use* and *usage*, to use Widdowson's (1978) dichotomy may keep the 'covenant promises' for a more communication-oriented language teaching.

It should be noted that spoken English occupies the central part of the lesson right from the very beginning of the course. Most of the exercises/activities in a direct method-based syllabus give priority to practice in speaking the language. ***“Learning to understand and use spoken English first is little different from learning to crawl before we learn to walk”*** (Barnett et al., 1968 p. 11). Modern linguists have for a long time recognized that writing, though it is basically a representation of speaking, an imperfect copy of speech.

## **2.5. Structural Approach**

The structural approach, also called the grammar approach and as its name implies, places a high premium on the language structures as the 'back bone' of any language course. From a linguistic standpoint, it coincided with the advent of structuralism in the mid 1950s. The essence of the structural approach is to move away the old-fashioned translation and grammar-rule methods as they are thought to be extremely wasteful and inefficient. Accordingly, as stated by Alexander, ***“The student is actually encouraged to make mistakes; he is asked to perform skills before he is adequately prepared. Teachers who use such methods unwittingly create the very the very problems they seek to avoid”*** (Alexander, 1967 pp. vi-vii). The following list

summarizes succinctly the main assumptions underlying a structural-based syllabus:

- Language as a system consists of well-defined grammatical rules.
- Learning a language is equated with learning the grammar of the language.
- Putting in practice the grammatical rules through various activities (usage adequacy).
- Selection and gradation of language structures, patterns and forms in relation to their grammatical simplicity or complexity<sup>44</sup>.
- Step-by-step learning of grammar (one structure at a time).
- Full mastery of the key grammar structure before moving on to the next.

In gross, from a structural standpoint language is considered much more than a string of words. Once a learner has mastered some basic structures, he will be therefore able to generate many examples built on the same pattern. In this way, the structural syllabus is designed into the position of gaining an insight into the way an item of language is used. This is exactly how we come to learn our mother tongue.

### **2.5.1. Structural Approach in Practice**

The introduction, early in the 1970s, of Alexander's textbooks<sup>45</sup> *Practice and Progress*, and *Developing Skills* in the teaching of English at secondary school education marked the advent of the structural approach in Algeria. *Practice and Progress*, consisting of four Units, was intended for pre-

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<sup>44</sup> A well-designed course is one which takes into account what might be called the student's 'state of readiness': the point where he can proceed from easy to difficult. If the student is to make the most of his abilities, he must be trained to adopt correct learning habits. (Alexander 1967, p. viii).

<sup>45</sup> L. G. Alexander's Series New Concept English consists of four EFL textbooks: 1. *First Thing First* intended for pre-elementary and elementary levels; 2. *Practice and Progress* for pre-intermediate and intermediate levels; 3. *Developing Skills* for pre-advanced students, and 4. *Fluency in English* for advanced students.

intermediate and intermediate levels which corresponded to the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> years of secondary school education respectively. *Developing Skills*, consisting of three Units, was intended for pre-advanced level and which corresponded to the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of secondary school education.

### 2.5.2. Structural Approach and Teach-to-the-Test Approach

Once again, one might say that the structural approach and the teach-to-the-test approach can easily find a common ground. From a pedagogical standpoint, the structural syllabus evolves basically around two fundamental language aspects: structures and lexicon. Accordingly, testing becomes relatively simple as teachers have to deal with discrete point knowledge and skills in a very clear and demarcated way. Students can easily be geared towards specific language items to learned and tested. The following examples illustrate the aforementioned assertions:

A. Look at the example:

This dress belongs to my sister. It is *hers*.

Do these in the same way:

1. These things belong to my husband. They are .....
2. This coat belongs to me. It is .....
3. These shoes belong to my wife. They are .....
4. These pens belong to Tom and Betty. They are .....
5. This suitcase belongs to you. It is .....

(Practice and Progress, 1967 p. 5)

B. Complete these sentences by adding any of the following words: *up, off, over, back, on, or away*.

1. He usually knocks ..... at 6 o'clock, but today he's working late.
2. I'm going out now, but I'll be ..... in half an hour.
3. I gave ..... Smoking last year but I have just started again.
4. The concert was ..... and everybody left the hall.
5. A new play is ..... at the Phoenix.
6. I've given ..... all my old furniture.

(Practice and Progress, 1967 p. 60)



C. Choose the correct words in the following sentences:

1. This screw is (loose) (lose).
2. I always (rise) (raise) at six o'clock.
3. He works (hard) (hardly).
4. Who (won) (beat) the match?
5. Please keep (quite) (quiet).
6. Would you like to take (part) (place) in the contest?
7. What do you (advice) (advise) me to do?
8. We were (amused) (enjoyed) by the circus clown.
9. They are now (controlling) (checking) our passport.
10. No one knows the (reason) (cause) of his disappearance.

(Practice and Progress, 1967 p. 178)

These activities would lead us to draw a clear-cut distinction between absolute grammar and difficulties in usage, to use Alexander's dichotomy. The fill-in-the-blank activities can be done by systematically applying the grammar rules and by proceeding through the abstraction description, i.e. selecting and focusing on the relevant details for the sake of teaching and testing – a form of teach-to-the-test approach in disguise. In sum then, the grammar (Key structures) and vocabulary (Special Difficulties) of the English language occupy the largest part and take the lion's share in both the teaching and testing processes.

## 2.6. Communicative Language Teaching

Starting from the mid-1970s and with the advent of the concept of communicative competence (See 1.7.) a widespread movement has emerged to express a growing dissatisfaction with a teaching methodology that focussed too much on the language forms to the detriment of the true nature of language as the most fundamental means of human communication as clearly stated in (Directives et Conseils Pédagogiques, 1971-1972, p. 3), *“Traditional methods which use, among other things, translation and systematic grammatical analysis leave the pupils little time to practice the spoken language and do not lead to a sufficient consolidation of the language items learnt”*. Consequently, and in line with such assertions and orientations, *“a concern*

*developed to make FLT ‘communicative’, by focussing on learners’ knowledge of the functions of language, and on their ability to select appropriate kinds of language for use in specific situations”* (Crystal, 1989, p. 374).

This counter reaction has given birth to the communicative approach, more commonly known as Communicative Language Teaching, or CLT for short (See 2.3. footnote 6). This communication-oriented language pedagogy has attracted interest, enthusiasm and support from many teachers all over the world and has become the ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach in the practice of modern foreign language teaching. One can step even further so as to say that many English language educators worldwide were ‘suspected of conniving’ with the British ELT Industry so as to advocate for CLT as being the state-of-the-art approach in modern foreign language pedagogy, not least English. Canagarajah (2008) posits in clear terms that Communicative Language Teaching is overtly viewed as a neo-geo-policy part of the wider linguistic spectrum of the West. In the sense that, *“In the contemporary world it [the English language] can also act as a means of political-cultural colonization of the spirit, serving the interests of the most powerful concentrations of economic power the world has ever known”* (Holly 1990, p. 18).

### **2.6.1. CLT in Algerian EFL Classrooms**

There is no need to recall that Algeria was among the very first countries in the Arab world to implement a language pedagogy which drew on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. However, and paradoxically the Algerian EFL teachers were not, so to speak, prepared to embark upon such a voyage, nor was the physical context, such the classroom facilities, textbooks and resources. The provision of a supportive environment represents a *sine quo non* condition for the success of a communication-based language pedagogy. Yet, the quantity-oriented educational policy has rendered sterile teachers’ efforts to make learning outcomes better.

Many EFL teachers have expressed their outcry as for their inability to implement communicative language teaching methodologies in the reality of classrooms with forty plus pupils. On the other hand, language inspectors, finding themselves caught between the hammer and the anvil, often complained about the overt reluctance and resistance of many teachers to adopt the communicative approach. As Benmoussat (2004) posited, ***“In effect, it is very difficult for teachers who usually have to cope with overcrowded classrooms, to implement Communicative Language Teaching based on more egalitarian and decentralized ways of interacting and learning.”***

In line with such requirements and to describe the *status quo* the Algerian School is living, Meziane Meriane the former national coordinator of the Secondary Teachers Autonomous Union (SNAPEST) noted that,

***The school is the institution which actually determines the way the State ought to follow; either the school leads it towards progress or towards uncertain tomorrows and to obscurantism. One of the factors responsible for the alarming decline of educational standards can be explained by the lack of infrastructures and pedagogical means facilitating learning such as laboratories, libraries ... the reform initiated in 2003 was based on a number of 25 students per classroom. With the delay in the construction of infrastructures and in massing 40 to 45 students per classroom, how can you, in these conditions, implement a differentiated pedagogy that meets the needs of every learner? How can you implement an aid-based pedagogy that provides help to those who really need it? How can you assess continually an over-crowded classroom?***<sup>46</sup>

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<sup>46</sup> Researcher's own translation; the original interview reads as follows: « *L'école est une institution qui détermine le chemin que suit l'état, soit l'école le propulse vers le progrès soit vers des lendemains incertains et vers l'obscurantisme. Un des facteurs de la baisse alarmante du niveau scolaire s'explique également par le manque d'infrastructures et de moyens pédagogiques facilitant l'apprentissage comme les laboratoires, les bibliothèques scolaires... la réforme entamée en 2003 était basée sur 25 élèves par classe. Avec le retard dans la construction des infrastructures, en entassant les élèves à 40, voire 45 élèves par classe, comment voulez-vous dans ces conditions appliquer une pédagogie différenciée qui s'adapte à chaque enfant? Comment voulez-vous*

(In El Watan, 9-15 September 2013)

In the same line of thought, Heyworth (2003, p. 23) rightly pointed out that *“a traditional classroom is not necessarily the best environment for communicative, task-based language learning – frequently it is shared with other subject areas and the arrangement of the desks is often designed for frontal teacher input than collaborative work”*. Undeniably, the number of students per classroom does impact, in one way or another, positively or negatively, the course of the language teaching-learning process. Communicative Language Teaching, in its strong or weak version<sup>47</sup>, sets the bar of language teaching higher imposing a very limited number of learners.

Holliday (1994) gives a detailed account on how CLT is ‘popularly perceived’ and puts forward the variables that determine a successful implementation of a communicative-based language teaching:

- Primacy given to oral practice.
- Practice equally distributed in the classroom.
- Group or pair work for enabling equal distribution of practice.
- Most useful in classes under 20 seated in a U-shaped arrangement.

Regrettably, one may dare say that the number of pupils in Algerian classrooms is indeed very high and in many classrooms it exceeds forty pupils. Averagely speaking there are forty-two pupils per class in Middle and Secondary Schools in the area of Tlemcen in classrooms which are to seat not more than twenty. In this very specific context, *“The pupils sit in four rows on shared benches so*

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*appliquer une pédagogie de l’aide qui soutient ceux qui en ont réellement besoin? Comment évaluer de façon continue une classe surchargée?»*

<sup>47</sup> Communicative Language Teaching can be viewed from two sides: In other words, while the “weak” version means “learning to use the language”, the “strong” version entails “using the language to learn it.” (Richards, 2006).

*that their arms rub and their textbooks and notebooks overlap. There is barely room to walk between the rows of tables”* (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 141).

### 2.6.2. CLT and Teach-to-the-Test Approach

Communication describes actual use of language in concrete situations which is substantiated by what we call authentic situations, i.e. learning to speak English in situations that directly apply to everyday life. There is a misfit between communication-based teaching and the teach-to-the-test approach and the discrepancy is wider. The misfit can be remedied and the gap bridged only if the use of dialogues cataloging different situations (situational dialogues) are tested in the way they are taught.

The conversations are of great help for both teachers and learners. They are also useful and informative as each situation is followed by four slightly different dialogues. The following samples provide an illustration of dialogues depicting a context-related situation in a communication-oriented syllabus:

#### Asking the way

##### Dialogue 1

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Excuse me. Can you tell me where South Street is. Please?

**2<sup>nd</sup> person:** Take the second on the left and then ask again.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Is it far?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No. It's only about five minutes' walk.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Many thanks.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Not at all.

##### Dialogue 2

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Excuse me, please. Could you tell me the way to the station?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Turn around and turn left at the traffic lights.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Will it take me long to get there?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No, it's no distance at all.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Thank you.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** That's OK.

##### Dialogue3

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Excuse me, but I'm trying to find the Town Hall.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Take the third on the right and go straight on.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Should I take the bus?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No, you can walk it in under five minutes.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Thank you very much indeed.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** That's quite all right.

#### Dialogue 4

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** First right, second left. You can't miss it.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Is it too far to walk?

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** No, it's only a couple of hundred yards.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Thank you very much.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** It's a pleasure.

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** Yes, we'll do that for you.

### On the bus:

#### Dialogue 1

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Does this bus go to the station?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** no, you'll have to get off at the bank and take a 192.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Can you tell me where to get off?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** It's the next stop, but one.

#### Dialogue 2

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Am I OK for St. Mary's Church?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No, we only go as far as the park, but you can walk from there.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** How much further is it?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** It's quite a way yet, but I'll tell you in good time.

#### Dialogue 3

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Do you go to the seafront?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No, you're going to the wrong way. You want a 143 from the Church.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Have we got much further to go?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** It's the next stop

#### Dialogue 4

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Is it the right bus for the Town Hall?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** No, you should have caught a 12. Jump out at the bridge and get one there.

**1<sup>st</sup> Person:** Could you tell me when we get there?

**2<sup>nd</sup> Person:** It's three stops after this one.

It should be noted, however, that the English language learner is supposed to memorise as many possible of the expressions and phrases contained in the dialogues, and *“by reading and acting out the dialogues many times in class and at home, the student painlessly learn the contents by heart”* (Ockenden, 2005 p. iii).

From a teach-to-the-test standpoint, though the expressions and phrases used in the situational dialogues are used by English people time and time again in the given situations do contribute, so to speak, to the development of the learners’ communicative abilities, some aspects of the English language continues to be downplayed or overlooked, not least grammar. This selective-focusing testing would re-launch the endless issue relating to accuracy vs. fluency. On top of this, many teachers accord a very high communicative value to CLT, as McKay contends to say, *“In using this method, [CLT] typically a great premium is placed on using group work to develop students’ spoken English”* (McKay, 2003, p. 15).

## **2.7. Competency-Based Approach**

The pedagogical reforms undertaken in the late 90s and early 2000s concerning the teaching-learning of foreign languages, among other subject matters, have led to the implementation of the Competency-Based Approach<sup>48</sup>, or CBA for short in 2003. The introduction of this new approach in the education system is not accidental; it coincided with the advent of the internet and its multi-usages. What is more, the wide use of the internet has reinforced the implementation of the basic principles underlying the approach. In other words, and pedagogy wise, the provision of home or study-net connexion has always been viewed as a means or rather a toolkit to empower learning in order

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<sup>48</sup> Competency-Based Education (CBE) is used as an umbrella term to cover all those aspects closely relating to a particular pedagogy (CBP) as well as to those various views held concerning a specific approach (CBA).

to facilitate the ‘know-how-to-do process’ and equip the learners with the ability and skills needed to cope with day-to-day real-life problems <sup>49</sup>. It also comes into play to evaluate what is appropriate and acceptable in principle and or specific situations.

### **2.7.1. CBA in Practice**

The Competency-Based Approach is said to have originated in the USA in the late 1960s and early 1970s, but became known to applied linguists and educationalists in the 1990s. It has been introduced in the Algerian education system as a remedial approach to overcome or at least to reduce the shortcomings and weaknesses of teacher-centred pedagogy and objective-oriented teaching. More importantly, in inculcating in the learner a ‘know-how-to-do’ process, that will help him develop some basic skills needed to better cope with the 21<sup>st</sup> century requirements. Learning how to learning, problem-solving skills and critical thinking, just to mention a few, are *sine qua non* condition skills to cope positively with the demands of the new millennium (See 1.4.).

Undeniably, students are active creators of their own learning. To build up such a basis, they must ask questions, explore and assess what they already know. In the classroom the CBA-view of learning can rely on a number of different teaching practices: experiential, pair/group work, real-world problem solving to provide opportunities for language use. Thus, by questioning themselves students, in this way, become ‘expert learners’. With a well-planned classroom environment, the students learn to LEARN. Yet, the CBA, as a

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<sup>49</sup> The key concept underlying CBA is ‘*competency*’. Accordingly, the term competency is usually used to describe a ‘know-how-to-act’ process which is, actually, the output of a mixed integration of three basic components, also called resources: capacities, skills and knowledge. This toolkit, so to speak, is called on to enable and help learners to cope with problem-solving situations arising outside the classroom. Capacity denotes a ‘know-how-to-learn’ process which combines three sub-components: intellectual, strategic and knowledge. Skills denote another type of process, the ‘know-how-to-do’ process, which is activated while confronting a problem-situation. Eventually, knowledge is used to refer to the sum of data, facts, concepts, rules and laws and principles in relation to a specific field of study.



teaching-learning approach does not compel the students to ‘reinvent the wheel’; they do not reinvent the wheel, but rather, they strive to understand how it turns in the sense of how to LEARN.

The shift from a communication-oriented language teaching-learning to the Competency-Based approach was made on the basis of the requirements dictated by the globalization phenomenon. The Competency-Based Education scheme is indeed itself an integral part of the educational level of integration making up the globalization process<sup>50</sup>. Strongly influenced by the underpinnings of the trend and to keep up with the latest development in the field of English Language Teaching Methodology, a number of home-made EFL textbooks have been designed along the CBA lines.

### **2.7.2. CBA and Teach-to-the-Test Approach**

It is not an easy task to try to draw converging lines between the principles underlying the competency-Based Approach and those of the teach-to-the-test. Nevertheless, our attempt would not be in vain. The CBA’s primary goal is to instil in the student’s mind learning habits, methods of inquiry and thinking which are purposeful, reasoned and targeted, while test-oriented teaching primarily focuses on scores and grades. In other words, two diametrically opposed learning views cannot make ‘two compatible minds’- one focusing on the development of life skills for a better learning process; the other granting high scores in the name of accountability (See 4.2).

## **2.8. Reflections and Pedagogical Implications**

The changing needs of the Algerian School made it imperative that the EFL teaching-testing process be revised and updated. Yet, traditional methods of learning English die hard. Learning a language is not a matter of acquiring a sound knowledge of the language system (set of grammatical rules) and building up a large vocabulary (lexicon). The teaching process should not be

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<sup>50</sup> Globalization is viewed as a multi-dimensional process consisting of seven interrelated levels of integration: political, economic, financial, educational, linguistic, religious and cultural.

directed towards an accumulation of a passive knowledge of the target language to be reproduced *verbatim* for exam-passing purposes.

A foreign language, not least English, is to be learnt for various reasons: as a need for personal communication with foreigners, especially when travelling abroad, i.e. for cross-cultural communication purposes; a need for reading and understanding special scientific literature, i.e. a scientific linguistic support; as a means to take part in the life of the community which speaks the language, i.e. reflecting an integrative-oriented motivation; or for utilitarian reasons, such as getting a job or a better salary, and this reflects the many advantages that may accrue from the learning of a language, i.e. reflecting an instrumentally-oriented motivation.

In order to be a skilled user of English, the EFL students, at the various levels of education, should be able to demonstrate an achievement of the language proficiency not only to score high and overcome successfully the hurdles of exams, but to enable him or her to use it accurately and fluently accordingly in real-life communication contexts. Learning a language irrespective of its function can be a sheer waste of time. Worse still, it can turn out to be a 'curse' if the language is learnt for passing exams. This can be seen as a form of hijack in the sense that the learning of a language is being deviated from its original road map. By definition, a language is acquired or learnt to fulfill some kind of communicative purposes.

## **2.9. Conclusion**

The history of the English Language Teaching Methodology in Algeria is in no way different from other EFL methodologies throughout the world. It has evolved and followed a pre-determined path dictated by linguistic trends, schools of thought and pedagogical orientations, from structuralism to post-Bloomfieldian, from behaviourism to cognitivism and from teacher-centred

education to learner-centred pedagogy respectively to settle down finally for a more a more competency-oriented approach. With this ebb and flow in educational fashions and pedagogical orientations, the Algerian EFL classrooms ‘still hasn’t found what it’s looking for’. Worse still, the teach-to-the-test approach is an important factor and can be attributed to the poor quality of English Language Education, not least the learners’ communicative abilities,

The EFL situation appears to have a mountain to climb, given the *status quo* in teaching and learning as the pedagogical orientations are not couched in terms of the reality of the day-to-day classroom. One dare say that syllabus designers and armchair education policy-makers confined in their ivory towers have no understanding of what is important and deliberately seem not to account for the Algerian Schools’ contextual constrains. What is more, our EFL learners, with few exceptions as confirmed by many teachers, display an overt resistance and reluctance, and all too often manifest their de-motivation to spend extra time and effort to learn foreign languages. Is it a language worth learning? Our EFL learners study English for no obvious reasons. English is taught as part of school curriculum.<sup>51</sup> They do not take their English classes seriously; this is due to the fact that they do not perceive any immediate usefulness and utility of the language outside the classroom walls.

Learners are indeed motivated to learn when they realize the importance attached to the language in question and can relate the use they can make of it, either to their individual development or to the contribution of their communities. It should be noted that in countries where English enjoys a high importance and is assigned a high status, a good working knowledge of coupled with a high-level proficiency in the language is therefore perceived as a ladder-like route for upward social and economic mobility. Conversely, a poor knowledge coupled with a poor performance in English reading, writing,

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<sup>51</sup> Early in the 1980s, Abbot and Wingart coined the acronym TENOR which stands for Teaching English for no Obvious Reasons, to describe similar ELT situations in many developing countries.

speaking and listening represents a serious handicap and would affect personal and professional advancement (Pal, 2005). Unfortunately, that's not the case for Algeria.

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**EVIDENCE OF A PLEA FOR A CHANGE**

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **EVIDENCE OF A PLEA FOR A CHANGE**

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## CHAPTER THREE

### EVIDENCE OF A PLEA FOR A CHANGE

#### 3.1. Introduction

This chapter is indeed addressed partially as a plea for a genuine reform policy of English Language Education in Algerian EFL classrooms, not least secondary-school education. An appropriate reform, responsive to our learners' communicative needs, will certainly have a positive impact on the EFL teaching-learning process at tertiary level. In parallel, it partly strives to remap the boundaries of EFL from a teaching-testing perspective on the basis of a two-fold broad and fundamental question: the 'what-to-teach' and the 'what-to-test' far away from any exam-centric educational policy. This, rightly or wrongly, would represent, ideally the rationale of Algerian EFL classrooms at different grades. It also expands into a discussion of the discrepancies existing between stated objectives and classroom practices. This deliberate deviation from the prescribed syllabus is dictated by the success requirements of the Algerian education system in general and in particular in the BEM<sup>52</sup> and Baccaalaureate<sup>53</sup>.

#### 3.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research work is to investigate the effect of a methodology of teaching that basically reflects the way most classrooms are run, and EFL ones are no exception. The research focused on a group of students who just got

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<sup>52</sup> The BEM, Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen, is roughly equivalent to the O-Level, Ordinary Level, in Great Britain. It was replaced in 1988 by the GCSE, General Certificate of School Education.

<sup>53</sup> The Baccaalaureate, or the BAC, is roughly equivalent to the A-Level, a shortened form of General Certificate of Education - Advanced Level, in Great Britain. The Baccaalaureate is a high-stakes exam *par excellence*, and represents the entry visa to university.



to university, thus, freshers who are, so to speak, a pure product of a highly exam-centric education. The research aimed first at collecting information about those students' background knowledge about the English language. Methodologically speaking, it is a case study as stated by Yin (1994), "*A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context*".

In the same line of thought, and additionally, a case study, as Stake (1995, p. 2) notes is "*a specific, a complex, functioning thing*". In this particular context, we have been bound to scrutinize a specific methodology of teaching, and its specificity lies in the complexity of the fact that, even though it has been acknowledged to be harmful, it is still widespread for a host of factors. The study has made it possible to uncover those factors in an attempt to highlight some points and illuminate the reader's understanding of the issue in question. That has led to a reconsideration of the problematic and forced us to favour the applicability of some new measures to tackle the issue in a more detailed and comprehensive way.

The nature of the case study under investigation can be classified as longitudinal, in the sense that it has attempted to analyze the impact of the teach-to-the-test approach on learners' communicative abilities over a long span of time. By its very nature, this approach is deliberately implemented to inculcate in the students' mind a learning that is limited and narrowed down to pass a specific test, thereby, affecting negatively the quality of education imparted. In sum, the effects of the teach-to-the-test approach can be traced from early schooling when it is used to later times when these students will become functionaries with a potential poor working skills. A poor quality of education undoubtedly generates poor efficiency citizens.

This state of affairs has allowed to approach the case as longitudinal, but in this specific case, the effects that are under investigation closely related

to students performances in English right after the Baccalaureate exam which is a sum of seven-years period of English language learning –four years in middle school and three years in secondary school. The results obtained would then serve as a springboard to offer a proposal of remedial instructing which itself would be assessed continually along a period covering whole academic year. Thus, the approach to the case is cross-sectional.

### **3.3. Research Tools**

The research was conducted using a variety of research instruments: questionnaires, classroom observation and unstructured interviews. However, the cardinal research instrument used is actually the one most educators prefer to limit its functionality to accounting, but a good mastery of this instrument, may yield plenty of functionalities. Tests with their wide range of types are the ultimate tool to be used in this research work. Admittedly, testing is perceived as a ‘necessary evil’<sup>54</sup>, in the sense of a procedure to abide by because it is impossible to move up from a lower level to a higher one without some sort of testing and accounting. Yet, the true matter is that testing is much more than just a necessary evil, it is a blessing in disguise, and that its benefits have fallen into oblivion.

Assessment as the principal research instrument in this investigation operated at all the levels of the research. At the first stage of the investigation, assessment in the form of a pre-test helped collecting data and get inferences about the students’ communicative abilities and identifying their weaknesses. The results were then exploited in a bid to provide remedial activities that would hopefully fulfil learners’ needs and requirements to achieve functional abilities in communication in English. Afterwards, tests served as an indicator of how well these remedial instructions and proposed syllabus were doing and

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<sup>54</sup> Testing has always been viewed as a ‘necessary evil’ in the sense that it is time consuming, effort demanding and it uses up valuable class time usefully. However, can we conceive of an education system without examination procedures?

if any adjustments were needed. This assessment process is a formative assessment *par excellence*. At the final stage, a post-test, which is equivalent in difficulty to the former pre-test was used to make possible a quantitative comparison of students' achievements before and after the instructing had taken place. In sum, tests have accomplished a threefold function entailing the identification of the adverse effects of the teach-to-the-test approach for one thing; then serving at serving as a platform to devising remedial instructions; finally, assessment served as an evaluator of the effectiveness teaching process and a gauge of the learning progress of the sample population.

On the other hand, unstructured interviews with teachers and students helped to uncover the teachers perspectives about what to teach and learners' perspectives about what they should be taught; at first place, teachers as the commanders of the classrooms, showed little interest about what these students need to know or build in terms of knowledge and skills in order to take part in the scheduled course, but rather focused more on what is required of them in terms of course ends ( what these students should know at the end of the course). Whereas, conversations with students showed that many students lost interest in the course when they found it clear that the course requirements exceed their actual capabilities . This very simple statements shows the paramount importance to deal, at first, with the students needs i.e. what these students need to know or have in terms of bodies of knowledge and enabling skills in order to achieve what is required of them in terms of course goals. A gap between the students' needs and the course requirements is indeed a serious shortcoming conducive to academic failure.

### **3.4. Pre-Test**

Arguably, as stated earlier, the pre-test as a crucial investigation instrument in this research work, can be defined, from a methodological

standpoint, as a diagnosis test<sup>55</sup> which allows teachers, researchers and educators to have a more precise and detailed idea about the capabilities students brought with them; these capabilities whether in form of skills, knowledge or attitudes are based on the content standards of their previous years of study, namely middle and secondary school English teaching objectives.

The pre-test then was a representation and a summary of the most important skills and knowledge students should already possess and which would serve as a platform to successfully take part in the upcoming areas of study. In sum then, the test has given a vivid picture of where the new students stood in relation to previous content objectives (what was learnt and how it was learnt) as well as to the future study content (what will be learnt and how it will be used).

The content of the test was a summary and a representation of a set of skills and knowledge presented in the form of activities where students were required to make use of their background previous knowledge to provide the right answers that are, to our knowledge, easily within the reach of a first-year EFL student who has spent seven years of English language education which is, according to the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) (See Appendix IX) correspond to intermediate level (B1). Through the different activities of the test, the sample population was asked to perform specific language tasks:

- To provide suitable conversational expressions for specific purposes (opening conversation and expressing apologies).

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<sup>55</sup> A diagnostic test, as its name implies, is a test which is primarily intended to diagnose some very specific aspects of the language: phonological, grammatical, semantic, etc. One of the main advantages that a diagnostic test can offer is to provide pedagogical solutions for a wide range of mixed-ability classes.

- To complete the missing parts of a conversation while focusing on some grammar points, vocabulary, fix conversational routines and tag questions.
- To supply information following a model provided in the instructions.
- To supply information in activities simulating real-life situations
- To behave linguistically in a socially appropriate way to the setting (formal-informal language).
- To show cultural knowledge about the target community.

(See Appendix XII)

These language test activities are sub-skills which, to a large extent, are also the ones which enable EFL students to take part in the upcoming sought competences and they are, to some degree, reflective to the ends sought out of the seven-year period of English Language Education of the middle and secondary schooling. Though, it could be noticed that the pre-test administered was somehow short and, long way far from summarizing the whole span of time of EFL learning. arguably, a summary of seven years of teaching objectives is simply unperceivable due to time constraints and the possible students revolting about a torturous seven years of study test, so to avoid any issues, we played at the generalization possibility, in which students' responses in relation to a given item can be generalized to a whole skill or body of knowledge surrounding this particular item. To design such a test, we scrutinized the latest English Baccalaureate exams, fragmentized them and relate each item with the curricular end it is intended to represent; we identified any missing ends that we consider important, then, come up with items that are reflective to those items and more importantly, items that are prone to generalization, finally, follow some procedures to make sure the inferences made out of this test will be valid. In this very specific context, Popham (2003, p. 143) posits that, *“from an instructional perspective, it is*

*better for tests to measure a handful of powerful skills accurately than it is for tests to do inaccurate job of measuring many skills.”*

### **3.4.1. Check Validity-Related Evidence**

Admittedly, it is of paramount importance to make sure that the inferences made out of the test results are valid, since these very same inferences will represent the building block to design remedial instructional activities in an attempt to eventually foster students knowledge and skills, and more importantly, however, to judge the effectiveness of the teaching those students received. To collect sound evidence about inference-validity, one need to determine what the test in question really is intended to measure<sup>56</sup>, i.e. validity, the degree to which a test closely relates to what is supposed to measure, or can be used successfully for the very purposes for which it is intended. In down-to-earth terms, does the test assess what is actually intended to assess?

In this case study, the linguistic skills intended to be measured are the communicative abilities of those EFL students, yet communicative abilities as a battery of sub-skills is rather a broad term ranging from delivering a simple message of greeting, thanking and leave-taking to formulating sound and logical arguments and explaining complex processes to an audience. In this broad range of sub-skills formulating together the communicative model of competence, what is initially required to be developed in our EFL learners as a first step, is a moderately acceptable communicative abilities, these abilities can eventually be summed up as follows:

- Clearly understand and express ideas, opinions and thoughts.

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<sup>56</sup> It is worth remembering in this context that *“One of the biggest obstacles to overcome in constructing adequate tests is to measure the criterion and not inadvertently something else”* (Brown, 1994 p. 253). In line with this quotation, he advances three basic criteria defining a ‘good’ test: practicality, reliability and validity (Cf. Benmostefa, 2013).

- Good mastery of the basic syntactic and semantic levels of the language.
- Fulfil various functions such as exchange information, give advice, express opinion and feelings, agree and disagree politely, open and end conversations appropriately and talk about the past, present and the future etc.
- Learn to use the communicative style appropriate to the exigencies of the speech event taking into account the context of the discussion, the participants' status and the topic of discussion.
- Develop a sense of cultural awareness about the target and the local culture in a bid to develop a cross-cultural understanding.

Admittedly, If our EFL students manage to develop the above mentioned communicative abilities and give importance primary to improving their competence in making use of the English language rather than giving primary importance to scores, that might be considered as a promising start to reach a satisfactory degree of abilities in communicating. If that is not the case, and if the predominant interest of students remains apart from the development of their good command of the English language, it is with deep regret that the educational institution will be labelled failing to achieve quality education. The rationale of an English Language Department, no matter the location or situation, is to train communicatively fluent and competent English language speakers and contribute to the development of the citizens' functional abilities.

#### **3.4.2. Setting Validity Check**

In a bid to secure the validity of the inferences made out of the test's results, a series of checkpoints were established; the first checkpoint consisted of administering the test to two different groups of students. The first group were students whose English language proficiency is low whereas the second group are students who are 'known' to be supposedly competent in English

(See Appendix XIII). The result obtained showed a crystal-clear difference in marks obtained by the two different groups, this acted as an indicator that the test does measure students' communicative performances, in the sense that those who are communicatively competent pass the test easily whereas those who do not fail. This crystal-clear difference in the test results confirms at one level that the test yields valid inferences.

The second indicator to validity was the simple procedure to ask a number of English teachers to check the items presented on the test and review whether each item clearly represents the particular skill or knowledge it is intended to assess and whether this item helps to uncover students' cognitive abilities. The teachers taking part in the scrutiny were given a simple instruction to answer: Yes if the item in question does represent the skill or knowledge it is intended to assess; No if it does not; or Uncertain. If there is any uncertainty about the level of accuracy of the item. An extra space was allocated if the teacher wanted to add any remarks or notes that might be of help.

Stepping further in a bid to secure inference validity, a number of precautions were taken in formulating the test. As a first precaution, we deliberately excluded selected-response items and composed the test mainly out of constructed-response items, this type of questions, unlike the other one, gives students little room to respond haphazardly yet come up with the right answers. The second precaution was to clearly state at the very beginning of the test that the test was not for accountability purposes and was purely for research purposes, and students participation in this experiment would add value to the educational institutions. This particular informing note aimed at comforting the



students and imbued in their minds that not only the test was risk-free but they are contributing positively to a scientific research as well. This, we hoped, might result in making them more committed and conscientious in giving fair responses to the test.

In a further attempt to make the test-based inference more valid, a short section was included in the test in which test takers may specify if they have had any specific English language experiences. The aim of this section was to identify any students who have had any other learning or training outside or different from the one provided by the Algerian public schools, and which could help them easily give answers to the test items. Surprisingly, we found that two students have had an educational experience which is not very common in the Algerian community. Obviously, that extra language experience might give them an advantage over the other student.

One student noted that he had spent some years in the United Kingdom; he learned plenty of things about the language and the target community. For the sake of objectivity and to give the test fairness, the student was asked not to take part in the experiment. As for the other student, she stated that she has studied English in a French middle school. Seemingly, that might not necessarily give her an advantage in responding to the test over the other students. Again, for the reasons aforementioned, it was decided to dismiss her from test taking. This exclusive measure showed to be very effective in indentifying exclusive cases that could covertly reduce the validity of the test results which has as a primary goal to uncover what our students have learned in the Algerian schools in the first place.

### **3.4.3. Affect Assessment**

As its name implies, affect assessment is primarily concerned with learners' affective side. Through this type of assessment, teachers can get a fix about students' attitudes, motivation, worries, and interests concerning different

subjects. In our specific investigation, the affects we had interest in relates to students confidence in doing some tasks. This very specific assessment is particularly interesting because it helps identify learners' affect towards skills and the extent to which they agree or disagree with specific ideas, and to indicate the degree of importance they attach to a particular skill or subject, or the frequency with which they participate in particular activity. Each response is scored in terms of its positiveness, i.e. degree of positive attitude towards the affective target. The responses are then, summed to attain a total score. Thus, references will be made about students' affective status as a group (Anderson and Bourke, 2000). This affective relation the learner holds towards a skill or subjects plays a crucial role in the degree of openness to learn and acquire it. In other words, the affect a learner holds towards a specific skill, subject, task or knowledge can be decisive about how well he or she will master it.

In our specific context, the affect assessment administered to our simple population was in a form of a self-report which is, itself, in the form of a structured questionnaire where students were asked to give responses to a series of questions or statements (items) all relating to specific communicative tasks. The students were asked to select the answer that best represents their level of confidence in performing the task. The predefined answers ranged from not confident to very confident passing by barely confident and fairly confident. (See Appendix XIII)

It is worth noting that affect assessment respondents, usually, tend to show more aptitude to give responses that are more desired and favourable in an attempt to save their faces. To avoid any provision of information and data that are not consistent with students' true feelings and to reduce social desirability<sup>57</sup>,

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<sup>57</sup> In social science research, social desirability bias is a type of response bias that reflect a tendency of some respondents to report answers deemed to be more favourable and socially acceptable than would be their true answers. This responses bias can be in a form of over-reporting good behaviour or attitude or under-reporting bad behaviour or attitude. Social desirability is classified as one of the chief respondent-related sources of error.

assuring anonymity is key as Stanley and Hopkins (1972) suggested: “... *anonymity is the key to valid ... assessment of feelings in any situation*” Stanley and Hopkins (1972, p. 32). Thus, anonymity is imperative in order to collect valid inferences from the affect assessment results.

#### **3.4.4. Inferences from Tests Results**

The pre-test administered yielded the results that would be used to make inferences about the students’ entry profile. This state of affairs allowed serving a two-fold purpose: , to discover more about the gap existing between what is prescribed as curricular ends and teaching objectives and what students actually know in terms of classroom practices. Second, to design instructional remedial activities whose aim would be to bridge the gap between the curricular ends and students’ actual capabilities, not least at the communicative level.

These two actions are measures to taken at the classroom level by concerned and conscientious teachers who want to secure an education of quality to their learners. However, the measures would make greater good if taken at the ministry level pushing, in one way or another, policy makers to reconsider and re-evaluate the *status quo* of the education system with its exam-centric pedagogy, which devotes much time to testing activities and little time to learning opportunities. These highly desirable measures would exempt tertiary level EFL teachers from the seemingly incisive dealing with learners with unsatisfactory communicative abilities. Analogically speaking, it is more efficient to drain the swamp than kill the mosquitoes.

#### **3.4.5. Formative Assessment: Improving Learning Experience**

Besides accountability, testing can play a wide range of functions. Among these functions, one deserves a special share of interest. Tests are means to engineer innovation, to steer and guide the curriculum (Alderson, 2004) and are often intended as “levers for change” (Pearson, 1988). Admittedly, assessment, in its formative type is acknowledged by many teachers, educators and even

learners to have many virtues which undeniably fosters the teachers' job of instructing and students' task of learning. Yet, before one sets off in how to exploit optimally formative assessment, a short yet precise definition of it is indeed a need. Though there is no general consensus about a specific definition to formative assessment, there are a number of definitions that put the process in very clear words. The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) defines formative assessment as, *“A process used by teachers and students during instruction that provides feedback to adjust on-going teaching and learning to improve students' achievement of intended instructional outcomes.”* This holistic definition puts emphasis on the fact that formative assessment is not a test but rather a process, a planned process which takes place during instructing period; a period where adjustments, remedy and modification on the teaching process can still be made. These changes are made possible due to the inferences made out of the process and which can be used by both teachers and students to alter their instructing techniques or learning strategies respectively.

#### **3.4.6. Post-Testing: Gauging Teaching and Learning**

At the end of the instruction period, as a way to gather evidence about 1. How much did the student learn? 2. How did they learn it? And 3. How well did we teach it? A test at the end of the instruction period was indeed more than a necessity. In this way, a comparison was made possible between the pre-test results and those obtained in the post-test. If the comparison process is properly done, it yields sound data that could be used to evaluate teaching and learning as a whole.

One overt way to carry out the comparison appropriately is simply to administer the same pre-test as a post-test; however, the only difference between the two, is the instruction students have had between the two tests, if instructing has been efficiently formulated, that means, there should be some clear improvement in students' performance level in the post-test. A word of

caution is in order here, to make sure that results are valid as expected to be, some technical procedures ought to be taken.

Admittedly, in order to avoid some sort of pre-test reactivity, especially with the first pre-test where many items assess a knowledge that is factual i.e., cultural knowledge; we made use of a technique of devising two pre-tests which should be to a very extent equi-difficult, these twin-tests labelled “A” and “B” should be administered as following:

- At the pre-test, half of the test takers will have the test (A) and the other half the test (B).
- At the post-test the half who had the test (A) as a pre-test will have the test (B) as a post-test, whereas, those who had the test (B) as a pre-test will have the test (A) as a post-test.

This technique known under the name of *split-and-switch-data-gathering* not only reduces pre-test reactivity, but also secures two tests taking that are equal in difficulty but different as tests. The results obtained then will be used to compare the pre-test and post-test results, and make a threefold inference about how much learning occurred, how successful teaching was and how efficient the curriculum is. These results might be used to allow more academic reflections to improving the teaching practices and the curriculum ends in a mission for seeking the best learning experience for our EFL learners.

Along with the pre-post-test cognitive assessment, a pre-post-test affect assessment can be used to track any changes in students’ affect along the instructing period. This change can be used as an evidence of the effect teaching had on the learners’ attitudes, interests and values; the difference between the pre-test and post-test results will depict student’s change that can be judged either as positive or negative.

### **3.5. Elucidating the Research Situation**

The research was conducted on first-year EFL students directly upon their arrival to university and, which is worth recalling, have had seven years of English education. The investigation had as sample population two groups from two different promotions i.e., 2017-2018 and 2018-2019 academic years, consisting of thirty students each. These two groups from two different promotions, we hoped, would represent faithfully the first-year EFL learners in general, thus, making possible, with no scruple, the generalization of the research findings.

With reference to previous research work (cf. Baiche 2008; Bouyakoub 2012; Benrabah 2014) carried out in the same department and on a similar sample population, i.e. first-year EFL students; we predicted that the results of the pre-test would be, very probably, below the average required, which would direct us to the next step of the research work which is working to find remedial solutions conducive to quality education, which to a certain extent, represents the rationale of this research work.

### **3.6. Administering the Pre-Test and Affect Assessment**

The pre-test that was administered, was a summary of a number of rudimentary bodies of knowledge and skills students need to take part in any communicative situations. This knowledge which represents a must-have background is also a necessity for an actual take up in an advanced English education courses. Items presented in the test encompass activities dealing with actional competence<sup>58</sup> (See Appendix XI) and conversational competence

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<sup>58</sup> Actional competence is defined as that *“competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech act and speech act sets)”* Celce-Murcia et al. 1995, p. 17). Actional competence is then, that capability for a speaker (1) to achieve complex actional patterns in the target language by means of putting into interaction his command of a wide range of conversational chunks (forms, sentence stems, formulaic expression and strategies) with his mastery of the rules of how to correctly combine these chunks to perform a

which, to the knowledge of many sociolinguists and discourse analysts are the pillars *proper* underpinning any communication act.

From the schedule standpoint, the programme of Comprehension and Oral Expression course usually starts in mid September and, in overall, the objective of the course is to enhance students' communicative abilities by allowing them to take part in various tasks and activities which attempt to replicate day-to-day situations where communicative competence is key component. Accordingly, this sought course-objective and relying on what students should have acquired in their previous years of EFL schooling, the pre-test, divided into three parts, has been developed in an attempt to assess their communicative abilities by devising activities that represent various communicative situations and which, according to the students' Baccalaureate EFL records, are within their reach.

(See Appendix XII)

These pre-tests would make possible, according to our judgment, a gathering of valid inferences about students' abilities to cope with various conversational situations that are commonplace such as greeting, apologizing, asking and giving directions, showing opinion, agreeing and disagreeing... etc and constructing a fair judgment about the quality of the former English language education these students received. Admittedly, coping with such usual situations requires the speaker to have at his or her disposal a good working knowledge of the English language at both the *usage* and *use* levels to use Widdowson's dichotomy, which, at a practical level, would open the channels

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context-appropriate speech acts and speech act sets (2) involving interactions such as interpersonal exchanges, information exchanges, expressions of different opinions, feelings, future scenarios, etc.

for speech and speech acts to take place and produce what is known as our social reality.

### **3.7. Correction and Data Analysis**

Two teachers, a doctoral student and a senior lecturer, were designated to correct and cross-correct the tests in accordance with a pre-defined correction grid. The results obtained were used to serve two aims. The first was concerned with comparing students' obtained marks in the pre-tests with the marks they obtained in the Baccalaureate EFL exam, and identify discrepancies in the results obtained. The second way of scoring was concerned with finding out students' areas of weaknesses. In this bid, test activities were classified under four categories. These categories reflected the students' weaknesses at different language levels. To determine students' weaknesses, each activity was categorized according to the knowledge or skill it was intended to assess. The activities that sought the same knowledge or skill were classified under the same category and an average mark of the group in each category was calculated. Note that the scoring in this process dealt with the group as whole rather than each student individually. The correction grid remained the same as pre-determined at the beginning and a threshold mark was determined. If the group got below the threshold mark determined (two thirds of the whole mark in the category), that meant, the group needed reinforcement of the skill or body of knowledge represented in the category. If the group mark was above the threshold mark, this meant that the group masters to an acceptable degree the skills and knowledge represented in the category. The following table gives a detailed description of these categories:



<b>Categories</b>	<b>Category 1</b>	<b>Category 2</b>	<b>Category 3</b>	<b>Category 4</b>
Knowledge/Skill of the category	Suitable Words/ Expression	Conversational Routines	Formal/ Informal Language	Cultural Knowledge
Activities in the Category representing the skill/knowledge	Pre-test 1: Activity 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	Pre-test 2: Activity 1,2,3,4,5	Pre-test 3: Activity 1,2,3,4	Pre-test 4 : Activity 9,10,11
Overall Mark of all the activities	18	30	20	12
Threshold mark	12	20	13.33	9

### **3.1. Activities Per Category**

#### **3.8.1. Conditions of Test Handing**

It is worth setting up a note-like report relating to the exact conditions in which the research project was undertaken. The following notes were made in an attempt to describe, as faithfully as possible, the handling of the tests. The two groups who sat for the tests belonged to two different promotions: the first group to the 2018 promotion, whereas the second one to the 2019 promotion. Worth noting also that two students from the second group were identified inapt for the test interest since they have different educational backgrounds i.e. one student has studied in a French middle school and the second student spent many years in the UK, thus, their test results would be invalid for the sake of the research work which, we recall, investigates the Algerian education background.

In a further attempt to secure more suitable conditions to meet the intended tests ends, we managed not to administer the four pre-tests all together; we allocated two weeks time to devise them. Furthermore, to raise the test results' validity, students were informed that those tests were not devised for the sake of accountability, but their aim was exclusively to contribute to a scientific project that aims to make EFL education better. Convinced by the idea that their participation would add value to education in general, any intention or motive to cheat or give dishonest responses, we hoped, would be dismissed. Again for the sake of securing valid answers in the affect assessment, students were asked not to mention their names on test sheets, thus, conserving total anonymity. Finally, to avoid any misunderstanding and any unintentional ambiguities, instructions relating to each activity in the tests were explained in Arabic.

### **3.8.2. Pre-Tests Results**

The pre-test results confirmed our first research hypothesis; most of our sample population, and by extension, first-year EFL students at the Algerian University of Tlemcen, displayed serious weaknesses at the level of language use. When asked to perform communicative functions, they rely mostly on the Knowledge about Language (KAL) they have gained through an intensive learning of the English language which has always drawn heavily upon the basic principles of the teach-to-the-test approach. This is another way of saying that the marks obtained in the Baccalaureate English exam, based on our findings, do not faithfully reflect the students' real good command of the English language. Consequently, a compensatory language adjustment imposes itself to redress inefficiency in students' communicative abilities to hopefully entrench quality in English Language Education.

Now, the ball is in the hands of university EFL teachers; a strategy to cope with those critical defects is admittedly needed. In an attempt to reinforce students' rudimentary competences, the data obtained from the various tests devised would be the road map and index to come up with a made-to-measure curriculum which

would play the role of the foundation stone to build students communicative competence. This remedial work, an integral part of The Language and Culture Adjustment Programme, comes to confirm our second research hypothesis. Yet, what are the results obtained from the various range of tests administered?

### 3.8.3. Affect Assessment Data

As an answer to the aforementioned question and in order to avoid launching into a long and useless discursive debate, the following bar diagram provides a clear report on students' responses in what is entitled affect assessment:

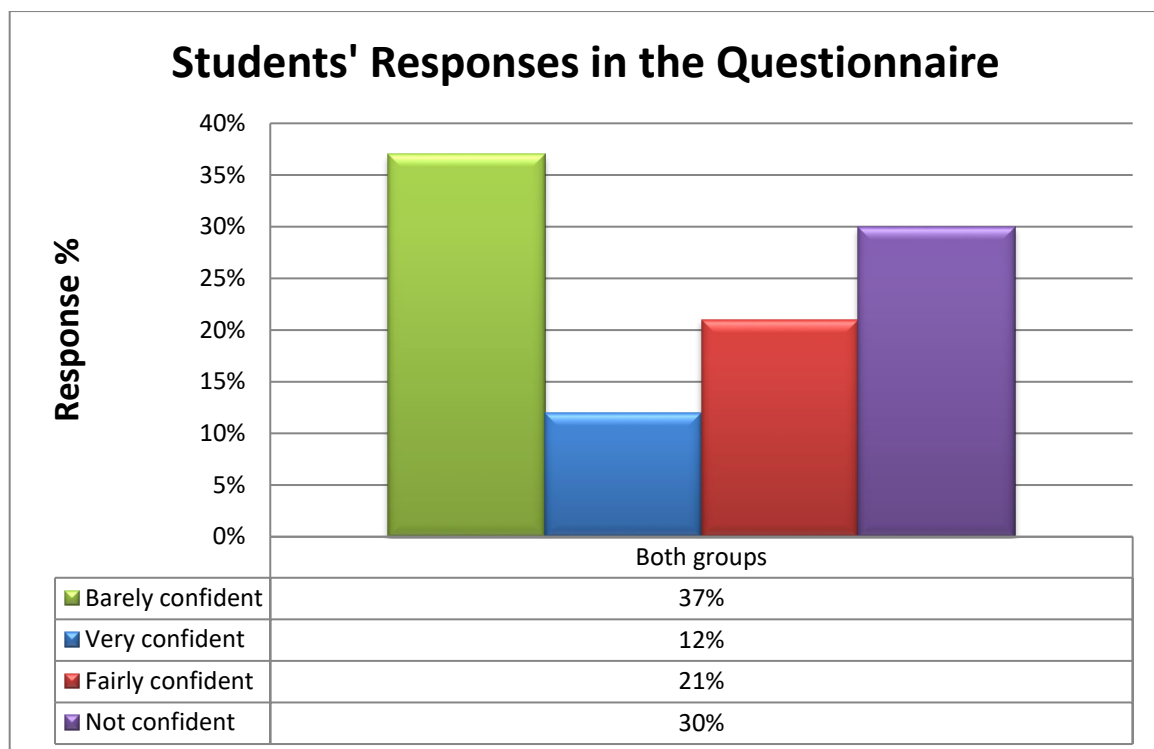


Diagram 3.1. Students' Responses in the Questionnaire

The results obtained in the affect test show a clear lack in students' confidence in performing communicative tasks; the largest percentage of students' answers went to 'barely confident', whereas the lowest went to 'very confident', followed by 'fairly confident'. These results reflect students' perception about their abilities in communicating, which attest that, even

student are aware of their limitations when it comes to communicating. These results in return back up the idea of an English Language Education that focuses on exams not only demeans students’ skills and knowledge, but also degrade their confidence in using the language actively. In this sense, along with building up students’ communicative competence, the teacher also needs to reflect on restoring his students’ confidence in using the language for its most patent purpose, i.e. communication in its true sense of the word.

### 3.8.4. Interpreting Results and Identifying Learners’ Needs

In an attempt to identify our sample population’s needs, and by extension to all first-year EFL students, the four categories we sectioned along with the group score in each category helped us ending up having the following results based on which we made our inferences about what is needed and how crucial this need is.

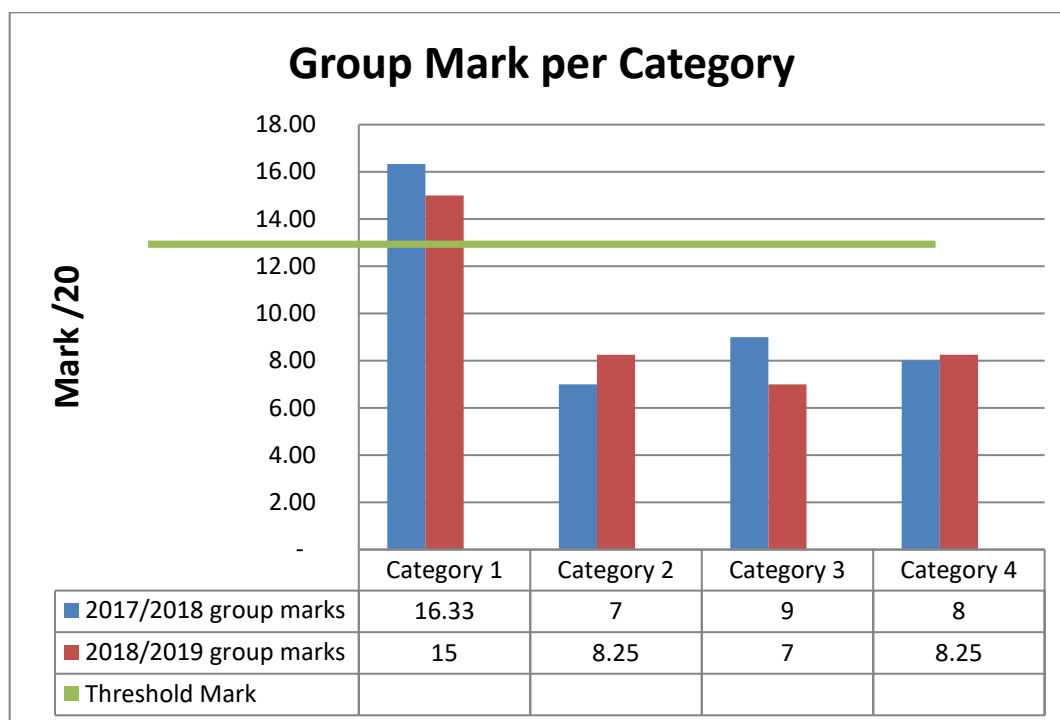


Diagram 3.2. Group Mark per Category

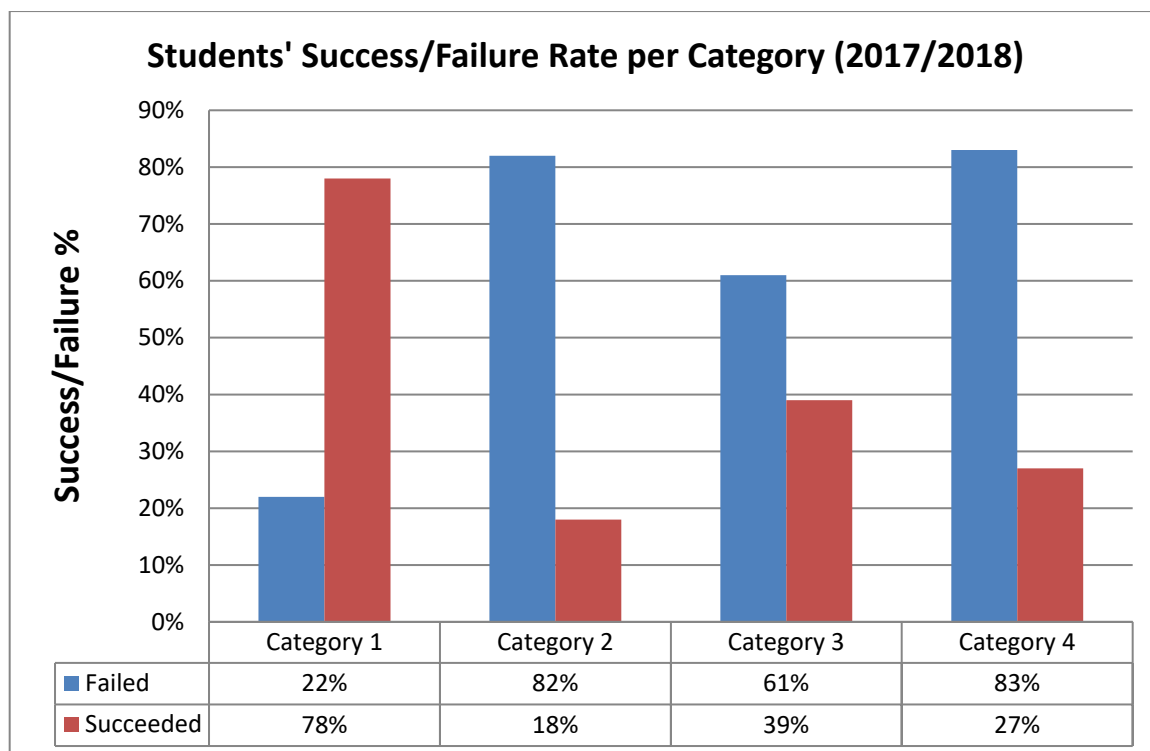


Diagram 3.3. Students' Success/Failure Rate per Category (2017/2018)

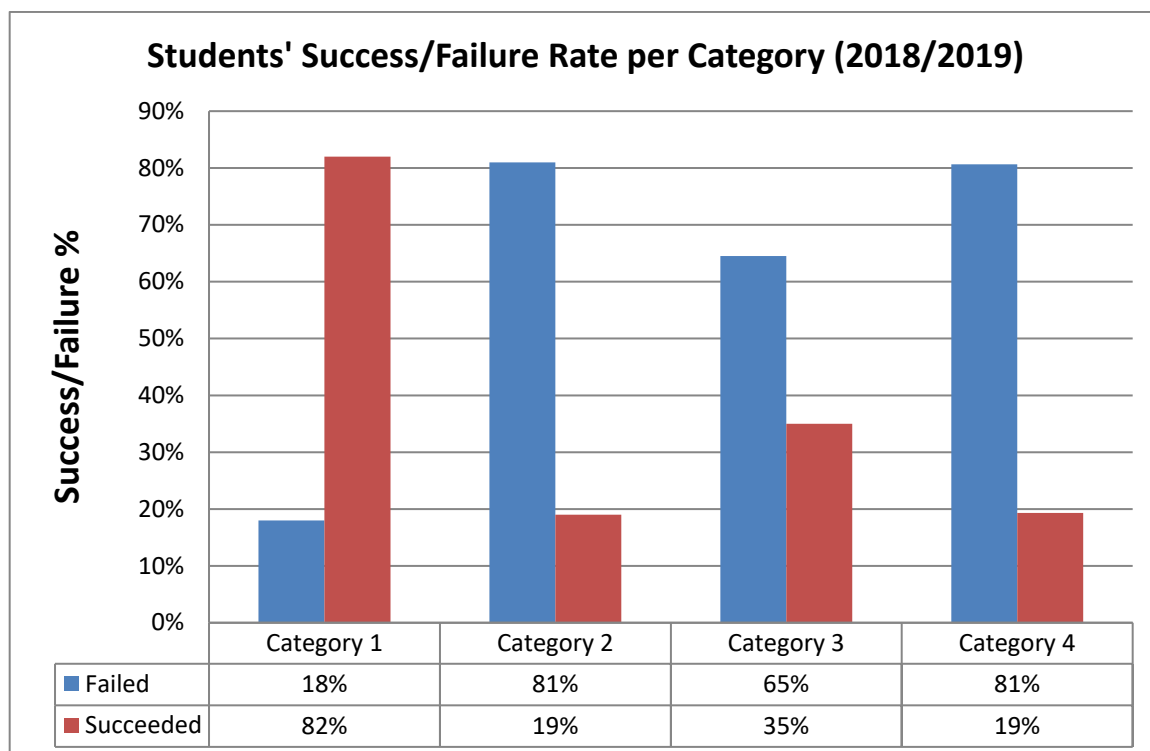
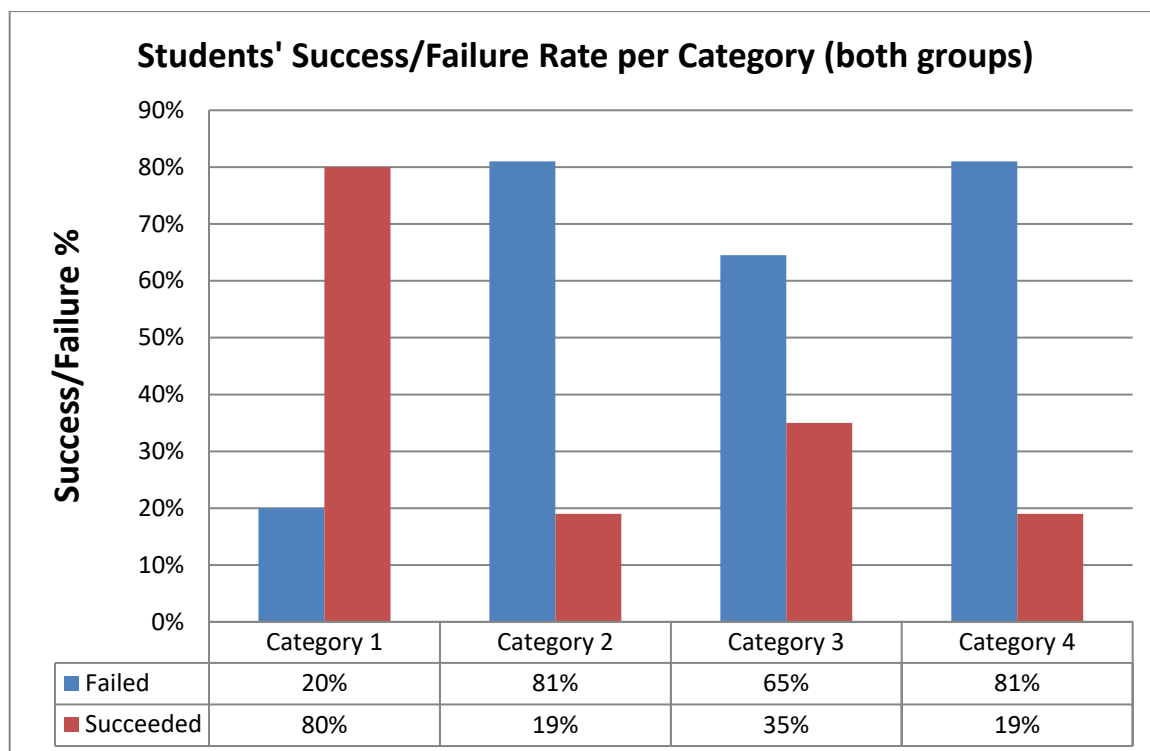


Diagram 3.4. Students' Success/Failure Rate per Category (2018/2019)



*Diagram 3.5. Students' Success/Failure Rate per Category (both groups)*

Making use of results obtained, it is clear that our students need sound reinforcements in three out of the four categories we sectioned. Apart from providing the appropriate word/expression which calls for (KAL) Knowledge about Language, which the two groups reached the threshold level, however, none of the other categories namely, informal/formal language; conversational routines; and cultural knowledge reached the predefined threshold mark required. In this sense, the curriculum will be built up as a detailed representation of the three categories where students noticeably failed; converting each category into a teaching unit, this operation should have as an end result courses that suit learners need and reinforce their communicative competence by making use of the language in an active way. After all, this is exactly what the module Comprehension and Oral Expression is designed to achieve: communicative proficiency.

### 3.9. Objectives of the Designed Course

The mission underlying this course design is to directly tackle students' very poor and limited abilities in communication. Admittedly, students are able to use English in the sense that they are able to provide correct answers when the tasks require them to search in their background linguistic competence. However, if they are asked to respond to tasks that simulate real life situations requiring an active role from their part, far from the recalling of fix bodies of knowledge or answering questions that are de-contextualized, they easily feel lost; their background knowledge let them down. In order words, they lack the abilities to use language functions; formulaic structures and conversational routines to name a few (See 1.4.2. and 1.7.1.). This *status quo* imposes a conception of a learning environment that is as communicatively realistic as possible bearing in mind the various intersecting components and sub-components that compose communicative competence. Arguably, if the situation, though an artefact, tries to represent a realistic situation, the interlocutors that take part in the discussion should therefore take into consideration, not only the theme of communication, but also the sociolinguistic and the pragmatic parts that shape the communicative interaction.

This trail to reproduce realistic and commonplace communicative situations, though very challenging, is the key to a successful communicative teaching. Language in such a situation will not be a declarative knowledge but a procedural one (See 1.4.3.) that calls into practice the different intersecting and interactive components of communicative competence, thus truly build the potentials required to become a competent speaker. In a bid to achieve such a promising end, we made use of Celce Murcia's model of communication (See appendix I). Our selection of this particular model amongst all the available models is justified by the innate nature of this model to be more pedagogical oriented than the other models. Its pedagogical orientation makes it more prone to an eventual application in an educational context that seeks to meet specific communicative outcomes.

## **Objectives of the course:**

Through this suggested course, we target to achieve the following objectives

### **3.9.1. Linguistic Objectives**

- Develop students' familiarity with the English language linguistic structures (via intense reading and listening sessions)
- Enhance students' reading abilities ( via read aloud sessions)
- Develop students' oral fluency and presentation skills ( TED talk videos, role-playing, oral presentations)
- Provide students with opportunities to apply their linguistic knowledge to formulate stretches of texts to express themselves (role-play, oral presentations)
- Students should learn some pre-constructed /formulaic expressions and use them in their speech ( simulate conversations in divert situations )

### **3.9.2. Strategic Objectives**

- Train students to put in strategies to overcome any possible breakdowns in communication (simulate breakdown situations)
- Train students to put plans to achieve communicative intents

### **3.9.3. Cultural Objectives**

- Raise students' awareness about their own culture (administration of facts about the target culture; analysis of different social context)
- Raise students' ability to compare and contrast their own culture with the culture of the target language (UK/US cultures)

### **3.9.4. Social Objectives**

- Develop students' cooperative learning ( group work tasks )
- Develop students' critical thinking (via open debates; comment on divert facts, opinions and phenomena)



- Develop students' awareness about non-verbal/paralinguistic factors in social interactions (bring about facts about different paralinguistic behaviours and their meaning in the target culture)

For a detailed outline of the course objectives see Appendix X.

As an answer to whether the suggested syllabus actually meets the students' needs and requirements when it comes to communicating in English, a post-test was indeed a necessity. Admittedly, a post-test that covers all the items in the pre-tests administered at the beginning of the instructing period can yield information and allow us to make inference about not only how much learning occurred but also about the instructing quality and the syllabus credibility. The process of post-testing students came at the very end of the academic year, reminding students of the research they took part in at the beginning of the academic year, and re-mentioning the importance of this research work both for them and the coming students, we hoped, would refresh the same positive attitude and notable conscientiousness they displayed while taking the pre-tests.

### **3.10. Post-Tests Results and Interpretation**

The following charts illustrate clearly the results obtained in the post-tests:

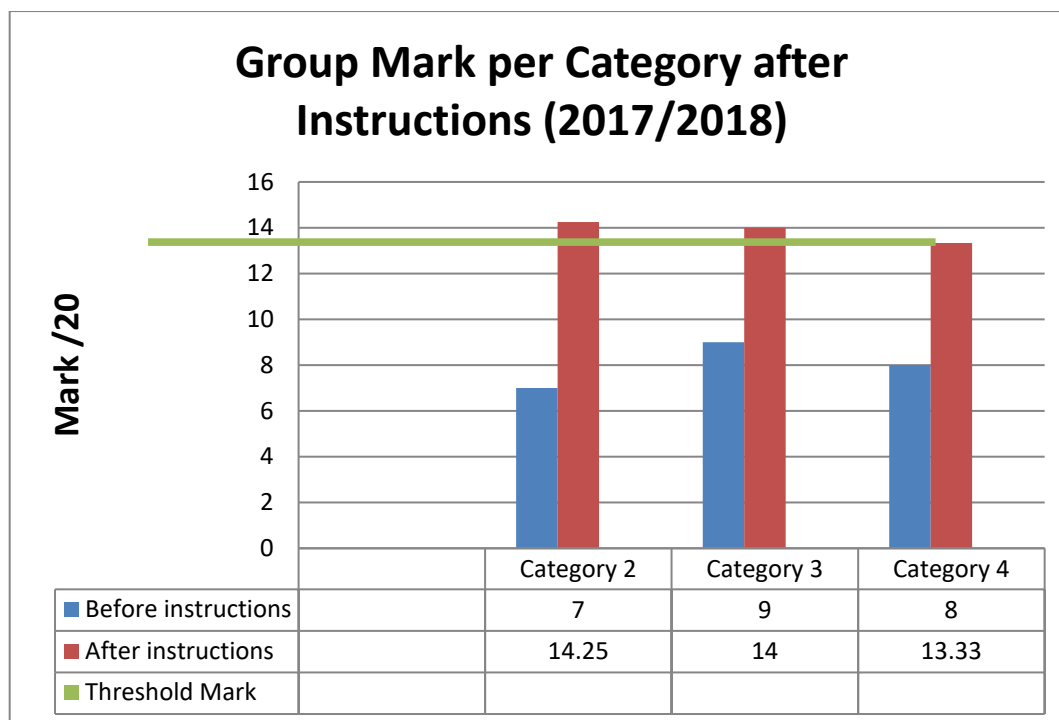


Diagram 3.6. Group Mark per Category after Instructions (2017/2018)

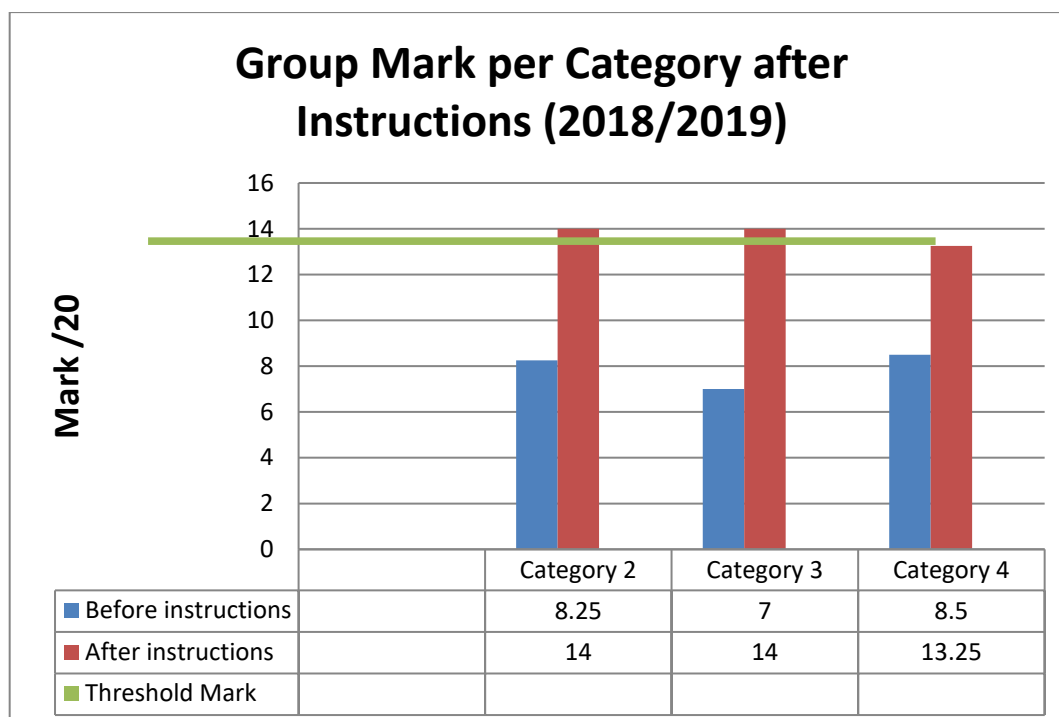
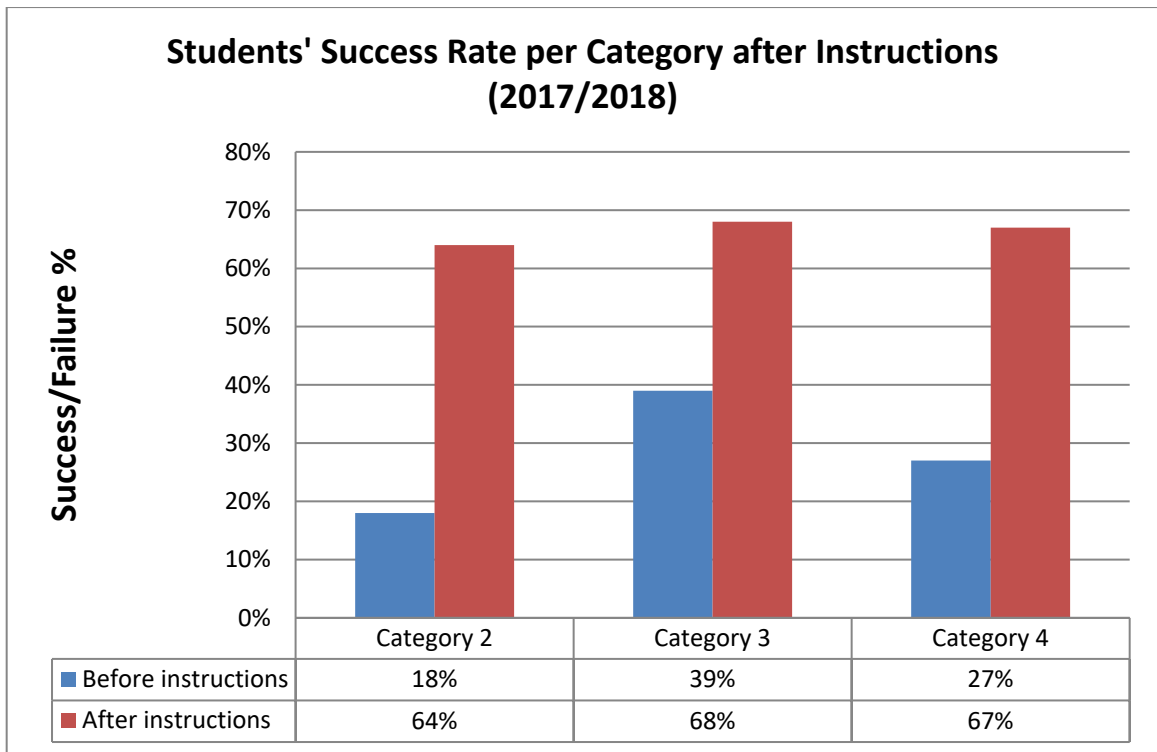
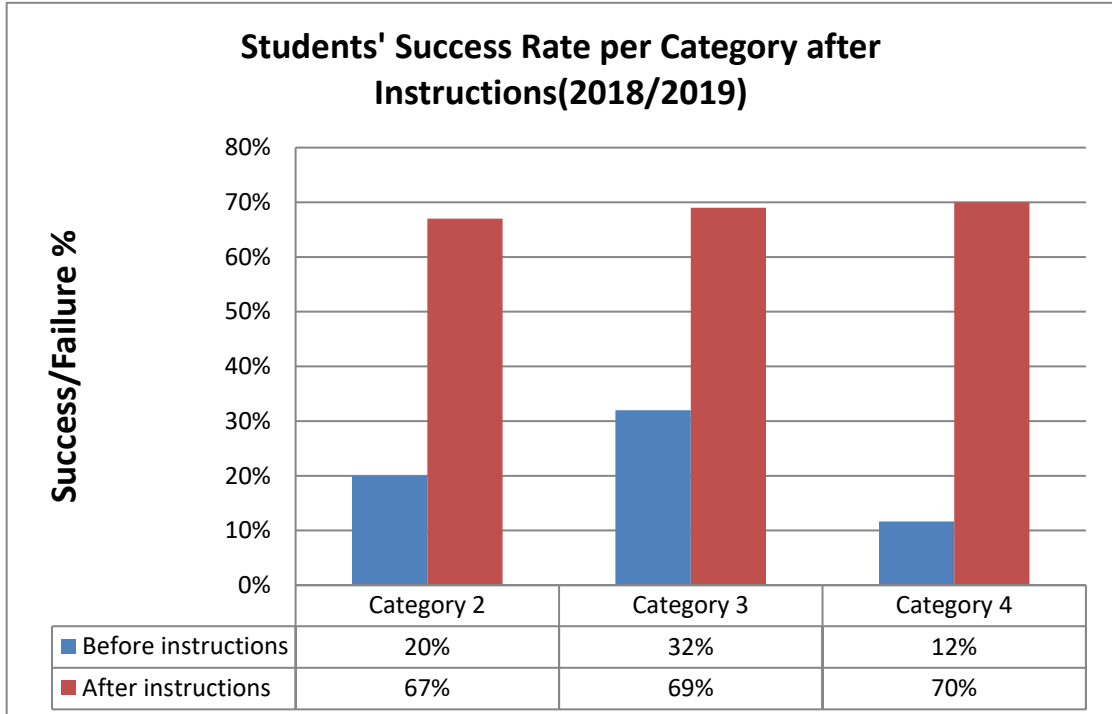


Diagram 3.7. Group Mark per Category after Instructions (2018/2019)



*Diagram 3.8. Students' Success Rate per Category before and after Instructions (2017/2018)*



*Diagram 3.9. Students' Success Rate per Category before and after Instructions (2018/2019)*

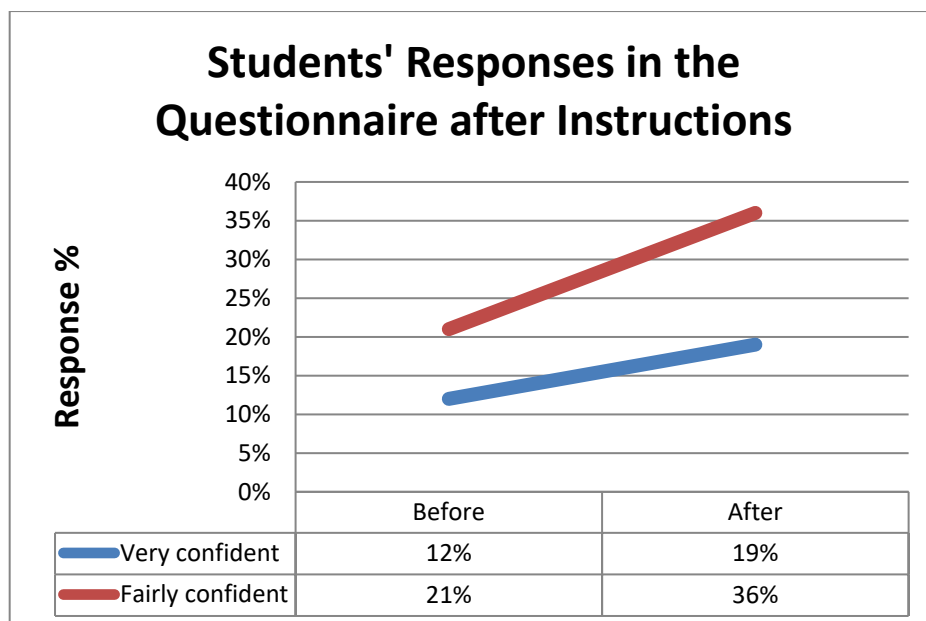


Diagram 3.10. Students' Responses in the Questionnaire after Instructions

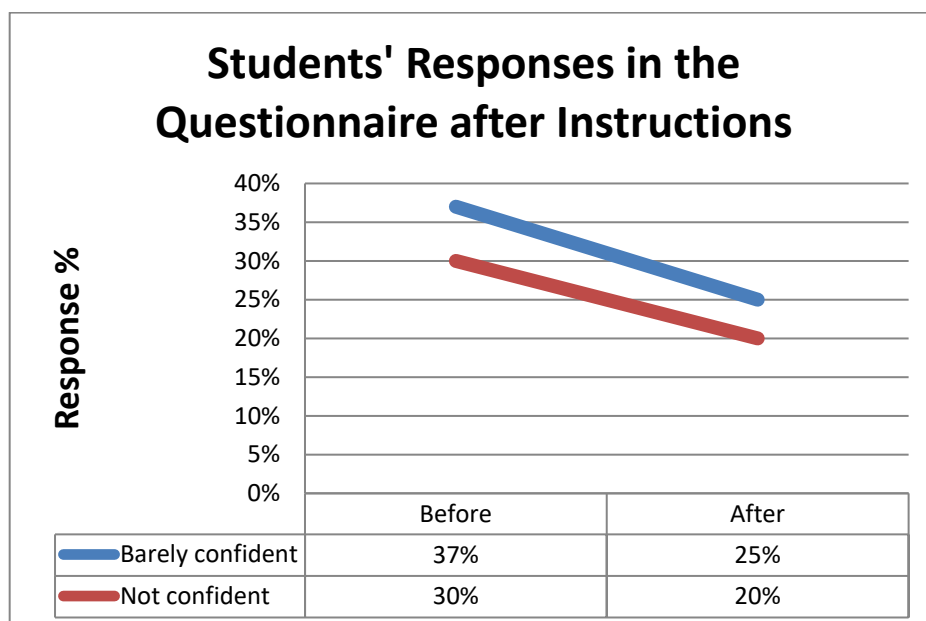


Diagram 3.11. Students' Responses in the Questionnaire after Instructions

From the above charts, we can notice a clear improvement in students' scores comparing to the pre-test scores in the three tested categories namely language formalities; conversational routines; situational dialogues and cultural knowledge. These categories, an integral component of communicative

competence are indeed a rudimentary requirement if we want students to be effective in communicating in English. This significant improvement is mainly due to the following reasons:

- The courses designed targeted exactly students' communicative weak areas
- The assessment focused more on improving teaching quality and learning potential.
- Many of the Instructing decisions were linked to inferences made out of formative assessment results
- Students' involvement in the course were the key to good marks

Along with students' significant improvement in the three mentioned categories, students' confidence to tackle situations that are communicative oriented also increased. This significant improvement in students' knowledge and confidence in tackling situations communicatively reflects students' positive attitude towards the designed syllabus and the instructing approach which got them out of the routines of recalling fix bodies of knowledge to an active and creative use of language that focuses on language as a means to communicate.

### **3.11. Conclusion**

Investigating the effect of the teach-to-the-test approach on learners' communicative abilities revealed how critically an approach that focuses solely on scoring well in the tests undermines any knowledge or skill that is not included in exams. These selective-teaching approach limits, to a critical extent, students' exposure to tasks that are communicative-oriented, thus, depriving them from approaching the language as a means to communicate and a tool to achieve various functions and reduce English studies to a temporary module with an expiration date that comes just after the exam has taken place. While this misuse of assessment proves to be fatal for education quality, a

judicious use of assessment tools proved to be the exact opposite promoting learning opportunities therefore, the quality of education.

Admittedly, judicious assessment use permitted us, first off, to gauge students' prior knowledge and abilities in communicating which revealed results below the required level; these discrepancies between students' achievements in the EFL Baccalaureate exam and their abilities to use the language plainly exposed the counter-productivity of the educational practices compelling us, on the one hand, to rethinking about the education system credibility, and on the other hand, forced us to urgently devise remedial courses to reduce the lag of the of the students' communicative abilities. Arguably, while reviewing the education system is far from the reach of the teachers' hands, designing remedial courses that meet students' needs is eventually the teachers' job, namely, at tertiary level where the curriculum is not state imposed. In this fashion, determined to change the *status quo* of the students' communicative abilities and armed with various assessing functions allowed us to a large extent, to tackle this problematic at all stages, setting off by identifying students' needs by linking their entry-status level with what is actually sought of them. This approach permitted us to identify numerous weaknesses in students' prior knowledge, which then, became the basis of the course designed as an attempt to mend these weaknesses and reinforce their communicative competence.

The designed syllabus effectiveness and the instructing efficiency check fell under the formative assessment frame, in other words, a continual formative assessment during the instructing period made possible a real-time evaluation of the syllabus effectiveness in responding to students' requirements and the instructing effectiveness in imparting the sought knowledge and skills making possible any necessary adjustment judged as essential to an effective learning progress. Finally, comparing pretests with the post tests results revealed a rather interesting improvement in students' communicative abilities, vouching for the effectiveness of the applied research approach, namely

assessment as a truly powerful pedagogical instrument. Admittedly, the multi-task assessment in this investigation proves that assessment, in no way, is limited to attributing marks, but is a key to multiple pedagogical tasks that range from the simple mark attribution to the highly sensible duty of evaluating and adjusting an actual educational system. This said, assessment literacy has proved to be key in the pedagogical mission of providing a quality education that not only affects students' learning but determines tomorrow's citizens' competencies and potential in leading the nation.

**CHAPTER FOUR**  
**ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION: FROM TEST-  
ORIENTED TEACHING TO COMMUNICATIVE  
LANGUAGE LEARNING**



# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## **ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION: FROM TEST-ORIENTED TEACHING TO COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING**

### **4.1. Introduction**

### **4.2. Ethical Teaching**

### **4.3. Teacher's Role Specifications**

4.3.1. Ethical Teacher

4.3.2. Ethical Teaching Vs Unethical Teaching

4.3.3. Accountability

4.3.4. Teacher's Play-Safe Policy

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### **4.8. Conclusion**

## CHAPTER FOUR

# ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION: FROM TEST-ORIENTED TEACHING TO COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

### 4.1. Introduction

Admittedly and virtually all EFL classrooms are run on the basis of the three T's. This triadic pedagogical orientation, teacher-textbook-test representing the key components of the educational system in Algeria, has also set the pace of the culture of learning in EFL classrooms with the teacher at the forefront (teacher-centred education-pedagogy) clinging tenaciously to the prescribed textbook (mandated teaching-learning materials) eventually leading to a standardized-testing procedure (summative testing). The three T's are interrelated; yet each working within the context of the learning environment in concert with the chemistry of the classroom. Effective language teaching (See 1.3.4.) is to be coupled with an efficient testing procedure; this combination would represent a springboard to a more communication-oriented language learning. Thus, a new form of eclecticism<sup>59</sup> *revisited*, principled eclecticism, imposes itself in this very specific context. Its aim is to account for what stakeholders at large would expect from a realistic teaching-testing situation.

A radical shift from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred pedagogy, from a textbook-based to task-based teaching and from a summative to formative assessment (Ko, 2000) is actually needed in ESL-EFL classrooms

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<sup>59</sup> Eclecticism denotes a form of teaching which combines innovative, up-to-date approaches with the best of traditional approaches by integrating skills aiming primarily to develop learners' communicative abilities. Put simply, it's a teaching scheme which to use Tuck's quotation, "**Take the best from a hotch-potch of methodologies and dump the rest.**" (Tuck, 2003, p. 1). However, a more elaborate form of eclecticism was advocated a few years ago – Principled eclecticism was introduced as a means of establishing ESL-EFL class objectives. Basically, it refers to the use of various teaching styles in a discriminating manner as required by learner needs and styles (Wikipedia, 2018).

and becomes therefore a *sine qua non* condition to meet the exigencies of a communication-centric language teaching-learning paradigm<sup>60</sup>. This chapter, as a way of start, sheds light on the way the transition from an exam-centric EFL teaching-learning scheme to a communicative-oriented English language education ought to be done. The use of the term *English Language Education* is deliberate as it is thought to carry more weight compared to *English Language Teaching* (See 1.1.).

The chapter also incorporates a discussion of the variables and factors that come into play in such a transition. Finally, it culminates with the proposal of a model that tries to strike the balance between a test-oriented teaching and communication-oriented EFL learning which would, hopefully, bridge the gap between the two extremes. From this, it follows that the development of the learners' communicative abilities should be seen as a purposeful end in itself.

## **4.2. Ethical Teaching**

Teaching can be defined as a career-long professional process. Most teachers embrace the profession with the will and desire to add a value to the lives of people. This value added represents, so to speak, the teacher's self-satisfaction. Mindful teachers *“most often approach their craft with an understanding of their responsibilities with regard to the delivery of the curriculum, the adherence to standards and the ethical responsibilities of the profession”* (Romano and Benigno, 2016, p. 58). The ethical teacher is, by definition, mindful of his duties vis-à-vis himself, his learners and the educational institution at large. He is eager to demonstrate a sincere concern for the practice of teaching and the commitment to the learner (Noddings, 2006). He sets the tone for better learning outcomes and higher achievement scores. He knows how to teach to the test and knows how to make the most of that

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<sup>60</sup> A paradigm can be defined as a set of beliefs and concerns which defines the ways in which we think and act, in sum, a way of viewing the world.

approach in a bid to develop the learners' communicative abilities through the use of testing 'activities' that accurately assess learners' progress.

Teachers firmly believe that that they have an ethical responsibility to meet the instructional needs of their students (Santoro, 2011) in the sense that they want their learners to be successful on high-stakes exams and the academic content of the course through the creation of alternative instructional techniques and learning strategies aiming to consolidate the course content and the testing requirements. As Noddings (2006) notes, this type of teachers demonstrate a sincere concern for the practice of teaching and a commitment to the learner. In sum, the ethical teacher is viewed as the professional who integrates a set of virtues<sup>61</sup> and ethical teaching is geared towards preparing students to act as knowledgeable individuals, caring parents and responsible authority figures.

### **4.3. Teachers' Role Specifications**

'*Other times, other customs*', as the adage has it, so 'modern times modern methods', by extension to the adage. Times have changed and so must the roles of the EFL teacher. The shift from a learner-centric pedagogy to a teacher-dominated classroom did not seem to be fully accomplished in Algerian EFL settings. Yet, though learner-centred education has become the rallying call in education, not least English Language Education, the teacher still performs the most basic roles underlying the teaching-learning process, in other words, autocratic, being in control of all what is going on in the classroom. Some teacher-related roles can be traced back to a slogan-like

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<sup>61</sup> Romano and Benino (2016) views the teacher as the professional in terms of three ethical concepts: virtue ethics, ethics of care and ethic of justice. *Virtue ethics*, i.e. responsibility, accountability, honesty and the valor to admit own weaknesses teachers should manifest in their daily work. *Ethic of care*, i.e. the teacher should seek to establish a collaborative teacher-student relationship and maintain a mutual concern for dialogue in an effort to produce an intrinsic desire for learning. *Ethic of justice*, i.e. social justice, fairness and equity in the classroom are the main principles in the ethic of justice. This concept is based on the idea that teachers ought to have integrity in their teaching and a clear sense of what is right, questioning and taking a stand against the *status quo*.

sentence, ‘The teacher is a PLEFTER’<sup>62</sup>, advocated by the General Inspectorate of English in the early 1980s. However, much water has flowed under the bridge since then.

This teacher-role-specification account touches on in part what the teacher, as a practitioner and researcher, should abide by with respect to the exigencies of the teaching profession. Time and again, needless to remind, the teacher is in a much better position than anyone else to know what his pupils need, what their interests are, and what should be done to adjust these needs and interests to the requirements of the school curriculum (Clair 1998).

It is worth noting that other roles have been added to considerably enrich and expand the PLEFTER account. Richards and Lockhart (1996) have listed eight teacher-role specifications; these roles are, so to speak, intended to empower both the teacher and the learner giving a new shape to the culture of EFL learning aiming to improve student learning outcomes and classroom performance. The roles in question are as follows:

- *Needs analyst*, i.e. the teacher determines students’ individual needs following institutional procedures (e.g. a structured interview) and uses the information obtained for course planning and development.
- *Curriculum developer*, i.e. the teacher develops his own course plans and syllabuses based on students needs.
- *Materials developer*, i.e. the teacher develops his own classroom materials.

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<sup>62</sup> The acronym P.L.E.F.T.E.R. stands for the following: *Planner*, i.e. the teacher sees planning and structuring of learning activities as fundamental to success in teaching and learning. *Linguistic model*, i.e. the model learners should imitate. *Evaluator*, i.e. the teacher assesses the learners’ progress. *Facilitator*, i.e. the teacher simplifies the learning process. *Team member*, i.e. the teacher takes part in cooperative activities and team work. *Educator*, i.e. the teacher serves as an example suitable for imitation. *Researcher*, i.e. the teacher is expected to keep up with the latest development in the field of language learning.

- *Counselor*, i.e. the teacher is encouraged to identify students who are having problems and learning difficulties, and to offer individual counsel to students who need it.
- *Mentor*, i.e. the teacher assists less experienced teachers with their professional development.
- *Team member*, i.e. teachers are encouraged to work together as a team rather than to teach in isolation from other teachers in the school.
- *Researcher*, i.e. the teacher is encouraged to conduct research related to language learning, including research in his own classroom.
- *Professional*, i.e. the teacher is expected to continue with professional development by taking part in workshops and conferences, reading professional journals in the field, and joining professional organizations.

(Richards and Lockhart, 1996, pp. 99-100)

In a like manner, Spratt et al. (2011) have developed a more elaborate and more targeted teacher-role-specification account. Making use of their savoir-faire as long-experienced EFL teachers and their knowledge as long-trained ELT project consultants in various contexts throughout the world, in their account, they put focus on, what we have come to call ‘Twenty- century EFL classroom management skills’, i.e. among other skills, effective communication skills and higher-order thinking skills (See 1.4.). The roles in question fall under the following headings:

- *Planner*, i.e. the teacher prepares and reflects on the lesson before teaching, anticipates problems and selects, designs and adapts materials.
- *Manager*, i.e. the teacher organizes the learning space, makes sure everything in the classroom is running smoothly and sets up rules and routines (i.e. things which are done regularly) for behaviour and interaction.
- *Monitor/Observer*, i.e. the teacher goes around the class during individual, pair and group work activities checking learning and providing support as necessary.

- *Facilitator*, i.e. provides opportunities for learning, helps learners to access resources and develops learner autonomy.
- *Diagnostician*, i.e. the teacher works out the causes of learners' difficulties.
- *Language resource*, i.e. the teacher can be used by the learners for help and advice about language.
- *Assessor*, i.e. the teacher evaluates the language level and attitudes of the learners by using different means of informal and formal assessment.
- *Rapport builder*, i.e. the teacher tries to create a good relationship with and between learners.

(Adapted from Spratt et al., 2011, p. 199)

Arguably, at the surface level, the aforementioned accounts seem to have many common denominators, making them overlap at different role levels. Yet, they provide complementarily a comprehensive scheme relating to classroom management at various steps in an EFL classroom. They describe in clearer terms how teacher roles can match with different teaching-learning situation aspects and fit appropriately within different EFL contexts. This would led to confirm the fact that,

***Effective and fruitful classroom management is largely dependent on the teacher adopting different, yet appropriate roles, roles that fit within the context, i.e. the teaching approach, the aims of the lesson and objectives of the syllabus, the type of activity, the learners' age, level, interests and worries, and ultimately their expectations.***

(Benmostefa, 2014, p. 38)

In down-to-earth terms, one may note that jointly, or separately, the teacher-role-specification accounts, the PLEFTER scheme, Richards and Lockhart's and Spratt et al.'s, reasonably account for the many different hats the EFL teachers ought to wear so that *to leave no stone unturned* in their search for a better classroom management, no least to enhance the learners

communicative abilities. More importantly, however, teachers should possess and master the skill of ‘switching hats’ from one role to another.

#### **4.3.1. Ethical Teacher**

On another matter concerning controversial issues such as teaching to the test and teaching communicatively, the notion of *ethical teaching* or *ethical teacher* has to be reconsidered in the light of the 21<sup>st</sup> century’s expectations. Many professional teachers yet failed to take a strong ethical stand against the teach-to-the-test approach, no doubt persuaded by a misguided sense of accountability (See 4.3.3.). Stiggins (2007) describes the use standardized testing in the 1950s as a means to compare and rank school, school districts, states and nations. However, all too often, and up to the present, school principals and headmasters not only have recourse to high-stakes testing results data to track the performance of their educational institution, but compare the school’s performance with that of other institutions in the province or county.

Sure, the implications of ethics and the importance attached to high-stakes testing, all too often, place the teachers into conflicting positions. In other words, hard it is for the teacher to swing between *the rock and a hard place*. As Peterson notes,

***The conflicting reality is that high-stakes testing places teachers in an awkward position as the accountability system and high stakes testing methods used to evaluate students contradict the leadership and educational philosophy of teachers, as well as the belief statements of schools and departments of education.***

(Peterson, 2005, p. 2)

The ethical teacher, in today’s globalized world, should move far beyond the use of high-stakes testing and consider the improvement of classroom instruction and student support services among the most effective ways to increase student achievement (Peterson, 2005). In English Language Education, the curriculum should be viewed from a spectrum of linguistic, social and cultural dimensions (See 1.1.), not sheer student assessment procedures.



Heubert and Hauser (1998) note that the use of a single indicator to assess the learning or to make decisions about tracking, promotion, and gradation violates the ethics of teaching. So, what commonality can ethical teaching come up with to measure what students know.

#### **4.3.2. Ethical Teaching Vs Unethical Practices**

Prescribed and mandated standardized testing, from a test-oriented teaching perspective, is to limit what is taught to what is tested. The higher the stakes for testing, the greater focus teachers place on test preparation and teaching to the test as opposed to innovative learning (Herman and Gilan, 1991), in the sense that teachers are accountable through students' scores in high-stakes exams. This unethical practice, seeking to boost test scores, draws on the adapted proverb-like preach '*As ye teach so shall ye test*' (Underhill, 1982, p. 18). Becker (2015) posits that there is no clear evidence relating higher test scores to actual gains in student learning either at the individual or group level. No one test can be regarded as a reliable measure of a student's knowledge. However, increased importance is accorded to standardized testing as definitive measures of a learner achievement.

The ethical teacher has to relate the wide range of dimensions underlying English Language Education and which actually shape the language teaching-learning framework as a way to prepare students for the challenges of the mid-21<sup>st</sup> century. In sum then, without learning opportunities in the true sense of the word, our students will not be able to develop the competencies and skills needed to better cope tomorrow's unexpected events. However, Gripp's (2001) long remark is very important in distinguishing between traditional and modern models of teaching and learning; (See 1.6.) he notes,

*In the traditional model of teaching and learning [positivism] the curriculum is seen as a distinct body of information, specified in detail, which can be transmitted to the learner. Assessment here consists of checking whether the information has been received and absorbed [...] By contrast, constructivist models see learning as*

*requiring personal knowledge construction and meaning making, and as involving complex and diverse processes; such models therefore require assessment to be diverse, in an attempt to characterize in more depth the structure and quality of student's learning and understanding. While, for example, standardized multiple choice or short answer type tests are efficient at sampling the acquisition of specific knowledge presented by teachers or textbooks, more intense, even interactive methods, such as essays, performance assessments, and small group tasks and projects, are needed to assess understanding and the process of learning, as well as to encourage a deeper level of learning.*

(Gripp, 2001 p. 73)

Needless to recall, if students possess those competencies and skills which allow them to actually engage in fruitful and meaningful communication with others, to convincingly pass on their ideas and opinions to others, and mind to wisely listen to others with different perceptions and conceptions, they will be therefore well equipped with the ability and authority to serve as a new generation of leaders and thinkers in a good-governance context<sup>63</sup>.

### **4.3. 3. Accountability**

It is widely accepted that the teacher has the most direct impact on learners' success. In this very specific context, it is worth noting that, ***“Time and again, the teacher has proven to be the most influential school-related force in student achievement”*** (Stronge, 2018, p. 15). This is another way of saying that though at present the learning/teaching process is deemed to be learner-centred, the teachers still remain the linchpin in the whole process.

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<sup>63</sup> The concept of "governance" is not new. It is as old as human civilization. Simply put "governance" means: the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented). Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance (UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2014, p. 1).

The term ‘accountability’, from a polysemic standpoint, denotes a number of different meanings. It is used in a wide range of contexts, and has a number of different meanings accordingly. *“To be accountable can mean to be responsible, to be answerable, to be blameworthy, or even to be liable. However, the literal meaning of the term—that of being ‘held to account’—suggests there is an expectation that when a person, organization or entity is accountable, they can be expected or required to render an account of their actions (or inaction)”* (William, 2010, p. 5). Yet, the issue that comes to light through William’s quotation is that most teachers have always played safe and erred on the side of caution.

#### **4.3.4. Teacher’s Play-Safe Policy**

Policy and assessment make an ‘ideal couple’ in a test-oriented teaching context. Instructional pedagogical decisions are dictated by mandates and orders closely aligning teaching to testing; this is curriculum alignment in the true sense of the term (See 1.2.). It runs against assessment procedures driven by *‘innovative curriculum design and effective instructional practices’* (Peterson, 2005). In a play-safe policy and, far away from the logic of testing, in an effort to satisfy the learners’ parents’ wants and wishes and to abide by loyally the education institution’s rules of the game, the teachers, usually caught between the hammer and the anvil, have no other alternative but to teach-to-the-test. This teaching practice is acknowledged to negatively impact the teaching-learning process, and in consequence, calls into question the credibility of the educational system as a whole. In sum, then, the test-oriented teaching has *“perverted the best of teachers, narrowed and grooved their instruction, and occasioned cramming and the most vicious habits of study”* (ibid, p. 7).

What is more, most educators and linguists agree that at present tests are no more testing learners’ knowledge and potentials, but testing their ability to reproduce fixed bodies and exact structures of knowledge (Schweisfurth, 2011). As a result, schools are no more those educational institutions with sole attributes encouraging meritocracy and scholastic advancement for those highly

motivated and talented students. Even worse, many individual learners, without learning opportunities, cannot develop the competencies and skills that will help them use the language communicatively. Regretfully, one might say that testing, which ought to be the pedagogical tool to assess and promote learning, has lost its intrinsic value and acts as an overt deteriorating element in a teaching approach.

#### **4.3.5. Accountability and Test-Oriented Teaching**

The notion of accountability has led teachers to engage in a selection of only those items that likely to feature prominently in exams (selective-focussing testing) rather than to teach effectively and with pace according to their learners degree of intake and assimilation. Parents, the academic institution and other stakeholders seemingly tend to give too much importance and great value to the result obtained by the students. In other words, and in terms of accountability, the education institution in general and teachers in particular are judged in relation to their students' success and achievement in exams, not least high-stakes exams, such as the Baccalaureate exam. *“The call for accountability through assessment based on standardized testing standards is far-reaching because many instructional decisions are made solely on the degree of testing requirements dictated by state mandates”* (Peterson, 2005, p. 2). Since independence in the early 1960s, scores obtained in standardized tests have served as a ‘benchmark’ to compare and rank educational institutions throughout the country. However, school accountability can wisely be achieved at the expense of large portions of the curriculum and relevant instructional practices. In sum then, standardized testing is still regarded as a large-scale measure of schools effectiveness.

Arguably, if the interplay between teaching and testing follows a logical sequence based on the teaching of what will be tested, or more precisely, a selective focussing on the teaching items of the test, the cause and effect relationship resulting from the two processes will cause considerable harm to

the learning process as a whole. A test cannot cover all items that are prescribed in the curriculum, in this sense, what will not be in the test will not be taught, or at least will not be given much importance or eventually put apart. Hence, a domino-like effect arises: the test will lose its validity; the teaching will lose its credibility and the curriculum will lose its intrinsic value.

#### **4.3.6. Coaching Services**

In Algeria tutoring in form of tuition coaching, commonly called coaching services, has developed at different levels. The proliferation of these practices has led to the emergence of an examination-driven school culture. Increasingly, students who wish to improve their performance in standardized tests are turning to coaching services. These services have become commonplace and according to many stakeholders, namely teachers, students and parents, they are supposed to refine the learners' performance, improve their test-preparation skills and offer them extra remedial and consolidating lessons. All too often, they take place outside school time and walls in teachers' homes or even in makeshift garages. Though the coaching services are perhaps viewed contrary to the common sense, many teachers hold very positive attitude towards them in the sense that,

*The benefits of such a compensatory teaching are wide-range: the number of students is very limited (not more than ten), the teacher explains every single word or structure in Arabic or in French. He goes through the exercises that were done in class and the pupil has all the chances to succeed. That's an extra to the teacher to make ends meet.*

(Kamel B., a 3<sup>rd</sup> AS EFL teacher, Cited in Benmoussat, 2004, p. 241)

However, such an 'unethical' practice<sup>64</sup>, so to speak, would be worth praising, and deserves encouragement and support if it were carried out on a

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<sup>64</sup> Teachers, students and parents adhere to the provision of remedial coaching. According to them, the coaching services have become somehow a must-do-practice for effective test preparation. This is another way of saying that the state-run school has failed to fulfill mindfully and appropriately its educational mission. Worse still, this must-do-practice has led to inefficiency malpractices in schools. Some teachers have long waiting lists for student applications.

regular basis, and officially scheduled on the teacher's school time-table. Unfortunately, it interests only those who have the financial means and can therefore afford such a compensatory teaching. Worth noting too, this type of consolidating lessons or courses does cost a great deal of money, and learners' parents willingly or unwillingly strive *to keep up with the Joneses*, as the idiomatic expression goes. The coaching services, to some extent, are variations of the same thing, i.e. the teach-to-the test *par excellence*. In one way or another, they still represent the *apple of discord* among many stakeholders, in the sense that they are pro's and con's. However, there is no need to launch into a discussion of the antagonistic views in detail as it may be viewed beyond the scope of the present research work.

#### 4.4. Communication-Responsive Pedagogy

Teachers should create certain forms of classroom behaviour consisting in establishing a set of rituals, habits and customs, in a bid to cultivate in a more positive way and in a more promising scheme the latent communicative abilities of each individual learner and to promote equity among the learners. A Communication-responsive pedagogy can be defined as an ensemble of in-class techniques aiming to use learners communication strategies, draw on their prior experiences (schemata)<sup>65</sup>, and exploit their individual learning styles to make

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<sup>65</sup> This background knowledge, that is acquired through one's experience of the world is organized and stored in the reader's mind, is usually referred to as schemata. Schemata, then, can be defined, **"As cognitive constructs or configurations of knowledge which we place over events so as to bring them into alignment with familiar patterns of experience and belief. They therefore serve as devices for categorizing and arranging information so that it can be interpreted and retained"** (Widdowson 1983:59). Put simply, schemata are culture-specific patterns of background knowledge that enable us to guess and imagine the missing details. It is also compensatory in the sense **"that a deficit in any language source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources"** (Stanovich 1980:63). In other terms, as Bock (1993) notes if a reader's linguistic knowledge is weak at any one point, he will compensate this deficit by drawing on background knowledge and vice versa. This is another way of saying that in order to grasp the meaning (common schema) with the author, who is trying to convey his ideas by presenting the unfamiliar through explicit or implicit comparisons with the familiar in his own schema of the world. This can be accomplished provided that the reader strives to understanding, in some depth, the writer's culture.

learning more relevant to them and more effective to the teaching-learning process.

Communication-responsive pedagogy, to be effective in the true sense of the word, must elaborate methods and techniques which draw on a view of language from its formal and informal aspects and not simply adopt teaching-testing procedures based solely upon scores-related standardized tests. The effectiveness of the method and techniques, if it is to be significant, must be able to gauge with accuracy as well as fairness, the degree of language assimilation that has occurred in a foreign language classroom. A pedagogy that accounts for smooth communication and full understanding is indeed communication-responsive.

#### 4.4.1. Stylistic Variations

The rationale of a communicative-responsive pedagogy is to provide each student with activities and tasks which allow them to function in a more integrative way requiring the participants, i.e. the language learners to respond in a socially appropriate way to the setting and in accordance with the norms of interaction and interpretation agreed upon by native speakers. For example, the forms of address (honorifics conveying respect and social status and courtesy titles conveying information about the marital status, and first names and surnames) which participants can use, such as first names or surnames, *Hello/Hi* or *Good morning/afternoon/evening*, *Mr/Mrs/Miss/Dr etc.*, in sum, the forms of address which are subject to clearly defined choices (See 1.7.1.). The following dialogues illustrate the stylistic variations between formal and informal language in a greetings-related context<sup>66</sup>:

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<sup>66</sup> M. Joos in his book entitled *The Five Clocks* (1962) set up the levels of speech into five keys: 1. *Frozen* or *oratorical*, i.e. extremely formal manner of discourse. It is frozen in the sense that it is not subject to variation. It is a style for print, street signs, warnings, notices in public places, etc. 2. *Formal*, i.e. a manner of discourse used in situations when the speaker is very careful about pronunciation and choice of words and sentence structure. 3. *Consultative*, i.e. a style of participation and interaction. It is the norm for most conversations in English. Its main linguistic features consist of less formal terms, such as *could*, *would*, *may*, etc. 4. *Casual*, i.e. a style used amongst insiders, friends,

### Context One (Formal greetings)

Dr Wayns: Good morning, Mr. Johns. How are you?

Mr. Johns: Oh, good morning, Dr Wayns. I'm very well, thank you. And you?

Dr Wayns: I'm fine, thank you.

### Context Two (Informal greetings)

Bob: Hello, Liza.

Liza: Hi, Bob. How are you?

Bob: Fine, thanks. And you?

Liza: Not bad, but my son's not well today.

Bob: Oh, I'm sorry to hear that.

Formal Greetings	Informal Greetings
Good morning/afternoon/evening	Hello/Hi/Hi there
Dr Wayns/Mr Johns/Mrs/Ms/Prof	Liza/Bob (Elizabeth/Robert)
I'm fine	Fine/not bad
Thank you/thank you very much/thank/ thank you very much indeed	Thanks/ta

Table 4.1. Stylistic Variations in Formal/Informal Greetings

Formal	Informal
X: Would you like some coffee? Y: I'd love some.	X: Have some coffee. Y: Yeah, thanks.
X: I wonder if I could use your phone? Y: Of course.	X: Can I use your phone? Y: Sure.
X: Would you like to dance? Y: I'd love to.	X: Do you want to dance? Y: OK
X: Would you mind passing the salt? Y: Here you are.	X: Pass the salt. Y: Here.
X: Shall I open it for you? Y: That's very kind of you.	X: I'll open it for you. Y: Thanks.
X: Would you like some more bread? Y: No, thank you.	X: More bread? Y: No
X: Would you like a drink? Y: I'd love one.	X: Want a drink? Y: Yes, OK.

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colleagues, mates, etc. within a particular group. 5. *Intimate*, i.e. a style used among people having very close and friendly relationship.



X: Would you like orange juice?	X: Orange juice?
Y: I'd prefer water, thanks.	Y: No, water.

*Table 4.2. Formal and informal uses of language in making and replying to requests and offers*

In the context of communication, no need to recall, a formal style is not necessarily 'better' than an informal style. Each style is used to serve a particular purpose and therefore, care must be put in choosing which style to use accordingly. A communication-responsive pedagogy ought to take into account the key aspects of those variations operating within the framework of register, the variety of language used in a particular situation for a particular purpose. In other words, communicative-competent learners can adjust their style to the situation in order to communicate effectively and purposefully by strictly observing the rules of speaking.

A learner's communication abilities, is measured by how well he or she is able to make use of the language appropriately (See 1.7.1.), rather than how much he or she knows about a particular grammatical structure to improve exam skills and score well in standardized tests. This once again another illustration of teaching to the test in relation to a holistic teaching which seeks to develop the learners' language skills in the true and most comprehensive sense of the word. A high level of language proficiency accumulated through a test-oriented teaching does not guarantee the ability to communicate effectively. Such knowledge must be coupled with knowledge of the formal-Vs-informal properties of language, i.e. those linguistic constructs which gear our daily behaviour. These constructs are manifestly linguistic in the form of words and expressions and/or non-linguistic expressed through non-verbals (See Appendix IV); they help learners develop their communicative abilities in a considerable way. Among the verbals, proverbs and idioms take the lead in the race.

#### 4.4.2. Proverbs

The proverb, by definition, is a short well-known saying that states a general use or gives advice (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). Proverbs have had a long-standing tradition and stood the test of time in language education. Teachers have always have recourse to proverbs as a teaching kit tools for centuries to inculcate morals and ingrain social values in their students' learning habits, methods of inquiry and reasoning. Ridout and Witting (1977) trace back to the tenth century the pedagogical value of classrooms. They note that proverbs were used in England for the teaching of Latin.

Due to the educational importance of proverbs, the following techniques are proposed to fully exploit the pedagogical value in the use of proverbs as part of an EFL reading-comprehension course to increase the students' British cultural background and their communicative abilities. A thematically-grouping of the proverbs would help better deliver the goods (Allan and Valette 1977). The following examples illustrate such orientation:

##### **1) To show the English emphasis on the sense of privacy:**

- There is no place like home.
- East or west home is best.
- An Englishman's home is his castle.
- Home sweet home.
- A hedge between keeps friendship green.
- Good fences make good neighbours.

##### **2) To show the English sense of perseverance, patience and determination:**

- Constant dripping wears away the stone.
- If at first you don't succeed, try, try, try again.
- Where there is a will there is a way.
- Little by little and bit by bit.
- Rome was not built in a day.
- Never say die.

##### **3) To show the English sense of prudence:**

- Catch your bear before you sell it.

- Don't count your chickens before they are hatched.
- Don't halloo till you are out of the wood.
- Never spend your money before you have it.
- Don't cross the bridge till you come to it.
- Never buy a pig in a poke.

Furthermore, and to optimally exploit the pedagogical values underlying the use of proverbs in classrooms, five techniques are proposed to in this respect.

**1<sup>st</sup> Technique: To rewrite the proverbs in the right order, for example:**

- fonder the absence makes grow heart
- glitters not that gold all is
- dogs seldom barking bite
- the child burnt fire dreads
- policy honesty the is best
- means the justifies end the
- Jill must Jack every have his
- wisdom mother experience the is of
- itself history repeats
- wealth health is than better

**2<sup>nd</sup> Technique: To link the two parts of the proverb, for example:**

- |                          |                           |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| • A bird in hand         | before you have it.       |
| • Don't cross the bridge | till you have it.         |
| • Every cloud has        | the best sauce            |
| • Birds of a feather     | is worth two in the bush. |
| • An Englishman's home   | in a poke.                |
| • Hunger is              | a silver lining.          |
| • Never buy a pig        | flock together.           |
| • Lend you money         | is the root of all evil.  |
| • The love of money      | is his castle.            |
| • Never spend you money  | till you come to it.      |

**3<sup>rd</sup> Technique: To supply the missing word in the proverb, for example:**

Where there's a ..... there's a way.

- East ..... home is best.
- There is no ..... like home.
- ..... speak louder than words.
- While there's ..... there's hope.
- Out of ..... out of mind.
- Slow but sure ..... the race.

- Let ..... be bygones
- When the cat is away the ..... will play.
- ..... was not built in a day.

**4<sup>th</sup> Technique: To provide the final part of the proverb, for example:**

- All roads lead .....
- Charity begins .....
- Better late .....
- All's well that .....
- The eye is bigger than .....
- No news .....
- Love little, .....
- Strike iron while.....
- A stitch in time.....
- Ask no questions and.....

**5<sup>th</sup> Technique: To answer questions closely relating to a particular proverb, for example:**

- |                                     |                                      |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| • What is honesty?                  | What is the best policy?             |
| • Where does charity begin?         | What begins at home?                 |
| • Where do all roads lead to?       | What wasn't built in a day?          |
| • What does history repeat?         | What repeats itself?                 |
| • What do barking dogs do?          | How often do barking dogs bite?      |
| • What is the love of money?        | What is the root of evil?            |
| • What is a penny saved?            | What is a penny gained?              |
| • What does a bad man do?           | What does a bad man blame?           |
| • How many lives has a cat?         | Who has nine lives?                  |
| • What makes the heart grow fonder? | What does absence make to the heart? |

**6<sup>th</sup> Technique: To reorder the proverb in the right way, for example:**

- Invention is the mother of necessity.
- Policy is the best honesty.
- An Englishman's castle is his home.
- The love of evil is the root of money.
- There is no home like place.
- Never buy a poke in a pig.
- A rest is a good as a change.
- A golden door can open any key.
- A rolling moss gathers no stone.
- A joy of beauty is a thing forever.

Admittedly, nothing can define the British culture as distinctly as her language, and the very elements of the English language that best incarnate the British society's communication style, perceptions, assumptions, norms, values and beliefs are her proverbs. These pithy sayings can help develop the EFL learner's communicative abilities based on a common sense or experience.

#### **4.4.3. Idioms**

Idioms are another way to give the language learner a sense of naturalness and nativeness about his or her language use. In other words, a good working knowledge and use of idioms make the EFL learner sound more like native speakers and a better listener more in tune to colloquial English. Using an idiomatic expression correctly is indicative of fluency and largely and significantly contributes to the improvement of the communicative abilities of the language learner.

Probably the best pedagogical way to teach idioms is to place them in their right context. This will help the language learner better and fully understand the meaning of the idiomatic expression in question. More importantly, however, is that the learner actually remembers the meaning and uses it effectively in a dialogue or a conversation. The following activity clearly illustrates how to exploit a context to negotiate the meaning conveyed by an idiom:

Complete the sentences with the correct idiomatic expressions in the correct form.

1. With a grain of salt
2. To keep up with the Joneses
3. To kill two birds with one stone
4. A fish out of water
5. Once in a blue moon
6. To let the cat out of the bag

7. To get up on the wrong side of the bed
  8. To look for number one
  9. To pass the buck
  10. To make a clean breast of (something)
- 
- A. I rarely go to the theatre. In other words, I.....
  - B. Nobody knew he had been offered the job until his wife .....
  - C. Peter got up in the morning in an angry mood. In other words, he .....
  - D. When Sue moved to the new school, she felt like .....  
because she didn't know anyone there.
  - E. I'm going to walk to my office. On the way I'll drop into the post office  
to buy stamps. In other words, I'm going .....
  - F. Uncle John loves telling great stories as a vet, but we always take what  
he says .....because he all too often tends to  
exaggerate.
  - G. Aunt Mary is very selfish and proud. She always puts her own interest  
first. In other words, she is always .....
  - H. Betty had stolen her best friend's watch. As she grew older and became  
mature she had pricks of conscience and decided to confess. She wanted  
to .....
  - I. Don't try to .....! Don't blame anyone. It's your fault,  
and everybody knows it.
  - J. The Smiths bought a lovely car, and now their neighbours, the Roberts,  
are becoming very thrifty to buy a lovely car too. It's silly the way  
people always behave to.....

Activities and exercises of this kind contribute considerably in improving learners' communicative abilities as they are based on a communicative to language learning. The idioms are not dealt with in an unconnected set of mechanical and grammatical sentences, but are presented for study in a natural context, reflecting real-language uses and situations.

#### **4.5. Teachers' Feedback**

Another factor of paramount importance and which is part of the communication-responsive pedagogy, and indeed plays an capital role in increasing motivation and helps overcome some negative personality traits is

the feedback learners receive from the teacher on their performance. Richards and Lockhart (1996) posit that “*Feedback can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate*” (Richards and Lockhart 2011:188). With these ideas in mind, let us examine a variety of strategies that are likely to lead to giving a positive feedback.

- *Acknowledging a correct answer*: The teacher acknowledges that a pupil’s answer is correct by saying, for example, “Good” or “Yes that’s right”.
- *Indicating an incorrect answer*: The teacher indicates that a pupil’s answer is incorrect by saying, for example, “Yes, but...” or “No, that’s not quite right”.
- *Praising and encouraging*: The teacher compliments a pupil for an answer, by saying, for example, “Well done”, “Yes an excellent answer” or “go on”.
- *Expanding and modifying a pupil’s answer*: The teacher responds to a pupil’s answer by providing more information. For example:  
Teacher: Does anyone know the capital of England?  
Pupil: London.  
Teacher: Yes, London and it is also the capital of the United Kingdom.
- *Repeating*: The teacher repeats the pupil’s answer.
- *Empathetic listening*: The teacher agrees with what is being said by the student, using phrases like, “Oh yes! “Me too!”, “I feel just the same!”, “I know just how you feel”, “I know what you mean”, “That’s how I feel too”.

(Adapted from Richards and Lockhart, 1996:189 and Hadfield, 2015)

Needless to recall, the effectiveness of the aforementioned set of strategies are, to a larger extent, dependent on the know-how the teacher brings, and the ingenuity and empathy (See 4.4.3.) with which he approaches his

learners. A related point worth raising here is that teacher should give credit for good performance and constructive criticism for bad performance. Most teachers agree that these strategies they have recourse to help at-risk learners<sup>67</sup>, as well as those learners with negative personality traits to surmount their fear, anxiety, timidity or shyness and thus try as far as possible to place them at the same pace as the other learners.

Many teachers have remarked that some learners deliberately avoid taking part in class activities so as to avoid making mistakes. The following excerpt gives an illustrative example experienced by a highly-shy little boy when called to perform some classroom activities, as well as the teacher's ingenuity in making the pupil feel more confident :

But I was still shy and half paralyzed when in the presence of a crowd, and my first day at the new school made me the laughing stock of the classroom. I was sent to the blackboard to write my name and address; I knew my name and address, knew how to write it , knew how to spell it; but standing at the blackboard with the eyes of the many girls and boys looking at my back made me freeze inside and I was unable to write a single letter.

'Write your name,' the teacher called to me.

I lifted the white chalk to the board and, as I was about to write my mind went blank, empty; I could not remember my name, not even the first letter. Somebody giggled and I stiffened.

'Just forget us and write your name and address', the teacher coaxed. An impulse to write would flash through me, but my hand would refuse to move. The children began to titter and I flushed hotly.

'Don't you know your name?' the teacher asked.

'I looked at her and could not answer. The teacher rose and walked to my side, smiling at me to give me confidence. She placed her hand tenderly upon my shoulder.

'What's your name?' she asked.

'Richard.' I whispered.

'Richard what?'

'Richard Wright'.

'Spell it.'

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<sup>67</sup> An *at-risk student* is term used to refer to a student who requires temporary or on-going counseling in order to succeed academically. Accordingly, at-risk students are those students who have been labeled, either officially or unofficially, as being in danger of academic failure.



I spelt my name a in wild rush of letters, trying desperately to redeem my paralyzing shyness.

‘Spell it slowly so that I can hear it,’ she directed me.

I did.

‘Now can you write?’

‘Yes, ma’am.’

‘Then write it.’

(From *Black Boy* by Richard Wright)

In the same line of thought, and in a moral-like fable an anonymous teacher lucidly states:

*I have come to a frightening conclusion. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood that creates the weather. As a teacher, I possess the tremendous power to make a child’s life miserable or joyous, I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate or honour, hurt or heal. In all the situations, it is my response which decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated, a child humanised or de-humanised.*

(In Syllabus for EFL,1999 p.1)

Along similar lines, A. B., a retired English language inspector, reports convincingly that:

*“At-risk” EFL learners can make significant progress if the teacher helps them become aware of their individual problems and help them cope with them. It’s a matter of savoir-faire which consists in the use of motivational techniques to create classroom climate and motivation. Most language teachers should be aware of those strategies... Improving the learners motivation is part of the teachers’ responsibility. With a little goodwill and ingenuity we could probably make things much better!!!*

This is another way of saying that, **“we might have the most brilliant materials and resources but without the right kind of interpersonal dynamics, these affordances will never achieve their potential”** (Gkonou and Mercer, 2015).

This also reflects the importance of the role of the teacher as a counselor (see 4.3.).

#### 4.6. Empathy

Empathy is a relatively new concept which has entered the field of educational psychology and moved into the limelight. Yet, since its inception in language learning, its definition has narrowed down to cover a psychological dimension indispensable for successful language learning. Krznaric (2015) defines empathy as the art of stepping imaginatively into the shoes of another person, understanding their feelings and perspectives, and using that understanding to guide one's actions. In other words, to ask the language learners "to put themselves in the native speaker's shoes", Empathy is particularly important in language education.

In this very specific context, it is important to recall that one of the most important aims of developing the communicative abilities is to help the learner gain an understanding of the target language on the basis of a continuum whose endpoint is the native speaker's perspective. Additionally, it is worth remembering in this context Malinowski's remark that knowledge of the language is actually essential *'to grasp the native's point of view, his relations to life, to realize his vision of his world'* (Malinowski 1935:25). Thus, language is one of the primary means of entering into the world of empathy.

Empathy is to project one's imagination so that one actually feels what the other is feeling, i.e. putting oneself in the other's place (Empathy in Language Teaching: Stepping into the Students' Shoes IATEFL Conference Glasgow, April 2017). Most teachers focus on the importance of empathetic and trying to put themselves into the shoes and minds of their learners. *"Communication requires a sophisticated degree of empathy. In order to communicate effectively, a learner needs to be able to understand the other person's affective and cognitive states"* (Douglas Brown, 2017). Empathy, as an effective variable, is not fixed and can be expanded.

#### 4.6.1. Ways of Expanding Empathy

The process of communication is highly complex and a wide variety of factors and variables can overtly or covertly contribute to the expansion of empathy. It is the most fundamental means to overcome the target culture barriers. Thus, it is a basic component of effective communication (Chao Chen, 2013). Weinstein (1969) posits that empathy is dependent on some variables. The language learner must be able to take the role of the other accurately; he must be able to correctly predict the impact that various lines of action will have on the course of action.

Scholars on the study of the affect view empathy from three different, yet complementary perspectives: *Cognitive, behavioural and affective*.

- *Cognitive perspective*, i.e. knowledge about the target culture, awareness of its commonalities and differences between the target culture and mainstream culture.
- *Behavioural perspective*, i.e. the ability to interpret culturally relevant behaviour, as well as the ability to conduct oneself in culturally appropriate ways.
- *Affective goals*, i.e. manifestation of interest, intellectual curiosity and love towards the language and its people and users.

The ability to communicate effectively calls for some form of social and cultural knowledge and experience which goes beyond the word level, i.e. the grammar and vocabulary of a language. In sum then, language learning can be regarded as a set of emotional goals that are likely to lead to an understanding of the socio-cultural norms, and ideally to an identification with members of the target community. This is what is meant by empathy if we strip the concept from its effective overtones (Chao Chen, 2013).

#### 4.6.2. Empathy Revisited

Arguably language learners who possess a form of communicative abilities rarely have recourse to the perspective of the mainstream culture when interpreting people's behaviour from other cultures. Rather, they rely on a third-culture perspective (scholarly perspective<sup>68</sup>), which acts as a bridge serving their cultural perspective and the target language perspective. Learners who have rightly developed this perspective can manifest a number of attributes. These can be summarized as follows:

- They are open-minded and tend to develop a sharp sense of curiosity towards new ideas and experiences.
- They are empathic towards people from other cultures.
- They perceive easily and accurately differences and similarities between target culture and their own.
- They tend to describe behaviour they don't understand rather to evaluate it as 'wrong', 'inferior', or 'nonsense'.
- They tend to establish positive relationships with people from the target culture.
- They are less ethnocentric, in the sense that they tend not to judge the target culture by reference to their own cultures placing themselves, their racial, ethnic, social standards at the very centre of the universe.

(Adapted from Chao Chen, 2013)

Admittedly, effective communication is a multi-faceted learning process: it involves the ability to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences,

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<sup>68</sup> This perspective advocates a more detached and objective analysis of the target culture. Bridging the gap between language and culture, Malinowski contends that, "***The study of any language, spoken by a people who live under different conditions different from our own and possess a different culture, must be carried out in conjunction with the study of their culture and of their environment***" (Malinowski 1923:306). Though this perspective is a time-consuming and effort-demanding approach, it provides a more objective and systematic frame of reference than the previous perspectives which are highly subjective and informal. Kramsch (1998) notes that the responsibility of the teacher is to teach language as it is mediated through language, not as it is studied by social scientists and anthropologists.

the ability to use it effectively in social situations, the ability to select the appropriate style, and the ability to match it to context. In sum, successful learning requires a battery of mixed abilities. The consensus on the knowledge of a language is well expressed in Cunningsworth's remark:

***Knowing a language does not stop at the ability to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences... Knowing a language means being able to use it effectively in social situations, selecting the appropriate style, matching language to context, perceiving the speaker's intention, and performing successful speech acts.***

(Cunningsworth 1983:8)

With an emphatic-oriented language learning, our EFL learners can develop more their communicative abilities, and can better cope with cultural patterns which are different from their own. Accordingly, they can gain clear insights about linguistic appropriateness in relation to the Anglophone cultures, not least British culture.

In sum, communicative abilities can be regarded as set of educational goals leading to an understanding of the social rules, and ideally to an identification with or empathy towards individual members of the target community. However, it would not be appropriate to launch into an analysis of the concept of motivation, but suffice it to say that in a more elaborate follow-up study Gardner and Mac Intyre have introduced the affective variable of integrativeness to refer to

***attributes that reflect a positive outlook toward the other language group or out-groups in general. Since the learning of a second language involves acquiring skills associated with another group, it is proposed that the motivation to learn the language could involve attitudes toward that community or more general attitudes toward other groups.***

(Gardner and Mac Intyre, 1993 p. 2)

This sense of sympathetic orientation highly sustains a strong motivation to learn the target group's language and culture. It will also, in one way or another, persuade teachers and learners to pay attention to the teaching and learning of activities that are more likely to be helpful in the development of such abilities away from teaching practices driven by the selection function of

the test which ‘compels teachers and students to work for the immediate goal of raising scores’ (Qi 2005, p. 164).

#### 4.6.3. Empathy Vs Acculturation

Another possible risk in placing a high premium on empathy towards the target language group is culture is acculturation which may be due to the learner’s over-empathizing behaviour. *The Penguin Dictionary of Sociology*, (Abercrombie *et al.* 1984) defines the process of acculturation as ‘*the assimilation by one group of the culture of another which modifies the existing culture and so changes group identity*’. In the same line of thought and in a detailed way, Schumann (1978) has put forward the Acculturation Model<sup>69</sup>. He posits that ‘*the process of becoming adapted to a new culture [acculturation] is defined by various types of social and psychological integration of learners with the target language group*’ (1978, p. 29). Accordingly, he advocates three typical strategies that may be adapted by the language learner: *assimilation, preservation, and adaptation*.

- *Assimilation* refers to the process in which the learner relinquishes his own style and values in favour of the target group’s life style and values.
- *Preservation* involves maintenance of the native life-style and values, and rejection of the life-style and values of the target group.
- *Adaptation* is an attempt to preserve and maintain one’s life-style and values along with adapting and incorporating the linguistic and cultural elements of the target group. In this case, adaptation is viewed as an attempt to become bilingual / bicultural.

In our context *proper*, learning a language should not be seen as a means for the introduction of alien and harmful ideas, nor as a means for the displacement

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<sup>69</sup> In his ‘Acculturation Model’, Schumann (1978) posits that the acquisition of a second Language, and by extension to the learning of a foreign language, is in one way or another one aspect of acculturation which determines the degree of success. ... The apex in acquiring a second language and learning a foreign language largely depends on motivation and attitude coupled and nurtured in a formal language learning milieu (Schumann, 1986).

of our learners' commitment to their cultural values and beliefs. Thus, the teacher's role is to help his learners develop communicative skills and abilities in the most constructive way, i.e. empathizing is indeed needed yet at the same time over-empathizing is to be avoided. For example, over-empathizing Anglo-Saxon culture is very likely to mean for the EFL learner the superiority of the English language.

However, even though, much work remains to be done, English language professionals have put forward a note relating to the deculturalization of English and argue that it can be taught away from its British and American origins (Philipson, 1992). According to Philipson (1992), two major ways can be signaled in which the teaching of English has been deculturalized: 'political disconnection' and 'narrowly technical training' (250-252). Both ways require the development of appropriate methodologies for the teaching of ESL or EFL. Yet, it is worth asking the following question:

*Question:* Does linguistic knowledge entail cultural awareness?

*Answer:* Yes, it does.

To give much sense to this perspective, it is widely recognized that even 'cosmopolitan English' used in ESP contexts and which one is often assured to be value-free and neutral is far from being value-free and neutral.

In this regard, English Language Education should be framed within an intercultural communication scheme. EFL teachers do place emphasis on the need to teach English at three levels: for one thing it aims at generating the rules of the language, i. e. correct language usage, for the other at obeying the rules of use of the Anglo-Saxon community at large, i.e. appropriate language use, and thirdly, it aims at developing intercultural communication. The EFL learner will see language learning as an interactive process in which empathy needs to be emphasized, and will learn English for more effective communication.

#### 4.7. Cultural Knowledge

Arguably, for the informed language teacher, a sound linguistic knowledge is necessary but does not constitute a sufficient body for effective communication. This is another way of saying that the cultural component is undeniably an integral part of the communicative skills, and in no way should it be played down or ‘back seated’. Put simply, the language learner must come to know the fundamental patterns, schemes and practices underlying the target culture.

Therefore, the study of the cultural component is to be considered as a useful and helpful background to supplement language programmes and as a means to develop learner’s communicative abilities. As back as to the mid 1940s, with the growing influence of the social sciences, namely anthropology and sociology Fries noted that, “*A thorough mastery of a language for practical communication with real understanding demands systematic observation and recording of many features of the precise situations in which the varied sentences are used*” (Fries 1945, p. 57).

In almost the same line of thought, Valdes, in his article *The Inevitability of Teaching and Learning Culture in a Foreign Language Course*, argues that “*Attention to cultural details doubles the usefulness of the lesson, not only in adding another dimension, but also in making the lesson more interesting and therefore easier to learn*” (Valdes 1990, p. 21).

To give an illustrative picture of the main idea underlying the cultural component, let us examine the following sentences:

- *The issue is still under discussion at 10 Downing Street.*
- *Buckingham celebrated Queen Mother’s hundredth Birthday.*
- *A church service will be celebrated at St Paul’s Cathedral in memory of the victims of the great plague.*



These frayed sentences unintentionally, yet undeniably convey cultural information:

- *10 Downing Street*, i.e. the British Prime Minister
- *Buckingham*, i.e. the royal family
- *St Paul's Cathedral*, the religious centre of London

Note that the deep structure of basically simple sentences can carry much hidden information where no such hints are intended.

The relevance of the cultural knowledge is of capital importance in the language learning process, not least the development of the learners' communicative abilities. To exploit that knowledge in the most possible way is, so to speak, to supply an important piece to the 'puzzle' of communication. Admittedly, a knowledge of the language system does not constitute, by itself, a sufficient body for effective communication, thus, a sound cultural knowledge is a *since qua non* condition, and in no way should it be overlooked. One of the most obvious cognitive factors influencing our effectiveness in communicating with the other is our ability to speak the other language and the knowledge we have about the foreign language and culture (Chao Chen, 2013).

#### **4.8. Conclusion**

Our aim in dealing with the different ways to foster EFL learners communicative skills and enhance their abilities to become effective communicators has been to search for what language teachers need to know about the at hand-pedagogy underlying foreign language teaching in order to achieve an appropriate classroom methodology, i.e. the model on which EFL teachers can base their approach to language to make the most of their attempt to introduce new forms of classroom behaviour in a bid to develop communicative effectiveness.

The concern here has also been how adequately teachers ought to strike the balance between a test-oriented teaching and its requirements in terms of accountability vis-à-vis high-stakes exams, namely the Baccalaureate and the BEM exams, and ethical teaching and its demands in relation to the foreign language teaching-learning process *proper*, i.e. in total conformity with the native-speaker's model; in other words, to help the EFL learner gain an understanding and a use of the English language on the basis of a continuum whose endpoint is the native speaker's perspective.

However, this is not to mean that language teachers should view themselves as members of a linguistic or cultural mission disparaging the cultural background of their learners in favour of the target language-culture. Rather, we have striven to demonstrate that language teaching is not a value-free practice, nor a non-culture transmitting activity, and, consequently, language teachers, consciously or unconsciously, are introducing certain patterns of thoughts, values and beliefs to their learners. This alien linguistic and cultural behaviour may create some form of cultural shock in some learners when confronted with controversial and conflicting ways of thinking. Yet, our tendency has always been in favour of bringing such cultural insights to light inside the classroom. This is, however, a challenging task, which needs careful consideration and skilled teaching, yet, promising in terms of developing learners' communicative skills and abilities. This will also empower our EFL learners with knowledge and skills to better cope with any aspect of the language, be it linguistic or cultural, in the most appropriate way.

## **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

There have been numerous papers and book-length treatments on the implications of the teach-to-the-test approach on students' abilities, not least EFL learners' communicative skills. The present research work called for a genuine change in EFL at the levels of teaching and testing in both a separate and interrelated way. In essence, it was an attempt to replace English Language Education in a communication-based overall framework. The exam-centric system had increasingly gained ground and laid its hegemony at the different levels of education. This 'unhealthy' pedagogic shift has led to the implementation of a new approach of teaching known under different names, item teaching, curriculum teaching, and teaching-to-the-test, which actually does much harm to the teaching-testing process.

This 'unethical' approach, in the name of that dreadful term of 'accountability' and other social and political considerations has geared teachers to embark their learners upon a selective-focussing teaching process where emphasis is placed on only those items that likely to feature prominently in exams rather than to teach effectively and pacely according to their learners degree of intake and assimilation. A teaching which truly believes that the communicative dimension of language represents the road map to any language learning programme, in other words, to inculcate in our EFL learners the skills and abilities to use language to fulfil various every-day functions rather than merely to produce and reproduce grammatically correct forms of English

The societal dimension is also in part responsible for the proliferation of this type of exam-centric systems. This is due to the fact that both parents and the school administration tend to give too much importance and great value to the result obtained by their students. In other words, and in terms of accountability, the education institution in general and teachers in particular are

judged in relation to their students' success and achievement in exams, not least high-stakes exams, such as the Baccaulaureate Exam.

It should be noted that since independence of Algeria in the early 1960s, scores obtained in standardized tests have always served as a 'benchmark' to compare and rank educational institutions throughout the country. This is another way of saying that standardized testing is still regarded as a large-scale measure of schools effectiveness. To what extent is that true? The answer to this question resides in the fact that using high-stakes exam results to make overall decisions and overgeneralizations is in no way fair-minded. This has been clearly evidenced in many parts of the present research work.

As clearly stated in this dissertation, the teach-to-the-test approach as a practice is acknowledged to have negative effects on the teaching-learning process. These deleterious effects would, in a way or another, call into question the managerial credibility of the educational system as a whole. Furthermore, scholars on evaluation, testing and assessment agree that currently tests are no more truly and faithfully testing the learner's knowledge and his language potential, but testing rather his ability to reproduce a declarative-based knowledge of fixed patterns and generate a positivist-based learning of exact structures resulting from memorized knowledge. That makes the difference between a positivist and a constructivist-language-oriented learning and a declarative-based versus a procedural-based knowledge.

In the light of a high-oriented exam-centric education system, this state of affairs overtly effects schools' reputation in the sense that they are no more the educational institutions with sole attributes encouraging meritocracy and scholastic advancement among those highly motivated, academically outstanding and talented students. Even worse, a number of experiments has evidenced the fact that many individual learners, without learning opportunities, cannot develop the competencies and skills that will help them use the language communicatively. Regretfully, one might say that testing, which ought to be the pedagogical tool to assess and promote learning, has lost

its intrinsic value and acts as an overt deteriorating means in a teaching approach. In this case, one dare say that teachers are testing not instructing, and stepping further, it is a fallacy to assume that pupils' success is measured in relation to the performance in official tests.

The research study has taken significance through the identification of the true deleterious influences of the teaching-to-the-test approach on learners' communicative abilities, and accordingly has striven to chart a road map in a bid to produce a line of thoughts that would, hopefully, provide pedagogical help and educative support to EFL teachers to seriously account for a number points. In this respect, and to ease the burden and limit the damage a test-oriented teaching could do, teachers are highly accredited to ensure three basic roles: for one thing, they are to be fully aware of how harmful item-teaching is to the quality of education imparted to the EFL learners, for another they are to realize how to make up for deficiencies caused by the overuse of the teach-to-the-test approach to the learners' communicative abilities and thirdly, they are to increase assessment literacy through building up a sound background about the true value of assessment by truly understanding how good assessment may help select more appropriate instructing methods that are likely to meet learners needs.

The research work was also another warning-like advice addressed to teachers who, in an attempt to satisfy some stakeholders' policies and philosophies, to serve loyally the school's administration and abide faithfully by the education institution's rules of the game, want to play safe and err on the side of caution. A word of caution is in order here; to fail to react properly would be behaving like *an ostrich burying its head in the sand*. The major goal underpinning English teaching in Algeria is to make learners able to communicate competently.

Admittedly, the rationale underlying English Language Education in Algeria is to inculcate in the EFL learners the ability to communicate, express their ideas, argue, maintain discussions and avoid discussion breakdowns, i.e.

to possess communicative competence in its inclusive dimension. The teaching task in the Algerian EFL classroom is largely influenced by the imposed methodology and government-prescribed textbooks; most teachers describe their teaching in these terms. Yet, all too often, what is prescribed as aims and stated as objectives in syllabus design and curriculum development is just ink on paper. This state of affairs has been clearly dealt with and accurately explained in terms of the noticeable overload characterizing the English curriculum and the discrepancy between stated and planned objectives and classroom practices (pedagogical objectives vs. classroom practices).

The dramatic situation the education system is going through has led us to call into question not only the overall validity of large-scale assessment results, but also to think of a reshape of the teaching/learning process as a whole. By extension to the tertiary level, it follows the logic to state that since first-year EFL students have not formerly developed their communicative competences, it is, thus, the role of the university teacher to heal this breach. Metaphorically speaking, we can perceive first-year EFL learners as a by-product coming from a factory, yet much has not been done unlike what was prescribed in the manual, In other words, a semi-finished good that needs to further elaboration and refinement.

Admittedly, the immediate goal and the main motivating drive for pupils at the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of secondary education to learn English is to pass the Baccalaureate exam. This shift in interest has led to the emergence of successful learners on exam seats, but ineffective and incompetent language users in real-life situations. Moreover, their success in the Baccalaureate Exam will afford them an opportunity to enter university and embark on a higher education. Subsequently, as an immediate pernicious consequence of such shift, EFL teachers at university level are finding themselves facing students who only excel in reproducing faithfully exact forms of knowledge in exam seats rather than having considerable skills in dealing with the language communicatively, in other words, high scores but no communication skills. In

sum, university EFL teachers, in addition to their scheduled courses, need to come up with extra remedial courses to make up for a work that has not been genuinely done at middle and secondary school levels.

The present research work suggested alternative processes of teaching, learning and testing EFL as an ensemble of interrelated linguistic rules and patterns of structures to achieve functional communicative abilities which would lead the language user to use and produce appropriate utterances in any communication contexts with respect to the various variables shaping the speech event, in this sense, the speaker will not only communicate, but take part in communication as an active member who can, eventually, be able to be identified as a member of the target community.

For sure, education, in its inclusive sense, represents the key element in paving the way for, preserving, managing and levelling the development of the nations at different levels on a global scale. This is another way of saying that, high-quality education, in general and English Language Education in particular, has turned out to be an imperative, or at least, a must-have service. This 21<sup>st</sup> century-perception of education, based on effective teaching and active learning is, in all likelihood, conducive to reconsideration and remapping of the boundaries of language teaching and language testing within the construct of the communicative skills of the EFL learners.

In summary then, the present dissertation attempted to redefine the goals of EFL from a communicative-oriented language teaching-testing perspective. However, this could not be attained and maintained without first and foremost a deliberate transformation of the teaching-testing hurdles into communicative bridges. Arguably, this sense of communication would require *a priori* a sound pedagogical assessment literacy to equip teachers with the ability and authority to criticize testing input in relation to communication output. The dissertation keeps the lines open to a wider conception of language teaching to language testing.





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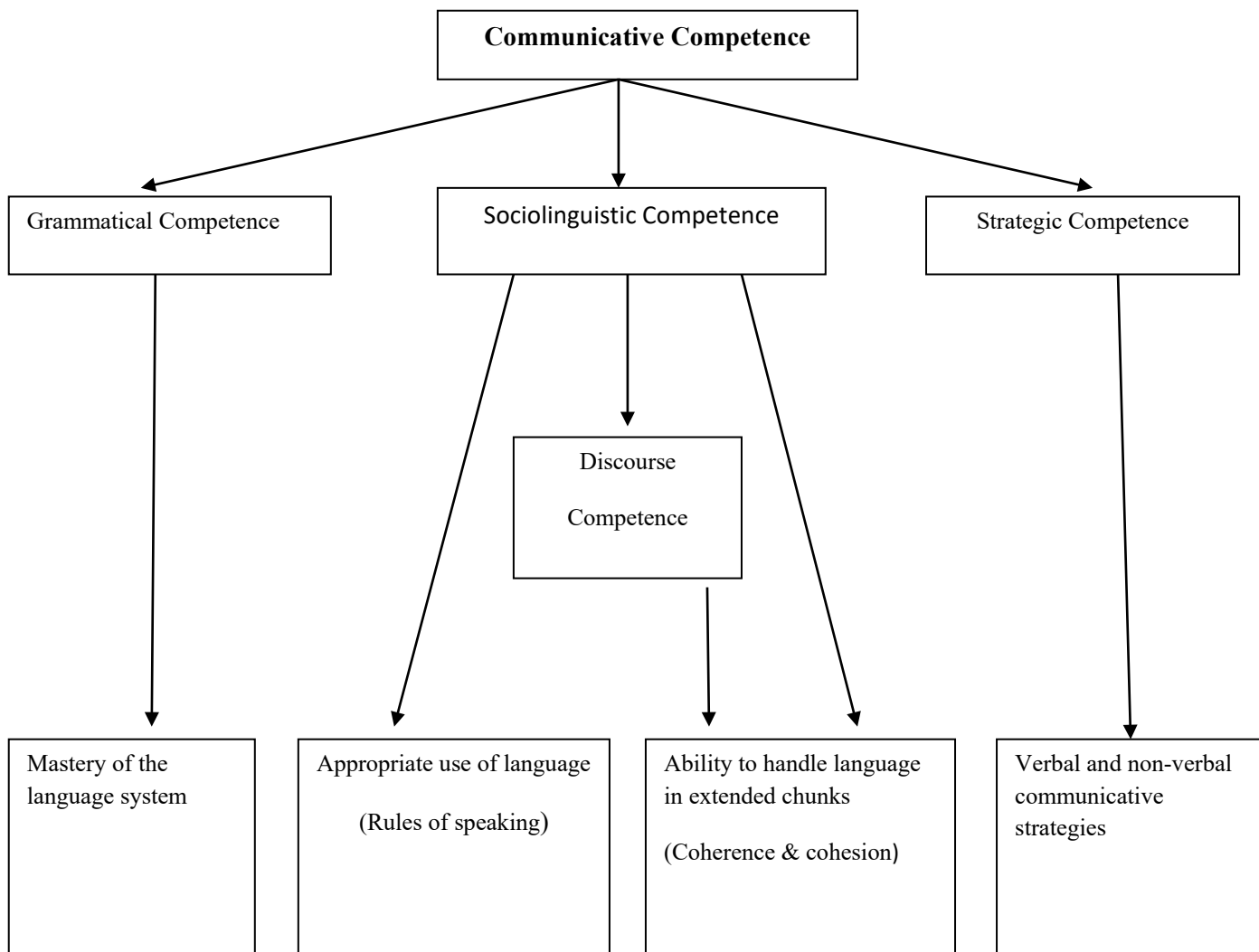
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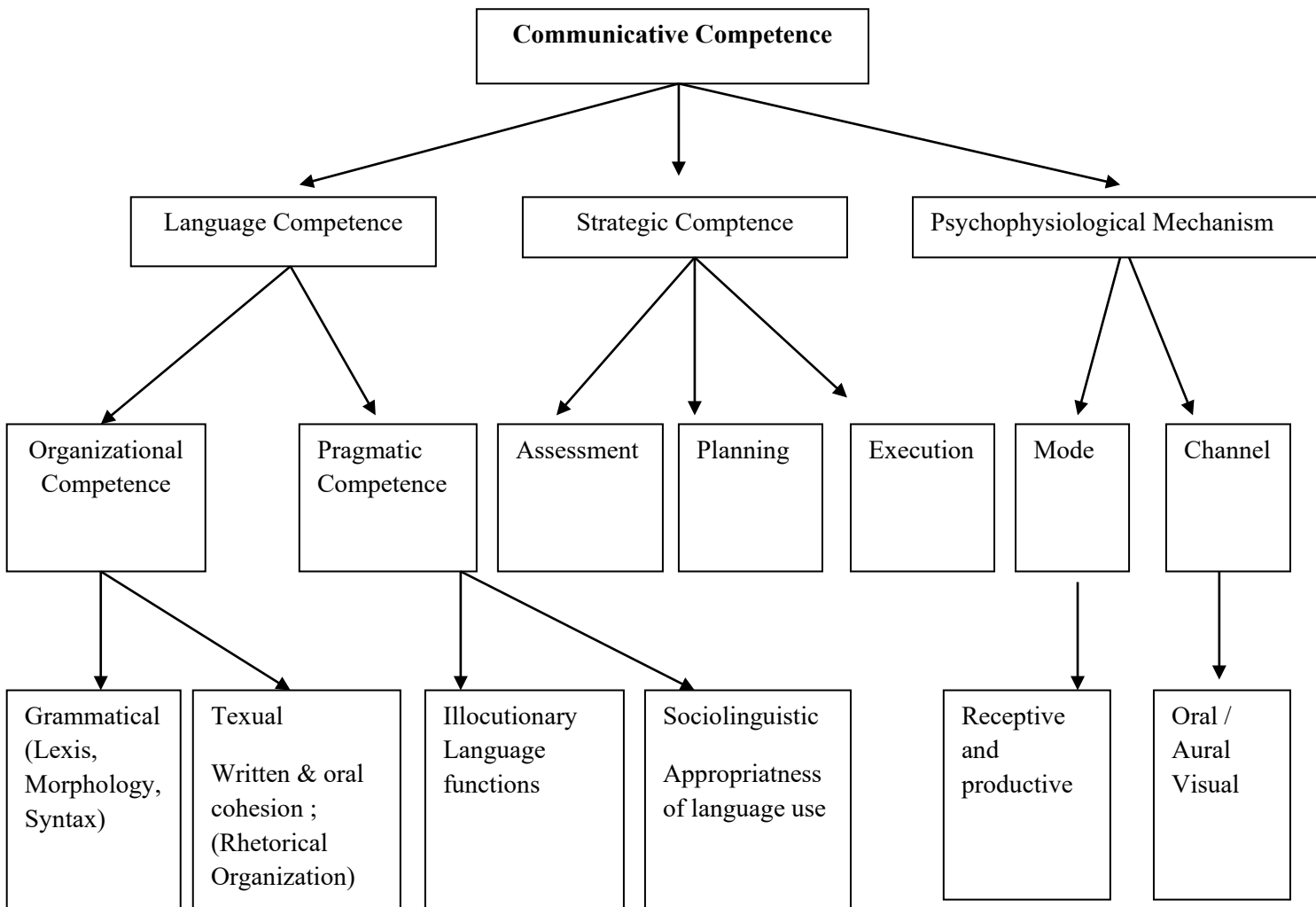
## **Appendices**

## **Appendix I**

### **Models of Communicative Competence**



*Diagram 1.1.* Canale and Swain's (1980, 1983) Model of Communicative Competence



*Diagram 1.2. Bachman's framework (1990) of Communicative Competence*



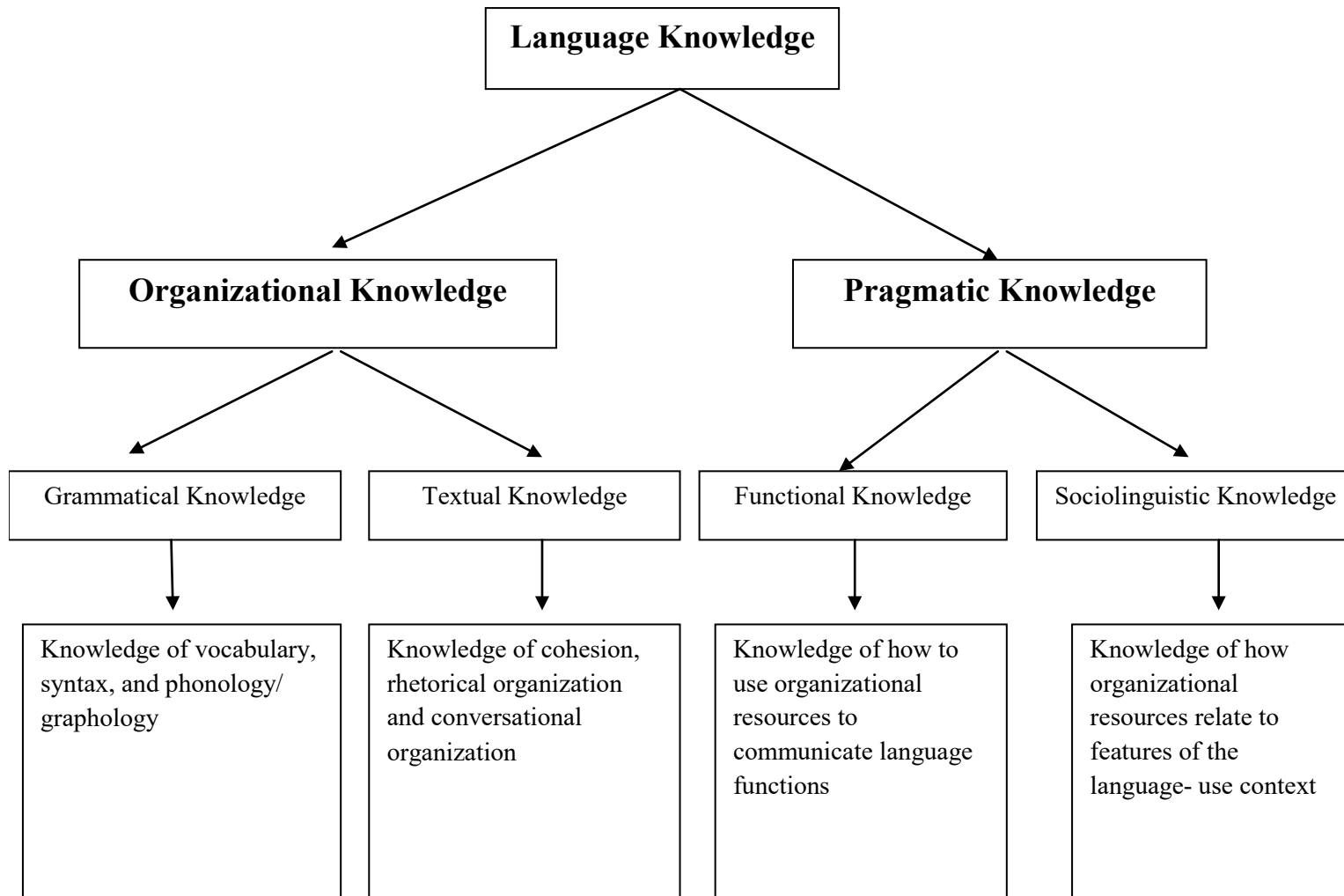


Diagram 1.3. Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) of Communicative Competence

## Celce Murcia's Model of Communication:

### 1. Discourse Competence:

Components	Details
Cohesion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reference ( anaphora, cataphora)</li> <li>• Substitution/ ellipsis</li> <li>• Conjunctions</li> <li>• Lexical chains (related to content schemata), parallel structures</li> </ul>
DEIXIS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal (pronouns)</li> <li>• Spatial (here, there, this, that)</li> <li>• Temporal (now, then, before, after)</li> <li>• Textual ( the following chart, the example above)</li> </ul>
COHERENCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organized expression and interpretation of content and purpose (content schemata)</li> <li>• Thematization and staging</li> <li>• Management of old and new information</li> <li>• Prepositional structures and their organizational sequences temporal spatial, cause-effect, condition-result, etc.</li> <li>• Temporal continuity/ shift (sequence of tenses).</li> </ul>
GENRE/ GENERIC STRUCTURE (formal schemata)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Narrative, Interview, service encounter, research report, sermon, etc.</li> </ul>
CONVERSATIONAL STRUCTURE (inherent to turn taking system in conversation but may extend to a variety of oral genres)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to perform openings and reopenings</li> <li>• Topic establishments and change</li> <li>• How to hold and relinquish the floor</li> <li>• How to interrupt</li> <li>• How to collaborate and backchannel</li> <li>• How to do preclosings and closings</li> <li>• Adjacency pairs (related to actional competence)</li> </ul>

Table 1. Discourse Competence Components

## 2. Linguistic Competence:

Components	Details
SYNTAX	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Constituent/ phrase structure</li> <li>• Word order (canonical and marked)</li> <li>• Sentence types: statement, negatives, questions, imperative, exclamations</li> <li>• Special constructions: -existentials (there + Be...) -clefts (It's X that/who...; What + sub + verb+ Be) -question tags, etc.</li> <li>• Modifiers/ intensifiers: -quantifiers, comparing and equating</li> <li>• Coordination (and, or, etc.) and correlation (both X and Y; either X or Y)</li> <li>• Subordination (e.g., adverbial clauses, conditionals)</li> <li>• Embedding -noun clauses, relative clauses (e.g., restrictive and non-restrictive) -reported speech</li> </ul>
MORPHOLOGY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Parts of speech</li> <li>• Inflections (e.g., agreement and concord)</li> <li>• Derivational processes (productive ones) -compounding, affixation, conversion/ incorporation</li> </ul>
LEXICON	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Words -content words (nouns, verb, adjectives) -function words (pronouns, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.)</li> <li>• Routines -word-like fixed phrases (e.g., of course, all of a sudden) -formulaic and semi-formulaic chunks (e.g., how do you do?)</li> <li>• Collocation -verb-object (e.g., spend money), adv-adj (e.g., mutually intelligible), adj-noun (e.g., tall building).</li> <li>• Idioms (e.g., kick the bucket)</li> </ul>
PHONOLOGY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Segmentals -vowels, consonants, syllable types, sandhi variations (change and reductions between adjacent</li> </ul>

	sounds in the stream of speech) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Suprasegmentals -prominence, stress, intonation, rhythm</li> </ul>
ORTHOGRAPHY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Letters</li> <li>• Phoneme-grapheme correspondences</li> <li>• Rules of spelling</li> <li>Conventions for mechanics and punctuation</li> </ul>

Table2. Components of linguistic competence

### 3. ACTIONAL COMPETENCE:

(1) KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS	
INTERPERSONAL EXCHANGE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greeting and leave-taking</li> <li>• Making introductions, identifying oneself</li> <li>• Extending, accepting and declining invitations and offers</li> <li>• Making and breaking engagements</li> <li>• Expressing and acknowledging attitudes</li> <li>• Complimenting and congratulating</li> <li>• Reacting to interlocutor's speech               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Showing attention, interest, surprise, sympathy, happiness, disbelief, disappointment</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
INFORMATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Asking for and giving information</li> <li>• Reporting (describing and narrating)</li> <li>• Remembering</li> <li>• Explaining and discussing</li> </ul>
OPINIONS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and finding out about opinions and attitudes</li> <li>• Agreeing and disagreeing</li> <li>• Approving and disapproving</li> <li>• Showing satisfaction and dissatisfaction</li> </ul>
FEELINGS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and feeling out about feelings -love, happiness, sadness, pleasure, anxiety, anger, embarrassment, pain, relief, fear -annoyance, surprise, etc.</li> </ul>
SUASION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Suggesting, requesting and instructing</li> <li>• Giving orders, advising, and warning</li> <li>• Persuading, encouraging and discouraging</li> <li>• Asking for, granting and withhold permission</li> </ul>
PROBLEMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Complaining and criticizing</li> <li>• Blaming and accusing</li> <li>• Admitting and denying</li> <li>• Regretting</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Apologizing and forgiving</li> </ul>
FUTURE SCENARIOS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and finding out about, wishes, hopes and desires</li> <li>• Expressing and eliciting plans, goals, and intentions</li> <li>• Promising</li> <li>• Predicting and speculating</li> <li>• Discussing possibilities and capabilities of doing something</li> </ul>
(2) KNOWLEDGE OF SPEECH ACT SETS	

#### 4. CONVERSATIONAL COMPETENCE:

<p>CONVERSATIONAL STRUCTURE (inherent to turn taking system in conversation but may extend to a variety of oral genres)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How to perform openings and reopenings</li> <li>• Topic establishments and change</li> <li>• How to hold and relinquish the floor</li> <li>• How to interrupt</li> <li>• How to collaborate and backchannel</li> <li>• How to do preclosings and closings</li> <li>• Adjacency pairs (related to actional competence)</li> </ul>
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#### 5. NONVERBAL/ PARALINGUISTIC COMPETENCE:

NONVERBAL/ PARALINGUISTIC REACTIONS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Kinesics (body language), nonverbal turn-taking signals, backchannel behaviour, gestures, affect markers, eye contact</li> <li>• Proxemics (use of space by interlocutors)</li> <li>• Haptic behaviour (touching)</li> <li>• Non-linguistic utterances with interactional import (e.g. <i>ahhh! Uh-oh. Huh?</i>) the role of silence and pauses</li> </ul>
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#### 6. Socio-cultural Competence:

COMPONENTS	DETAILS
SOCIAL CONTEXTUAL FACTORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participant variables -age, gender, office and status, social distance, relations (power and affective)</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Situational variables -time, space, social situation</li> </ul>
STYLISTICS APPROPRIATENESS FACTORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Politeness conventions and strategies</li> <li>• Stylistic variation -degrees of formality -field specific registers</li> </ul>
CULTURAL FACTORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Socio-cultural background knowledge of the target community -living conditions (way of living, living standards); social and institutional structure; social conventions and rituals; major values, beliefs and norms; taboo topics; historical background; cultural aspects including literature and arts -awareness of major dialects or regional differences</li> <li>• Cross-cultural awareness -differences, similarities, strategies for cross-cultural communication</li> </ul>
NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATIVE FACTORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Kinesics factors (body language) -discourse controlling behaviour (non-verbal turn taking signals) -backchannel behaviours -affective markers (facial expressions), gestures, eye contact</li> <li>• Proxemic factors (use of space)</li> <li>• Haptic factors (touching)</li> <li>• Paralinguistic factors -accoustical sounds, non vocal noises</li> <li>• silence</li> </ul>

## 7. Formulaic Competence:

Formulaic Competence	
ROUTINES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Word-like fixed phrases (e.g., <i>of course, all of a sudden</i>)</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Formulaic and semi-formulaic chunks (e.g., <i>how do you do? I'm fine, thanks; how are you?</i>)</li> </ul>
COLLOCATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -verb-object (e.g., <i>spend money</i>), adv-adj (e.g., <i>mutually intelligible</i>), adj-noun (e.g., <i>tall building</i>)</li> </ul>
IDIOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• (e.g., <i>kick the bucket</i>)= to die, <i>to get the ax</i>= to be fired/ terminated</li> </ul>
LEXICALFRAMES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E.g., <i>I'm looking for _____</i>. <i>See you (later, tomorrow, next week)</i></li> </ul>

### 8. Strategic Competence:

Components	Details
AVOIDANCE or REDUCTION STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Message replacement</li> <li>• Topic avoidance</li> <li>• Message abandonment</li> </ul>
ACHIEVEMENT or COMPENSATORY STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Circumlocution (e.g., the think you open bottles with for corkscrew)</li> <li>• Approximation (e.g., fish for carp)</li> <li>• All-purpose words (e.g., thingy, thingamajig)</li> <li>• Non-linguistic means (e.g., mime, pointing, gestures, drawing pictures)</li> <li>• Restructuring (e.g., the bus was very... there were a lot of people on it)</li> <li>• Word-coinage (e.g., vegetarianist)</li> <li>• Literal translation from L1</li> <li>• Foreignizing (e.g., L1 word with L2 pronunciation)</li> <li>• Code switching to L1 or L3</li> <li>• Retrieval (e.g., bro... bron... bronze)</li> </ul>
STALLING OR TIME-GAINING STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fillers, hesitation devices and gambits (e.g., well, actually..., where was I...?)</li> <li>• Self and other repetition</li> </ul>
SELF-MONITORING STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-initiated repairs (e.g., <i>I mean...</i>)</li> <li>• Self-rephrasing (over-elaboration) (e.g., This is for students...pupils... when you're at school...)</li> </ul>
INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Appeal for help <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-direct (e.g., what do you call...?)</li> <li>-indirect (e.g., I don(t know the word in English... or puzzled expression)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Meaning negotiation strategies</li> <li>• Indication of non/mis-understanding <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-requests</li> <li>-repetition requests</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<p>(e.g., Pardon? or Could you say that again please?)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-clarification requests (e.g., what do you mean by...?)</li> <li>-confirmation requests (e.g., Did you say...?)</li> <li>-expressions of non-understanding <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-verbal (e.g., Sorry I'm not sure I understand...)</li> <li>-non-verbal (raised eyebrows, blank look)</li> </ul> </li> <li>-interpretive summary (e.g., You mean...?/ So what you're saying is...?)</li> </ul> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Responses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-repetition, rephrasing, expansion, reduction, confirmation, rejection, repair</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Comprehension checks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-whether the interlocutor can follow you (e.g., Am I making sense?)</li> <li>-whether what you said was correct or grammatical (e.g., Can I/you say that?)</li> <li>-whether the interlocutor is listening (e.g., on the phone: Are you still there?)</li> <li>-whether the interlocutor can hear you</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
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## **Appendix II**

### **Illustrative Text: Do the English Speak English**

## 25 Do the English Speak English?

I arrived in London at last. The railway station was big, black and dark. I did not know the way to my hotel, so I asked a porter. I not only spoke English very carefully, but very clearly as well. The porter, however, could not understand me. I repeated my question several times and at last he understood. He answered me, but he spoke neither slowly nor clearly. 'I am a foreigner,' I said. Then he spoke slowly, but I could not understand him. My teacher never spoke English like that! The porter and I looked at each other and smiled. Then he said something and I understood it. 'You'll soon learn English!' he said. I wonder. In England, each man speaks a different language. The English understand each other, but *I* don't understand *them*! Do they speak English?



**Appendix III**  
**Conversational Gambits**

## Conversational Gambits

### Making Suggestions

Why don't you...?  
How about...?  
Have you considered...?

What if you + simple past?  
Maybe you should...  
You could...

#### Giving Opinion

I honestly feel that...  
I strongly believe that...  
that...  
I'm convinced that...  
To my way of thinking...  
If you ask me...  
I'd say...

From my opinion of view...  
Personally I feel\ think\ believe

As far as I'm concerned...  
It seems to me that...  
The way I see it...  
In my view...

#### Giving Reasons

I say that because...  
From what I can see...  
Well, in my experience...  
The fact of the matter is that...  
It's clear that...  
You can't deny that...  
It's obvious that...  
I have several reasons. First...

Let me explain what I mean.  
Consider what would happen if...  
Well, the thing is...  
The reason for this is that...  
Look, it's like this:  
Just let me explain...  
Well, the reason is...  
Since

#### Giving Extra Reasons

And besides...  
Not only that, but also...  
What's more...  
In addition to this...

And another thing is that...  
Perhaps I should mention that...  
Also...  
Not to mention the fact that...

#### Giving Examples

To give you an idea...  
An example to show what I'm talking about is...  
this.  
For instance\ For example,...  
I'd like to illustrate my point with an example.  
A typical example is...  
think of is...

A recent example is...  
Let me give you an example of  
To give an example,...  
Just as an example,...  
The only other example I can

#### Closing Your Point of View

So, that's why I think...  
That's the reason why...  
For these reasons...

These are just some of the reasons why...  
This is why...

### **Agreeing**

That's true;  
I agree with you.  
I know what you mean.  
I (completely) agree (with you).  
That makes sense.  
I think so, too.  
I couldn't agree more.  
That's a good point.  
neither.  
I hadn't thought about that.  
That's so true.

That's for sure.  
**(slang)** Tell me about it!  
You're absolutely right.  
Absolutely.  
That's exactly how I feel.  
Exactly!  
I was just going to say that.  
**(Agree with negative statement)** Me  
No doubt about it.  
I have to side with Pepito on this one.

### **Disagreeing**

I agree with you but...  
Yes, but on the other hand...  
I don't see it quite like that.  
I don't think so.  
I doubt it.  
That's a good point but...  
I see what you're saying, but...  
That's not how I see it.  
I'm afraid I can't agree with you  
That's not logical.  
Yes, that may be true, but...

Well you have the point, but...  
I find that hard to believe.  
I see what you mean, but...  
Do you see it that way? I think...  
Yes, but don't forget...  
Yes, but keep in mind...  
Yes, but consider...  
Possibly, but  
I can't accept that...  
I can't agree with that...

### **Generalising**

In general,  
Generally speaking,  
In my experience,

As a rule,  
By and large,

### **Asking About Agreement**

Do you agree?  
Don't you agree?  
Wouldn't you agree?

Don't you think so?  
Wouldn't you say (that)?

### **Asking For an Opinion**

What's your idea?  
this?  
What are your thoughts on all of this?  
How do you feel about that?

Do you have anything to say about  
What do you think?

(Adapted from Milton Avededo Saire, web-retrieved document)

## **Appendix IV**

### **Non-Verbal Behaviour: A Detailed Account**

It is particularly noteworthy that in our culture there is a deliberate attempt to avoid eye contact as a sign of respect for an older person or an authority figure. In Britain, however, avoiding eye contact is usually regarded as shiftiness and insincerity. Certain acts of courtesy are very common in British culture and their non-observance is very often considered as a moral offence. For example, one should hold a door open for someone, especially when passing through first oneself, one should give priority to elderly people and ladies --to give up one's seat to a pregnant woman in a bus or underground; one should take the end place in a queue, because people do get offended if someone tries to 'jump the queue', one should put a handkerchief or hand over his mouth when yawning, coughing or sneezing.

One may add for the purpose of this argument one's perception and use of space, i.e. the proxemic aspects. In most cultures any proxemic violation, whether too close or too distant, can give offence or lead, eventually, to conflict and misinterpretations. For instance, an Algerian student in Great Britain who ignores the norms of proximity within the British culture might have serious problems; He could be rejected on the basis that he is homosexual, promiscuous or physically abused.

The norms of proximity within a specific culture vary according to the nature of the social relationship between the participants. *'The distance at which participants stand from each other is then of paralinguistic importance. Each person unconsciously adopts the conventional proximity appropriate to situations in his own culture'* (Abercrombie 1973:34). To throw a great deal of light on the concept of distance, Hall (1959) distinguishes four proximity zones on the basis of a distance continuum, i.e. how close or how far participants stand from each other when they interact. The four distance zones in question are: intimate, personal, social consultative, and public<sup>70</sup>. The following table can help us in defining each type in terms of distance and the nature of the social relationship:

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<sup>70</sup> It is particularly noteworthy that the patterns delimiting the distance zones are sometimes subject to *'personality and environmental factors, since an abnormal situation could bring people closer than they usually are'* (Hall 1959:116).

<b>Proximity Zone</b>	<b>Distance</b> (between participants)	<b>Nature of social relationship</b>
Intimate	Less than 45 cm	Intimate relationship
Personal	Between 45 cm and 1.3 meters	Close relationship
Social consultative	Between 3 and 4 meters	Impersonal relationship
Public	Above 4 meters	Public figures in public occasions

To avoid embarking on false assumptions, a word of warning is necessary here. The proximity zones outlined in the above table apply only to the American culture. In this very specific context, what can be said about North Americans could be extended to the British society. Anglo-Americans may feel “ill at ease” when someone does not respect the proper distance from them. Also in support of the contention that distance varies according to the nature of the social interaction, Hall mentions the idiomatic expression ‘get your face out of mine’ that is very often used when the proximity zone is violated, to illustrate how important body boundaries are in the Anglo-American culture.

In yet other cultures, for example the Arab one, intimate distance is very common among members of the same sex, and its use in public places is commonplace<sup>71</sup>. The distance Arabs keep in ordinary social conversations (social consultative) is the same as what Anglo-Americans use in intimate conversations. What is more, in the Anglo-American tradition, it is considered impolite to touch a person to attract their attention, unless it is a matter of urgency, and people apologize if they accidentally touch a stranger.

These cultural differences in the perception and use of distance have led reseachers (Hall 1959; Leather 1978; Sommer 1979; Vargas 1986) to draw a seminal distinction between *high-contact cultures* and *low-contact cultures*<sup>72</sup>. The former refers to those who usually stand close to each other, such as the Arabs, Turks, and Latin Americans, while the latter those who stand further apart, such as North Americans and the British.

A related point worth raising here is the communicative value of the tactile activities. In some cultures, people use the tactile mode to express such

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<sup>71</sup> Hall (1959) affirms that the use of *intimate distance* in public places is not proper in the Anglo-American societies.

<sup>72</sup> Alternatively, the terms *contact* and *non-contact cultures* are sometimes used to refer to *high-contact* and *low-contact cultures* respectively.



meanings as greeting, affection, love, brotherhood, friendship etc. or as reinforcement to their verbal behaviour. The tactile mode of communication involves a wide range of activities. Yet, for pedagogical purposes, it is not convenient to list all the various tactile elements, but to list the two most relevant ones – hand-shaking and kissing.

The ritual of hand-shaking is not very common in the British culture. The British people shake hands only when they are introduced to someone or meeting a friend they have not seen for a long time. However, on saying ‘goodbye’ to someone to whom one has been introduced, especially if the meeting was fairly formal or important, it is usual to shake hands a second time. By contrast, the use of the expression: *Did I sleep with you (last night)?*<sup>73</sup> shows the discomfort people feel when someone shakes the others’ hand and misses out another’s (whom he may have shaken his hand some time earlier).

Therefore, in high-contact cultures, hand-shaking is generally regarded not only as a greeting form, but also as a way to bring people together and stimulate involvement and interest; its non-observance is a way to keep people apart and promote withdrawal and detachment. On the other hand, hand-shaking in the Algerian culture is rarely performed among women; instead they exchange a kiss.

In Britain, it is not usual for men to kiss each other, even within a family, nor do they normally kiss children. As a sign of affection, they pat children on the head. Some women, however, exchange a kiss when they are introduced and on taking leave. Conversely, the ritual of kissing is widely common among Algerians. Men usually exchange a kiss with a friend or relative they have not seen for a long time. This form of greeting is also very observed on religious ceremonies. In some cases, kissing is accompanied by either a hand shake or a tight embrace.

It should be noted, however, that there are many differences between individuals and groups within the same culture, and each may have a subjective interpretation about how these tactile activities operate within a complex system of social constraints. Therefore, and, as Crystal has rightly pointed out, “*it is not easy to make accurate generalizations about society as a whole*” (Crystal 1989:401).

(Benmoussat, 2004, pp. 87-91)

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<sup>73</sup> This is a literal translation, and in no way should it be interpreted with a transferred meaning.

**Appendix V**

**Grammar-Translation-Based Teaching**

**Materials**

1<sup>st</sup>

## Mrs Eliot prepares breakfast.

L  
E  
S  
S  
O  
N

A cookery class  
in an English  
secondary school.

kettle  
'kɛtlawake  
ə'weɪkloaf  
ləʊfslice  
slaɪsspread  
sprɛdactual(ly)  
'æktʃuəl(i)bacon  
'beɪkənedge  
ɛdʒrashers  
'ræʃəfry  
fraɪpassage  
'pæsɪdʒfetch  
fetʃ

1. Mrs Eliot is always up before the rest of the family. The first thing she does on getting up is to plug in the electric **kettle** which stands on her bedside table. She boils some water for her early morning tea and Mr Eliot's : they couldn't do without that early cup of tea : it helps them to wake up!
2. Now Mrs Eliot is dressed and wide **awake** : she goes to the kitchen to prepare breakfast. First she warms up the milk to go with the cereal; then she puts the **loaf** of bread on the breadboard and cuts **slice** after slice of brown bread and soft white bread : the children are always so hungry in the morning! Then she **spreads** butter on each slice of bread
3. But for Pat and Tommy, neither bread and butter, nor cereal, nor even buttered toast, is **actual** food; it is only with eggs and **bacon** that breakfast actually begins for them!  
Now, Mrs Eliot takes the piece of smoked bacon and, with a long thin knife with a sharp **edge**, she slices off thin **rashers** which she puts to **fry** in the frying-pan on the gas-cooker.
4. The good smell of frying bacon tells the rest of the family that breakfast will soon be ready. It is time for Pat to lay the table for breakfast, and for Tommy to run down the **passage** to the front-door to **fetch** the mail from the letter-box. So his father can go through his letters and have a look at the newspaper while eating his breakfast and drinking his coffee.

## VOCABULAIRE ET USAGE

Questions de révision (5<sup>e</sup>: leçons 22, 33, 38 — 6<sup>e</sup>: leçons G, 24)

1. When is it pleasant to eat? to drink? to go to bed?
2. What is the furniture in a bedroom?
3. What do people do when they hear the alarm-clock?
4. What various drinks can people have for breakfast?
5. What do many people put in their tea or coffee? why?
6. What do French people eat for breakfast? and English people?
7. When can water be used to make tea?
8. How do you heat an electric kettle? and an ordinary one?
9. In what can you warm up milk or chocolate?
10. What is the equipment in a modern kitchen?
11. When does a knife cut well?

### Usage

he has a look at...  
il parcourt des yeux...

he goes through his letters  
il dépouille son courrier

to do without...  
se passer de...

## GRAMMAIRE

### 1. Verbes irréguliers.

to begin, to cut, to drink, to eat, to get, to go, to lay, to put, to run, to spread, to take, to tell, to wake.

### 2. A revoir.

(Les n<sup>os</sup> de paragraphe renvoient à la Grammaire de l'Anglais vivant.)

- Emploi et omission de THAT; ses différents sens : démonstratif, § 140 — relatif, § 130 — conjonction, § 367.
- Cas possessif incomplet, § 55 b.
- Sens et emploi de l'infinitif, §§ 225 c, 226.
- Forme en -ING, §§ 25 e, 228 d, 230 a. • Verbes composés, §§ 215 à 223.

### 3. A apprendre.

- on getting up = at the moment she gets up.  
ON, préposition de temps, introduit une date ou un moment précis, § 356.

## EXERCICES

1. Questions : 1. How does Mrs Eliot make her early morning tea? 2. Is she the only one to have it? 3. What does she usually prepare for breakfast? 4. How does she prepare bacon? 5. How do Pat and Tommy help in the morning? 6. What does Pat spread over the table before fetching cups and plates? 7. Why do you need a knife with a sharp edge to slice off rashers of bacon? 8. Which would you prefer, a French or an English breakfast? 9. Who is the first to get up in your house? 10. What sort of cooker does your mother use?

2. Traduire : a) 1. Est-ce que vos enfants ont faim le matin? 2. C'est avec le petit déjeuner que la journée commence vraiment. 3. Pourquoi Mme Eliot est-elle levée avant les autres? 4. Il jette toujours un coup d'œil vers le ciel avant de sortir. 5. J'ai parcouru le journal.  
b) 1. Tom est né le 9 décembre. 2. Nous n'allons pas en classe le dimanche. 3. Pat eut faim en sentant l'odeur du bacon. 4. Il n'est jamais à l'heure le lundi parce qu'il se couche tard le dimanche. 5. Tommy courut à la porte d'entrée en entendant le facteur.

► Relever dans la leçon les mots comportant les sons :

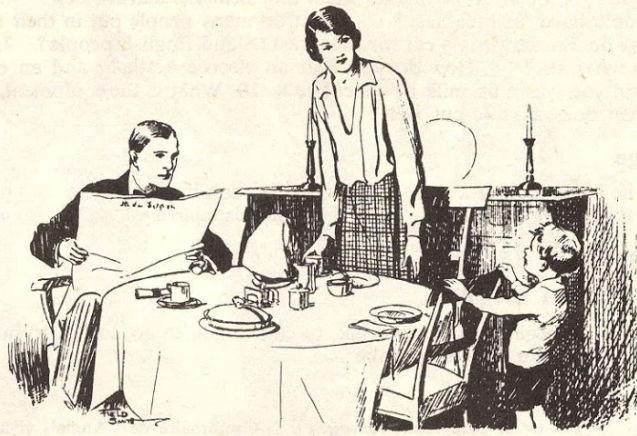


2<sup>nd</sup>

## Mrs Eliot serves breakfast.

L  
E  
S  
S  
O  
NBy permission  
of "Punch."

MOTHER: *Late for breakfast again, Bobby: why is it?*  
BOBBY: *I fink I must have over-washed, Mummy.*

appear  
ə'piəMum  
mʌmcloth  
klɒθchunk  
tʃʌŋkmanners  
'mænəznone  
nʌntiny  
'taɪnibesides  
bi'saɪdztimid(ly)  
'tɪmɪd(lɪ)extra  
'ekstrəsmiling  
'smɑɪlɪŋrefuse  
rɪ'fju:zgreetings  
'gri:tɪŋz

1. At 8 sharp Mrs Eliot begins to serve breakfast. Mr Eliot is the last **to appear**; he sits at one end of the table and his wife at the opposite end, with all the cups in front of her. She pours out the tea, and hands out the cups to everybody.

2. PAT— You've given me too much cereal, **Mum**, I can't eat any more!  
TOM— I've finished my cereal, Mum; can I help myself to some bacon?  
MUM— No, you mustn't; I won't have drops of fat all over my clean table-**cloth**, and that happened last time you helped yourself, don't you remember? and look here, Tom, don't speak with your mouth full, and don't eat your bread in big **chunks**, as you're doing now: can't you mind your table-**manners**?

3. TOM— Sorry, Mum; is there any tea left? could I have one more cup?  
MUM— No, you can't, my boy, there's **none** left in the teapot.  
PAT— Please, could I have some more jam with a **tiny**, tiny piece of bread?  
MUM— No, Pat, you've eaten quite enough; **besides**, there's no time for another helping: I don't want you to be late at school. Hurry up, now, and don't forget any of your things, as you often do!

4. Mr Eliot now asks **timidly**: "Couldn't I have an **extra** cup of coffee before I go, my dear, without any milk?" and Mrs Eliot answers **smiling**: "I cannot **refuse** the Head of the family a few drops of coffee, can I?"  
Mother is now left to herself; she clears the table and gets ready to go out, for she has all her shopping to do for the day. As she takes her basket, she hears the door-bell: it is Mrs Daily, the **charwoman**; she lets her in and, after an exchange of **greetings**, she goes out.

## VOCABULAIRE ET USAGE

### Questions de revision (6<sup>e</sup>: leçons 23, 33, 38 — 5<sup>e</sup>: leçon G)

1. What are the meals of the day? 2. What do you put on the table when you lay the cloth for dinner? and for breakfast? 3. When do you clear the table? 4. When does mother take a basket? 5. Why cannot mother eat breakfast in peace? 6. How do you make tea? how do you fill a teacup? 7. What happens when you drop a cup or a glass on the floor? 8. What do you use to cut your meat? to take it to your mouth? to eat soup? to drink tea, water or wine? to fry bacon? to cook boiled eggs? to boil water? 9. What is left in a teapot when all the tea has been poured out? 10. Why must you mind milk when it is on the fire?

### Usage

he helps himself to some tea  
*il se sert de thé*

to ask for another helping  
*en redemander*

mind your table-manners  
*tiens-toi bien à table*

## GRAMMAIRE

### 1. Verbes irréguliers.

to begin, to do, to eat, to forget, to get, to give, to go, to hear, to leave, to let, to sit, to speak, to take.

### 2. A revoir.

(Les n<sup>os</sup> de paragraphe renvoient à la Grammaire de l'Anglais vivant.)

- Les indéfinis de quantité, §§ 147, 148; SOME, ANY, NO, § 157; ENOUGH, § 156.
- Degrés de comparaison, §§ 149, 150. • Pronoms réfléchis, §§ 117, 118.
- Contractions, § 254, • *N'est-ce pas*, § 307. • Ellipse du verbe, § 253.

### 3. A apprendre.

- *Don't you remember? Couldn't I have...*

La forme interro-négative combine une négation avec une question.

Elle n'est pas négative de sens; elle se construit, le plus souvent, avec une contraction de la négation, §§ 201 à 203.

- WILL: *I won't have = I refuse to have...*

WILL (adjectif dérivé, WILLING) peut exprimer la volonté, § 184, b.

## EXERCICES

3. Questions : 1. Which is the thicker, a slice or a chunk? 2. What must you do when you are late? 3. Why did mother say Tom had no table-manners? 4. Why did she tell him not to help himself? 5. When do children ask for a second helping of dessert? 6. Why did Mr Eliot ask for more coffee timidly? 7. Why didn't his wife refuse? 8. Why is she always left by herself after breakfast? 9. Does she remain alone all the morning? 10. When did Mrs Daily appear at the door? 11. What do you do and say when friends come to your house? and when they go away?

4. Traduire : 1. Vous n'avez pas le temps de vous resservir. 2. Pat ouvrit la porte et fit entrer ses amies. 3. Il est l'heure pour les enfants de partir à l'école. 4. Dépêche-toi, Tom, maman n'aime pas que nous soyons en retard. 5. Passez-moi une tartine de beurre, s'il vous plaît, et servez-vous de confiture.

► Relever dans la leçon les mots comportant les sons :



# PRÉCIS GRAMMATICAL

## ▣ ▣ ▣ ▣ ▣ I. L'ARTICLE ▣ ▣ ▣ ▣ ▣

### 1. Article indéfini.

- a) **a** s'emploie devant une consonne et devant une **h** aspirée; devant un **w**, un **y**, et devant le son [ju:]  
**an** s'emploie devant une voyelle ou une **h** muette.
- b) **a** se prononce [ə]; **an** se prononce [ən].
- c) **a**, **an** s'emploie avec les 3 genres. Il n'a pas de pluriel.
- d) **a**, **an** s'emploie devant un **attribut** : *Father is a doctor* ; après une **préposition** : cf. § 102; et après **what** et **such** cf. § 106.
- e) **not a**, **not an** se remplace souvent par **no** : *I have no pen*.

### 2. Article défini.

- a) **the** se prononce [ði] devant une voyelle et [ðə] devant une consonne ou une **h** aspirée;
- b) **the** s'emploie avec les 3 genres, au singulier et au pluriel.

### 3. Emploi et omission de THE.

#### 1. On omet **the** :

- a) après un **cas possessif** et après **whose** ;  
b) devant tout nom qui n'est **pas déterminé**.

et particulièrement devant :

les noms **concrets au pluriel** :

*Shoes are made of leather.*

les noms **abstrait** :

*War is a terrible thing.*

les noms de **sciences** :

*We learn history.*

les noms de **couleurs** :

*I like green.*

les noms de **matières** :

*Wood is useful.*

les noms de **pays** :

*France is much larger than England.*

les **titres** + nom propre :

*King George V is dead.*

Mais on dira :

*The shoes I wear are black.*

*The war of 1914 was terrible.*

*We learn the history of Greece.*

*I like the green of your dress.*

*The wood of my pencil is soft.*

*The France of to-day is very different from that of Clovis.*

*The King of England is ill.*

2. On emploie **the** :

a) si l'objet désigné est **unique** : *the sun, the rain*;

b) si le **nom** au **singulier** représente toute l'espèce :

*The dog is a friend to men* ou : *Dogs are friends to men.*

## EXERCICES

181. Use "the" when necessary. — 1. *Streets of town* were full of people. 2. All *men* are afraid of death. 3. *Donkey* is a patient animal. 4. *Public-schools of England* are proud of their traditions. 5. *Lamp-posts* light our streets at night. 6. *Cardboard* is used to make *boxes* with. 7. *Italy* has many ancient buildings. 8. *War* is a terrible thing. 9. *Wool* of this carpet is soft and thick. 10. *War* which began in 1914 lasted four years.

182. Write in the singular. — 1. *Avenues* led to the cathedral. 2. *Men-servants* were more often used formerly than now. 3. Several *books* have come for you, but they are not the ones you wanted most. 4. *London taxis* do not look modern. 5. They are *gentlemen*.

183. Write in the plural. — 1. The *horse* is a fine animal. 2. I took a *corner-seat*. 3. There was a *bus* going up the street. 4. He had a *French stamp* and an *English one*. 5. The *taxi-man* raised the flag of his *taxi*. 6. There is a *family* who lives in our house. 7. The *rat* is not a useful animal. 8. An *ox* is used to draw a heavy *cart*. 9. An *Englishman* is usually taller and fairer than a *Frenchman*. 10. A *dictation* teaches you *spelling*.

## II. LE NOM

### 4. Formation des noms.

- a) Verbe + **ing** = action de. . . . *reading, travelling.*  
 b) Verbe + **er, or** = agent . . . . *actor, bricklayer.*  
 c) Adjectif + **ness** = nom abstrait . *business, happiness.*  
 d) Nom + **ess** = féminin . . . . . *poetess, lioness.*

### 5. Noms composés.

- a) Adjectif + **nom** . . . . . *blackboard; grandparent.*  
 b) Gérondif + **nom**. . . . . *looking-glass; drawing-pin.*  
 c) Nom + **nom** . . . . . *classroom; cupboard.*

REMARQUE :

Le premier élément dans un nom composé joue un rôle d'adjectif. Il est donc **invariable**.

Ex : *school-room, school-rooms; fish-knife, fish-knives;*  
*tooth-brush, tooth-brushes; flower-bed, flower-beds.*



## 6. Le genre des noms.

genre masculin. . . *the boy, Fred* } . . noms de **personnes**.  
 genre féminin. . . *a girl, Jane* }  
 genre neutre . . . *a book, a fork* . . noms de **choses**.

REMARQUES :

Un très jeune bébé est souvent neutre.

Les animaux sont neutres en principe.

Les animaux familiers sont souvent masculins ou féminins.

Certains noms de personnes sont du genre commun : *person, artist, teacher, pupil, etc...*

## 7. Formation du féminin.

1. en **ess** . . . . . *master, mistress; poet, poetess.*
2. **noms différents**. . . . . *man, woman; cock, hen.*
3. par **adjonction** . . . . . { *man-servant, maid-servant;*  
   *he-donkey, she-donkey;*  
   *cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow.*

## 8. Singulier et pluriel.

Le pluriel régulier se forme en ajoutant **s** au singulier.

Voir § 108 pour la prononciation de l'**s** finale.

Ex : *A book, two books — a house, two houses.*

## 9. Pluriel en -es.

Les noms en **s, x, z, ch, sh**, forment leur pluriel en **-es**.

Ex : *class, classes — bus, buses — box, boxes*  
*brush, brushes — inch, inches.*

de même les noms en **o**.

*negro, negroes — potato, potatoes — tomato, tomatoes.*

mais : *piano, pianos.*

## 10. Pluriel en -ies.

Les noms terminés par **consonne + y** ont leur pluriel en **-ies**

Ex : *lady, ladies — family, families — cherry, cherries.*

mais : *boy, boys — key, keys; cf. § 107.*

## 11. Pluriel en -ves.

Les noms en **f** et **fe** forment leur pluriel en **-ves**.

Ex : *wife, wives — knife, knives — leaf, leaves.*

EXCEPTIONS : *roof, roofs; handkerchief, handkerchiefs.*

## 12. Pluriels irréguliers.

en	oo = ee	ou = i	an = en
<i>ox child</i>	<i>foot goose tooth</i>	<i>mouse</i>	<i>man woman</i>
<i>oxen children</i>	<i>feet geese teeth</i>	<i>mice</i>	<i>men women</i>

## 13. Pluriels invariables.

**Sheep** est invariable : *one sheep, three hundred sheep.*

**Fruit** et **fish** sont souvent invariables.

## 14. Noms collectifs.

Certains noms représentant une **collectivité** sont invariables.

- verbe au **singulier**. . . . . *hair, luggage.*
- verbe au **pluriel**. . . . . *people, cattle.*
- verbe au **singulier** ou au **pluriel**. . *crew, family, crowd.*

## 15. Pluriel idiomatique.

Un **sujet pluriel** exige parfois un **complément pluriel**.

Comparez : *The two sisters had **their hats** on **their heads**.*

*The two sisters came to see us in **their car**.*

## 16. Formation du cas possessif.

- Employez **'s** pour les noms singuliers ou pluriels sans **-s**.  
Employez une **apostrophe seule** pour les pluriels en **-s**.
- Le nom **complément précède** le nom complété.
- the** est toujours **supprimé après** le cas possessif.
- Singulier { *the doll of Jane. . . . . Jane's doll.*  
*the car of Dr. Brown . . . Dr. Brown's car.*  
*the book of the boy . . . the boy's book.*  
*the life of a man . . . . . a man's life.*
- Pluriel { *the toys of her children. . . her children's toys.*  
*the tables of the pupils. . . the pupils' tables.*

## 17. Emploi du cas possessif.

- Il **ne peut pas** s'appliquer à un nom d'être **inanimé**.  
Ex : *Fred's leg. The horse's leg* ; mais : *the leg of the chair.*
- Il peut s'appliquer aux noms de **distance** et de **temps**.  
Ex : *an hour's walk ; a fifty miles' journey.*
- Shop, church, house** sont souvent **omis** après **'s**.  
Ex : *She went to the baker's. I live far from my friend's.*

184. Write the feminine in *-ess* of — Shepherd; master; giant; host; Jew; mayor; malefactor; negro; actor; poet.

185. Give the feminine equivalent of — Country-man; school-boy; he-monkey; grandson; boy-scout; gentleman; guinea-cock; King; Lord Mayor; landlord; lion.

186. Group into three columns (masculine, feminine and common genders). — Husband; artist; cook; pedestrian; fool; lady; neighbour; visitor; dress-maker; boot-maker; Dad; landlady; ship; Mrs. Smith; blacksmith; headmaster; vicar; musician; maid; boarder.

187. Write in the masculine. — 1. The village schoolmistress wrote her letters in her kitchen. 2. This lady is proud of her dress. 3. The landlady asked her boarder what she would have for tea. 4. Was not the old woman pleased to see her granddaughter? 5. She is my niece, her mother is my wife's sister.

188. Complete with one or the other of the nouns between brackets. — 1. The (maid, valet) did not think her wages were high enough. 2. (Adam, Eve) was sorry for his disobedience. 3. She said that she did not know (Mr. Brown, Mrs. Brown) but she had seen his wife. 4. The milliner sold the (gentleman, lady) a hat which fitted her well. 5. (Uncle, aunt) asked me to send her postcards.

189. Explain. — A morning train; a booking-office; a ticket-inspector; a waiting-room; a cloak-room; a book-stall; a taxi-driver; a schoolmaster; hand-luggage; night-things.

190. Turn into the plural. — 1. She looked for a costume in her fashion-paper. 2. A Customs officer stood on the pier. 3. I was sitting in a deck-chair. 4. The man put a flower in his button-hole. 5. The ox is drawing a cart full of corn up that hill. 6. The postman took the letters out of the letter-box. 7. A man-at-arms was dressed in steel. 8. He writes with a fountain-pen. 9. The Lord-Mayor took his man-servant with him. 10. An inch is less than a foot, and a penny than a shilling.

191. Write in the singular. — 1. The thieves were arrested by policemen. 2. The postmen bring our letters in their bags. 3. The maids' brooms have had a holiday. 4. The mice had run all over the empty house. 5. Children like to travel in corridor trains.

192. Use the possessive case when possible. — 1. The tool of the mason was very heavy. 2. The roof of his new house is finished. 3. The competition of tradesmen keeps the prices down. 4. The new lease of our tenant is for nine years. 5. The paint of the walls has come off. 6. He put his sheaf on the top of the cart. 7. The juice of the grapes fell out of the press. 8. The father of Maggie is a Customs officer. 9. She went to the shop of the baker. 10. This is the place of my friend.

**18. Formation des adjectifs.**

1. Les adjectifs **dérivés** se forment avec :

- a) nom + **y** . . . . . *rain, rainy; mud, muddy.*
- b) nom + **ful**. . . . . *use, useful; care, careful.*
- c) nom + **less**.. . . . *use, useless; care, careless.*

2. Les adjectifs **composés** peuvent se former avec les éléments suivants, le **premier** servant à **déterminer** le **second** :

a) Adjectif ou nom + **adjectif**.

Ex : *dark-blue; red-hot; shoulder-high; knee-deep.*

b) Adjectif, adverbe ou nom + **participe présent** ou **passé**.

Ex : *white-painted; horse-drawn; good-looking; hand-made.*

c) Adjectif ou nom + **imitation du participe passé**.

Ex : *blue-uniformed; strong-limbed; fair-haired; grey-eyed.*

**19. Genre et nombre.**

Les adjectifs sont **invariables** en **genre** et en **nombre**.

Ex : *a good boy, a good girl, a good dog, a good book.*

*2 good boys; 2 good girls; 2 good dogs; 2 good books.*

**20. Place des adjectifs.**

a) Un adjectif **épithète** **précède** toujours le nom.

Ex : *Mr. Brown is a tall, thin, white-haired old man.*

b) Déterminé par un **complément**, il **suit** le nom.

Ex : *I want a glass full of wine, not of water.*

c) Il suit également **something, anything, nothing**.

Ex : *I have nothing special to tell you.*

d) Un adjectif **attribut** (avec **to make, to keep**) **suit** le nom.

Ex : *We wear gloves to keep our hands warm in Winter.*

*The mountain air makes children strong.*

**21. Adjectifs pris substantivement.**

a) Ils sont toujours **pluriel**, quoique **invariables**.

Ex : *The blind are unhappy* (les aveugles).

Mais : *A blind man is unhappy* (un aveugle...)

b) Ils sont précédés de **the** et ne désignent qu'une **totalité**.

Ex : *The rich must help the poor.*

*The English drink much tea.*

Mais : *There are many poor people in our town.*

*Some English men drink wine at every meal.*

## 22. Comparatif d'égalité.

	AFFIRMATION ET QUESTION	NÉGATION
<i>Adjectifs courts ou longs</i>	<b>as ... as</b>	<b>not so ... as not as ... as</b>

## 23. Comparatif et superlatif de supériorité.

	COMPARATIF	SUPERLATIF
<i>Adjectifs courts</i>	<b>...er than</b>	<b>the ...est</b>
<i>Adjectifs longs</i>	<b>more ... than</b>	<b>the most ...</b>

Ex : *Iron is more useful than gold.*  
*It is the most useful of all metals.*  
*February is shorter than May.*  
*It is the shortest month in the year.*

REMARQUE : Voir tableau § 107, pour l'orthographe du comparatif et du superlatif en **-er** et **-est**.

## 24. Comparatifs et superlatifs irréguliers.

good, well . . . better. . . . . the best  
 bad, ill. . . . . worse. . . . . the worst  
 much, many . . more . . . . . the most  
 little . . . . . less. . . . . the least  
 far . . . . . farther . . . . . the farthest

## 25. Comparatif et superlatif d'infériorité.

	COMPARATIF	SUPERLATIF
<i>Tous les adjectifs</i>	<b>less ... than</b>	<b>the least ...</b>

REMARQUE :

**Not so... as** remplace fréquemment **less than**, surtout pour les adjectifs courts.

Ex : *Work is less pleasant than play.*  
*Work is not so pleasant as play.*  
*The least intelligent of you can do this exercise easily.*

**26. Double comparatif.**

Le double comparatif exprime qu'une qualité augmente ou diminue (*de plus en plus, de moins en moins*).

Ex : *Our lessons are getting more and more difficult.*

*Days are getting shorter and shorter in Autumn.*

*People who cannot read are less and less numerous.*

**27. Emploi du comparatif.**

a) On l'emploie au lieu du superlatif quand il ne s'agit que de deux objets. (Cf. la règle latine: *Validior manuum.*)

Ex : *Mrs. Martin has two children; the elder is a boy.*

b) On l'emploie aussi dans les expressions **I had rather** (*j'aimerais mieux*), et **I had better** (*je ferais mieux*).

Elles sont suivies de **than** + infinitif sans **to**.

c) **Same** est traité comme un comparatif d'égalité.

Ex : *My old neighbour wears the same hat as last year.*

**Other** est traité comme un comparatif de supériorité.

Ex : *I have no other lesson than this one for to-morrow.*

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**EXERCICES**


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193. Turn into the negative. — 1. Jack is as tall as Jim. 2. I write as well as you do. 3. She gave me as much dessert as I wanted. 4. I shall see you now as often as before. 5. Autumn is as pleasant as Summer. 6. Do we like work as much as play? 7. His English is as bad as last year. 8. There are as many clubs in French schools as in English schools. 9. We are allowed to read as many story-books as during the holidays. 10. Can you swim as far as Jack?

194. Compare, using comparatives of equality. — 1. The Japanese, the Chinese; *small*. 2. My fur, your coat; *warm*. 3. His hat, his clothes; *old-fashioned*. 4. Dora, her mother; *fair*. 5. English 3rd class, French 2nd class; *comfortable*.

195. Complete, using the comparative a) of superiority, b) of inferiority. — 1. Betsy, her sister; *cheerful*. 2. French and Chinese; *easy*. 3. Girls, boys; *strong*. 4. Tom, his friend; *lonely*. 5. Frenchmen, Englishmen; *dark*.

196. Complete, using the superlative a) of superiority, b) of inferiority. — 1. Jane, the girls of the form; *hard-working*. 2. The youngest, all the new boys; *home-sick*. 3. Fanny, all the girls I know; *pretty*. — 4. Freddy, the family; *tall*. 5. The three languages, English, Chinese and Russian; *difficult*.

197. Complete with comparatives or superlatives. — 1. Chocolate is (*good*) than soup. 2. February is (*short*) month of the year. 3. Bob is (*old*) than Fanny. 4. A new boy is (*lonely*) than other boys.

5. Jim is (*bad*) boy at English in the form. 6. My chum sits (*near*) to me. 7. I have 4 boy cousins : the (*old*) is Fred; and 2 girl cousins : the (*old*) is Doris. 8. The elephant is (*big*) of all four-footed animals. 9. 4 is a (*bad*) mark than 5. 10. My right hand is the (*strong*).

198. Give the reverse or reverses of. — 1. A chair is higher than a table. 2. A stove is more convenient than central heating. 3. She is the most attentive girl in the form. 4. An unripe fruit is sweeter than a ripe fruit. 5. The rowing-club is more active in Winter. 6. Jack is the most painstaking boy of all. 7. A division is less difficult than an addition. 8. It is in France that wine is the most expensive. 9. My tasks are easier than in the 6th form. 10. Jimmy is the least tall of the family.

199. Explain. — 1. A long-lived animal. 2. A well-chosen example. 3. A comfortable-looking house. 4. Home-made jam. 5. A gorgeous-feathered bird.

200. Replace by compound adjectives. — 1. A man whose face is merry. 2. A beggar who has a plaintive voice. 3. Violets which smell sweet. 4. A horse whose limbs are strong. 5. A race of men who love peace.

▣ ▣ ▣ ▣ IV. LES NOMBRES ▣ ▣ ▣ ▣

28. Nombres cardinaux.

0 .. nought	10 .. ten		
1 .. one	11 .. eleven		21 .. twenty-one
2 .. two	12 .. twelve	20 .. twenty	22 .. twenty-two
3 .. three	13 .. thirteen	30 .. thirty	33 .. thirty-three
4 .. four	14 .. fourteen	40 .. forty	44 .. forty-four
5 .. five	15 .. fifteen	50 .. fifty	55 .. fifty-five
6 .. six	16 .. sixteen	60 .. sixty	67 .. sixty-seven
7 .. seven	17 .. seventeen	70 .. seventy	76 .. seventy-six
8 .. eight	18 .. eighteen	80 .. eighty	88 .. eighty-eight
9 .. nine	19 .. nineteen	90 .. ninety	99 .. ninety-nine
100 .. one hundred	159 .. one hundred and fifty-nine		
500 .. five hundred			
1 000 .. one thousand	1 291 .. one thousand, two hundred and ninety-one or :		
10 000 .. ten thousand	twelve hundred and ninety-one.		
1 000 000 .. one million	1 550 000 .. One million, five hundred and fifty thousand.		

REMARQUE : Les nombres sont toujours invariables.



# MACBETH

by William SHAKESPEARE

A Study of Ambition and Guilt

## I. THE PLOT

Macbeth and Banquo, generals of Duncan, king of Scotland, returning from a victorious campaign against rebels, encounter the three weird sisters, or witches, upon a heath, who prophesy that Macbeth shall be thane of Cawdor, and 'king hereafter,' and that Banquo shall 'beget kings though he be none.'  
 5 Immediately afterwards comes the news that the king has created Macbeth thane of Cawdor. Stimulated by the prophecy, and spurred on by Lady Macbeth, Macbeth murders Duncan, who is on a visit to his castle. Duncan's sons, Malcolm and Donalbain, escape, and Macbeth assumes the crown. To defeat the prophecy of the witches regarding Banquo, he contrives the murder of Banquo  
 10 and his son Fleance, but the latter escapes. Haunted by the ghost of Banquo, Macbeth consults the weird sisters, and is told to beware of Macduff, the thane of Fife; and that he never will be vanquished till Birnam Wood comes to Dunsinane. Learning that Macduff has joined Malcolm, who is gathering an army in England, he surprises the castle of Macduff and causes Lady Macduff and her  
 15 children to be slaughtered. Lady Macbeth loses her reason and dies. The army of Malcolm and Macduff attacks Macbeth; passing through Birnam Wood every man cuts a bough and under this 'leavy screen' marches on Dunsinane. Macduff kills Macbeth. Malcolm is hailed king of Scotland.

*The Oxford Companion to English Literature.*

▲ mək'beθ — 'ʃeɪkspɪə — 'bæŋkwə — 'dʌŋkən — 'kɔ:də — 'mælkəm — 'dɒnlbeɪn — 'flɪ:əns — mək'dʌf — 'bɔ:nəm — ,dʌnsi'neɪn.





*'Is this a dagger which I see before me?'*

## II. THREE SCENES FROM THE PLAY

### <sup>^</sup>MACBETH MEDITATES ON THE MURDER OF <sup>^</sup>DUNCAN

Is this a dagger<sup>^</sup> which I see before me,  
 The handle toward my hand? Come, let me clutch<sup>^</sup> thee:  
 I have thee not, and yet I see thee still.  
 Art thou not, <sup>^</sup>fatal vision, sensible  
 To feeling as to<sup>^</sup> sight? or art thou but<sup>^</sup> 5  
 A dagger of the mind, a false creation,  
 Proceeding from the heat-<sup>^</sup>oppressed brain?  
 I see thee yet<sup>^</sup>, in form as <sup>^</sup>palpable  
 As this which I now draw.  
 Thou <sup>^</sup>marshall'<sup>st</sup><sup>^</sup> me the way that I was going; 10  
 And such an instrument I was to<sup>^</sup> use.\*  
 Mine<sup>^</sup> eyes are made the fools<sup>^</sup> o'<sup>^</sup> the other senses;  
 Or else worth all the rest: I see thee still;  
 And on thy blade<sup>^</sup> and <sup>^</sup>dudgeon<sup>^</sup> <sup>^</sup>gouts<sup>^</sup> of blood,  
 Which was not so before. There's no such thing: 15  
 It is the bloody <sup>^</sup>business which informs<sup>^</sup>  
 Thus<sup>^</sup> to mine eyes . . . . . (*A bell rings.*)  
 I go, and it is done; the bell invites me.  
 Hear it not, Duncan; for it is a <sup>^</sup>knell<sup>^</sup>  
 That <sup>^</sup>summons<sup>^</sup> thee to heaven or to hell. 20

(*Act II, Scene 1.*)

▲ mæk'beθ — 'dʌŋkən — 'feitl — (*here*) ə'presid — 'pælpəbl — 'mɑ:fəlst — 'dʌdʒən —  
 gauts — 'biznis — nel — 'sʌmənz.



*'Why did you bring these daggers from the place?'*

### THE MURDER HAS BEEN COMMITTED

- LADY MACBETH :                   Go get<sup>♦</sup> some water,  
 And wash this filthy<sup>♦</sup> witness<sup>♦</sup> from your hand.  
 Why did you bring these daggers from the place?  
 They must lie there: go carry<sup>♦</sup> them, and <sup>^</sup>smear<sup>♦</sup>  
 5   The sleepy<sup>♦</sup> grooms<sup>♦</sup> with blood.
- MACBETH.                           I'll go no more:  
 I am afraid to think what I have done.  
 Look on 't<sup>♦</sup> again I dare not.
- LADY MACBETH.                   Infirm<sup>♦</sup> of <sup>^</sup>purpose<sup>♦</sup>!  
 10   Give me the daggers. The sleeping and the dead  
 Are but<sup>♦</sup> as<sup>♦</sup> pictures; 'tis<sup>♦</sup> the eye of childhood  
 That fears<sup>♦</sup> a painted devil. If he do bleed<sup>♦</sup>,  
 I'll gild<sup>♦</sup> the faces of the grooms <sup>^</sup>withal<sup>♦</sup>;  
 For it must seem their guilt. (*Exit*)
- 15 MACBETH : What hands are here! Ha! they pluck out<sup>♦</sup> mine eyes.  
 Will all great <sup>^</sup>Neptune's <sup>^</sup>ocean wash this blood  
 Clean from my hand? No, this my hand<sup>♦</sup> will rather  
 The <sup>^</sup>multitudinous seas <sup>^</sup>incarnadine<sup>♦</sup>,  
 Making the green one red.
- 20                                       (*Re-enter Lady Macbeth*)  
 LADY MACBETH : My hands are of your colour, but I shame<sup>♦</sup>  
 To wear a heart so white. (*Knocking within.*) I hear a knocking  
 At the south entry<sup>♦</sup>; retire we<sup>♦</sup> to our <sup>^</sup>chamber;  
 A little water clears<sup>♦</sup> us of this deed<sup>♦</sup>.

(*Act II, Scene 2.*)

▲ smiə — 'pə:pəs — wi'ðɔ:l — 'neptju:n — ,mɒlti'tju:dinəs — in'kɑ:nədaɪn — 'tʃeɪmbə.



## LADY MACBETH WALKS IN HER SLEEP

*Enter Lady Macbeth, with a ^taper^.*

GENTLEWOMAN<sup>+</sup>: Lo you<sup>+</sup>! here she comes. This is her very ^guise<sup>+</sup>; and, upon my life<sup>+</sup>, fast asleep. Observe her; stand <sup>5</sup> close<sup>+</sup>.

DOCTOR: How came she<sup>+</sup> by that light?

GENTLEWOMAN: Why, it stood by her<sup>+</sup>; she has a light by her <sup>10</sup> continually; 'tis her command.

DOCTOR: You see, her eyes are open.

GENTLEWOMAN: Ay<sup>+</sup>, but their sense is shut<sup>+</sup>. <sup>15</sup>

DOCTOR: What is it she does now? Look, how she rubs her hands.

GENTLEWOMAN: It is an ^accus-  
tomed action with her, to  
seem thus washing her hands. <sup>20</sup>  
I have known her to continue  
in this a quarter of an hour.

LADY MACBETH: Yet here's a spot.

DOCTOR: Hark<sup>+</sup>! She speaks. I

*'Here's the smell of the blood still: all the  
perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little  
hand.'*

will set down<sup>+</sup> what comes from her, to satisfy my remembrance<sup>+</sup> the <sup>25</sup>  
more strongly.

LADY MACBETH: Out<sup>+</sup>, damned spot! out, I say! One; two; why, then, 'tis  
time to do't. Hell is murky<sup>+</sup>! ^Fie<sup>+</sup>, my lord, fie! a soldier, and ^afear'd<sup>+</sup>?  
What need we fear who knows it, when none can call our power to account<sup>+</sup>?  
Yet who would have thought the old man to have had so much blood <sup>30</sup>  
in him?

DOCTOR: Do you mark that?

LADY MACBETH: The Thane of Fife<sup>+</sup> had a wife: where is she now? What!  
will these hands ne'er<sup>+</sup> be clean? No more o'<sup>+</sup> that, my lord, no more  
o' that: you mar<sup>+</sup> all with this starting<sup>+</sup>. <sup>35</sup>

DOCTOR: Go to<sup>+</sup>, go to; you have known what you should not.

GENTLEWOMAN: She has spoke<sup>+</sup> what she should not, I am sure of that. Heaven  
knows what she has known.

LADY MACBETH: Here's the smell of blood still: all the ^perfumes of ^Arabia<sup>+</sup>  
will not sweeten<sup>+</sup> this little hand. Oh! oh! oh! <sup>40</sup>

DOCTOR: What a sigh<sup>+</sup> is there! The heart is sorely<sup>+</sup> charged<sup>+</sup>. This ^disease<sup>+</sup>  
is beyond my practice<sup>+</sup>; yet I have known those which have walked in their  
sleep who have died ^holily<sup>+</sup> in their beds.

▲ 'teipə — gaiz — ə'kʌstəmd — fai — ə'fiəd — 'pə:fju:mz — ə'reibjə — di'zi:z — 'houlili.

LADY MACBETH: Wash your hands, put on your nightgown<sup>+</sup>; look not<sup>+</sup> so pale.  
 I tell you again, <sup>^</sup>Banquo's <sup>^</sup>buried<sup>+</sup>; he cannot come out on's grave<sup>+</sup>.

<sup>45</sup> DOCTOR: Even so?

LADY MACBETH. To bed, to bed: there's knocking at the gate. Come, come,  
 come, come give me your hand. What's done cannot be undone. To  
 bed, to bed, to bed. (*Exit*)

<sup>50</sup> DOCTOR: Will she go now to bed?

GENTLEWOMAN: Directly.

DOCTOR: <sup>^</sup>Foul<sup>+</sup> whisperings<sup>+</sup> are abroad<sup>+</sup>. Unnatural deeds  
 Do breed<sup>+</sup> unnatural <sup>^</sup>troubles; infected minds  
 To their deaf pillows will discharge<sup>+</sup> their secrets;  
<sup>55</sup> More needs she the <sup>^</sup>divine<sup>+</sup> than the physician<sup>+</sup>.  
 God, God forgive us all!

(*Act V, Scene I.*)

▲ 'bæŋkwou — 'berid — faul — 'trʌblz — di'vain.



*'Not so sick, my lord,  
 As she is troubled with thick-coming fancies,  
 That keep her from her rest.'* (Act. V, Sc. 3, l. 37).

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## MACBETH

● **William SHAKESPEARE** (1564-1616). *The greatest English dramatist and poet, who was born and educated in the heart of England, at Stratford-on-Avon in Warwickshire. In 1586, he went to London, where he became an actor. About 1591, he began writing plays. He gave up acting about 1603, and in 1610 returned to Stratford, where he died in 1616.*

*His work falls into four main groups :*

1. The historical plays, written to glorify the English monarchy, and which include Henry IV, Henry V, Richard II and Richard III.

2. The comedies and romances, which include *The Comedy of Errors*, *Love's Labour's Lost*, *A Midsummer-Night's Dream*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *As You Like It*, *Much Ado About Nothing*, and *Twelfth Night*.

3. The great tragedies—*Romeo and Juliet*, *Julius Cæsar*, *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear* and *Macbeth*.

4. Poems, of which the *Sonnets* (a sequence of 154 poems) are the most famous and beautiful.

*Shakespeare's greatness lies in his profound understanding of human nature, his gifts of language, poetry and imagery, and his mastery, both literary and technical, of the drama.*



▲ 'strætʃəd ən'eivən — 'wɔːrɪkʃə — 'rɪtʃəd  
— 'venɪs — ə'duː — 'roumiou ən 'dʒuːliət  
— 'dʒuːliəs 'siːzə — ou'θelou.

## MACBETH

### THE PLOT

**weird** : strange, mysterious.

**weird sisters** : witches (*sorcières*).

**heath** : a bare stretch of land.

**thane** : a Scottish lord.

**Cawdor** : a place in the county of Nairn (næən), in the north of Scotland, and not far from Inverness (,invə'nes), where Macbeth's castle was situated.

**hereafter** : in the future.

**to beget** : to be the father of.

**be** : obsolete subjunctive after 'though'; *mod. Eng.* is.

**to spur on** : to encourage.

**to contrive** : to succeed in arranging.

**ghost** : spectre.

**to beware** : to guard against. *Note* : this verb is used only in the imperative, the infinitive, and after verbs such as *must*, *should*, *will*, etc. e. g. Beware of the dog. You must beware of imitations.

**Birnam** : a hill near Dunkeld (dʌn'keld), in Perthshire ('pɜːθʃə).

**Dunsinane** : a place 12 miles from Birnam.

**to slaughter** : to kill.

**leavy** (*archaic*) : leafy, with many leaves.

**screen** : écran.

**to hail** : to acclaim.

## MACBETH MEDITATES ON THE MURDER OF DUNCAN

Archaic forms of the 2nd person singular.

thou art, thou hast, thou workest = you are, you have, you work.

I see thee = I see you.

thy cheeks are red = your cheeks are red.

thine eyes are blue = your eyes are blue.

these flowers are thine = these flowers are yours.

**dagger**: a short, pointed knife, used as an instrument of attack.

**to clutch**: to hold tightly.

**as to**: as well as to.

**but**: only.

**yet**: still.

**to marshal**: to conduct, to lead.

**I was to**: I was going to.

**mine** (*adj.*): archaic form of *my*, used before a vowel.

**to make a fool of**: *tromper*.

**o'**: of.

**blade**: the part of a knife that cuts.

**dudgeon** (*archaic*): the handle of a dagger.

**gout** (*archaic*): drop.

**to inform**: (*here, archaic*) to take shape or form.

**thus**: in this way.

**knell**: the sound of a bell rung at death or at a funeral.

**to summon**: to call.

**Questions on the text** 1. What does Macbeth see in the air before him?—2. How does he try to find out whether the dagger is real or not?—3. What does he see on the blade?—4. What inspires him to take action?—5. What does Macbeth decide to do?

**Points for discussion** 1. What does the dagger symbolize here?—2. Why do you think that Shakespeare often writes soliloquies in his tragedies?—3. What does this soliloquy reveal about Macbeth's character?—4. What feelings are contending with each other in Macbeth's soul?—5. What makes this short scene very dramatic (staging—acting—style, etc.)?

**Translate into English** Que vois-je devant moi? N'est-ce pas la lame d'un poignard qui brille dans l'ombre? Non, c'est impossible. Comment pourrait-il être là, suspendu devant mes yeux? Ce poignard n'existe que dans mon imagination. Est-ce la peur, ou est-ce déjà le remords qui trouble mes sens? Ah, je voudrais pouvoir fermer les yeux et m'endormir à jamais.

**Grammaire** La forme interrogative; la forme interrogative-négative, n<sup>os</sup> 1, 4, 7.

## THE MURDER HAS BEEN COMMITTED

**go get**: (*archaic*) go and get.

**filthy**: disgustingly dirty.

**witness**: evidence.

**go carry them** (*archaic*): take them away.

**to smear with**: to cover with.

**sleepy**: sleeping.

**groom**: manservant.

**on't**: on it.

**infirm**: feeble.

**purpose**: object, intention.

**but**: only.

**as**: like.

**'tis**: it is.

**to fear**: to be afraid of.

**if he do bleed**: if he bleeds. *do* is used here

as an intensifying auxiliary, in the subjunctive formerly used after *if*.

**to gild**: to cover with gold; *here*, to smear with blood. Shakespeare often spoke of 'golden blood'. Note the play on words: *gilt* = archaic past participle of *to gild*; *guilt* = culpability.

**withal**: with it.

**to pluck out**: to pull out, to tear out.

**this my hand** (*poetic*): this hand of mine.

**to incarnadine** (*archaic*): to make red.

**I shame** (*archaic*): I am ashamed = *j'ai honte*.

**entry**: entrance.

**retire we** (*poetic*): let us retire.

**to clear**: to make innocent.

**deed**: action.

## **Appendix VI**

### **Types of Language Activities in *Success With English***

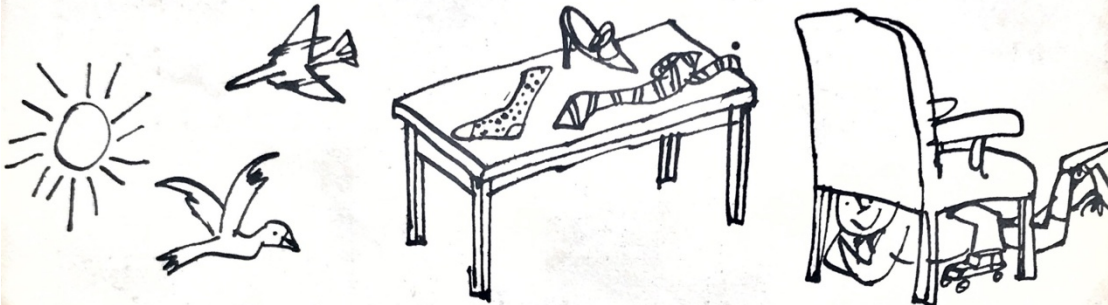
✓ It's on the table

Here is a picture. What is in the picture?  
 A girl and a man, a car and a bird.  
 Where is the girl? She is in the car.  
 Where is the bird? It is on the car.  
 Where is the man? He is under the car.



Exercise 1

Where are they? Say: The — is — the — .



1

2

3

— in the sky

— on the table

— under the chair

Say:	Is the	bird	on the table?
		sun	under the table?
		aeroplane	on the chair?

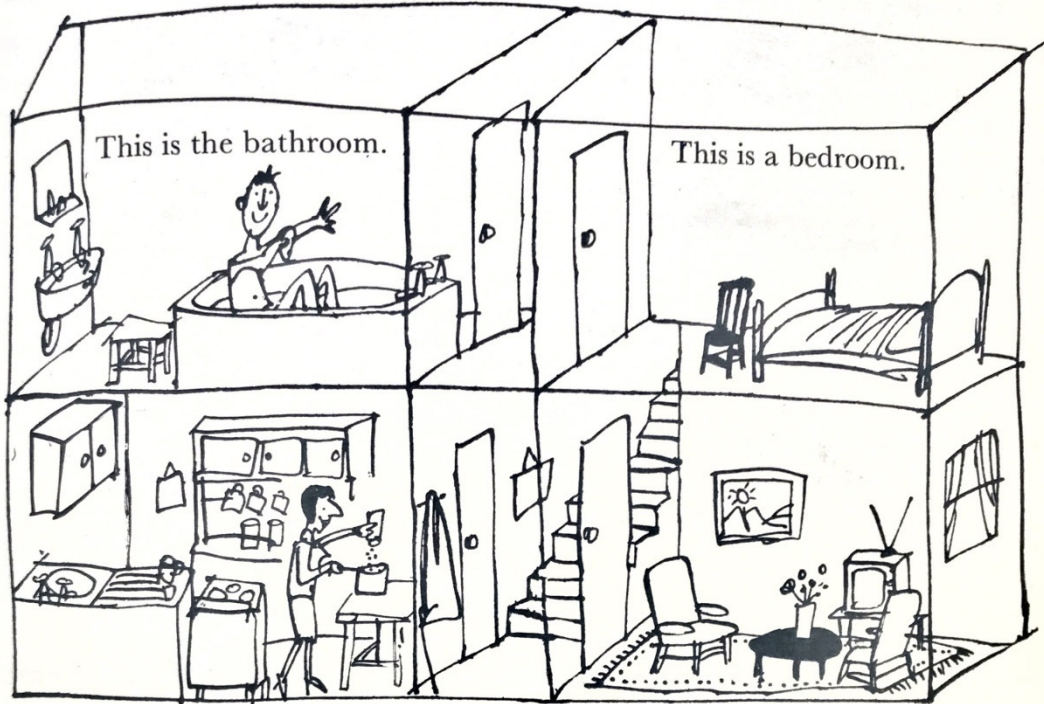
No, it isn't. Where is it?

Is the	shoe	under the table?
	tie	on the chair?
	sock	in the sky?
	car	

No, it isn't. Where is it?



Here is a house.



This is the bathroom.

This is a bedroom.

This is the kitchen.

This is the hall.

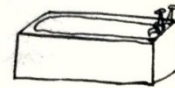
This is the living-room.

*Exercise 2*

Where is the bed?



Where is the bath?



Where is the television?



Where is the carpet?



Where are the stairs?



Where is the cupboard?



Where is the picture? Where is the table?  
Who is in the bath? Who is in the kitchen?

**It's there**

My new shoes are here.  
My old shoes are there.



Where's Jillian?  
She isn't here. She's there.



I'm here.

*Exercise 3*

Look at the pictures in Exercise 1 on page 26.

Say: Where's the sun? Answer: It's here, in the sky.

Now say: Where's the

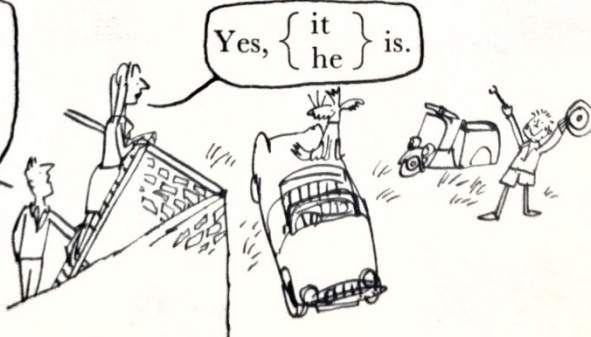
- aeroplane?
- bird?
- sock?
- shoe?
- tie?
- car?

Answer: It's here, { in  
on  
under } —

*Exercise 4*

Look at this picture. Ask Martin's questions. Give Jillian's answers.

Is { Sandy  
the dog  
my car  
your scooter  
that bad boy } there?



Yes, { it  
he } is.

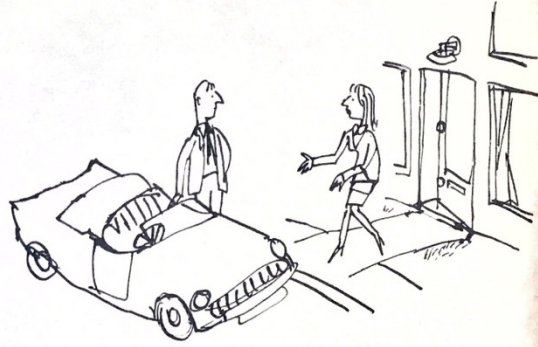
*Exercise 5*

Look at the pictures in Exercise 1 and say: Here's the sun in the sky, etc.

## Where are the gloves?

JILLIAN Oh, Martin, where are my gloves? They aren't here.

MARTIN Perhaps they are in your house. Are they in the living-room? Or are they in your bedroom?



JILLIAN No, they aren't in my bedroom and they aren't in the bathroom. Are they there?

MARTIN No, they aren't here. They aren't in the living-room and they aren't in the hall.

JILLIAN Are they under the table?

MARTIN No, they aren't there and they aren't on the table. Oh, here's a glove under the chair in the hall. It's black.

JILLIAN No, that isn't my glove. My gloves are white. Oh, Martin, perhaps they are in your house.

MARTIN Yes, perhaps they're in our hall.



JILLIAN Or are they here, in the car? Are they on your seat? Or under your seat?

MARTIN No, they aren't there. And they aren't under your seat. Oh, there is my house.

JILLIAN Are my gloves in the house? No, they aren't on the table or under it. They aren't in this drawer. They aren't

on the stairs. Are they there, in the living-room? Are they on a chair? Or under the carpet?

MARTIN Oh, you're very silly, Jill. No, they aren't here. But are they in your handbag?

JILLIAN No, they aren't there.

MARTIN Are you sure?

JILLIAN Yes . . . oh, Martin, they are here. Yes, these are my gloves. They're in my handbag. Martin, I'm very sorry.



### New words

a glove, perhaps, or, black, white, a seat, a drawer, silly, a handbag, sure, sorry.

### Exercise 6

Look at the house on page 27.

The house is new.  
The bath is white.  
The picture is old.  
The cupboard is white.

The carpet is old.  
The table is black.  
The television is new.  
The chair is black.

Say: It's a new house, etc.

Say to a friend: Is the { house  
television } old? Is the { carpet  
picture } new?

Is the { bath  
cupboard } black? Is the { chair  
table } white?

Answer: No, it isn't.

# 4

## Exercise 7

Look at the house on page 27.

Say: Where	is	the living-room?	the stairs?	the television?
	are	the bathroom?	the bath?	the carpet?
		the bedroom?	the table?	the cupboard?
		the kitchen?	the chairs?	the picture?

Answer:	It's	here	in the house.
	They are		in the bathroom. etc.

## Exercise 8

Look at this picture, then write the correct sentences.



Here is	a	boy.	He	is	in his bedroom.
	the		She	are	in his bathroom.

His	black sock	is	under	his	bed.	He	is	in	the carpet.
	white shoe	are	in	her		It	is	on	

There are no birds



Look at this picture.

Are there any birds in the sky? There aren't any birds in the sky.

There are no birds in the sky.

Are there any cars on the road? There aren't any cars on the road.

There are no cars on the road.

### Exercise 1

Look at the five pictures on page 50.

Answer: There are some — but there are no — .

In the first picture are there any bottles or boxes?

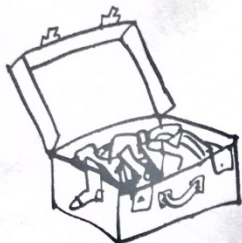
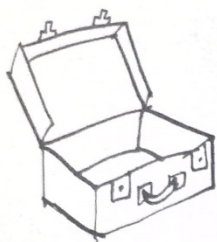
In the second picture are there any spiders or butterflies? Are there any eyes or mouths, any legs or feet?

In the third picture are there any sun-glasses or binoculars? Are there any handbags or cases?

In the fourth picture are there any planes or birds? Are there any wings or tails?

In the fifth picture are there any girls or boys? Are there any seats or chairs?

## Is there anything?



Look at these two cases.  
Is there anything in them?  
There isn't anything in the first case.  
There is nothing in the first case.  
There is something in the second case.

Look at these two bicycles.  
Is there anybody on them?  
There isn't anybody on the first bicycle.  
There is nobody on the first bicycle.  
There is somebody on the second bicycle.

### Exercise 2

Look at the five pictures in Exercise 1 on page 57. Answer:

Yes, there's  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{somebody} \\ \text{something} \end{array} \right\}$  there. or No, there's  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{nobody} \\ \text{nothing} \end{array} \right\}$  there.

In the first picture is there anybody on the chair? Is there anybody behind him?  
Is there anything on his head? Is there anything in his hands?  
In the second picture is there anybody near the door? Is there anything on the wall? Is there anybody with her? Is there anything in her hand?  
In the third picture is there anybody on the scooter? Is there anybody in the shop? Is there anything in the shop window? Is there anything on Jill's head?  
In the fourth picture is there anybody in the bus? Is there anybody in the street? Is there anything on the notice? Is there anything in the sky?  
In the fifth picture is there anybody on the stairs? Is anything under his arm?  
Is anybody with him? Is anything on his head?

### Exercise 3

Look at the big picture on page 149. How many true sentences can you make?

There's	somebody	in the sky. -	in the car park.
	something	in the hotel. +	- in the plane.
There isn't	nobody	on the tennis court.	in the car.
	nothing	under the trees.	on the road.
	anybody	on the mountains.	near the car.
	anything		

### Is there a car anywhere?

Look again at the big picture on page 149. Is there a car anywhere in the picture? Yes, there is a car somewhere in the picture. It's in the car park. Is there a bus anywhere in the picture? No, there isn't a bus anywhere in this picture. There is a bus somewhere in this book, but it is nowhere on this page.

#### Exercise 4

Practise with somebody.

Ask: Is there a { road ball camera } anywhere in the picture?  
                   { car park table horse }  
                   { train bird }

Answer: Yes, there is. *or* No, there isn't.

Ask: Are there any { mountains thieves } anywhere in the picture?  
                   { children people }  
                   { clothes }

Answer: Yes, there are. *or* No, there aren't.

Say: There's a { bat seat } somewhere in the picture. Where is it?  
                   { ladder dog }  
                   { plane machine }

Answer: It's here, look.

Say: There are some { trees windows } somewhere in the picture.  
                   { tennis players wings }  
                   { chairs doors }

Where are they?

Answer: They're here, look.

Ask: Is there a { carpet } in this book?  
                   { key police station }  
                   { telephone clock }

Answer: Yes, there's a — somewhere in this book, but it's nowhere on this page.



## In the mountains

Jillian and Martin are in the mountains. It is half past two on Saturday afternoon and Martin is looking for Jillian.

The hotel manager says, "Is there anything you want, Mr Fry? Or are you looking for anybody?"

"Well, yes," says Martin, "I'm looking for my friend, Miss Grey, Jillian Grey. She's nowhere in the hotel."

"Oh, dear," says the manager. "Listen, you look again in the television room and the restaurant. I'm going to look in the garden."

There is somebody in the restaurant, but it isn't Jillian and there is nobody in the television room. She is nowhere in the hotel. There are some people playing tennis on the tennis court, but Jillian isn't there and there is nobody in the garden. She is nowhere outside. Now the telephone bell rings.



"Hello," the manager says. "Oh, yes, wait a minute, please. It's somebody for you, Mr Fry." It's Jillian. She is on a mountain near the hotel. The hotel has a little climbing hut with an old telephone near the top of the mountain. Jillian is there now, she is speaking to the hotel. But the telephone line is bad and it is difficult to understand anybody from the hut.

"It's Jillian," Martin says to the manager. "She's at the climbing hut. She says something about her boot. Oh, I think her leg is broken."

"Listen," says the manager, "tell her to stay there. Is anybody with her? No? Tell her to do nothing. Tell her to stay there safe. We are going to send somebody to her. Tell her that and then give me the telephone."

"Listen, Jill," Martin says, "don't do anything, don't go anywhere. Stay there, somebody is coming. Good-bye." But Jillian says nothing to Martin. The old telephone line to the hut is broken.

Near the hotel there is a helicopter station. The helicopter pilots sometimes come to the hotel and have a drink with the manager. They are his friends. They often help when a climber is in trouble somewhere on the mountains. Now it is ten minutes to three and the hotel manager is speaking to a helicopter pilot.

"Miss Grey is in the climbing hut," he says. "Nobody is with her and she has a broken leg."

"Very well," says the pilot, "it's easy to fly to the hut. Don't do anything. We are doing everything. We are going to bring her down in the helicopter. Tell everybody in the hotel to go away from your tennis court."



Now the time is three o'clock. Martin and the hotel manager are in the hotel garden. Martin is looking for a helicopter in the sky and the manager is watching the climbing hut through a pair of binoculars.

"There's the helicopter," Martin says, "it's flying to the hut."

"Yes," says the manager, "and there's somebody at the hut window. Yes, it's your friend. Now the pilot is going to come down somewhere near the hut."

"Oh, yes," says Martin, "the helicopter's coming down now and somebody's getting out. But what's happening now?"

"I'm not sure," the manager says, "because the hut door is behind the helicopter. Oh, yes. Now three people are getting into the machine."

Everybody is in it now and there isn't anybody in the hut."

"And now the helicopter's flying again," Martin says.

The time is a quarter past three. Everybody in the hotel is looking at the tennis court. The helicopter is standing there, and Jillian is getting out with two men. They are laughing.

"But she's walking," Martin says to the manager. "Jill, your leg isn't broken."

"No," she says. "It isn't my leg. It's my lace, my bootlace. Look, my bootlace is broken."

"Oh," Martin says, with his eyes shut, "why does everything happen to you, Jill? And who is going to pay for a new telephone?"

"And who," asks the pilot, "is going to pay for my petrol?"

"Oh, don't look for trouble," the manager says. "Does anybody want a drink? I'm sure everybody's thirsty."



**New words**

a manager, a garden, a tennis court, outside, a hut, the top, to understand, broken, a helicopter, a pilot, a drink, to help, trouble, everything, everybody, to happen, a lace, to pay, petrol.

*Exercise 5*

Look at the five pictures in Exercise 3 on page 39. How many true sentences can you make? Write five.

Everything	in picture	one	is made of	glass.
Something		two		plastic.
Nothing		three		wood.
		four		metal.
		five		wool.

*Exercise 6*

Look at your friends. How many true sentences can you make?

Everybody	in this room has two	eyes.	feet.
Somebody		heads.	bicycles.
Nobody		books.	shoelaces.
		legs.	English names.

*Exercise 7*

What do you think?

Is it easy or difficult { to climb a mountain?  
to write a book?  
to ride a horse?  
to tell the time?  
to speak English?

Answer: It's easy.  
or It's difficult.

Is it cheap or expensive { to buy a car?  
to fly in a plane?  
to stay in a hotel?  
to play tennis?  
to go to the cinema?

Answer: It's cheap.  
or It's expensive.

Now answer again. This time say: Climbing a mountain is easy, etc.

*Exercise 8*

Practise with somebody. Is there a — anywhere near here?

Ask for: a hospital, a bus station, an airport, a restaurant, a railway station, a doctor's, a telephone box, a clock, a lavatory, a good hotel.

Answer: It's somewhere near — . or It's nowhere near here. or I'm sorry, I'm not sure.

*Exercise 9*

Ask everybody.

Is anybody going to	go to England	this year?
	watch television	tomorrow?
	watch football	next year?
	do some packing	this week?
	help somebody in trouble	next week?
	bring me a present	this evening?

*Exercise 10*

Practise with somebody. (You are in a street.)

A Excuse me, but have you a sixpence for the telephone?

B	Yes, here it is. Are you going to	ask for a taxi? speak to your girl friend? telephone somebody in England?
---	-----------------------------------	---

A	No. Somebody	at the end of the street in that house behind this shop at the petrol station	is in trouble.
---	--------------	--	----------------

I want to tell	my father. my uncle. his friend. his family.
----------------	---

B	I am a	nurse. doctor. doctor's assistant.	Take me with you	to the end of the street. into the house. behind the shop. to the petrol station.
---	--------	--	------------------	--

A	You don't understand.
---	-----------------------

The trouble is a broken	window tree clock	and I want	some new glass. a ladder. some new hands.
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## Appendix VII

### Types of Language Activities in *Practice and Progress*

### 3 Please Send Me a Card

Postcards always spoil my holidays. Last summer, I went to Italy. I visited museums and sat in public gardens. A friendly waiter taught me a few words of Italian. Then he lent me a book. I read a few lines, but I did not understand a word. Every day I thought about postcards. My holidays passed quickly, but I did not send any cards to my friends. On the last day I made a big decision. I got up early and bought thirty-seven cards. I spent the whole day in my room, but I did not write a single card!



#### Comprehension Précis and Composition

Answer these questions *in not more than 50 words*.

1. Do postcards always spoil the writer's holidays or not?
2. Where did he spend his holidays last summer?
3. What did he think about every day?
4. Did he send any cards to his friends or not?
5. How many cards did he buy on the last day?
6. Where did he stay all day?
7. Did he write any cards or not?

#### Key Structures

What happened?

Read this short conversation. Pay close attention to the verbs in italics. Each of these verbs tells us *what happened*.

POLICEMAN: Did you see the accident, sir?

MAN: Yes, I did. The driver of that car *hit* that post over there.

POLICEMAN: What happened?

MAN: A dog *ran* across the road and the driver *tried to avoid* it. The car suddenly *came* towards me. It *climbed* on to the pavement and *crashed* into that post.

POLICEMAN: What did you do?

MAN: I *ran* across the street after the dog.

POLICEMAN: Why did you do that? Were you afraid of the car?

MAN: I wasn't afraid of the car. I was afraid of the driver. The driver *got out* of the car and *began shouting* at me. He was very angry with me. You see, it was my dog.

#### Exercises

A. Look at the passage 'Please Send Me A Card'. Put a line under all the verbs which tell us what happened to the writer when he was on holiday in Italy.

B. Give the correct form of all the verbs in brackets. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise:

Last summer, I (go) to Italy. I (visit) museums and (sit) in public gardens. A friendly waiter (teach) me a few words of Italian. Then he (lend) me a book. I (read) a few lines, but I (not understand) a word. Every day I (think) about postcards. My holidays (pass) quickly, but I (not send) any cards to my friends. On the last day, I (make) a big decision. I (get) up early and (buy) thirty-seven cards. I (spend) the whole day in my room, but I (not write) a single card!

C. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets in the passage below. Each verb must tell us *what happened*:

My friend, Roy, (die) last year. He (leave) me his record player and his collection of gramophone records. Roy (spend) a lot of money on records. He (buy) one or two new records every week. He never (go) to the cinema or to the theatre. He (stay) at home every evening and (listen) to music. He often (lend) records to his friends. Sometimes they (keep) them. He (lose) many records in this way.

### Special Difficulties

He lent me a book. (l. 5)

*Instead of saying:*

He lent me a book.

He sent me a card.

He passed me the salt.

She bought me a tie.

She made me a cake.

*We can say:*

He lent a book to me.

He sent a card to me.

He passed the salt to me.

She bought a tie for me.

She made a cake for me.

### Exercise

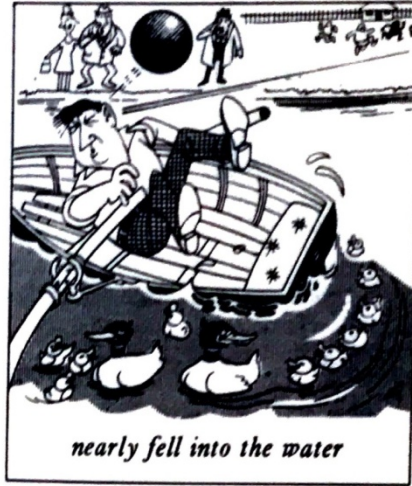
Write each of the following sentences in a different way:

1. He paid the shop-keeper some money.
2. He handed me the prize.
3. The waiter brought a bottle of beer to the man.
4. He sold all his books to me.
5. The shop-assistant chose some curtain material for me.
6. He did me a big favour.
7. She showed her husband her new hat.
8. She promised a reward to the finder.
9. He gave his son some advice.
10. His uncle left him some money.
11. He is teaching English to us.
12. I bought this bunch of flowers for you.
13. Bring that book to me please.
14. He offered me a cigarette.
15. Read me the first paragraph.
16. I've ordered some soup for you.
17. I owe him a lot of money.
18. Pass the mustard to your father.



## 30 Football or Polo?

- The Wayle is a small river that cuts across the park near my home. I like sitting by the Wayle on fine afternoons. It was warm last Sunday, so I went and sat on the river bank as usual. Some children were playing games on the bank and there were some people rowing on the river. Suddenly, one of the children kicked a ball very hard and it went towards a passing boat. Some people on the bank called out to the man in the boat, but he did not hear them. The ball struck him so hard that he nearly fell into the water. I turned to look at the children, but there weren't any in sight: they had all run away! The man laughed when he realized what had happened. He called out to the children and threw the ball back to the bank.



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions *in not more than 70 words*.

1. Did the writer sit by the river last Sunday or not?
2. Were some children playing games nearby or not?
3. Who kicked a ball hard? Where did it go? (*and*)
4. Did the man in the boat see the ball? Did he hear people shouting? (*neither . . . nor*)
5. Did the ball hit the man or not? What did the children do? (*and*)
6. Was the man angry or not? Where did he throw the ball? (*However, . . . and*)

### Composition

Rewrite these sentences using the correct verbs and joining words:

The wind (threw) (blew) his hat into the river. He (put) (took) out his hand (and) (but) tried to (reach) (catch) it (so) (but) he could not (so) (but) he (jumped) (fell) into the river (and) (but) got it.

### Letter-writing

Arrange the following heading in the correct order:

Middlesex, England, 10th September, 19—, 19 High Lane, Newton.

### Key Structures

A, The, Some and Any (KS 23)

a *Some and Any* (Compare SD 30)

Note the use of *some* and *any* in these sentences:

Is there any milk in the bottle?

There isn't any milk in the bottle, but there is some in this jug.

Is there any soap in the bathroom?

There isn't any soap in the bathroom, but there's some in the cupboard.

Are there any nails in that tin?

There aren't any in the tin, but there are some in this box.

*b Names*

We cannot put *a* or *the* in front of names. (KS 23c)

John lives in England. He has a house in London.

But we must put *the* in front of the names of oceans, seas, rivers, mountain ranges and certain countries:

Who was the first person to sail across *the* Pacific?

It can get very rough in *the* Mediterranean.

Many great cities are built on rivers. Paris is on *the* Seine, London is on *the* Thames and Rome is on *the* Tiber.

I know a man who has been on climbing expeditions in many parts of the world. He has climbed in *the* Alps, *the* Himalayas, and *the* Rocky Mountains.

*Instead of saying:*

I went to America last year.

*We can say:*

I went to *the* United States of America last year

Would you like to live in Russia?

Would you like to live in *the* Soviet Union?

*Exercises*

A. Underline the words *a*, *the*, *some* and *any* in the passage.

B. Put in the words *a*, *the*, *some* and *any* where necessary. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise.

... Wayle is ... small river that cuts across ... park near my home. I like sitting by ... Wayle on fine afternoons. It was warm last Sunday, so I went and sat on ... river bank as usual. ... children were playing ... games on ... bank and there were ... people rowing on ... river. Suddenly, one of ... children kicked ... ball very hard and it went towards ... passing boat. ... people on ... bank called out to ... man in ... boat, but he did not hear them. ... ball struck him so hard that he nearly fell into ... water. I turned to look at ... children, but there weren't ... in sight.

C. Answer these questions in two ways using *some* and *any*:

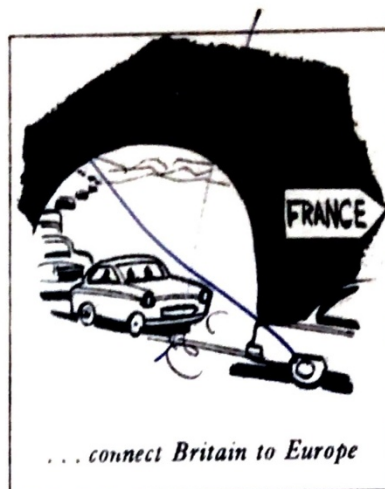
1. Did you take any photographs? Yes, ... No, ...
2. Did you buy any bread? Yes, ... No, ...
3. Did you see any people outside the cinema? Yes, ... No, ...

D. Put in *a* or *the* where necessary:

1. ... refrigerators are necessary in ... hot countries.
2. Which river is ... longest, ... Nile, ... Amazon, or ... Mississippi?
3. Heyerdahl crossed ... Pacific on ... raft.
4. Why is ... Britain sometimes called ... United Kingdom?
5. We sailed up ... Red Sea and then went through ... Suez Canal.

## 64 The Channel Tunnel

- In 1858, a French engineer, Aimé Thomé de Gamond, arrived in England with a plan for a twenty-one mile tunnel across the English Channel. He said that it would be possible to build a platform in the centre of the Channel. This platform would serve as a port and a railway station. The tunnel would be well-ventilated if tall chimneys were built above sea-level.
- In 1860, a better plan was put forward by an Englishman, William Low. He suggested that a double railway tunnel should be built. This would solve the problem of ventilation, for if a train entered this tunnel, it would draw in fresh air behind it. Forty-two years later a tunnel was actually begun. If, at the time, the British had not feared invasion, it would have been completed. Recently, there has again been great interest in the idea of a Channel Tunnel. If it is built, it will connect Britain to Europe for the first time in history.



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions *in not more than 85 words*.

1. Who planned to build a tunnel across the English Channel in 1858? How would it be ventilated? (*The tunnel, which . . .*)
2. Who suggested a better plan two years later?
3. How would passing trains solve the problem of ventilation in his proposed double railway tunnel? (*because they would*)
4. Did work begin forty-two years later or not? Why was it stopped? (*Though . . . because*)
5. Has there been renewed interest in the idea lately or not? (*However*)

### Composition

Rewrite the following sentences using the joining words in brackets:

1. The English Channel separates Britain from Europe. The country has not been invaded since 1066. (*Thanks to . . . which*)
2. Modern warfare is far more complex. Such fears no longer exist. (*However, now that . . .*)
3. Britain would benefit enormously from a Channel Tunnel. Europe would benefit enormously from a Channel Tunnel. (*Both . . . and*)

### Letter-writing

Write opening sentences which would be suitable for letters to the following:

1. A former school mistress who has just got engaged.
2. A friend who has sent you a telegram on your birthday.
3. A librarian who has sent you information you wanted.
4. An aunt you failed to meet for an appointment.

## Key Structures

If the British had not feared invasion, it would have been completed.

a Do you remember these sentences:

*If he is out*, I'll call tomorrow. (KS 43a)

You'll miss the train *if you don't hurry*.

*If you went* to the exhibition you would enjoy it. (KS 101b)

*If I were* in your position, I would act differently.

b Now study these sentences carefully:

You would have missed the train *if you had not hurried*.

*If you had gone* to the exhibition, you would have enjoyed it.

*If I had been* in your position, I would have acted differently.

*If you could have made* him change his mind, you would have saved him a lot of trouble.

### Exercises

A. How many sentences in the passage contain the word *if*? Study the form of the verbs in these sentences.

B. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise:

1. The tunnel would be well-ventilated if tall chimneys (be) built above sea-level.
2. If a train entered this tunnel, it (draw) in fresh air behind it.
3. If, at the time, the British had not feared invasion, it (complete).
4. If it (be) built, it will connect Britain to Europe for the first time in history.

C. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets:

1. If you had told me about it earlier I (be able) to help you.
2. If you (can/come) with us, we would have been pleased.
3. You (not make) such a mistake if you had been more careful.
4. If father (be) alive he would be horrified.
5. If it (be) fine tomorrow we shall go for a swim.

## Special Difficulties

The verb *draw* has a different meaning in each of these sentences. Study them carefully:

If a train entered this tunnel, it would *draw in* fresh air behind it. (ll. 14-16)

The dog *drew back* in terror when it saw the snake.

A taxi *drew up* outside the bank. (It stopped.) Two men got out and then the taxi *drew off*. (It went away.)

A new trading agreement was *drawn up* between Holland and Denmark. (A new agreement was made.)

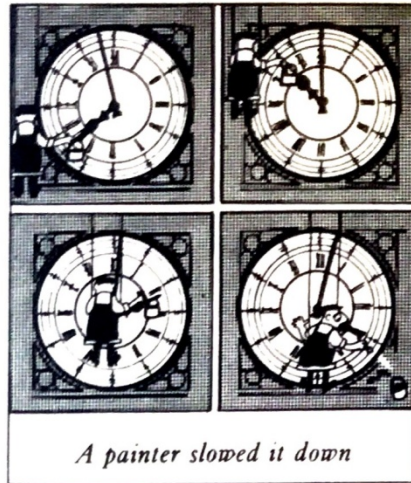
### Exercise

Choose the correct words in the following sentences:

1. We shall have to draw (in) (up) a new plan.
2. When I recognized who he was I drew (back) (up) in horror.
3. The car drew (back) (up) outside the cinema.

## 71 A Famous Clock

When you visit London, one of the first things you will see is Big Ben, the famous clock which can be heard all over the world on the B.B.C. If the Houses of Parliament had not been burned down in 1834, the great clock would never have been erected. Big Ben takes its name from Sir Benjamin Hall who was responsible for the making of the clock when the new Houses of Parliament were being built. It is not only of immense size, but is extremely accurate as well. Officials from Greenwich Observatory have the clock checked twice a day. On the B.B.C. you can hear the clock when it is actually striking because microphones are connected to the clock tower. Big Ben has rarely gone wrong. Once, however, it failed to give the correct time. A painter who had been working on the tower hung a pot of paint on one of the hands and slowed it down!



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions *in not more than 75 words*.

1. When were the Houses of Parliament burnt down? Who was made responsible for the construction of a huge clock? Did it become known as Big Ben or not? (*After . . . which . . .*)
2. Why is it very accurate despite its immense size? (*for*)
3. Has this clock often gone wrong, or has it rarely gone wrong? Why can it be heard on the B.B.C. when it is striking? (*This clock which . . . because . . .*)

### Composition

Write two or three sentences using the ideas given below:

Big Ben tells correct time—it also tells us when Parliament is in session—there is a light in the clock tower—it is kept on until the House closes—sometimes it is on all night.

### Letter-writing

Learn the following phrases by heart:

I wonder how you learnt that . . .

You will never guess who/what . . .

#### Exercise

Write two short paragraphs (of not more than two sentences each) completing the above phrases.

### Key Structures

Review KS 149–167

The moment you leave this tent, you will get a big surprise. (KS 149)

By that time, the *Astra* will have been flying through space for seventeen hours. (KS 151)

The planes had been planting seed for nearly a month when it began to rain. (KS 153)  
If the British had not feared invasion, it would have been completed. (KS 158)  
Must, Have to, Should and Ought to. (KS 160)  
Have. (KS 161)  
After having been instructed to drive out of town, I began to acquire confidence. (KS 167)

#### Exercises

- A. Underline the verbs in the passage. Revise any Key Structures you have forgotten.
- B. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise.
1. When you (visit) London, one of the first things you will see is Big Ben, the famous clock which (can/hear) all over the world on the B.B.C. If the Houses of Parliament (not burn) down in 1834, the great clock would never have been erected.
  2. Officials from Greenwich Observatory have the clock (check) twice a day. On the B.B.C. you can hear the clock when it actually (strike) because microphones (connect) to the clock tower.
  3. Once it failed to give the correct time. A painter who (work) on the tower hung a pot of paint on one of the hands.
- C. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets:
1. I shall have completed this novel by December. By then I (work) on it for ten months.
  2. Now that you (finish) work you can go home.
- D. Supply the correct form of *should*, *ought to* or *have to* in these sentences:
1. I couldn't go shopping yesterday afternoon. I (. . . go) to the dentist.
  2. I really (. . . buy) a new car but I can't afford to.
  3. I didn't know you would be late. You (. . . telephone).

### Special Difficulties

Words Often Confused.

*a* Official, Clerk, Employee, Shop-assistant.

Study these examples:

Officials from Greenwich Observatory have the clock checked twice a day. (ll. 12–14)

The Customs official asked me several questions.

He works as a clerk for an insurance firm.

Over a thousand factory employees went on strike.

She works as a shop-assistant in a clothing store.

*b* Hang/Hung and Hang/Hanged.

Study these examples:

A painter hung a pot of paint on one of the hands. (ll. 18–19)

When the sun came out, she hung the washing on the line.

The murderer was hanged.

#### Exercise

Choose the correct words in the following sentences:

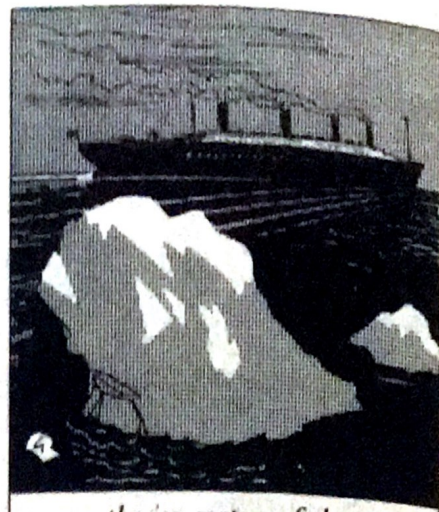
1. The (clerk) (shop-assistant) who served me was very helpful.
2. I (hanged) (hung) my coat in the hall.
3. Capital punishment has been abolished. Murderers will not be (hung) (hanged) in future.
4. He used to work as a (clerk) (shop-assistant) in a government department before he joined the army.

## **Appendix VIII**

### **Types of Language Activities in Developing Skills**

## 10 The Loss of the 'Titanic'

The great ship, *Titanic*, sailed for New York from Southampton on April 10th, 1912. She was carrying 1316 passengers and a crew of 891. Even by modern standards, the 46,000 ton *Titanic* was a colossal ship. At that time, however, she was not only the largest ship that had ever been built, but was regarded as unsinkable, for she had sixteen watertight compartments. Even if two of these were flooded, she would still be able to float. The tragic sinking of this great liner will always be remembered, for she went down on her first voyage with heavy loss of life.



the icy waters of the  
North Atlantic

Four days after setting out, while the *Titanic* was sailing across the icy waters of the North Atlantic, a huge iceberg was suddenly spotted by a look-out. After the alarm had been given, the great ship turned sharply to avoid a direct collision. The *Titanic* turned just in time, narrowly missing the immense wall of ice which rose over 100 feet out of the water beside her. Suddenly, there was a slight trembling sound from below, and the captain went down to see what had happened. The noise had been so faint that no one thought that the ship had been damaged. Below, the captain realized to his horror that the *Titanic* was sinking rapidly, for five of her sixteen watertight compartments had already been flooded! The order to abandon ship was given and hundreds of people plunged into the icy water. As there were not enough life-boats for everybody, 1500 lives were lost.

### Comprehension and Précis

Write an account of the sinking of the *Titanic* in not more than 80 words. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. Where was the *Titanic* sailing? ]
2. What was seen by a look-out? ]
3. When did the ship turn sharply? ]
4. Did it sail alongside the iceberg, or did it collide with it? ]
5. What was heard from below? ]
6. What did the captain do? ]
7. What did he find? ]
8. When did everyone jump overboard? ]
9. Why were 1500 people drowned? ]

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: colossal (l. 6); regarded (l. 8); compartments (l. 10); flooded (l. 11); float (l. 12); avoid (l. 19); narrowly (l. 20).



## Composition

In not more than 200 words write an imaginary account of what happened on the *Titanic* immediately after the order to abandon ship was given. Use the ideas given below. Do not write more than three paragraphs.

*Title*: Abandon Ship.

*Introduction*: Order to abandon ship unexpected—everybody unprepared.

*Development*: Immediate effect—panic and confusion—people rushing in all directions—crew came up from below—life-boats lowered—people jumped overboard—struggle to get into life-boats—life-boats full.

*Conclusion*: *Titanic* sank rapidly—people in water—cries of despair—life-boats moved away.

## Letter-writing

Which of the following addresses is correct:

19 Kingsley Ave.  
Sandford Park,  
London, N.W.8,  
England.

19 Kingsley Ave.,  
Sandford Park,  
London, N.W.8,  
England.

19 Kingsley Ave.,  
Sandford Park,  
London, N.W.8,  
England

August 24th, 19—

24th Aug., 19—

Aug. 24th, 19—

## Key Structures

What had happened? (1 KS 212)

### Exercises

A. Underline the verbs in the passage which tell us *what had happened*. Note how they have been used.

B. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise.

1. At that time, she was the largest ship that ever (build).
2. After the alarm (give), the great ship (turn) sharply to avoid a direct collision.

## Special Difficulties

Word Building.

Study these sentences:

He works hard. He is a hard worker.

He plays the violin. He is a violinist.

He is very careless. I have never seen such carelessness.

Can you explain this? Can you give me an explanation?

He has a responsible position. He has a lot of responsibility.

Note how new words can be formed by adding *-er*, *-ist*, *-ness*, *-ion*, *-ity*.

### Exercise

Supply the missing words in the following sentences:

1. He studied physics at university. He is a p . . .
2. He works in a mine. He is a m . . .
3. Pasteur did a great service to . . . (human).
4. He is trying to make a good . . . (impress).
5. His paintings have been admired for their . . . (original).

## II Not Guilty

Going through the Customs is a tiresome business. The strangest thing about it is that really honest people are often made to feel guilty. The hardened professional smuggler, on the other hand, is never troubled by such feelings, even if he has five hundred gold watches hidden in his suitcase. When I returned from abroad recently, a particularly officious young Customs Officer clearly regarded me as a smuggler.

'Have you anything to declare?' he asked, looking me in the eye.

'No,' I answered confidently.

'Would you mind unlocking this suitcase please?'

'Not at all,' I answered.

The Officer went through the case with great care. All the things I had packed so carefully were soon in a dreadful mess. I felt sure I would never be able to close the case again. Suddenly, I saw the Officer's face light up. He had spotted a tiny bottle at the bottom of my case and he pounced on it with delight.

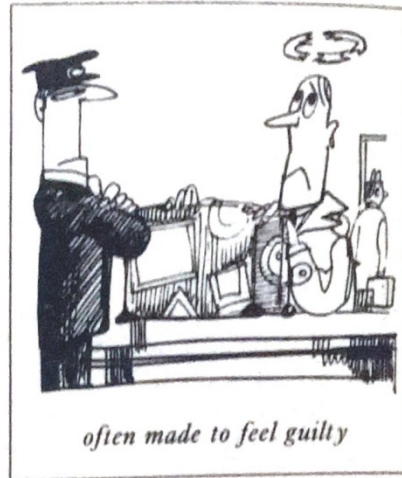
'Perfume, eh?' he asked sarcastically. 'You should have declared that. Perfume is not exempt from import duty.'

'But it isn't perfume,' I said. 'It's hair-oil.' Then I added with a smile, 'It's a strange mixture I make myself.'

As I expected, he did not believe me.

'Try it!' I said encouragingly.

The Officer unscrewed the cap and put the bottle to his nostrils. He was greeted by an unpleasant smell which convinced him that I was telling the truth. A few minutes later, I was able to hurry away with precious chalk-marks on my baggage.



### Comprehension and Précis

*In not more than 80 words* describe the experiences of the writer while he was going through the Customs. Do not include anything that is not in the passage.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. Did the writer have anything to declare or not?
2. What did the Customs Officer make him do?
3. Did the Customs Officer search the case carefully or not?
4. What did he find?
5. What did he think was in the bottle?
6. What did the writer tell him the bottle contained?
7. Who had made it?
8. Did the Customs Officer believe him or not?
9. What did the writer encourage the Officer to do?
10. What convinced the Officer that the writer was telling the truth?
11. Did the Officer let the writer pass through the Customs or not?

## Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: troubled (l. 6); clearly (l. 10); packed (l. 18); dreadful (l. 19); cap (l. 28); nostrils (l. 28); convinced (l. 29).

## Composition

Imagine that a man tries to smuggle something valuable through the Customs. Expand the following into a paragraph of about 150 words.

When the Customs Officer . . . the man said that he had nothing to declare. The Officer asked the man to . . . Although the case contained only . . . and . . . it was very heavy. This made the Officer suspicious, so he . . . The case was soon empty and when the Officer . . . he found that . . . The Officer examined the case carefully and saw that . . . He . . . and removed the bottom part of the case which contained . . . While the Officer was looking at . . . the man tried to . . . For a moment, the man disappeared among . . . but he was soon . . . and placed under arrest. (93 words)

## Letter-writing

A friend has written to you asking you to lend him some money. Write a letter of about 80 words telling him you cannot afford to. Supply a suitable Introduction and Conclusion. Use the following ideas to write the *Purpose*: sorry you cannot help—have a great many expenses—you are in debt yourself—suggest someone who might help.

## Key Structures

He said that . . . He told me . . . He asked me . . . (1 KS 214)

### Exercise

Answer these questions:

*Lines 22–23* What did the Customs Officer tell the writer he should have done? Why did he tell the writer this?

*Lines 24–25* What did the writer tell the Customs Officer?

*Line 27* What did he tell the Customs Officer to do?

## Special Difficulties

Capital Letters.

Note how capital letters have been used in these sentences:

The train came into the station. It arrived at 5 o'clock.

George lives in Canada. He is Canadian. He is not an American.

I'll see you on Tuesday, January 14th.

Have you read 'Great Expectations'?

### Exercise

Write this paragraph again using full stops and capital letters where necessary:

because tim jones cannot speak french or german he never enjoys travelling abroad last march, however, he went to denmark and stayed in copenhagen he said he spent most of his time at the tivoli which is one of the biggest funfairs in the world at the tivoli you can enjoy yourself very much even if you don't speak danish.

## 13 'It's Only Me'

After her husband had gone to work, Mrs Richards sent her children to school and went upstairs to her bedroom. She was too excited to do any housework that morning, for in the evening she would be going to a fancy dress party with her husband. She intended to dress up as a ghost and as she had made her costume the night before, she was impatient to try it on. Though the costume consisted only of a sheet, it was very effective. After putting it on, Mrs Richards went downstairs. She wanted to find out whether it would be comfortable to wear.

Just as Mrs Richards was entering the dining-room, there was a knock on the front door. She knew that it must be the baker. She had told him to come straight in if ever she failed to open the door and to leave the bread on the kitchen table. Not wanting to frighten the poor man, Mrs Richards quickly hid in the small store-room under the stairs. She heard the front door open and heavy footsteps in the hall. Suddenly the door of the store-room was opened and a man entered. Mrs Richards realized that it must be the man from the Electricity Board who had come to read the meter. She tried to explain the situation, saying 'It's only me', but it was too late. The man let out a cry and jumped back several paces. When Mrs Richards walked towards him, he fled, slamming the door behind him.



*She tried to explain the situation*

### Comprehension and Précis

*In not more than 80 words* describe what happened from the moment Mrs Richards entered the dining-room. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. How was Mrs Richards dressed?
2. Where was she going when someone knocked at the door?
3. Whom did she think it was?
4. Where did she hide?
5. Did she hear footsteps in the hall or not?
6. Who suddenly opened the store-room door?
7. What did she say to him?
8. Did he get a bad fright or not?
9. Did she walk towards him or not?
10. Did he flee or did he stay there?
11. Did he slam the front door or not?

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: intended (l. 7); impatient (l. 9); try it on (ll. 9-10); whether (l. 13); failed to (l. 18); fled (l. 25); slamming (l. 26).

## Composition

Imagine that the man from the Electricity Board returned to Mrs Richards' house with a policeman. Mrs Richards was no longer dressed as a ghost. Expand the following into a paragraph of about 150 words.

Mrs Richards immediately went upstairs and . . . She felt sorry for the poor man from . . . but at the same time, she was . . . Suddenly, there was a knock at the front door and Mrs Richards . . . The electricity man had returned, accompanied . . . so she . . . The man told Mrs Richards that . . . and that . . . Though Mrs Richards explained that . . . he refused to believe her. She told him to open the store-room door but he . . . so she . . . While the electricity man and the policeman . . . , Mrs Richards fetched . . . She showed it . . . and . . . (85 words)

## Letter-writing

Put yourself in the position of the electricity man. Imagine you are writing a letter of about 80 words to your mother describing your experience. Supply a suitable Introduction and Conclusion. Use the following ideas to write the *Purpose*: you got a terrible shock—house haunted—ghost under stairs—it ran after you—you fled—the story is really true.

## Key Structures

Must. (1 KS 218)

### Exercises

A. Note how *must* has been used in lines 17 and 22.

B. Write three pairs of sentences using the following:

1. *must go* and *must be*. 2. *mustn't* and *needn't*. 3. *had to* and *ought to have*.

## Special Difficulties

It would be comfortable to wear. (ll. 13–14)

*Instead of saying*: I was sorry *when I learnt* that he had had an accident.

*We can say*: I was sorry *to learn* that he had had an accident.

Study these examples:

He was *delighted to learn* that his offer had been accepted.

I was *glad to hear* that he had arrived.

I was *pleased to hear* that you now feel better.

He was *anxious to leave* early.

### Exercises

A. Write these sentences again changing the form of the words in italics:

1. I was glad *when I heard* that she had gone away for ever.

2. He said he was sorry *if he had* upset me.

3. You will be sad *when you hear* what I have to tell you.

B. Write sentences using the following: pleased to; proud to; delighted to; shocked to.

## 17 The Greatest Bridge in the World

Verrazano, an Italian about whom little is known, sailed into New York Harbour in 1524 and named it Angoulême. He described it as 'a very agreeable situation  
5 located within two small hills in the midst of which flowed a great river.' Though Verrazano is by no means considered to be a great explorer, his name will probably remain immortal, for on November  
10 21st, 1964, the greatest bridge in the world was named after him.

The Verrazano Bridge, which was designed by Othmar Ammann, joins Brooklyn to Staten Island. It has a span  
15 of 4260 feet. The bridge is so long that the shape of the earth had to be taken into account by its designer. Two great towers support four huge cables. The towers are built on immense underwater platforms made of steel and concrete. The platforms extend to a depth of over 100 feet under the sea. These alone took  
20 sixteen months to build. Above the surface of the water, the towers rise to a height of nearly 700 feet. They support the cables from which the bridge has been suspended. Each of the four cables contains 26,108 lengths of wire. It has been estimated that if the bridge were packed with cars, it would still only be carrying a third of its total capacity. However, size and strength are not the only  
25 important things about this bridge. Despite its immensity, it is both simple and elegant, fulfilling its designer's dream to create 'an enormous object drawn as faintly as possible'.



### Comprehension and Précis

Describe the Verrazano Bridge in not more than 80 words. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What is the name of the bridge which joins Brooklyn to Staten Island?
2. What is its span?
3. How many towers has it got?
4. What do these towers support?
5. What are the towers built on?
6. How far under the sea do the platforms go?
7. How far above the surface do the towers rise?
8. What is the bridge suspended from?
9. How many lengths of wire does each of these cables contain?
10. Is the bridge very strong or not?
11. Is it simple and elegant or not?

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: agreeable situation (l. 4); midst (l. 5); considered (l. 7); remain immortal (l. 9); span (l. 14); taken into account (ll. 16-17); support (l. 17).

## Composition

Describe any bridge you know well. Expand the following into a paragraph of about 150 words.

The bridge I know best is called . . . It joins . . . to . . . From far away it looks . . . but when you get near . . . It is made of . . . and supported by . . . which . . . If you stand on the bridge early in the morning, you can see . . . At this time everything is quiet. During the day, however, . . . I enjoy standing on the bridge at night when . . . In the darkness, you can see . . . In the stillness . . . are the only sounds that can be heard. (77 words)

## Letter-writing

A friend who is coming to visit you has written to you asking for detailed information on how to get to your house. Write a reply in about 80 words. Supply a suitable Introduction and Conclusion. Use the following information to write the *Purpose*: which train to catch—where to get off—which bus to catch and where—any familiar landmark—where to get off—which road to take—where your house is.

## Key Structures

The Verrazano bridge was designed by Othmar Ammann. (1 KS 226)

### Exercise

Change the form of the verbs in these sentences. Omit the words in italics. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise:

1. Verrazano is an Italian about whom *we* know little.
2. *They* do not consider Verrazano to be a great explorer.
3. *They* named the greatest bridge in the world after him.
4. *He* had to take into account the shape of the earth.
5. *They* have estimated that if the bridge were packed with cars . . .

## Special Difficulties

He is by no means considered to be a great explorer. (ll. 7–8) Compare 1 SD 208.

*Instead of saying:* I find that he is quite unsuitable for the job.

*We can say:* I find him to be quite unsuitable for the job.

### Exercise

Write these sentences again changing the form of the phrases in italics:

1. I believed *that he owned* property abroad.
2. The Minister declared *that the treaty was* invalid.
3. I know *that he is* a person of high integrity.
4. I guess *that he is* about twenty-seven years old.
5. We estimated *that this picture* is worth at least £500.

**Appendix IX**

**CEFR**

**(Common European Framework of Reference  
for Languages)**



## Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
U N D E R S T A N D I N G	Listening	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local areas, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio of TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulties in understanding and kind of spoken language. Whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and poster or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisement, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that mainly consist of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all kind of written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary work.

S P E A K I N G	Spoken Interaction	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibility and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present and most recent job	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate story or relate a plot of a book or film and describe my reactions	I can present clear, detail descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present clear, smoothly flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.

WRITING	Writing	I can write short, simple postcards, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages related to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of in against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length, I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or report, underlining what I consider to be salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points, I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary work.
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Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, assessment. 2001. Council of Europe. Cambridge University Press.

## **Appendix X**

### **Course Objectives**

Unit	Topic	Skill & Knowledge	Communicative Functions	Potential Activities
1	Break the Ice (Speaking)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Introduce oneself</li> <li>✓ Formal &amp; Informal styles</li> <li>✓ Asking for and giving information</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greet</li> <li>• Introduce oneself</li> <li>• Begin a conversation</li> <li>• Leave-taking</li> <li>• Formulaic chunks</li> <li>• Idiom use</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students introducing themselves</li> <li>• Students taking parts in dialogues</li> <li>• Make use of some formulaic chunks in conversations</li> </ul>
2	Education (Listening)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Practice listening</li> <li>✓ Learn to define</li> <li>✓ Learn some cultural aspects</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understand gist</li> <li>• Listen to extract meaning</li> <li>• Learn education-related vocabulary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fill in the gap</li> <li>• Define words</li> </ul>
	(Speaking)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Read aloud</li> <li>✓ Practice word pronunciation</li> <li>✓ Word spelling</li> <li>✓ Ask for help &amp; support</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exchange information</li> <li>• Show opinion</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ask and give information in dialogues</li> <li>• Explaining words</li> <li>• Discussing ideas</li> <li>• Agreeing &amp; disagreeing with statements</li> </ul>
<p>FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT: Activities representing and summing knowledge and skills of the two units</p>				
	CAREER (SPEAKING)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Hold an interview</li> <li>✓ Overcome communication breakdowns</li> <li>✓ Talk about the past,</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Give information</li> <li>• Give directions</li> <li>• Expressing wishes, hopes, desires</li> <li>• Eliciting plans, goals and intentions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Role play activities (Ask for help, for directions, for time, book a room, in the restaurant...etc)</li> <li>• Simulate conversational situations</li> </ul>

3		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>present and future</li> <li>✓ Use formal style</li> <li>✓ Mind non-verbal gestures</li> <li>✓ Group work</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussing capacities of doing things</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Simulate communicative breakdowns</li> </ul>
FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT : Activities representing situational dialogues and communicative situations				
4	STORY TELLING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop reading skills</li> <li>• Develop ability to use different language functions simultaneously</li> <li>• Team work</li> <li>• develop creativity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interpersonal exchange</li> <li>• Give information</li> <li>• Express opinion, feelings, suasion, problems</li> <li>• Predict future scenarios</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Read stories and analyse how communicative intent is achieved</li> <li>• Create situations in which students make use of different language functions</li> <li>• Role-play activities</li> </ul>
SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Activities summing main unit skills</li> <li>- Book report</li> </ul>				
SEMESTER TWO				
UNIT	Topic	Skill & Knowledge	Communicative Functions	Potential Activities

5		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Develop presentation skill</li> <li>✓ Develop techniques to tackle breakdowns in oral presentations</li> <li>✓ Learn and make use of phrasal verbs &amp; idioms</li> <li>✓ Develop critical thinking</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Learn how to handle a presentation, and deal with any breakdowns in it</li> <li>✓ Mind the non-verbal factors in communications and oral presentations</li> <li>✓ Use phrasal verbs to sound more fluent</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Watch TED and other professional presentations</li> <li>• Comment on different presentations</li> <li>• Listen and fill in the gaps</li> <li>• Build up potential presentations outlines</li> <li>• Give an oral short summary about a presentation each student will make</li> </ul>
<p>FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Watch the video and answer the questions</li> <li>- Create presentation outlines</li> </ul>				
6	Cross-Cultural Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Develop awareness about learners' own culture</li> <li>✓ Develop intercultural awareness</li> <li>✓ Improve cultural knowledge about the target communities i.e. UK and USA</li> <li>✓ Learn to mind cultural aspects in a text, audio or video</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Share findings that are target culture-related</li> <li>✓ Discuss differences and similarities between the target culture with the local one</li> <li>✓ Give ideas and opinions about different topics that are culture-related</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussing living conditions in the local and target community</li> <li>• Compare and contrast between different rituals, beliefs and norms in the local and target community</li> <li>• Search for cultural related items that are of major value in the target culture</li> <li>• Learn to identify and analyze videos presenting cultural aspects</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Learn about some do's and don'ts in the target culture</li> <li>✓ Learn about important literature and artistic works in the target culture</li> <li>✓ Develop autonomous learning</li> <li>✓ Develop team work</li> <li>✓ Develop critical thinking</li> </ul>		
<p><b>SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT :</b> - Give an oral presentation about something that is culture-related  - Provide a written report of the presentation</p>				



**Appendix XI**  
**Actional Competence**

**(3) KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS**

INTERPERSONAL EXCHANGE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greeting and leave-taking</li> <li>• Making introductions, identifying oneself</li> <li>• Extending, accepting and declining invitations and offers</li> <li>• Making and breaking engagements</li> <li>• Expressing and acknowledging attitudes</li> <li>• Complimenting and congratulating</li> <li>• Reacting to interlocutor's speech</li> <li>• Showing attention, interest, surprise, sympathy, happiness, disbelief, disappointment</li> </ul>
INFORMATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Asking for and giving information</li> <li>• Reporting (describing and narrating)</li> <li>• Remembering</li> <li>• Explaining and discussing</li> </ul>
OPINIONS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and finding out about opinions and attitudes</li> <li>• Agreeing and disagreeing</li> <li>• Approving and disapproving</li> <li>• Showing satisfaction and dissatisfaction</li> </ul>
FEELINGS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and feeling out about feelings -love, happiness, sadness, pleasure, anxiety, anger, embarrassment, pain, relief, fear -annoyance, surprise, etc.</li> </ul>
SUASION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Suggesting, requesting and instructing</li> <li>• Giving orders, advising, and warning</li> <li>• Persuading, encouraging and discouraging</li> <li>• Asking for, granting and withhold permission</li> </ul>
PROBLEMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Complaining and criticizing</li> <li>• Blaming and accusing</li> <li>• Admitting and denying</li> <li>• Regretting</li> <li>• Apologizing and forgiving</li> </ul>
FUTURE SCENARIOS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expressing and finding out about, wishes, hopes and desires</li> <li>• Expressing and eliciting plans, goals, and intentions</li> <li>• Promising</li> <li>• Predicting and speculating</li> <li>• Discussing possibilities and capabilities of doing something</li> </ul>

**(4) KNOWLEDGE OF SPEECH ACT SETS**

(Adapted from Celcie-Murcia et al. 1994, p. 22)

**Appendix XII**  
**Pre/Post Tests**

## Pre-test (A)

### 1. Supply the missing words in each sentence:

1. Hello, ..... is John White.
2. Is ..... Mary Hammond? No, it isn't. .... Marry Brit.
3. Is ..... Betty Taylor? Yes, .....
4. Betty is my ..... and Taylor is my .....
5. Can you spell your name, please? Yes, sure. B, ..., ..., ..., ..  
T, ..., ..., ..., ..

### 2. Complete the following sentences:

1. I have got three....., two girls and a boy.
2. .... many children have you got?
3. My father ..... got two sisters.
4. I haven't got ..... sisters.
5. .... you ..... brothers and sisters?

### 3. Complete the following conversations:

**Peter:** Excuse me. .... your ..... Martin Luke?

**Henry:** ....., I'm sorry. .... It's Henry James.

**Peter:** .....

**Henry:** It's Henry James.

**Peter:** ..... sorry.

**Peter:** Excuse me. Are ..... Martin Luke?

**Martin:** Yes, I .....

**Peter:** Oh, my ..... Peter Johnson.

**Martin:** Oh, yes. .... do you .....

**Peter:** .....

### 4. Complete the following dialogue:

**Sam:** ....., Betty.

**Betty:** Hi, Sam.

**Sam:** How are you?

**Betty:** ....., ..... And you?

**Sam:** I'm fine.

**Betty:** Sorry Sam, I have to go now. Bye Sam.

**Sam:** ..... Betty. .... you.

### 5. Complete the following dialogue:

**X:** Good morning, Mrs Carter.

Y: .....  
 X: Please sit down.  
 Y: .....  
 X: ..... Mrs Carter?  
 Y: I'm forty-nine.  
 X: Are you married?  
 Y: Yes, I .....  
 X: What's your ..... 's name?  
 Y: Peter.  
 X: And you're Welsh, ..... you?  
 Y: Yes, that's .....  
 X: How ..... ?  
 Y: fifty-two.  
 X: Have ..... ?  
 Y: Yes, ..... A boy and a .....

**6. Look at the following example:**

John has got a daughter. She is fifteen.

*John's daughter is fifteen.*

1. Mrs Harris has got four children. They are students.
2. Mary has got a brother. He is an engineer.
3. My father has got a brother. He is a doctor.
4. Bob has got a son. He is a pilot.
5. My mother has got a sister. She is a nurse.

**7. Complete the following sentences:**

1. Paul is from France. He's .....
2. Alice is from Britain. She's ..... .
3. Harry is from Wales . He's ..... .
4. Shufiko is from Japan. He's .....
5. Catherine is from Switzerland She's..... .
6. Bob is from Sweden . He's ..... .
7. David is from Scotland. He's .....
8. Jillian and Peter are from Ireland. They're .....
9. Ahmed is from Egypt . He's .....
10. Carlos is from Portugal. He's ..... .

**8. Give definitions to the following words:**

Gym:

.....

Vending machine:

.....

Football:

.....

Lorry (truck)

.....

Car renting:

.....

Notebook:

.....

**9. Name the capital cities of following countries**

England: ..... Wales: .....

Scotland: ..... Northern Ireland: .....

Ireland: .....

**10. Name some members of the royal family of the UK:**

**11. Guess the meaning of the following idioms:**

Fish out of water: .....

Keep up with the joneses: .....

Pass the buck: .....

With a grain of salt: .....

Kill two birds with one stone: .....

Get up on the wrong side of the bed: .....

**Pre-test (B)**

**1. Supply the missing words in each sentence:**

1. Hello, ..... 's Peter Matt.

2. Is ..... Mary Brit? No, it isn't. .... Betty Taylor.

3. Is ..... Betty Taylor? Yes, .....

4. Betty is my ..... and Taylor is my .....

5. Can you spell your name, please? Yes, sure. B, ..., .., .., .., .., ..

T, ..., .., .., .., .., ..

**2. Complete the following sentences:**

1. I have got three....., two boys and a girl.

2. .... many children have you got?

3. My father ..... got two brothers.

4. I haven't got ..... sisters.

5. .... you ..... brothers and sisters?

**3. Complete the following conversations:**

**Peter:** Excuse me. .... your ..... Jane Twist?

**Mary:** ....., I'm sorry. .... It's Mary Brown.

**Peter:** .....?  
**Mary:** It's Mary Brown.  
**Peter:** ..... sorry.

**Peter:** Excuse me. Are ..... Martin Luke?  
**Martin:** Yes, I .....  
**Peter:** Oh, my ..... Peter Johnson.  
**Martin:** Oh, yes. .... do you .....?  
**Peter:** ..... ?

**4. Complete the following dialogue:**

**Sam:** ....., Liza.  
**Elizabeth:** Hi, Sam.  
**Sam:** How are you?  
**Liza:** ....., how..... you?  
**Sam:** .....  
**Liza:** Sorry Sam, I have to go now. Bye Sam.  
**Sam:** ..... Betty. .... you.

**5. Complete the following dialogue:**

**X:** Good morning, .....  
**May:** Good morning.  
**X:** Please sit down.  
**May:** .....  
**X:** .....May ?  
**May:** I'm forty-nine.  
**X:** Are you married?  
**May:** Yes, .....  
**X:** What's ..... name?  
**Y:** Peter.  
**X:** And you're Irish, ..... you?  
**Y:** Yes, that.....  
**X:** How ..... ?  
**Y:** fifty-two.  
**X:** Have ..... ?  
**Y:** Yes, ..... A boy and a .....

**6. Look at the following example:**

John has got a daughter. She is fifteen.

*John's daughter is fifteen.*

1. Mrs Harris has got four children. They are students.
2. Mary has got a brother. He is an engineer.
3. My father has got a brother. He is a doctor.
4. Bob has got a son. He is a pilot.
5. My mother has got a sister. She is a nurse.

**7. Complete the following sentences:**

1. Claude is from France. He's .....
2. Alice is from Britain. She's .....
3. Harry is from Scotland . He's .....
4. Shufiko is from China. He's .....
5. Catherine is from Switzerland She's.....
6. Bob is from Sweden. He's .....
7. David is from Germany. He's .....
8. Selma and Ismail are from Qatar. They're .....
9. Ahmed is from Egypt . He's .....
10. Carlos is from Portugal. He's .....

**8. Give definitions to the following words:**

Coffee shop:

.....

Ice cream machine:

.....

Tennis:

.....

Lorry (Truck)

.....

Car dealer:

.....

Shelf:

.....

**9. What is the difference between the UK and GB?**

**10. Name some festivals celebrated in the UK:**

**11. Guess the meaning of the following idioms:**

Fish out of water: .....

Keep up with the joneses: .....

Pass the buck: .....

With a grain of salt: .....

Kill two birds with one stone: .....

Get up on the wrong side of the bed: .....



The above activities, we hoped would allow us to make inferences about students' capabilities to tackle rudimentary activities that need little mastery and knowledge about the English language and its speakers. This knowledge varies from usage of language to some cultural knowledge about the target communities. Worth remembering that administering two equi-difficult tests rather than only, is a technique to avoid any test reactivity which would permit test takers to remember and respond correctly to the answers at the post-test. This situation mainly happens when the test deals with set of fix knowledge and facts. To avoid such a situation, those who have had test (A) as a pre-test would have test (B) as a post test, whereas, those who have had test (B) as a pre-test would have test (A) as post test.

### **3.6.2. Pre-Test Two**

**Activity 1: Read the two conversations and mention any particular differences between the two. If you find none, skip the activity.**

#### **Conversation 1**

**X:** Good morning, Mr Watson. How are you?

**Y:** Oh good morning, Dr Harris. I'm very well, thank you. And you?

**X:** I'm fine, thank you.

#### **Conversation 2**

**X:** Hello, Jillian.

**Y:** Hi Bill. How are you?

**X:** Fine thanks. And you?

**Y:** Not bad, but my mom's not well today.

**X:** Oh, I'm sorry to hear that.

**Activity 2: (Asking for and giving directions) Use the map and complete the conversations below:**



**Situation 1:**

A: ....., can you tell me where the museum is?

B: Yes, .....

**Situation 2:**

X:..... Can you tell how can I get to the hospital?

Y: .....

X: Many thanks

Y: .....

**Situation 3:**

X:....., but I'm trying to find the Post Office

Y: .....

X: Will it take me long to get there?

Y: .....

X: Thank you very much indeed

Y: .....

**Situation 4 :**

X: Does this bus stops at the library?

Y: No, .....

X : Will it take me long to get there?

Y : ....., it's no distance at all

X: ah okay, can you show me how can I get there?

Y : ....., .....

X: .....

Y: .....

**3. Situational Dialogues**

**Complete the following conversations:**

**At a hotel:**

X: .....

Y: Yes, I can offer you room 24 on the first floor

X: .....

Y: £27.50 a night excluding service

**At the restaurant:**

X: Can I take your order, sir?

Y: Yes, .....

X: And to follow?

Y: .....

**At the railway station:**

X: When does the ..... London?

Y: It .....London at ..... ( 8.15 pm).

Y: What ..... does it .....in Manchester?

X: The train ..... in Manchester 10 pm.

.....

Y: How ..... does the ..... take from London to Manchester?

X: It ..... 1.45 minutes.

**Activity 3: Tell what time it is:**

**03:15**

**18:00**

**19:27**

**04:30**

**12:00**

**00:00**

**01:05**

**01:55**

**15:59**

### **3.6.3. Pre-Test Three**

#### **Activity (1): Expressing apology**

You were walking down the street and suddenly inadvertently you come to bump into an old lady, so you wanted to express apology. How would you express your apologies? Write down the ways you know to express apologies.

#### **Activity (2): Ask for repetition**

You were talking with someone in the street, but the vehicles noises prevent you from hearing your correspondent, so you wanted to ask him to repeat what he just said. How would you do that? Write down the ways you know to ask for repetition.

#### **Activity (3): Show your opinion about the below statements by agreeing or disagreeing (provide some arguments if possible to backup your opinion):**

**Teacher:** At school English is more useful than mathematics

**You:**

**Your best friend:** There is no point studying art at school

**You:**

**Teacher:** Writing is the most difficult skill to learn

**You:**

**Your classmate:** A teacher should explain everything to the student

**You:**

**Teacher:** A university education should not be free

**You:**

**Activity (4): Write down a short conversation for each of the following topics:**

**Topic One**

You were walking down the corridor at university, suddenly you met your secondary school best friend whom you haven't seen for a long period of time. In a small paragraph write down the conversation that happened between you.

**Topic Two**

You were walking down the corridor at university suddenly you met your secondary school English teacher whom you respect a lot. In a small paragraph write down the conversation that happened between you.

**Appendix XIII**  
**Affect Assessment**

This inventory was designed to inform your teachers about the confidence that you and your classmates have in achieving some communicative tasks. There are 10 statements describing particular tasks. Imagine that you have to do each of those tasks, then indicate the level of confidence you would have in performing each task. Circle only one response for each task.

**NB: DO NOT MENTION YOUR NAMES**

**Key to Abbreviations**

**VC** Very Confident **FC** Fairly Confident **BC** Barely Confident **NC** Not Confident at All

<b>Tasks</b>	<b>Your Response</b>			
<b>Suppose you were asked to...</b>	<b>How confident would you be?</b>			
1. Give a 5-minute narration to your classmates about a recent vacation	VC	FV	BC	NC
2. Talk on the phone in English in a public space (a bus for example)	VC	FC	BC	NC
3. Guide a group of American tourists around your city	VC	FC	BC	NC
4. Sustain a discussion with a native speaker on Skype	VC	FC	BC	NC
5. Answer the teacher's question aloud when you know the answer	VC	FC	BC	NC
6. Disagree strongly but politely with a classmate about an issue that the class is studying	VC	FC	BC	NC
7. Read loudly a text that you haven't read before, in front of your classmates	VC	FC	BC	NC
8. Give a 2-minute impromptu speech in front of the class, without any preparation	VC	FC	BC	NC
9. Have an interview with a student you never talked to, about a movie you have watched lately	VC	FC	BC	NC
10. Take part in the Global Virtual Communication programme	VC	FC	BC	NC

Thank you for completing this inventory

## ملخص

يهتم العمل البحثي الحالي بالتحقيق، من وجهة نظر تربوية، في التأثير السلبي الذي قد ينتج عن توجيه "التدريس للاختبار". وتجدر الإشارة إلى أنه بموجب التنقيط إضافة إلى اعتبارات الأخرى، يُطلب من المعلمين تركيز تعليمهم على العناصر التي من المحتمل مثلها في الامتحانات و تهيمش ما لا يحتمل مثلها في الامتحانات. تكتسب هذه ممارسة التدريس انتشار مقلق في الساحة التربوية وتضر بعملية التعليم و التعلم بشكل عام. في مثل هذه الأجواء التدريسية، أصبح مصطلح "الإنجاز" لا يعني إلا التحصل على نقطة جيدة في الامتحانات، خاصة تلك الامتحانات عالية الأهمية مثل امتحان البكالوريا. وقد ثبت أن هذا النمط التعليمي يتسبب في فشل العديد من طلاب السنة أولى لغة الإنجليزية بالجامعة، رغم تحصيلهم على نقاط مرضية في امتحان البكالوريا في اللغة الإنجليزية، و الذي بمقتضاه إثبات قدرات هؤلاء الطلبة على استعمال و التواصل باللغة الانجليزية، إلا أن أثبت أن تفوقهم محدود في قدرتهم في الإجابة عن أسئلة التي مضى و إن تدربوا عن الإجابة عنها أما بالنسبة للتواصل باللغة الانجليزية و الذي يعتبر المؤشر الحقيقي للكفاءة في اللغة فهو يكشف الحقيقة أن مستواهم في اللغة الانجليزية مختلف كليا عن ما تدعيه نقاطهم الجيدة في امتحان اللغة الانجليزية في البكالوريا.

## Résumé

Le présent travail a pour but de démontrer d'une manière empirique les effets négatifs que peut générer une approche d'enseignement à l'épreuve. Il est à noter que implicitement des pressions croissantes en vue d'un enseignement axé sur les tests, omettant tout ce qui n'est pas évalué dans les examens. Cette pratique, malheureusement pour une formation de qualité, à pris une ampleur quelque peu bien répandue dans nos établissements scolaires à tous les niveaux. Du point de vue pédagogique, elle est conçue et vise d'une manière explicite à aider les candidats à obtenir des notes élevées aux examens, plutôt que leur dispenser un enseignement basé sur le cursus mandaté par le ministère de tutelle. De ce fait, nous avons constaté que, au niveau du département d'anglais à l'Université de Tlemcen, des étudiants inscrits en première année ayant obtenus des notes relativement élevées en anglais à l'examen du Baccalauréat, et qui sur le plan compétence linguistique, sont 'incapable' de faire preuve de l'utilisation de cette langue pour faire valoir une fonction ou notion communicative.

## Summary

The present research work is concerned with an investigation of the negative effect which a 'teach-to-the-test' oriented would yield from a pedagogical standpoint. It should be noted that, in the name of accountability and other considerations, teachers are asked to focus their teaching on the items that are likely to be tested. This teaching practice is gaining ground and does harm to the learning process at large. The term 'achievement' means nothing more than scoring well on tests, not least standardized test such the Baccalaureate exam. Such a tendency has proved to be valid. Many first-year EFL students at the University of Tlemcen, having scored high in the Baccalaureate English exam, failed to demonstrate their communicative abilities when asked to perform a simple communicative function or notion. Their communicative competence, one should say, *leaves a lot to be desired*.