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**Investigating the Correlation between EFL Learners'
Levels of Emotional Intelligence and their Pragmatic
Competence of Apology Speech Act Realization. Case of
Master Two Students at M'sila University**

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Requirements for the Degree of Master**

Candidates

Mr. Salaheddine SARAOUI
Ms. Loubna DILMI

Supervised by

Ms. Imene CHERIET

Board of Examiners

Dr Mourad TOUATI	Mohamed Boudiaf University, M'sila	Chairperson
Ms. Imene CHERIET	Mohamed Boudiaf University, M'sila	Supervisor
Dr Aboubaker HAMOUDI	Mohamed Boudiaf University, M'sila	Examiner

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to those who supported us enough to complete this work, parents, siblings, friends, family, and our supervisor, to everyone who left a mark in our lives, and to those whose interests are similar to ours.

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ABSTRACT

The recent years witnessed a remarkable shift in the field of applied pragmatics and SLA research towards cognitive-psychological concepts and phenomena. The present study, therefore, attempts to investigate the correlation between Algerian EFL learners' levels of emotional intelligence and their pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization at M'sila University. The main aim of this study is to determine the nature of the relationship between the study variables. In addition, the study outlines the frequency of the semantic formulas of apology speech act of the participants, and their levels of emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the study looks into teachers' beliefs and attitudes about the instruction of pragmatics in oral expression classes, and the relation between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence. In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the mixed research method design incorporating both correlational and descriptive methods was used. First, for the correlational research, the researchers opted for an oral discourse completion task (ODCT) and Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) for a sample of 30 EFL students at M'sila University to generate the necessary data that were processed and analyzed through SPSS version 25. The study employed a questionnaire, to teachers of oral expression module, for the descriptive part of the research. The findings revealed an existing statistically significant moderate positive correlation with 0,437* value at the significance level $p=0.05$. Moreover, the teachers indicated the importance of both explicit and implicit instruction of pragmatics as well as the high importance of emotional intelligence in developing pragmatic competence. Therefore, this study sheds light on the significance of emotional intelligence on pragmatic competence of apology speech act production, it raises both teachers and students' awareness about this finding, and it calls for the incorporation of emotional intelligence and its strategies in instructing apology speech act.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, pragmatic competence, apology speech act.

List of Abbreviations

AEFL Learners: Algerian English as Foreign Language Learners

ANS: American Native Speakers

CC: Communicative Competence

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EI: Emotional Intelligence

EQ: Emotional Intelligence Quotient

ESL: English as a Second Language

IFID: Illocutionary Force Indicating Device

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

L: Learner.

L2: Second Language

N: Number of Teachers.

OE: Oral Expression

PC: Pragmatic Competence

PT: Pragmatic Transfer

Q: Question.

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

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General Introduction

1. Introduction and Background of the Study

Commonly known, avoiding communication breakdowns and pragmatic failures is one of the basic requirements of any communicative act using a target language (TL). Additionally, there are some factors that can either hinder or facilitate such processes, namely one's knowledge about the norms and conventions of the TL, language skills, as well as their TL pragmatic competence (PC). However, developing those skills and enriching such knowledge might not be enough to overcome misunderstandings and pragmatic failures. Human emotions and feelings can also play a significant role in the course of language use.

PC is conceptualised as the “ability to use language appropriately in a social context”; as a process emerging from socialization, pragmatic competence concerns both innate and learned capacities that aid to its natural development (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1). The development of second language (L2) learners' pragmatic competence has been a hot topic for all those involved in foreign language education from language teachers to curriculum designers parallel to the introduction and integration of communicative language teaching (Kasper and Rose, 2001).

Different studies tackled interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), which is regarded as the field that covers the development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence to adequately manage cross-cultural communication (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Barron, 2003; Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Cohen & Ishihara, 2005; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; McConachy & Hata, 2013; Trosborg, 2010; Wigglesworth & Yates, 2007). These studies of ILP were conducted in both EFL and ESL settings and executed from different perspectives with divergence in terms of sample features that differ with regard to age, exposure to authentic English materials, and the kind of pedagogical strategies and interventions.

However, in the last two decades a new emergent construct has been added to the literature. Human emotions play a significant role in almost all aspects of life. Emotional intelligence (EI) has been an interesting topic of research due to its richness and adaptability. Salovey and Mayer (1990) define EI as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions, to discriminate between them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p.189). Consequently, it is presumed that there may be a degree to which EI contributes to the social life of individuals, and within which language plays a prominent role.

Many scholars hypothesize that EI is crucial to the effectiveness of communication (Goleman, 1998b; Mayer et al., 2004 Weisinger, 1998). Goleman (2001) explains that the empathic individual can read emotional currents, picking up on nonverbal cues such as tone or facial expressions. All these features, that an empathic individual possesses, may allow him/her to appropriately handle communication. Bar-on (2002) believes that “to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures”. Mayer et al. (2004) explain that “the high EI individual, most centrally, can better perceive emotions, use them in thought, understand their meanings, and manage emotions better than others... tends to be more open and agreeable...” (p. 210). Thus, the aforementioned presuppositions show the degree to which emotional intelligence entails the importance of understanding and relating to others, which is significant for a successful communication since it is also governed by psycho-cognitive factors.

Apologies, in their part, are defined by Searle (1979) as speech acts which express “the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content” (p.15). Moreover, Goffman (1971) views apologies as ‘remedial interchanges’ (p.90); hence, they are produced with the goal of re-establishing social harmony after a real or virtual offense has been committed by a speaker (as cited in Rojo, 2005, p. 64).

In addition, apologies performance may rely on the socio-psychological aspects of communication namely: power- distance- rank (PDR) relations among interlocutors. In this regard, emotional intelligence and knowledge may be the basis for producing accurate and appropriate apologies. Therefore, the present study attempts to investigate the correlation between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their pragmatic competence in the case of apologies' realization.

2. Statement of the Problem

The goal of any communicative act is to convey accurate and contextually appropriate meanings. However, according to a study conducted by Hamoudi (2018), EFL students of M'sila University- compared to native English speakers- have "poor and insufficient" performance in terms of the "socio-pragmatic appropriacy of realizing a set of speech acts" including apologies, which "may leave a room for the possible occurrence of communicative failures"(p. 82). According to oral expression teachers of M'sila University, there have been very few attempts to explicit pragmatic instruction in OE sessions at the Department of English Language at M'sila University. Therefore, this study attempts at testing EFL learners' levels of pragmatic competence as well as explore EFL teachers' perceptions of it. In spite of the research that has shown that there are paralinguistic as well as cognitive- psychological elements that govern communication, little research has been conducted on the relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence quotient and their pragmatic competence development, specifically in the Algerian context as there is no published similar study. Hence, this study strives to fill in this gap by investigating the correlation between AEFL learners' EI and their PC, emphasising the significance of EI as well as the need to the corporation of pragmatics- based instruction in OE classrooms.

3. Research Questions

In accordance with the stated problem, this study stands to answer the following questions

- 1- Which strategies and formulas do EFL students opt for to perform an apology speech act?
- 2- What are EFL learners' levels of emotional intelligence?
- 3- Is there a statistically significant correlation between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization?
- 4- What are EFL teachers' beliefs and attitudes about pragmatics-based instruction and the relationship between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization?

4. Research Hypotheses

- EFL Learners of M'sila University may vary the used formulas and strategies of their apologies.
- EFL Learners at the department of English Language at M'sila University may prove to have high levels of emotional intelligence.

For the third question this study assumes the null hypothesis;

- H_0 : There is no statistically significant correlation between emotional intelligence and the quality of apologies speech act realization in an EFL context
- EFL teachers may have positive beliefs and attitudes about pragmatics-based instruction and the relationship between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization.

5. Objectives of the Study

The present study intends to draw learners and teachers attention to the importance of emotional intelligence and its role in teaching and developing pragmatic competence at M'sila University, it also intends to:

- Elaborate on EFL learners' apology strategies in real life situations of use.
- Determine EFL learners' levels of EI at M'sila University.
- Discover and/or establish a correlation between EFL learners' Pragmatic competence of apologies speech act realization and their EI.

6. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would be a contribution to Psycho- cognitive research as well as Educational Psychology, as the correlation between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their pragmatic competence in realizing forms and strategies of performing apologies has not yet been fully investigated in the Algerian EFL context. First, it will highlight the need to promote learners' emotional intelligence in order to raise their awareness about its role in developing their language use. Additionally, this research emphasises on the relationship between EFL learners' EQ and their forms and strategies of apology production as the latter is crucially important in maintaining healthy relationships. Moreover, this research provides insights for teachers to promote EFL learners' emotional intelligence to generally better develop their pragmatic competence. Hopefully, this study would provide a set of strategies to develop EFL learners' emotional intelligence and therefore their pragmatic competence. It can also serve as a guide for testing pragmatic competence, especially the use of DCTs to test speech acts.

7. Research Methodology

Due to the fairly tangled composites of the current study, a mixed- method research design, involving a correlational and a descriptive design, was opted for. In this design, both quantitative and qualitative data measurement tools are used. The main population of this study is second year Masters EFL students in the Department of English language and Literature at Mohamed Boudiaf M'sila University. The population under this study is 133

students, 62 majors of Applied Linguistics and 71 majors of English literature and civilization.

Out of this population, a randomly selected group of 30 students is the main sample. Additionally, regarding the descriptive façade of this design, a sample of seven university teachers participated. Data necessary for obtaining enough information to undergo the current investigation were collected using quantitative and qualitative measurement tools. On the one hand, The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was used to measure EFL learners' EQ. An oral discourse completion task ODCT (see Appendix A) was adapted to measure their pragmatic competence. On the other hand, an online questionnaire was designed and emailed to EFL teachers of oral expression module from different Algerian universities in order to gain varied perspectives on the instruction of pragmatics, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization. Hopefully, the abovementioned instruments will help in obtaining valid and reliable results to eventually test the hypothesis as well as answer the research questions. The data, obtained through the tests, were analyzed using the SPSS V25.

8. Thesis Structure

The present study comprises of two chapters. Each chapter is divided into sections. The first chapter, as a theoretical framework of this investigation, is divided into two sections. The first section is dedicated to pragmatic competence. It provides an overview of pragmatics, namely its definition, relation to communicative competence, speech act theory, politeness theory, interlanguage pragmatics, pragmatic transfer, pragmatic failure, instructional pragmatics, and its measurement tools. The second section attempts to provide brief clarifications about the concepts of emotions and intelligence. Additionally, it provides an overview to emotional intelligence namely its basics, theories, models, its link to SLA,

relation with pragmatic competence, as well as testing emotional intelligence. However, the second chapter is a detailed description of the methodological and practical façade of this research. It sets out the research method and provides a detailed analysis that will be obtained from data gathering tools used. Within this part, suggestions and recommendations would be provided for a better L2 learning experience at M'sila University.

9. Operational definitions of Research Variables

Pragmatic Competence of Apology Speech Act Realization: is defined as the mastery or the ability to produce accurate and appropriate apologies by using the necessary semantic formulas of apology speech act on the basis of the offenses and the social criteria of PDR (power, distance, and rank). In this study, pragmatic competence of apology speech act is the score of the EFL learners at M'sila University in the ODCT employed to assess their apologies by means of Olshtain and Cohen (1983) classification of the apology strategies and the social variables of PDR of Brown and Levinson (1987) theory of politeness.

Emotional Intelligence: due to the flexible nature of this concept, different models and definitions were presented. In this study emotional intelligence refers to the score a student obtain in the IQ test adopted in this study(the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test) that reflects their ability to correctly and appropriately perceive emotions, manage their own emotions and others', as well as to utilize their emotions to solve context- related problems.

**Chapter One:
Pragmatic Competence and
Emotional Intelligence**

Introduction

In order to initiate this research, this chapter attempts to thoroughly examine the theoretical backgrounds of the variables investigated under this study. Initially, pragmatic competence is mainly introduced through providing multiple definitions of pragmatics. It adds to that the emergence of pragmatic competence as a subdivision within communicative competence. It also encompasses the main element under this research that is apology speech act and its semantic formulas. Additionally, it addresses the theory of politeness as a compulsory property of communication. It includes some of the subthemes of interlanguage pragmatics, such as pragmatic transfer and pragmatic failures. Furthermore, it underlines instructional pragmatics and testing pragmatic competence. Lastly, emotional intelligence is introduced via the comprehension of the concepts of “emotions” and “intelligence” separately, as well as the theories of intelligence from which EI has emerged to existence. This chapter thoroughly discusses the main models of emotional intelligence as well as the standing of emotional intelligence in the field of SLA. It also explains its relationship with pragmatic competence. In addition, some of the widely used tests of emotional intelligence are soundly presented.

I. Pragmatic Competence

1. Definition of Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a complex and vast field that still faces issues at the level of definition. Ever since its appearance in the 1930's, many definitions have been assigned to it. Yet, there is no terminal definition upon which there is a global agreement. Crystal (2003) contends that the extensive sphere of pragmatics assigns numerous and opposing definitions to the term. It is further claimed that up to these days even though pragmatics has its independent journals

and multiple conferences are held worldwide about pragmatics, pragmatics is, nonetheless, ‘an insecure field’ because it lacks a paradigm (Spencer Oatey and Zegarag, 2020).

The early attempt to define pragmatics cited in academia goes back to the philosopher Charles Morris (1938) through considering pragmatics as part of semiotics. However, the most comprehensive definition is the one provided by Crystal (2003):

Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in the act of communication. (p. 364)

Rose (2001) adds that pragmatics concentrates on “the way speakers and writers accomplish goals as social actors who do not need to just get things done but must attend to their interpersonal relationships with other participants at the same time” (p. 2). It should be noted that this definition sheds light on the interpersonal factors that help in the construction of meaning in pragmatics. On the other hand, Levinson (1983) presumes that pragmatics studies language from a functional perspective, that is, it attempts to explain facets of linguistic structure by reference to non-linguistic causes.

Supporting the above mentioned claims, Spencer-Oatey and Zegarac (2020) assume that “pragmatics is concerned not with language as a system or product per se, but rather with the interrelationship between language form, (communicated) messages and language users” (p. 72). In fact, they (2020: 73) presume that pragmatics attempts to find answers to the following questions:

-How do people communicate more than what the words or phrases of their utterances might mean by themselves, and how do people make these interpretations?

-Why do people choose to say and/or interpret something in one way rather than another?

-How do people's perceptions of contextual factors (for example, who the interlocutors are, what their relationship is and what circumstances they are communicating in) influence the process of producing and interpreting language?

In fact, one of the most essential areas of debates about pragmatics is PC. The following section includes the historical development of PC with regard to communicative competence.

2. Communicative Competence and Pragmatic Competence

Academic views regarding language have changed through time. Many definitions and philosophies emerged and others emerged counter to those philosophies that aided the understanding of what language is and competence regarding language and language use.

Hymes (1972), as a reaction to Chomsky's (1965) theory of linguistic competence, introduced the concept of communicative competence (CC). He emphasized that the speaker's knowledge of grammar alone is insufficient to account for appropriate communication within diverse settings and with different interlocutors. As such, speakers are in need of an adequate mastery of two knowledge dimensions: grammatical and sociocultural knowledge. He stresses that "The engagement of language in social life has a positive, productive aspect. There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278). He adds that the speech community possesses the focal authority as far as determining appropriateness and inappropriateness of language use is concerned; for instance, how to verbally address a particular situation, how to greet, and how to ask things from people.

Canale and Swain (1980) introduced a paradigm of communicative competence, and the paradigm was developed later on by Canale (1983). At first, they identified three areas of

competence (systems of knowledge and skills) underlying the process of communication and then Canale (1983) added a fourth element:

1. Grammatical competence: is regarded as the ability or the mastery of the linguistic code and rules of language, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation and syntax.
2. Sociolinguistic competence: is considered as the ability to adhere to contextual factors in order to produce appropriate language within differing sociolinguistic contexts.
3. Discourse competence: can be defined as the ability to amalgamate linguistic utterances or sentences to produce a unified spoken or written text.
4. Strategic competence: includes those abilities to use verbal and non-verbal strategies to manage communication breakdowns or strengthen the effectiveness of any communicative act.

This model has dominated the fields of second and foreign language acquisition and language testing for decades. Nevertheless, many models emerged on the basis of this model that included many other features relating to language. For example, Bachman's (1990) model included the pragmatic feature in CC.

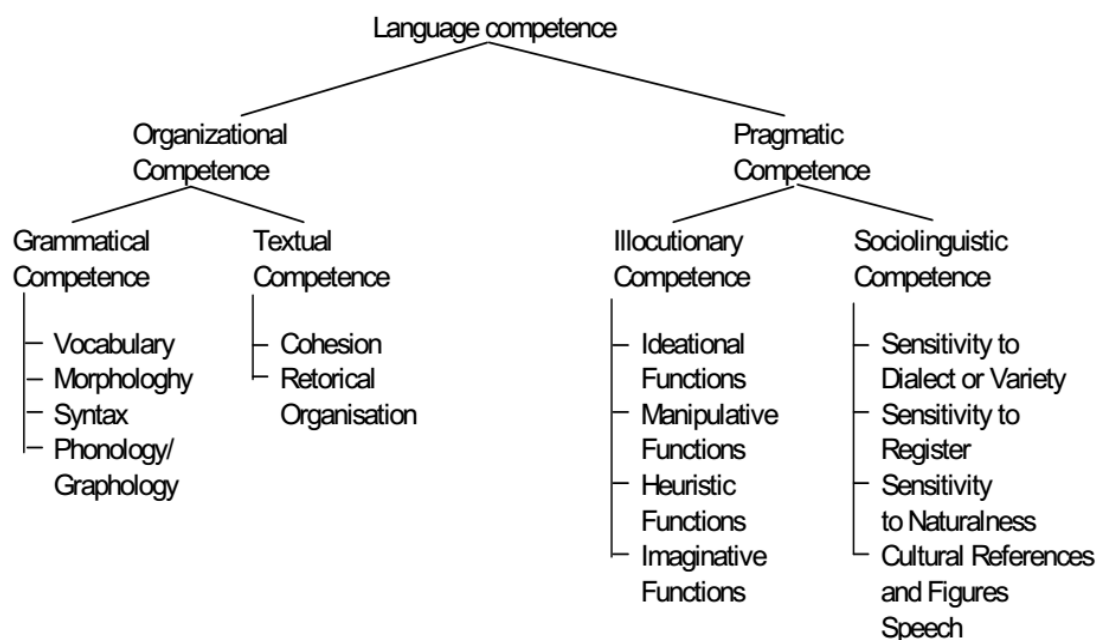
Bachman (1990), on the basis of Canale and Swain (1983), induced an in-depth conception of communicative language ability which resulted in a remarkably efficient communicative competence model. As a matter of fact, his model witnessed the introduction of pragmatic competence in language competence for the first time. His model draws attention towards the criterion of language use i.e., the use of language within a given cultural context of communication.

According to Bachman (1990) (as cited in Eghtesadi, 2017 p. 34), multiple features of interlocutors such as their topical knowledge, language ability, effective schemata and general attributes impact the communicative language ability. In his proposed model, language

competence is the center of attention and then subdivided into two distinctions: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence includes the traditional focus of grammatical competence in the areas of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology, while the second element of organizational competence is concerned with textual competence of the written language. On the other hand, pragmatic competence includes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. First, the illocutionary competence includes the comprehension and production of various language functions; such as the ideational, manipulative and heuristic functions of language. Lastly, sociolinguistic competence pertains to the mastery of the sociolinguistic and cultural norms for the appropriate language use either production or interpretation. The figure below serves as an illustration of Bachman (1990) model of CC:

Figure 01

Components of Language Competence (Bachman, 1990, p. 87)



3. Speech Acts Theory

To investigate the acquisition of pragmatic competence by native and non-native speakers, it is worthy to consider the speech act theory; i.e. the realization of different speech acts by those speakers (Harlig& Taylor, 2003).

The origins of speech act theory are attributed to the works of the philosophers Austin and Searle, and the famous book *How to Do Things with Words* (1962) by Austin is considered the cornerstone of this linguistic philosophy. In the opinion of Austin, Speech acts are those utterances serving some functions in a communicative context. Stated in other words, performing utterances means performing actions. Following Austin's philosophy, Searle (1969) established the theory of speech acts and defined speech acts as "the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication" (p. 16).

Austin (1962) divides speech acts into three principal categorizations that govern their performance. Firstly, locutionary acts refer to the utterances themselves i.e., the locution stands for what is said. Secondly, illocutionary acts are related to the specific force of the utterance on the interlocutor i.e., what is meant. Thirdly, perlocutionary acts concern themselves with the outcome of the speaker's utterance on the hearer.

In addition, Searle (1979), as a reaction to Austin's classification of speech acts, suggested a categorization of the illocutionary acts into five categories as can be seen below:

1. Assertives: are employed to dedicate the speaker to their expressed propositions whether true or false (e.g. it is a hot day).
2. Directives: they are used as an attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something(e.g. open the door, please)

3. Commissives: they are those acts that commit the speaker to a course of action in the future (e.g. I promise not to smoke again)
4. Expressives: they are those acts that determine the psychological state or feelings of the speaker (e.g. I apologize for being late)
5. Declarations: they constitute that the propositional content of utterances relates to the world and brings change to it (e.g. I declare you husband and wife)

3.1. Apology Speech Act

Apology speech act falls into the category of expressives. Apology holds a special role in human life as a face-saving speech act. To a large extent, individuals need to comprehend the nature of apologies, their function and most importantly the ways in which they should be handed. There is a large consensus that considers apologies as remedial speech acts that aim to maintain a situation. For instance, Searle (1976) states that the apology is an expressive illocutionary act and convivial speech act as well, and its goal lies in the social goal of maintaining harmony between interlocutors.

Cohen & Olshtain (1983) define apology as a speech act that takes place between two interlocutors one of which believes that they deserve an apology and/or explanation and compensation due to the offense presented by the other participant. Apologies can serve the role of a politeness strategy, because the offender has the choice of either apologizing or denying the responsibility or the seriousness of the offense. In fact, the act of apology is composed of various strategies, also known as semantic formulas, which are explained in the following subsection.

3.1.1. Semantic Formulas of Apology Speech Act

The speech act of apology involves a set of strategies and sub-strategies classified by different scholars. Seminal conceptualizations by different scholars attempted to study the

linguistic strategies of the apology speech act (Goffman 1971; Fraser 1981; Cohen& Olshtain 1981; Olshtain& Cohen 1983; Owen 1983; Blum-Kulka& Olshtain 1984; Cohen& Olshtain 1985; Trosborg 1987; Blum-Kulka et al. 1989 among others).

Goffman (1971) initiated the study of apology speech act, and he defines apologies as “remedial interchanges”, this remedial work can be executed through accounts, requests and apologies. According to Goffman, apologies are composed of seven strategies: 1) an expression of embarrassment, 2) a statement of the offender’s knowledge about their proper behaviour, 3) consolidating with the use of negative sanction, 4) repudiating his/ her own behaviour, 5) manifesting disdain for oneself, 6) a promise for embracing the “right way”, and finally 7) proffering penance and restitution.

Another classification existing in the literature was provided by Fraser (1981). As far as Fraser classification is concerned, the act of apology is composed of nine semantic formulas which are: 1) Stating the apology, 2) Announcing one’s moral duty to apologize, 3) Asking for acceptance, 4) Offering to apologize, 5) Admitting responsibility, 6) Asking for forgiveness, 7) Showing remorse, 8) Promising forbearance, 9) Offering compensation.

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) used Fraser’s (1981) model as the starting point in order to determine a classification of the semantic formulas used to perform an apology. Olshtain and Cohen’s classification is considered as a comprehensive classification due to the fact that it reduced the number of the strategies suggested by Fraser from nine to five fundamental strategies. In addition, those five semantic formulas fall down into direct and indirect apology strategies. The direct apology strategy includes: an expression of apology or Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID), this formula is composed of three sub-strategies; a) an expression of regret (e.g. I am sorry), b) an offer of apology (e.g. I apologize), c) requesting forgiveness (e.g. Excuse me / Forgive me). the indirect strategies, on the other hand, include:

1) an acknowledgement of responsibility, which is composed of three sub-categories: a) acceptance of blame (e.g. It's all my bad.), b) an expression of self-deficiency (e.g. I wasn't thinking.), c) recognizing that the other person deserves an apology (e.g. i understand your frustration.); 2) an explanation or account, this strategy differs based on the situation (e.g.: I was ill . / There was an incident. / I forgot. / I had to do something.); 3) an offer of repair, this strategy is context-dependent, i.e., it occurs in specific situations only (e.g. I'll pay for the damages, or can I help you?); 4) a promise of forbearance, like the previous strategy it occurs in specific situations only (e.g. I will not do this again.)

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) add that apologies can be modified through a combination of apology formulas or also through the use of intensifiers such as adverbials e.g. “so, very, and deeply”. In addition, apologies can be modified to reduce the offender's responsibility over the offense. On the other hand, Olshtain and Cohen (as cited in Prachanant, 2016, p. 147) outline a set of options for when the speakers do not need/want to apologize. The three options are the following: 1) no verbal reaction (opt out); 2) denial of the need to apologize (e.g. No need for you to get insulted); 3) denial of responsibility-this formula can be categorized into two types: not accepting the blame (e.g. It wasn't my fault.), and blaming others (e.g. It's your fault.).

Sifianou (1992) specifies that there is a direct relationship between politeness and speech act theory. Politeness in speech acts is at the heart of social life and communication. It may be a prerequisite of collaboration between people in general. For example, Brown and Levinson (1978) developed their theory of politeness on the premise that many speech acts are intrinsically threatening to face. Hence, the concept of politeness entails further explanation.

4. Politeness Theory

The concept of politeness in the field of pragmatics was defined differently by different scholars. But, most of them share the idea that politeness is probably the most crucial element that governs communication. As an illustration, Thomas (2013) believes that politeness has received a lot of attention in the last decades and she adds that politeness is viewed as a sub-branch within pragmatics.

There are plenty of theories and conceptualizations regarding politeness and its principles. However, the notion of “face” which was first instigated by Goffman in 1967. He defined the face as: “the positive social value a person effectively claims for [him or herself]” (Goffman, 1967, p. 5). One of the other main works in politeness is Grice’s (1975) theory of cooperative principle and conversational maxims. According to Grice, interlocutors share the same goals within society. In order to manage communication, individuals need to cooperate with each other in order to achieve the intended meaning (production and comprehension). Therefore, members of a society need to respect the following maxims:

- a) Quality: Make your contributions as true as possible.
- b) Quantity: Make your contributions as informative as required.
- c) Relation: Be relevant.
- d) Manner: Be perspicuous.

Built on the Gricean notions of cooperative principle and conversational maxims, Leech (1983) introduced the concept of Politeness Principle. Leech (1983) defines politeness as to “minimize the expression of impolite beliefs, maximize the expression of polite beliefs” (p. 81). Additionally, Leech believes that the politeness principle is a necessary supplement to Grice’s theory of cooperative principle.

Building on Grice's theory (1975) and Goffman's notion of face (1967), Brown and Levinson (1983) developed their highly recognized paradigm of face-saving view of politeness. Their framework is considered the most significant one by many scholars and commonly used among researchers. As an illustration, Kerbrat Orecchioni (1997) points out that the names of Brown and Levinson and the term 'politeness' are synonymous and mentioning politeness is paralleled by Brown and Levinson's theory.

4.1 Brown and Levinson's Theory of Politeness

Brown and Levinson's (1978) theory of politeness and their (1987) revised theory of politeness are considered the most comprehensive and widely used frameworks of politeness in the research of pragmatic competence in mother-tongue pragmatics as well as interlanguage pragmatics' researches. According to them, politeness can be considered an essential element in our day-to-day conversations. Its importance, though, lies in achieving social goals and this can explain why some interlocutors are sometimes direct and other times indirect in their speaking. Watts (2003) states that, as Lakoff and Leech, Brown and Levinson's model of politeness is based on the Gricean theory of Cooperative Principle, and Goffman's (1959) notion of face.

In their definition of face, Brown and Levinson (1987) state that the face is the "public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 61), and they add that "face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction" (p. 61). Moreover, they provide a distinction between positive face and negative face which they claim to be universal. While the latter stands for a person's need to be free to act without imposition and unimpeded by others, the first stands for a person's need to be appreciated and accepted by others.

In any given communication, the participants always expect their faces' wants to be respected. However, it is a laborious procedure as many speech acts are threatening to face. These acts that threaten the face are called face threatening acts (FTAs). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), FTAs fall into two categories: acts that threaten negative face and acts that threaten positive face. The acts that threaten the hearer's negative face are those acts in which the hearer's freedom of action is ignored such as: offers, requests and orders. Yet, the acts that threaten the hearer's positive face include those acts in which the speaker shows no consideration for the hearer's wants or self-image as in: criticism, complaints and taboo topics (pp. 65-67). Nevertheless, some of the acts that threaten the speaker's positive face incorporate: apologies and acceptance of a compliment, while the acts that threaten the speaker's negative face include expressions of thanks and gratitude.

In order to determine the amount of 'face' work, Brown and Levinson proposed a scale known as PDR which they also claim to be universal. Brown & Levinson's (1978) proposed scale is designed to assess the seriousness of the verbal acts and the needed degree of politeness to achieve those verbal acts. The First variable is the social distance (D) between the speaker and hearer. The second variable is the relative power (P) between the speaker and hearer. The third variable is the absolute ranking (R) of impositions in a particular culture (p. 79).

5. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Studies of pragmatics in second or foreign language contexts fall into three different perspectives: cross-cultural, interlanguage or intercultural. In fact, the present study concerns itself with EFL settings. Thus, the term interlanguage pragmatics deserves a copious explanation. Perhaps before indulging into the details of interlanguage pragmatics, the term 'interlanguage' is worthy of explanation. the term first appeared in the work of the American

applied linguist Larry Selinker (1972) named *Interlanguage*, he explains that interlanguage is a type of language or a linguistic system a second and/or foreign language learner develops when learning a second language, he adds that this system (interlanguage) is influenced by the learner's mother tongue.

Based on the previously stated, it can be implied that ILP belongs to the studies of SLA. building on this idea, Schauer (2009) states that "Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is, as the name suggests, a subfield of both interlanguage studies, which belongs to the domain of second language acquisition research, and pragmatics" (p. 15). In other words, Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993) suggest that ILP can be defined as "the study of nonnative speaker's use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language" (p. 3).

ILP concerns itself with multiple areas of research. According to Alcón-Soler & Martinez-Flor (2008) ILP investigates "speech acts, conversational structure, and conversational implicature" (p. 3); yet it strictly concentrates on two issues: knowledge relates to cross-cultural pragmatics, and notions relate to the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Similarly, Kasper and Dahl (1991) claim that ILP is the study of "nonnative speakers'" (NNS) comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired" (p. 5). Thus, ILP is an essential field in SLA, which includes all the themes related to EFL learners' necessary knowledge of language use in terms of language production, comprehension and acquisition. Owing to its significance, ILP includes multiple topics and areas of research. The following sections illustrate the themes of study and some of the theories that have gained importance due to ILP.

6. Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatic transfer (PT) is considered as one of the most essential notions in ILP. For the most part, the term transfer is defined as “the systematic influences of existing knowledge on the acquisition of new knowledge” (Spencer- Oatey, 2008, p.142). Building on this, pragmatic transfer is defined as: “the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than the target language on their comprehension, production and learning of pragmatic information in the target language” (Kasper, 1992, p, 207, as cited in Patricia Bou Franch, 1998).

A significant point is mentioned by Kasper and Rose (2002) in which they call for universality within L2 pragmatics' acquisition on the basis of PT “Adult foreign language learners can promote the comprehension and production of L2 pragmatics through universal pragmatic knowledge which has been internalized in their L1” (Kasper and Rose 2002, as cited in Wijayanto, 2016). A similar point is found in the literature which opposes the idea of relativity, stating that learners opt for transferring their L1 knowledge when they obtain a universalist view (Olshtain, 1983; Robinson, 1992, as cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999).

As far as PT is concerned, there are no final conclusions as to determine the nature of transfer. Yet, according to Jiemin Bu (2012) the issue of pragmatic transfer and its relationship with L2 proficiency has been problematic. Three opposing views characterize the subject matter: (1) L1 PT positively correlates with learners' L2 proficiency. (2) L1 PT negatively correlates with learners' L2 proficiency. (3) L1 PT does not apparently correlate with learners' L2 proficiency.

Negative transfer constitutes the inappropriate transfer of speech acts and cultural norms of communication from L1 to L2, and often the result is a pragmatic failure. As a

matter of fact, the process of positive transfer does not involve complications as it entails the same pragmatic features in L1 and L2. Thomas (1983) suggests that pragmatic failure is more deleterious when compared to linguistic errors, and it is worse in the case of advanced L2 learners. Accordingly, most ILP or cross-cultural studies pay a notable attention to negative transfer due to the fact that it is the source of detrimental pragmatic failures which lead to misunderstanding and/or miscommunication.

7. Pragmatic Failures

The study of pragmatic failures appeared in the 1980's through the works of the British scholar Jenny Thomas. According to Thomas (1983) pragmatic failure stands for "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (p. 93). She explicates that pragmatic failure occurs in situations "On which H (the hearer) perceives the force of S's (the speaker's) utterance as other than S intended she or he should perceive it" (p. 94).

7.1. Types of Pragmatic Failures

Muir and Xu (2011) (as cited in Hamoudi, 2018, p.73) by enlarging their scope of research of pragmatic failures, they distinguish between four types of pragmatic failure as the following:

- a) **Interpretative pragmalinguistic failure:** occurs when a NNS assign inaccurate inferences about the pragmatic force of particular linguistic structures that are used in certain situations of the foreign language.
- b) **Productive pragmalinguistic failure:** takes place when NNS inappropriately link certain linguistic structures to particular pragmatic forces.

c) **Interpretative sociopragmatic failure:** is linked to the reliance of the NNS on their own socio-cultural specifications of interaction when engaging in cross-cultural communication (power, intimacy, rights and obligations).

d) **Productive sociopragmatic failure:** occurs due to the discrepancies existing between the cultures of L1 and L2 that the NNS fail to consider when communicating in L2. This failure, however, is linked to the production of inappropriate language.

8. Instructional Pragmatics

The absence of pragmatics in the field of foreign and second language learning contexts has been a source of inspiration to multiple scholars and researchers. The shift to the communicative aspects of language in language learning programs can be seen as the ignited match to the introduction of pragmatics in language learning/teaching programs. Thus, this issue generated the following concerns: whether pragmatics is teachable or not, and the methodology of teaching it. Consequently, these questions resulted in a well-composed body of research supporting the thesis that pragmatics can and should be taught (Thomas, 1983; Ellis, 1992; Bardovi-Harlig, 1993, 1996; House, 1996; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005; Ifantidou, 2012).

Kasper's (1997) work "*Can Pragmatic Competence Be Taught?*" is considered one of the earliest calls for the implementation of pragmatics in L2 learning programs. According to Kasper, the teaching of pragmatics in L2 contexts is supported by the claim that there are universalities among pragmatic knowledge between the learners' native language (L1) and L2. There are distinctive features which differ from one language into another, however. Two studies (Kasper, 1981; Fukushima, 1990) concluded that the knowledge of some pragmatic universals does not necessarily stand for using that knowledge effectively, this can be seen in

the differences in terms of producing the same communicative act in L1 and L2, such as; the use of politeness markers and sensitivity to contextual criteria. Adding to this, she claims that the fact of having pragmatic knowledge which L2 learners possess does not mean that they apply that knowledge, she says:

... there is thus a clear role for pedagogic intervention here, not with the purpose of providing learners with new information but to make them aware of what they know already and encourage them to use their universal or transferable L1 pragmatic knowledge in L2 contexts. ('Need L2 pragmatics be taught?' section, para. 5)

The other prominent figure in this field Bardovi-Harlig suggests that L2 learning programs focusing on grammar are useless for the acquisition/learning of more efficient and functional aspects of language (that is the pragmatics of language) as she (1996) claims "...That is to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess concomitant pragmatic competence ..." (p. 21). Furthermore, in line with Kasper, she notices that EFL classrooms may be the only chances for some L2 learners to receive input. Hence, she suggests that the input that the learners should receive to be "pragmatically appropriate input" (1996, p. 24) or also "authentic and representative language" (2001, p. 30). This notion of pragmatically appropriate input goes in favour of raising L2 learners' awareness of socio-cultural aspects of communication through inside and outside of the classroom activities.

Concerning what to teach and what is teachable within this focus, Kasper contends that all features and norms of pragmatics are teachable as in her study with Rose (2001) in which they state that teaching pragmatics includes speech acts, speech function, address markers, hedges, and conversational structure, this is supported by many researches like:

House & Kasper (1981) discourse markers and strategies, Wildner-Bassett (1994) pragmatic routines, Billmyer (1990) compliment, Olshtain and Cohen (1990) Apology, Bouton (1994) implicature, Kubota (1995) implicature, House (1996) pragmatic fluency, Morrow (1996) complaint and refusal. However, an element which induced more concern and remarkable strands of research is the issue of how to teach pragmatics. In this quest, two main methods of teaching pragmatic knowledge in L2 classes were embraced by researchers, curriculum designers and teachers. These two methods are implicit and explicit instruction of pragmatics.

8.1. Explicit Instruction vs. Implicit Instruction

Explicit pragmatic instruction appears to be widely accepted among scholars and researchers (Brock & Nagasaka, 2005; Jernigan, 2007; Vitale, 2009; Taguchi, 2011; Sadhegi & Foutooh, 2012). It stands for a direct instruction of the speech act forms for L2 learners to raise their pragmatic awareness. It is more or less based on Schmidt's (1993) Noticing Hypothesis.

The two prominent figures in the field of pragmatics, Kasper and Rose (2002) insist that in order to develop EFL learners' PC, two main aspects need to be taken into consideration: a) the learners should receive input and produce output by means of the language, b) and an arranged instruction of pragmatics in the classes. It is assumed that this type of teaching focuses on awareness raising through metapragmatic explanation, which proves to be effective in providing good exposure to both adult and young learners, and also in eliminating negative transfer issues. As a result, the teaching through this approach involves two steps: 1) explicit explanations of the pragmatic forms to be learned to aid "noticing" (the first level of awareness), 2) planned practice of the learned forms which serves as an enhancement factor to "understanding" (an advanced level of awareness) (Taguchi, 2015, p. 26).

On the other hand, implicit instruction is based on the idea that Brown (2007) terms as “learning without conscious attention or awareness” (p. 291), it is similarly explained by Schmidt (1993) as unconscious generalisation from examples. In other words, it examines an input processing perspective on the basis of inductive learning, which in Taguchi’s (2011) perception “aims to describe cognitive mechanisms that operate when the learner is processing input” (p. 292). According to Taguchi (2015) the implicit learning process involves “attention to form first, followed by noticing the forms in context, and finally processing them to induce rules from input” (p. 28). Therefore, learning of pragmatic knowledge in this approach entails providing the necessary input of the pragmatic features that the learners will process through some subconscious mechanisms, and then they should have the necessary planned practice by means of interacting with their peers and teachers to reinforce the learning.

In spite of all the aforementioned, many studies advocate that both explicit and implicit instruction of pragmatics in L2 classrooms have positive effects on the progress of L2 learners' PC (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Taguchi, 2015).

8.2. L2 Teachers Role as Mediators of Pragmatic Knowledge

It is highly estimated that the teaching programs of pragmatics are a subject of dispute. Consequently, teachers are the sole source of appropriate pragmatic language use. In fact, Ishihara and Cohen (2010) consider the identification of the essential areas that language teachers should be knowledgeable about as crucial, for they contribute in helping learners to understand other people’s intentions and to express themselves within the norms of sociocultural contexts. Table 01 represents the main elements that teachers should be familiar with to teach L2 pragmatics (Ishihara, 2010, pp. 23-24 as cited in Choraih, Loutfi and Mansoor, 2016, p. 205)

Table01*The necessary Elements for the Instruction of L2 Pragmatics*

Selected components of teacher knowledge for teaching L2 in general	Components of teacher knowledge specifically required for teaching of L2 pragmatics
<i>Subject-matter knowledge</i>	Knowledge of pragmatic variation. Knowledge of a range of pragmatic norms in the target language. Knowledge of meta-pragmatic information (e.g. how to discuss pragmatics).
<i>Pedagogical-content knowledge</i>	Knowledge of how to teach L2 pragmatics. Knowledge of how to assess L2 pragmatic ability.
<i>Knowledge of the learners and local, curricular, and educational contexts</i>	Knowledge of learners' identities, cultures, proficiency and other characteristics. Knowledge of the pragmatics-focused curriculum. Knowledge of the role of L2 pragmatics in the educational contexts.

9. Testing Pragmatic Competence

The teaching of pragmatics relies to a great extent on the assessment of all the content that is taught. As Ishihara (2010) maintains that teaching without assessment is incomplete,

she adds that the assessment tackles three main areas: pragmalinguistic ability, sociopragmatic ability, and analytic ability. In Fact, the main benefits of assessment can be linked to determining learners' attitudes and their levels of understanding the instructed items, offering insights on the methods and activities used in teaching pragmatics, analysing the contents of pragmatic knowledge and all the other criteria influencing the instruction of pragmatics.

Meanwhile, In order to test EFL learners' pragmatic ability, scholars developed varied types of tests, such as: discourse completion task (DCT), role plays and natural data. Each one has its strengths and drawbacks, as well as their suitability to the particular testing/assessment needs.

9.1 Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

In L2 pragmatics research and education, DCT has a long tradition as the widely used tool for data collection and assessment. It was first used in 1982 by Blum-Kulka to study the speech act performance for Hebrew learners as L2. In a DCT, the participants are provided with a set of hypothetical situations with diverse settings, roles, social distances and power discrepancies, and it can be in written or oral form with the aim of eliciting the participants' speech act production. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993), claim that DCTs are the dominant tool for collecting data in pragmatic research and are used in distinct formats, including written, multiple-choice and oral.

As any research or assessment tool, DCT has advantages and drawbacks. First, the easiness to manipulate variables, to collect large sets of data, and to administer it to large numbers of test takers are among its striking advantages. Adding to that, many researchers locate the significance of DCT in the fact that it brings focus to the studies concerned with the production of speech acts, opposed to naturally occurring data which are characterized by the

scarcity of the targeted speech act for it is infrequent to occur. However, despite the wide usage of DCT, the authenticity of data collected via this tool remains a subject of criticism. It produces artificial linguistic action instead of authentic discourse (Manes and Wolfson, 1980; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; and Cohen, 1996)

9.2 Role play

Role play is also an effective tool to gather data. Like the DCT, role plays require the participants to imagine hypothetical situations. Unlike the DCT, they are more similar to real life situations. In fact, role plays provide more information about the context, they allow the researcher to scrutinize the effects of interaction, and enable the researcher to analyze non-linguistic aspects such as body language and facial expressions. Furthermore, role plays are characterized by surprising moments. In other words, the conversation seems to be predicted, the hearer, however, cannot predict the strategies and expressions the speaker will use. Hence, the hearer may need to adjust their responses to comply with the speakers' turns.

In her support for this tool, Kasper (2000) states that if the study concentrates on conversational interaction and the sequencing of the communication, a communicative procedure as role play should be used. On the other hand, simulated talk as role plays' defining feature is also regarded as a cause for concern (Stokoe 2013). It is argued that role plays are socially insignificant (e. g., Al-Gahtani and Roever 2012; Bardovi-Harlig& Hartford 2005; Gass& Houck 1999; Felix-Brasdefer 2007) and therefore accredit inauthentic discourse. (as cited in Kasper and soo young yoon, 2017)

9.3 Natural Data

Natural data involves recording data as it is taking place in real life situations with or without the presence of the researcher, and usually the participants are aware that they are

being recorded as they engage in conversations. Through the application of discourse analysis and/ or conversational analysis techniques, the researchers analyze the use of speech acts, sequencing of conversations and other aspects of communication. Demeter (2012) states that the use of naturally occurring data may seem to be the best and most valid tool, many researchers use other data collection tools though. He explains their choice because of the difficulties for using naturally occurring data such as the difficulty to control variables, restriction to small samples and small amounts of data, as well as, privacy issues. In spite of the previously stated, one concluding argument is that the high degree of authenticity provided by this tool compared to the others is exclusive and unmatched, which is why this tool may be the most appropriate tool for any solid conclusions about pragmatic competence.

II. Emotional Intelligence

1. Emotions

Due to the intangibility of emotions and the different perceptions of the subject, a solid definition is hardly obtainable. Analogously, it can merely mean the specific categorisation of feelings, such as “joy”, “sadness”, “rage”, “sympathy” or “excitement”. Nevertheless, different psychologists discussed its different conceptualizations, based on different views.

Pope and Singer (1990) view emotions as structured reactions that cross “many subsystems” as well as “psychological, cognitive, motivational and experiential systems” (p.186). Generally, one’s emotions are a reaction to an internal or external stimulus and they can subjectively have positive or negative meanings. Additionally, circumstances or situations are what awaken emotions (Ekman, 2007).

According to Leeper (1948), emotions- to some extent- hold a force of a process that can stimulate, maintain, and control a certain activity (p.17). Moreover, M. George (2006) proposed that moods and emotions are both primary constituents of behaviour.

Similarly, J.M George (2000) suggests that moods tend to be less powerful than emotions because they are not specifically related to an event, while emotions are strongly tied to a specific event or occurrence. He also believes that emotions are essential to guide someone's attention to decisive situations, to subtly making a decision, as well as to facilitate certain daily life conscious or unconscious processes. George refers to one's emotional knowledge as fully comprehending the causes and eventual consequences of one's moods and emotions as well as understanding how they develop, grow, and change as time passes by (2000).

2. Intelligence

Intelligence is probably the most divisive area of Psychology. It dates back to the 1980s as one of the oldest, with the work of Francis Galton on individual differences in sensory functioning. A satisfactory definition of intelligence may be hardly obtainable as it is a complicated concept. However, most of the definitions provided by linguists and psychologists have certain areas of similarity, scanning through those definitions reveals common occurring features (Leggs& Hutter, 2007). Intelligence, hence, can be defined as: “a property that an individual agent has as it interacts with its environment or environments”, something “related to the agent's ability to succeed or profit with respect to some goal or objective.”, and as it depending on “how able the agent is to adapt to different objectives and environments.”(p.9).

For instance, Wechsler (1958) defines intelligence as one's total “capacity” of acting persistently, rational thinking, and effectively dealing with the surroundings. According to Pope and Singer (1990), Wechsler's definition roughly involves what most people perceive as intelligence. The ability to obtain primary knowledge and use it in different scenarios is known as “general intelligence”. In the subject field, according to Gottfredson (1998), there are two main fundamental suppositions: a) one is born with an already determined possible intelligence b) one is able to assess general intelligence. Gottfredson believes that measuring

intelligence using IQ tests is the one most efficient predictor- to ever exist- of individual performance, academically or professionally. She also advocates that individual performance is easily predicted by high levels of intelligence.

2.1. Theories of Intelligence

The concept of “intelligence” has been defined dissimilarly by specialists in the subject field. Correspondingly, many theories have been generated in various attempts to explain and dissect the concept. There are many different theories which reject at least one previous theory. The most outspokenly known theories of intelligence, which will be briefly discussed below, are: Charles’s the “Two- Factor Theory”, Edward Thorndike’s “Multi-factor Theory”, Louis.L Thurstone’s “Primary Mental Abilities Theory”, Philip E. Vernon’s “Hierarchical Theory”, Harold Gardner’s “Multiple Intelligence Theory”, Robert Sternberg’s “Triarchic Theory”, and Ceci’s “Biological Theory”.

The “Two Factor Theory” of intelligence was developed in the 1904 by the British Psychologist Charles Spearman. “General intelligence”, the “G factor”, “one factor theory”, or “two factor theory” are how he refers to his conceptualisation of intelligence. He suggests that human mental abilities consist of two factors: the general- or common- ability labelled the ‘G’ factor, and the group of specific abilities known as the ‘S’ factor (1904). The first factor ‘g’ is innate and universal, noting that an individual with a greater g is meant to expect greater success in life; whereas the second factor ‘s’ is acquired from the environment in which an individual lives and interacts with his peers. The ‘s’ varies depending on one’s activities and interactions (Spearman, 1904). In order to conclude the aforementioned findings, he exerted some mental aptitude tests using the mathematic technique “factor analysis” to examine the concept. The test scores were surprisingly alike; participants who perform well on one cognitive test have a tendency to perform well on the rest of the tests and

vice versa. According to him, intelligence is the underlying cause that all test scores were alike and that intelligence is a measurable, numerically expressed general cognitive ability.

The theory of general intelligence was rejected by the American psychologist Edward Thorndike. Thorndike's theory, the multi-factor theory, firmly advocates that an intellectual ability, on its own, entails a synthesis of different set of abilities. Moreover, there are four aspects of intelligence (1937). The first one is the "level", which refers to the extent to which a task can be difficult. The second one is the "range", which is the number of tasks at any level of difficulty. The third one is the "area", referring to the overall number of situations, at each level, that the individual is capable of responding to. The fourth one is the "speed", which is the rapidity of one's response to the items or tasks.

In the 1930s, a contradictory theory of intelligence, identified as "Primary Mental Abilities Theory", was presented by the psychologist Louis L. Thurstone. In contrast to Spearman's theory, Primary Mental Abilities views intelligence as a synthesis of seven mental abilities instead of a single, general ability. Those abilities are: Verbal comprehension, Reasoning, Perceptual speed, Numerical Ability, Word fluency, Associative memory, and Special visualisation.

Objectively, Philip Vernon's Hierarchical theory of intelligence, unlike most of the other theories, neither denies the existence of group factors nor rejects the existence of a 'g' factor. According to the hierarchical theory, intelligence is described as an aggregate of abilities at different levels of generality. Those levels are as follow: (1) the highest level: Spearman's 'g'-general- factor; (2) Major group factors: such as verbal- numerical- educational ability (which he refers to as v:ed) and practical- mechanical- special- physical ability (which he refers to as k:m); (3) Minor group factors: devided from the major group factors; (4) Bottom level: Spearman's 's'- specific- factor. Uncommonly, in 1969, Vernon

investigated the role of genetics as well as the environment in the development of one's intellect. He claims that subjective difference in intelligence is almost 60 percent referenced to genetic factors. In this regard Vernon advocates that:

Intelligence A is the basic potentiality of the organism, whether animal or human, to lean and to adapt to its environment...Intelligence A is determined by the genes ...Intelligence B is the level of ability that a person actually shows in behavior cleverness, the efficiency and complexity of perceptions, learning, thinking, and problem solving. This is *not* genetic...rather, it is the product of the interplay between genetic potentiality and environmental stimulation. (1979, pp. 10- 20)

The theory of “Multiple Intelligences”, of Howard Gardner, is the most known theory of intelligence. It argues that numerical expressions of intelligence calculated through IQ tests are not the accurate full incarnation of true human abilities (1983). Gardner(1998) believes that “human beings are better thought of as possessing a number of relatively independent faculties, rather than as having a certain amount of intellectual horsepower(or Intelligence quotient [IQ]) that can be simply channelled in one or another direction”(as cited in Gayathri, 2013). This theory presents eight different types of intelligence, based on skills and abilities. Those eight kinds of intelligence are: Visual-spatial intelligence, Verbal-linguistic intelligence, Bodily- kinaesthetic intelligence, Logical-mathematical intelligence, Interpersonal intelligence, Musical intelligence, Intrapersonal intelligence, and Naturalistic intelligence.

In agreement with Gardner that intelligence is so much more than just a single factor, psychologist Robert Sternberg proposed his “Triarchic theory” of intelligence in 1986. He defines human intelligence as “a mental activity directed toward

purposive adaptation to, selection, and shaping of real-world environments relevant to one's life" (Sternberg, 1986). According to this theory, a three-factor "successful intelligence" involves:

- Analytical intelligence: one's problem-solving ability;
- Creative intelligence: one's ability to deal with new situations using prior experiences and existing skills; and
- Practical intelligence: one's ability to adapt to a different environment.

Ceci (1990) claims that there are multiple cognitive potentials, which are related to human biology and strictly linked to the challenges and opportunities, that are offered by the individual's environment. According to this theory, the proper demonstration of intellectual abilities entails context, which is the field of knowledge and other factors like education, personality, and motivation. Context can be social, mental, or physical. Unlike the previously mentioned theories of intelligence, Ceci's bio-ecological theory greatly emphasizes the role of culture in shaping one's intellect. He argues that:

Especially in its early phases, and to a great extent throughout the life course, human development takes place through processes of progressively more complex reciprocal interaction between an active, evolving biopsychological human organism and the persons, objects, and symbols in its immediate environment. To be effective, the interaction must occur on a fairly regular basis over extended periods of time. (1994, p.572).

3. Emotional Intelligence

The concept of "emotional intelligence" was first announced by Payne in 1986; however, Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ?* is

mostly credited. One of his most prominent ideas is that there must be a balance and control of emotions in order to have better relations with people (1995). Goleman (1995) states that:

What is wanted is *appropriate* emotion, feeling proportionate to circumstance, When emotions are too muted they create dullness and distance; when out of control, too extreme and persistent, they become pathological, as in immobilizing depression, overwhelming anxiety, raging anger, manic agitation.(p.56)

In spite of its recent unveiling, the term “emotional intelligence” already has a number of definitions based on different models. There are two streams that psychologists followed in conceptualizing emotional intelligence:

- a) *Ability models*: wherein emotional intelligence is presented as a set of emotionally functioning cognitive abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).
- b) *mixed trait models*: these models integrate a broad range of personality characteristics as well as other traits (Bar-On, 2001; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Petrides & Furnham, 2008)

Based on the “ability model”, John Mayer and Peter Salovey (Mayer & Salovey 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al, 2004) are considered as the pioneers of the notion of Emotional Intelligence (EI). In the early 1990s, Mayer and Salovey published articles, offering initial review of aspects of emotional intelligence. They define EI as the split of social intelligence that includes one’s ability to supervise their own and others' feelings and emotions, the capability of differentiating between them and utilizing this information to guide one's thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1993). However, Salovey and Mayer revised their previous definition into a more simplified one. They identify EI as an aptitude to perceive and incorporate emotions in order to facilitate thought, understand and control emotions to encourage personal growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.3).

According to Renuven Bar-On (2006), emotional intelligence is “a cross section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands.” (as cited in Esmaeeli et al., 2018). Bar-on presents EI to be complementary to the IQ, and as a set of social-emotional abilities that aid the individual to survive social needs. Additionally, Goleman (1995) firmly believes that in terms of predicting success in different life challenges, emotional intelligence quotient (EQ) can actually be as powerful and sometimes more powerful than IQ.

Despite its conceptual fertility, emotional intelligence is not any less important. Sucaromana (2012) advocates that high levels of emotional intelligence can help learners manage their emotions, become more confident in themselves, their classmates, and teachers, and also prompt a more positive communication.

4. Models of Emotional Intelligence

According to *The Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology* (2004), there are three primarily fundamental conceptual models of “Emotional Intelligence”. Stated by Spielberger (2004), they are the following: (a) the Salovey& Mayer Model, (b) the Goleman Model, and (c) the Bar-On Model. These models follow one of the two paradigms of identifying emotional intelligence: the ability model or the mixed models.

Table02*Emotional Intelligence Models*

Emotional	Salovey& Mayer EI Model	Ability- based model
Intelligence	Goleman EI Model	Mixed- ability model
Models	Bar-On EI Model	Mixed model

Note: adapted from Spielbergers (2004) classification of EI models.

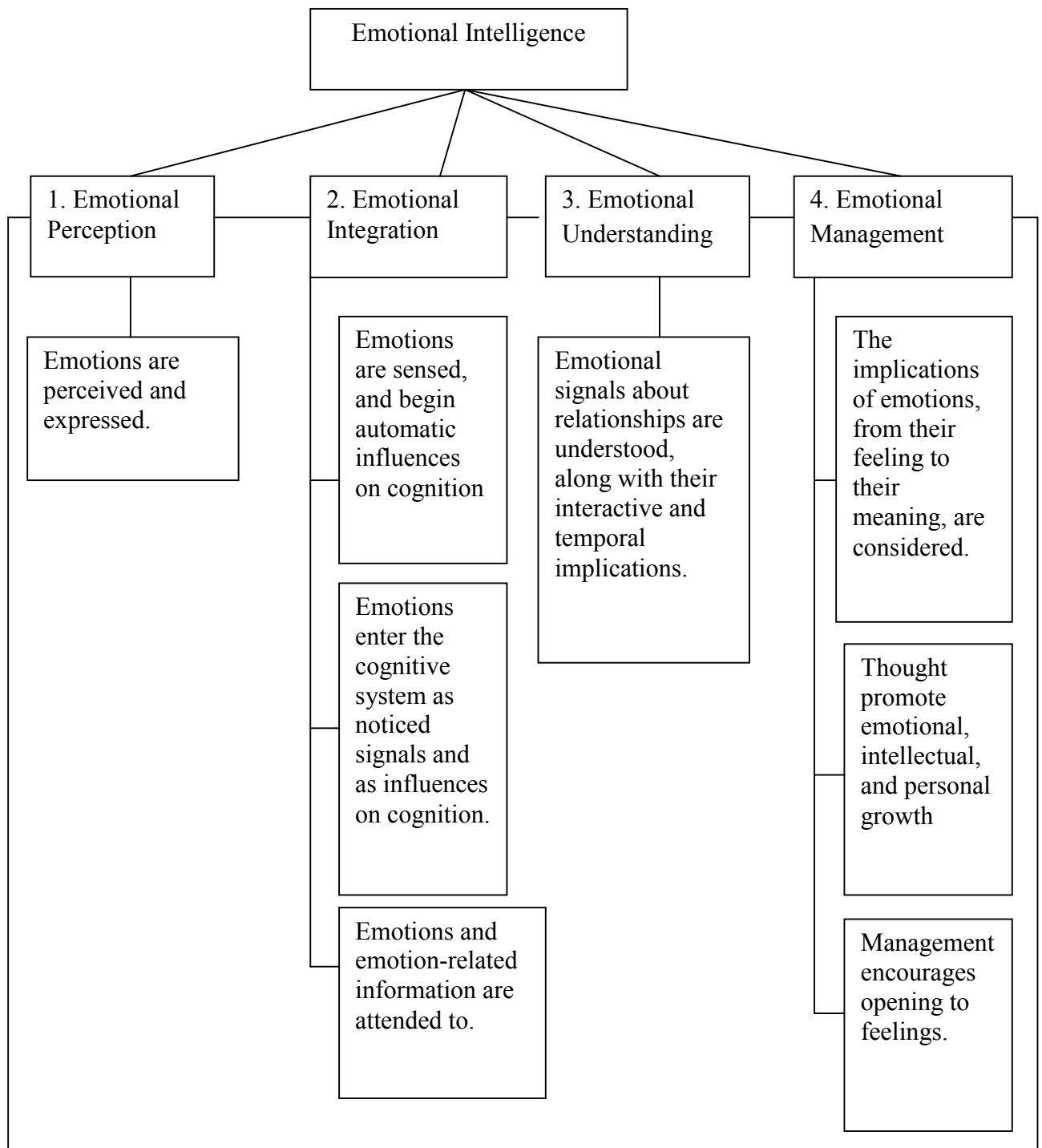
4.1. The Salovey- Mayer Model of Emotional Intelligence

As –currently- the only ability-based model of the construct, Mayer and Salovey’s model defines emotional intelligence as one’s “ability” to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions in order to facilitate thinking (1990). Every individual differs from the other in terms of their ability to process information of an emotional nature as well as in terms of linking emotional processing to a broader cognition. They assume that this ability tends to be evident in specific adaptive behaviors (Mayer et al., 2000).

The Salovey- Mayer’s conceptualization of EI is framed within an intelligence model, i.e. it attempts to define EI within the boundaries of ta new intelligence’s standard criteria (Mayer et al., 2003). Salovey and Mayer designed their first ability- measure of EI, known as the Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) (see figure2), that perceives emotional intelligence as a divergent intelligence with three dissimilar sub factors, namely: emotional perception, emotional understanding, and emotional management. It contains 12 subscales of emotional intelligence and an overall of 402 elements. It was mainly rejected because it failed to provide reasonable confirmation of the integration branch of the Four Branch Model (Mayer et al., 2002). Therefore, a new test was designed in order to conform their Four Branch Model, which is currently known as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), containing only 144 items.

Figure 02

An Adaptation of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Four-Branch Model of EI



4.2. The Bar-On Mixed- Model of Emotional Intelligence

The Bar-on mixed-ability model of emotional intelligence defines the latter as a self-report- measurable vessel containing a number of interconnected social and emotional competencies, skills and facilitators that affect intelligent behaviour. Bar-On created one of the very first measures of EI that employed the term “Emotion Quotient” (1997), known as EQ.

The Bar-On model is presented as process-oriented rather than result-oriented; it focuses on the ability of performance and success instead of performance or success solely (BarOn, 2002). According to Bar On (2002) five components of emotional intelligence (see table 03) are presented: (a) intrapersonal, (b) interpersonal, (c) adaptability, (d) stress management, and (e) general mood. Based on this model, the Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was created. It is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence, containing 133 items, for human beings of 16 years or older.

Table 03

Bar-On Model of EI

Component	Sub-components
Intrapersonal	Self regard Emotional Self- Awareness Assertiveness Independence Self Actualization
Interpersonal	Empathy Social Responsibility Interpersonal Relationship
Adaptability	Reality Testing Flexibility Problem Solving
Stress management	Stress Tolerance Impulse Control
General mood	Optimism Happiness

4.3. Goleman's Mixed- Model of Emotional Intelligence

Psychologist Daniel Goleman (1995) defines emotional intelligence, which can be measured by a multi-rating assessment, as a range of skills and competencies that steer professional performance. Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence* (1995) presented new insights and brought more attention to the necessity of being emotionally intelligent. Goleman's mixed model presents four primary components of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998):

- c) *Self-awareness*: to be able to read someone's emotions and distinguish their effect whilst using intuition to make decisions.

- d) *Self-management*: includes monitoring one's emotions and desires and adapting to a change in environment.
- e) *Social awareness*: involves being able to feel, comprehend, and respond to other's emotions whilst understanding social relationships.
- f) *Relationship management*: being able to enthuse, affect, and develop others whilst controlling conflict.

Table 04

Goleman's (2002) EI Competencies

	SELF	OTHER
	Personal Competence	Social Competence
	<u>Self- Awareness</u>	<u>Social- Awareness</u>
Recognition	Emotional Self-Awareness	Empathy
	Accurate Self-Assessment	Service Orientation
	Self- Confidence	Organizational Awareness
	<u>Self- Management</u>	<u>Relationship Management</u>
Regulation	Self- Control	Developing Others
	Trustworthiness	Influence
	Conscientiousness	Communication
	Adaptability	Conflict Management
	Achievement Drive	Leadership
	Initiative	Change Catalyst
		Building Bonds
		Teamwork and Collaboration

5. Emotional Intelligence and SLA

Psychology is a prominently overlapping field of inquiry- with many other fields- that is especially referred to in education. Methods and techniques have been developed to promote the learner's cognitive and meta- cognitive abilities. However, there is more to promote in a human being than just their cognition. As mentioned earlier in this section, human intelligences play a major role in their problem- solving and day to day activities. Consequently, research has been conducted on what is even beyond meta- cognition. Human emotions were thoroughly analyzed and tested. In *Learning beyond Cognition* (Kryger& Ravn Eds., 2007), it is discussed that:

Emotions and feelings play an important role in cognitive processes, such as meaning making and the construction of reality. Indeed, many newer theories of learning view cognition in this broader perspective, linking social and cultural situatedness and emotional dimensions inextricably to reasoning and problem solving and recognising.
(p.10)

Simply explained, emotions also have a role in one's reasoning, problem solving, as well as recognising things to be right or wrong, true or false. Hence, emotional intelligence is indeed necessary in enhancing one's abilities and skills. A study conducted by Bencivenga and Elias (2003) concluded that EI has an effect on academic success and achievement in general education.

Emotional intelligence that has inspired research in many fields drew significant attention to its major role in teaching and learning in general. According to Sucaromana (2012) high levels of EI aid students control their emotions, foster a better intercommunication, and engrave confidence in themselves, their classmates, and teachers. Additionally, EI boosts academic and social accomplishments (Marquez et al., 2006) and emotional intelligence skills are a predictor of academic achievement (Stottlemayer, 2002).

Mohammadi (2012) found a statistically significant correlation between students' academic achievement and their emotional intelligence. He stated that "emotional intelligence and its dimensions predict students' language learning". (p.1955). In addition, emotional intelligence plays a significantly major role in language learning as well. Pishghadam (2007) revealed that a higher level of EQ is a predictor of a high Grade Point Average (GPA) and it was also matched with higher scores in language skills that majorly depend on EI abilities. Likewise, Rouhani (2004) revealed that promoting emotions might play a positive role in L2 Learning. Consequently, the role of emotional intelligence in learning a second or a foreign language cannot be neglected, it rather has to be emphasised.

6. Emotional Intelligence and Pragmatic Competence

Despite the primary role of emotional intelligence in facilitating one's social and personal life, little research was conducted on its relationship with pragmatic competence. Hajmalek states that emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence PC may be related because of the evident social aspects and skills that EI involves, "which can be hypothesized to be linked to the social aspects of language, namely, pragmatics" (2015, as cited in Shirazi & Nadoushani, 2016, p.58). This claim can be supported by an investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and pragmatic awareness (Rafieyan. et al., 2014).

Nonetheless, many other researchers, who investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and interlanguage pragmatic competence, have found no statistically significant correlation. Mohammad (2013) administered the Bar-On EQ-I (1996) questionnaire to measure EI and two ILP competence tests to 52 Iranian EFL majors. It mainly investigated the correlation between the learners' EI and their ILP development. The study revealed that no significant correlation pattern exists between any of the "15 constructive components" of EI and the IPL.

However, Mackenzie and Alba-Juez (2019) designed and distributed a survey, composing emotionally challenging situations, among engineering companies that measured trait Emotional Intelligence and communicative pragmatic competence. Their data analysis concludes the existence of a non linear positive correlation between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence.

7. Testing Emotional Intelligence

Due to the fact that emotional intelligence has different definitions as well as different models, a range of measuring tools of the construct are created, widely used, and reported. Generally, there are three approaches to measure emotional intelligence: self-report measurement, informant measures- of how others perceive a certain individual-, and ability or performance measures (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso as cited in Priyam & Tanu, 2016, p194).

7.1. Bar-On EQ-I

Originally, the Emotional Intelligence Quotient inventory (EQ-I) was created in the 1980s, as an instrument to investigate and analyze the concept of emotional and social functioning. However, the EQ-I, published in 1997, which is its common version today, is a self-report measure of the behaviour that is emotionally and socially competent, presenting an assessment of emotional and social intelligence. The EQ-I, designed by BarOn, measures assertiveness, interpersonal effectiveness, empathy, impulse control, social responsibility, and reality- testing. It includes 133 items, taking about 30-40 minutes to complete by individuals of 17 years old and older. The test is a five point Likert scale extending from 1 = “very seldom or not true of me” to 5 = “very often true of me or true of me” .The EQ-i reveals a total EQ score and five EQ composite scale scores containing 15 subscale scores (Bar-On & Parker, 2000), as previously outlined in Table 03. The higher the score, the overall general

success is more positively predicted. This test is proved both reliable and valid (Bar-on, 1997).

7.2. The Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test(SSEIT)

The SSEIT, the Assessing Emotions Scale, or the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence test, is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence that contains thirty three (33) items. It was created by Schutte et al. (1998), based on the original definition of EI provided by Mayer (1990), which conceptualized EI as a set of interconnected abilities. The SSEIT measures the four dimensions of emotional intelligence which are: the “Perception of Emotions”, “Managing Emotions in Self”, “Managing Others’ Emotions”, and “Utilizing Emotions. The SSEIT focuses on natural emotional intelligence. Nonetheless, four- factor- analysis studies revealed a four- factor key for the items involved in the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test as “perception of emotions”, “social skills or managing others’ emotions”, “utilizing emotions, and managing emotions in self” (Ciarrochi et al., 2001).

7.3. Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)

The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI 2.0) test is based on emotional intelligence competencies presented by Goleman in *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998), on competencies from Hay Mcber’s *Generic Competency Dictionary* (1996) in addition to Richard Boyatzis’ Self Assessment Questionnaire. Using self-reports, this measurement tool entails the observations, validation, and reliability of EQ as an element that measures organizational performance and effective leadership. It was developed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and colleagues to measure emotional competencies as well as positive social behaviour (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Goleman, 1995). The ECI comprises of a total of 110 items designed to assess 20 competencies, which can be categorized into four groups: (1) Self-Awareness, (2) Social Awareness, (3) Self-Management, and (4) Social Skills.

7.4. MEIS and MSCEIT V.2

Mayer et al. (2000) consider EI to involve the capability to reason with and about emotions. They have developed two tests of EI. : The Multifactor Intelligence Scale (MEIS), and the Mayer-Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The MSCEIT V.2 is the latest revised version of the test. The MEIS is an ability test including 402 items identifying four subscales: Perception, Assimilation, Understanding, and Managing Emotions (Mayer et al., 2000). Final individual score is determined by asking them how they would feel/ portray their feelings when engaging in certain emotional activities. Similarly, the MSCEIT V.2 also measures the four branches of Mayer& Salovey's (1993; 1997) EI ability model using only 144 items It provides total scores of EI and four branch scores of: perception of emotions, integration and assimilation of emotions, knowledge about emotion, and management of emotions. Additionally, the MSCEIT V.2 comprises of two subtests for each branch assessment; whereas the MEIS uses 12 subtests for the four branches (Mayer et al., 2003).

Conclusion

The first chapter concludes that, arguably, pragmatic competence is perhaps the most crucial area of language mastery. The vastness of the field includes societal and cultural knowledge as well as cognitive-psychological dimensions which add to the complexity of this area of competence. Moreover, it concerns itself with the domains of first and second language acquisition and learning. This study is conducted where English is a foreign language. Hence, it studies the variables from an SLA point of view, that regards subject matters as interlanguage and language transfer as far as pragmatic competence is concerned. In addition, emotional intelligence has been proven to be one of the essential concepts to be studied in the 21st century due to its significance regarding all the emotional and social factors

of human's daily life matters (Bar-On, 2006). This type of intelligence is theorised in multiple models that communicate its different dimensions, in regard to the various definitions provided by psychologists. The undeniable importance of EI and its role in interacting with others and managing communication, grants it a remarkable spot in almost all fields of inquiry. In the end, the second chapter comprises all the necessary practical and methodological criteria to achieve the original correlational research between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization, as well as the descriptive research that investigates teachers' beliefs about the correlation between the study variables and the pragmatics-based instruction.

**Chapter Two:
Methodology, Findings and
Discussion**

Introduction

This study is achieved to examine the nature of the relationship existing between emotional intelligence and EFL learners' pragmatic competence of apology speech act performance. The previous chapter tackled the theoretical backgrounds and related research to PC and pragmatics' instruction, EI and its relationship to SLA. Chapter two is dedicated to the field work. It introduces the practical part of the research where both the methods and process used to conduct this research are explained. The chapter is divided into three sections. Section one provides a full explanation of the overall research design, it describes the methodology and design wherein the research methods, the setting, subjects, materials, instruments, procedures are appropriately applied. Section two is concerned with the statistical analysis of the data obtained and the discussion of the results. Section three aims to suggest some pedagogical implications on the basis of the findings; it also states some of the limitations of the present study and recommends future research.

I. Research Methodology and Design

1. The Mixed Method Research Design

As it was detailed in the general introduction, this study, unlike the other studies that simply focus on the analysis of speech acts or implicature as used by EFL learners, shifts the interest of applied pragmatics' studies to cognitive-psychological constructs such as emotional intelligence. It looks into the relationship between Algerian EFL learners' pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization and their levels of emotional intelligence, and it investigates EFL teachers of oral expression module's opinions and attitudes about the instruction of pragmatics and the relationship between EI and the mastery of speech acts; mainly, apology speech act. Therefore, in order to answer the research questions and test the posed hypothesis, the current study employs the mixed methods design, which is the combination of qualitative and quantitative approach to collect and analyze data (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007). It is characterized by the combination of at least one qualitative and one quantitative research component (Schoonenboom& Johnson, 2017). The correlational nature of this investigation entails using a quantified qualitative measurement too – the ODCT-, and one quantitative measurement tool – the SSEIT. Additionally, the objectives of this research also require using a purely qualitative descriptive exploratory design. An online questionnaire is designed in order to collect the required qualitative data.

2. The Correlational Method

Correlational research is a non- experimental descriptive research, which involves a mathematical analysis of two variables or more in order to determine the nature of the relationship between them, whether existing or not, positive or negative. The correlational method is usually employed to explore a relationship between two variables, not indicating

any form of causality. The present section provides the necessary explanations of the setting and participants, the research tools and procedures employed in order to achieve this correlational research.

2.1 The Setting and Participants

The present investigation takes second year masters students, of the academic year 2019/2020 at the Department of English language and English literature at M'sila University. The targeted population includes both Linguistics (N= 68) and Civilization and Literature (N= 76) majors, a total of 144 students. Those who had a sick leave, an academic vacation, or were excluded (N= 11) were not included in the selection. The extracted sample was randomly selected using the stratified sampling technique. The number of the selected participants is 15 of each major. The total number is precisely thirty (N= 30).

The targeted population of this study has been carefully selected for a number of reasons. Second year Masters English majors, graduating, probably have had acquired sufficiently enough knowledge about English language use; hence, this study, marginally, verifies that. In addition, it is assumed that our population has had pragmatic instruction, as an integrated part of the Linguistics and Applied Linguistics modules; choosing a different population would have been a critical limitation to this study. Table 05 demonstrates a detailed description of the sample.

Table 05*The Sample of the Correlational Study*

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Group	Linguistics	04	11	15
	Civilization& Literature	05	10	15
Total		09	21	30

2.2 Research Tools

In order to conduct this correlational research, which is aiming to locate the nature of the relationship between the study's variables: EI and PC of apology speech act realization, two research tools were used; namely, an oral discourse completion task (ODCT) and Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT).

2.2.1 The ODCT

It is widely known that DCT's are the most used tool to collect data in the field of pragmatics, particularly in researching the production of speech acts by native or non-native speakers, and also in numerous situations such as intercultural, cross-cultural or multicultural communication, as well as, interlanguage pragmatics. A DCT is characterized by the ability to create hypothetical situations of natural language use through which the respondents are put in order to elicit a particular speech act (Aydin, 2013). Moreover, DCT is used by multiple, if not all, researchers in the field of interlanguage pragmatics, and particularly the studies of speech acts. This, in fact, is perhaps due to the easiness of administering DCT's, and also due to the large data it can generate in a small amount of time (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford,).

In this study, the ODCT applied is adopted from Aydin (2013) that was originally used by Beckwith & Deweale (2008). This ODCT includes eight hypothetical situations;

every situation includes an offense made by the speaker which requires an apology. The scenarios include differences in terms of power, distance and rank, as well as the severity of the offenses. The DCT was adopted in order to meet the different cultural criteria between the English and the Turkish culture, which is in many ways is similar to the Algerian one (religion, traditions and customs).

According to Aydin (2013), most of the modifications he made were for the purpose of increasing the understanding of the situations through making them more close to real life situations. For instance, in situations three and five, the extent of tardiness committed by the speaker was mentioned in order to precipitate apologies. In addition, in situation six, the original DCT of Beckwith & Deweale (2008), the situation “Imagine you drove a car into someone else’s car in the parking lot. What do you say to the owner of the car?” was replaced in Aydin (2013) by “Imagine you were in a bus and you bumped into another passenger and broke his computer. What would you say to the passenger? ”. All these modifications serve to facilitate the understanding of the situations by the participants and to make them closer to those that the participants may face in real life contexts.

2.2.2 The SSEIT

Data were collected using the Assessing Emotional Intelligence Test- also known as the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) - that was developed by Schutte, et al, (1998). The five- Likert-type scale, with numeric values ranging from 1- as strongly disagree- to 5- as strongly agree- is comprised of 33 items. Schutte et al. (1998) reported a two-week test-retest reliability of .78 for total scale scores (as cited in Malouff et al., 2009)

The selection of this test was mainly based on the nature of the variable in hand. Unlike the others tests, mentioned in Chapter One (See Section Two), the SSEIT is the most compatible for the present study. Its subscales, items, as well as its simple language were

viewed as the most suitable for the different characteristics of the sample. However, the test in hand was translated into Arabic(see Appendix B) in order to obtain more authentic data from the participants as the focus was not on the language level but rather on the mental faculty of emotional intelligence.

Developed by Schutte et al. (1998), the SSEIT is designed to measure the four facades of emotional intelligence, as developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), which are: 1- the appraisal of emotion in self and others, 2- the expression of emotion, 3- the regulation of emotion in self and others, and 4- the utilization of emotion in problem solving. Based on this identification, the test's subscales are comprised as the following:

- Perception of Emotion, items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22,25, 29, 32, and 33;
- Managing Own Emotions, items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, and 31;
- Managing Others' Emotions, items, 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, and 30;
- And Utilization of Emotion, items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27.

2.3 Pilot Study

In order to determine the feasibility of the research design, and the adequacy of the measurement tools used, the research tools were subjected to a small scale pilot study. It included 07 participants from the main population of this study. The participants were asked to individually decide about their spare time, so that they would be more at ease and more cooperative. In addition, the researchers asked the participants for their opinions about the questions in the two tests, and also to locate any given ambiguity in the questions.

As far as the pilot study results are concerned, the ODCT proved to be effective. Most participants found the ODCT easy to comprehend and answer, except for some words such as “bumped into, and the rack”. Moreover, one participant was asking constantly for repetition

of the situations. As a result, in the main study, the reading of the situations to the respondents was slow and in a high voice, and it was followed with explanations of the difficult words.

The results of piloting the SSEET were as predicted. The participants spent more time than originally designated for the test; some of them spent over twenty minutes to answer all thirty three items. Others found it somehow difficult to fully comprehend certain items such as “I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.” and “When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas”. Therefore, an Arabic translation of the test was used to aid participants understand the meaning of the items better in order to obtain more authentic responses that reflect their EI.

2.4 Procedures

As far as the main study is concerned, the study prolonged through 3 days. The 30 participants were divided into 3 groups in order to facilitate conducting the study. The process involved receiving each participant individually in an empty classroom, which produced an academic atmosphere for the purpose of the seriousness of the participants as well as avoiding any sort of unwanted similarities in answers. Firstly, the participant was subjected to the ODCT and then when he/she finished the SSEIT was handed to be completed. Due to the shortage of time each participant received an approximate period of 15 minutes to finish both tests. The participants were kindly asked to answer the administered tests as spontaneously and as honestly as possible.

2.5 Data Analysis Procedures

For the purpose of attaining the necessary data to answer the research questions, the ODCT's obtained data were subjected to two kinds of analysis by means of both descriptive

statistics and inferential statistics. All data were processed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 25 for Microsoft.

First, on the basis of Olshtain and Cohen (1983) classification of the apology speech act's semantic formulas, the ODCT was analyzed by means of frequency of occurrence and percentage of the strategies used by EFL learners to produce apologies. The following illustrates the strategies analyzed:

- a) Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)
- b) Acknowledgement of responsibility
- c) Explanation or account
- d) Offer of repair
- e) Promise of forbearance
- f) Intensifiers
- g) Refusal to acknowledge guilt

Secondly, on the basis of Olshtain and Cohen (1983) conceptualisation of the universal apology strategies which are applied in all contexts of apology such as IFID, as well as context specific strategies such as promise of forbearance and offer of repair, adding to that the situations' sociopragmatic criteria of Power-Distance-Rank Brown and Levinson (1987). Table 06 stands for the scoring system that was applied to assess the participants' performance as far as the pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization is concerned.

Table 06*The Scoring System of the ODCT*

The strategies		The code	
IFID		1	
Acknowledgement of responsibility		2	
Explanation or account		3	
Offer of repair		4	
Promise of forbearance		5	
Intensifiers		6	
<i>Situations</i>	Power/Distance/Rank	The strategies that should be used	The score of each strategy (The total score of each situation is 5p and the total score of the whole test is 40p)
<i>S1</i>	P +D+R +	1+2/3	2.5
<i>S2</i>	P+ D+ R+	1+2/3	2.5
<i>S3</i>	P+ D+ R+	1+2/3	2.5
<i>S4</i>	P+ D+R+	1+2/4	2.5
<i>S5</i>	P= D - R=	1+ 2/3+5	1.5
<i>S6</i>	P • D+ R •	1+2+3+4	1.25
<i>S7</i>	P= D-R=	1+2/3	2.5
<i>S8</i>	P • D+ R •	1+2+3	1.25

Note. + High, - Low, = Equal, • Unknown, / or

In addition, the SSEIT followed the instructions of analysis provided by Schutte et al. (1998) where: strongly agree= 5, agree= 4, neither disagree nor agree= 3, disagree= 2, strongly disagree= 1. The reverse scoring was applied on items 3, 28, and 5, which means that strongly agree would attract a score of 1, agree a 2, neither disagree nor agree would still be a 3, disagree a 4, and strongly disagree a 1. The approximate time to complete the SSEIT is no longer than 5-7 minutes. The total score is calculated by adding all individual items scores together. The results of the test range from 33 to 165.

2.6 Statistical Tools

The first analysis of the ODCT was conducted by means of frequencies and percentages of the apology strategies employed by the participants. The second analysis, which attempts to measure the participants' PC, is as explained in table 06 was carried through the use of the mean \bar{x} of the participants' performance. Below is the formula of the sample mean:

$$\bar{x} = (\sum x_i) / n$$

Σ = means "add up"; X_i = "all of the x-values"; n = means "the number of items in the sample"

With regard to the correlational analysis, inferential statistics measures were used to test the null correlational hypothesis assumed for the third research question. Thus, the Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature of the correlation between the study variables. The Pearson correlation coefficient formula is:

$$r = \frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y - \bar{y})^2}}$$

n = is the sample size; x_i, y_i = are the single samples indexed with i

2. The Descriptive Method

For the purpose of studying the attitudes and opinions of EFL teachers of oral expression module about the nature of pragmatics' instruction and the link between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act, a small scale descriptive study was launched to find accurate and appropriate results to be compared to the findings of the main correlational study. The findings of this study serve as the basis to locate the importance

of PC in the pedagogical domain. In addition, it explores the perceptions or the misperceptions that teachers hold about the link between EI and PC in oral expression classes.

1.1 Participants

Oral expression module teachers are the targeted population for this study. The participants are 6 teachers from different Algerian universities. Due to the current events related to Covid19 that the whole world is witnessing, the teachers were contacted through emails in order to participate in this study.

1.2 Research Tool

For the purpose of achieving this descriptive study, an online questionnaire was designed by the researchers. The main purpose of the questionnaire is to investigate teachers' attitudes about the instruction of pragmatics in oral expression sessions, mainly the instruction of speech acts. In addition, the questionnaire seeks to elicit teachers' attitudes about the relationship between emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization.

This online questionnaire was designed through Google Forms, and it contains 21 items (See Appendix C). The questions selected were both close-ended and open-ended questions. Therefore, the data it generated were both quantitative and qualitative.

1.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

As stated previously, the questionnaire was created through Google Forms and was sent through emails to the teachers. As far as the analysis of the questionnaire is concerned, Google Forms is equipped with the feature of providing the analysis of percentages and frequencies of the responses. On the other hand, the open-ended questions were subjected to

thematic analysis; in other words, the researchers had to read the responses, categorize and synthesize them, and finally draw conclusions.

4.4 Statistical Tools

As far as the statistical tools employed in this descriptive study, some descriptive statistics measures were used including; percentages and frequencies for teachers' responses.

II. Data Analysis and Discussion

1. Analysis of the ODCTs' Data

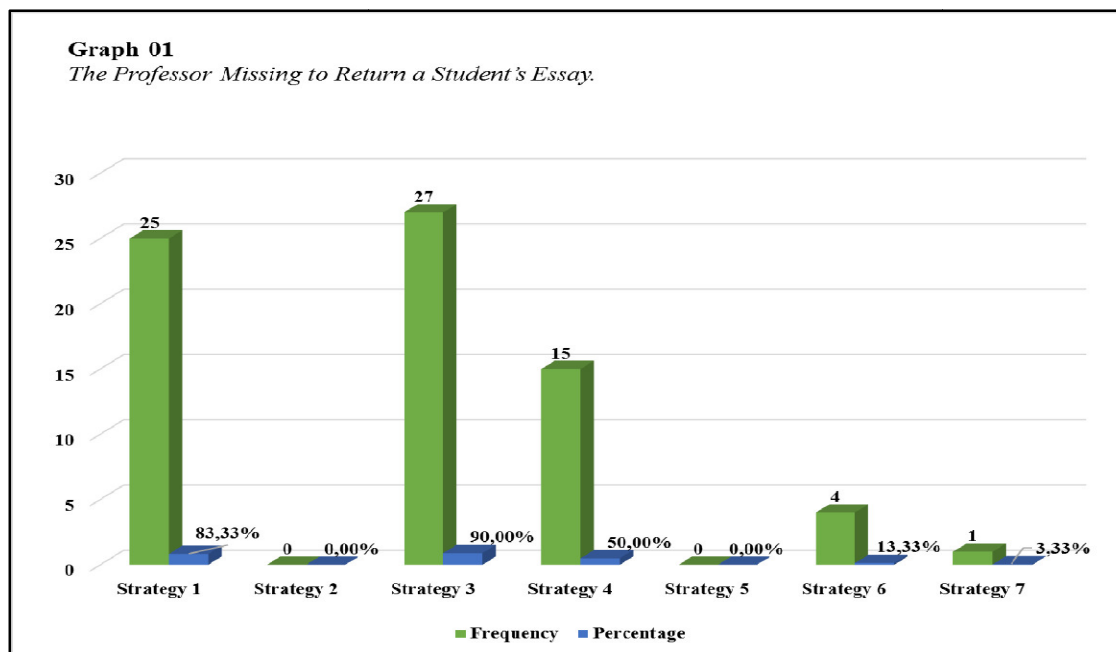
The analysis of the ODCTs is communicated through tables and graphs in order to determine the strategies employed by the participants of this study to deliver apology speech act. It also determines the extent to which they are competent in this area of pragmatics. Furthermore, the scores presented at the end of this section serve as the scores of the correlational analysis.

Situation 1: Imagine you are a university professor. You promised to return a student's essay today but you haven't finished reading it. The student showed up and asked for the essay. What would you say to the student?

Table 07*The Professor Missing to Return a Student's Essay*

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	Frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	25	83.33%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	0	00%
Explanation or accountS3	27	90%
Offer of repairS4	15	50%
Promise of forbearanceS5	0	00%
IntensifiersS6	4	13.33%
Refusal to acknowledgeguiltS7	1	3.33%

Note. S: Strategy.



In situation one, the results show that a large number of the participants utilized “IFID” with 83.33% of them using it, and most of their strategy range between (I am sorry or I apologize). But, the most preferred strategy by the students is “Explanation” with 90% of the

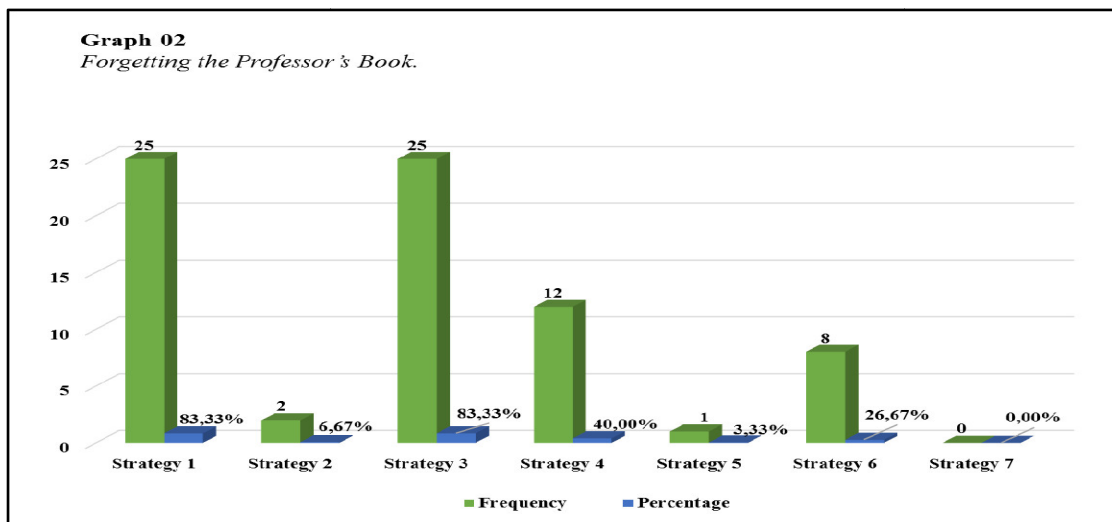
participants employing it, they varied their explanations such as, (I was busy with something else, or something suddenly took place). Also, only 50% of the respondents used “an offer of repair” by stating: (“I will finish with the essay as soon as they can” or “I will hand you the essay tomorrow”). On the other hand, the strategy “Promise of forbearance” was not used ending with 0% each. Moreover, 13% of the participants used “intensifiers” such as: (“So”, “Very”) to support their apologies. Strangely enough, 3.33% of them believed that they don’t need to apologize.

Situation 2: Imagine you are a student. You borrowed a book from one of your professors but you forgot to return it on time. You went to a meeting with the professor and the professor asked for the book. What would you say to the professor?

Table 08

Forgetting the Professor’s Book

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	25	83.33%
Acknowledgement of responsibilityS2	2	6.67%
Explanation or accountS3	25	83.33%
Offer of repairS4	12	40%
Promise of forbearanceS5	01	3.33 %
IntensifiersS6	8	26.67%
Refusal to acknowledgeguiltS7	0	00%

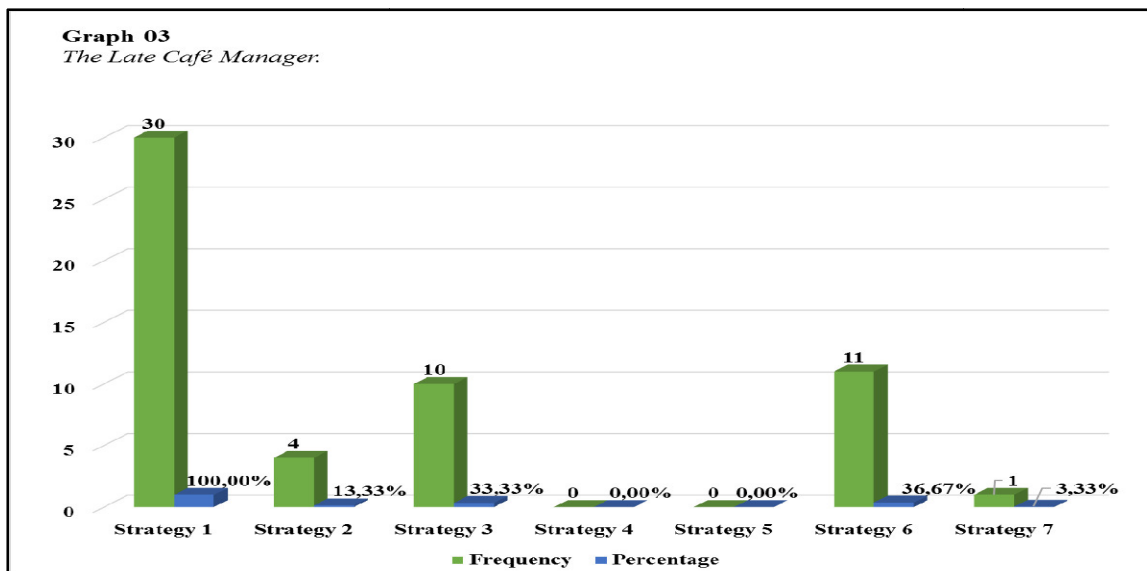


To approach the second situation, 83.33% of the participants used “IFID” ranging from (expressions of regret “sorry”, requests for forgiveness “I hope you would forgive me” and offers of apology “I apologize”). The situation remarked the use of “acknowledgment of responsibility” with the rate of 6.67% only. “Explanation” in its part was highly opted for with 83.33% of occurrence, the respondents opted to use the following explanations: (I find the book interesting and needs careful reading, or I forgot about the book at home). While “Offer of repair” was used by 40% of the respondents and in the most part by stating: (I will make sure to bring it the next time). The strategy of “promise of forbearance” has the lowest percentage among all the apology strategies in this situation with 3.33%, and 26.67% of the respondents used “intensifiers” as: (extremely, deeply). Refusal to acknowledge guilt was not used by the participants receiving 0%.

Situation 3: Imagine you are the manager of a café. Today you have an interview with a student who wants a job in the café. However you are half an hour late for the interview because of a meeting. The student is waiting for you in the café. What would you say to the student?

Table 09*The Late Café Manager*

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	30	100%
Acknowledgement of responsibilityS2	4	13.33%
Explanation or accountS3	10	33.33%
Offer of repairS4	0	0%
Promise of forbearanceS5	0	0%
IntensifiersS6	11	36.67%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	1	3.33%



The third situation is characterized by a higher use of the direct apology strategy “IFID” and a lower use of the indirect apology strategies compared to the previous cases. 100% of the participants chose to begin their apologies with the use of “IFID” strategies (e.g. “sorry” or “i

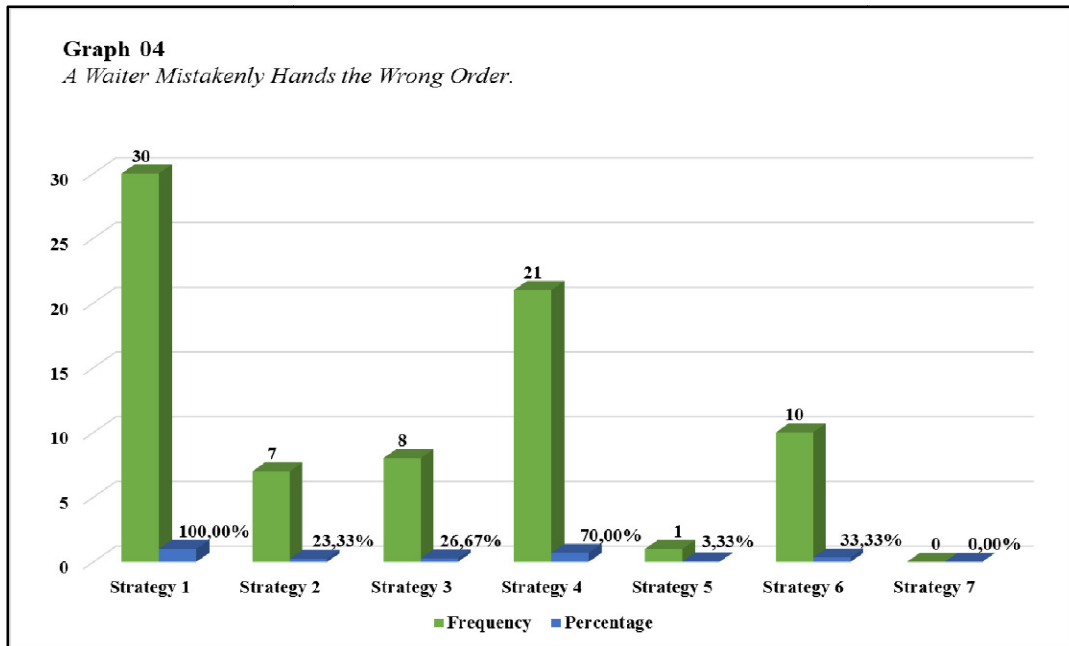
apologize”). Meanwhile, only 13.33% of the participants favoured the utilization of “acknowledgement of responsibility” for the offense. 33.33% selected “explanation” to support their apologies, mainly through stating that :(there was traffic, or they were working on a problem). Remarkably, both of the strategies “offer of repair” and “promise of forbearance” were disregarded by the participants and received 0%. Intensifiers received 36.67% of participants’ attention when apologizing; while 3.33% considered themselves not obliged to utter an apology.

Situation 4: Imagine you are a waiter in an expensive restaurant. A customer ordered beef but you brought chicken instead. The customer mentions the mistake you made. What would you say to the customer?

Table10

A Waiter Mistakenly Hands the Wrong Order

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	30	100%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	7	23.33%
Explanation or account S3	8	26.67%
Offer of repair S4	21	70%
Promise of forbearance S5	1	3.33%
Intensifiers S6	10	33.33%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	0	0 %

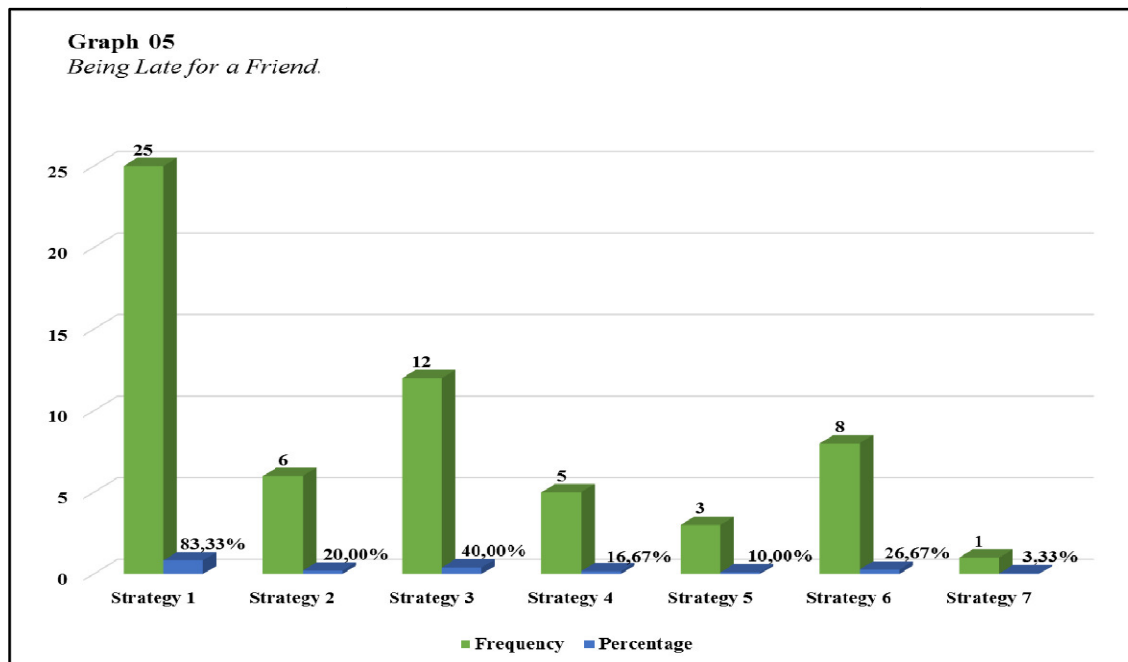


The fourth situation, table 10 displays the immense intent by the respondents (standing at the offender’s end) to as correctly as possible present their apologies. 100% of the participants used “IFID” strategy including the three sub-strategies of: (an expression of regret “I’m sorry”, a request for forgiveness “forgive my mistake”, and an expression of apology “I apologize for bringing the wrong order”). 23.33% of the participants followed their direct apologies “acknowledgment of responsibility”. Then, 26.67% added explanations for their offense mainly by stating: (“i switched the orders between you and the second table” or “it is a stress-inducing day”). Most importantly, 70% of the participants exploited “an offer of repair” statements, which is the strategy that is most likely to be used in this situation. 3.33% of the respondents presented “promise of forbearance” to ensure that this will not happen again. To demonstrate the seriousness of their apologies, 33.33% of the participants used “intensifiers”. Lastly, no participant refused to acknowledge guilt.

Situation 5: Imagine you are a student who is often late. Today you are late for a meeting with a friend you are working on an essay with. Your friend has been waiting for you for two hours. What would you say to your friend?

Table11*Being Late for a Friend*

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	25	83.33%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	6	20%
Explanation or account S3	12	40%
Offer of repair S4	5	16.67%
Promise of forbearance S5	3	10%
Intensifiers S6	8	26.67%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	1	03.33%



In the fifth situation, the frequency of “IFID” is very high as 83.33% of the participants started their apologies with (“sorry” and/or “I apologize for being late”). 20% of

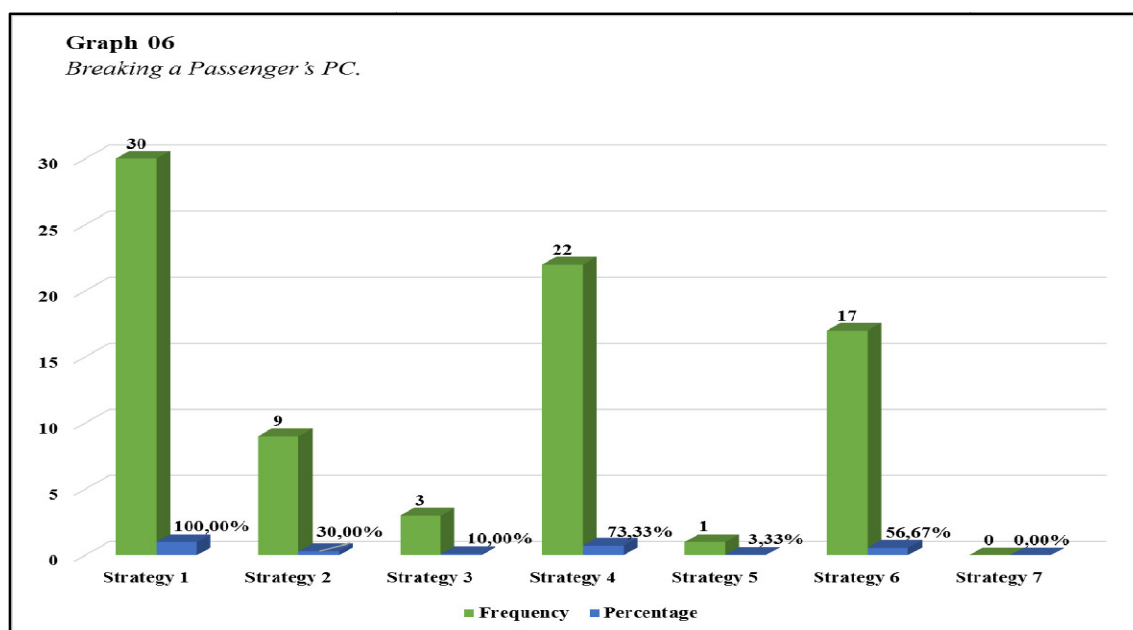
the participants chose “an acknowledgement of responsibility”. Yet, the third strategy of “explanation of account” received higher attention among the respondents with 40% of them using it through saying :(you know I’m always late, or through blaming traffic or the late bus). “Offer of repair” was used by 16.66%. 10% of the participants used “promise of forbearance” strategy by providing a guarantee that this will never happen again. “Intensifiers” were also used by 26.66% of the participants to express how sincere they are for arriving late. On the other hand, 3.33% of the participants preferred to refuse the acknowledgement of guilt.

Situation 6: Imagine you were in a bus and you bumped into another passenger and broke his computer. What would you say to the passenger?

Table12

Breaking a Passenger’s PC

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	Frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	30	100%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	9	30%
Explanation or account S3	3	10%
Offer of repair S4	22	73.33%
Promise of forbearance S5	1	3.33%
Intensifiers S6	17	56.67%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	0	0%



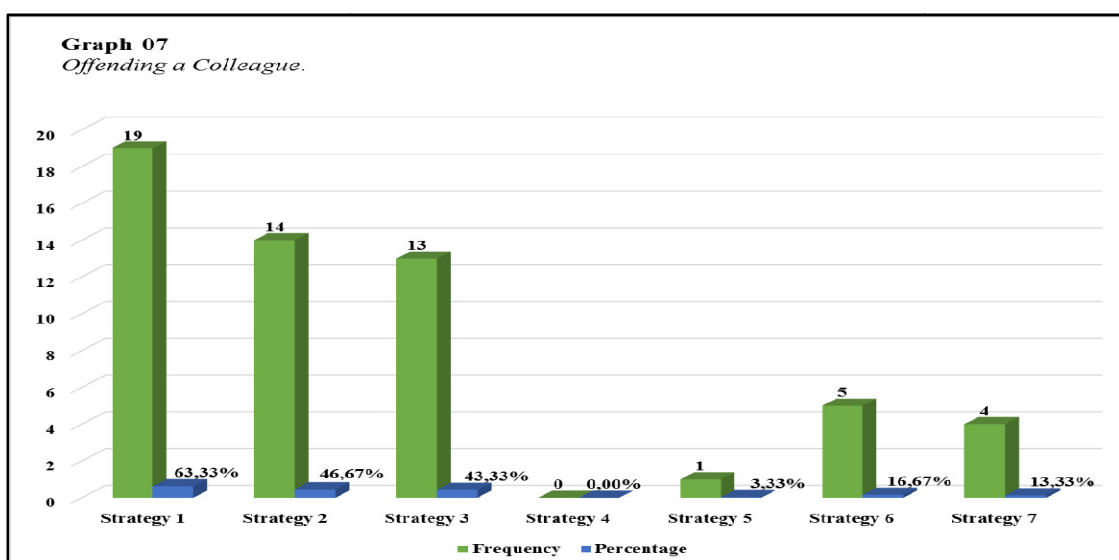
The sixth situation is characterized by a serious offense to a stranger. Thus, the responses tend to show the amount of honesty and seriousness of the offenders to maintain the situation. The above data demonstrate the laborious task on the part of the respondents. For instance, strictly 100% of the respondents used “IFID” to begin their apologies, the respondents varied considerably the use of the IFID’s sub-strategies, and sometimes some participants used all the three sub-strategies(e.g. excuse me sir, I’m sorry for breaking your pc, and i apologize for my fault). 30% of them used utterances to portray their “acknowledgement of responsibility” over the incident. Only 10%, though, used “explanation or account”; while 73% strictly used an offer of repair which may be considered substantially an appropriate move on such occasions. 3.33% of the participants preferred “promise of forbearance”. In order to strengthen their apologies, 56.67% of the participants used “intensifiers” as the following: honestly, deeply, or greatly. On the other end of the scale, 0% refused to acknowledge guilt.

Situation 7: Imagine you are working for a company. You offended a colleague during a meeting. After the meeting the colleague you offended made a comment about the incident to you by stating that he was offended by your comment. What would you say to your colleague?

Table13

Offending a Colleague

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	Frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	19	63.33%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	14	46.67%
Explanation or account S3	13	43.33%
Offer of repair S4	0	0%
Promise of forbearance S5	1	3.33%
Intensifiers S6	5	16.67%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	4	13.33%



In the seventh situation, the offense is considered lower since both participants have the same status resulting in equal power status. As result, the tabulated data shows that

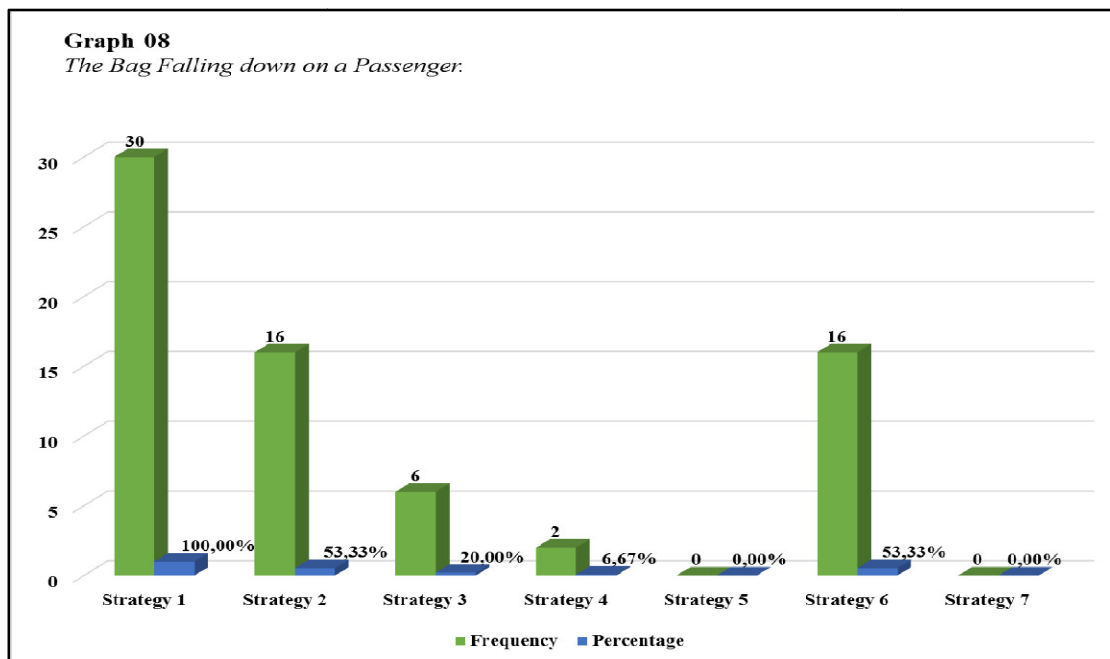
63.33% used “IFID” strategies. 46.67% of the respondents favoured “acknowledgement of responsibility” including lack of intent statements as “i didn’t mean to offend you”. 43.33% of the participants opted to use “explanation or account”, for the most part it included statements such as (i was trying to explain something and you misunderstood me). “Offer of repair” received 0%. 3.33% of the participants preferred to engage in “promise of forbearance”. And finally, 16.67% of the respondents enhanced their apologies through the use of “intensifiers”. Nevertheless, 13.33% of the participants seemed ignorant about their offense and refused to apologize.

Situation 8: Imagine you are travelling on a bus. You put your bag in the rack, but it fell down and hit another passenger. What would you say to the passenger?

Table14

The Bag Falling Down on a Passenger

Strategy	Responses (N=30)	
	frequency	Percentage
IFID S1	30	100%
Acknowledgement of responsibility S2	16	53.33%
Explanation or account S3	6	20%
Offer of repair S4	2	6.67%
Promise of forbearance S5	0	0%
Intensifiers S6	16	53.33%
Refusal to acknowledge guilt S7	0	0%



The eighth situation is distinguished by its serious offense which is similar to the sixth situation, but also less severe compared to it. Consequently, the above data indicate that 100% strictly used “IFID” strategies. 53.33% of the participants picked statements representing “acknowledgement of responsibility” over the offense. 20% of the respondents used “explanation or account” strategies to support their apologies. Only 6.67% of them made an “offer of repair”. 0% of the respondents chose “the promise of forbearance” strategy. In order to display the true attempt of their apology, 53.33% of the respondents utilized “intensifiers”. Due to the fact that the offense was significantly serious, no participant refused to acknowledge their guilt.

In order to measure the participants competence of apology speech act realization at M’sila university, their apology strategies were subjected to the analysis as explained in table 06 that indicates that the scores achieved by the test-takers in producing the apology speech act in eight hypothetical situations, that included different social parameters of power, distance and rank were calculated in terms of Olshtain and Cohen (1983) classification of

apology speech act strategies. This classification was chosen for this research due to its wide use in similar studies. Table 15 illustrates the scores of the participants and their level by the Mean and the Standard Deviation:

Table 15

Pragmatic Competence of Apology Speech Act Scores

	N	Min	Max	X	Std. D
PC	30	19.00	33.00	25.07	4.45

Note. PC: Pragmatic competence of apology speech act; Std.D: standard deviation; Min: minimum; Max: maximum; X: mean; N=sample

It is described in the data collection and analysis procedures subsection in methodology section that the total score of the test is 40 points. The analysis of the results, hence, indicates that the lowest mark achieved in this test (minimum) is 19 while the highest mark (maximum) is 33, which explains that the students have an average level. Consequently, most of the student's scores can be centred towards average as it is conveyed in the Mean (M=25, 07). The standard deviation (Std. =4, 45) is also significant in displaying that the scores are not very dispersed from the mean. Ultimately, it is clear that there is a statistical significance by means of the applied descriptive statistics.

2. Analysis of the SSEIT

The SSEIT was analyzed in accordance to the aforementioned procedures. Table 16 describes the general results of the test in terms of the highest score, lowest score, mean, and standard deviation. The lowest score is EQ=96.00 whilst the highest score is EQ= 153.00. The standard deviation is statistically low (Std.D= 13.79), with regard to the mean (X= 123.77).

The Std.D indicates that most of the results are around EQ=123, 7667. 53% of the participants have an above average EQ score, whereas 47% of them have a below average EQ score. This concludes that the participants of this study have a slightly high EQ.

Table 16

General Descriptive Statistics of EQ

	N	Min	Max	X	Std. D
EQ	30	96,00	153,00	123,77	13,79

Note. EQ: X= mean; Std.D= standard deviation; N= number of participants

In addition to that, Table 17 is an illustration of the descriptive statistics of the SSEIT four subscales. According to results demonstrated, the fourth subscale “Utilization of Emotions” has the lowest value of standard deviation (Std.D = 3, 31905); which indicates that almost all the scores of this subscale are around 24, 1333. Additionally, the fourth subscale composes of six items, which means that its perfect score would be 30. The first subscale “perception of emotions” has a relatively high value of standard deviation (Std.D = 7, 41240). This subscale consists of ten items. The perfect score value would be 50; however, the average score for “perception of emotions” is fairly low (X= 34, 7667). The second subscale “managing others’ emotions” is represented via nine items, the perfect score value would be 45; however, the average score value is X= 34, 2333, with a standard deviation value of st.D= 4,85431 .The third subscales “managing own emotions” is a composition of eight items, which means that the perfect score value would be 40; however, the average score value of this test is X= 30,5000, with a standard deviation value of Std.D= 4, 36088.

Table17*Descriptive Statistics of the SSEIT Four Subscales*

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. D
SC1	30	14,00	47,00	34,7667	7,41240
SC2	30	23,00	43,00	34,2333	4,85431
SC3	30	22,00	40,00	30,5000	4,36088
SC4	30	19,00	30,00	24,1333	3,31905

Note. SC1: Perception of Emotions; SC2: Managing Own Emotions; SC3: Managing Others' Emotions; SC4: Utilization of Emotions; %: Percentage

3. Correlation Analysis

Generally, correlation analysis describes the degree to which two variables are related. It ranges from -1.00 to 1, with -1.00 and 1.00 representing perfect negative/ positive relationships respectively and 0 representing the nonexistence of a relationship between the variables (Spiegelhalter, 2019). If a correlation is positive, it means that both variables move in the same direction. If a correlation is negative, it means that when one variable's value increases the other's decreases. A correlation can also be neutral (or zero), which indicates that the variables are basically unrelated.

In this study, two quantitative variables are under investigation to test the null hypothesis (H_0), which states that there is no statistically significant correlation between EFL learners' levels of EQ and their pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization.

Statistically significant correlation between EFL learners of M'sila University and their pragmatic competence of apology speech act was found at the $p=0.05$ level. As shown in the Table 18, it is a positive correlation with a value of 0.461 indicating a moderate correlation between the two variables, thus rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0).

Table 18*Main Correlation Analysis*

		SEEIT	ODCT
Emi	Pearson Correlation	1	,461*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,010
	N	30	30
PC	Pearson Correlation	,461*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010	
	N	30	30

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In an attempt to find out which subscale of the SEEIT correlates to the ODCT results, Pearson bivariate correlation analysis was applied on ODCT results and every subscale's result. As Table 19 indicates, the analysis revealed no statistically significant correlation between EFL learners' pragmatic competence of apology speech act and three out of four subscales of SEEIT, which are: SC1: perception of emotions, SC2: Managing own emotions, SC3: managing others' emotions.

Table 19*The Correlation between PC and SSEIT's Subscales.*

		PC	SC1	SC2	SC3	SC4
PC	Pearson Correlation	1	,289	,298	,267	,437*
	Sig(2- tailed)		,121	,109	,154	,016
	N	30	30	30	30	30
SC1	Pearson Correlation	,289	1			
	Sig(2- tailed)	,121				
	N	30	30			
SC2	Pearson Correlation	,298		1		
	Sig(2- tailed)	,109				
	N	30		30		
SC3	Pearson Correlation	,267			1	
	Sig(2- tailed)	,154				
	N	30			30	
SC4	Pearson Correlation	,437*				1
	Sig(2- tailed)	,016				
	N	30				30

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

However, as shown in table19, a positive moderate correlation was detected at the level $p= 0.05$ between EFL learners' pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization and the fourth subscale of the emotional intelligence test SEEIT "utilizing emotions". Hence, this concludes that the skill of utilizing emotions can be the key factor in appropriate apology realization.

4. Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire was administered online to 8 university oral expression teachers. It comprises of twenty one items, ranging from open-ended to close- ended

questions. The overall results showcased the importance of pragmatic-based instruction in OE classes as well as the fairly undeniable role of emotional intelligence in appropriate L2 use.

The respondents were teachers with different PhD degrees (English Discourse Studies and Applied Linguistics, Literature, Educational Technology, ESP, and Applied Linguistics). In addition, 50% of them have only 1-2 years of experience; whereas only 12.5% of them have taught oral expression for more than five years. All of their answers about the quality of their personal experiences in teaching such module were positive (e.g. “it was funny and enjoyable”, “fruitful”, “it was fun, exciting and enjoyable”, and “challenging and delightful”).

In an attempt to list the most used teaching methods in oral expression classes, the element “what are/is the teaching method(s) you prefer using in an O.E class?” was designed. However, due to the relatively small sample that took part in answering this questionnaire, only few teaching methods can be mentioned, namely: debates, presentations, problems of topicality, video comments, exchange of experiences, telling tales, role plays, discussions, imitations, tech- enhanced modalities of teaching, and student- centered methods. Those methods are designed to urge the learner to use the language regardless of its accuracy or appropriateness. All teachers, who answered this questionnaire, say that the aforementioned methods were beneficial; however, their justifications were mainly as follow:

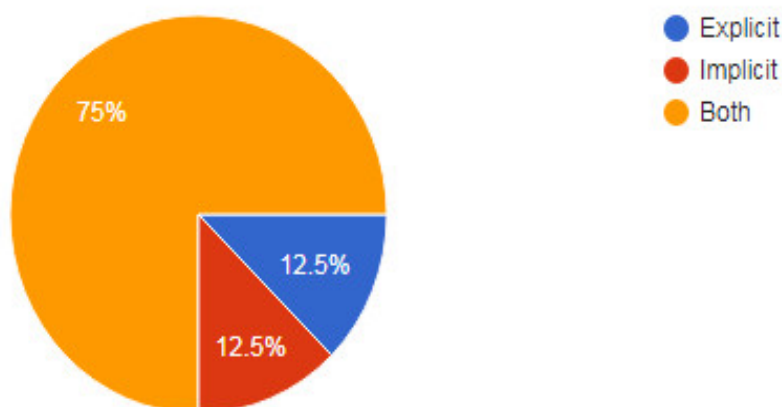
- g)** To diversity in the classroom setting and environment, to motivate learners for the new, to kill monotony and routine.
- h)** To make learners more active and autonomous.
- i)** To allow learners to be free.
- j)** To optimize the learning- teaching process- using tech- enhanced methods-.
- k)** To practice speaking for as long as they can in class.

Those objectives are achievable but can hardly aid the learner in real life context of second/ foreign language use. Only 37.5% were very satisfied with the results of using those teaching methods.

When asked about their thoughts about pragmatic- based instructions, the teachers' answers were focused on the notion that incorporating such instruction in an oral expression classroom is an undeniable necessity. Some of them suggested that it shut be put practically in use of teachers to shorten the distance between what students receive in classrooms and what they truly confront in real life situation, to aid students practice and learn things better, as well as to develop students' communicative competence. As shown in Graph 9, 75% of the participants agree to the need of both explicit and implicit pragmatics- based instruction.

Graph 9

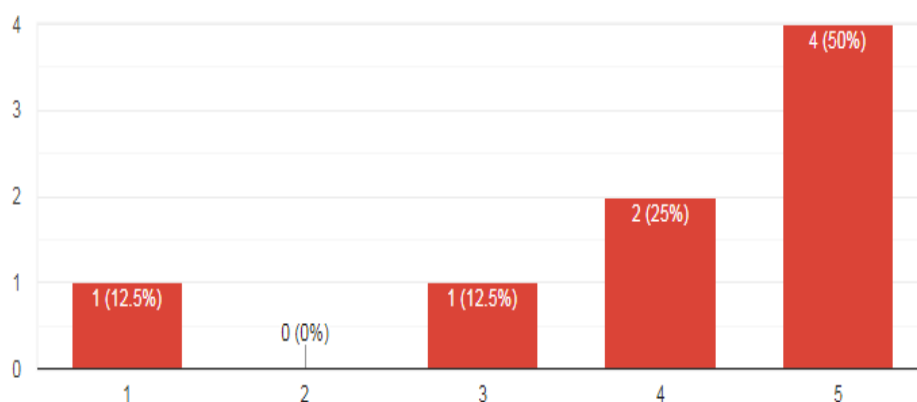
The Dichotomy of Pragmatic- based Instruction.



The twelfth item of this questionnaire is a statement “considering the main objective of learning an L2 is communication, learning speech acts is a must”, teachers were asked to decide whether they agree to it or disagree on a 1-5 Likert scale. According to Graph 10, 50% of them strongly agreed to it, 25% agreed to it, and only 12.5% disagreed to it.

Graph 10

The Obligatoriness of Learning Speech Acts by L2 Learners



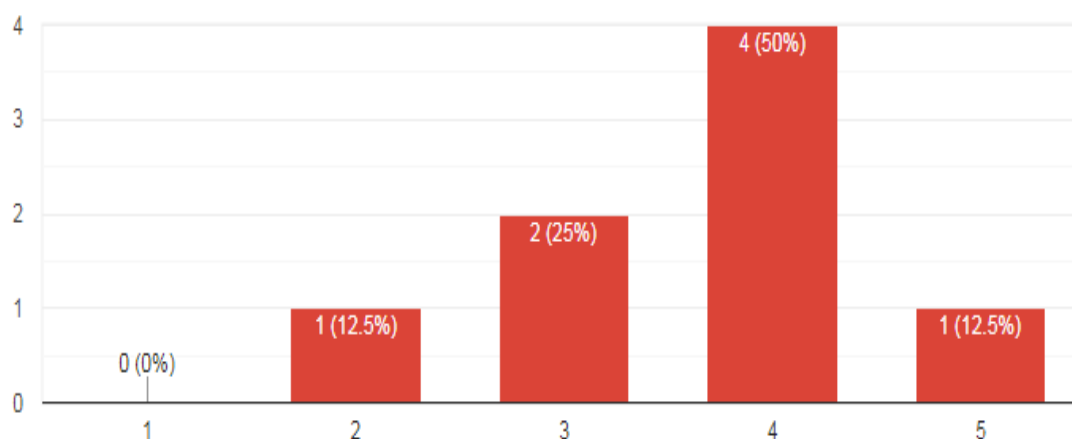
Note. 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree.

Following the answer to that statement, the teachers were asked how they teach speech acts in their classes, 65.2% of them stated that they teach speech acts implicitly; whereas the remaining 37.8% stated that they use both explicit and implicit speech act instruction in oral expression classes.

In order to verify the relationship being under the scope of this study, teachers were asked about the role of emotional intelligence in promoting EFL learners pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization. As illustrated in Graph 11, 50% of respondents strongly agreed to the claim that EQ promotes EFL learners pragmatic competence of speech act realization.

Graph 11

EQ as an Enhancer of EFL Learners' PC of Apology Speech Act realization.



5. Discussion of the Findings

This chapter is a discussion of the findings about M'sila university EFL learners' PC of apology speech act realization, EI levels and the correlation between the two variables, in addition to the oral expression teachers' perceptions and attitudes about the instruction of pragmatics and the relationship between the variables investigated under this study. Analysis of the participants ODCT answers reveals that EFL learners favour the use of both direct and indirect apology strategies, and they tend to understand both the seriousness of the offenses committed by them and the situations' social variables of PDR which can be seen in the high usage of the direct apology strategies. Moreover, when compared to a similar study, this study concludes that the Algerian EFL (henceforth AEFL) learners tend to use "Explanation" and "Acknowledgement of responsibility" more than the American counterpart; this may be linked to the cultural factor that the Algerians tend to highly value and respect other people's faces, and their apology strategies stand for their efforts to restore the situations.

Apparently, one of the most noticeable characteristics of their apologies is their modifications, in which a significant number of the learners employed more than two strategies to approach the situations, which is a feature of natives' apologies. Adding to that, their apologies included intensifiers that are usually utilized to demonstrate their true will of apologizing. As mentioned earlier, the situations include different parameters regarding language use pragmatics such as: power status, distance-closeness between participants and the degree of imposition. As a result, in situations involving distance as in situation six and eight, 100% of the participants favoured the use of the direct apology strategy of IFID, as well as a high level of offer of repair in situation number six, while relatively higher levels of intensifiers in both situations.

On the basis of a similar study conducted by Ayden (2013) in which he applied the same DCT in the present study and also with an equal number of participants, this study concluded that AEFL learners use more explanations compared to the American native speakers (henceforth ANS) with a total of 43.33% of usage for the AEFL learners while the ANS explanation strategy usage totalled 23%. Moreover, the AEFL learners showed more attention towards "Acknowledgement of responsibility" with 24.99% while 21% for the ANS. However, ANS total usage of "IFID" is 97% whereas the AEFL learners' results are 89.16%. Furthermore, ANS tend to employ "Offer of repair" more than the Algerian counterpart, with 55% while the AEFL learners' total utilization of "offer of repair" is 32.08%. Additionally, the strategy of "promise of forbearance" represents another area in which the results between the AEFL learners and ANS seem to vary, his study data show that 7% of the participants opt for the strategy, while the present study data show that 2.91% of the participants opted for this strategy. In addition, the study analyzed the use of intensifiers to enhance the delivered apologies by the AEFL students, and it was concluded that 32.91% of the learners exert intensifiers when apologizing. This study included the strategy of "refusal to acknowledge

guilt” and it found that 2.91% is the total usage of this strategy in all the eight situations, this finding helps in locating some areas of deficiencies regarding some AEFL learners’ pragmatic ability of producing the apology speech act. In spite of all these differences regarding PDR, all the situations required apologies to be presented by the offenders.

The DCT was applied to assess the AEFL learners’ PC of apology speech act realization. The Mean of the students’ level is 25.06, while the average mark is 20. It is concluded that the students tested in this study have a slightly above average level as far as the pragmatic competence of apology speech act realization is concerned. Moreover, the Standard Deviation of 4,45 displays that the marks are not spread from the Mean. To conclude, the general level of the AEFL learners concerning the apology speech act realization can be considered to be slightly above average, and it is also added that some students produce native-like apologies, while a few rely on stating (I’m sorry) in all cases despite the clear differences of the situations and their prerequisites. In fact, this finding can be linked to the fact that some of the participants throughout their study years at university, they received some courses about pragmatics and its notions, which may be the reason behind their relatively good apologies.

After analysing the SSEIT, the findings demonstrate that EFL learners of M’sila University have a slightly above average levels of EQ ($X = 123,77$; $Std.D = 13,79$). 53% of the participants have above average scores of EQ, which pinpoint their ability to properly perceive emotions, manage their own emotions and others’, as well as utilize their emotions to solve context- specific problems.

Based on the correlation analysis, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected due to the existing moderate positive correlation between EFL learners EQ and their PC of apology speech act realization ($r = 0.461$, $n = 30$, $p < .05$), which answers the main question of the current study. A

positive correlation means that as one variable increases in value, the second variable also increases in value and vice versa. The present study investigates the correlation between the independent variable EI and the dependent variable PC. Therefore, when EFL learners EQ increases, their PC of apology speech act realization increases; also, when their EQ decreases, their PC of apology speech act realization increases. Similarly, Shirazi et al (2016), in an attempt to check EI predictability of the PC of Iranian EFL learners, states that “the result of Pearson’s product moment correlation showed that there was a strong positive correlation between the two variables [$r=.66$, $n=150$, $p<.05$]; this signifies that the higher the level of EI, the greater the pragmatic competence of EFL learners” (p.54).

In addition to the findings obtained from the main correlation analysis, a moderately significant correlation ($r=.437$, $N=30$) is found between the fourth subscale of SSEIT “Utilization of Emotions” and EFL learners PC. The fact that this subscale, which is defined as “adaptive cognitive and action motivated by emotion experience” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), is the source of the main correlation indicates that for an Algerian EFL learner to produce an apology, they may have to be able to use their subjective prior emotional knowledge. The results of the main correlation analysis as well as the answers provided by Algerian teachers can be an indication that emotional intelligence may be a predictor of pragmatic competence of speech act realization. Thus, further research is recommended.

The answers, obtained from the questionnaire, display that teaching an oral expression class involves using different methods, which fairly serve the same objective, which is allowing the language learner to use the language, emphasizing the tolerance of errors made by learners. However, there is a need for change. Even if the results of using methods like debates, imitation, tech- enhanced modalities, presentations, and student-centred methods can be satisfactory for the teacher regarding the development of the learner’s CC, L2 learning is still a subjective experience.

Moreover, respondents added that the pragmatics-based instruction in oral expression classes is highly significant as it enables the learners to communicatively use the language and it is a means of exposing the learners to authentic language of the real world. Reportedly, a study conducted by Ehsan et al. (2014) as an attempt to investigate the effects of explicit and implicit instruction of Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic development regarding the production of speech acts requests and suggestion, concluded that "both explicit and implicit teaching exerted a significant effect on the learners' realization of requests and suggestions in English". This perspective on pragmatics-based instruction is also shared by several researchers such as (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1997). Meanwhile, for the instruction of pragmatics, many of the teachers opted for explicit-implicit instruction of pragmatics, and they regard the instruction of speech acts to be obligatory. Hence, their teaching of speech acts follows both explicit and implicit instruction depending on the learners' levels, needs and capacities. This statement is in agreement with the literature as in (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Taguchi, 2015).

In spite of the fact that their views about the role of intelligence on one's abilities relatively differ, they regard emotional intelligence as a key factor to L2 appropriate use, and it is of vital significance to develop EFL learners' pragmatic competence in general. Lastly, in order to develop EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic competence, they recommend: autonomous and learner-centred approaches and techniques in oral expression classes, the use of authentic language, the use of online resources, providing the learners' with more chances for practice, and special training programs for teachers about pragmatics and its related themes and concepts. To sum up all the previously stated, the teachers prove to hold positive perceptions about the instruction of pragmatics through the application of both explicit and implicit methods of instruction. Also, their views about the relationship about PC of apology speech act realization and EI accord with the findings of the correlational research.

III. Limitations, Recommendations for Further Research, and Pedagogical Implication

1- Limitations

In spite of the positive study findings and the refutation of the null hypothesis, the present investigation has a number of limitations. First, the participants of the teachers' questionnaire were supposed to be the oral expression teachers at M'sila University. However, the current events surrounding the world because of the spread of Covid19, the questionnaire was made online through Google forms and was sent to teachers from different Algerian universities. In addition, the number of the participants in both studies is relatively small. For the correlational study, the sample is made up of 30 EFL students; thus, the results are somehow limited to the study and cannot serve as a solid evidence for generalization. On the other hand, the descriptive study, which investigated teachers' opinions and attitudes has a total of 7 participants only, hence, the results are deemed to be linked only to the present study and cannot be fully generalized.

2- Recommendations for Future Research

On the basis of the study findings and limitations, the researchers of this study recommend the following:

- a) A replication of the present study on a larger scale including a remarkably sufficient sample in order to generalize the findings.
- b) Conducting similar studies in terms of variables using different emotional intelligence tests and pragmatic competence tests to analyze the variations among findings.

- c) Conducting an experimental study researching both emotional intelligence as an independent variable and pragmatic competence as a dependent variable to research closely the nature of the relationship and the significance of the variables on each other.
- d) Studying emotional intelligence's relationship with other constructs of pragmatic competence and interlanguage pragmatic development including narrowed studies of speech acts, implicature and politeness, and also wide studies of the whole pragmatic competence construct.

3- Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings, the study puts forward the following set of pedagogical implications:

- e) Including both implicit and explicit teaching methods of pragmatic knowledge in oral expression sessions.
- f) A consideration of a wide focus on the different aspects within pragmatic competence and interlanguage pragmatic competence while instructing EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge.
- g) Engaging the learners with meta-pragmatic discussions and explanations. In other words, the learning of pragmatics should include both pragmatics instruction and learning about pragmatics, through a theoretical basis and the cultural knowledge of communication in that given language.
- h) Including culture-related courses about the countries where English is a mother tongue in order to evaluate the differences and similarities among the English culture and the Algerian culture which may influence the way the Algerian EFL learners use English language.

- i) A consideration of EI in EFL classes mainly oral expression classes that serve as the only situation where EFL learners would and should receive pragmatics instruction.
- j) The application of the levels of emotional intelligence and emotional strategies in the instruction of speech acts since they correlate with each other.

General Conclusion

General conclusion

The research of pragmatics and the instruction of pragmatics are not exclusive solely to the subject matter of the field of linguistics. Indeed, the current trends in the field of applied linguistics shift the direction towards fields such as psychology due to the distinguishable link it has with language learning and teaching. The nature of speech acts as linguistic interchanges among human beings involve the consideration of many aspects. For instance, apologies, as remedial interchanges and sensitive speech acts which occur in relatively serious situations characterized by offending one part of the exchange and threatening their face, must be appropriately delivered. Here, it is assumed that the role of emotions and emotional intelligence comes to be vital. Hence, the present study takes the path of an original study to investigate the correlation between EI and PC of apology speech act realization.

For the purpose of achieving this research, data collection tools comprise an oral discourse completion task ODCT and Schutte Self- report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT), which were submitted to EFL students at M'sila University, and an online questionnaire was sent to teachers of oral expression module. The findings represent an existing statistically significant positive moderate correlation between the variables. In addition, teachers assume that EI is effective in the development of ILP competence, and they regard it of high significance in the instruction of speech acts; namely, apology speech act. Hence, the hypothesis guiding this research, stating that there is no statistically significant correlation between EI and the quality of apology speech act realization in EFL context, is successfully refuted, and EI proves to have a direct relationship with PC of apology speech act realization.

As a conclusion, the present research affirms that there is a relationship between EI and PC of apology speech act realization at the level $p= 0.05$ between M'sila university EFL

learners' PC of apology speech act realization and the fourth subscale of the emotional intelligence test SEEIT "utilizing emotions". As a matter of fact, the influence they exert on each other can be highly substantial in the field of language learning and teaching, especially the instruction/learning of speech acts and other parts of pragmatic competence. This research opens a new array of research, and perhaps future researches about EI and L2 learning and teaching may incredibly benefit the field of applied linguistics and SLA.

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Appendices

Appendix A

The Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT)

Oral DCT in English

The current survey aims to investigate apology strategies in English as elicited by Algerian EFL learners. There are situations given below which possibly require apologies. Please listen carefully to the situations and try to provide as closest respond as possible to your natural spoken respond to the situation. All responses will be kept anonymous.

Situation 1:

Imagine you are a university professor. You promised to return a student's essay today but you haven't finished reading it. The student showed up and asked for the essay. What would you say to the student?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 2:

Imagine you are a student. You borrowed a book from one of your professors but you forgot to return it on time. You went to a meeting with the professor and the professor asked for the book. What would you say to the professor?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 3:

Imagine you are the manager of a café. Today you have an interview with a student who wants to a job in the café. However you are half an hour late for the interview because of a meeting. The student is waiting for you in the café. What would you say to the student?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 4 :

Imagine you are a waiter in an expensive restaurant. A customer ordered beef but you brought chicken instead. The customer mentions the mistake you made. What would you say to the customer?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 5:

Imagine you are a student who is often late. Today you are late for a meeting with a friend you are working on an essay with. Your friend has been waiting for you for two hours. What would you say to your friend?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 6:

Imagine you were in a bus and you bumped into another passenger and broke his computer. What would you say to the passenger?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 7:

Imagine you are working for a company. You offended a colleague during a meeting. After the meeting the colleague you offended made a comment about the incident to you by stating that he was offended by your comment. What would you say to your colleague?

.....
.....
.....

Situation 8:

Imagine you are travelling on a bus. You put your bag in the rack, but it fell down and hit another passenger. What would you say to the passenger?

.....
.....
.....

Appendix B

The Assessing Emotions Scale

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the “1” if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the “2” if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, “3” if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the “4” if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the “5” if you strongly agree that this is like you. **There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.**

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others. أعلم متى أتحدث أفصح عن مشاكلي للآخرين.	1	2	3	4	5
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them. عندما تواجهني عقبات، أتذكر الأوقات التي تغلبت فيها على عقبات مشابهة.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try. أتوقع أنني سأبلي حسنا في معظم الأشياء التي سأجربها.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me. يسهل على الآخرين الوثوق بي.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people. يصعب علي فهم رسائل الآخرين غير اللفظية.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important. أدت بي بعض المناسبات الرئيسية في التي عرفتتها حياتي إلى إعادة تقييم ما هو مهم و ما هو غير مهم.	1	2	3	4	5
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities. عندما يتغير مزاجي أرى فرصا جديدة.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living. تعد المشاعر أحد الأشياء التي تجعل لحياتي معنى.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them. أكون مدركا لعواطفني عندما أختبرها.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I expect good things to happen. أتوقع حدوث أشياء جيدة.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I like to share my emotions with others. أحب الإفصاح عن مشاعري للآخرين.	1	2	3	4	5
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last. عندما يغمرني شعور جيد أعرف كيف أحافظ عليه.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I arrange events others enjoy. أنظم مناسبات يستمتع بها الآخرون.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I seek out activities that make me happy. أبحث عن نشاطات تسعدني.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others. أنا مدرك للرسائل غير اللفظية التي أوجهها للآخرين.	1	2	3	4	5

16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others. أقدم نفسي بطريقة تترك انطباعا جيدا لدى الآخرين.	1	2	3	4	5
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me. عندما أكون في مزاج جيد يسهل علي حل المشكلات.	1	2	3	4	5
18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing. أستطيع تمييز المشاعر التي تختلج الآخرين من خلال النظر إلى تعابير وجوههم.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I know why my emotions change. أعرف لما تتغير مشاعري.	1	2	3	4	5
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas. عندما أكون في مزاج جيد أستطيع خلق أفكار جديدة.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I have control over my emotions. لدي القدرة على التحكم في مشاعري.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them. أستطيع أن أميز المشاعر التي تختلجني بسهولة.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on. أحفز نفسي من خلال تخيل نتائج جيدة للمهام التي أقوم بها.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I compliment others when they have done something well. أثني على الآخرين عند قيامهم بأمر بشكل جيد.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send. أنا مدرك للرسائل غير اللفظية التي يوجهها الآخرون.	1	2	3	4	5
26	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself. عندما يخبرني شخص ما حول حدث مهم في حياته أشعر وكأنني اختبرت ذلك الحدث بنفسني.	1	2	3	4	5
27	When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas. عندما أشعر بتغير عاطفي أميل إلى خلق أفكار جديدة.	1	2	3	4	5
28	When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail. عندما أواجه تحديا, أستسلم لمعرفتي أنني سأفشل.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them. أعرف ما يشعر به الآخرون بمجرد النظر إليهم.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I help other people feel better when they are down. عندما يشعر آخرون بالإحباط, أساعدهم كي يشعروا بتحسن.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles. لكي أستمر بالمحاولة صد الصعاب, أستعمل أمزجة جيدة.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice. أستطيع معرفة ما يشعر به الآخرون من خلال الاستماع لنبرة أصواتهم.	1	2	3	4	5
33	It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do. من الصعب علي فهم السبب وراء شعور الناس بتلك الطريقة.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Oral Expression Class Teacher Questionnaire

This questionnaire will take no longer than 05 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research. It would be appreciated if you could transparently answer the designed questions based on your personal experience in teaching "Oral Expression" to English majors.

* Required

1. level *

Mark only one oval.

Master

Ph.D

2. specialty *

3. Institution

4. 1- you have taught oral expression(O.E) to English majors for: *

Mark only one oval.

1-2 years

3-4 years

5 years

more than 5 years

5. 2- how would you describe your O.E teaching experience? *

6. 3- what are/is the teaching method(s) you prefer using in an O.E class? *

7. Why?

8. were they useful in promoting EFL learners inter-language pragmatic competence?

Mark only one oval.

yes

No

9. 4- Are you satisfied with the results of using the aforementioned methods? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
very unsatisfied	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	very satisfied

10. 5- as an oral expression teacher of EFL students, what are your thoughts on pragmatics-based instruction? *

11. 6- Pragmatics-based instruction should be:

Mark only one oval.

- Explicit
 Implicit
 Both

12. 7- Considering the main objective of learning an L2 is communication, knowledge of L2 speech acts is a must. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

13. if you agree with the previous statement, do you teach speech acts implicitly or explicitly in your O.E class?

14. Is it more effective or less effective in terms of promoting EFL learners' Inter-language pragmatic competence?

15. 8- one's intelligences decide one's abilities. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

16. why?

17. 9- Emotional intelligence is key factor to appropriate L2 use. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

18. 10- Emotional intelligence aids develop EFL learners pragmatic competence.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	strongly agree

19. 11- does the institution you work for- have worked for before- influence you teaching techniques? *

Mark only one oval.

Yes
 No

20. how?

21. 12- based on your experience as an O.E teacher, what would you recommend to develop EFL learners' inter-language pragmatic competence? *

ملخص

شهدت السنوات الأخيرة تطوراً كبيراً في مجال التداولية التطبيقية وبحوث اكتساب اللغة الثانية نحو بنيات معرفية نفسية ، حيث تسعى هذه الدراسة إلى البحث في العلاقة بين مستويات الذكاء العاطفي لدى دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة مسيلة وكفاءتهم البراغمية في إنتاج خطاب اعتذار ، الهدف الرئيسي للدراسة هو تحديد طبيعة العلاقة بين متغيرات الدراسة ، أي الذكاء العاطفي والكفاءة البراغمية في إنتاج خطاب اعتذار. زيادة على ذلك ، تحدد الدراسة تواتر الصيغ الدلالية لخطاب اعتذار المشاركين ، وكذلك مستويات ذكائهم العاطفي و الدرجات المحصلة من قبلهم ضمن مقاييس الذكاء العاطفي. علاوة على ذلك ، تبحث الدراسة في معتقدات الأساتذة ومواقفهم حول تعليم البراغمية في أقسام التعبير الشفوي ، والعلاقة بين الذكاء العاطفي والكفاءة البراغمية. لتحقيق ذلك ، يشتمل البحث على طرق ارتباطية مدمجة و أخرى وصفية للحصول على البيانات . أولاً ، بالنسبة للجزء الارتباطي ، اختار الباحثون إكمال الخطاب الشفوي ODCT و تحرير تقارير متعلقة باختبار الذكاء العاطفي الذاتي (SSEIT) لعينة من 30 طالباً من دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة المسيلة لتوليد البيانات اللازمة والتي تم تحليلها لاحقاً من خلال برنامج SPSS الإصدار 25. كما تم استخدام استبيان الزاوية الوصفية للبحث بهدف استخلاص بيانات حول آراء ومواقف معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية حول تدريس البراغمية في أقسام التعبير الشفوي للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ، والعلاقة بين متغيرات البحث . كشفت النتائج عن وجود علاقة موجبة متوسطة مع قيمة *0,437 عند مستوى الدلالة $p=0.05$. علاوة على ذلك ، أشار الأساتذة إلى أهمية التدريس الصريح والضمني للبراغمية وكذلك الأهمية العالية للذكاء العاطفي في تطوير الكفاءة البراغمية. ختاماً ، سلطت هذه الدراسة الضوء على أهمية الذكاء العاطفي في الكفاءة البراغمية لإنتاج خطاب اعتذار ، كما أنها ترفع وعي كل من المعلمين والطلاب بهذه النتيجة ، وتدعو إلى دمج الذكاء العاطفي واستراتيجياته في تدريس خطاب الاعتذار.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الذكاء العاطفي ، الكفاءة البراغمية ، فعل خطاب الاعتذار