Evaluating the Metalanguage of Pragmatics Content of Selected Listening and Speaking Textbooks

A Thesis Submitted in the English Language Department in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master’s Degree in Applied Linguistics

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تقييم اللغة المعرفة لمحتوى المعلومات التداولية (البراجماتية) في كتب الاستماع والمحادثة لتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية

قدمت هذه الرسالة استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في علم اللغويات التطبيقية في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، كلية الآداب، جامعة الملك سعود.

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Abstract

The study investigated the quality and quantity of the pragmatics content of two ELT listening and speaking textbooks, namely, *Interactions 1* and *Interactions 2* in the exercises and how such aspects are presented through meta-language. The choice of textbooks was based on the fact that listening and speaking involve oral communication and hence the use of pragmatics, with emphasis on language use. The selected textbooks vary according to proficiency level from intermediate to upper-intermediate. The study used a descriptive content analysis technique and the framework used to analyze the style of metalanguage found in the textbooks was adopted from Vellenga (2004) in which each piece of pragmatic element found in the books was labeled as either explicit and/or implicit metalanguage. A survey was designed to elicit teachers’ perception of the textbooks’ pragmatic content and whether or not teachers supplement the textbooks with materials related to pragmatics and communication. The results showed that the quantity of pragmatic aspects in the textbooks is somewhat low, while the quality of the pragmatic exercises and metalanguage was promising but could be improved. The pragmatic concepts that appeared most often in the textbooks were reference and inference, discourse and culture, speech acts and politeness. Presupposition and implicature were rarely found and deixis was not found in either textbook. The study also concluded that there was not enough pragmatic metalanguage in the textbooks considering the number of pages analyzed. However, the analysis showed that the amount of pragmatic aspects increased from *Interactions 1* to *Interactions 2*, and the majority of the pragmatic exercises in the textbooks are designed as pair or group work, where the students are required to communicate with each other to practice the language. Finally, teachers mainly commented that supplementing the textbooks with outside materials to cover aspects of pragmatics in the classroom is rather hard due to syllabus constraints, the number of students, and the students’ language level and the type of assessment.
ملخص الدراسة

هدف الدراسة إلى التحقق من من نوعية وكمية المحتوى التداولي (البراغماتي) الموجود في التمارين وطريقة عرضه من خلال اللغة المعرفية كتابين لتعليم مهارتي الإستماع والمحادثة باللغة الإنجليزية: 2, وتم اختيار الكتب استنادا إلى حقيقة أن التواصل يشمل الإستماع والتحدث وبالتالي استخدام التدريبات مع التركيز على اللغة، كما أن هذين الكتابين خالفان وفقاً لمستوى اللغة من المرحلة المتوسطة إلى المرحلة الأعلى من المتوسطة. واستخدمت الدراسة أسلوب تحليل وصفي للمحتوى، كما اعتمدت على إطار فالنجا (2004) لتحليل نوعية اللغة المعرفة والتي وصفت بأنها قد تكون لغة معرفة واضحة أو لغة معرفة ضمنية. بالإضافة لتحليل محتوى الكتب تم تصميم استبان لمرسومات هذه الكتب لمعرفة إذا كانت الكتب تامل بها ما إذا كان يكملون الكتب بمواد ذات صلة بالتدائليات وال التواصل.

أظهرت النتائج بأن كمية الجوانب التداولية في الكتب منخفضة نوعاً ما، بينما كانت نوعية التمارين التداولية واللغة المعرفة واعدة ومن الممكن تحسينها، وثبيب من الدراسة بأن المفاهيم التداولية الأكثر وجوداً في الكتب هي الإنساب والاستدلال والخطاب التداولي والثقافة والأفعال الكلامية والكياسة، بينما ندر وجود كل من الإقتراضية والاستلزام الحواري، في حين لم تكن الإشاريات موجودة في أي من الكتابين. وتوصلت الدراسة أيضاً إلى أن اللغة المعرفة التداولية في الكتب غير كافية مقارنة بعدد الصفحات في كلا الكتابين و أن كمية الجوانب التداولية تزداد مع الإنتقال من الكتاب الأول إلى الكتاب الثاني، كما أن غالبية التمارين التداولية الموجودة في الكتب المدرسية صممت بشكل يفرض على الطلاب التحدث مع بعضهم البعض لممارسة اللغة. وأخيراً توصلت الدراسة إلى أن تكميل الكتب بمواد خارجية لتغطية الجوانب التداولية صعب نظراً لضيق الوقت وعدد الطلاب ومستوى الطلاب اللغوي ونوعية التقييم.
Dedicated

To the light of my life: Mom & Dad

For their endless love, support and encouragement
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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

Textbooks are undoubtedly the most important components of any educational system and the onset of the students’ learning experience. In the second language context, textbooks present an inter phase between the students and the target language. Research in many countries and in different contexts has shown that textbooks have an important influence on teaching and learning (Altbach, 1991, Abdel Latif, 2012), and they play an important role in English Language Teaching (ELT), particularly in the EFL classroom where it provides the primary, perhaps only, form of linguistic input (Kim & Hall, 2002).

The basic goal of learning a foreign language is to be able to express oneself competently and to communicate using the target language. In order for communication to succeed, the learner has to have not only knowledge of the grammar, syntax, semantics and phonology of the language in question, but also an understanding of the discourse and pragmatics of the target language. Zohreh and Eslami-Rasekh (2008) state that fluent and proficient language use necessitates the crucial development of pragmatic knowledge, and some of the pragmatic strategies can be transferred directly from the learner's first language (L1), if they are similar. However, some other pragmatic principles and conventions in L1 and a foreign language may differ radically, and therefore need to be consciously learned and practised. As international and cross-cultural communication in the English language has increasingly become a part of everyday life, pragmatic competence is now an important component a learner must acquire in the second language, as knowledge of pragmatics allows the learner to understand and use
the language in different contexts accordingly. Thus, teaching and learning pragmatic skills alongside other linguistic aspects should be included as one of the objectives of English language teaching in formal education.

In Saudi Arabia, English language teaching mostly comprises a non-native language teacher, a fairly large classroom full of Arab learners with very dissimilar aptitudes and attitudes, and the use of language textbooks imported mainly from the United Kingdom or the United States. The books are often aptly labeled as either *English as a Second Language* or *English as a Foreign Language* textbooks and cover the major skills of the English language, namely Reading, Writing, Grammar, and Listening and Speaking. The content of the pragmatics component of an EFL textbook, that is the way the language is used outside the classroom, may be questionable as this particular skill has never received much attention. In the context of Saudi Arabia, it may be unsuitable because the books are developed outside the country, by language practitioners in other contexts and situations.

Teaching materials should play an integral role in offering students a model of real-life language use because usually the main reason for acquiring a language is to use it. Boxer and Pickering (1995, p. 56) states this best, as follows: "only through materials that reflect how we really speak, rather than how we think we speak, will language learners receive an accurate account of the rules of speaking in a second or foreign language." The presentation of language in teaching (including grammatical forms and conversational norms) is tricky and problematic at best when invented scripts and intuition are used to produce and explain language samples.

Although language teachers generally have the opportunity to develop their own teaching materials to suit their learners, the most commonly used materials are
commercially published textbooks, as they are also the most convenient and easily accessible. Vellenga (2004) aptly points out that the textbook is often the very center of the curriculum and syllabus. This being the case, textbooks should be carefully designed, to make sure that they are perfectly in line with the learning objectives, one of which is communicating effectively.

Through the influence of communicative language teaching (CLT), communicative competence, which primarily includes pragmatic competence, has become part of the primary goals of language education. Pragmatic competence is part of a person's overall communicative competence, a term credited to Hymes (1971), who is concerned with adding a sociocultural dimension to linguistic theory. In Hymes’ view, speakers of a language need to have more than grammatical competence in order to communicate effectively in a language. They also need to know how the language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes. Hymes states there are rules that form the metalanguage knowledge of the speaker and without these rules, the speaker would not be able to use the language. In his model of communicative competence, Hymes presents four parameters that describe the conditions relevant to all communicative situations: knowledge of (1) what is possible, (2) what is feasible, (3) what is appropriate, and (4) what is actually done. He further adds that knowledge of these parameters is a crucial part of communicative competence, and the ability to use language appropriately depends on each of them.

In the thesis, metalanguage refers to the explicit use of language terms or symbols when language itself is being discussed or examined (Vellenga, 2004). An example is when we say “Nouns refer to objects or things”, the word “Nouns” is a metalanguage as it describes language and it is explicit instruction. In grammar instruction, most English language books are abound with explicit rules and exercises of each of the grammar unit.
However, in the socio-pragmatic area of actual language use, this is usually not the case (Othman, 2010). If metalanguage is the major medium in conveying instruction of grammar, reading or writing units, it is also important in the pragmatic instruction of EFL, since it provides explicit mention of the unit concerned and makes the learners immediately aware of the structures and strategies in the English language. This would further enable them to compare the differences between the target language and their L1.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Textbooks play a vital role in language teaching in EFL classrooms as they offer the primary form of linguistic input, but they may not always offer sufficient information for learners to successfully acquire the language well enough to use it (Kim and Hall, 2002; Vellenga, 2004). In spite of a decade of complaints of the insufficiency of textbook language (Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig 1992; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Cane, 1998; Grant & Starks, 2001; Wong, 2001), little seems to have changed in the authenticity of language samples. Bardovi-Harlig states that "it is important to recognize, that, in general, textbooks cannot be counted on as a reliable source of pragmatic input for classroom language learners" (1992, p. 25). Criticism is directed primarily to the exclusion or neglect of authentic language samples in language textbooks. Researchers argue that language samples in textbooks need to more closely approximate results found in studies of conversation analysis. Generally, pragmatic rules regulating native speakers’ speech act performance are intuitive, and therefore necessitate analysis of naturally occurring language samples, just as presentation of grammatical forms necessitates analysis of authentic language (Biber & Reppen, 2002; Garcia, 2004).

This, further, points to the inadequacy of the ELT classroom, and textbook, in developing the students’ metalanguage knowledge and pragmatic competence. English language textbooks are often academic and aimed at developing EFL students' overall linguistic
competence, especially when the language is necessary for further education, thus placing extra emphasis on reading, writing and grammar. In her study of past research on English language teaching as reflected in the topics presented at ELT conferences, Othman (2010) found that educators focused much more on reading, writing and grammar than anything else in the English language classroom. Listening, speaking and communication were not of much interest as shown in the corpus of research investigated in her study. The focus on the reading and writing skills may be misguided because the common complaint has always been that ESL students show inability in carrying out effective communication; this would indicate their lack of pragmatic competence in the English language, pointing the finger directly to the lack of pragmatics teaching in the English language classroom. This should be addressed by the English language teacher when teaching, as well as textbook developers when designing course materials.

To help students develop their English communicative skills, EFL textbooks need to incorporate the teaching of skills along the lines of pragmatics and communication as much as possible, especially in textbooks that focus on Listening and Speaking. There is little knowledge on how well or how effective pragmatic aspects of language are incorporated in EFL textbooks in general. Further, research in the adequacy of textbooks to provide pragmatic/communicative components and practices that are reflections of authentic conversation is lacking. In general, research has found that ELT textbooks rarely include adequate or comprehensible explanations of how conversation works in English, particularly in context (Berry, 2000; Burns, 1998; Cane, 1998; Grant & Starks, 2001).

1.3. Significance of the Study
The significance of the study stems from the following points:

1. The study would shed additional light on the teaching of pragmatics and communication strategies in the Saudi English language classroom to enhance communicative skills.

2. The study would provide an evaluation of selected ELT textbooks in its incorporation of pragmatics content and contribute to the field of ELT textbooks and ELT materials development and evaluation.

3. It could help syllabus designers modify English language syllabi to include pragmatics to the language teaching and learning content and to improve the quality of their presentations in ELT textbooks in this linguistic area.

4. The research would also be a valuable resource for teachers who are interested to develop their own teaching materials to include the teaching of pragmatics to suit their students.

5. It fills the research gap that exists in the content analysis of textbooks, particularly in the pragmatics component in an EFL setting, particularly within the Saudi context.

6. No content analyses have been carried out on the books under study in terms of its pragmatics content.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The study investigated the pragmatics content of the Listening and Speaking textbooks used at the Department of English in the College of Languages and Translation in King Saud University. The textbooks under study were the *Interactions: Listening and Speaking* 1 and 2: the Gold edition. The choice of these particular textbooks is obvious: listening and speaking are the major communicative aspects of language and, therefore,
students should be exposed to the essential pragmatics component to develop their conversational skills in the target language. Therefore, we expected to see substantial focus on communicative and pragmatic strategies in these books.

The evaluation was based on a micro-analysis and centered on the pragmatic metalanguage and the pragmatic input in the exercises in terms of quantity and quality of material. “Quantity” here refers to how much and how often pragmatic elements are presented. In the study, tokens of pragmatic units presented explicitly and implicitly will be traced and formed the data for frequency counts. “Quality”, on the other hand, refers to types of pragmatic units focused in the textbooks, e.g., request strategies, and presentation styles, whether the units are explicitly instructed via metalanguage or implicitly included as part of other linguistic strategies. The study also compared the quality and quantity of the pragmatic aspects in accordance with the book level from intermediate to upper intermediate.

1.5. Research Questions

The research was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the types of pragmatic elements explicitly taught via metalanguage in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

2. What are the types of pragmatic elements implicitly presented in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

3. What is the frequency of each of the pragmatic elements presented in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

4. What kinds of exercises are found in the textbooks to situate the pragmatic features for students to practise their communicative skills?
5. Do teachers incorporate, modify, and supplement course texts in terms of pragmatic exercises and metalanguage?

1.6. Delimitations of the Study

The study analyzed the content of two EFL textbooks: Interactions: Listening and Speaking 1 and 2: The Gold Edition. Only the students' textbooks formed the basis of content analysis. The books were analyzed from a communicative and pragmatic viewpoint. Thus, results are not generalizable to all forms of English language teaching and learning textbooks. Data for the questionnaire came from teachers from the English Translation Department and the Language Units in the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University. Therefore, they do not represent the viewpoints of other lecturers who might have used the books in a different manner and capacity.

1.7. Definitions of the Study Terms

**Content analysis (CA):** It is a research method that strives to make valid and reliable inferences from the content of the examined texts (Krippendorf 2004, p.18).

**Metalanguage:** It is language or symbols used when language itself is being discussed or examined. The framework for analyzing the style of metalanguage is adopted from Vellenga (2004) and edited to fit the purpose of this study. Each piece of pragmatic metalanguage is identified and labeled as either explicit and or implicit metalanguage. These two categories are classified into four subcategories: explicit category (instructional and descriptive metalanguage), and implicit category (introductive and task-related metalanguage).

**Descriptive metalanguage:** It means all language that explicitly mentions a pragmatic language item and focuses on describing it; what it is like, how it is usually used and in what kind of situations. (Vellenga, 2004)
**Instructional metalanguage**: It refers to language that gives explicit instructions on the functions and formation of the specific pragmatic aspect. (Vellenga, 2004)

**Introductive metalanguage**: It refers to any implicit language that seemed to prepare students for some activity by focusing their attention on a particular topic or theme. (Vellenga, 2004)

**Task-related metalanguage**: It is implicit language that refers to a certain exercise and focuses the students' attention to the pragmatic aspects of the task. (Vellenga, 2004)

**Pragmatics**: It is a branch of linguistics concerned with the communicative use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language. According to Levinson (1983, p.21), “pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding”. The study of pragmatics deals with areas such as deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, conversational structure/conversation analysis and speech acts.
Chapter Two

Review of Literature

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the review of relevant literature which provides the theoretical framework of the research, and is divided into four parts. The first part introduces the key terms and concepts of pragmatics which are essential in the analysis of the metalanguage content of the textbooks. The second part presents a review of the studies which used content analysis as a research tool in terms of education, in general, and language of textbooks, in particular. The third part discusses concepts such as pragmatic metalanguage, and pragmatic exercises in foreign language teaching and learning. The fourth part discusses previous studies concerning pragmatic metalanguage, and pragmatic exercises in language teaching and foreign language materials. The chapter concludes with a summary of the presented review of the literature.

2.2. Pragmatics in Communication

Pragmatics, also known as social language, refers to one’s ability to use language for a variety of functions such as to request, gain attention, comment, ask for help, etc. It also refers to one’s ability to use language based on audience or setting, and follow rules for conversation. Pragmatics includes the understanding and the proper use of eye contact, facial expressions, and body language. One may be able to form long sentences and produce sounds clearly, but if they do not understand and/or have not mastered the rules for communication, there may be a language delay in the area of pragmatics.

When having a conversation with someone, we start with a greeting, introduce a topic, and take turns commenting. Within that conversation, each person should be able to read the other person’s tone, facial expressions, eye contact, and nonverbal cues to determine
if their partner is still interested, when it is appropriate to interject or add a comment, and when it is time to end the conversation or change the topic. Individuals that have difficulty with the use of social language may deliver too much information on a topic, use inappropriate phrases/sentences within conversation, change the topic unexpectedly, and retell a story or recent event that is hard to follow. There may also be little diversity in the use of language, which can make their language appear scripted and stiff.

Mey (2001) views pragmatics as the science of language seen in relation to its users. According to Levinson (1983, p.21), “pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding”. This means that the very aspects of language cannot be explained by syntax or semantics.

Understanding an utterance requires much more than merely knowing the literal meaning of the words and the grammatical relations between them. In fact, understanding an utterance requires the ability to make inferences that connects what is said to what is jointly presupposed or assumed by the participants in the interaction or to what has been said before. As there is no direct relationship between words and their references, the hearer must make correct inferences to identify what the speaker's utterance means (Yule 1996, p.17). In that sense, Pragmatics provides explanations to sentences and utterances that are grammatically and semantically correct, but contain a deeper underlying meaning that is context dependent, which is normally understood by the both the speaker and hearer.

2.3. Pragmatic Competence in EFL Teaching and Learning
The model created by Canale and Swain (1980) is divided communicative competence into three components: (1) linguistic competence: morphology, syntax semantics and phonology, (2) sociocultural competence: sociocultural rules and textual rules, and (3) strategic competence: the ability to make up for lack of knowledge of grammar of vocabulary in communication situations, that is, communication strategies. Out of these three elements, the second component, sociocultural competence, contains the idea of rules in language use, and thus it can be seen as parallel to the concept of pragmatic competence.

The model of Canale and Swain was developed further by Bachman (1990) who divided communicative competence into two categories: (1) organizational knowledge, which includes both grammatical and discourse competence, and (2) pragmatic competence, which includes sociolinguistic, propositional and functional knowledge. In Bachman's model, the organizational competence refers to a person's ability to produce and identify grammatical and ungrammatical forms, and also to understand how to organize components of language in a meaningful way.

According to AlcónSoler's and Martínez-Flor's evaluation (2008), pragmatic competence in Bachman's model is considered to be dealing with the relationship between utterances and the acts that are performed through these utterances, as well as the sociocultural practices that regulate the appropriate usage of these utterances. Bachman's desire to create a model of communicative language ability came from the need to find clear definitions and a basis for the development of language testing. Although Bachman (1990) states that his model is by no means a complete theory of communicative language abilities, it has been very influential and often cited in the research field of communicative language teaching.
Kasper states that, “competence, whether linguistic or pragmatic, is not teachable. Competence is a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose” (1997, p.1). Therefore, why should pragmatic competence be developed? Some works in the area point out those grammatically correct sentences would not be appropriate utterances in different contexts because language use and choice is determined or affected by a variety of factors such as social norms, relationship between the interlocutors, shared knowledge/background, social distance between the interactants, age, gender, social power/rank/class, degree of imposition, etc. Likewise, grammatical competence does not guarantee pragmatic competence. Learning language involves many aspects: not merely its sounds, words, grammar, meanings, functions, but also the social, cultural and discourse conventions.

According to Bardovi-Harlig (2001), grammatical development does not guarantee an equivalent level of pragmatic development. What is necessary is the knowledge of language that is appropriate to the situations in which one is functioning, and failure to do so may cause users to miss key points that are being communicated or to have their messages misunderstood, as supported by Eslami-Rasekh (2005). EFL learners may gain comfortable control of the vocabulary and grammar of the language without achieving a comparable control over the pragmatic functional uses of the language.

In a study by Othman (2013) on Malaysian ESL learners, she analyzed the teaching and learning of “and” in the EFL classroom after explaining the various interpretations of “and” from established research in the area of conjunctions, discourse analysis and pragmatics. She concluded that some amount of focus should be given to conjunctions as discourse units in the planning of the syllabus/lesson plans and the writing of English textbooks. The analysis showed that “and” takes various meanings moving from formal written work to spoken language. The results showed that only the
grammatical elements or conceptual meaning of “and” are covered in the textbooks. On the other hand, the analysis of the spoken discourse of the subjects at two different levels of proficiency proved that speakers do have the knowledge of “and” as a discourse element and discourse marker. The acquisition must have taken place over the course of learning and speaking the language, as well as influenced by common discourse strategies that are found in languages. Additionally, the analysis illustrated that the more proficient speakers show the use of “and” as a pause filler making their speech smoother, compared to the less proficient speakers whose speech are riddled by pauses. It was recommended at the end that some amount of focus should be given to conjunctions as discourse units in the planning of the syllabus/lesson plans and the writing of English textbooks.

Common to all the above models of communicative and pragmatic competence is the idea that competent language use requires more than just knowledge of the structures of language. In order to become a communicatively competent speaker, one needs understanding of the sociocultural rules and pragmatic norms of the target language. Thus, if the principles of CLT and the objectives of National Core Curriculum are to be followed, the development of students’ pragmatic competence needs to be supported in formal language instruction by offering them enough possibilities to practice pragmatic skills and by raising their awareness on sociocultural issues.

2.4. Previous Research on Content Analysis in Education and EFL Textbooks
Content Analysis has been used as a research method or tool in a wide variety of disciplines from the mass media, linguistics, history and education. The section continues with a discussion on content analysis as a research tool in education and, in general, and language of textbooks, in particular.

2.4.1. Content Analysis of the EFL Textbook Selection Process

Harris, Fleck & Loughman (2000) proved that through the use of content analysis, the traditional textbook selection process can be made more robust and quantified. The content analysis tools they used included measures of grade level, reading case, white space, passive voice, and word count. The application of traditional textbooks selection tools and content analysis tools was demonstrated with an analysis of twelve Java textbooks. The results showed a wide range of reading level, total words, and arrangement of topics.

LaBelle (2010) argued that middle school teachers use various ELL textbooks. Many textbooks lack effective criteria to critically choose materials that correspond to a wide range of L2 learning strategies. LaBelle’ study analyzed the illustrated and written content of 33 ELL textbooks to determine the range of L2 learning strategies represented. In order to form the corpus to be analyzed, the researcher chose an intentional, convenience sample from each textbook to answer the question: To what extent do middle school ELL texts depict frequency and variation of language learning strategies in illustrations and written texts? In order to measure the content, the researcher developed a coding instrument to track how regularly each of 15 language learning strategies was represented. The study concluded that 6 of the 33 textbooks had a good to excellent range of L2 learning strategies in both illustrated and written representation.
2.4.2. Content Analysis in the Vocabulary Education and Presentation of EFL Textbook

Hamiloglu and Karlıova (2009) conducted a content analysis study on five course books that teach English as a foreign language for adults and young adults in Turkey. The researchers examined and evaluated these English language course books from the standpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they used. The books are as follows: *Advanced Masterclass* (by Tricia Aspinall and Anette Capel, Oxford University Press, 1999); *Countdown to First Certificate* (by Michael Duckworth and Kathy Gude, Oxford University Press, 1999); *Grammar in Context 2* (by Sandra N. Elbaum, Thomson Heinle, 2001-3rd Edition and 2005-4th Edition); *Top Notch 2* (by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher, Pearson Education CAE, 2006); and *New Headway Advanced* (by Liz and John Soars, Oxford University Press, 2003). The result of this evaluation showed that all selected course books integrated lexis into their syllabuses, giving emphasis to word knowledge by means of separate headings and additional sub-headings, such as Vocabulary, Word Building, Word Formation, Easily Confused Words, Keyword Transformation, Near-synonyms and Synonyms. Additionally, the selected course books provided quick-reference data for self-check by means of word lists supplied at the end of Student's Books. Further, all of the course books have colorful layouts supporting vocabulary acquisition and comprehension through pictures, graphic designs, drawings, diagrams and cartoons.

Haas (2012) conducted a content analysis study to evaluate the levels of vocabulary within the massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs). The researcher studied six MMORPGs; three were pay-to-play (P2P), and three were free-to-play (F2P). Sixty hours of game play (10 hours per game) provided the researcher with 50,240 embedded vocabulary words. Each MMORPG was studied for frequencies and percentages of embedded Tier I, Tier II, and Tier III vocabulary words. These three tiers
represent basic (Tier I), complex (Tier II), and content specific (Tier III) words. Four independent Chi square analyses reviewed the differences between frequencies and percentages of Tier I, II, and II embedded vocabulary. These analyses also reviewed the differences within each individual MMORPG, within each MMOPRG among its category (P2P; F2P), and within P2P and F2P categories as a whole. Results showed statistically significant differences between variables in all four analyses. In general, P2P MMORPGs’ frequencies and percentages were higher than those of the F2P MMORPGs’.

2.4.3. Content Analysis in the Grammar Education and Presentation of EFL Textbooks

Grammar and presentation of EFL textbooks were also subject to content analysis as shown in the review. Tiedt (1972) used content analysis to investigate the impact of English linguistics on elementary school English textbooks published during the decade of 1961-1970. The study examined seventeen sixth grade English texts to determine trends in the treatment of English grammar in USA. The researcher divided the data to show distinctions between texts published before the Roberts’ Series (1961-1965), and after the Roberts’ Series (1966-1970). The Roberts English Series was a series used in 1966 for grades 3-6. The series emphasized on teaching the transformational-generative grammar based on the work of Noam Chomsky. It also aimed at improving children’s writing by teaching them the main features of the writing system; sound and spelling relationship as well as the nature of syntax. The results showed that traditional Latin-based grammar was dominant in elementary school English textbooks in the period of 1961-1965. In that sense, grammar was synonymous with usage and emphasis was on "correct" usage. Structural and transformational-generative grammar concepts were first
presented in the *Roberts' Series* in 1966 during the second half of the decade. Consequently, text writers who followed were apt to de-emphasize "correct" usage, but 40 percent still included these concepts. The study concluded that while the eclectic grammar presented in most elementary texts between 1966 and 1970 is prescriptive and out-dated, it did break with past practices and opened the door to newer paradigms of language teaching and learning that affected the elementary school curriculum.

Closer to home, Zawahreh (2012) conducted a content analysis study of the grammar activities in the six modules of the students' book of *Action Pack Seven* used for teaching English as a foreign Language in Jordan. Zawahreh aimed at finding out the extent to which these activities met its proposed criteria compared to those proposed by Celce-Murcia (1991). Accordingly, the researcher used the following criteria: First, the relevance of number balances of the grammar activities, second, the accuracy of the linguistic data; third, the clarity and completeness of the grammar activities, and the fourth, the presentations of linguistic items in meaningful context. Following such criteria, the results were as follows. First, the number of the grammar activities is appropriate and distributed in a good balanced way between the six modules of the textbook. Second, all of the grammar activities met the second criteria due to the accurate and correct details of the linguistic data. Third, fifty-five out of the sixty grammar activities met the criteria "clarity and completeness". Fourth, fifty out of sixty grammar activities are presented in meaningful context thereby meeting the fourth criteria.

2.4.4. **Content Analysis of the Cultural Content of the EFL Textbooks**
Culture is also one of the criteria that have been studied in content analysis. Shatnawi (2005) conducted a study to investigate the role of culture in foreign language textbooks through content analysis and the extent to which culture is represented in the *Cutting Edge* series. The researcher analyzed the content of *Cutting Edge* series to find out the cultural aspects used in these textbooks. The analysis revealed that the textbooks did include the culture from aspects of history, society, economy, geography, literature, politics, religion, man-woman relationship, habits, customs and traditions.

Tabatabaei (2006) compared the cultural content of EFL textbooks found between pre- and post-Islamic revolution. Tabatabaei used a content analysis study to look at the representation of national identity and civic values in Iranian EFL textbooks. To categorize the cultural content, Byram's (1993) eight categories checklist was used. The categories are cultural identity and social group, belief and behavior, social and political institution, social interaction, socialization and the life cycle, stereotypes and national identity, national history, and national geography. The results showed that pre- and post-Islamic revolution EFL textbooks comparatively displayed the same prominence on the significance of the Persian language and culture. The study also pointed out that the Iranian post-revolution English language textbook aimed at constructing a model Islamic citizen in an Islamic society.

Juan (2010) conducted a study that focused on the content analysis of the cultural content in *College English (New)* (henceforth, CE (New)). The analysis revealed that the cultural content input has not received the attention in designing and organizing the book. However, since language and culture are intricately related to each other, the texts did cover cultural information implicitly and a sum of culture details could also be found in the pre-reading, texts, footnotes and exercises. Due to the advantages and disadvantages of the CE (New), some modifications were suggested to be made in the fifth phase of the
textbook compilation; more passages should reflect the culture of other English Speaking communities; international cultures should be included; the content of the Chinese culture should be increased; the comparisons and contrasts between different cultures should be added; and the cultural knowledge in the exercise part of the EFL textbooks should be addressed.

Alkatheery (2011) studied the presentation of the cultures of the Centre and Periphery countries in regional ELT textbooks; *Interactions/Mosaic* reading series based on the Kachru’s famous Concentric Circles of English speakers around the world. Centre countries are the countries where the majority of the population speaks English as their mother tongue such as the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Periphery countries are the countries which are located outside the Inner Circle of the Centre countries. They can be divided into two groups; Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. Countries such as India, Zambia, Pakistan, Singapore, and Tanzania that speak English as a second language are called The Outer Circle. On the other hand, the rest of the countries which use English as the institutionalized language in many sphere of life are called the Expanding Circle. Alkatheery conducted a quantitative and qualitative content analysis research technique to investigate the assumption that Centre countries are favored over Periphery countries. The recording units used in the study were: ‘paragraph’ and ‘picture’. Byram’s cultural checklist (1993) was used to collect and categorize the cultural content of Centre and Periphery countries. The study concluded that *Interactions/Mosaic* series contained cultural presentations of different countries from the world. In fact, the cultural content comprises two thirds of the series. The administration of T-test proved that there was no statistically significant difference between the representations of Periphery and Centre countries in the four ELT reading textbooks investigated.
2.4.5. Content Analysis Studies of Exercises and Activities of EFL Textbooks

Content analysis also included the study of exercises and activities of EFL textbooks. Al-Momani (1998) conducted a study to evaluate AMRA textbooks for the first and second classes in Jordan. Some of the results of the study showed the following: first, the objectives of AMRA textbooks were based on teaching English for communication, and they met the students’ needs and interests; second, the vocabulary items were selected to suit the students’ level and to facilitate communication; third, the rationale of AMRA textbooks was suitable; and fourth, the exercises in AMRA workbooks were not related completely to the material.

Deiwkat (2006) conducted a content analysis study to examine the exercises and activities of EFL textbooks for the tenth Grade in Palestine. The study investigated whether the activities and exercises found in the textbooks met the behavioral objectives defined in the syllabus and curriculum, promoted meaningful communication through language, provided the development of systematic skills, encouraged the students’ active participation, promoted critical thinking, and provided for the development of study skills, such as skimming, note taking, outlining and looking up words in the dictionary.

The findings of the study were as follows. First, The English for Palestine textbook showed that the exercises and activities met to some extent the general behavioral objectives delineated in the syllabus mostly “to help students learn English and encouraged them to become confident users of the language.” Second, the exercises and activities promoted to some extent meaningful communication via the language since the textbooks had a good percentage of meaningful and communicative exercises and activities. Third, they provided for the development of systematic language skills because
the four skills were clearly and appropriately integrated in each unit of the textbook.

Fourth, they encouraged the students’ active participation. Fifth, they promoted critical thinking to some extent. Sixth, they met to some extent the background and interests of the students. Seventh, they offered an unobtrusive means of analyzing interactions. Finally, they provided insights into complex models of human thought and language use.

2.5. Pragmatic Metalanguage and Pragmatic Exercises in ELT

Metalanguage is significantly important especially in pragmatic teaching of EFL, since it is the way to make the learner aware of the differences between English and the L1. As Verschueren (1998) states: “(metalanguage) reflects metapragmatic awareness, a crucial force behind the meaning-generating capacity of language in use.” In other words, if the students are able to consciously process the language through metalanguage they are more likely to gain deeper understanding of how the language works. From a sociolinguistic perspective, metalanguage also has powerful implications at the societal and ideological level. As Jaworski, Coupland and Galasinski (1998) state, it basically constructs our understanding of “how language works, what it is usually like, what certain ways of speaking connote and imply, what they ought to be like” (emphasis in the original). In short, metalanguage describes language and what it is like and thus, it can ultimately affect people's actions and priorities in a wide range of ways, some more clearly visible than others.

2.5.1. Pragmatic Metalanguage in ELT
Linguistic metalanguage in language pedagogy has been a neglected area of investigation (Berry, 2000). However, metalanguage is important for the learners to understand the nature of the target language. Metalanguage needs to be comprehensible to the learners, because otherwise it may cause a barrier for learning and prevent access to the learning objectives. If the metalanguage is too detailed and technical, the learner may find the learning objectives too hard to reach. Learning a second language efficiently involves reflection upon and evaluation of one's own linguistic “products”; that is, metalinguistic processing.

Yuka (2012) explored meta-pragmatic awareness of Japanese learners of English with lower-intermediate proficiency. The subjects in the study were asked to make as many different kinds of requests sentences as possible for a situation that they need to borrow money from someone, and without any other situational restrictions. The goal was to see if they could fully utilize their pragmatic knowledge while making these requests. They were also asked to state the reasons for each choice to understand their meta-pragmatic knowledge. The results showed that the meta-pragmatic awareness of the subjects in making requests is mostly very limited. Even without time limitation, they could produce only 4.16 variations in average, and their meta-pragmatic knowledge contains many misunderstandings. Also, the subjects did not realize their lack of knowledge and they believed that English does not have many polite expressions. Therefore, more opportunities were needed to be offered for them to raise their pragmatic awareness through organized and explicit teaching of the knowledge.

2.5.2. Pragmatic Exercises in ELT
The focus of EFL teaching has mostly been on helping the students master the grammatical rules of English and learn the words and their meanings. However, all this knowledge is meaningless unless the learner also has pragmatic knowledge on how to apply the rules. The upper secondary school students already have a great amount of universal pragmatic knowledge, but research has shown that they do not always use what they already know (Kasper 1997). Pedagogical instruction on pragmatic aspects of language is needed to make students more aware of what they already know and to encourage them to use their universal or transferable L1 pragmatic knowledge in L2 contexts.

Kasper (1997) states three main methods for teaching pragmatic abilities in language classrooms, and the first and foremost is the teacher's model of language use and the overall classroom management. By talking to the students and instructing them what to do, the teacher offers the students a valuable model of communicative language use. This is why it is crucially important that the classroom management is performed in L2, so that the target language truly functions as the means of communication. If the classroom interaction between students and the teacher is carried out in their mother tongue, this deprives the students of an important source of pragmatic knowledge.

While the classroom talk is completely up to the teacher, the other two means of teaching pragmatic competence, practising through exercises and awareness-raising, can be incorporated into the teaching materials. In formal education, the most commonly used materials are commercially published textbooks. Textbooks are popular because they are probably the most convenient form of presenting materials; they help to achieve consistency and continuation in how the language items are presented and rehearsed and they give learners a sense of system, cohesion and progress. Furthermore, they help teachers to prepare lessons and the learners to revise later what they have learned in class.
However, the opponents of commercial course books argue that they are a form of materials that cannot provide diverse learning possibilities to cater for an individual learner's needs and that they are un-authentic and superficial and remove initiative from teachers. (Tomlinson 2001). According to Tomlinson (2001), the most important thing that a learning material has to do is help the learner to connect the learning experience in formal education to their own life outside the classroom. This is why materials should do more than simply rehearse the targeted linguistic features; they should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes, that is, practise pragmatic competence.

According to Kasper (1997), there are two types of exercises that can be used in class for practicing pragmatic aspects of language and that can be included in the materials; referential and interpersonal communication exercises. First, in referential communication exercises students have to refer to concepts for which they do not know the necessary L2 words. For instance, exercises, where the students are asked to infer the meaning of a word or a sentence on the basis of the co-text, are referential. These exercises expand students' vocabulary and develop their strategic competence. Second, the interpersonal communication exercises focus on participants' social relationships and include communicative acts, such as opening and closing conversations, expressing emotive responses, as in thanking and apologizing, or influencing the other person, as in requesting, suggesting, inviting, and offering. These exercises include activities such as role-play, simulation and drama. Teaching materials should include a large variety of diverse exercises in both referential and communication exercises. Awareness-raising can also be assisted considerably by the textbooks, with the means of metalanguage.

2.6. Previous Research on Content Analysis of Pragmatics and Metalanguage in EFL Textbooks and Materials
A number of studies have explored how English language textbooks present pragmatics in their contents. These studies are essential from English as a Foreign Language (EFL) perspective because in EFL instruction, natural input is much scarcer than it is in English as a Second Language (ESL) setting. Therefore, the role of textbooks in raising students’ pragmatic awareness is more important. However, all studies concluded that textbooks usually fail to provide the necessary information on pragmatics, and the material they do present often differs from real life conversations and interactions. In addition, it is difficult to give clear suggestions for improving pragmatic input in textbooks, particularly because textbooks are usually targeted to an international audience.

When analyzing the pragmatic feature of politeness, LoCastro (1994) investigated how Japanese secondary school textbooks for English as a Second Language (ESL) treated the issue of politeness in speech. A list of conventional, formal linguistic (lexical, morphological, syntactic and semantic) markers of politeness was organized for both English and Japanese. The researcher analyzed Eighteen ESL textbooks in use in Japan over the last decade, two recently-published texts conforming to revised curriculum standards, and other foreign-published textbooks. The results showed that despite giving explicit attention to politeness during the analysis, yet none was found. This was attributed to the written orientation of some textbooks and to the kinds of interactional discourse presented in textbooks. In addition, incorrect and inaccurate translations of English were found. Further factors in lack of pragmatic training were detected, including the nature of classroom interactions and systemic differences in treatment of politeness issues in Japanese and English. However, it was argued that for developmental reasons, secondary school is an appropriate place to teach pragmatics, including politeness.

In a different study, Boxer and Pickering (1995) underlined the importance of building teaching materials on spontaneous speech and not relying on native speaker intuition,
which may be misleading at times. Enriching classroom input with real-world materials, such as recordings of native speaker conversations, radio programs, and even television soap operas, can be beneficial. To provide sufficient pragmatic input for the students, it is also important to supplement textbooks with additional books that focus on pragmatics. In their study, Boxer and Pickering (1995) explored seven ELT texts that are organized around the teaching of functions in order to explicate several problems evident in their presentation of speech acts. The focus of the analysis was the speech act sequence of complaint/commiseration. This speech behavior was highlighted in order to demonstrate the gap between data from spontaneous speech, and data that is contrived through the native speaker intuitions of textbook developers. The results showed that intuition about speech act realization often differs greatly from naturalistic speech patterns and that itself is problematic. In addition, it was demonstrated that important information on underlying social strategies of speech acts was often overlooked entirely.

Edwards & Csizér (2001) investigated the presence of openings and closings in two textbook series: Headway (Soars & Soars, 1989-1998) and Criss Cross (Ellis, Laidlow, Medgyes & Byrne, 1999). The focus was on openings and closings as they were considered significant in conversations (see Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992), and because they often caused problems for Hungarian students due to the differences between the two languages. The researchers analyzed the number and the presentation of the conversations in the textbooks. They also looked at whether these conversations contained openings and closings. The differences between the two textbook series, Headway and Criss Cross, concerning conversational models were also analyzed. The results showed that the simple presence of input might not serve to raise students' pragmatic awareness. Therefore, it was suggested that it is the teachers' responsibility to use the materials in a way that they contribute to the pragmatic development of students.
The researchers also recommended resource books and ideas such as role-plays, conversation completion activities and explicit teaching of useful phrases in connection with opening and closing a conversation to enrich the teaching practice.

Vellenga (2004) studied four ESL and four EFL textbooks and analyzed the amount and quality of pragmatic information in them. The study consisted of a detailed analysis on the use of metalanguage, explicit treatment of speech acts, and metapragmatic information, including discussions of register, illocutionary force, politeness, appropriacy and usage. In the second part of the study, Vellenga interviewed EFL and ESL teachers to find out how much they produce their own materials and introduce pragmatic input from outside the classroom. The findings of the study show that the textbooks lack explicit metapragmatic information, and teacher's manuals rarely supplement adequately. Teacher surveys showed that teachers seldom introduce or bring in outside materials related to pragmatics. Vellenga concludes that due to the lack of pragmatic input in textbooks and the teachers' disregard over pragmatic issues, learning pragmatic competence from textbooks is highly unlikely.

Takafumi, Fukasawa, and Shinichi (2007) explored the introductions and practices of speech acts in “Oral Communication 1” textbooks used in Japan. Like Vellenga, speech act was the pragmatic feature focused in the study, but 17 textbooks were investigated. These textbooks were used in Japan with the approval from MEXT or Ministry of Education, Sports, Culture, Science and Technology. The number of types of speech acts explicitly existed in the textbooks was counted to compare the amount of explicitness of the pragmatic information in each textbook. Variations of linguistic forms, explanation of linguistic forms and speech acts, as well as exercises for practice of speech acts were also analyzed. The results were in line with the study of Vellenga. A small number of speech acts were explicitly found in each textbook; students could learn only a limited number of
linguistic forms for each speech act. In addition, meta-pragmatic information was inadequate both in terms of quantity and quality. Furthermore, students had limited opportunity to practice the speech acts and the forms they had just learned.

Peiying (2007) explored another EFL context of which the result was reported in the same direction. She conducted a content analysis to investigate the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks in the textbooks titled *College English (New) Listening and Speaking Course* (book 1-4). The books were written by a group of Chinese English professors, and published by Shanghai Foreign Education and Teaching Publishing House from 2001-2003. Pragmatic information in her study was partly adapted from the work of Vellenga. Quantitative data focused on percentage and amount of pragmatic information included in the textbooks, as well as the amount of variety of pragmatic information. The qualitative data concentrated on the nature of pragmatic information and the level of richness of pragmatic information. The results showed that the variety of pragmatic information in the books was limited and most of the meta-pragmatic explanations were simple.

Usó-Juan (2008) analyzed five ESL tourism textbooks and looked at the presentation of the face-threatening speech act of requesting in these textbooks. The study examined activities the learners were expected to carry out in the textbook to practise the speech act of requesting. It also examined whether the speech act was presented with modifiers in the textbook activities and what types of modifiers were used. The results revealed that models offered in textbooks on how requests were realized failed to provide learners with enough appropriate input to promote learners’ pragmatic competence.

Neddar (2010) conducted a study which aimed at exploring the amount of pragmatic information in Algerian EFL textbooks at the college level. The goal of the comparative
quantitative and qualitative analyses between four Algerian textbooks and four others meant for international markets *Headway Oxford* was to determine the amount of pragmatic information and realistic language included in both sets. The results showed that the data in Algerian textbooks was judged as inadequate to raise learners' awareness and failed to highlight native speakers' norms of appropriateness. In addition, there was a discrepancy between the speech acts and routine formulas used most frequently by native speakers and those introduced in the textbooks. Therefore, learners were exposed to a limited range of language to perform certain speech acts. This made the learners unable to react appropriately to situations where discourse was highly pragmatically loaded.

Wichien and Aksornjarung (2011) investigated pragmatic elements—Speech act information, Usage, Politeness, Register, Style, and Cultural information—found in English commercial course materials (books) used in communication courses at a Thai university. Data collection and analysis were conducted through line-by-line investigation of both Students’ and Teacher's books. Results showed that not every pragmatic feature focused in this study was presented in each book. Also, there were differences in the number of pragmatic features found in the Teacher’s books and Students’ books. The quantity and quality of pragmatic information in the books under investigation was inadequate as a source to gain pragmatic competence for EFL students. The recommendation made was that non-native EFL teachers should not rely merely on Teacher’s books. It was advisable that they resort to other more authentic language sources to enhance their pragmatic knowledge and competence.

Koosha and Dastjerdi (2012) examined the use of request forms presented in the *Richard's Interchange Series*, Books I, II, and III. Such textbooks are commonly used in Iranian foreign language teaching institutes. To trace the occurrence of request forms in such texts, the researchers used Alcon et al.'s (2005) taxonomy of peripheral modification
devices used in requests. The uses of mitigators were studied carefully in all the conversation parts, listening parts and Check sections in all the three books of Interchange series. Findings showed that the series fail to contain materials which are needed for meaningful communication when different kinds of requests are needed. In addition, a big number of peripheral modification devices were not found in the texts studied and those which were found were not the same in terms of frequency of exposure. Also, there was no balance between the presentation of internal and external modifications in the different books studied. The results of this study had implications for textbook writers, materials developers, language teachers and learners.

Poupari and Bagheri (2013) evaluated the sample conversations of two currently textbooks used in Iran (*Top Notch* and *ILI* textbooks) on the basis of two frameworks of Halliday(1978) and Cohen(1996) to determine features of the books in general and the strengths and weaknesses of them, in particular. The study aimed to find out to what extent language functions and speech acts have been applied in the conversation sections of these textbooks. The researchers classified each speech act and language function in the conversations. The results showed that there was an absence of one of the speech acts and language functions in the conversations of the two textbooks which could be regarded as a weak point of these textbooks. In addition, the conversations in the two textbooks have some pragmatic problems with regard to language functions and speech acts.

Metalanguage in EFL instruction has been studied by both students and teachers mostly in the context of its use in the classroom. Studies like (Fortune 2005, Berry 2005, Brumfit et al. 1996) concluded that metalanguage can play a facilitative role in focusing attention to specific language forms as well as helping students decide which forms to use. Brumfit, Mitchell and Hooper (1996) focused on examining the teachers' and students'
use of metalanguage in foreign language classrooms in Britain and found that teachers' metalanguage in class focused primarily on “language as a system” and neglected the sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of language (Brumfit et al. 1996). Thus, the results suggested that pragmatic competence was not one of the main objectives of language teaching.

The pragmatic skills cannot be expected to develop without conscious practice. In a review of different studies on pragmatic instruction in different contexts done by Kasper (1997), she states that without some form of instruction, many aspects of pragmatic competence do not develop sufficiently. Her review indicates two integral points about the importance of teaching pragmatic skills. Firstly, the studies that examined whether certain selected pragmatic features were teachable found this indeed to be the case. Comparisons of instructed students with uninstructed control groups showed a clear advantage for the instructed learners. Secondly, studies that compared the relative effects of explicit and implicit instruction found that students' pragmatic competence improved regardless of the method used, but the explicitly taught students did better than the implicit groups. These findings support the view of the current study, in that pragmatic instruction should be an integral part of language instruction and, thus, included in the teaching materials. Kasper's findings also form the raison d'être of the content analysis of pragmatic information in the present study.

### 2.7. Conclusion

From the above review of literature, it appears that there is a relative scarcity of studies on content analysis of pragmatic information in the exercise and metalanguage of EFL textbooks. The studies on pragmatics in FL teaching, and in teaching materials,
indicate that there is a clear need for pedagogic instruction. These studies are vital from English as a Foreign Language (EFL) perspective because in EFL instruction, natural input is much rarer than it is in English as a Second Language (ESL) setting. Therefore, the role of textbooks in raising students’ pragmatic awareness is more important. However, the findings of all studies showed that textbooks usually fail to offer the required information on pragmatics, and the material they present often differs from real life conversations and interactions. In addition, it is difficult to give clear suggestions for improving pragmatic input in textbooks, particularly because textbooks are usually targeted to an international audience. Further, a pragmatic content analysis of *Interactions Listening & Speaking* (Books One and Two) has not been attempted. This points to a gap in research in the field and offers a justification for the present study.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1. Introduction
In this section, I present the steps that were followed for the study: (1) textbook selection, and (2) textbook analysis, and each will be discussed in some detail. This study adopted an interpretive and qualitative approach to research, in that the basic aim was to describe and understand the investigated phenomenon. Some descriptive statistics in terms of frequency counts were also included, in order to indicate the proportion of pragmatic input in the textbooks and support the qualitative discussion. The main method of analysis was deductive content analysis that is based on conceptual categorization.

3.2. Textbook Description

Two EFL textbooks chosen for the purpose of the study were *Interactions: Listening & Speaking 1* and *2 The Gold Edition*. These were especially selected as they were used as textbooks for the listening and speaking skill courses in the English Department at the College of Languages and Translation at King Saud University at the time of study. The courses that used these textbooks aim at raising an awareness of formal/informal language and practicing appropriate choice and use of language for different situations, basically developing students’ pragmatics and conversational skills.

Both textbooks are similar in terms of design and presentation. *Interactions 1* is a textbook for ESL/EFL students who are in the beginning to low intermediate level and *Interactions 2* is a textbook for ESL/EFL students who are in the intermediate to advanced level. The textbooks can be used to improve students' listening and speaking skills. The quantity of practice in each book is sufficient. Each book is well organized and divided into ten chapters. In the beginning of each chapter, the text gives students adequate guidance and a preview of the upcoming materials. Each chapter is divided into four parts: (1) Conversation, (2) Presentation, (3) Getting Meaning from Context, and (4) Real-World Tasks. All exercises are from simple to complex and the materials are related to each topic. Each chapter has three reading, five writing, ten listening, and ten speaking
exercises. Since these are listening/speaking textbooks, the amount of practice appears adequate. It also has a section called *Cross-cultural Notes*, which gives students information about diverse cultures. The exercises contain both controlled and free practice. The students have the chance to practice and extend listening and speaking skills. The open-ended exercises include discussion questions and give students the opportunities for free practice which will help them communicate in a non-academic setting. The textbooks topics and tasks vary to allow the students to explore real world issues. The titles of the textbooks’ chapters are listed below.


### 3.3. Textbook Analysis

#### 3.3.1. Data Collection

Once the textbooks were identified and procured, the quantity of information included in each were noted to see whether any textbook is markedly longer than the other. Comparison of page numbers and numbers of chapters were used to confirm that the selected textbooks are similar in length and in chapter divisions.

#### 3.3.2. Content Analysis
The method of analysis in this study was content analysis. Content analysis is a research method that strives to make valid and reliable inferences from the content of the examined texts (Krippendorf, 2004). The word “texts” here refers not only to data in the written form, but to any representation of communication, such as symbols, images, speeches and conversations. The phenomenon that is under investigation is represented by the data, and by analyzing the data, the researcher creates a literal and explicit description of the studied phenomenon. The aim of content analysis is to organize the data into a summarized and comprehensive form by using different kinds of content categorizations (Krippendorf, 2004).

Krippendorf (2004) considers content analysis to be an especially relevant methodological approach in situations where no single existing method completely fulfills the needs of the study. In content analysis, the analysis can be done by using various ways of organizing, classifying and describing data, instead of just one. There are no strict rules of how the analysis should be carried out, but instead, each researcher has the freedom to develop their own system for categorizations that is best suited for classifying the specific data. The goal of the analysis is to create a systematic and comprehensive description of the phenomenon studied.

3.3.3. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Depending on the objectives of the study, content analysis may be either quantitative or qualitative (Huckin 2004). In quantitative content analysis, the data is analyzed on the basis of certain key words or expressions in the text by calculating the frequencies of how often they appear. The researcher can then make certain inferences based on the frequency. In qualitative content analysis, the focus is on categorizing the meanings in the data, by examining larger stretches of language. The aim is to interpret and explain the phenomenon instead of merely describing it. Thus, this study used both
quantitative and qualitative analysis in order to create a comprehensive description of the phenomenon in question.

3.3.4. Conceptual and Relational Analysis

According to Huckin (2004), content analysis can be roughly divided into conceptual and relational analyses. In conceptual analysis, the data is coded and categorized according to a specific concept, or concepts. The goal is to establish the existence and frequency of those concepts in the data. The relational analysis takes this process one step further, as it not only identifies the concepts but also examines the relationships between them. Furthermore, content analysis can be either inductive or deductive. In the inductive approach, the data is analyzed without any presuppositions or theoretical framework and the findings arise from the data itself. Deductive content analysis, in contrast, adopts a specific theoretical or conceptual point of view that guides the process of analysis and categorization. This study applied the conceptual and deductive approach to content analysis, as the data was categorized based on the pragmatic concepts introduced in the background section and the aim was to investigate their existence and frequency (Huckin 2004).

3.3.5. Analysis of Pragmatic Features

The aim of this study was to find out which aspects of pragmatics are presented in the materials selected. These include the following:

- Deixis: A universal pragmatic concept which means “pointing or showing” through language (Yule 1996, p.9). The reference and thus the meaning of a deictic expression solely depends on the (usually) extralinguistic context of the utterance, such as who is speaking (he, she, it), the time or place of speaking (now, then), or the current location in the discourse (here, there).
• **Reference and inference:** According to Yule (1996), refer to entities, existing or non-existing, that represent the words. References are always based on the speakers' assumptions of what the hearer already knows. As there is no direct relationship between entities and words, the listener's task is to infer correctly which entity the speaker intends to identify by using a particular referring expression.

• **Presuppositions:** Inherent in most sentences, phrases and utterances and is “something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance” (Yule 1996, p.25).

• **Conversational implicature:** Underlying meaning that has to be recovered by hearer when a sentence heard or read does not have a literal interpretation.

• **Speech act:** People actually perform actions through utterances when they speak (Austin 1962). The notion of an utterance that performs a certain action is called a speech act. For example, "Sorry!" may be a speech act of apologizing, interrupting, or making a sarcastic remark.

• **Politeness:** It can be defined as “the means employed to show awareness of another person's face” (Levinson 1983), which is either negative or positive. Negative face is the person's need to be independent, to have freedom of action and not to be imposed on by anyone. Positive face means that person's need to be a member of a social group, to be appreciated and noticed and accepted by others.

• **Conversational structure:** Refers to the structure that the participants follow within the conversation in natural conversation, and usually without realizing it. As defined by Brown and Yule (1983, conversation follows two general functions: interactional function used when speakers are socializing, and transactional function used when the participants are exchanging services like buying, going to the doctor etc. There are three main features of conversation structure that are to be looked at: openings of conversation, closings of conversation, and turn-taking within a conversation.
• Discourse and culture: pragmatic discourse analysis studies how coherence and sequential organization in discourse is produced and understood beyond the unit of sentence (Levinson 1983). Coherence is expected whenever language is used, meaning that it makes sense in our normal experience of things. Speech and texts are interpreted according to the background knowledge and what is familiar to the language user. The background knowledge is in the form of schemata, the pre-existing knowledge structures used by the language user. Such schemes are specific to a certain culture and socially constructed. Yule (1996) points out that the study of such different expectations which are based on culturally various schemata and scripts are called cross-cultural pragmatics.

The study also checked the quantity and quality of included pragmatic aspects according to the level of the book from intermediate to upper-intermediate. Thus, an examination of each book, page by page, was made on all exercises and tokens of metalanguage and the pragmatic input was listed in the form of tables. Types of exercises and styles of metalanguage that has reference to pragmatic aspects were listed together with the page numbers.

After coding the conceptual categorization of each pragmatic aspect, more specific details about the concepts were analyzed. Firstly, the focus of the occurring metalanguage or exercise was identified and included in the table, to provide information on what particular aspects of the concepts were discussed in the books. Secondly, the style of metalanguage was analyzed. The framework for analyzing the style of metalanguage was adopted from Vellenga (2004) and adapted to fit the purpose of this study. In the analysis, each piece of pragmatic metalanguage was identified and labeled according to its style as either explicit and or implicit metalanguage. According to Vellenga (2004), these two categories are separated into four subcategories: explicit category (instructional and
descriptive metalanguage), and implicit category (introductive and task-related metalanguage). Each of these is explained in the following paragraphs with preliminary examples taken for the textbooks studied.

a. Explicit Descriptive Metalanguage:

Explicit Descriptive metalanguage refers to all linguistic elements that explicitly mentions a pragmatic language item and focuses on describing it; what it is like, how it is usually used and in what kind of situations. (Vellenga, 2004). An example of this is:

**Apologizing**
The following expressions are often used after we make a mistake and feel bad about a situation. The mistake maybe small (stepping on someone’s foot) or serious (being a half hour late for a test).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal</th>
<th>Responding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apologizing</td>
<td>Responding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oops! Excuse</td>
<td>Forget about it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorry.</td>
<td>Don’t worry about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m (very)</td>
<td>No problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was my fault.</td>
<td>That’s okay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I apologize.</td>
<td>That’s alright.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Please forgive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I forgive you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking, 2007, p. 113*).

The above explicit descriptive metalanguage explains how certain phrases can be used when apologizing for a mistake. The pragmatic information of speech act of apology is explicitly mentioned at the different levels of formality which also refers to politeness; another pragmatic information coded for the same token in the analysis. The description of the situations where such expressions should be used as well as how to use them is also explicitly mentioned.

b. Explicit Instructional Metalanguage:

Explicit Instructional metalanguage refers to language that gives explicit instructions on the functions and formation of the specific pragmatic aspect. (Vellenga, 2004). An example of this is:
“**Understanding Body Language** In face-to-face situations, body language—gestures, facial expressions, and eye contact—can give you important clues to help you understand the speaker.” *(Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking, 2007, p. 113).*

This example of explicit instructional metalanguage gives clear instructions on how to rely on body language to get clues that help you understand the speaker in a conversation. Body language is a conversation style which expresses speaker’s idiosyncratic language, idiolect, speaker’s social identity, speaker’s intentions/goals, speaker’s attitude to listener, or speaker’s ‘now and here’ mood. As body language is an important part in conveying meaning, this is included in the count.

c. **Implicit Introductive Metalanguage:**

Implicit Introductive metalanguage refers to any implicit language that seemed to prepare students for some activity by focusing their attention on a particular topic or theme *(Vellenga, 2004).* An example of this is: “**Connecting to the Topic** 2. What kinds of difficulties can a person have when visiting or moving to a place with a different culture?” *(Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking, 2007, p. 101)*

In this preliminary example, the activity is merely preparing the students for the topic. The pragmatic information of discourse and culture is implicitly presented. Nothing is being said about the kind of difficulties a person can have when visiting or moving to a place with a different culture, but a lot is left for the students to discuss themselves.

d. **Implicit Task-related Metalanguage:**

Implicit task-related metalanguage is implicit language that refers to a certain exercise and focuses the students’ attention to the pragmatic aspects of the task. It contains any
direct information explaining the process to follow in performing group or pair interaction practice activities (listening, speaking, reading or writing) (Vellenga, 2004).

An example of this is:

**Giving and Accepting Compliments** Practice giving and accepting compliments with your classmates as follows: Students A gives a compliment to Student B. Student B accepts the compliment and gives a compliment to student C. Continue until everyone has given and received a compliment.

*(Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking, 2007, p. 168)*

This example of implicit task-related metalanguage draws students’ attention to the pragmatic information of speech act. It includes straightforward information explaining the procedure to follow in performing group work interaction giving and accepting compliments using a variety of stated topics.

The exercises were analyzed in relation to how tasks were designed to be carried out by the students or the readers. This was done in order to find out whether the books offer different methods for practicing pragmatic competence. The following table shows how the metalanguage and exercises would be tabulated for further analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>page</th>
<th>Pragmatic concept</th>
<th>Style of pragmatic metalanguage</th>
<th>Focus of exercise</th>
<th>Execution of exercise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The rationale behind choosing the exercises as the focus of the study was the fact that they are the key component in any textbook and they can significantly help students in practicing the pragmatic competence. According to Kasper (1997), the teaching materials should offer students a wide variety of different types of communicative exercises, in
order for them to be able to practice their pragmatic competence and become aware of the pragmatic differences of English and their native language. On the other hand, the rationale behind choosing metalanguage as the focus of this study was because it is also an indispensable ingredient of textbooks that can serve as a pragmatic input for the learners. Pragmatic metalanguage not only presents a comprehensible model of language use for the students, but it also offers valuable information and immediate input on cultural and contextual aspects (Vellenga 2004). It can facilitate learning, by making students more aware of the specific language items. In addition, according to Fortune (2005), the learning results are more likely to be more enduring when they are attended to with metalanguage, as the use of metalanguage results in increased awareness.

The publisher of the selected books states that the books offer versatile materials for practicing language skills, not just for the matriculation examination, but for academic and non-academic use. The analysis of the variety of exercises and the style of metalanguage in the books will provide information on how wide a range of pragmatics has been selected to be presented in the materials, which in turn indicates how well the materials succeed in raising the students' awareness on the pragmatic aspects of English.

Analyzing pragmatic concepts is challenging because the issues of pragmatics are fundamentally human, that is, they deal with people's intended meanings, assumptions, purposes, goals and actions. The interpretation of the hidden meaning and purpose depends entirely on the individual hearer and thus, it is always inevitably subjective. This is why pragmatics is extremely difficult to analyze in a consistent and objective way (Yule 1996). What complicates the analysis even further, is the fact that the pragmatic concepts are somewhat overlapping. For example, issues of conversational structure can also be categorized as aspects of politeness, and speech acts can't be determined without taking into consideration elements of discourse and culture. Thus, it is difficult to make clear-cut classifications of the different categories. Furthermore, it can be argued that all
language is somehow pragmatic, since pragmatics is deeply incorporated into the structures and semantics of language. In Mey's (2001) words, it is impossible to determine where pragmatics ends and another field of linguistics begins. That is why this study focused on looking at the explicit mentions of pragmatic concepts; the manifest content, instead of the latent pragmatic input. The concepts are partly overlapping and this will be taken into account in the analysis. In cases where an exercise or a piece of metalanguage addresses two or more pragmatic concepts simultaneously, each concept will be listed as a separate occurrence of a pragmatic concept. For example, if a single exercise focused on both speech acts and politeness, it will be listed in the table under both of these categories.

3.4. Teachers’ Survey

A survey was designed to elicit perceptions of teachers in relation to pragmatic content in the textbooks and whether or not the supplement the textbooks under study or incorporate elements of pragmatics into the EFL teaching process. The survey was distributed to the teachers who were, at the time of study, teaching the English language at the College of Languages and Translation in King Saud University using Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking and Interactions 2 Listening and Speaking. The survey included five general open-ended questions where teachers were asked about their knowledge of pragmatics, textbooks used in this study, and how they incorporated elements of pragmatics into the EFL teaching process. 21 copies were distributed to English language teachers teaching the analyzed textbooks and all forms were returned to the researcher to check. All 21 teachers who have EFL teaching experience answered the five-question survey. 8 teachers were excluded, and only 13 teachers were included in the study because they taught and were familiar with the textbooks under investigation. The survey can be found in Appendix C.
Chapter Four

Data analysis and Results

4.1. Introduction

The analysis examined the exercises and metalanguage that touch on pragmatic issues within each book and focused on the following pragmatic concepts of deixis, reference and inference, presupposition, implicature, speech acts, politeness, conversational structure, and discourse and culture. All the pragmatic metalanguage and exercises found in the selected textbooks were then listed in tables for analysis.
To answer the following questions, a content analysis was carried out on the selected textbooks in addition to a self-retrospective survey to collect data. The questions are:

1. What are the types of pragmatic elements explicitly taught via metalanguage in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

2. What are the types of pragmatic elements implicitly presented in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

3. What is the frequency of each of the pragmatic elements presented in the *Interactions 1* and 2 textbooks?

4. What kinds of exercises are found in the textbooks to situate the pragmatic features for students to practise their communicative skills?

5. Do teachers incorporate, modify, and supplement course texts in terms of pragmatic exercises and metalanguage?

The first and second questions were answered based on the results of the quantification of the data to see whether the materials truly provide the students with a wide range of pragmatic input. The third question was answered based on the inferences from the text investigating the quality of pragmatic elements that were explicitly and implicitly taught in each textbook. This distinction determines whether the metalanguage explicitly teaches or describes how a language item should be used or it merely implicitly introduces or mentions certain aspects of pragmatics. The fourth question was answered based on the analysis of the exercises in relation to how the tasks were executed. It aimed at finding out what kind of possibilities for rehearsing the pragmatic competence the textbooks offer. The last question was answered based on teachers’ survey about the adequacy of the textbooks under study, and how the teachers incorporated elements of pragmatics into listening and speaking courses.
4.2. Data Analysis

This section is divided into four parts. The first two parts discuss the frequencies of pragmatic information in terms of metalanguage and exercises in the textbooks. The third part compares the frequencies in both textbooks. The fourth part is a discussion of the teachers’ survey results.

4.2.1. Pragmatics Content in Interactions 1

The occurrences of pragmatic metalanguage and exercises found in *Interactions 1* are listed in Table 1. The pragmatic elements found are reference and inference, presupposition, speech acts, politeness, conversational structure, and discourse and culture. Deixis, cooperation and conversational implicature are not present in *Interactions 1*.

Table 4-1.

*Pragmatic exercises and metalanguage in Interactions 1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pragmatic Element</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deixis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference/ inference</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presupposition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational Implicature</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech acts</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politeness</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse/ culture</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 4-1, reference and inference are the most frequent pragmatic elements found in the exercises and metalanguage, appearing 20 times in Interactions 1. The second most frequent occurrence is discourse and culture, appearing 16 times, followed by speech acts, 10 times, and politeness, 6 times. Deixis and implicature are not found at all in the textbook. Presupposition is mentioned once, while conversational structure appeared 4 times. This is explained in more detail with examples in the following section.

4.2.1.1. Reference and Inference

Reference and inference occurs in 21 exercises in Interactions 1, and pragmatic metalanguage is included in only one of these exercises, as follows:

**Getting Meaning from Context**

If you don’t understand everything that English speakers say, use your guessing ability. How?

- Listen to clues, or signals, that help you guess.
- Words that you already know can be clues to meaning.
- Grammar, stress, and intonation can also be clues to meaning.

Read the sentence below. Can you guess the meaning of the new word from all the other words you know?

*Basic English is a prerequisite before you can take intermediate English*

You can guess that prerequisite means something that is necessary before something else.

*(Interactions 1, 2007, p.15)*

In this example, the metalanguage used is descriptive and explicit, with direct instructions on how the inferring could or should be done. In most cases found in the study, the metalanguage is in the form of a single question, which directs students' attention to specific points, but in this case, we can see the form of imperative directive in the explicit metalanguage used.

In all the reference and inference exercises in the textbooks, students are required to infer certain information, based on the text or the context, as in this pre-listening exercise:
Listen to the underlined words and phrases. You will hear the underlined words and phrases in the presentation. Write the letter of the correct definition beside each sentence. (Interactions 1, 2007, p. 14)

In this exercise, students must infer the meaning of the words he or she hears in the exercise based on the text the words occur in or the context of the sentence. Some of the inference exercises are more demanding, as there is no correct answer for each, but the students are required to make their own interpretations of the situation. For example, on page 41, students are given a picture to analyze, and then they are required to infer the relationship among the people, on the basis of what they understand from the picture. They have to rely entirely on their own interpretation and find the basis for their inferences independently without direct instructions on how the inferring could or should be done.

4.2.1.2. Presupposition

Presupposition is found only once in Interaction 1 through an implicit introductive metalanguage. This was found on page 40, where there is a picture of a family eating together and the students are required to answer this question: “Look at the photo. What are the people doing? What is their relationship to one another?” What the people are doing and the nature of their relationships are not explicitly expressed, but the students are required to infer the information based on their presupposed knowledge of ‘family’, ‘eating’, ‘togetherness’, etcetera.

4.2.1.3. Speech Acts

Speech acts appear 10 times in Interactions 1, and in each of these occurrences, there is pragmatic metalanguage attached to the task. The speech acts found in the exercises are ordering, making introductions, ordering in a restaurant, giving advice, refusing, offering,
asking and giving directions, making and answering requests, apologizing, expressing opinions, agreeing and disagreeing, and giving and accepting compliments.

In two occurrences, the metalanguage related to speech acts is implicit and task-related, without any direct instructions on the pragmatic concepts at hand. On page 50, for example, with no direct instructions on how to give advice, students are required to listen to an advice from a radio show called, "Eating Right" and answer this question: *What are some important things you can do to eat right?* In other occurrences, there is also an indication of the illocutionary force of the speech acts. On page 60, for example, related to the speech act of offering food to someone and refusing it politely, students are required to evaluate the illocutionary force of an expression and discuss whether or not the food is refused politely. This naturally draws students' attention to the fact that expressions differ in term of the range of politeness found in speech, and this would have different implications on the use of speech by both speaker and hearer.

There are seven occurrences where speech act is both explicit descriptive and implicit task-related. In the following case, explicit, descriptive metalanguage is used when discussing speech acts as in the following:

In the United States, you can order dinner a la carte, which means you pay separately for each item. You can also order a complete dinner which includes a main course, soup or salad, and side dishes for one price. Drinks and dessert are usually separate. A "dish" in this context is a serving of cooked food, not a container. Here is a list of questions and answers that are frequently used when ordering in restaurants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Server</th>
<th>Costumer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taking an order</td>
<td>Ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you ready to order?</td>
<td>I'll have (the beans and rice).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May I take your order?</td>
<td>I'd like (a steak).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Interactions 1, 2007, p. 54)*
In this example, the speech act of ordering in a restaurant is explicitly presented through the descriptive metalanguage and this would give the students a clear description of how to order in a restaurant followed by examples of taking an order and performing the speech act of ordering. However, after the students have been introduced with different questions and answers used when ordering, they are required on page 55 to use a scripted model of a conversation between a customer and a server to role-play ordering dinner and follow some instructions to write and rehearse a dialogue between a server and a customer.

Other examples are found on page 77, the speech act of asking for and giving directions is explicit descriptive where students are instructed to ask for and give directions guided by different examples. Next, they are asked to read a map, listen for, write, follow and give directions using the expressions presented before the task. Similarly, on page 93, explicit, descriptive metalanguage of speech act making and answering requests is presented. Students are explicitly instructed on how to make requests by showing different examples of making and answering requests formally and informally. Then students are asked to role-play making and answering requests using the expressions presented earlier.

4.2.1.4. Politeness

Politeness was found to occur six times in Interaction1. It explicitly appears once in the textbook with an instructional metalanguage that deals with register and the appropriate level of formality in different contexts;

In informal introductions, English speakers use first names. In formal situations, they use titles such as Mr., Mrs., or Ms. When introducing someone, don’t just say his or her name. It's polite to give some information to help begin a conversation. (This is my friend, cousin, instructor.) When meeting someone
for the first time, it isn't polite to ask personal questions about money, age, or religion. (*Interactions 1*, 2007, p. 11)

This is a case of a detailed metalanguage used in dealing with pragmatic issues. As can be seen from the quotation, the metalanguage touches on register, formality, politeness, context and appropriacy, and thus offers the student a chance to reflect on several pragmatic issues at the same time.

Politeness is implicitly found twice in the textbook. The first example of an implicit, task-related metalanguage related to politeness occurs where the students are asked to role-play ordering dinner following instructions in the text boxes. The instruction is as follows:

**Server’s Instructions**

Start by asking the customer, “May I take your order?”
Then take the customer’s order for a main course, soup or salad, side dishes, dessert, and a drink.

(*Interactions 1*, 2007, p.55)

The students are instructed to use the expression “May I take your order?” to take orders. However, there is no mentioning of the pragmatic aspect of politeness or explicitly explaining it further. Another example is found in exercise 7 where the students are asked to read a situation and then prepare a conversation based on that situation.

Prepare the conversation between Soo Yun and Cathy's mother with a partner. Put on a skit for the class. You can use the expressions below. After each skit, discuss whether or not the food was refused politely. (*Interactions 1*, 2007, p.60)

This piece of implicit task-related metalanguage highlights the polite aspect of the exercise, but it does not explicitly give instructions on what politeness is or how one sounds polite.
Like speech act, politeness is presented explicitly and implicitly at the same time in a few occurrences. An example of an explicit, descriptive presentation of giving introductions is given below:

The following expressions are often used when English speakers introduce themselves or others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>Expressions</th>
<th>Supplier A</th>
<th>Supplier B</th>
<th>Supplier C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introducing others</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sharon, this is my friend, Kim.</td>
<td>Hi, Kim.</td>
<td>Nice to meet you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Linda, I'd like you to meet my classmate</td>
<td>Good to meet you Evan.</td>
<td>You, too.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing yourself</td>
<td></td>
<td>My name is Denise.</td>
<td>Hi, Denise. I'm Ricard.</td>
<td>Introducing yourself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Interactions 1, 2007, p.10)*

Making introductions is explicitly discussed as students are introduced to different functions and expressions to introduce others as well as themselves. However, this explicit metalanguage is followed by an implicit, task-related metalanguage where students are asked to sit in a circle and practice introducing classmates as well as make introductions based on a fictional situation between two students in a university. They have to entirely analyze the situation by themselves based on a picture and write a conversation based on their analysis to practise making introductions. In this task, they are not given instructions to what kind of expressions they should or should not use. This example is given below:

Role-play: A First Meeting Joe and Peter are students at the same college. They meet for the first time at the student cafeteria when their trays collide. What do they say? How do they feel? Will the meet again? Prepare a conversation with a partner. Memorize your lines and put on a skit for the class.

*(Interactions 1, 2007, p.11)*
Similarly, on page 93, politeness is found in an explicit descriptive metalanguage where students are asked to learn how to make and answer requests formally and informally.

It is important to learn how to make and answer formal and informal requests correctly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Making Requests</th>
<th>Answering Requests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Could you….?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you please..?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can you please..?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal (or</td>
<td>Would you mind*__ing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stronger)</td>
<td>I’d like you to…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I need you to…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want you to…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*Interactions 1, 2007, p.93)

This explicit metalanguage is then followed by an implicit task-related metalanguage where students are asked to role-play a conversation using the expressions in the chart to make and answer requests. They are further asked to talk and discuss the level of politeness that each pair would use in each role-play.

4.2.1.5. Conversational Structure

Conversational structure appears four times in the textbook and all but one occurred with metalanguage. On pages 18 and 19, the students are given the opportunity to practise turn taking while giving telephone messages. The students are given the chance to practise pausing and using adjacency pairs. However, no explicit information is given to describe turn-taking, pausing or adjacency pairs.
Metalanguage related to conversational structure is explicitly presented in two of the conversational structure units. For example, when practicing calling for information, the students are instructed on patterns of conversations when giving telephone numbers in a phone conversation, as reproduced below:

When saying telephone numbers, English speakers will understand you better if you
- Pause after the area code.
- Pause after the first three numbers, and between the next two pairs of numbers.
- Raise your voice before every pause.
- Lower your voice at the end.

(Interactions 1, 2007, p.20)

With this explicit, descriptive metalanguage the students are given direct instructions on how to pause when engaged in conversations. This metalanguage is followed by an exercise where the students listen to pauses and try to take notes and fill in some information. Later, the students are asked to role-play the same conversation to practise pausing, raising and lowering the voice.

In another case, the metalanguage related to conversational structure is explicit descriptive. The students’ attention is drawn to intonation with tag questions by making them listen to tag questions with rising and falling intonation:

People pronounce tag questions in two ways. Listen to the following examples. Notice the difference in intonation.

Rising Intonation  
Your father is a doctor, isn’t he?

Falling Intonation  
Your father is a doctor, isn’t her?

In the first example, the speaker isn’t sure of the answer. He is asking for information so his voice goes up at the end of the sentence. In the second example, the speaker is sure that the father is a doctor. The question isn’t a real question; instead, it is a way of “making conversation.” The speaker’s voice goes down at the end of the sentence.

(Interactions 1, 2007, p.126)
With the presence of this metalanguage, the students are given clear instructions on how to use and rely on intonation when making conversations using tag questions. On the following page, the lesson continues with an exercise on role-play using tag questions with different intonations; rising and falling.

**4.2.1.6. Discourse and Culture**

Discourse and culture is the second most elaborated pragmatic element after reference and inference. They are found a total of 14 times. Out of the 14 occurrences, three is accompanied by both an exercise and additional metalanguage for each, and 11 are presented with only metalanguage related to discourse and culture and no exercises. The metalanguage is found to be explicit on eight occasions and implicit on seven occasions. Register, context, and appropriacy, and their effects on the discourse, as well as how culture affects them, are the pragmatic issues most discussed in *Interaction 1*.

In one occurrence, a discussion on discourse and culture is presented with an exercise and additional metalanguage and they deal with the culture specific regulations and social rules. This is shown below:

> In the United States, you can order dinner *a la carte*, which means you pay separately for each item. You can also order a complete dinner which includes a main course, soup or salad, and side dishes for one price. Drinks and dessert are usually separate. A "dish" in this context is a serving of cooked food, not a container. (*Interactions 1, 2007, p. 54*)

In this case, there is an explicit descriptive metalinguistic discussion on the custom of ordering foods in the United States and this is followed by a listening exercise. The discussion touches on cultural schemata and explains the different ways of ordering in a restaurant in another culture.
Similarly, an explicit descriptive metalinguistic discussion on local customs is found, as shown in the example reproduced below:

When you visit other countries, it is important to know the local customs. Polite behavior in one culture can be rude in another culture. For example, kissing a friend to say hello is normal in France but not in Korea.

\textit{(Interactions 1, 2007, p. 111)}

This metalinguistic information of discourse and culture is then followed by a task; a writing exercise where students are asked to give some examples of some polite and rude behaviors in their culture. The discussion touches on cultural schemata and it explains the different social practices among cultures.

In one occurrence, discourse and culture is presented through metalanguage only with no exercise, as shown:

In informal introductions, English speakers use first names. In formal situations, they use titles such as Mr., Mrs., or Ms. When introducing someone, don’t just say his or her name. It's polite to give some information to help begin a conversation. (This is my friend, cousin, instructor.) When meeting someone for the first time, it isn't polite to ask personal questions about money, age, or religion. \textit{(Interactions 1, 2007, p. 11)}

Discourse and culture here deal with the level of formality and there is an extensive explicit instructive metalinguistic discussion on formal and informal introductions with no following tasks. The discussion explains how making introductions is culture specific.

Similarly, on page 115, discourse and culture are also presented through metalanguage only with no exercise. The topic in this case deals with the nature of formal dining in the United States. This information is presented through an extensive explicit descriptive metalinguistic with no following task for students. The discussion touches on cultural schemata, as it explains how a formal American dinner is served.
On other occasions where discourse and culture appear, the metalanguage is implicit. On page 101, for example, the students are asked to answer this question: “What kinds of difficulties can a person have when visiting or moving to a place with a different culture?” In this example of implicit introductive metalanguage, nothing is being said about what exactly are the kinds of difficulties a person can have when visiting another culture. A lot is left for the students to discuss and discover by themselves.

4.2.2. Pragmatics Content in Interactions 2 Listening and Speaking

Interactions 2 consists of 308 pages. The pragmatic elements found are reference and inference, presupposition, conversational implicature, speech act, politeness, conversational structure, and discourse and culture. Deixis is not present in Interactions 2.

Table 4-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pragmatic Element</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deixis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference/ inference</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presupposition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational Implicature</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech acts</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politeness</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational structure</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse/ culture</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 4-2, the pragmatic element that is most often touched on in the exercises and metalanguage is reference and inference, as it appears 29 times in *Interactions 2*. Speech acts and conversational structure are the second most frequent pragmatic elements in the textbook, occurring 17 times. Politeness appears 11 times whereas discourse and culture appears 7 times, which make these two pragmatic elements the third and the fourth most often discussed pragmatic elements in the textbook. The elements that are not covered at all in the textbook is deixis in the pragmatic sense. Also, presupposition is also rarely mentioned and occurs only once, while implicature occurs twice in the textbook. More details and examples of each of these are given in the following section.

### 4.2.2.1. Reference and Inference

Reference and inference are the most frequent pragmatic elements as they are found in 29 exercises in *Interactions 2*, and in only one of these exercises, pragmatic metalanguage is also included. The metalanguage used when discussing reference and inference is instructive and explicit, as shown:

**Getting Meaning from Context**
When you listen to people talking in English, it is probably hard to understand all the words. However, you can usually get a general idea of what they are saying. How? By using *clues* that help you to *guess*. These clues include:
- words
- synonyms
- transitions
- stressed words
- intonation
- a speaker’s tone of voice
- your knowledge of the culture, speakers, or situation

(*Interactions 2, 2007, p.17*)

In this case, the students are explicitly advised on how to infer using the context as a reference. This metalanguage is then followed by a listening exercise where students
practise inference and reference through guessing the correct answers and writing down the clues that would help them choose the answers.

In all the reference and inference exercises, the students are asked to infer certain information, based on the text or the context, as in this pre-listening exercise:

“Listen to the underlined words and phrases from the conversation. Then use the context to match them with their definitions.”

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 14)

Some of the inference exercises are more challenging, as there is no correct answer; the students would need to make their own interpretations of the situation given. For example, on page 45, the students are required to infer the relationships between the people using the way they address each other as a clue. They need to rely entirely on their own interpretation and find the basis for their inferences independently—direct instructions or metalanguage are not provided on how the inferring could or should be done.

4.2.2.2. Presupposition

Presupposition is mentioned only once in Interactions 2 through an explicit descriptive metalanguage, as shown in the following excerpt:

Guessing relationships between people

The way people address each other in North America can give clues about their relationships. For example:

- In very formal situations, it is polite to use the titles “sir” or “Ma’am” when you are talking to an older person or someone important. With adults you don’t know well, it is correct to use a title with the person’s last name. For example, “Ms. Adams” or “Dr. Snow.”
- On the other hand, two people who are equal in age or position, or who are meeting in a casual situation, usually use each other’s first names.
- People in close personal relationships often use “pet” names to address each other. For example:
  - Married people or relatives speaking to children: honey, dear, sweetheart, darling
  - Children to parents: Mom, Mommy, Mama, Dad, Daddy, Papa
  - Children to grandparents: Grandma, Granny, Grammy, Grandpa
  - Friends: pal, buddy, brother, sister, girl

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 45)

In this example, the students are explicitly instructed to use the way people address each other as clues to guess their relationships. This explicit metalinguistic information is then followed by a listening exercise where students are required to listen for clues to relationships between people.

4.2.2.3. Conversational Implicature

Conversational implicatures are found only twice in Interaction 2 through an explicit descriptive metalanguage;

Many students of English have difficulty with the phrase by the way. Speakers use this phrase to introduce a new topic in a discussion or conversation. For example, in the conversation you heard:

Nancy: Oh… you’re the girl from Japan! What was your name again?
Mari: Mari.
Nancy: Right. What a small world!
Mari: It really is. By the way, who else lives in the house? The ad said there are three people.

At first, Mari and Nancy are speaking about their meeting at the placement test the day before. Mari says “by the way” because she wants to interrupt this topic to introduce another topic.

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 32)

In this case, the students are explicitly instructed on how the phrase “by the way” can be used to introduce a new topic. Students are made aware that there are certain things that
are communicated without being said, but no exercises were given for the students to practise.

In another example, students are explicitly instructed that there are certain phrases used by the speaker to go off (digress) and return to the topic;

**Digressing from (going off) and Returning to the topic**
Lecturers often include personal stories, jokes, or other information not directly related to the main topic. When speakers “go off the subject” (digress) like this, do not take notes. Start taking notes when the speaker signals a return to the main subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Going off the Topic</th>
<th>Returning to the Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By the way</td>
<td>As I was saying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That reminds me</td>
<td>Anyway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before I forget</td>
<td>Back to our topic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 230)*

In this case, students again are made aware that there are certain things that are communicated without being said. However, in this instant, a listening exercise is followed for them to practise listening for and recognizing digression as well as returning to the topic.

**4.2.2.4. Speech Acts**

Speech acts appear 16 times in *Interactions 2*, and pragmatic metalanguage are present in 13 of them. However, on one occasion on page 59, the speech act of advice appears in an exercise with no pragmatic metalanguage. The students are asked to reread the conversation from a previous activity and recognize the expressions of asking for and giving advice. There are no explicit instructions on the function of the speech act of asking for and giving advice.

In four occurrences, the metalanguage related to speech acts is implicit without any direct instructions on the pragmatic aspects of language. For example,
Reread Ron and Jeff’s conversation. How does Ron invite Jeff to watch the football game at Ali’s house? What does Jeff say to accept or refuse Ron’s invitation?

Jeff: Hello?
Ron: Jeff? Uh, this is Ron, you know, from your history class?
Jeff: Jeff: Oh, hi.
Ron: Listen, I was wondering … um, were you planning to go to Ali’s house on Sunday to watch football?
Jeff: Hmm. I haven’t really thought about it yet.
Ron: Well, would you like to go?
Jeff: You mean, with you
Ron: Yeah.
Jeff: Well, sure, Ron, I’d love to go. OR: Well thanks, Ron, but I just remembered that I’m busy that night.

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 19)

In this case, the speech act of making, accepting and refusing invitation is presented through an implicit introductive metalanguage. There are no direct instructions on how to make, accept or refuse invitation, and the students are merely asked to reread a conversation and answer some questions.

Similarly, on page 59, the speech act of asking for and giving advice is implicitly presented through a task-related metalanguage. The students again are not given any explicit or clear directions on the pragmatic aspects of the language and are asked to merely use the expressions of advice from the chart to role-play various situations.

There are 2 occasions where the speech act is explicit and in both examples, the metalanguage is followed by an exercise, as reproduced below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Use these expressions to request directions. | Excuse me, where is …..?
|                                   | Can/ Could you tell me where…. is?
|                                   | How do I get ….? Do you know where ….? |
| Use these expressions to give directions. | Verbs: go, walk, drive, turn
|                                   | Directions: up/down the street; north, south, east, west, right, left; straight
|                                   | Distance: half a block, one mile, two Kilometers
|                                   | Preposition: on the left/ right; on …. street |
Descriptive metalanguage is used here when discussing speech acts of requesting and giving directions. The students are given explicit instructions on how to request and give directions through demonstrating example expressions. This explicit metalinguistic information is then followed by a listening exercise where they follow directions.

Similarly, explicit descriptive metalanguage of speech act is presented and followed by an exercise for the students to practice the speech act of approval and disapproval. This is shown below:

To approve means “to believe that someone or something is good or acceptable.” Disapprove has the opposite meaning. As an example, many people approve of tattoos these days, but they probably disapprove of them for children. The following expressions are used to express approval and disapproval.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approval</th>
<th>Disapproval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I approve of (noun/verb + ing)</td>
<td>I disapprove of (noun/verb + ing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m in favor of + (noun)</td>
<td>I’m against + (noun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m for + (noun)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this case, students are explicitly instructed on how to express approval and disapproval by showing them different expressions. Then the students are asked to complete some statements with an expression of approval and disapproval using the expressions presented earlier.

There are other occasions where the speech act is both explicit descriptive and implicit task-related at the same time. For example, the students are introduced with detailed explicit descriptive metalinguistic information about how to offer to do something, as shown in the excerpt below:

At the end of the conversation, notice the expressions that Mari and Sharon use to offer each the help:
Sharon: Would you like me to write down the internet address for you?
Mari: Sure. That would be great.
Sharon: Is there anything I can do to help with the party?
Sharon: Thanks, but it’s not necessary.

Study these expressions commonly used in English to offer, accept, or decline help:

OFFER
Would you like me to …?
Is there anything I can do to …?
May I …?
Could I …?
What can I do to …?

ACCEPT
Sure.
Yes.
I’d appreciate it.
If you wouldn’t mind.

DECLINE
No, that’s ok, thanks.
No, but thanks anyway.
Thanks, but it’s not necessary.
No, but thanks a lot for asking.

(*Interactions 2, 2007, p. 227*)

Here the speech act of offer is explicitly presented through the descriptive metalanguage giving the students a clear description of how to offer followed by expected responses (accept or decline). As can be seen from the quotation, this piece of metalanguage is also related to politeness, and is thus, an example of how several pragmatic aspects are discussed at the same time in the textbook. However, after introducing the students with explicit piece of information, they are asked on page 228 to create a conversation relying on photos and using some of the expressions from the list provided on page 227 to offer, accept, or decline help.

4.2.2.5. Politeness

Politeness is found 11 times in *Interactions 2* and on 5 occasions, the metalanguage is explicit and followed by a task for the students to practise the pragmatic element in
question. For example, a long and detailed explicit descriptive metalanguage touches on contradicting politely and offers the students different ways of contradicting, as shown:

To contradict means “to say the opposite of what someone has just said.” For example:
Mari: Why do Americans say things that don’t mean? They’re so… how do I say it … two-faced?
Nancy: I know it seemed that way sometimes, Mari, but it’s not true.

In her answer, Nancy contradicts Mari and corrects her wrong idea. There are polite and impolite ways to contradict people. Here are some common expressions that are used for this purpose:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polite</th>
<th>Well, you might think… but actually …</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Well, actually …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It’s true that … but …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It seems … but…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>That’s not completely true.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rude</th>
<th>You’re wrong.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are you talking about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>That’s ridiculous.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Interactions 2, 2007, p.106)

As can be seen in the excerpt from Interactions 2, the students are explicitly directed on how to contradict others politely and examples are provided on how to do so. This explicit metalanguage is then followed by a task for the students to practise contradicting each other through discussing stereotypes.

On one occasion, however, politeness is discussed explicitly through an instructional metalanguage but with no following task:

To refuse the invitation, Jeff does not just say, “No, thank you.” Instead, he gives a reason for refusing. This kind of reason (Which may or may not be true) is called an excuse and refusing an invitation this way is called making (or giving) an excuse.

(Interactions 2, 2007, p.20)

In this example, it is clear that students are explicitly instructed on how to refuse an invitation politely and examples on how to justify the refusal are provided. However, this
explicit metalanguage is not followed by a task for the students to practise refusing politely.

### 4.2.2.6. Conversational Structure

Conversational structure appears 17 times in *Interactions* 2 and all are accompanied by metalanguage. The metalanguage is mostly explicit and followed by a task for the students to practise the pragmatic element in question. For example, showing interest is practiced through an explicit descriptive metalanguage where the students are instructed on how to show interest in conversations, as shown below:

English speakers show that they are interested and paying attention by
- making eye contact,
- nodding their heads, and
- using specific words and expressions for showing interest. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Really?</th>
<th>Oh?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yeah?</td>
<td>Oh yeah?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see.</td>
<td>mmmm-hmm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And?</td>
<td>Oh no!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*Interactions* 2, 2007, p. 9)

This explicit metalinguistic information is then followed by a task where students are asked to work in groups and take turn telling each other stories and show interest in different ways.

Similarly, in another occurrence of conversational structure, understanding the intonation of tag questions is presented explicitly through descriptive metalanguage, as shown:

When people need information or don’t know something, they normally ask a question. For example, “are you from China? However, when English speakers think they know the answer to a question, but they aren’t sure, they often form tag questions with rising intonation:
You’re from China, aren’t you? You speak Chinese, don’t you?

The rising intonation means that the person is asking for information.

In contrast, it is also possible to form tag questions with falling intonation, like this:

It’s nice weather today, today, is it? The test was hard, wasn’t it?

Tag questions with falling intonation are not real questions. When people ask these kinds of questions, they expect agreement. The tag is a way of making conversation or making small talk.

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 92)

This long and detailed metalinguistic information directly instructs the students how to understand the intonation of tag questions; and how to differentiate between tag questions with rising intonation and tag questions with falling intonation. It is then followed by a listening exercise for the students to further recognize the intonation of tag questions.

4.2.2.7. Discourse and Culture

Discourse and culture appear seven times in Interactions 2. Four of these are accompanied by metalanguage without exercise, and the other 3 has only exercises. In the four mentioned above, the metalanguage is found to be explicit in one, and implicit the rest of the three occurrences. For example,

In North America, most universities have housing offices. Students looking for places to live and people who are looking for roommates can advertise in these offices. It is quite common for students to move into a dormitory, house, or apartment with people they have not met before.

(Interactions 2, 2007, p. 28)

In this case, discourse and culture deal with the culture specific regulations and social rules and it is presented through an explicit instructional metalanguage with no following exercises.
In the other occurrences where the metalanguage is implicit, one is shown in the following excerpt.

Discuss these questions in small groups.
1. What are the people in each photo? Can you guess which countries they are from?
2. Have you ever invited guests from another country to your home? If so, did their behavior surprise you? How did you react?
3. When visiting another country, have you ever insulted someone or embarrassed yourself because you didn’t know the local customs? What happened?

(Interaction 2, 2007, p. 133)

In this part, the students are asked to answer some questions based on pictures showing people from different cultural backgrounds. This is an example of implicit introductive metalanguage as nothing is explained about the customs of the different cultures. Students are left to guess and discover by themselves.

4.2.3. Pragmatic Exercises and Pragmatic Metalanguage in Interactions 1 and Interactions 2

A comparison of the number of pages as well as the number of chapters in each textbook shows that both are alike in terms of length. Interactions 2 is slightly longer than Interactions 1 with a difference of 66 pages. This could be a result of the longer overall textbook length; it could also be related to print style or use of more pictures in Interactions 2, rather than actual amount of text. Because the textbooks are similar in terms of length and number of chapters, the researcher moved forward with relative certainty that a comparison between the textbooks was justified. Thus, page by page analysis of the textbooks was performed to investigate the amount and quality of
pragmatic information included. The results of the comparative analysis are summarized in the following tables.

Table 4-3.

*Pages and chapters in Interactions 1 and Interactions 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Total number of chapters</th>
<th>Total number of pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Interactions 1</em></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Interactions 2</em></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In both textbooks, pragmatic information accounts for merely a small portion of the book. As mentioned before, any information related to reference and inference, discourse and culture, speech acts, politeness, presupposition, conversational implicature, and deixis was coded as pragmatic information. It is also worth mentioning that for the majority of the cases, the pragmatic information occurs more than once on a page, such that the percentages shown below are highly inflated. Table 4-4 below shows the distribution of pragmatic information tabulated by number of pages.

Table 4-4.

*Pragmatic concepts in Interactions 1 and Interactions 2.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Pages which include pragmatic concepts</th>
<th>Total number of pages</th>
<th>Percentage of pages which include pragmatic concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Interactions 1</em></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>20.66 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Interactions 2</em></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>18.50 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, *Interactions 1* and *Interactions 2* cover nearly most of the pragmatic concepts. The difference is on how and how much each is presented in the textbooks. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5.

*The frequency of pragmatic concepts in Interactions 1 and Interactions 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pragmatic Element</th>
<th><em>Interactions 1</em></th>
<th></th>
<th><em>Interactions 2</em></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deixis</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference/ inference</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presupposition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational Implicature</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech acts</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politeness</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse/ culture</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4-5, the most frequent pragmatic concepts in the exercises and metalanguage are reference and inference, as they are mentioned 20 times in *Interactions 1* and 29 times in *Interactions 2*. The second most frequently mentioned element is discourse and culture in *Interactions 1*, which appears 16 times. However, speech acts and conversational structure are the second most mentioned pragmatic elements in *Interactions 2*, appearing 17 times. In *Interactions 1*, speech acts appears 10 times, while politeness is covered 6 times, which make these two the third and fourth most frequently discussed pragmatic concepts, respectively, in *Interactions 1*. However, in *Interactions 2*, politeness appears 11 times, while discourse and culture was mentioned 7 times, which
make them the third and the fourth most often discussed pragmatic concepts, respectively, in the textbook.

As Table 4-5 indicates, there are differences and similarities when it comes to which pragmatic aspects are given more or less attention in each book. For example, the concept that is not acknowledged at all in both textbooks is deixis. In addition, Presupposition occurs only once in both textbooks and implicature, is not found at all in Interactions 1, but occurs twice in Interactions 2. Conversational structure is also one of the less elaborated concepts in Interactions 1 discussed only 4 times in the book, compared to 17 in Interactions 2.

4.2.3.1. Pragmatic Metalanguage

The metalanguage that is used in Interactions 1 as well as Interactions 2 is quite varied, and the frequency of pragmatic metalanguage increases moving from Interactions 1 to Interactions 2. The frequency of the different types of metalanguage is presented in Table 4-6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Explicit metalanguage</th>
<th>Implicit metalanguage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>Introductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-6.

*The frequency of different types of pragmatic metalanguage in Interactions 1 and Interactions 2*
According to Table 4-6, both explicit and implicit metalanguage is used throughout the textbooks; however, implicit metalanguage is slightly more frequent than explicit metalanguage. The most often used style of metalanguage is task-related metalanguage that refers to a certain pragmatic exercise, but does not give any explicit information on the pragmatic aspects of language. Task-related metalanguage occurs a total of 17 times in Interactions 1 and 21 times in Interactions 2. The second most common form of metalanguage is descriptive metalanguage, which explicitly mentions a pragmatic language item, but focuses merely on describing it. This form is found 15 times in Interactions 1 and 20 times in Interactions 2. Implicit, introductive metalanguage is used on 7 occasions in Interactions 1 and on 3 occasions in Interactions 2. Explicit, instructional metalanguage that clearly instructs the students on how to use a certain pragmatic concept occurs only twice in Interactions 1 and three times in Interactions 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interactions 1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactions 2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.3.2. Pragmatic Exercises

The most commonly used exercise types for pragmatic skills are listening, pair or group discussions, role-playing inferring and tasks. The types and frequency of each are shown in Table 4-7.
Table 4-7

**Pragmatics exercises and pragmatic metalanguage Interactions 1 and Interactions 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Inferring meaning</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
<th>Role-play</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactions 1</strong></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactions 2</strong></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Listening exercises are the most popular method of introducing pragmatic concepts in both textbooks, as this type of exercise occurs 28 times in Interactions 1 and 31 times in Interactions 2. Discussion exercises occur 16 times in Interactions 1, but only 5 times in Interactions 2. Role-playing, on the other hand, is used 12 times in Interactions 1, and 13 times in Interactions 2. Inferring tasks, where the students are asked to infer the meaning of words or expressions, are used 10 times in Interactions 1 and 11 times in Interactions 2. This type of exercise is the only one that occurs consistently throughout the two textbooks. Reading comprehension, speaking and writing tasks occur only one to 6 times, so these types of exercises are infrequently used in relation to the pragmatic concepts in both textbooks.

4.2.4. Teachers’ Survey

In addition to the analysis of pragmatic information presented in the textbooks, it is crucial to get teachers’ view on the inclusion of pragmatics teaching in the textbooks and whether or not they supplement or/and modify the textbooks analysed in this study with
more pragmatic material. 13 teachers who have had EFL teaching experience answered a five-question survey (Appendix C) that provided data for this part of the study.

In the first question, the teachers were asked to rank the following skills/sub skills according to their teaching preference; listening & speaking, writing, reading, grammar, and vocabulary. Their responses are as shown in table 4-7:

Table 4-7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills/ sub skills according to teachers’ teaching preference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ranking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results in table 4-7, more than half of the 13 teachers (61%) prefer teaching reading over the rest of the skills and sub skills; listening & speaking, grammar and vocabulary. Writing was the least preferred by the teachers who took the survey.

In the second question in the survey, the teachers were asked if they had any prior knowledge in college as both graduate and undergraduate of any of the following subjects: syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics. Their responses are shown in table 4-8:

Table 4-8.
The number of teachers with background knowledge in syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bachelor</th>
<th>Masters</th>
<th>Both</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency / Percentage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>3 30%</td>
<td>5 50%</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
<td>7 70%</td>
<td>1 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatics</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
<td>6 60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociolinguistics</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
<td>2 20%</td>
<td>5 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4-8, 10 out of 13 teachers had background knowledge in syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, and 9 had background knowledge in sociolinguistics in their undergraduate, graduate, or both. Most importantly, the majority of the teachers who took the survey have prior knowledge of pragmatics.

The third question in the survey aimed at finding which one of textbooks has the teacher used in instruction or is most familiar with. According to the results, 5 teachers have taught using *Interactions 1*, 3 teachers have taught using *Interactions 2*, while the rest of the 5 teachers have taught using both textbooks.

The fourth question in the survey aimed at eliciting information of the adequacy of the textbooks in providing enough lessons and exercises in language in context. 6 out of 13 teachers stated that the textbooks are adequate and provide enough lessons and exercises on language in contexts. However, 4 teachers stated that the textbooks are average and do not provide enough practice for language in contexts. 3 teachers pointed out that the textbooks under study lack lessons and exercises of language in context and
they do not raise students’ awareness with regards to language use and pragmatic aspects that are essential for any learner of English.

One teacher stated that the book lacks authenticity of language use because the activities are full of drills that do not resemble real-life communication especially in terms of conversation. Another teacher stated that the role-plays in the textbooks do not represent real-world interaction as there are certain aspects of language use when a speaker performs the language function of apologizing, for example, without using the direct and specific phrases reflecting the intended meaning such as “I apologize.” One respondent of the survey highlighted that the activities on politeness, in particular, are very limited and only focused on interruptions, but not other aspects of politeness.

One teacher highlighted that intonation was introduced to convey shades of meanings and to show different feelings. However, the feelings were limited to “sad, happy, excited, and boredom.” According to her, learners need to be introduced to language that speakers make when they are, for example, being sarcastic or when they do not mean the exact literal meaning of what is said.

On a different note, one teacher pointed out that even though the chapters in the textbooks start with a “cultural note” explaining the cultural features of the topic in question, the activities and the lessons fail to refer to cultural differences that might affect communication. Further, another teacher highlighted that the lessons do not give examples to illustrate the cultural differences between English and Arabic since the textbook is supposed to be a Middle Eastern edition and that might lead to miscommunication as well.

The fifth question in the survey aimed at finding out whether or not the teachers supplement the textbooks with outside materials to cover aspects of communication. 5
out of 13 teachers said that they supplemented the textbooks with outside materials to cover certain aspects of communication. One teacher mentioned the use of authentic materials from tape-recording, making use of internationally broadcast English language talk shows, educational films, using the World Wide Web as demonstrations in English to provide the learners with real-life samples of the language. However, 2 out of the 5 respondents stated that they brought outside activities to supplement textbook activities, but those activities rarely included specific information on pragmatic topics or aspects of communication.

Eight teachers stated that the textbooks are sufficient in terms of coverage of the skills, and they did not have to supplement them with outside materials. However, this is also due to the time allocated to the course, the number of students, and the students’ language levels. Additionally, according to the teachers’ response, type of assessment, which in fact aimed only at passing exams, has a significant impact on supplementing the textbooks with outside materials to cover aspects of communication. One teacher highlighted that even professional teachers with a great deal of background knowledge in pragmatics and sociolinguistics rarely have the time, inclination, or training to include supplementary materials to cover aspects of communication in their lessons. Some teachers pointed out that the knowledge they have about pragmatics did not guarantee them to select and/or design activities to make up for the scarcity of aspects of communication in the classroom. The knowledge they have acquired about pragmatics in college before teaching was of no help to enable them to deliver lesson on pragmatic aspects of the English.

4.3. Results and Discussion
This study focused on examining the pragmatics in the exercises and metalanguage of *Interaction 1 Listening and Speaking* and *Interactions 2*. The goal was to find out the coverage of the textbooks on the pragmatics of the English language in quantity and quality. The analysis concentrated on the content of the exercises and the metalanguage, and aimed at finding out which pragmatic aspects were covered and which were given less attention. The study also looked at how the exercises were carried out, in order to see if the textbooks offer varied and authentic ways for students to practice. Furthermore, the style of the metalanguage was analyzed with the intention of finding out if the metalanguage is implicit or explicit and varied enough to raise students’ awareness on pragmatics. Finally, teachers’ perception of the textbooks and whether or not they supplement the textbooks with pragmatic materials were elicited and analysed from the teachers’ survey.

One of the main objectives of foreign language teaching in Saudi Arabia is to develop students’ intercultural communication skills. Language instruction should provide the students with skills and knowledge related to language and its use. Additionally, it should offer them opportunities to develop their awareness, understanding of the culture of the area or community where the language is spoken as this would allow them the recognition of the different language repertoires needed in different contexts. The lack of pragmatic input in teaching materials had been indicated by several studies and the results of this study support the earlier findings.

The first aim of this study was to find out which aspects of pragmatics are addressed in the exercises and metalanguage of the textbooks, and also, which aspects are given less attention. The pragmatic concepts that are practiced most often in the textbooks are reference and inference, discourse and culture, speech acts and politeness.
These issues are given most attention in the exercises, and they are also explained through metalanguage more often than other pragmatic concepts.

Reference and inference are the most often found pragmatic concept, as they come up 49 times in both textbooks. Reference and inference come up mostly in exercises and metalanguage that ask students to infer the meaning of certain words or phrases based on their context. Indeed, the role of context described by Yule (1996) is explained to the students on several occasions, and learning to infer information is one of the central pragmatic skills students acquire. However, more detailed information on how references and inferences work is lacking in the exercises and metalanguage.

There are 27 occurrences of speech acts in the textbooks and they are mainly dealt with in exercises that focus on practicing expressing a certain speech act in a specific context. The treatment of speech acts in the textbooks focus mostly on forming the expression correctly, and the meaning and the subtle differences in the force of expressions is given some attention as well. Interactions 1 and Interactions 2 can be commended on offering the students also withinformation about how and why certain forms of speech acts are used in certain contexts. These results of speech acts occurrence in the textbooks contradict the findings of Usó-Juan (2007) and Neddar (2010). For example, Usó-Juan (2007) concluded that the models of speech acts of requests provided in the analyzed five ESL tourism textbooks failed to offer learners with enough appropriate pragmatic input to promote learners’ pragmatic competence. Neddar (2010) concluded that learners were exposed to a limited range of language to perform certain speech acts which consequently led to the learners’ inability to react to situations where discourse was highly pragmatically loaded.
Nevertheless, in discussions of speech acts in Interactions 1 and 2, metalanguage about illocutionary force could have been easily added by encouraging students to evaluate the effects of different expressions. A metalinguistic question could have been included where the students are asked to evaluate which expression is weaker and which is stronger. In this case, the students’ attention would have been directed to the pragmatic aspect of the utterance because it would have shown them that there are differences in the way something can be said. The students could then see that there is a deeper meaning to the words, than merely the semantic meaning.

Discourse and culture appear 27 times in the books and the issues that are mostly addressed in relation to discourse and culture are register, especially formal and informal registers, and context. A great number of the exercises are dedicated to practicing speaking, writing and interpreting different registers. Cultural pragmatic differences occur intermittently, and the whole concept of culture is used in the books mostly in the more narrow sense, as something related to arts, high culture and customs. The students are not familiarized with the concepts that Yule (1996) and Levinson (1983) find important: how our cultural schemata is formed or how different cultures have very dissimilar scripts for different interactive situations.

Politeness is another pragmatic concept that is dealt with more often in the textbooks under study. Politeness is found on 17 occasions, and it is often linked to some other pragmatic concept, such as culture or speech acts. Compared to the findings of LaCastro (1994), the results of his study showed no attention to politeness was found in the analyzed eighteen EFL textbooks used in Japan. However, politeness is treated in Interactions 1 and 2 as a fairly universal concept, and the cross-cultural differences in negative and positive politeness strategies are only slightly touched on. After studying these textbooks, the students will probably know the basic polite utterances in English,
but deeper understanding of the concept of politeness that could help them use language appropriately in most intercultural interactions is not found. Practise on conversational structure explicitly cover on 19 occasions in the two textbooks, particularly on the rules of how sets of conversation work. In these cases, the role of pauses and back-channeling, for example, are discussed in detail and thus they are included in the results.

The pragmatic aspects that are given very slight attention in the textbooks are presupposition and implicature. One explanation for the lack of input on these aspects is that some of these concepts are intertwined into other aspects of language and practised along with other skills. For example, implicature is an underlying concept in one discussion exercise and a role-play, so perhaps for this reason the authors of the books have decided not to include them in more detail. Deixis expressions are never discussed in either textbook. The explanation for that is that deictic expressions are semantics and covered as grammatical concepts. There are no specific exercises designed for them exclusively.

Another goal of this study was to see what kinds of metalanguage according to Vellenga (2004) are used when pragmatic aspects are discussed in the textbooks. Knowledge of metalanguage, acquired or learned, is considered to be one of the keys to successful language learning. According to Berry (2000), effective language learning necessitates that students reflect upon and evaluate language items and process them through metalanguage. Furthermore, metalanguage also has a significant role in awareness-raising according to Kasper (1997) and as a result it is considered one of the main methods of teaching pragmatics in classrooms. This study indicated that there is insufficient use of metalanguage when discussing the pragmatic concepts in the textbooks. These results come in line with the findings of Vallenga (2004) and Takafumi, et al. (2007) in terms of the dearth of pragmatic metalanguage compared to the pages of
the analyzed textbooks. Similar to these previous studies, pragmatic metalanguage represents a small portion of the total information contained in the textbooks. Pragmatic metalanguage occur 41 times in *Interactions 1*, which is relatively a small number considering that the number of pages analyzed come up to 242. Explicit pragmatic metalanguage is explained and described on 17 occasions and implicit metalanguage occur 24 times. On the other hand, pragmatic metalanguage occur 47 times in *Interactions 2*, which is again quite a small number considering that the number of pages analyzed come up to 308. Pragmatic aspects are explained explicitly and described on 23 occasions and implicit metalanguage occur 24 times.

Explicit metalanguage on questions like “why a certain form was used, in what contexts, and with what effect” could be included in the books in order for the students to learn how sometimes more is communicated than is said. Implicit metalanguage in the books merely functions as means for raising awareness, but it does not explain the language aspects in more detail. In this respect, the textbooks do not offer enough metalinguistic input to help students to notice and fully understand the nature of the target language.

Even though pragmatics is part of listening and speaking, the insufficient inclusion of pragmatics and pragmatic metalanguage in the textbooks studied could very well be a conscious choice on the part of the authors. Most likely they have had to make several difficult choices between elements that help make the textbooks more pedagogic and elements that keep the materials interesting to the students. According to Tomlinson (2003), the most essential thing that a learning material has to do is help the learner to connect the learning experience in the classroom to their own life outside the course. It is only natural that the materials need to be associated with real life and appealing to the students in order for any learning to take place. This is why keeping explicit metalanguage at the minimum might be a wise choice. EFL learners cannot handle
technical terms, even the word “pragmatics”, and therefore, it would be best to avoid them or mention in moderation, as found in the analysis.

Nonetheless, this is rather surprising especially in the light of the communicative English language syllabus which aims at improving English communication skills among learners including pragmatic competence. In Hymes’ (1971) view, speakers of a language need to know how the language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes. Hymes states there are rules that form the metalanguage knowledge of the speaker and without these rules, the speaker would not be able to use the language.

An interesting observation found in the analysis was that the amount of pragmatic input increased moving from Interactions 1 to Interactions 2. In Interactions 1, pragmatic aspects are discussed on 57 occasions, whereas in Interactions 2 the number increases to 83. The reason could be that perhaps Interactions 1 merely focuses more on the structure of the language than the function and the use of the language. Therefore, students are expected to be competent in the language structure more than the language function before reaching level two where Interactions 2 is the required textbook at this stage of the Listening and Speaking courses.

The fourth research question of this study aimed at finding out what kinds of exercises are used to practice pragmatic abilities of students. The majority of the pragmatic exercises in both textbooks are executed as pair or group work, where the students are required to communicate with each other. Working with other students teaches the significance of team work, and improves the students’ skills of communicating with different people, but in the end this might not be the perfect way to practise pragmatic skills of a foreign language. Performing an exercise with another
Arabic-speaking student is problematic because neither of the speakers is able to correct the other or provide authentic feedback. The teacher’s role in this is crucial as she can circle around the classroom, to listen and to give feedback, but is that still enough to make the students acquire pragmatic competence? The classroom setting and the big group sizes are issues that complicate the teaching of pragmatic skills, even with the best possible teaching material.

Even though the quantity of pragmatic input in the textbooks is rather low, the quality of the pragmatic exercises and metalanguage somewhat makes up for it. On several occasions, the pragmatic aspects of language are found quite elaborately and extensively. For example in Interactions 1, on page 54, the speech act of ordering in a restaurant is discussed with extensive metalanguage, which is supported with a “Phrase Box” that presents different forms of the speech act. The metalanguage is then followed by an exercise where students practice the speech act. As this example shows, this is an intensive focus on the development of pragmatic competence of students by applying various teaching methods. The book integrates exercises, so that students are exposed to more than one linguistic feature at a time in one exercise.

The final question in the study aimed at finding out whether or not the teachers supplement the textbooks with outside materials to cover the pragmatic aspects of communication. The results were in line with the findings of Vellenga (2004) and showed that not all teachers supplement the textbooks with outside materials to complement the scarcity of pragmatic contents of the listening and speaking textbooks so as to facilitate the learning of pragmatics in the classroom. Only 5 out of 13 teachers stated that they bring outside activities to supplement textbook activities, but those activities hardly contain specific information on pragmatic topics or aspects of communication. The remaining 8 teachers stated that they did not supplement the textbooks with outside
materials. The reasons for that are the time allocated to the course, the number of students, and the students’ low language levels. Further, the type of assessment in the listening and speaking courses, which only aimed at passing exam, has a significant impact on supplementing the textbooks with outside materials to cover aspects of communication. As put forward by Kasper (2000), “unless teachers also know methods to evaluate students’ progress in pragmatics, they may be reluctant to focus on pragmatics in their teaching.” Teachers merely follow the objectives outlined in the course specification and do their best at including all the necessary linguistic knowledge determined in the syllabus. As long as the pragmatic ability of students is not included as a central part of the exams, the goals of communicative language teaching are hard to reach.

Further, teachers’ background knowledge of pragmatics does not guarantee good delivery of lesson or tasks on the pragmatic aspects of the English language. Teachers need professional training to know how to teach pragmatics effectively and provide language learners with opportunities to be exposed to native-like conventions through the use of authentic materials, audio-visual aids, teacher talk and the textbook. Most of all, textbooks need to include pragmatic aspects and sufficient exercises for to provide realistic, purposeful, and meaningful language practices in the classroom. Pragmatic awareness, or lack of it, is greatly affected by the textbooks used and by the classroom practices. As the need for communication increases with the mobility of people, effective language teaching and appropriate use of the foreign language gains importance and the need to develop linguistic competence increases. Rose (2005) argues that “explicit instruction” is necessary for EFL learners to develop pragmatic competence. By looking at the results it can be said that it is necessary to help language learners develop
pragmatic awareness with the explicit but contextual and meaningful teaching of daily speech conventions.

Chapter 5

Summary, Findings, and Suggestions

5.1. Introduction
This chapter concludes the study and begins by providing a summary of the research followed by an overview of its findings. This is followed by the implications of the study, and suggestions for research.

5.2. Summary

The study aimed at finding out which aspects of pragmatics were addressed in the exercises and metalanguage of two ELT listening and speaking textbooks, Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking 1 as well as Interactions 2 Listening and Speaking. Data in the textbooks were gathered and analyzed through the method of content analysis. The study first checked the quantity and quality of pragmatic aspects covered in the textbooks according to the level of the book from intermediate to upper-intermediate. Types of exercises and styles of metalanguage that have reference to pragmatic aspects were listed together with the page numbers.

After coding the conceptual categorization of each pragmatic aspect, more specific details about the concepts were analyzed. Firstly, the focus of the occurrences of the metalanguage or pragmatics-related exercises were identified and included in a table, to provide information on what particular aspects of the concepts were discussed in the books. Secondly, the style of metalanguage was analyzed. The framework for analyzing the style of metalanguage was adopted from Vellenga (2004) in which each piece of pragmatic metalanguage was identified and labeled according to its style as either explicit and or implicit metalanguage. According to Vellenga (2004), these two categories are separated into four subcategories: explicit category— (instructional and descriptive metalanguage—), and implicit category— (introductive and task-related metalanguage). The exercises were analyzed in relation to how the tasks were designed to be carried out by the students or the readers. This was done in order to find out whether the books offer different methods for practicing pragmatic competence. Finally, a survey was designed for eliciting perceptions of teachers in relation to pragmatics content in the textbooks and
whether or not they supplement or incorporate elements of pragmatics into the EFL teaching process.

5.3. Overview of the Findings of the Study

The study concluded that the quantity of pragmatic input in *Interaction 1* and *Interactions 2* is rather low compared to the number of the pages of the analyzed textbooks, especially for Listening and Speaking textbooks. The results also showed that the quality of the pragmatic exercises and metalanguage could be improved. The pragmatic concepts that appeared most often in the textbooks were reference and inference, discourse and culture, speech acts and politeness. These issues were given most attention in the exercises, compared to other pragmatic features. They were also explained through metalanguage more often. Reference and inference occurred 49 times in both textbooks, speech acts occurred 27 times in both textbooks, discourse and culture were found 27 times in the books, politeness appeared in 17 occasions and finally conversational structure was found 19 times throughout the two textbooks. Presupposition and implicature were rarely found. Presupposition occurred twice in the textbooks; once in *Interactions 1* and once in *Interactions 2*, while implicature occurred only twice in *Interactions 2*. Deixis was not found in either textbook.

Additionally, this study also concluded that there was not enough pragmatic metalanguage in the textbooks. Pragmatic metalanguage occurs 41 times in *Interactions 1*, which is a comparatively small number considering that the number of pages analyzed come up to 242 and that the books emphasize on communication. Pragmatic aspects are explicitly explained and described on 17 occasions and implicit metalanguage occurs 24 times. On the other hand, pragmatic metalanguage occurs 47 times in *Interactions 2*, which is yet again a quite small number considering that the number of pages is 308.
Pragmatic aspects are explained explicitly and described on 23 occasions and implicit metalanguage occurred 24 times in *Interactions 2*. Further, the analysis showed that the frequency of pragmatic concepts covered increased from *Interactions 1* to *Interactions 2*. In *Interactions 1*, there are 57 instances of pragmatic aspects, while in *Interactions 2* the number increases to 83.

As for the kinds of exercises on these pragmatic features, the study showed that the majority of the pragmatic exercises in both textbooks are designed as pair or group work, where the students are required to communicate with each other to practice the features concerned. Even though these exercises give students the opportunity to work with each other and build their skills of communication with different people, this may not be the perfect way to practice pragmatic skills of a foreign language. Performing an exercise with another Arabic-speaking student may not be effective because neither of the speakers would be able to correct the other or provide authentic feedback. This leads to the teacher’s role in this context where she needs to circle around the classroom, to listen and to give feedback, but that is still not enough to make the students acquire pragmatic competence. The books should provide ample exercises and metalanguage in various contexts so that students will learn how to use the language, pragmatically and appropriately, in many situations.

The final question in the study aimed at finding out whether or not the teachers supplement the textbooks with outside materials to cover aspects of communication in the classroom. The results showed that although the teachers have knowledge of pragmatics, not all teachers supplemented the textbooks to complement the dearth of pragmatic contents of the listening and speaking textbooks in the classroom. The reasons given for not supplementing the textbooks with outside materials were time constraints, the number of students, and the students’ language level. Finally, the type of assessment
in the listening and speaking courses aimed only at passing the exam and that itself has a significant negative impact on teachers’ motivation in supplementing the textbooks with outside materials to cover the pragmatic aspects of communication.

5.4. Implications of the Study

In order to accomplish a more comprehensive view on the state of teaching and learning of pragmatics, more EFL textbooks should be investigated. This study focused on looking at two listening and speaking textbooks thus the findings cannot be generalized to apply to all existing textbooks or other skills/sub skills. Further studies could be conducted by comparing different textbooks or textbook series as well as different skills/sub skills to see whether there are differences and if some provide more practise than others. Henceforth, there should be further research to investigate how college teachers can develop students’ pragmatic competence in the process of classroom instruction by using different practical approaches.

Language learners should be taught pragmatic routines to enable them to avoid negative transfer, which may lead to communication failure, when communicating in English. The current study did not address the influence of the first language on the pragmatic development of the English language. Pragmatic competence is one of the essential elements of communicative competence that needs to be addressed in EFL teacher education programs. Unfortunately, existing teacher education sources on EFL methodology and assessment lack a focus on teaching the pragmatic aspects of language as stated by the teachers despite their pragmatic background knowledge. The treatment of pragmatics in teacher training courses tends to center on theory/rhetoric rather than practical applications.
Educational administrators should take pragmatics into consideration when building English language teaching curricula. Consequently, some discourse completion tasks and authentic material should be added into or used in examinations to value pragmatic knowledge. Besides, teacher training and teaching materials should be provided so that teachers will be more equipped to help students develop pragmatic competence.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

The following are some suggestions that may enhance further research in issues related to this study:

1. This study examined *Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking* and *Interactions 2 Listening and Speaking*. To generalize the findings of the present study, other skills/sub skills textbooks of *Interactions* series can pragmatically analyzed in terms of quantity and quality.

2. It would be insightful to investigate EFL classroom practice in terms of pragmatic instructions.

3. It would be useful to investigate students’ attitudes towards pragmatic content in regional ELT textbooks to shed more light on pragmatic competence in EFL classroom. This may add to the area of research in designing ELT textbooks.

4. It might be helpful to examine pragmatic content of other ELT textbooks used in government or private schools. Results of such studies could help in improving the design of ELT textbooks.
References


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Ferch, T. (2005) "Goal one, communication standards for learning Spanish and level one Spanish textbook activities: a content analysis" [online]


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**English Language Textbooks:**


**Appendix A**

*Table 1. Pragmatics exercises and pragmatic metalanguage “Interactions 1 Listening and Speaking”*

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<td>Making introductions</td>
<td>Practice introducing classmates to each other, speaking</td>
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Appendix B

Table 2. Pragmatics exercises and pragmatic metalanguage “Interactions 2 Listening and Speaking2”
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<td>Understanding statements with rising intonation</td>
<td>Listening, writing</td>
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<td>Politeness</td>
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<td>Understanding statements with rising intonation</td>
<td>Listening, writing</td>
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<td>Descriptive, task-related</td>
<td>Contradicting politely</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
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<tr>
<td>162</td>
<td>Discourse/ culture</td>
<td>Task-related</td>
<td>Comparing American and British English</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
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<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Interjections: sound combinations that has specific meanings in spoken English</td>
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<td>Understanding interjections</td>
<td>Listening, writing</td>
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<td>Task-related</td>
<td>Using interjections</td>
<td>Pair-work speaking</td>
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<td>Creating dialogues based on photos</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
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<td>Listening/Identifying correct the definition for each word/phrase</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>Getting meaning from context/ using context clues</td>
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<td>Expressing approval and disapproval</td>
<td>Pair work writing &amp; speaking</td>
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<td>Listening</td>
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<td>214</td>
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<td>Expressing interest/surprise</td>
<td>Group work speaking</td>
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<td>Listening/Identifying correct the definition for each word/phrase</td>
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<td>227</td>
<td>Speech act</td>
<td>Descriptive, task-related</td>
<td>Offering to do something</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
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<td>230</td>
<td>Cooperation/conversational implicature</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Digression from and returning to the topic</td>
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<td>Cooperation/conversational implicature</td>
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<td>Recognizing digression</td>
<td>Listening</td>
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<td>Meanings of intonation in affirmatives tag questions</td>
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<td>234</td>
<td>Reference/inference</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Getting meaning from context/ using context clues</td>
<td>Listening</td>
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<td>235</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>Recognizing Meanings of intonation in affirmatives tag questions</td>
<td>Listening</td>
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<td>236</td>
<td>Speech act, politeness</td>
<td>Descriptive, task-related</td>
<td>Offering congratulations/sympathy</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
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</table>

**Appendix C**

Dear Colleague,

This study aims at finding out whether or not teachers incorporate, modify, and supplement course texts in the students' edition of Listening & Speaking on Interactions 1 and Interactions 2. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answer, and everything will be kept confidential and used for the purpose of the research only. Your
kind cooperation in completing this survey accurately and honestly will be much appreciated and may Allah swt reward you for your good efforts.

The researcher,
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MA Candidate
King Saud University

The Survey

Level of education: Bachelor □ Masters □ PhD □

Years teaching English: 1-2 years □ 3-4 years □ 5+ years □

1. Rank the skills/subskills according to your teaching preference (ie which do you like teaching most?) in the table below: Listening & Speaking, Writing, Reading, Grammar, and Vocabulary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Tick the courses (as a subject) you studied at college, and the levels, as given below:

a. Syntax levels BA □ MA □ PhD □
b. Semantics levels BA □ MA □ PhD □
c. Pragmatics levels BA □ MA □ PhD □
d. Sociolinguistics levels BA □ MA □ PhD □

3. Which of the 2 textbooks mentioned above have you taught? Which ones are you most familiar with?
4. Do these textbooks provide enough lessons and exercises of language in context?
   Yes □  Average □  No □

   In which areas of communication do you find the book lacking, if any? Give examples.

   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________

5. Do you supplement the textbook with outside materials to cover aspects of communication?
   Yes □  No □

   If yes, in which specific areas? If No, why not? Give examples.

   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________
   __________________________________________