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The Relationship between Pragmatic Competence and Speaking Performance

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DEDICATION

To my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

   The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the relationship between students'
pragmatic competence and their speaking performance. To achieve this goal, students'
pragmatic competence was measured by means of a pragmatic competence test; students'
speaking performance was measured by iBT- type speaking test and iBT speaking section
scores. The participants in the study were 62 incoming students from different
departments at the American University of Armenia (AUA). Research questions were:

1. What is the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance?

2. What is student's attitude towards communicating in real life situation?

3. What is student's attitude towards language rules of use (e.g., politeness rules)?

 The instruments that were used for collecting data were:

a. One pragmatic competence test.

b.iBT speaking section scores & iBT-type speaking section (PBT supplement).

c. One questionnaire.

   The quantitative data collected from the pragmatic competence test, iBT- type speaking
test and iBT speaking section scores were analyzed using Pearson's correlation analysis
in order to find the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking
performance. The qualitative data were collected through questionnaire and analyzed.
The result of the quantitative data showed that there was no relationship between
students' pragmatic competence and their speaking performance. The result of the
qualitative data showed that the majority of the students find difficulty in communication
with native speakers in social situation.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In a conversation between a native speaker of particular speaking community and a non-native speaker, the non-native speaker must know and share the rules of language use of the speaking community. This means that non-native speakers need to choose words and expressions acceptable to the speaking community and to the particular situation. This is necessary to successfully communicate and to achieve the purpose of the conversation. On one hand, non-native speakers can develop and obtain strong grammatical competence. Strong grammatical competence is defined as "the knowledge of grammar, lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, p. 38). Their grammatical competence enables them to produce a sentence which is grammatically acceptable. However, they may face difficulty using their grammatical competence in communicating with native speaker (verbally) out of classroom discussions. They could, for example, be perceived as offensive, and they might even be misunderstood in different situations. On the other hand native speakers may ignore grammatical mistakes made by non- native speakers, if their message is comprehensible and acceptable in a particular situation. Therefore, to communicate in a given language, non-native speakers need to learn more than the grammar of that language. They need to have the competence that enables them to use the language effectively in a specific context (i.e. student/professor, student /student in an academic context).   That competence is called pragmatic competence. Fraser, Rintell, and Walters (1980, p.76) define pragmatic competence as "the knowledge of how to use the linguistic competence in a social context." They describe grammar as "a system of rules that characterizes the sentences of a language, not the rules for use of the sentences." They conclude that

"whereas linguistic competence can be viewed as the knowledge required to construct or to understand well-formed sentences of the language, pragmatic competence can be viewed as the knowledge required determining what such sentences mean when spoken in a certain way in a particular context." Researchers such as Kasper (1989), Bardovi-Harlig (1991), Brown (1994) and Jernigan (2007) claim that having grammatical competence (advanced learners) may not indicate having pragmatic competence. Kasper (1989, p. 192) reports that "Even fairly advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficits, in that they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value." Bardovi-Harlig (1991, p.4), a researcher of second language acquisition, argues that "working with highly grammatically proficient learners and non-native speakers has shown that high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee high levels of pragmatic competence" . Brown (1994) states it is not enough to master only the vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and rules of a language. The learner needs to communicate by transmitting and receiving thoughts, ideas and feelings. Jernigan(2007, p. 1) states that "In order to participate more fully in the cultural life of an English-speaking community, English language learners (ELLs) need more than simply developing structurally accurate spoken language. They must demonstrate more than just understandable pronunciation and an awareness of English syntax." He emphasizes the importance of having pragmatic competence which he defines as "the ability of learners to use language in communicative contexts to convey their intended meanings or influence those around them."

 Further, Kasper & Roever (2005) and Jernigan (2007) argue that in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), learners need to use their pragmatic competence, in order to

communicate effectively with native speakers. According to Kasper & Roever (2005, p.16), "learners need to develop pragmatic competence in order to demonstrate oral proficiency. Pragmatic competence may be defined as the ability of a speaker to use language to convey her/his intended meaning during interaction with others."

Non-native speakers may have the pragmatic competence, that means choosing words and expressions acceptable to the speaking community and to the particular situation; however, non-native speakers may not perform well in the communication and speaking with native speakers. Then there will not be a good manifestation of that competence in their speaking performance. According to Farhady (1995, p.15), "one may have the competence, but for one reason or another, he may not perform to his full competence."

As previously mentioned, non-native speakers' pragmatic competence may help them to communicate "using language rules of use" in a particular context and situation. However, their pragmatic competence may not be manifested in their speaking performance; they may face difficulty in maintaining and achieving the goal of the conversation.

In chapter two this study reviews the literature on language competence, pragmatic competence, speech acts theory, politeness theory, language functions (request), and oral performance (speaking). Chapter three highlights the selected participants' background, and data collecting procedure. Chapter four presents and analyzes the results of this study in order to answer research questions:

1. What is the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance?

2. What is student's attitude towards communicating in real life situation?

3. What is student's attitude towards language rules of use (e.g., politeness rules)?

Chapter five presents the conclusion that there is no correlation between pragmatic competence and speaking performance.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will review relevant literature related to language competence. It will briefly define language competence from different points of view, presenting different communicative competence frameworks, and components of communicative competence (i.e. grammatical competence, linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, discourse competence, functional competence, textual competence, and illocutionary competence). This chapter will define pragmatic competence and the components of pragmatic competence. In addition, this chapter will present language functions (request), and speech act theory. Speech act is a component of pragmatic competence, and politeness theory as it is incorporated within speech acts. This chapter will also discuss oral performance (speaking), and the most used techniques in assessing oral performance.

2.1 Language Competence

It is important to understand the term pragmatic competence. Understanding pragmatic competence requires prior understanding of the term competence, which has been used differently by different researchers and in different studies. In addition, competence has been extended to communicative competence. Then, different frameworks of communicative competence components have been established.

This section presents the term competence, communicative competence, and describes communicative competence frameworks. Scholars such as Chomsky (1965), Hymes (1967, 1972), Halliday (1978), Canale &Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Farhady (1983), Bachman (1990), Celce-Murcia (1995), Cenoz (1996), and Alcon (2000), have interpreted the term competence differently. Competence has been interpreted as an

absolute term "rules of grammar," and differentiated performance which refers to the manifestation of those rules. It has also been interpreted as the ability to use language "rules of grammar" in a particular context. In addition, competence has been used as the knowledge of rules of using the language and the knowledge of how to overcome the difficulties one might face in communication. The term competence means the ability to accomplish language functions, such as: requesting, refusing, apologizing, etc. Moreover, scholars have extended the term competence to communicative competence, and then they have established different frameworks of communicative components. However, at the end all these frameworks are inherently similar.

An early work by Chomsky "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax" (1965) distinguished between competence and performance, between the perfect knowledge of the language a person knows and the utterance that a person performs. Chomsky also mentioned that competence related to implicit grammar or native speakers' understanding in generating grammatical sentences, whereas performance related to how language is used and produced. In addition, he mentioned that performance can be the actual manifestation of competence in an ideal situation:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interests, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky,1965 p.3).

In his work, Chomsky (965, p.151) presented competence as an absolute term "the knowledge of language;" he paid attention to how this knowledge is characterized without mentioning how it is used in communication. From his point of view, knowledge of language means the knowledge of grammar. This is known as an element of Chomsky's theory of generative grammar (Taylor, 1988). According to Chomsky (1965, p. 151), "generative grammar attempts to characterize in the most neutral possible terms the knowledge that provides the basis for actual use of language by speaker – hearer." Moreover, Chomsky's work separated linguistic knowledge from sociocultural features; the focus was on the importance of the "grammatical competence" rather than how to use grammars rules in socially appropriate situations. For him, "competence is clearly a state and not a process, and has nothing to do with the 'capacity' or 'ability'" (Taylor, 1988, p.151).

Hymes (1972) among others mentioned that uttering grammatically correct sentences does not necessarily mean having the ability to produce and understand a sentence that is socially appropriate and accepted. He argued that Chomsky's competence/performance model does not provide an explicit place for socio-cultural features. He also mentioned that Chomsky's rules of grammar would be useless without the rules of use. He was interested in how language is used for communication and social interaction rather than in the absolute term of knowledge. Hymes (1972, p. 278) stated that "there are 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 semantic perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole." Therefore, his communicative competence model includes linguistic

competence "Chomsky's rules of grammar" and contextual or sociolinguistic competence "rules of use." In addition, Hymes presented four parameters for a communicative competence model: *First,* whether (and to what extent) something is formally possible; s*econd,* whether and to what extent something is feasible by virtue of the means of implementation available; *third,* whether and to what extent something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; f*ourth*, whether and to what extent something is in fact done, actually performed, and what it's doing entails (Hymes, 1972, p. 278). Hymes also mentioned that each parameter has both the competence of language and the competence of use.

Canale and Swain (1980), following Hymes presented a widely accepted framework of communicative language competence. Their framework includes different types of competence such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. "The rules of use" was included under sociolinguistic competence and was called pragmatic competence (*See Figure 1*). They clearly stated that communicative competence included both rules of use and rules of grammar; they maintained that "just as there are rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use (Hymes, 1972), so there are also rules of language use that would be useless without rules of grammar" (Taylor, 1988, p. 158). In addition to linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, they introduced and included the term strategic competence as the third component of their communicative competence framework.
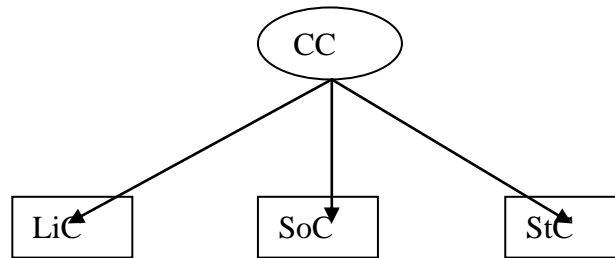
Figure no.1 Canale & Swain's Model of Communicative Competence

In Canale and Swain's model (1980), grammatical competence is defined as "the knowledge of grammar, lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, P. 38). Sociolinguistic knowledge is defined as "the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language use and rules of discourse" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, p. 38). Pragmatic competence is defined as "the accessibility of utterance within specific context of language use, and rules determining the successful use of language within specified context" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, p. 44). Strategic competence is defined as "the knowledge of how to overcome problems when faced with difficulties in communication" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, p. 38).

The previous framework of Canale & Swain (1980) was expanded by Canale (1983) to include a fourth component "discourse competence." Discourse competence might be defined as "the ability to produce a unified spoken or written text in different genres using cohesion in form and coherence in meaning." Hymes (1972) and Canale & Swain (980) were interested in how language is used in communication. They were concerned with the ability of using the language knowledge in communication. Then, Farhady (1983) established a new communicative competence framework. He stated that in addition to linguistic, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence, speakers need to have functional competence. He argued that in communication speakers are accomplishing a number of

functions such as requesting, apologizing, refusing an offer, etc. The ability to successfully accomplish language functions in different situations and context is different from one speaker to another. Therefore, he emphasized that the speaker should have the competence of accomplishing those functions, in order to achieve the purpose of communication. Farhady (1983b) was the first to establish a new framework for communicative competence that included functional competence (FC) (*See Figure 2*).
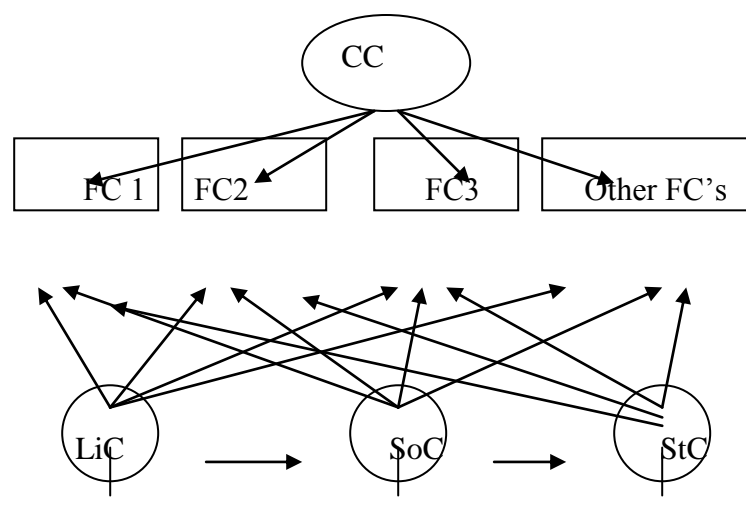
Figure 2: Farhady's communicative competence framework.

Farhady (1983b, p. 507) stated that "communicative competence comprises many FCs within specific areas of language use. Learners would accumulate more FCs depending on their educational and professional careers. The more FCs the learners can accumulate, the larger CC they would have". He also argued that from the functional perspective of language ability, language assessment should include functional competence. Farhady (2006, p. 12) stated that "functional theory served as the cornerstone of assessing language for specific purposes since each functional competence can be attributed to a particular area of language use, which is the essence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)".

Following Halliday (1976), Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983b), a new framework of communicative language ability was established by Bachman (1990) known as Bachman's model. Bachman (1990) established his model a decade after Canale's framework was established. The constituting elements of his model are: language competence, strategic competence, and psychological mechanism. Bachman's model (1990) described and developed language competence as a tree. The left branch of the tree is organizational competence which includes grammatical competence and textual competence. The right –branch of the tree is the pragmatic competence which includes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Bachman's model (1990) deals with the relationship between the language and its user. Bachman's framework is represented in (*figure 3*).

Language Competence

Organizational competence   pragmatic competence

Grammatical competence   textual competence illocutionary competence sociolinguistic competence
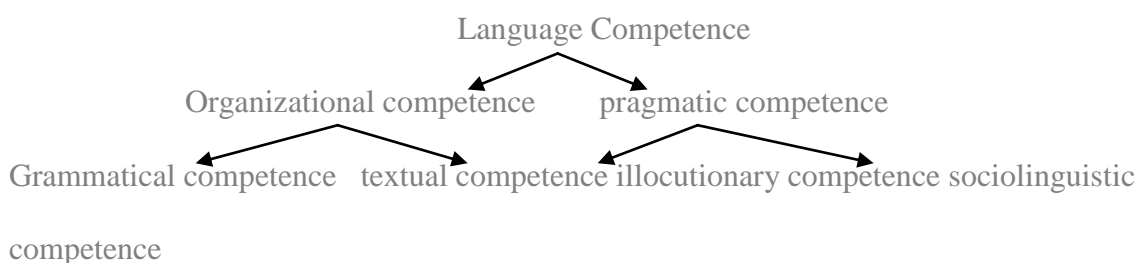
Figure 3: Components of language competence (Bachman, 1990, p.87).

Illocutionary competence "concerns the performance of language functions and speech act" (Davidson and Flucher, 2007, p. 44). Sociolinguistic competence is defined as "the sensitivity to or control of conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific languages use context, it enable us to perform language function in ways that are appropriate to that context" (Bachman, 1990, p. 44). Bachman (1990) emphasized the importance for second language learner to improve their grammatical competence and pragmatic competence. In contrast, in Celce-Murcia et al's (1995) work

the focus was on the relationship among all the components of communicative competence as illustrated in figure. 4.

Sociolinguistic Competence

Discourse competence

Discourse competence   Actional Competence

Strategic Competence
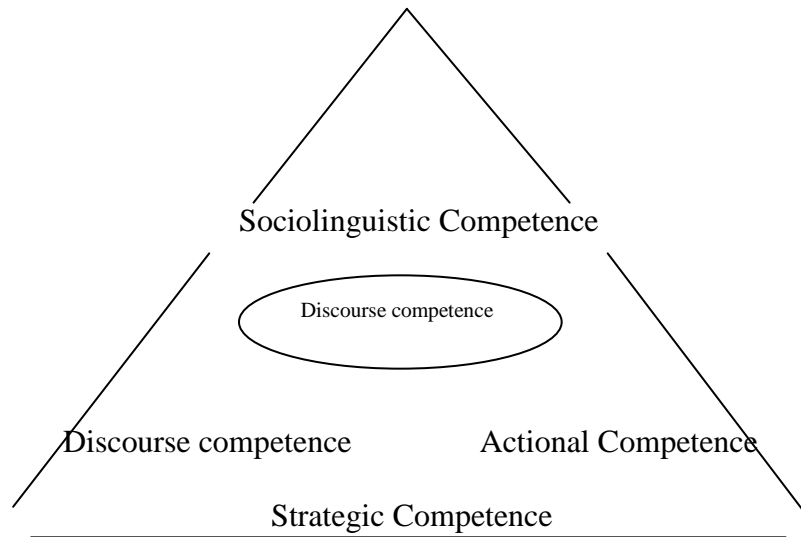
Figure 4: Celce-Murcia et al's Framework of Communicative Competence in (Jorda, 2005. P. 54).

Alcon (2000b, p. 54) stated that "Celce-Murcia et al's framework differs in its conceptualization of discourse competence, since it does not stand as an isolated subcomponent, but depends on three further constituents, namely those of sociolinguistic, linguistic and actional competence." Alcón (2000b) presented her model of communicative competence on the basis of Celce-Murcia et al's (1995) framework. Jorda (2005, p. 56) claimed that in Alcon's model "all components in this model are interrelated and they explain those conditions affecting and promoting appropriate and effective foreign and second language use." Alcon's model consists of three components: Discourse competence, psychomotor skill and competencies, and strategic competence.

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

Source: Alcón (2000b: 238).

Finally, it has been mentioned above that different scholars presented different frameworks with different components for communicative competence. However, the components of a particular framework are corresponded to other frameworks' components. For example, according to Jorda (2005) linguistic competence in Celce-Murcia's model corresponds to grammatical competence in Canale &Swain's model. The actional component in Celce-Murcia's model might correspond to both Canale and Swain's (1980) sociocultural component and also Bachman's (1990) pragmatic competence. In addition, sociocultural competence in Celce-Murcia's model is related to Canale's (1983) sociocultural competence and to Bachman's (1990) sociolinguistic competence. In this study, the focus will be on pragmatic competence, which is presented in the next section.

2.2 Pragmatic Competence

This section presents definitions of pragmatics and pragmatic competence by different scholars, the components of pragmatic competence, Grice's cooperative principle, and the importance of including pragmatic competence in assessment. Different cultures have different rules of language use; each culture has more or less culture-specific pragmatic features. According to Wishnoff (2000, p. 120) "Culture obviously plays a significant role in defining what we may and may not say, when and where we say it, to whom we say it, and why we say it". According to Rose & Kasper (2001, p.2) pragmatics can be defined as" the study of communicative action in its socio-cultural context." pragmatic knowledge is defined as "how utterances or sentences or texts are related to communicative goals of language users and to the features of language use-setting."

Through communication, native speakers and non-native speakers of a particular language might have different pragmatic rules of the target language, which means choosing words and expressions acceptable to the speaking community and to the particular situation. Non-native speakers might utter a sentence which is grammatically correct, but pragmatically inappropriate in a particular context. They may translate their native language "rules for language use" into the target language. Non-native speakers might also be so direct in their utterances that it is considered inappropriate and they are criticized for being offensive, insensitive and rude. They might also be criticized for being over polite in a particular situation. Therefore, in order to fully participate in the target language community, non-native speakers need to have the ability to use the spoken language in socially acceptable ways. Scholars such as Wilkins (1976) and Swain (2005) also claimed that, in language learning, it is important to learn more than just the

pronunciation, the lexical items, and the appropriate word order. According to them it is important to learn the appropriate ways to use those words and sentences, and to be fully aware of how language is used in the target community. This is important in order to produce appropriate sentences in a particular situation and context, and to integrate successfully in that community.

In language learning setting, it is emphasized that teachers should take into account how language is used in the real world among people instead of only concentrating on teaching grammar and vocabulary. According to Wilkins (1976, p. 11), "people who speak the same language share not so much a grammatical competence as a communicative competence. Looked at in foreign language learning terms, this means that the learners has to learn rules of communication as well as rules of grammar." Swain (2005, p. 4) also stated that "English speakers expect their interlocutors to operate according to the implicit interactional and pragmatic norms of that language during conversation and other forms of verbal communication."). In addition, researchers have conducted different studies involving different pragmatic knowledge components. Early work of Leech (1983, p. 2) divided pragmatics into two components: Pragmalinguistics "which related to grammar as it consists of linguistic forms and their functions," and socio-pragmatics "which related to proper social behavior." Pragmalinguistics was defined by Rose & Kasper (2001, p.2) as the "Resources for conveying communicative acts and rational or interpersonal meaning." Sociopragmatics was defined by Leech (1983, p.2) as the "sociological interface of pragmatics." Roevers (2003) stated that pragmatic components are: speech act, routines, and implicature. According to Purpura

(2004) pragmatic components includes sociocultural, psychological, and rhetorical meaning as conveyed in language use.

The terms pragmatics and pragmatic competence, have been used by Levinson (1983), Bachman (1990), Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000), and Rose & Kasper (2001) among others. Levinson (1983, p. 233), stated that "pragmatics addresses language use and is concerned with the appropriateness of utterances given specific situations, speakers, and content." Bachman (1990, p. 44), defined pragmatic competence as the "acceptability of utterances within specific context of language use, and rules determining the successful use language within specified contexts." Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000, p.19) stated that "pragmatics deals explicitly with the study of relationships holding between linguistic forms and the human beings who use these forms." While pragmatic competence is "a set of internalized rules of how to use language in socioculturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction take place." Pragmatics can be also defined as "the study of communicative action in its socio-cultural context" (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.2). From the definitions mentioned above, it can be understood that pragmatic competence deals with the use of language in a particular situation. It also deals with the communication between the speaker "what is acceptable to be said or to be done in a particular situation" and the hearer "how he interprets speaker's words." According to Yule (1996, p. 48), language users must share certain rules and conventions which enable them to understand one another in the many instances where the meaning and the intent, i.e. the *illocutionary force* of utterances are not explicitly stated. Grice (1975) also stated that in ordinary conversation, speakers and hearers share some rules

and principles, and use them in order to communicate and cooperate successfully. He developed cooperative principles because he was concerned with the distinction between saying and meaning. He was also concerned with the speaker's position in explaining the meaning behind his utterances and with the hearer's position in understanding those utterances. According to Grice (1975, p. 45), the cooperative principle "make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." He suggested four conversational maxims expected in conversation: *First,* the quality: speaker tells the truth and proves it by evidence. *Second,* the quantity: speaker's contribution is informative. *Third,* the relation: speaker's contribution is relevant to the topic of discussion. *Fourth*, the manner: speaker avoids ambiguity or obscurity (speaker is direct and straightforward) Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000).

However, in conversation speakers may ignore Grice's (1975) cooperative principles. Speakers might intentionally speak indirectly, in order to be polite in some context and situations 'ignoring the maxim of manner' that contribution is direct and straightforward. Speakers might also not be informative in particular contexts and situations ignoring the "maxim of quantity" that contribution is informative (Celce –Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Jorda, 2005).

In Bachman's model of communicative competence, pragmatic competence describes the relationship between the language and the user. Bachman's model was based on Van Dijk's (1977) work. Pragmatics then was understood as "dealing with the relationship between utterances and the acts performed through these utterances on one hand and as the feature of the context that promote appropriate language use" (Jorda, 2005, p.52).

Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) clarify that it is possible to classify utterance 'acts' into small set of function. Finally,

> It is necessary to understand and create language that is appropriate to the situations in which one is functioning, because failure to do so may cause users to miss the key points that are being communicated or to have their messages misunderstood. Worse yet is the possibility of a total communication breakdown and the stereotypical labeling of second language users as people who are insensitive, rude, or inept (Thomas, 1983, p.199).

Therefore, the necessity of having pragmatic competence caused researchers such as Oller (1979), Farhady (1983), Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1992, 1995), Hill & May (2002), Swain (2005), McNamara & Roever (2006) and Grabowski (2007)to mention the importance and fairness of including pragmatic competence in assessment.

Oller (1979) introduced the pragmatic testing approach. He defined a pragmatic test as "any procedure or task that causes the learner to process sequences of elements in a language that conform to the normal constraints of that language, and which required the learner to relate sequences of linguistic elements via pragmatic mapping to extra-linguistic context" (p.65). "Oller believes that pragmatic tests should meet two requirements: first, they must require context, i.e., the meaning requirement; and second, they must require the processing to take place 'under temporal constraints', i.e., the time requirement. Oller concludes that integrative tests are a much broader class of tests which

are usually pragmatics, but pragmatic tests as a subclass of integrative tests are always integrative" (Farhady, 1983, p. 66).

Oller (1979) also stated that pragmatic tests are similar to the integrative tests which can be defined as "the tests that assess the skills which are involved in normal communication" (p. 65). Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1992, 1995) focused on assessing appropriateness by eliciting the production of three common researched speech acts (e.g. request, refusal, and apology). McNamara, Hill, and May (2002, p. 30) stated that "with respect to oral proficiency tests, any definition of the construct of speaking must include recognition of the social and interactional contexts in which given speech events occur." Swain (2005, p.3) stressed that "the interactional and pragmatic competence that learners' need to be able to break implicit code native speaker understand is an acquired competence learners develop through exposure to and use of language." McNamara & Roever (2006, p.2) stated that "if the claim is that the purpose of the test is to measure a learner's overall language proficiency, a clearly articulated pragmatic knowledge component should be part of the test construct." Grabowski (2007, p. 2) argued that "the test of spoken English (TSE), does include pragmatic dimensions (e.g., sociolinguistic competence and functional competence) as performance indicators in addition to linguistic and discourse dimensions in the scoring rubric."

Finally, it has been mentioned above (on page 17) that pragmatics deals with the acts performed through utterances and that it is possible to classify utterance 'acts' into small set of function. In addition, in communication speakers are accomplishing a number of functions such as requesting, apologizing, refusing an offer, etc. The ability to

successfully accomplish language functions in different situations and context is different from one speaker to another. Language functions will presented in the next section.

2.3 Language Functions

This section presents definitions, classifications and categorizations of language functions by different scholars. It also defines and presents different ways for making requests as it is one of the language functions. Speakers might accomplish different language functions with their utterances; they might request that someone do something, refuse an offer, or apologize, etc. "Languages exist because of the functions they serve, and so how individuals learn to use language for such different purposes as to get and give information and initiate and monitor interactions with others is a major aspect of development" (Bloom, 1978, p. 1). Researchers such as Halliday (1973), Wilkins (1976), Bloom (1978), Bachman (1980), Van Ek & Trim (1990), and Brown (1994, 2007) claimed that having pragmatic competence, speakers can accomplish certain purpose "do something with language" through communication. A non-native speaker needs to be aware of communicative purpose and how to achieve that purpose using the target language. The purpose can be a request to do something, a refusal, a compliment, etc. Each purpose can be known as a language functions. Wilkins (1976, p. 24) stated that "any actual utterance inevitably contains many different kinds of grammatical meaning and may simultaneously perform more than one function." Bloom (1978, p.1) claimed that "languages exist because of the functions they serve, and so how individuals learn to use language for such different purposes as to get and give information and initiate and monitor interactions with others is a major aspect of development." Bachman (1980, p. 89) stated:

Pragmatics is concerned with the relationship between utterances and the acts or functions that speakers /or writers/intended to perform through these utterances, which can be called the illocutionary force of utterances, and the characteristics of the context of language use that determine the appropriateness of utterances.

Brown (1994, p. 231) claimed that "while forms are the outward manifestation of language, functions are the realization of those forms." Further, he stated:

Functions are essentially the purpose that we accomplish with language, e.g., stating, requesting, responding, greeting, parting, etc. Functions cannot be performed without the forms of language: morphemes, word, grammar, rules, discourse rules and other organizational competencies. Forms are the outward manifestation of language; functions are the realization of these forms (Brown, 2007, p. 223).

Halliday (1973) described language functions through four macro-functions: Ideational, manipulative, heuristic, and imaginative functions. He explained them:

Ideational functions are the functions, by which we express meaning in terms of our experience of the real world, (e.g., presenting knowledge in lecture or scholarly article). Manipulative functions are the functions in which the primary purpose is to affect the world are: Instrumental function, regulatory function and interactional function are examples of

manipulative functions. Instrumental function, with which we use language to get things done such as a. Getting someone including ourselves, to do something by forming or uttering suggestions, request, orders, commands, or warnings, b. Accomplishing other things by saying what we intend to do, as offers, promises, or threats. Regulatory function is used to control the behaviors of others, to manipulate the persons and, with or without their help, the objects in the environments. Interactional function is its use to form, maintain, or change interpersonal relationships. Heuristic functions pertain to the use of language to extend our knowledge of the world around us, and occurs commonly in such acts as teaching, learning, problem solving, and conscious memorizing. Imaginative functions enable us to create or extent our own environment for humorous or esthetic purposes, where the value is derived from the way in which the language itself is used such as: telling stories, constructing and communicating fantasies, creating metaphors or other figurative uses of language (Halliday,1973, p.92)

Van Ek (1972) expressed how language can help people to:

1. Impart and seek factual information
2. Express and find out attitudes
3. Get things to done (suasion)
4. Socialize
5. Structure discourse

6. Communication repair

Van Ek and Melville Trim (1990) clarified how language functions can be fulfilled:

> Directly if an exponent is used in its conventional meaning, i.e.
>
> in the meaning that would normally be assigned to if it was used
>
> in isolation. 'You should go now' fulfils the function of
>
> 'advising others to do something' directly, whereas 'it's getting
>
> late'- in its conventional meaning fulfilling the function of
>
> 'reporting' – may serve the same purpose indirectly. (p. 27)

As stated above, Van Ek (1972) explains how language helps people to get things done.

Such help is utilized in fourteen different speech acts:

1. Suggesting a course of action (involving both speaker and addressee).

2. Agreeing to a suggestion.

3. Requesting that someone do something.

4. Advising someone to do something.

5. Warning others to do something or to refrain from doing something.

6. Encouraging someone to do something.

7. Instructing or directing someone to do something.

8. Requesting assistance.

9. Offering assistance.

10. Inviting someone to do something.

11. Accepting an offer or an invitation.

12. Declining an offer or an invitation.

13. Enquiring whether an offer or invitation is accepted or declined.

14. Asking someone for something.

The scope of this study focuses on the third speech acts "Requesting that someone do something," and the fourteenth subcategory "Asking someone for something." The rationale behind this selection was the fact that "request" is observed most frequently in daily communications. Next section defines, classifies and explains different ways to make a request.

Wilkins (1976), Spolsky (1985), Evrin-Tirpp & Gordon (1986), and Roevers (2005) defined, classified, and explained different ways to make a request. According to Wilkins (1976, p. 50) "Making a request means asking that something should be done or asking for something (including information), it presupposes that the speaker wants something carried out." Requests are also defined as "socially instrumental utterances used by speakers to get listeners to produce behavior" (Ervin-Tripp & Gordon, 1986, p. 228). Ervin-Tripp and Gordon (1986) classify requests as: direct request, indirect request, and hints. Rovers defined requests as "the linguistic realizations of the speaker's desire that the hearer perform a specified action, which the hearer would not otherwise perform from his own volition" (Roevers, 2005, p.16).

Researchers such as Wilkins (1976) and Spolsky (1985) present different ways to make a request. According to Wilkins (1976) the verb request can be used directly as a performative verb, e.g. "I request you to leave the country." Other ways of making request are: "Would you mind shutting the window? Do you mind shutting the window? Would you like to shut the window? Would you be so good as to shut the window? Shut the window will you? Shut the window please? May I trouble you for a light?" (p. 50).

The examples mentioned above are syntactic structures for making requests. Through communication, speakers need more than structures mentioned above in order to

accomplish their purpose. Their purpose might be a request for something or asking about something.

Speakers need to be aware of the rules of language use in making a request in a particular situation (having pragmatic competence), which means that they need to know in what context they need to be direct, or indirect (polite) in making a request in addition to accurate grammar structure (pragmalinguistic competence). Spolsky (1985) stated that there are different forms of words that can make a request. Examples are: "Please shut the window. Close the window, please. Close it, please. Do it, please." (p.184). In addition, there are different syntactic structures that can make a request. Examples are: "Will you close the window? I want you to close the window. I am cold. When will you close the window? I haven't been feeling well lately. The window is open." (p. 184)

Finally, requests are an example of speech acts. According to Richards and Platt (1993), what a native speaker or a second/foreign language learner does in using the language in a social context is that he/she performs one or more speech acts. Examples of speech acts include: requesting, complaining, authorizing, declaring, apologizing, promising, etc.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance. In the next section speech act and speech act theory are defined in details, as speech act is a component of pragmatic competence.

2.4 Speech Act Theory

This section defines direct & indirect speech act, and discusses Austin's (1962) and Searle's (1969) speech act theory.

Through communication, speakers can do different things with different utterances. They can make request, ask questions, express gratitude, give orders, offer apologies etc. By

uttering words or making statements, speakers perform several acts. These acts have different intentions. Speakers might have the intention of doing something by saying something, such as requesting and promising, or the intention of affecting the hearer by saying something, such as apologizing, thanking, etc. According to Celce–Murcia & Olshtain (2004, p. 24), "social actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts."Brown & Levinson (1987, p.33) stated that "the ability to use speech acts correctly is central to pragmatic competence. Speech acts may be thought of as the language used to convey specific meanings or achieve some desired effect."

Speech act theory was originated by Austin (1962) and developed by Searle (1969). According to Searle, J. R., Kiefer, F. & Bierwisch, M. (1980, p. vii), "speech act theory starts with the assumption that the minimal unit of human communication is not a sentence or other expression, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, describing, explaining, apologizing, thanking, congratulating, etc."

In his framework "How to do things with words" Austin (1962) outlined his theory of speech acts and the concept of performative language, in which to *say* something is to *do* something. According to Austin (1975), there are some verbs "performative verbs" which directly represent the speech acts such as apologize, complain, compliment, request, promise, etc. Austin (1975) distinguished three acts of statements: locutionary act which means producing a grammatical sentence, illocutionary act which means producing a sentence that accomplishes something such as requesting, ordering informing etc. and the perlocutionary act which based on the effect of the of the act on the hearer (listener).

As mentioned above (see page16), pragmatics deals with what speakers mean by their utterances rather than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean. To clarify further, when one speaks, his words do not have a simple fixed meaning. These words depend on the context, and on the speaker and the listener. Therefore studying words or sentences outside the context (what, when, where and to whom) might provide the hearer with little information about the communication or its effect on the hearer. Austin (1962) came to the conclusion that most utterances are performative in nature "the speaker might always do something by saying something." "We realize that what we have to study is not the sentence but the issuing of an utterance in a speech situation, there can hardly be any longer a possibility of not seeing that stating is performing an act "(p. 139).

According to Levinson (1980), Austin in his theory focused on illocutionary acts "what one does in saying something." He did not take into account the role of speaker's intention and hearer's interference (interpretation). Austin's theory was further developed by John Searle (1969). Searle argued that speakers when they speak and communicate have reasons behind their utterances; whenever they say something, they intend to perform an illocutionary act. Searle (1962, 1971, and 1980) believed that there is a common content in the illocutionary acts and he refers to it as a propositional content. In the sequence of utterances, "Please leave the room," "You will leave the room," and "Will you leave the room?" the same proposition that you will leave the room, is presented in the performance of the three illocutionary acts, one a request, one a prediction and one a question, (Searle,1980, p. viii). Therefore, Searle (1971) distinguished between the illocutionary act "function performed in saying something,"

and the act of expressing the proposition "referring to something or expressing a prediction about something" of an illocutionary act. Searle also stated that the number of things that can be done with language is limited, although, the propositional content is limitless. Searle (1969) classified five different types of speech acts "illocutionary act" in terms of how they affect the social interaction between speakers and hearers: "declaratives or performatives" are speech acts that change the world as a result of having been performed, "representatives" are speech acts that enable the speaker to express feelings, beliefs, and the like, "expressive" are speech acts that express psychological states of the speaker or the hearer such as (apologizing, complaining, complimenting and congratulating), "directives" are speech acts that enables the speaker to impose some action on the hearer which includes (commands, orders and requests), and "commissives" are speech acts that enable the speakers to commit themselves to future actions such as promises and refusals. It means that when we speak, we are using one or more of the above speech acts: requesting, declaring, representing, expressing, commiserating and directing. In addition, Haverkate's (1984) and Curse (2000) based their definition and taxonomy of speech acts on the bases of Searle's (1969) theory. According to Haverkate (1984, p. 62), "Directive speech acts are those where the speaker wants the hearer to do something." He also mentioned that directive speech acts are impositive "requesting, pleading and ordering," or non- impositive "suggestions and instructions." Curse (2000) also depended on Searle's (1969) classification in presenting his taxonomy of performative verbs that include: Assertive, directive, commissive, expressive, and declarative.

Moreover, the theory of speech acts distinguishes between a direct speech act in which "the speaker says what he means," and indirect speech act in which "the speaker means something more than what he says." Austin (1962) and Searle (1980) were concerned with the relation between direct and indirect speech acts. They observed that the content of locutionary act "what is said," is not always determined by what is meant by the utterance. They became interested in the meaning of the utterance rather than the sentence. The speaker can perform an illocutionary act both directly and indirectly. By using indirect speech acts in some situations, speakers might ignore or violate the "manner maxim" of Grice's Cooperative Principles (CP) that has been mentioned (on page15). Speakers might intentionally use indirect speech acts in some situations for politeness reasons; speakers might say "it is cold in here" which is indirect and more polite than the direct utterance "close the door." According to Celce –Murcia & Olshtain (2000, p. 27), "Considerations of politeness often relate to the degree of directness expressed in speech acts." Kasper (1989, p. 10) report that "Even fairly advanced language learners' communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, or deficits, in that they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value." Politeness theory is discussed in details in the next section.

2.5 Politeness Theory

This section presents politeness theory presented by Brown and Levinson (1978), the concept of face (positive and negative face), and Leech's (1983) politeness principles (PP). Each culture has its own rules of politeness which people acquire as a part of their native language. To communicate successfully with native speakers, non-native speakers

need to acquire the rules of politeness of the target language since these rules are different in different languages and cultures. These rules are incorporated in speech acts. According to Brown and Levinson (1978) "politeness is the basic to the production of social order and a pre- condition to the human cooperation." As previously mentioned each culture has its own rules of politeness. Therefore, in communication with native speakers, non-native speakers may say something that can be considered impolite in the context of the native speakers' language and culture. In addition, non-native speakers may fail to use their native languages' rules of politeness while speaking another language, since, "rules of politeness cannot be translated directly from one culture to another" (Celce-Murcia, and Olshtain, 2000).

Speakers need to be aware of politeness rules of the target language in order to communicate successfully with native speakers of the target language. According to Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (1978), a person has a self-image in public, which is called "face". They argued that the notion of face is familiar in almost all cultures. People behave and produce utterances in such a way that may or may not save others' face, which means that people's utterances might be considered as being offensive or over polite. As mentioned above speech act can be direct and indirect. Politeness is incorporated within the speech act. Politeness is related to the directness of the speech act, the more the speech is indirect the politer it becomes. Brown and Levinson'(1978, p. 27) state that "talking about face threatening speech acts, there is implied imposition on the hearer in the actual performance of the speech acts. In order to lessen the force of the imposition, all languages seem to have conventionalized less direct 'or indirect' realization of speech acts." Therefore using direct and indirect speech acts is

depending on the context. "Could you please close the door" is an example of an indirect request and "close the door" is an example of direct request (Yule, 2006)

In communication, speakers might avoid Grice's cooperative principles mentioned (page 16). Speakers may avoid the "maxim of quantity" and be informative in case of requesting someone to do something. According to Jorda (2005, p. 59) "a speaker may not be brief if their message implies an invasion of their interlocutor's territory e.g. 'would you be so kind as to do this for me, please?'" Laoma (2004, p. 26), explained politeness as "the reason why people do not communicate 'maximally efficiently,' as they would if they followed Grice's (1975) four conversational maxims."

People of various cultures differently perceive saying and/or doing things as polite or impolite. In some cultures people appreciate social distance and therefore they appreciate the choice of the other person and his/her freedom. In other cultures focus on group or family interaction more than on social distance.

> When we interact with others we must be aware of both kinds of face and therefore have a choice of two kinds of politeness. Positive politeness leads to move to achieve solidarity through offers of friendship, the use of compliments, and informal language use. On the other hand, negative politeness leads to deference, apologizing and informality in language use (Wardhaugh, 1998, p. 272).

People would also be more polite to a more powerful person than to a less powerful person. Furthermore, (Ambady ET al., 1996) explained that politeness increases as the social distance between the speaker and the listener increases. For example, one would

be more polite to someone who is more socially distant "a stranger" than to someone who is more socially close "a family member or a friend." He stated:

"A person would be more polite if

1. The relative power of the target over the speaker increases.

2. The social distance between the target and the speaker increases.

3. The degree of imposition on the target increases" (p. 9

Jorda (2005) also stated that the degree of politeness depends on three main aspects, namely those of social distance, relative power and degree of imposition. As claimed by Brown and Levinson (1987), the sum of these three aspects provides the exact amount of 'face work' to be developed by participants." In addition to the social distance between the speaker and the hearer, the degree of a speaker's politeness has different impact on the hearer, a speech act which is impolite may affect the hearer negatively and vice-versa. Speakers may consider the language they are using with others because it may reflect their relationship with others and their attitude towards them. Speakers also use different politeness strategies, in order to minimize the negative effect on the hearer.

Leech (1983, p. 26) added the politeness principles (PP) to Grice's general Cooperative Principles (CP). The purpose of the politeness principle is "to minimize the expression of impolite belief and to maximize the expression of the polite belief." He also suggests a Cost-Benefit scale, i.e. "when the speaker is impolite, there is a higher cost for the hearer. Conversely, when the speaker is polite, there is greater benefit for the hearer."

The maxims of politeness work in conjunction with Grice's four conversational maxims, but concede that they may *vary* in importance from culture to culture. For example, in the context of responding to compliments, the Modesty Maxim clearly outweighs the Agreement Maxim in Japanese society, while in English-speaking societies it is customarily more polite to accept a compliment 'graciously', i.e. to find a compromise between violating the Modesty Maxim and violating the Agreement Maxim.

(Leech, 1983 cited in Bond, Zegarac & Spencer Oatey 2000, p. 56)

According to Levinson and Brown (1978) speakers can use numbers of politeness strategies, such as noticing the hearer's interest, apology and indirectness in order to minimize the negative imposition on the hearer.

People might be polite and impolite according to the social situation. A non-native speaker may have to respond impolitely to an impolite native speaker. Therefore, it is important for a non-native speaker to be aware of the polite and impolite rules of the target culture. The importance of knowing politeness principles calls to enlighten student learners of those principles which are incorporated within pragmatic rules. According to Jernian (2007, p.23), "teachers who have regular interaction with English language learners need to be trained and equipped to help students recognize the importance and breadth of the interactional –pragmatic elements so that learners are perceived as being inconsiderate or rude." Consequently, a non- native speaker must have pragmatic competence in order to understand politeness of the target language and to communicate without the concern of coming off as rude. Finally, as it has been mentioned above non-

native speakers' pragmatic competence may help them in communicating "using language rules of use" in a particular context and situation. However, non-native speakers may not perform well in the communication and speaking with native speakers. Non-native speakers' pragmatic competence might or might not be manifested in their speaking performance. The next section will focus on oral performance (speaking).

2.6 Speaking Performance

This section will present the definition of oral performance (speaking), the relationship between speaking performance and pragmatic competence types of speaking performance, and methods used in assessing speaking performance. Speaking performance might reflect the actual ability of the learners in terms of using spoken language to interact and communicate with others. According to Jernigan (2007, p.15), "the ability to use spoken language to interact with others in socially acceptable ways is an essential element of overall communicative competence and, thus, oral proficiency". Concerning the relationship between speaking performance and pragmatic competence; pragmatics deals with the performance of language not with the competence of language. Performance from Chomsky's (1975) point of view is the utterance of grammar rules, while performance from Hymes's (1972) point of view is the utterance of the rules of use. Hyme states that "there must be a study of speaking …whose aim to describe the communicative competence that enables a number of the community to know when to speak and when to remain silent, which code to use, when, where and to whom" (p. 12). Hyme then states that "I should therefore take competence as the most general term of speaking and hearing capabilities of a person."(1971, p. 156). According to Katz (1977, p. 19), "grammars are theories about the structure of sentence types …. Pragmatic

theories, in contrast, do nothing to explicate the structure of linguistic construction or grammatical properties and relations …. They explicate the reasoning of the speaker and the hearer in working out the correlation." In addition, non-native speakers' pragmatic competence development may help them in communicating "using language rules of use" in a particular context and situation. However, non-native speakers' pragmatic competence might or might not be manifested in their speaking performance.

There are two types of speaking performance: form or mechanical performance and content or interactional pragmatic performance. According to Jernigan (2007, p.15) form or mechanical performance is "the implementation of grammatical rules and accurate pronunciation," and content or interactional pragmatic performance is "the implementation of social and pragmatic norms of the language into practice when speaking." Therefore, it might be difficult to determine what to assess in terms of assessing form or assessing content in assessing oral performance (speaking).

In order to assess speaking performance, researchers such as Hughes (1989), Weir (1993), and Brown (2004) among others mentioned that interview is the most obvious format for the testing of oral interactions. Brown (2004, p. 167) stated that "when oral production assessment is mentioned, the first thing that comes to mind is an oral interview: test administrator and a test taker sit down in a direct face to face exchange and proceed through a protocol of questions and directives." Formal and informal interviews are used in assessing speaking performance. According to the public school of North Carolina (2001)

An interview is a strategy for gathering information.

Formal and informal interviews can be part of the

classroom. Informal interviews can be student or teacher-led. Formal interviews such as the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) or the Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview (SOPI) requires someone who has been trained and who is knowledgeable of the process. Formal evaluations are usual planned ahead of time, as teachers decide what they are going to look for and how they will record their observations. (p.12)

Different types of interview are used to assess speaking ability, such as the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) OPI, simulated oral proficiency interview (SOPI), computerized oral proficiency interview (COPI), the Foreign Service Institute interview (FSI), the TOEFL Academic Speaking Test (TAST, now iBT TOEFL), Versant for English, formerly Speaking English Test (SET) and Phone Pass in the United States, the International English Language System (IELTS) OPI, Common European Framework (CEF) speaking test in Europe, and the Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB) speaking test and Canadian Academic English Language Assessment (CAELA) OPI in Canada (Farhady, 2006).

Thus OPI might be considered as the most used techniques in assessing speaking performance. Concerning OPI's purpose, Swender (1999) and Public Schools of North Carolina (2001) and Jernigan (2007) among others claimed that OPI is suitable for a variety of academic, research and professional functions. Swender (1999, p. 502) stated

that "the application of (OPI) is limitless." According to (Yofee, 1977) the interview consists of five stages:

> The warm-up, level checks, probes, role-play, and wind-down. The role of the 'warm-up' is to put the interviewee at ease, to familiarize him/her with the pronunciation and way of speaking of the interviewer, and to generate topics which can be explored later in the interview. The 'level checks' allow the interviewee to demonstrate his/her ability to manipulate tasks and contexts at a particular level. If the interviewer is satisfied with the testee's sustained performance, an attempt will be made to discover the 'ceiling', i.e. to elicit response at the higher level. 'Probes', thus, makes the testee reveal a pattern of weaknesses. A 'role-play' serves as an additional check, to help the interviewer confirm the testee's level. The 'wind-down' brings the interviewer down to a level comfortable for the testee so as to end the OPI on a positive note (p.2).

Effective interviewing involves a variety of questions such as either/or questions, "wh" questions, hypothetical questions, and opinion questions. Another good technique to use is to have the student ask the questions, to role play, and to use visuals during the conversation. During the Oral Proficiency Interview, the student's proficiency is rated in accordance with rubric:

> Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) is among the most common types of oral proficiency assessment instrument used. In such instruments, the interactional and pragmatic competence of

learners is a significant element influencing how they are evaluated. This component of oral proficiency may take priority over grammatical competence, pronunciation, fluency, and other mechanical aspects in terms of the results of many types of assessments, yet teachers and testers may fail to recognize its importance. (Jernigan 2007, p. 8)

It has been mentioned above that in assessing speaking performance, different techniques are used. This study will focus on TOEFL Internet based test's (iBT) speaking section in order to assess speaking performance. TOEFL Internet based test (iBT), TOEFL iBT was introduced in late 2005 which has a different test design (Awake, Stricker&Oranje, 2008). TOEFL iBT consists of four sections: Reading, listening, speaking and writing. This study is concerned with the speaking section since, the speaking section deals with the students' oral performance:

The Speaking section consisted of six tasks. Two were independent tasks, which required examinees to express opinions on familiar topics. The other four were integrated tasks. Two of the four were Listening/Speaking tasks, which required examinees to listen to a short spoken text and then respond to it. The remaining two were Reading/Listening/Speaking tasks, which required examinees to read a short text, listen to a spoken text that pertained to the

reading text, and then respond about what they had read and heard. (Sawaki, Stricker & Oranje, 2008, p.8).

According to Xiaoming Xi (2008, p. 7), "The TOEFL iBT Speaking Section has been designed to measure a candidate's ability to communicate orally in English in an academic environment." The origin of version of the speaking section of the iBT of TOEFL was known as the TOEFL Academic Speaking Test (TAST). Farhady (2006) stated:

The TAST is designed to measure test takers' ability to speak clearly and fluently about both general topics and situations they typically encounter in an academic environment. In this test, administered by ETS as part of TOEFL, test takers demonstrate their ability to speak about personal experiences and preferences, and to speak about information they have just listened to or read. There are six speaking questions on different topics, and the test takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. Anyone who has access to a computer and/or phone can take the test. A new version of this test appears to be the speaking section of the iBT of TOEFL recently implemented around the world. (p.28)

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter will provide a description of the participants, the instruments used to collect data as well as the process of collecting the obtained data. The chapter will describe the procedures that have been adopted in order to obtain relevant data: students' pragmatic competence, and students' attitude towards communication with native speakers.

3.1 Selection of Participants

The participants of the research were 62 incoming students at American University of Armenia (AUA). Participants were heterogeneous with respect to gender, age, and educational background. The participants' first language was Armenian.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments

3.2.1 Pragmatic Competence Test

In order to test incoming students' pragmatic competence, a pragmatic competence test was prepared and used; this test focused on one speech act (request) and two subcategories: request for doing something (as in item no. 1,3, 6, 8, 9, 10, and 13) and request for information (as in item no.2, 4, 5, 7, 11, and 12). The test included thirteen items; each item was a scenario of real life situation. Scenarios were taken from: justification, development and validation of functional language testing that were specific to an academic situation (the relationship between student and professor, student and student) (Farhady, 1980). Each item had two responses: one was grammatically correct and pragmatically appropriate (the right response) and the other was grammatically correct and pragmatically inappropriate (the distracter). As previously mentioned in chapter one, pragmatic competence deals with power, social distance, imposition etc. The

focus on preparing the pragmatic appropriate response was on social distance (i.e.,

student/ professor (Higher Status) as in item no.1, 2, 8, 9, 10, and13, and friend/friend

(Equal Status) as in item no.3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, and 12). Five specific request conventions

such as: I was wondering if you …; would you mind-ing. Would it be possible to …; I

wonder if …; were connected with social distance/higher status. The other four request

conventions such as: Can you …? Will you …? Do you…? Did you…; were connected

with social distance/equal status. Those request conventions were taken from Fukuya &

Zhang (2002). Both responses for the test items were checked by instructors of the

Department of English Programs (DEP) at AUA. Both responses for the test items were

checked by five native speakers (instructor, student, and employee) at AUA. They were

given this test in order to check it in terms of pragmatic appropriateness. Fifteen native

speakers took the test and gave similar responses. Participants were given the thirteen

scenarios and asked how they would reply, as in the example below:

You are working on a mathematical problem. You think that you have solved it, but you

are not sure of your answer. You want to ask a math professor to check your answer.

What will you say to him?

a. Pragmatically appropriate and grammatically accurate.

b. Pragmatically inappropriate but grammatically accurate.

The value of '1' was given to the item that was answered correctly, and the value of '0'

was given to the item that was answered incorrectly. A sample of the test is illustrated in

Appendix (A).

3.2.2 iBT- Type Speaking Test

In order to test the incoming students' speaking performance, iBT test scores of the

speaking section were collected for the incoming students who took the iBT test. IBT-type speaking test was conducted for the incoming students who took the Paper-Based TOEFL (PBT) test. iBT- type speaking tests were conducted by the Department of English Programs (DEP) at AUA; it was done for the incoming students who took the PBT test, because the PBT does not include a speaking test. Two raters were testing and one student was tested at a time. Each test lasted for 10-15 minutes. The purpose of the test was to measure incoming students' ability to function in an academic situation. The content and the procedure of the test were similar to the iBT speaking section's questions. The test procedure was as follow: a. warm-up b. description c. opinion. A sample of the test questions is illustrated in appendix II. Interview rubrics are presented in Appendix (C).

3.2.3 Attitudinal Questionnaire

In order to collect information on understanding nonnative speakers' attitudes in communicating with native speakers, an attitudinal questionnaire was prepared. "Attitudes concern evaluative responses to a particular target (e.g., people, institution, and situation).They are deeply imbedded in the human mind, and are very often not the product of rational deliberation of facts-they can be rooted back in our past or modeled by certain significant people around us. For this reason, they are rather pervasive and resistant to change." Dörnyei (2003, p. 8). The questionnaire consisted of 8 open-ended questions. It discussed the following: The effect of TOEFL (**Paper-Based Test/ Internet-Based Test)** preparation on non- native students' communicative ability in real situation. The difficulties non- native students face in communicating with native speakers. The ability to achieve the goal of communication (i.e. request for doing

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something as in item no. 1,3, 6, 8, 9, 10, and 13, and request for information as in item no.2, 4, 5, 7, 11, and 12. The impact of the English learned at school on non- native students' communicative ability in real situation.

The questionnaire was distributed to 127 AUA incoming students (2010-2011) during the writing course. There was considerable subject attrition due to incompletely filled out questionnaire and irrelevant answers to the questions. The number of subjects who completed the questionnaire completely totaled 62. A sample of the questionnaire is presented in appendix (D).

3.3Procedure:

The first step was distributing pragmatic competence test among the incoming students for fall 2010 during the summer and fall writing course. The second step was distributing the attitudinal questionnaire among the participants, in order to find out their attitude towards communicating with native speakers. The third step was finding out the correlation between participants' iBT speaking section scores/ iBT- type speaking test scores and pragmatic competence scores. The fourth step was to analyze participants' attitude towards communicating with native speakers.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents the data analysis of this study. First, it presents the data analysis of the quantitative data. Second, it presents the data analysis of the qualitative data.

4.1. Data Analysis

4.1.1. Analysis of part one (quantitative data)

All data analysis was done using SPSS. A Pearson correlation coefficient analysis was used in order to find out the relationship between the first variable **pragmatic competence** which is represented by (pragmatic competence test scores) and the second variable **speaking performance** which is represented by iBT speaking section scores/ iBT- type speaking test scores. "Pearson product-moment coefficient is designed for interval level (continuous) variables. Pearson correlation coefficient (r) can only take on values from -1 to +1.this sign out the front indicates whether there is a positive correlation (as one variable increases, so too does the other) or a negative correlation (as one variable increases the other decreases). In addition, preliminary analysis for the correlation was done (generation of a scatter plot), the analysis revealed that that the distribution of data points suggests no correlation between the two variables, as the data points spread all over the place as seen in the table no.3

Table1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PT	11.2903	1.78690	62
Sp.T	5.6665E2	51.83963	62

Table 1

Table2. Correlation analysis

Correlations

		PT	Sp.T
PT	Pearson Correlation	1	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.390
	N	62	62
Sp.T	Pearson Correlation	.111	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.390	
	N	62	62

Table 2

Table 3 A Scatterplot graph of the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance.
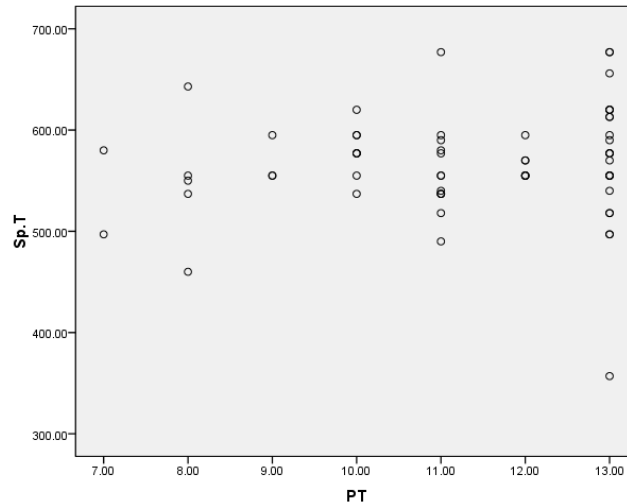
Table 3

4.1.2. Analysis of part two (qualitative data).

The qualitative data is represented by the attitudinal questionnaire (students' attitudes) towards communication with native speakers. In order to investigate what students' thought of their ability to communicate with native speakers, data from open-ended questions were coded and their frequencies were counted. Based on these results the data were analyzed. Question1. Did preparation for TOEFL (Paper- Based Test/Internet-Based Test) help you to communicate in real life? If the answer is 'Yes', could you please

explain how and why, Sixty-two students responded to this question. 37 students (59.7%)

answered negatively; 25 students (40.3%) answered positively with some comments.

Most of the positive answers concerned how TOEFL preparation helped them in

developing their listening skills, vocabulary, and their English grammar. A few

comments were about how TOEFL preparation helped in communication with English

speakers. The two extreme opinions were about how TOEFL preparation helped in

completing the test in a shorter period.

Table4. Analysis of qualitative data "question.1"

Statistics

Q.1

N	Valid	62
	Missing	0

Table 4

Q.1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	37	59.7	59.7	59.7
	yes	25	40.3	40.3	100.0
	Total	62	100.0	100.0	

Question2. Do you often face difficulty in communication with native speakers? If the

answer is 'Yes', could you please explain what kind of difficulty you face. Sixty- two

students responded to this question. 30 students (48.4%) answered negatively; 32

students (51.6%) answered positively with some comments. The majority of the

comments related to native speakers' accent, slang or spoken language that may not obey

grammar rules, and speed. Others related the fear of making mistakes and lacking the

right words.

Table5. Analysis of qualitative data "question.2"

Statistics

Q.2

N	Valid	62
	Missing	0

Q.2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	30	48.4	48.4	48.4
	yes	32	51.6	51.6	100.0
	Total	62	100.0	100.0	

Table 5

Question3. Do you often think that you might be misunderstood by native speaker? If the answer is 'Yes' could you explain why, the answers revealed very interesting and important data. Sixty- one students responded to the question. 44 students (72.1%) gave negative answers; 17students (27.9%) gave positive answers with some comments. The majority of the respondents thought that translation from their native language (Armenian) into the foreign language (English), lack of communication with native speakers, and lack of knowing the right expression might be reasons for being misunderstood by native speakers. Some respondents were aware that translating from their native language to the foreign language may cause their message not to be fully understood.

Table6. Analysis of qualitative data "question.3"

Statistics

Q.3

N	Valid	61
	Missing	1

Table 6

Q.3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	44	71.0	72.1	72.1
	yes	17	27.4	27.9	100.0
	Total	61	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.6		
Total		62	100.0		

Question4. Do you think that it is difficult to achieve your purpose (e.g., make a request) in communication with native speakers? If the answer is 'Yes' please explain why. Sixty students responded to the question. 51 students (85.0%) answered negatively. Only 9students (15.0%) answered positively with some comments. The difficulty the respondents explained was mostly due to the difference between Armenian and English languages regarding expression and degree of politeness in a specific situation. One of the positive responses was that it is easy to make a polite request obeying the grammar rules studied in school.

Table7. Analysis of qualitative data "question.4"

Statistics

Q.4

Q.4

N	Valid	60
	Missing	2

Table 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	51	82.3	85.0	85.0
	Yes	9	14.5	15.0	100.0
	Total	60	96.8	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.2		
Total		62	100.0		

Question5. Do you think that English learned at school is enough for communication? If not please explain why? Sixty- one students responded to the question. 49 students (80.3%) answered negatively with some comments. Most of the negative responses were about the lack of practice in speaking and listening, and the lack of a proficient English teacher. English instruction at school included mainly grammatical theory, which is not

sufficient for communication. 12 students (19.7%) answered positively with some

comments; for them the English learned at school was enough for communication.

Table8. Analysis of qualitative data "question.5"

Statistics

Q.5

N	Valid	61
	Missing	1

Q.5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	49	79.0	80.3	80.3
	yes	12	19.4	19.7	100.0
	Total	61	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.6		
Total		62	100.0		

 Question6. Would it happen that you don't speak even if you have enough information

about the subject? If 'Yes' please explain why**.** Fifty- seven students responded to the

question, twenty -nine students (50.9%) answered negatively. In contrast, 28 students

(49.1%) answered positively with some comments. Some responses concerned the

difficulty the students' face in expressing their thoughts in English, other responses

regarded the lack of appropriate words and vocabulary. Some irrelevant responses

concerned personality traits and the interest in the subject.

Table9. Analysis of qualitative data "question.6"

Statistics

Q.6

N	Valid	57
	Missing	5

Table 9

Q.6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	29	46.8	50.9	50.9
	yes	28	45.2	49.1	100.0
	Total	57	91.9	100.0	
Missing	System	5	8.1		
Total		62	100.0		

Question7. Are you more careful when communicating with your professor than with your friend? If the answer is 'Yes' please explain why. Sixty- two students responded to the question. 9 students (14.5%) answered negatively; 53 students (85.5%) answered positively with some comments. The largest number of comments concerned being more formal and not making mistakes in communicating with a professor than with a friend. Others were aware of the differences in communicating with a professor and with a friend regarding the age of and the relationship with a professor or with a friend.

Table10. Analysis of qualitative data "question.7"

Statistics

Q.7

N	Valid	62
	Missing	0

Table 10

Q.7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	9	14.5	14.5	14.5
	yes	53	85.5	85.5	100.0
	Total	62	100.0	100.0	

Question8. Do you feel more comfortable to speak in class discussion than in social situation? If the answer is 'Yes' please explain why. Fifty- nine students responded to the question.39 students (66.1%) answered negatively; (20 students (33.9%) answered positively with some comments. Most of the comments concerned being familiar with: the subject, words, expressions, and peers in classroom discussion. Others concerned being more comfortable with friends who understand each other easily than with a professor. One response concerned being more comfortable in social discussion than in class discussion.

Table11. Analysis of qualitative data "question.8"

Q.8

Statistics

Q.8

N	Valid	59
	Missing	3

Table 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	39	62.9	66.1	66.1
	Yes	20	32.3	33.9	100.0
	Total	59	95.2	100.0	
Missing	System	3	4.8		
Total		62	100.0		

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the discussion and the conclusion of this study. First, it discusses the result of the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance and the reasons behind the analysis result. Second, it discusses the result of the implementation of the questionnaire and the reasons behind the analysis result. In addition it discusses the limitation of the study, and suggestions for further research. It has been mentioned before that; non –native speakers need more than grammatical competence in communicating with native speakers. They need to develop pragmatic competence, in order to maintain and achieve the purpose of the conversation. . Fraser, Rintell, and Walters (1980, p. 76) define pragmatic competence as "the knowledge of how to use the linguistic competence in a social context."

As pragmatics deals with performance of language, the development of pragmatic competence help non-native speakers to develop speaking performance. According to Jernigan (2007, p.15), "the ability to use spoken language to interact with others in socially acceptable ways is an essential element of overall communicative competence and, thus, oral proficiency".

However, non- native speakers' pragmatic competence may not be manifested in their speaking performance. Reasons may relate to the fear of making mistakes or being not familiar with social discussion.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance.

5.1 The Relationship between Pragmatic Competence and speaking performance.

5.1.1 Results

  The null hypothesis was "there is no correlation between pragmatic competence and speaking performance". The analysis of the relationship between pragmatic competence and speaking performance yielded the following results: there is no correlation between students' pragmatic competence and speaking performance. The results of correlation analysis revealed that the value of the sample correlation coefficient is small, 0.111, n=62, and p-value=0.39, which is not less than the significance level of 0.05. This means that the true unknown coefficient of correlation is zero. So the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

5.1.2 Reasons

 Some reasons might be behind the result analysis: The students' responses may have been influenced by their attempt to guess and meet researcher expectation. The students fear that the answers to the question might influence AUA evaluation. The test consists of thirteen scenarios which might be too long and might lead the respondents to the end and to some irrelevant response. Incomplete answers and names have influenced the result of the study.

5.2 The implementation of the Questionnaire.

5.2.1 Results

  The analysis of the questionnaire yielded the following results: Students' preparation for TOEFL has more contribution in developing their listening skill, vocabulary and English grammar, than speaking skill and communication. Participants face the difficulty of communicating experience in real life situation. Participants mostly use translating strategy (from their native language to the foreign language), which might lead for being

misunderstood by native speaker of the foreign language. Some Armenian students are aware of the differences between Armenian and American cultures, rules of language use, and degree of politeness; however, they lack the appropriate words and expressions in particular situations. Most Armenian schools lack experienced English teachers. Most Armenian schools focus on developing grammatical skill of the students. Most Armenian students face the difficulty of expressing their thoughts in communication, which might lead to the silence during the communication. Some students are aware of the difference between communicating with a professor and a friend in terms of (formality, politeness, difference in age and status). Some of Armenian students are more comfortable in class discussion than in real life situation due to the familiar subject, vocabulary, expression and peers.

5.2.2 Reasons

Some reasons might be behind the result analysis: The students' responses may have been influenced by their attempt to guess and meet researcher expectation. The students fear that the answers to the question might influence AUA evaluation. Students might have assessed themselves not in absolute term but relative to their peers. The questionnaire consists of eight questions which required explanation, which might be too long and might lead the respondents to the end and to some irrelevant response. Incomplete answers and names have influenced the result of the study.

5.3 Conclusion

It has been mentioned above that the aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between pragmatic competence and their speaking performance. This study shows that there is no correlation between pragmatic competence and speaking performance. Students' pragmatic competence is not totally reflected in their speaking performance.

This study also shows that students may need training in order to enrich their pragmatic knowledge of the target language. In addition, the fear of making mistakes or not being familiar with social discussion, were some of the difficulties participants faced in communicating with native speakers.

5.4 Limitations of the research

The limited number of the native speaker responses due to the foreign language settings, and the limited number of participants did not allow generalization to be made in relation to all students in Armenia. The result of the study may not be applicable to other institute due to the fact that some of the participants (who didn't take iBT) have been tested by iBT- Type Speaking Test (TST).

5.5 Suggestions for further research

It has been mentioned that, the implementation of the test and the questionnaire was during the writing course, and the implementation emphasized that the details provided by the participants are anonymous. However, the fear of the effectiveness of the test and questionnaires' results on students 'performance were the reason behind the preservation concerning providing full information. Further study should emphasize the importance of providing full information, which allows gaining more participants and better understanding of the aim of the study. Moreover, study might investigate the effect of teaching pragmatic on L2 learners' achievement. Study might investigate the relationship between gender (male/female) pragmatic competence and general language proficiency. Finally, research regarding instruction versus experience in language teaching is needed.

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Appendix (A) pragmatic test:

Choose 'a' or 'b' that would best fit the following situations:

1. You are working on a chemistry problem. You think that you have solved it, but you are not sure of your answer. You want to ask a chemistry professor, whom you don't know well, to check your answer. What will you say to him?

   a. **Professor Brown, I am working on this problem, and I was wondering if you could check the answer.**
   b. **Professor Brown, can you check the answer to the problem that I am working on?**

2. You are looking for an article entitled 'Education in Asia'; you want to inquire a professor, whom you don't know well, whether he knows where to find it. What will you say to him?

   a. **Professor Smith, can you help me find the article ' Education in Asia'?**
   b. **Prof. Smith, I am looking for an article entitled 'Education in Asia', and I was wondering if you could help me find it.**

3. A friend in your class is going to photocopy an article. You want to ask him to make an extra copy for you. What will you say to him?

   a. **Tina, can you make an extra copy for me?**
   b. **Tina, I need a copy of this article, and I wonder if you could make an extra one.**

4. You want to photocopy an article, but you do not know how much it will cost. You want to inquire a classmate friend whether he knows the price. What will you say to him?

   a. **Do you know how much it costs to photocopy this article?**
   b. **I need to photocopy this article, and I wonder if you know how much it costs.**

5. You are supposed to write a paper for a course, but you do not know when it is due. You want to inquire whether a friend knows the date. What will you say to him?

    a. **We are supposed to write a paper, would it be possible to tell me when it is due?**
    b. **Do you know when our paper is due?**

6. You have written a paper entitled 'Learning a Foreign Language' you want to ask your classmate friend to read and comment on your paper before you hand it in. what will you say to him?

    a. **Tom, can you read and comment on my paper before I hand it to the professor?**
    b. **Tom, I've written a paper, and I wonder if you could read and comment on it before I hand it to the professor.**

7. You want to mail a letter to Australia, but you do not know how much postage you need. You want to inquire whether a friend knows the price. What will you say to him?
    a. **I want to mail a letter to Australia, would you mind telling me how much postage I need?**
    b. **Do you know how much postage I need to mail this letter to Australia?**

    8. You are writing a paper about science. You want to inquire a professor in the science department, whom you do not know well, whether he knows of any references for your topic. What will you say to him?

    a. **Professor Carter, I am writing a science paper, and I was wondering if you could recommend any references.**
    b. **Professor Carter, will you recommend some references for the science paper I am writing?**

9. You are working on a physical problem. You think that the problem can be solved by using three different formulas, but you get different answers when using these three formulas. You want to ask a physic professor, whom you do not know well, to check your answers what will you say to him?

    a. **Professor Smith, I got different answers using these three formulas to solve this problem, and I was wondering if you could check them.**

    b. **Professor Smith, can you check the different answers I got using these three formulas to solve this problem?**

10. You are looking for a book, "Cancer and Smoking". You have been told that a professor in the school of medicine, whom you don't know well, has a copy of the book. You go to that professor, whom you do not know well, and want to ask him to lend you the book for a few days. What will you say to him?

    a. **Professor White, I have been unable to find the book "Censer and Smoking", and I was wondering if I could borrow your copy for a couple of days.**
    b. **Professor White, can I borrow your book "Censer and Smoking" for a couple of days?**

11. You did not fully understand a part of a lecture. You want to inquire whether your classmate friend understood that part. What will you say to him?

    a. **I did not understand the last part of the lecture, and I was wondering if you did.**
    b. **Did you understand the last part of the lecture? I did not understand it.**

12. In a large class, your professor mentions the name of a scientist that you did not know. You want to inquire whether your friend knows the scientist. What will you say?

a. **I do not know the scientist that the professor mentioned. Would it be possible to know who the scientist is?**
b. **Do you know who the scientist that the professor mentioned is?**

13. You have prepared the final report for a linguistic project. You want to ask a language professor, whom you don't know well, to read and comment on your report before you hand it in. What will you say to him?

   a. Professor Wood, will you read and comment on my report before I hand it in?
   b. Professor Wood, I'm working on this report, and I was wondering if you could read and comment on it before I hand it in.

Appendix (B) "sample of the interview"

Speaking Script

1. **Warm-up questions.**

   Tell us a little bit about yourself.

     Where did you grow up?

   What did you study at university?

   What are your career plans?

2. **Description. (A minute to prepare)**
   You may repeat the same questions in two consecutive interviews, but then you must use new questions for subsequent interviews.

Describe the person you most admire and explain why.

 Describe what you like best and least about your neighborhood.

 Describe a movie that had an impact on you and explain why.

Describe a country you would like to live in and explain why.

Describe a job that you would not like to do and explain why not.

Discuss a piece of good advice you have received, and explain why it is important to you.

3. **Opinion (you have a minute to prepare)**
   You may repeat the same question in two consecutive interviews, but then you must use new questions for subsequent interviews.

In many countries, smoking in all public places is banned. In your opinion, would this be a good policy in Armenia?

Many believe that education should be free of charge at all levels. Do you agree or disagree with this view?

Some say that protecting the environment should be our number one concern. Do you agree or disagree with this view?

Many people in Armenia believe that Armenia's future lies with Europe. Do you agree or disagree with this view?

Some say that life today is better than it was 100 years ago. Others think things were better in the past. Which view do you agree with and why?

Appendix (C) "rubric for the interview"

iBT/Next Generation TOEFL Test
Independent Speaking Rubrics (Scoring Standards)

Score	General Description	Delivery	Language Use	Topic Development
4	The response fulfills the demands of the task, with at most minor lapses in completeness. It is highly intelligible and exhibits sustained, coherent discourse. A response at this level is characterized by all of the following:	Generally well-paced flow (fluid expression). Speech is clear. It may include minor lapses, or minor difficulties with pronunciation or intonation patterns, which do not affect overall intelligibility.	The response demonstrates effective use of grammar and vocabulary. It exhibits a fairly high degree of automaticity with good control of basic and complex structures (as appropriate). Some minor (or systematic) errors are noticeable but do not obscure meaning.	Response is sustained and sufficient to the task. It is generally well developed and coherent; relationships between ideas are clear (or clear progression of ideas).
3	The response addresses the task appropriately, but may fall short of being fully developed. It is generally intelligible and coherent, with some fluidity of expression though it exhibits some noticeable lapses in the expression of ideas. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is generally clear, with some fluidity of expression, though minor difficulties with pronunciation, intonation, or pacing are noticeable and may require listener effort at times (though overall intelligibility is not significantly affected).	The response demonstrates fairly automatic and effective use of grammar and vocabulary, and fairly coherent expression of relevant ideas. Response may exhibit some imprecise or inaccurate use of vocabulary or grammatical structures or be somewhat limited in the range of structures used. This may affect overall fluency, but it does not seriously interfere with the communication of the message.	Response is mostly coherent and sustained and conveys relevant ideas/information. Overall development is somewhat limited, usually lacks elaboration or specificity. Relationships between ideas may at times not be immediately clear.
2	The response addresses the task, but development of the topic is limited. It contains intelligible speech, although problems with delivery and/or overall coherence occur; meaning may be obscured in places. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is basically intelligible, though listener effort is needed because of unclear articulation, awkward intonation, or choppy rhythm/pace; meaning may be obscured in places.	The response demonstrates limited range and control of grammar and vocabulary. These limitations often prevent full expression of ideas. For the most part, only basic sentence structures are used successfully and spoken with fluency. Structures and vocabulary may express mainly simple (short) and/or general propositions, with simple or unclear connections made among them (serial listing, conjunction, juxtaposition).	The response is connected to the task, though the number of ideas presented or the development of ideas is limited. Mostly basic ideas are expressed with limited elaboration (details and support). At times relevant substance may be vaguely expressed or repetitious. Connections of ideas may be unclear.
1	The response is very limited in content and/or coherence or is only minimally connected to the task, or speech is largely unintelligible. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Consistent pronunciation, stress, and intonation difficulties cause considerable listener effort; delivery is choppy, fragmented, or telegraphic; frequent pauses and hesitations.	Range and control of grammar and vocabulary severely limit (or prevent) expression of ideas and connections among ideas. Some low-level responses may rely heavily on practiced or formulaic expressions.	Limited relevant content is expressed. The response generally lacks substance beyond expression of very basic ideas. Speaker may be unable to sustain speech to complete the task and may rely heavily on repetition of the prompt.
0	Speaker makes no attempt to respond OR response is unrelated to the topic.			

iBT/Next Generation TOEFL Test
Integrated Speaking Rubrics (Scoring Standards)

Score	General Description	Delivery	Language Use	Topic Development
4	The response fulfills the demands of the task, with at most minor lapses in completeness. It is highly intelligible and exhibits sustained, coherent discourse. A response at this level is characterized by all of the following:	Speech is generally clear, fluid, and sustained. It may include minor lapses or minor difficulties with pronunciation or intonation. Pace may vary at times as the speaker attempts to recall information. Overall intelligibility remains high.	The response demonstrates good control of basic and complex grammatical structures that allow for coherent, efficient (automatic) expression of relevant ideas. Contains generally effective word choice. Though some minor (or systematic) errors or imprecise use may be noticeable, they do not require listener effort (or obscure meaning).	The response presents a clear progression of ideas and conveys the relevant information required by the task. It includes appropriate detail, though it may have minor errors or minor omissions.
3	The response addresses the task appropriately, but may fall short of being fully developed. It is generally intelligible and coherent, with some fluidity of expression, though it exhibits some noticeable lapses in the expression of ideas. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is generally clear, with some fluidity of expression, but it exhibits minor difficulties with pronunciation, intonation, or pacing and may require some listener effort at times. Overall intelligibility remains good, however.	The response demonstrates fairly automatic and effective use of grammar and vocabulary, and fairly coherent expression of relevant ideas. Response may exhibit some imprecise or inaccurate use of vocabulary or grammatical structures or be somewhat limited in the range of structures used. Such limitations do not seriously interfere with the communication of the message.	The response is sustained and conveys relevant information required by the task. However, it exhibits some incompleteness, inaccuracy, lack of specificity with respect to content, or choppiness in the progression of ideas.
2	The response is connected to the task, though it may be missing some relevant information or contain inaccuracies. It contains some intelligible speech, but at times problems with intelligibility and/or overall coherence may obscure meaning. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Speech is clear at times, though it exhibits problems with pronunciation, intonation, or pacing and so may require significant listener effort. Speech may not be sustained at a consistent level throughout. Problems with intelligibility may obscure meaning in places (but not throughout).	The response is limited in the range and control of vocabulary and grammar demonstrated (some complex structures may be used, but typically contain errors). This results in limited or vague expression of relevant ideas and imprecise or inaccurate connections. Automaticity of expression may only be evident at the phrasal level.	The response conveys some relevant information but is clearly incomplete or inaccurate. It is incomplete if it omits key ideas, makes vague reference to key ideas, or demonstrates limited development of important information. An inaccurate response demonstrates misunderstanding of key ideas from the stimulus. Typically, ideas expressed may not be well connected or cohesive so that familiarity with the stimulus is necessary to follow what is being discussed.
1	The response is very limited in content or coherence or is only minimally connected to the task. Speech may be largely unintelligible. A response at this level is characterized by at least two of the following:	Consistent pronunciation and intonation problems cause considerable listener effort and frequently obscure meaning. Delivery is choppy, fragmented, or telegraphic. Speech contains frequent pauses and hesitations.	Range and control of grammar and vocabulary severely limit (or prevent) expression of ideas and connections among ideas. Some very low-level responses may rely on isolated words or short utterances to communicate ideas.	The response fails to provide much relevant content. Ideas that are expressed are often inaccurate, limited to vague utterances, or repetitions (including repetition of prompt).
0	Speaker makes no attempt to respond OR response is unrelated to the topic.			

Appendix (D) attitude questionnaire

Dear students:

I am conducting this survey in order to collect information on non-native speakers' problem in communicating with native speaker.

This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers. You do not have to write your name on it if you do not want to.

I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions concerning your attitude and feeling towards communicating with native speakers
 Please give your answer sincerely .Thank you very much for your help.

You may contact me at dina_iskenderian@yahoo.com ,

deena_iskenderian@aua.am or rcarter@aua.am

Example for answering the questionnaire

One thing that I liked about studying at AUA is:

 Research –based study.

Could you please provide me with the information below (it is optional).

Family name, name	
Gender	
Age	
Nationality	
Major(AUA department) **(TEFL,LLM,CIS,IESM,PSIA,MBA)**	
Did you have a Tutor for TOEFL (paper-based test/internet –based test)? If the answer is 'yes', please write for how long.	

Questionnaire:

1. **Did preparation for the TOEFL (Paper -Based Test / Internet- Based Test (iBT)) help you to communicate in real life? If the answer is 'Yes', could you please explain how and why?**

2. **Do you often face difficulty in communicating with native speakers? If the answer is 'yes', could you please explain what kind of difficulty you face?**

3. **Do you often think that you might be misunderstood by native speakers? If the answer is 'Yes', could you please explain why?**

4. **Do you think that it is difficult to achieve your purpose (e.g., make a request for something) in communicating with native speakers? If the answer is 'yes' could you please explain why?**

5. **Do you think that the English you learned at school is enough for communication? If' not' please explain why.**

6. **Would it happen that you don't speak even if you have information about the subject? If 'yes' could please explain why?**

7. **Are you more careful when communicating with your professor than with your friend? If the answer is 'yes', could you please explain why?**

8. **Do you feel more comfortable to speak in class discussion than in social situation? If the answer is 'yes' could you please explain why?**

Thank you for your help
Good luck