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**Promoting EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence through the
 Implementation of an Intercultural Course**

The Case of First Year LMD Students of English, Jijel University

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Dedication

In the name of Allah,

I dedicate this work to:

my dear parents;

my beloved son: Anis;

my husband;

my brothers and sister;

all my relatives;

my in-laws;

my teachers;

my friends and colleagues.

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Abstract

The development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has gained ground with the rise of globalisation and Internet technologies where the demand for successful communication has become necessary. As a result, ICC has become one of the essential aims in the field of foreign language teaching and learning. This study is an attempt to implement an intercultural course for the sake of promoting ICC among first-year EFL students at Jijel University. To meet the learners' needs, a questionnaire is administered to eighty-eight first-year EFL learners at Jijel University. The findings reveals the learners' preferences regarding the topics, materials, techniques, and activities that promote ICC. On the basis of these findings and Byram's (1997) model of ICC, which inspires the whole work, an intercultural course is designed and then implemented with a sample of 23 first-year EFL students (the experimental group). A control group made up of 22 students is part of this quasi-experimental design. To evaluate the effectiveness of the intercultural course, a mixed-method approach is used, that is, a questionnaire, a portfolio, and the teacher's reflective journal. The results from the pre- questionnaires and post-questionnaires are analysed statistically through descriptive and inferential statistics. To reject or confirm the hypothesis which states that designing and implementing an intercultural course would develop EFL learners' ICC, the ANCOVA test is used. Results show significant differences in the ICC level of the two groups in favour of the experimental group as the p-value is inferior than the probability significance level ($p= 0.024 < 0.05$). This confirms that the intercultural course developed first-year EFL university learners' ICC. The results from the students' portfolios and teacher's reflective journal strengthen the same results obtained from the pre-questionnaires and post-questionnaires.

Keywords: learners' needs, intercultural communicative competence, intercultural course, needs analysis.

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List of Abbreviations and Symbols

%: Percentage

ANCOVA: Analysis of covariance

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference

CC: Communicative competence

CG: Control group

CLT: Communicative language teaching

Df: Degree of freedom

ECML: English Centre for Modern Languages

EFL: English as a foreign language

EG: Experimental group

ESP: English for specific purposes

F: Frequency

FL: Foreign language

H₀: Null hypothesis

IC: Intercultural competence

ICC: Intercultural communicative competence

IS: Intercultural speaker

LMD: Licence Master Doctorate

L1: Licence year one

L2: Licence year two

L3: Licence year three

M: Mean

Max.: Maximum

Min.: Minimum

N: Number

NS: Native speaker

Q: Question

SD: Standard deviation

SLA: Second language acquisition

SL: Second language

SPSS: statistical package for the social sciences

SS: students

T: Teacher

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Résumé

ملخص

General Introduction

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

The field of foreign language (FL) teaching and learning has witnessed tremendous changes over time. The aim of traditional methods, such as the Grammar Translation Method and the Direct Method, etc., was almost the same: they differ in the ways of delivering knowledge, yet their goal is to make learners acquire long lists of vocabulary, master tedious and fleet grammar rules, and/or have native-like pronunciation. In other words, the traditional methods aim at developing learners' linguistic competence. Nevertheless, it was found that despite the linguistic knowledge that learners have, they fail short to communicate (Hymes, 1972).

Interestingly, when communicative language teaching (CLT) was brought to light in the 1970s, the brand-new concept of 'communicative competence' (CC) made a paradigm shift in FL teaching. Communication has become of note importance. Precisely, CC, which is the core of CLT, comprises not only linguistic competence but three other competences: sociolinguistic competence_ the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately and the capacity to produce and understand texts_ the strategic competence _the ability to compensate for breakdowns in communication (Canale & Swain, 1980)_ and discourse competence_ the capacity to produce and understand texts (Swain, 1983). According to this approach, mastery of the native speaker's language and culture is the aim. In other words, learners are required to achieve the native speakers' proficiency. This model, however, was decried on the basis that if learners acquire the native speakers' language and culture, this will expose them to the risk of losing their identity (Byram, 1997).

Byram (1997) suggested a new model in FL teaching that aims to make intercultural speakers (IS) rather than native speakers (NS), the latter being out of rich according to him. Hence, ICC replaced CC. As a result, this led to changes in curriculum and syllabus design.

The Chinese College English Curriculum Requirements (2004) set the goal of English teaching as promoting the integration of learners' English skills, putting much emphasis on speaking and listening, in order to enable them to interact appropriately when socialising and getting jobs in the future. At the same time, it aims to develop learners' capacity to study autonomously as well as their ICC to meet the demands of the globalized world. By definition, ICC refers to the knowledge, skills and capacities used to converse in the target language with individuals from different cultures and identities and to act as a mediator (Byram, 1997; Meyer, 1991). Other researchers in the field gave other names to explain the concept of ICC. To exemplify, Kramsch (1993) opted for the term 'the third place' or 'the third culture' in her model for developing ICC. The third place means a culture between learners' own culture and others' cultures, and learners should develop it.

Hence, one can remark that ICC development is of great significance. As such, researchers have introduced a myriad of activities and materials for its development in EFL classrooms. Byram (1997) stated that ICC could be developed in the educational setting. That is, teachers should work on the development of ICC in their learners. Learners get a chance to transform the acquired cultural knowledge into skills of interacting with other individuals and interpreting documents from the target culture into the native culture or the opposite. Thus, one can understand that learners should benefit from formal education to develop their ICC.

Despite the fact that many studies investigated the implementation of different intercultural approaches in the Algerian context in general and at Jijel University in particular (e.g., Mizeb, 2020; Bouhidel, 2018), some of them did not evaluate the existing syllabuses before the implementation stage (e.g., Bousba, 2017); others did not cater for learners' needs before designing the courses (e.g., Bennacer, 2019). Thus, this study is an attempt to include both evaluation and needs analysis before the design and implementation of the intercultural course.

2. Statement of the Problem

From our experience, as a learner of English for five years at the Department of English, Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel, we observed that the content taught to EFL learners does not aim explicitly nor implicitly at developing learners' ICC. Rather, there was much focus on one of the four language skills especially speaking and writing or other components of the language such as vocabulary and grammar (Birak, 2016). That is to say, teachers aimed at developing both the linguistic competence and CC behind teaching the four skills and not culture integration. Culture teaching was integrated mainly in modules such as Culture of the Language (British and American civilisation), Literary Texts, and Oral Expression. However, culture teaching was restricted to raising learners' cultural knowledge and understanding, which covers only one part of ICC, because learners are mainly imparted with cultural facts, learning idioms and proverbs about the target culture. In addition, research in this English Department (Birak, 2016) found that learners ignored the concept of ICC and were of the view that its development would be at the expense of losing their own culture and identity as well. In addition, they showed that they did not develop attitudes of openness and empathy towards others. On the contrary, they displayed negative judgements towards the target culture.

The subject of 'Pragmatics' which used to play an important role in culture teaching has no longer a place in the English Department (curriculum). Alternatively, a new module beginning from the academic year 2016-2017 has been recently introduced to Master one namely 'language and culture' in the first semester and 'interculturality/ multiculturalism' in the second one. At first glance, one might say that the teaching of culture will gain credence. Yet, we remarked, after viewing the content of this module, whose basic tenet is only theoretical and not practical. In other words, students are taught culture- related concepts and studies for the sake of raising their awareness of the importance of integrating culture into FL teaching, but

the practical side was neglected. Researchers in intercultural studies (e.g., Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Sercu, 2005) agreed that being interculturally competent involves not only knowing the differences between the native and the target culture but also most importantly interacting with individuals belonging to different cultures. On this basis, it would be worthwhile to design an intercultural course that contains all ICC components and aims mainly at producing intercultural speakers (ISs) which is the current aim of this research.

3. Aims of the Study

This study aims mainly at designing and implementing an intercultural course at the university level: a defined 'intercultural' content is selected and then taught to first-year EFL students at the University of Jijel to enhance their ICC. An initial aim is the evaluation of the existing syllabi (L1, L2, and L3) regarding the subjects of the Culture of the Language, Literary Texts, and Oral Expression. Exploring first-year EFL learners' needs regarding their ICC is a crucial stage of this research. Hence, a needs analysis is conducted with the aforementioned group of students. Needs analysis findings and the literature review contribute to the design of the intercultural course. This study aims more importantly to evaluate the effectiveness of this course using both quantitative and qualitative tools.

4. Research Questions: Based on the formerly stated aims, this study aims at answering the following main question:

- To what extent can the intercultural course be beneficial to EFL learners in developing their ICC?

To answer this question, several other questions (Q) need to be raised:

Q1: Do the existing EFL syllabi cater to the learners' ICC development?

Q2: What intercultural content should be taught to learners to develop their ICC?

Q3: What methodology should be used to implement the course?

Q4: What are the activities and tasks that should be included in the course?

5. Hypotheses

Following the aims of the study and the research questions, two hypotheses (H) were formulated:

H₁: Designing and implementing an intercultural course would develop EFL university learners' ICC.

H₀: Designing and implementing an intercultural course would not develop EFL university learners' ICC.

6. Methodology

For the sake of achieving the aims of the current study and answering the research questions, the following research tools were used:

- To evaluate the syllabi, content analysis was used. We opted for this research method because it best suits the analysis of the documents of syllabi qualitatively and quantitatively. The subjects of 'Literary Texts' and 'language and culture' were chosen because their syllabi are related to culture whether directly or indirectly. To clarify, the subjects of 'Culture of the Language' and 'Literary Texts' are related to culture because they deal with British and American civilizations and literature, respectively, which are main components of big C culture. Oral Expression, which is a skill-based module, deals with performance and communication; undoubtedly, one cannot produce language appropriately without considering culture.

- To design the intercultural course, needs analysis was conducted. To do so, a questionnaire was used to gather information about learners' needs and interests, which in turn were accounted for when designing the course.
- To implement the treatment, a quasi-experiment was conducted. The sample opted for was first-year License students. Before conducting the experiment, two groups were assigned to the researcher by the administration. The pre-questionnaire and the post questionnaire, serve as a pre-test and a post-test respectively, used for assessing learners' ICC level were adapted from the ICC survey of Fantini & Tirmizi (2006); they are made up of four competences which matches the definition of ICC adopted in this study from Byram's (1997) model (see section 9, pp. 8-9). The course was taught to the experimental group (EG); however, the control group (CG) did not receive any treatment since they were taught following the conventional programme. The experiment lasted for about a semester (10 weeks and 34 hours).
- To evaluate the course, a comparison between the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire results was done. The results were analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS), particularly ANCOVA (analysis of covariance) test, to see whether there was a significant difference between the EG and the CG or not.

7. Significance of the Study

This study sheds light on the importance of ICC development in the arena of FL teaching and learning. Thus, it is an attempt to design an intercultural course for promoting EFL learners' ICC. First, the results of the current study may be of significance in finding out the place of ICC teaching in the Department of English at the University of Jijel. Besides, the results could stand as a database in regards to specifying learners' needs concerning their ICC development particularly in the context of the study. Second, the results are hoped to provide EFL teachers with implications for ICC development in the classroom. Third, this study is supposed to

encourage further studies to be conducted about course/syllabus design for the sake of developing EFL learners' ICC by employing different research tools, data analysis procedures, and samples, etc.

8. Definition of Key Terms

Intercultural communicative competence: Intercultural communicative competence means that someone has the ability “to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language. They are able to negotiate a mode of communication and interaction which is satisfactory to themselves and the other.” (Byram, 1997, p. 71). It comprises four skills: attitudes (*savoir être*), knowledge (*savoir comprendre*), skills (*savoir faire*, *savoir apprendre*), and critical cultural awareness (*savoir s’engager*).

- Attitudes (*savoir être*): To be interculturally competent, one should have attitudes of openness, acceptance, tolerance and empathy toward other cultures.
- Knowledge (*savoir être*): Having knowledge about one’s own culture as well as the speaker’s culture is of overriding importance if combined with skills.
- Skills (x2) (*savoir faire*, *savoir apprendre*) : The skill of interpreting documents belonging to the native culture and the target culture to other individuals is a crucial component of ICC as well as interacting and conversing appropriately and effectively with others whose cultures and identities are different from one’s own.
- Critical cultural awareness (*savoir s’engager*): the ability to view both one’s culture and that of others critically.

Needs Analysis: It is a process by which particular information is gathered about learners’ wants, interests, and needs (Brown, 2006); it is the first step that should be done in case of designing a syllabus, an activity, or a course (Jordan, 1997).

Needs: Needs are of two types: subjective and objective needs. The former refers to the learners' personal information, difficulties faced in the learning process, purposes of learning, and language proficiency level. The latter refers to the learners' attitudes, learning styles, learning strategies, etc. (Brindly, 1984).

Course: It refers to various teaching steps that are pertained to each other, whose central goal is to help the students reach specific state of knowledge (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Syllabus: It is a process through which a particular content is selected and graded and a methodology is opted for delivering that content (Nunan, 1988a).

9. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into two parts: a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical part encompasses two main chapters:

The first chapter revolves around the related literature on course design. It includes the differences between syllabus, course, and curriculum and the different kinds of syllabi. It also sheds light on the importance of needs analysis while designing a course or a syllabus, and different models of needs analysis. Then, the chapter culminates with course/syllabus evaluation and the methods used in this process.

The second chapter is about ICC development. The first section of the chapter is about integrating culture in FL teaching. It includes definitions of culture, the relationship between language and culture, models for culture teaching, the relationship between culture and communication, and the integration of culture into FL teaching and learning. The second part of the chapter revolves around ICC. In the first place, it begins with definitions of ICC. Next, it sheds light on important ICC models. It further deals with materials used to develop ICC as

well as ICC assessment. It ends with a review of some studies that worked on developing ICC in learners.

The practical part where the fieldwork of this study lies comprises three chapters.

The third chapter is about the evaluation of the existing syllabi that are related to culture namely literary text, Culture of the Language, and Oral Expression. It is divided into two parts: a theoretical and a practical part. The first part starts with the description of the research tool used in the evaluation that is content analysis (definition, procedure, reliability). The second part states the reason behind choosing the foregoing subjects and not others and the interpretation and discussion of the Oral Expression teachers' interview and content analysis results.

The fourth chapter is about the questionnaire that aims at exploring learners' needs. It includes a description of the targeted population and sampling procedures. The main part is devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire findings.

The fifth chapter includes a description of the designed course, its implementation and its evaluation. It first refers to the aims, the content, and the methodology used. The chapter then describes the implementation stage. In fact, it includes a detailed account of how the experiment took place, its duration, a reference to the CG and EG, a description of the pre questionnaire and post questionnaire used, the pilot study, and the schedule of the experiment. The last part of the chapter is devoted to the evaluation stage. In other words, it refers to the analysis of the results obtained from the pre questionnaire and post questionnaire and a comparison between the two. Moreover, the chapter includes a description of the students' portfolios and the teacher's reflective journal and their findings. The chapter ends with limitations and suggestions for further research.

Chapter One: Intercultural Communicative Competence

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Introduction

The teaching of culture in EFL classes has been necessary since language and culture are intricately linked. Successful interaction does not only require learners to develop their communicative skills. Rather, they should develop knowledge and understanding, attitudes, and intercultural skills. This chapter aims to review the literature on ICC. The chapter starts with an overview of culture teaching in FL classes where the term culture is defined, language and culture relationship is explained, and materials and activities for teaching culture are mentioned. Then, ICC is introduced and defined as well as some key terminology. Some models are explicated too. The chapter examines also the way ICC can be developed, taught, and assessed. The chapter culminates with some studies that promoted ICC in learners.

2.1. Culture Teaching

The teaching of a target language includes also the teaching of its culture since language and culture are interwoven. Teachers of languages became also teachers of culture. As a result, many techniques and activities were suggested to integrate culture in EFL classes.

2.1.1. Definition of Culture

The word culture is not easy to define. A widespread definition distinguishes between big C culture and small c culture (Chastain, 1976). Big or capital C culture encompasses “literature and other forms of artistic production, as well as history and geography”. Culture with little or small c culture includes “behaviour, norms and values in everyday interaction” (Risager, 2007, p. 40). In fact, a differentiation between three types of culture was made: material, social, and subjective (Barrett, Byram, Làzàr, Mompoin-Gaillard, & Philippon, 2014). First, material culture is made up of all the concrete materials that are employed by individuals belonging to the same culture (such as clothing and foods). Second, social culture is made up of every social aspect that is shared by a group (such as language, religion, and laws). Last but not least,

subjective culture is made up of the values, perceptions, rituals, habits, and principles that all individuals belonging to the same group employ as a basis when perceiving and relating to others (p.5). Byram (1989, p. 15) defined culture as “the whole way of life of the foreign country, including but not limited to its production in the arts, philosophy and the high culture in general”. Likewise, Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scrino, & Kohler (2003, p. 45) gave the following definition of culture:

A complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviours, practices, rituals, and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artefacts they produce and the institutions they create.

Similarly, Brown (2014) defined culture as “the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time” (p. 175). In much the same way, Brooks (2004) gave the following definition: “culture is the stable relatively set of inner values and beliefs generally held by groups of people in countries and regions and the noticeable impact those values and beliefs have on the peoples’ outward behaviors and environment” (p.17).

2.1.2. Language and Culture Relationship

A plethora of researchers has the opinion that language and culture are tightly linked (e.g., Byram, 1989; Kramsch, 1998; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Brown (2000, p. 177) believes that “a language is a part of culture, and culture is part of language, the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language and culture”. Likewise, Jiang (2000) said that the link between language and culture is like “...a living organism; language is flesh, and culture is blood. Without culture, language would be dead; without language, culture would have no shape” (p. 328). As a result, this linkage is shown in several terms as *languaculture* (Risager, 2005), *languageculture* (Friedrich, 1989),

language-and-culture (Liddicoat et al., 2003). Notably, the term languaculture which was first used by Agar (1994, p. 28) to refer to the bond between language and culture; he emphasized the fact that culture and language should be taught together and not separately. This idea is implicitly stated in the quote below:

Language, in all its varieties, in all the ways it appears in everyday life, builds a world of meanings. When you run into different meanings, when you become aware of your own and work to build a bridge to others, ‘culture’ is what you are up to. Language fills the spaces between us with sounds, culture forges the human connection through them. Culture is in language, and language is loaded with culture. (Agar, 1994, p. 26)

Several researchers are of the opinion that culture should be taught and integrated into FL classes for different reasons. Byram (1989), for example, argued that teachers should not only teach language but also culture at the same time. Likewise, Brown (2001) had the same opinion arguing that exposure to both language and culture would yield learners a better engagement in authentic language. Some argued that if language and culture were taught in parallel, learners would be able to communicate effectively in a sociocultural context (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1997; McKay, 2003).

One way of showing the linkage between language and culture is through the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis or linguistic relativity which was made first by Whorf (1956). He claimed that language determines our thought_language determinism. It influences the way people think. Thus, his hypothesis states that “the language that one speaks affects cognitive processes. Because different languages categorize, relationships and meanings differently, one’s view of the world is said to reflect perceptual categories learned in the process of acquiring one’s native language” (Shaules, 2007, p. 42).

Another way to show the tight relationship between language and culture is through the importance of culture in communication. Hence, intercultural communication occurs when individuals from various cultures converse, and they need to know the differences between their cultures to have successful communication (Novinger, 2001). Samovar, Porter, and Jain (1981) emphasised the fact that communication and culture are interwoven, for individuals communicate following the socio-cultural roles shared between particular members. Arguably, culture is the cornerstone of communication; what to say, how to say it, and what is understood are all dependent on cultural rather than linguistic meaning. Similarly, Hall (1959) went to the extent of equating culture with communication saying that “culture is communication and communication is culture” (as cited in Novinger, 2001, p.14).

2.1.3. Culture in Foreign Language Teaching Methods

Allen (1985, p. 138) commented on SL and FL teaching before the 1960s that “the lines between language and culture were carefully drawn. The primary reason for second language study in the earlier part of this century was access to the great literary masterpieces of civilization”. That is to say, the teaching of culture is not new but existed and it was taught separately from language.

2.1.3.1. The Grammar Translation Method

The grammar translation method, or the classical method as it was first named, was based on the translation of Literary Texts and extensive study of grammar rules of the target language. However, making learners able to communicate was not one of its goals (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Culture in the 19th century was taught mainly through reading literary works. That is, teaching at that time was centered upon “big c culture... the history, the institutions, the literature and the arts of the target language” (Kramsch, 2013, p. 65). In the same line of thought, Allen (1995) argued that teaching at the time of the Grammar Translation Method was

done through “literary masterpieces of civilization” (Allen, 1985, as cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1997, p. 1). In much the same way, the teaching of culture in Grammar Translation Method is better stated in Brooks’ (1964, pp. 63-64) words:

Culture in its refinement has long attached to language teaching. The language teacher is presumed to be a cultured person and the learner is presumed to enhance his own culture as he learns a second language. The culture of the foreign country whose language is being studied, as reflected in its literature, art, architecture, music, dance, and the like is the subject of much consideration.

2.1.3.2. The Direct Method

Unlike the grammar translation method, the direct method was centred upon learning a FL for communicative purposes (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The translation is not allowed in the classroom, and only the target language is used. That is, meaning is expressed directly through the target language without resorting to the native language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As oral communication is emphasised in this method over writing, culture in this method is made up of “the history of the people who speak the target language, the geography of the country or countries where the language is spoken, and information about the daily lives of the speakers of the language” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 29). Thus, its teaching was explicit rather than implicit. Although the teaching of culture started in this approach since it is concerned with people’s lifestyles and behaviours, its teaching was haphazard since it lacks a clear definition of linguistic and sociocultural theories (Xiao, 2001).

2.1.3.3. The Audio-lingual Method

Similar to the grammar translation method, the audio-lingual method is an approach that is based on spoken rather than written language. However, the audio-lingual method is built on a theoretical ground. At that time, with the development of theories in structural linguistics and

psychology, learning in the direct method was based on drilling grammatical structures (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and comparing the target culture to the native culture due to the emergence of contrastive analysis. With the rise of the audio-lingual method in the sixties, the teaching of culture shifted from big C culture to small c culture as communication and spoken language became the cornerstone of teaching (Chastain, 1976; Steele, 1989, as cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Culture is seen as the NS' lifestyle and their daily behaviours (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Chastain (1976) explained that the teaching of culture in this approach “was not to include separate discussions of culture but to rely on the students' absorption of small c culture that was contained in the dialogs to convey the culture system” (p. 389).

2.1.3.4. Communicative Language Teaching

Due to the tremendous shift in linguistic theories, language learning is no longer seen as a habit formation by the end of the 1960's as the aforementioned methods fail to prepare learners for real-life communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). With the advent of CLT in 1970's and 1980's and the rise of sociolinguistics, developing communicative and interactional skills in social settings became the aim of FL teaching/learning (Kramsch, 2013). Hence, there was a shift of interest toward the concept of culture where the focus was put on small c culture, rather than big C culture (Kovacs, 2017; Kramsch, 2013). To explain, Kramsch (2013) stated that teaching small c culture is teaching the NS's way of life. In the CLT, consideration was given to the social context, unlike the audio-lingual method, where language takes place through the teaching of functions, that is, doing actions with words. For example, to ask for a request, one can use different models depending on whether the situation is formal or not and on the relation between the interlocutors. That is, several social factors intervene. Besides, the teaching of culture in the CLT is done through giving much attention to non-verbal communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). This is better explained in Kramsch's (2013 p.66,) words:

To study the way native speakers use their language for communicative purposes, the convention “one language = one culture” is maintained and teachers are enjoined to teach rules of sociolinguistic use the same way they teach rules of grammatical usage (i.e., through modeling and role-playing). Even though everyday cultural practices are as varied as a native speaker’s use of language in everyday life, the focus is on the typical, sometimes stereotypical, behaviours, foods, celebrations and customs.

2.1.4. Techniques for Teaching Culture

The traditional way of teaching culture, which is represented in teaching elements of big C culture as civilization and elements of small c culture (i.e., facts-oriented approach), was hotly attacked and rejected (Brooks, 1995; Chastain, 1976). This approach was considered unacceptable and ineffective as it is built upon the belief that culture is divided into two parts that in turn will be sequenced as themes for teaching. This in turn neglects the most significant role of culture which “is a social construct, a product of self and other perceptions” (Kramsch, 1993, p. 205). However, Byram and Feng (2005) stated that the traditional way of teaching culture is not completely discarded in the arena of FL teaching. On the contrary, it is still used in contexts in which learners lack chances to meet with individuals from different cultures _real encounter. Reid (2015) divided techniques for culture teaching as follows:

- *Comparison Method:* Contrasting cultures is a commonly used technique to teach culture. Besides, this method involves also discussing points of differences within the same culture, for cultures are evolving over time and being understood in a different way (Reid, 2015). Similarly, Byram and Planet (2000) believe that “comparison makes the strange, the other familiar, and makes the familiar, the self-strange_ and therefore easier to reconsider” (as cited in Chaouche, 2016, p. 37).

- *Cultural Assimilation*: It is where a critical incident is displayed to the learners, and they would likely misunderstand it. In this case, learners are provided with many choices from which they opt for the correct answer. A good instance that is highly misunderstood is non-verbal greetings. Different individuals believe that cheek kissing is the same all around the world. Nevertheless, cultures differ in the number of kisses. This can be used as a task and practiced by the teacher and a student. Then, students should choose which one is correct. After that, the teacher should explicate that the number of kisses is not wrong, but they vary from one culture to another, sometimes, even within the same culture, from one place to another, and from men to women (Reid, 2015).
- *Cultural Capsule* : This technique is used to show differences in customs between different cultures. As it allows practicing sociolinguistic and socio-cultural knowledge. To exemplify, one can discuss the topic of the main meal during the day in several cultures. Pictures of different meals can be used. Learners are invited to criticise the eating customs of these cultures by stating the advantages and disadvantages (Reid, 2015).
- *Cultural Island*: Even though this technique is straightforward, it is proven to be efficient because it affects the learners in a subconscious way. The teacher should draw learners' attention by using posters and pictures of authors, singers, actors, known places, etc., and hang them on the classroom walls. Hence, this in turn will raise their interest and encourage them to make comments and to create a cultural environment (Hughes, 1986). This technique puts much emphasis on socio-cultural knowledge. In most classes, walls are full of pictures that have to do with grammar and vocabulary which are not interesting and motivating to learners. As such, these posters should be rather changed with attention-drawing and well-known pictures (Reid, 2015).

- *Reformulation*: It involves telling a story again to a colleague after listening to it using one's own words. *Noticing* is drawing attention to certain characteristics (Cullen, 2000). For instance, the two techniques could be employed when listening to a video about a school day in Britain where learners will narrate the story again. In doing so, they put into practice knowledge about sociocultural and speaking skills too. Besides, they remark on certain features related to the video theme (s). In addition to the sociocultural features, sociolinguistic and non-verbal communication are practiced through reformulation (Reid, 2015).
- *Prediction*: It involves learners to end a half-narrated story, to make predictions of books' and articles' contents based on titles, and to foresee what a topic is about based on a limited set of data. This leads students to participate willingly without giving importance to whether their guesses are right or wrong (Cullen, 2000). To clarify, the title of a magazine article "Prad Pitt, Angelina Jolli to Adopt Again" is an example of a prediction technique that makes learners guess the content of the article. The subject of adoption can be further discussed and a comparison of various cultural viewpoints is done (Reid, 2015).
- *TPR*: This strategy is created to react to oral orders for carrying out a cultural experience (Hughes, 1983). When Total Physical Response (TPR) is used to teach culture, it is much more appropriate to teach non-verbal communication, and it can be employed with different ages. Learners have to practice different gestures and what they mean in different cultures. For example, a learner communicates non-verbally, and his partners mention the cultures, whether it is considered suitable or unsuitable (Reid, 2015).
- *Role Plays*: This technique plays an important role when comes to practicing sociocultural knowledge and sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases as well as non-

verbal communication. This technique provides learners with chances to practice situations found in real-life that are essential for making intercultural communication successful (Reid, 2015).

- *Treasure Hunt* : It “involves searching for certain items set in advance, for example people, dates, events in news or magazine article” (Reid, 2015, p. 943). *Research* is an essential learning technique. Students are encouraged to search for interesting features of the foreign culture, display their works, and design posters and present them. *Drama* is a strategy where learners are supposed to be actors in short scenes of misinterpretation and explanation of things that occurred between two cultures due to misunderstanding the foreign culture. Using *personal diaries, journals, and portfolios* are another useful technique that lead to the development of intercultural aspects. That is, learners should write about everything happened to them that involves intercultural experiences, visit abroad or a meeting with foreigners (Reid, 2015).

2.2. Intercultural Communicative Competence

Many fields were influenced by the change that took place all around the world. Due to globalization, the world became highly connected. Thus, the need for intercultural dialogue is deemed necessary in the workplace, and education is no exception. As classrooms are a mixture of cultural and linguistic minorities, intercultural aims are integrated while designing courses. Hence, it can be concluded that when a FL is taught in classrooms, it “means connecting learners to a world that is culturally different from their own” (Sercu, 2005, p.1). Arguably, the current aim of language learning is not to acquire CC but ICC instead.

2.2.1. Definition of Intercultural Communicative Competence

The word ‘competence’ can be used in different ways. For Trompinaars and Wooliams (2009), the concepts ‘competence’ and ‘skills’ are used as synonymous. However, for others,

competence is used to refer to a group of capacities and skills (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). To explain, it can be used to refer to the ability which is widely used in everyday language. In addition, it can mean the capacity to realise different requirements in a particular situation in technical fields such as vocational education and training. For actual goals, competence is not only restricted to skills that are performed in a particular setting yet as a link between knowledge, attitudes, and skills that are performed in reality in all related contexts. In other words, competence is “the capacity to respond successfully to types of situations which present tasks, difficulties or challenges for the individual, either singly or together with others. Intercultural encounters are one such type of situation” (Barrett et al., 2014, p. 16).

Before defining ICC, it is worth mentioning that a myriad of terms exists to refer to it such as *intercultural competence*, *intercultural communicative competence*, *cultural competence*, and *global competence* (Deardorff & Jones, 2012). However, there is no agreement upon the use of one term (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Fantini, 2009). Importantly, ICC has developed first from CC, and it plays the role of completing it (Sercu, 2005). The phrase ‘intercultural communicative competence’, which is preferred by Byram, “reflects the emphasis on language and learning” (Byram, 2008, p. 177). Rosen et al. (2000, pp. 32-33) draw the conclusion that even though researchers in the field used different terms to refer to ICC, they share in common four behavioural abilities that are necessary for having effectiveness in intercultural contexts :

1. The ability to manage psychological stress
2. The ability to communicate effectively
3. The ability to take advantage of the interface between different cultures and the knowledge that comes from different cultural orientations
4. The ability to manage change in a borderless environment where culture is asserted even more, as the national borders dissolve, and where cultures encounter each other immediately through technology

To act interculturally is “to bring into relationship two cultures” (Byram & Zarate, 1997; as cited in Byram, 2008, p. 68). IC, or ICC, refers to the ability to effectively and appropriately interact with other people who, to some extent, display unsimilar or diverse attitudes, skills, and knowledge from one’s own (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). Appropriateness refers to “the degree to which the exchanged behaviors are regarded as proper and match the expectations generated by the insiders of the culture”. Effectiveness refers to “the degree to which communicators achieve mutually shared meaning and integrative goal-related outcomes” (Ting-Toomey, 2009, p. 102).

However, being intercultural, for Sercu (2005, p. 2), means that someone should have several competences such as the desire to converse with foreigners,

the willingness to engage with the foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to look upon oneself from the outside, the ability to see the world through the others’ eyes, the ability to cope with uncertainty, the ability to act as a cultural mediator, the ability to evaluate others’ points of view, the ability to consciously use culture learning skills and to read the cultural context, and the understanding that individuals cannot be reduced to their collective identities.

In other words, to be intercultural means owing certain capacities such as criticality and skills of engaging with others effectively. Besides, one should understand that ICC does not mean to lose one’s identity and to modify one’s cultural belongings and replace it with others’ cultural beliefs and practices. On the contrary, ICC requires one to develop attitudes of openness, curiosity, and interest toward individuals’ belonging to other cultures and the capacity to comprehend and explain their beliefs, practices, and values. Thus, ICC provides people with opportunities to communicate effectively and appropriately with others in intercultural settings.

Importantly, ICC makes people capable to act as mediators between people from different cultural affiliations (Barrett et al., 2014).

In the same line of thought, Byram (2006b, pp. 22-26) put strong emphasis on a set of abilities that an intercultural competent learner should possess:

- Attitudes/ Affective capacities

- _ Acknowledgement of the identities of others

- _ Respect for otherness

- _ Tolerance for ambiguity

- _ Empathy

- Behaviour

- _ Flexibility

- _ Communicative awareness

- Cognitive capacities

- _ Knowledge

- _ Knowledge discovery

- _ Interpreting and relating

- _ Critical cultural awareness

ICC is defined as “a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through action which enables one, either singly or together with others to :

- Understand and respect people who perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself.
- Respond appropriately, effectively and respectfully when interacting and communicating with such people.
- Establish positive and constructive relationships with such people.
- Understand oneself and one's own multiple cultural affiliations through encounters with cultural difference. (Barrett et al., 2014, p.16-17)

Thus, ICC is made up of four elements: attitudes, knowledge and understanding, skills, and action. Unlike the majority of researchers in the field who opted for the three components namely attitudes, knowledge, and skills, Barrett et al. (2014) added another component that is 'action'. They argued that the three elements are of vital importance, but they should be complemented with action to be interculturally competent. Generally, individuals manage to have three elements, however, when comes to action, i.e., putting what is learned and acquired into practice, they do not succeed. As a result, it is necessary, for them, to include the 'action' component.

2.2.2. Definition of Related Terminology

Several terms are related in one way or another to the concept of ICC. Some terms appeared before ICC as CC and the NS. However, other terms emerged when ICC developed as the IS or the intercultural mediator.

2.2.2.1. Communicative Competence/ Native Speaker

Hymes (1971) believes that learners should acquire the grammatical rules and vocabulary that enable them to speak without grammar mistakes, to be comprehensible, and most importantly to be socially appropriate. That is, the selection of words and expressions depends

on the situation, the theme, and the interlocutor whom one is talking to. By definition, CC refers to the “person’s ability to act in a foreign language in a linguistically, sociolinguistically and pragmatically appropriate way” (Council of Europe, 2001, p.9, as cited in Sercu, 2005, p.3).

The model of the NS has been downplayed in the 1980s because it was hard to be defined and cannot be reached. Byram (2008) added that NSs are different, having various abilities, and they almost speak two languages. Additionally, Kramersch (1998, p. 27) emphasised the fact that the NS model should be changed and modified by a model that is more convincing and more real, in which:

Speakers over their lifetime a whole range of various rules of interpretation that they use knowingly and judiciously according to the various social contexts in which they live and with which they make sense of the world around them.

The so-called CC has to be altered and improved to take into account what occurs to individuals who were integrated into a place where people speak and behave in a different way from the original one (Byram, 2008, p.79). Byram (1997) disagreed when Hymes’ CC was used to explain FL learning processes because CC was primarily introduced to describe first language acquisition process. It means that “foreign language learners should not model themselves on first language speakers, ignoring the significance of the social identities and cultural competence of the learner in any intercultural interaction” (p. 8). He added that Hymes was not addressing his ideas in the field of FL teaching/learning, and he neglected the communication that takes place between individuals from different cultures.

The term CC was later on used by Canale and Swain (1980) and Van Ek (1986), and others, in which it was developed further. Canale and Swain’s (1980) CC model was developed first into three competences: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Later on, CC was developed into four competences where discourse competence

was added (Canale, 1983), which was integrated at first with sociolinguistic competence. They are defined below:

- *Linguistic competence*: it refers to the “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax...semantics, and phonology” (p. 29). In other words, it refers to the accuracy of utterances.
- *Sociolinguistic competence*: it refers to sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. First, sociocultural rules of use refer to appropriateness, the appropriate use of utterances. That is, what to say and how (in what way to say it depends on sociocultural factors. Rules of discourse refer to the appropriate use of cohesion and coherence devices.
- *Strategic competence*: It refers to the use of “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication” (p.30).

Van Ek’s (1986) CC model was developed into six competences_ linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, sociocultural competence, and social competence. That is, in addition to the foregoing four competences developed by Canale and Swain, he added two other competences: sociocultural competence and social competence. The former means to be aware of the sociocultural situations where the language is employed by its NSs and of manners where this situation influences the selection and the communicative effect of specific linguistic forms. The latter refers to the capacity of employing social techniques appropriate to the realisation of one’s communicative purposes (Van Ek, 1996).

Despite its wide use as a paramount aim by language teachers, the concept of the NS is considered problematic. Teachers want their learners to achieve that goal and thus evaluate their

learners on that basis; measuring students' success or failure depends on whether reaching the NS' proficiency or not (Davies, 2003; Kramsch, 1998). Learners also perceive it as unattainable and a very hard goal to be achieved. Besides, Byram (2008) disagreed with this model arguing that "language learners need a different goal, one that is no less complex but more appropriate than the native speaker" (p.205). Byram (1997) rejected models that use the NS as its tenet such as the one of Van Ek. His criticism is due to two reasons. First, he viewed that reaching the NS level is unreachable because learners unlike NSs learn and acquire other languages in different contexts and under different circumstances. The second reason behind rejecting the NS model is that if learners attain NSs' competence, this will result in cultural and linguistic schizophrenia, that is, the acquisition of another language and culture.

2.2.2.2. Intercultural Speaker/Mediator

The IS was first used in the middle of the 1990s (Byram & Zarate, 1997). It was coined by Byram and Zarate (1994, 1997) while they were working together on what was called the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages of the Council of Europe (2001). Further, they attempted to improve socio-cultural competence. In doing so, they defined three competences: knowledge, skills, and attitudes. At that time, the phrase IS was brought to light when the phrase IC was introduced in the field of FL education. Instead, the phrase ICC was firstly used in Byram's (1997) book entitled 'Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence'. The phrase refers to "someone who is not attempting to imitate a native speaker of a foreign language but aiming to acquire an ability to occupy 'the space between' cultures of different groups and establish and mediate relationships between them" (Byram, 2006a, p. 122). To add, an IS is:

Someone who has some or all of the five savoirs of intercultural competence to some degree. It emphasizes the differences from the cultural competences of a native

speaker. It reminds teachers and learners of the educational aims and objectives of foreign language teaching.

The IS was introduced “to distance the notion of intercultural competence from the cultural competence of a native speaker” (Byram, 2009, p. 326). Even though the emphasis that is put on the speaker is beneficial, Byram (2008) used the phrase ‘intercultural mediator’ to explain the IS because ‘the speaker’ makes language vital, and ‘mediator’ in turn expresses a linguistic connotation. Thus, ‘acting as a mediator’ differentiates ‘intercultural’ from ‘bicultural’ because mediation has to do with intercultural, unlike bicultural. Bicultural individuals may be required to clarify the link between two cultures with which they are familiar and to perform the role of mediation. Mostly, ‘acting interculturally’ also requires individuals to have certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills. However, ‘bicultural’ involves, for Paulston, modifying one’s behaviours yet not deeply because one’s beliefs are already acquired in childhood through the process of socialisation. Nevertheless, for someone to be intercultural, he should be willing to stop these values, even for a short time, for the sake of being capable to have clear insights into others’ values that are in mismatch with one’s own. Byram (2008, p. 69) used the example of Paulson to explain this point:

If a Swedish person is to act interculturally between someone who is always frank and someone who seeks to avoid embarrassment and hurt, then she must suspend her frankness. This might be difficult because it was acquired in early socialisation and she may need the help of a teacher to raise to consciousness the assumption that being frank is the only way to act, in order then to act differently.

2.2.2.3. Intercultural Competence

The phrase ‘intercultural competence’ (IC) is used interchangeably with ICC for many researchers (Barrett et al., 2014; Deardorff, 2009). However, Byram (1997) made a distinction

between the two. On the one hand, ICC involves the ability to communicate appropriately and effectively with individuals from different cultures using the target language. On the other hand, IC involves the use of the native language to interact successfully with individuals belonging to a different culture. That is, the main difference between IC and ICC is only in the language used, native or target, since both of them requires someone to interact successfully without communicative problems.

2.2.3. Intercultural Communicative Competence Models

A plethora of models emerged to explain ICC. Each one of them has its components and conceptualisations which distinguished it from other models such as *Deardorff Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence*, *Fantini Intercultural Interlocutor Competence Model*, *Ting-Toomey and Kurogi Facework-Based Model of Intercultural Competence*, *Byram Intercultural Communicative Competence Model*, *Bennett Developmental Intercultural Competence Model*, *Deardorff Process Model of Intercultural Competence* (Spitsberg & Changnon, 2009). In what follows, Byram's and Deardorff's models will be explicated.

2.2.3.1. Byram's Model

Byram's (1997) ICC model was developed in 1997 and emerged from Van Ek's model of 'communicative ability' in 1986. Byram's (1997) model gave importance to non-verbal communication. It is made up of five components (Byram, 1997, as cited in Byram, 2008, p. 69):

- Attitudes: of curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and beliefs about one's own (*savoir etre*).

- *Knowledge*: of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction (savoir).
- *Skills of interpreting and relating*: ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and to relate it to documents from one's own (savoir s'engager).
- *Skills of discovery and interaction*: ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction (savoir apprendre/faire).
- *Critical cultural awareness/polical education*: an ability to acquire and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (savoir s'engager).

Attitudes, for Byram, mean that individuals should stop making negative judgements. Alternatively, they should be curious and open towards other cultures. Besides, they should view one's culture in a relative way and in turn express acceptance towards the others. He added that the attitude component is linked to other components but not in a sense of a reason that results in something else.

As stated above, knowledge is of two types. The first kind exists with all individuals to different extents by means of the process of socialisation. Individuals acquire knowledge first by means of primary socialisation that widely takes place amongst family members; it is through primary socialisation that people form their native identity and maybe others. Knowledge is also acquired by dint of secondary socialisation that occurs mostly in formal education. Hence, individuals acquire the first type of knowledge through the aforementioned processes. The second type of knowledge is acquired also from the process of socialisation even it is sometimes influenced by judgements and stereotypes. The knowledge between the speaker and another one from another country is affected by the power factor. Some countries are more

powerful than others. Thus, more knowledge about them is known by other countries. Importantly, Byram (1997) stressed the significance of knowledge only if it is complemented with skills.

Byram updated his model by working with other scholars as Barrett and Lazar (Barrett et al., 2014) on another model. However, one cannot say that it is a new model since it is built on the one developed in 1997 by Byram himself. However, this model has a new component which is action. Barrett et al. (2014) further gave a list of the four competences in detail, which are attitudes, knowledge and understanding, skills, and action. Each component is expressed in terms of certain abilities:

Attitudes are:

- Value cultural variety and differences in opinions and practices;
- Respect towards individuals whose cultures are diverse from one's own;
- Be open and curious to learn about others whose cultural affiliations are different from one's own;
- Be empathetic towards individuals belonging to other different cultures ;
- Question what is taken for granted as 'normal';
- Tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty;
- Look for chances to engage and co-operate with others who have different cultural affiliations.

'Knowledge and understanding' are the capacity to:

- Comprehend the cultural variety of others;
- Be aware and comprehend one's own and others' assumptions, preconceptions and stereotypes, prejudices, and overt and covert discrimination;

- Comprehend the impact of both one's and the others' language and culture on world experience;
- Develop communicative awareness, i.e., individuals belonging to different cultures may express the same ideas in much the same way as ours; however, it might differ depending on the rules and conventions governing language and culture;
- Comprehend interaction processes: cultural, societal, and individual

Skills that are needed in intercultural competence are below:

- The capacity to view the world from different perspectives, i.e., to decenter from one's own perspectives and to consider both other's perspectives as well as one's own ;
- Discover cultural information about others who are different ;
- Interpret others' cultural practices, beliefs, and values and then relate them to one's own ;
- Be empathetic, i.e., capable to comprehend and react to others' thoughts, beliefs, values, and feelings ;
- Be cognitively flexible, i.e., the capacity to be an adaptable individual thinking depending on the context ;
- Evaluate and judge critically one's and others' cultural beliefs, values, practices, discourses, and products as well as the capacity to explicate one's point of view ;
- Change one's behaviours to suit the new cultural environment ;
- Develop the linguistic, sociolinguistic competences ;
- Develop skills of plurilingualism to meet the communicative needs of an intercultural experience ;
- Act as a mediator in intercultural settings

Actions involved in intercultural competence include:

- Look for chances to engage with individuals who have different cultural affiliations ;
- Interact and communicate in an effective and appropriate way with others who belong to different cultures ;
- Co-operate and discuss with people who belong to different cultural affiliations and variations in point of views and build common ones ;
- Challenge attitudes and behaviours that are against human rights but rather support individuals' rights without considering their cultural belongings, i.e., without discrimination.

This model is adopted in this study amongst many others. First, it is developed to be used in an educational setting (Byram, 1997) unlike other models. Thus, this matches with the context and purposes of this study. Besides, this model is much cited and very influential in the field (Behrnda & Porzelt, 2012; Musli, 2011; Sercu, 2005). Furthermore, this model is the most suitable to be used given that it is meant to be used in pedagogy, and Byram (1997) provided further objectives to be used in teaching as well as assessment. Likewise, Barrett et al.'s (2014) model is based on Byram's model, and it is detailed and practical. Thus, ICC, in this study, is made up of attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness.

2.3.2. Deardorff's Model

Deardorff developed the pyramid model in 2006. His framework sprang from research. That is, a study was conducted by Deardorff to find out the most agreed definition of ICC, and different scholars participated in this intercultural study. Intercultural scholars gave a consensus that ICC is defined as “effective and appropriate behavior and communication in intercultural situations” (Deardorff, 2009, p.36; as cited in Deardorff & Jones, 2012, p. 6). Besides, scholars who participated in this study concurred that ICC is composed of five components: attitudes, knowledge, skills, internal outcomes, and external outcomes. Importantly, promoting ICC does

not occur at one point in time where one can completely be intercultural competent; however, it is a long-life experience. Additionally, the knowledge component is not enough for the development of IC, yet it should be linked with other components such as the attitudes of empathy and respect (Deardorff & Jones, 2012).

- Attitudes : The attitudes that appeared to be prominent are respect, curiosity, openness, and discovery. Curiosity and openness mean “a willingness to risk and to move outside one’s comfort zone” (p.6).
- Knowledge : Intercultural scholars agreed that knowledge is of three types : cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge, and cultural awareness. The first refers to the procedure in which the native culture affects one’s identity and ways of viewing the world. Regarding culture-specific knowledge or deep cultural knowledge, all scholars without exception gave consensus on its significance, implying comprehending how the others view the world.
- Skills: Skills refer to the acquisition and internalization of knowledge. This process requires *observation, listening, evaluating, analysing, interpreting, and relating*. It is not enough to acquire only knowledge, yet one should put that knowledge into practice.
- Internal outcomes: When attitudes, knowledge, and skills are acquired and processed, this results in internal outcomes that are made up of “flexibility, adaptability, and ethnorelative perspective and empathy” (Deardorff & Jones, 2012, p. 7). These are features that happen within the individual due to the acquisition of attitudes, knowledge, and skills that are a prerequisite to be interculturally competent. At this stage, people are capable to view the world as seen by others and to react in an appropriate way as other individuals wished to be treated and, hence, showing the attitude of empathy. Importantly, these internal outcomes may be reached with different levels of success

according to how much attitudes, skills, and knowledge are acquired as stated in this model.

- **External outcomes:** They refer to the appropriate and effective behaviour displayed when people communicate with each other as a result to the acquisition of attitudes, knowledge, and skills as well as internal processes. That is, through successful communication and effective and appropriate behaviour, the external outcomes of ICC are shown. Nonetheless, it is of crucial importance to comprehend the implications of appropriateness and effectiveness. While effectiveness “can be determined by the interlocutor”, appropriateness “can be determined only by the other person_ with appropriateness being directly related to language fluency, cultural sensitivity, and the adherence to cultural norms of that person” (Deardorff & Jones, 2012, p. 7)

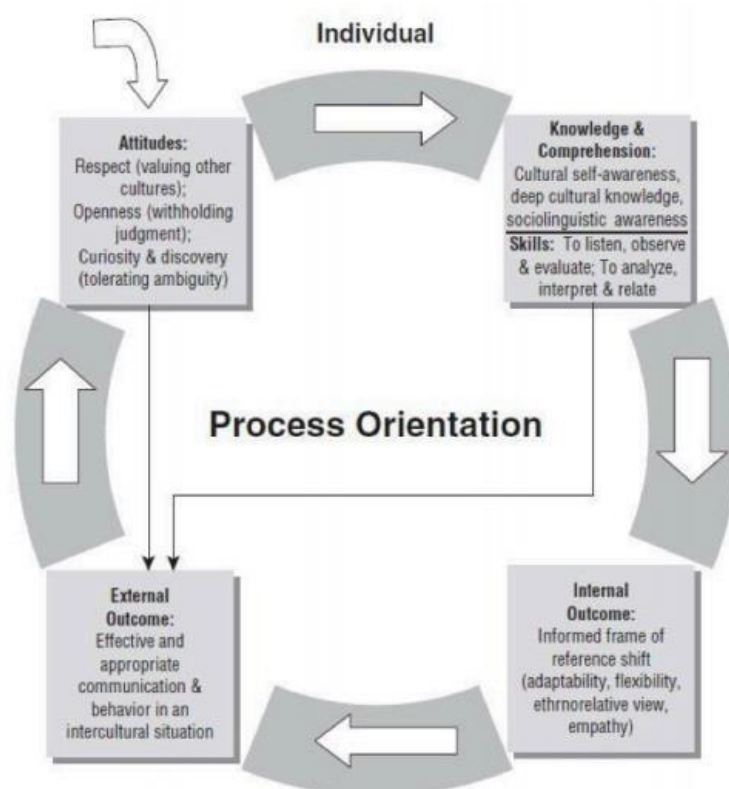


Figure 2.1. ICC process model of Deardorff (Deardorff, 2006, p. 256).

2.4. Intercultural Approach/ Intercultural Pedagogy

Teaching a FL involves not only developing the linguistic competence and communicative skills but also learners' intercultural awareness and skills (Aleksandrowicz-Pedich, Draghicescu, Issaiass, & Sabec, 2003). Developing one's ICC does not mean that the native culture should be replaced by the target culture. Instead, there should be understanding and tolerance towards others and dealing with them without judgements (Byram, 1991).

Barrett et al. (2014) defined intercultural education as “a pedagogy_ aims, content, learning processes, teaching methods, syllabus and materials, and assessment_ of which is to develop intercultural competence in learners of all ages” (p. 27). Deardorff and Jones (2012) stated that after setting a clear definition of ICC and setting clear objectives for teaching, the method used in teaching ICC would be specified depending on the educational institution.

Byram's model is “firmly based in foreign language teaching” (Byram, 2009, p. 322). He believes that ICC is much acquired within an educational setting. Byram, in his 1997 model, put much focus on the pedagogical goals of FL teaching. It is shown in the fifth dimension, ‘critical cultural awareness’ (savoir s'engager). Further, the model provides teachers with objectives that help in the planning process as well as in the assessment procedure (Byram, 2009). He further emphasised the significance of explicit objectives in the learning process since they help the teacher to decide whether he realised his wants or not.

Dai (2011) had the same opinion as Oxford (1994) when she divided culture teaching into three parameters: information sources, activity-types, and positive interactions.

- *Information sources*: First, students should be motivated to gather information from different sources. In so doing, students will be self-reliant and will not depend on others to obtain the data needed. The development of technology facilitated the teaching of culture by integrating various technology sources when designing cultural courses and

at the same time helped teachers to cater to learners' different learning styles using a mixture of visual, audio, and tactile materials. Some of the aforementioned sources are mentioned below:

Table 2.1.

Information Sources (Dai, 2011, p. 1032)

Extract from literary	Multimedia software
Internet	DVD and CDs
Films and TV	Illustration
Encyclopedias	Videos
Literature	Information sources
	Newspapers, magazines
Background information	Interviews
Anecdotes	Photographs
Fieldwork	Plays and songs

- *Various Activity types*: Dai (2011) proposed several activities where the role of the teacher is to check that learners are engaged in the task.
- a. *Conducting topic-oriented activity*: The teacher suggests a topic to be discussed by learners. This topic is tackled using learners' cultural conventions and norms. When the learners are misled by their native culture, the teacher intervenes, in this case, to adjust them to the target culture. The nature of the topics to be discussed differ from one culture

to another. The teacher should assist students to overcome the cultural barriers between the native culture and the target culture.

- b. *Taking activity logs:* It refers to the activity of noting down every detail that has to do with one's experiences that are taking place in the confines of the classroom and outside it or writing the answers and reactions when learning about the culture and doing culture-related activities in the class. The advantage point from this activity is that it assists learners to reflect on their learning, to evaluate their achievements, practice their writing skills, and to establish a dialogue between the teacher and the student through students' questions and teachers' feedback.
- c. *Selecting authentic materials:* authentic materials are very crucial to be employed in teaching due to their richness with cultural behaviours such as dialogues, videotapes, and films. Yet, teachers should opt for the appropriate materials for learners that match their levels and their interests. Thanks to what technology can afford, teachers are given the chance to provide learners with a cultural background in order to promote their cultural insights and to increase their interests and motivation.
- d. *Employing prediction:* this activity can be employed by foreseeing the content of both listening and reading materials and then checking if their predictions are right or wrong in order to get a clear insight into the material. Prediction differs from guessing in that the former requires learners to use their background knowledge about the language and to be aware of the cultural differences, and this in turn would lead to a reasonable prediction. Learners should be motivated to use beneficial predictions and to activate previous knowledge in their minds. If the students were lacking cultural information, this would influence the understanding of the material. Prediction can be used differently to expect what students will learn. An example of how to use prediction in a listening activity is to make students listen to the first part of the video or audio and then

ask them to predict what the second part will be about. In addition, another way to use prediction is to let students listen silently and then ask them to predict the content of the material. Learners also may be given the title of the material which oblige them to activate their background knowledge and increase their curiosity to see if their prediction is right or not.

- e. *Doing research-based learning*: it is a when learners do research to finish a task. Doing research also involves investigating an event, an issue, or a phenomenon through systematic and objective procedures. The activity of doing research may take different forms as individual or group work as it may take a short or a long period to be done depending on the complexity of the task. An instance of a research based-learning task requires learners first to select an interesting topic and then search on the net or through reading books to gather as much information as possible about any interesting element that has to do with the target culture, compile the collected data in a bouclet then present it to the class. Learners can also explicate to their teachers what they have learned from the task as they may respond to any question. As a result, this may boast learners' interest to know more about the target culture.
1. *Positive classroom interaction*: the process of learning a SL is not an easy task where various variables come into play. Regarding socio-cultural elements of the contexts, an approach that involves interaction guarantees that the social factor of SL development and instruction participates in getting better results on language learning, which in turn leads to make learners self-reliant and independent in their learning, raise their motivation, and create variation in the context of learning.

According to Barrett et al. (2014), IC can be developed via intercultural education and training. Various types of education are used to promote IC in diverse ways. The Council of Europe (2010) provided the definitions of three kinds of education.

1. Informal education: it refers to the life-long procedure by which individuals need cognitive, affective, and behavioural abilities “from the educational influences and resources in his or her own environment and daily experience and conversation (family, peer group, neighbours, encounters, library, mass media, work play, etc.)” (p. 14).
2. Non-formal education: it refers to any organized program of education developed to enhance several skills outside the confines of the classroom.
3. Formal education: it refers to “the structured education and training system that runs from pre-primary and primary through secondary school and on to higher education. It takes place, as a rule, at general or vocational educational institutions and usually leads to certification” (p.14).

A strong link is found among the three kinds of education; in each type, ‘a facilitator of learning’ and ‘learners’ are present. An instance is between parents and kids in informal learning or adult learners learning in collaboration and benefit from one another. In non-formal education, the relationship is shown between ‘trainers’ and ‘adults’, for instance. However, in formal settings, the teacher is the facilitator of the learning process to students (Barrett et al., 2014, p. 28).

Enhancing learners’ ICC is crucial and requires the ones concerned with facilitating the learning process to plan carefully and take action. Barrett et al. (2014) suggested some rules to be followed while planning. They are related to the diverse elements of ICC (knowledge, attitudes, skills, and action):

- *Experience*: The best way to develop new attitudes as respect and openness and to develop new cultural knowledge is via experiencing the way in which the others behave and converse. Another way of learning via experience, real or created, is

through games, tasks, social media, and role-plays, etc. Besides, parents can visit other places with their kids, or they can choose books for them.

- *Comparison*: When learners are exposed to differences in cultures, they usually judge them as ‘inferior’, ‘strange’, ‘underdeveloped’, etc. Therefore, the facilitator’s job is to try to change the negative judgements and make them stop judging the others at all either in a negative or a positive way. Instead, they should take the difference into an advantage point of view to develop attitudes of respect and understanding towards the others. They should understand that the individuals may have different views on something or someone, and this is considered normal.
- *Analysis*: individuals who belong to the same cultural group share the same cultural heritage (behaviours, values, rituals, etc.), and there must be an explanation behind them. Thus, the facilitators’ job is to help learners analyse “what may lie beneath what they can see others doing and saying”. It can be done, for instance, “by careful discussion and analysis, through inquiry-based methods, of written or audio/video sources”. As such, “the analysis can then be reflected back on the learners so that they may question their own practices, values and beliefs” (p. 16).
- *Reflection*: comparison, analysis, and experience are important for developing aspects of ICC when joined by time and space for reflection and the development of critical awareness and understanding. In so doing, facilitators are required to be certain that such time and space are given in an organised manner especially in non-formal and formal education. For instance, students may be required to speak about their experiences and motivated to use a logbook daily to evaluate their learning and include every detail learned there. However, parents may discuss with their kids their experiences too.

- *Action* : reflections upon one's experiences can and should be the heart of taking action, conversing with others via intercultural conversations, and taking part in collaborative tasks with individuals who belong to other cultures. The role of facilitators is to motivate, control learners to work cooperatively and to make sure that all learners should show respect and rely on themselves while taking action.

The fifth of them can be used in both formal and non-formal education in case the pedagogical practices are in match with the educational goal of enhancing ICC in any subject.

2.3.1. Pedagogical Approaches

Developing ICC using 'lecturing', is an 'old-fashioned' way of teaching, proves to be inappropriate when the teacher who has an active role imparts knowledge to learners. When giving students information about freedom and respect, the significance of ICC will be useless unless teachers use what is learned in practice, i.e., communication (Barrett, et al., 2014).

- *Experiential learning* or *learning by doing* was found out to be more effective than lecturing when comes to enhancing ICC and making changes in one's attitudes, knowledge, skills, and action.
- When competence was introduced in the field of FL education, many pedagogical techniques were suggested in order to make the process of learning easier. For instance, *project work* became widespread in the teaching of various subjects. Project work is based upon activities built on topics or themes that go with different ages and levels, where all individuals that would be involved in the tasks discuss the aims and the content, and students develop their learning materials in which they present and make a value judgement about them.

➤ *Cooperative learning* is an approach whose implementation helps develop students' ICC. It refers to the procedure by which learning is set and "...a specific kind of collaborative learning in which students or participants do not simply work on unstructured tasks in pairs or small groups but work together on activities that have specific cooperative principles built into the very structure of the tasks " (p. 21-22). Learners in such an approach are self-reliant. The members of the group should be fewer so that all of them get a chance to participate. Groups can be organised online or face-to-face. There should be "a constructive and encouraging interdependence" between the members of the group to result in "improved social skills and conflict resolution strategies, and a gradual decrease in labeling and exclusion of individual members " (p. 22). In this way, learners develop new attitudes, knowledge, skills, and at the same time let others benefit from theirs. It is important to make learners feel at ease in the cooperative approach. The facilitator should clearly describe the activity and its aim for learners so that they work collaboratively and effectively. This is further stated in the following quote :

Contact with other languages and cultures provides an excellent opportunity to foster the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC, or intercultural competence, for short). Once intercultural contact has begun, ICC development generally evolves as an on-going and lengthy process. (Fantini, 2005, p.1)

Gabrovec (2007) believes that literature, films, and music help in promoting ICC because in literature "artifacts are mentioned and described, mentifacts and sociofacts are discussed and presented in action" (p. 19). In other words, literature is very rich with cultural artifacts despite the belief that claimed that literature is hard. For films, everything became visual in this period, "visual culture", "visual texts", and "visual generations". Films do not need to be justified for this reason because everything is seen in films. What is worth using movies while teaching

is that they provide the opportunity of meeting various cultural rituals, beliefs, ways of behaving, etc., in the confines of the classroom. As such, what is required from the teacher is to select carefully the appropriate materials for learners and to make the necessary modifications on them so that they meet their needs.

Kackere, Lazar, and Matei (2007) suggested some recommendations to be taken into consideration while planning courses that their major aim is the development of ICC. It is also worth mentioning that what is proposed should be modified to suit the situation as well as students' needs. Thus, the following questions should be considered:

1. *Who*: the first step that should be identified is who the participants of the course are. In addition, it is necessary to collect data about the participants as it is supposed that they need to learn various aspects as well as the extent to which they are motivated to take part in the ICC course.
2. *Why*: One should specify the purpose of the course. The best way to do this is to conduct a needs analysis before the course begins. Otherwise, one may know students' needs in an informal way. Kackere et al. (2007) suggested three stages to be taken into account (p.12):
 - Based on the information that one has, analyse the target situation: what knowledge or skills (or other aspects of intercultural competence) the participants will need in their work.
 - Compare what they have already known or have with what is required from them.
 - Think about their needs, expectations and reasons for attending the workshop.After this procedure, the major goal (s) of the course can be specified.
3. *Why* : The study may aim to achieve what follows :
 - To raise cultural awareness.

- To develop the participants' intercultural competence, etc.

After setting the goal(s), one should write the objectives of the course. For instance:

- To argue one's own opinion respectfully and listen to others' without premature judgement;
- To work in a group and encourage openness, empathy and cooperation;
- To deal with culture clashes and culture shock, etc.

After setting the goals, one should decide upon the content that will be presented in the course that aims at the development of ICC. In what follows, a list can be suggested for discussion:

- The target language culture's (C2) social practices, customs and lifestyle;
- Similarities and differences in values, beliefs and norms between C1 and C2;
- Cultural differences in perception between C1 and C2, C3, etc;
- The nature and dangers of stereotyping;
- Non-verbal communication and proxemics;
- Attitudes of openness, curiosity, empathy and non-judgemental thinking, etc.

One should think of how to organise the course and consider the period of the course as well as the participants' ages, number, and level. If the group is large, it can be divided into small groups. Interestingly, Kackere et al. (2007) suggested the following techniques and activity types (pp. 16-17):

- Brainstorming (to map out what participants have in mind about certain issues);
- Short presentations (to find out about participants' experiences to provide input for further discussion);

- Critical incidents (to raise awareness of cultural differences and their importance in communication);
- Role-plays and simulations (to experience as much as possible what it is like to communicate with people from other cultures);
- Project work (to give ideas for culturally enriching projects that participants can do with their trainees or students in their teaching work);
- Ethnographic tasks (to give ideas about the learning potential in doing interviews and observations);
- Quizzes (to offer the group concrete information about different cultures and thus stimulate a purposeful discussion in small groups);
- Pair or small group discussions help the participants loosen up before discussing the ideas with the whole group or class;
- Discussion: essentially after each of the above activity type, it is of great importance to exchange ideas, discuss the participants' own experiences and generate further thoughts. Discussions help both the workshop [or course] facilitator and the participants to clarify their attitude towards the stated questions or the perceived problems.

2.3.2. Intercultural Tasks

Corbett (2003) talked about intercultural tasks where he adopted Nunan's (1989) task framework. According to Nunan (1989), the task is made up of six components _ goal, input, activities, learner's role, and teacher's role_ that should be identified in any activity that involves interaction. Corbett (2003) argued that these six parts can be adapted when the aim behind the task is to promote communicative skills and raise cultural awareness. The six parts are to be explained below.

- *Goals*: They refer to “the pedagogical purpose behind the task” (Corbett, 2003, p. 41). The purpose behind doing a cultural task entails an amalgamation of developing linguistic competence and exploring the intercultural dimension. The goals opted to be included in any kind of the course are governed by several factors: to what extent does the learner have contact with the target culture? What is the learners’ level? What are the learners’ reasons behind participating in the target culture (i.e., is it for educational purposes, for doing business, for tourism, etc.)?
- *Input*: It refers to “the stimulus provided by the teacher for the learning to occur” (Corbett, 2003, p. 41). There are several forms of input: written, spoken, and visual. Materials used in teaching for providing input are of two types: authentic and inauthentic materials. Authentic materials are originated for other purposes than teaching. Authentic materials such as newspaper articles are used as proof for showing the real image of a culture. Corbett (2003) argued that the tasks used in classrooms where the intercultural approach is adopted are inauthentic since they require more interpretation than the native speakers would be involved in. As such, inauthentic materials can be used to develop interculturality where they are created by the teacher for the sake of teaching such as doing ethnographic tasks (interviews and observations). When constructing an inauthentic material, it is of significance to respect the purpose behind the cultural task.
- *Activities*: To achieve the purpose of intercultural tasks, a myriad of activities can be employed. Learners may gather information and share it in the class, work in groups or through presentations as they may discuss various observations and results they reach. Moreover, after learners observe different cultural behaviours, they may be asked to act on these behaviours through role-plays, simulations, or even by writing similar texts.

- *Learner's Role:* Learners' roles change as there is a move from an activity to another or from a step to another within the same activity. As courses develop, there might be a change in the learners' roles depending on how much responsibility they have to take for gathering, organising, assessing, reporting, and/or reconstructing the teaching materials representing cultural behaviours. When the course begins, the learners need assistance, 'scaffolding', from the teacher to do the activities, through guiding learners. In the latter stages, learners may hope to discuss, start with a series of tasks, or may participate in designing and performing tasks.
- *Teacher's role:* When the course begins, the teacher will be in charge of giving materials for the tasks, proposing and explaining how they are used for better development of ICC. The teacher might also give ways of evaluations, and suggest linguistic forms and communicative strategies that might be employed in exploring cultural behaviours. The teacher becomes 'a negotiator' when the course evolves to find out what the learners are interested in and what is required from the institution. With time, learners succeed in becoming self-reliant and self-confident. Thus, the teacher becomes a guide and an advisor instead of a controller.
- *Settings:* Several settings can be used when undertaking intercultural tasks such as individual work, pair work, group work, or whole-class. The teacher should employ variant settings in a course; as a result, learners gain peer interaction. Nevertheless, despite their effectiveness, not all the settings are free from limitations.

2.4. Intercultural Communicative Competence Assessment

After designing and implementing tasks for developing ICC, the role of evaluation and assessment come into play. First, one should differentiate between them. For Barrett et al. (2014), evaluation is defined as "the observation and measurement of the effectiveness of a lesson, course, or programme of study whose aim includes the development of learners'

intercultural communication” whereas assessment is defined as “the measurement or systematic description of a learner’s degree of proficiency in intercultural competence” (p. 34). Assessment is related to tests, they it is regarded as one kind of it (Barrett et al., 2014; Byram, in press).

2.4.1. Attitudes on the Assessment of ICC

It is argued that the assessment of ICC is full of problems. For example, Deardorff (2009) believes that ICC may be difficult to assess. In the same vein, Byram, Gribcova, and Starkey (2002) stated that all models are full of shortcomings, and no one is perfect that is why the acquisition of ICC cannot be complete. However, others’ opinions on the possibility of assessing ICC are different. Some believe that ICC is impossible to be assessed due to its complex nature like Kramsch (2009). Nonetheless, others (e.g., Byram, Bennett, Hammer) believe the opposite to the extent that they share common views on methods used for the assessment of ICC. These views were expressed in a study conducted by Deardorff (2009).

Table 2.2

Assessment Items with 80% to 100% Agreement among Top Intercultural Experts (Deardorff, 2009, p.478)

WAYS TO ASSESS INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE INCLUDE :				
Accepted	Rejected	Mean	SD	Item
18	2	3.2	0.9	Case studies
18	2	2.9	1.0	Interviews
17	3	3.7	0.8	Mix of quantitative and qualitative measures
17	3	3.4	0.7	Qualitative measures
17	3	3.2	0.9	Analysis of narrative diaries
17	3	3.2	0.9	Self-report instruments
17	3	3.2	0.9	Observations by others/host culture
17	3	3.1	1.0	Judgements by self and others
16	4	3.1	1.1	Developing specific indicators for each component/dimension of ICC and evidence of each indicator
16	4	3.0	1.2	Triangulation (use of multiple data collection efforts as collaborative evidence for the validity of qualitative research findings)

It is revealed from the above table that interviews and case studies are highly accepted by almost all the participants in the study. The whole majority of scholars expressed their acceptance to

other tools such as mixing quantitative and qualitative measures, analysing narrative diaries, observations by others, judgements by self or other.

2.4.2. Principles on ICC Assessment

The first step to do when assessing and/or developing ICC is to decide upon a conceptual definition of ICC as well as its components. Then, one should decide upon the link between the components (Deardorff, 2009; Fantini, 2020; Van de Vijver & Leung, 2009). After choosing the most significant elements of ICC, one should move to the identification of goals and the specification of objectives linked to the aspects given priority. That is, it is not enough just to define ICC because ICC definitions and models are generally vague; it is necessary to produce particular outcomes that will be the focus of the assessment process. Deardorff (2009) defined goals as ‘end destination’. However, objectives are “the means by which the goal, or destination, is reached. Objectives specify concrete learning expectations and how the learners will achieve the end goal” (p. 481). Additionally, Byram (2020) asserted that each sub-competence of ICC should be displayed with some objectives which should be *learnable, teachable, and assessable*. A good case in point is Byram’s (1997) model which is formulated in such a way where each competence is coupled with objectives that can be used by teachers while planning courses or assessing students’ ICC. These objectives are a description of what students can achieve when the course finishes in terms of attitudes, knowledge, and skills. It is widely spread that measurable objectives are described using “the acronym SMART: Specific (what, why, and how), Measurable, Action-oriented, Realistic, and Time delineated” (Deardorff, 2009, p. 482).

It was widespread to assess knowledge and skills. On the contrary, it was not familiar to assess attitudes because they cannot be measured. Moreover, it is unacceptable to assess just two or three aspects of ICC, but rather all dimensions must be measured (Fantini, 2009).

Arguably, the traditional way of assessment –paper-and-pencil tests are not efficient tools of IC. Rather, new ways of assessment are very effective for ICC assessment as *portfolios* and *interviews* (Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002 ; Fantini, 2009, p. 462). Fantini (2009) also emphasized the fact that ICC assessment should be part and parcel of other components that constitute the whole educational process, as setting objectives, designing courses, and implementing them. He added that the assessment procedure should be linked to aims and objectives. That is, learners are assessed to see if the objectives are attained or not. In other words, teachers should be able to set appropriate objectives that aim to develop ICC and to be able to measure the already objectives (Fantini, 2009).

Deardorff (2004, p. 324) mentioned several extra factors that have to do with the quality of the assessment:

- First of all, the purpose_ that is, why assess?
- The target audience_ that is, who is to be tested?
- Clarity about successful outcomes_ that is, what outcomes are being assessed?
- The use of paper assessment tools and strategies that are aligned with the learning outcomes
- The assessment procedure_ that is, how the test is administered, evaluated, and scored
- Aspects of the tests used _that is, their scope, efficiency, and length as well as their validity and reliability
- Representative and varied samples of student achievement_ that is, ongoing and not just end-testing)
- Avoiding bias_ that is, extraneous interference that may affect obtaining adequate and appropriate samples

However, several other tools can be used in assessment as learner assessment can be done by the teacher, or students can assess themselves (self-assessment or by their peers _peer-assessment) (Lussier et al., 2007). Because one's ICC level can be promoted through different intercultural experiences, it cannot be measured regarding good achievements towards a finite aim but rather to the degree to which one is capable of communicating in an effective and appropriate manner in an intercultural setting (Deardorff, 2009).

Deardorff (2009) stated that she faced several problems while trying to assess ICC, or IC as she named it. They are summarized below:

1. What is to assess was not apparent from the definition (there was no reference to theories of IC while thinking of a definition). The best way of setting a definition of IC is to check the literature.
2. Assessing IC randomly _that is, an assessment plan is absent, increases the possibility of not assessing the already defined goals and learning objectives.
3. It is not appropriate to use others' assessment plans and methods in one's study because they are not necessarily suitable to one's goals and objectives. Hence, it is required to take into account both one's goals and objectives when developing the assessment plan, select the tools because each study has its particularities, and adopt different IC components.
4. It is required to include more than one individual in the process of assessment to benefit from others' incorporation and skills. Besides, there should be room for discussion between learners and assessors about the expected level to be reached and the learning objectives.
5. *There are certain methods suitable for certain aspects of IC.* Thus, it is of significance to have a clear insight into each tool and to select those that are suitable in deciding whether the learning outcomes are realised or not.

6. *Assessing IC via the use of just one tool is not effective.* Because of its complexity, IC assessment requires the use of a combination of tools.
7. *Attempting to measure IC as a whole.* When using several tools to assess IC, it is advisable to select the important components to measure them for a particular period.
8. *Gathering data without using it later.* Commonly, the data collected from the assessment tools are not used. Instead, it should be a source for giving feedback to learners, developing the program or the course, and making the findings public to stakeholders. Hence, the role of assessment is only to gather what is employed; otherwise, there is no point in collecting it.
9. *A missing step is to ignore evaluating the assessment procedure and the assessment plan.* An important stage is to evaluate the effectiveness of the assessment plan and to suggest solutions for future betterment (whether tools were effective to collect what is required and whether selected aspects of IC would be kept for future studies or not). Besides, it is beneficial for the learner to measure the learning process “to be able to reflect on the overall process of his or her intercultural competence development and learning” (p. 487).
10. *The assessment is done /performed with the absence of the control group.* Relying on the assessment goal, a control group might be preferable to make sure that a particular intervention was effective in promoting learners’ IC.

2.4.2. Assessment Tools

Although several tools for assessing people’s mastery of diverse parts of IC are available, they are not appropriate for assessment in education and for giving certifications via exams. Thus, researchers are required to develop assessment procedures that can be employed in exams as assessment and teaching are part and parcel of each other. If ICC is only taught but without being included in exams, teachers and students will ignore it. Therefore, ICC assessment should

be related to teaching, and it should be incorporated carefully into the planning and putting the curriculum into practice (Barrett et al., 2014).

Deardorff (2009) stated that the use of only one method is not enough to measure the complexity of ICC. She (2006) reached the conclusion that is based on findings obtained from her study that a combination of tools should be employed when assessing ICC adequately. For the sake of getting reliable and valid data, more than two tools are required. Nevertheless, when using more than two tools, one should confirm that they are in fact assessing the same elements of IC in a match with the goals and learning objectives (Deardorff, 2009).

2.5. Studies on Promoting ICC in Learners

A myriad of studies worked on developing EFL learners' ICC using different teaching materials in different contexts and employing various research tools. For example, the effect of telecollaborations on developing learners' ICC has drawn the interest of many researchers. Helm (2009) investigated the effect of telecollaborations on ICC at a university in Italy. She collected data through electronic learners' diaries and a case study. The study aims at identifying proofs of intercultural learning. Thus, a project was launched where learners were asked to participate in intercultural exchanges with other learners from America via video-conferencing. A diary was kept with them so that they wrote their reflection and experiences on the project. A corpus of diary entries was analysed quantitatively. However, the case study of one student was analysed qualitatively. Findings revealed that the analysis of corpus diaries provided understanding of some of learners' attitudes. Furthermore, the case study revealed examples of Byram's *savoirs*. The researcher further recommended to mix approaches and to include learners' performance, for it is necessary to get the whole picture of students' ICC progress. Similarly, another research was conducted by Thomé-Williams (2016) who studied the use of Skype and Facebook on promoting university students' ICC in Portuguese. To do

that, Portuguese students interacted online with other students. At the end, students were asked to self-assess the effectiveness of the project as well as their intercultural learning. Results showed that students could benefit from the interaction via Skype and Facebook; they enjoyed the intercultural experience and enhanced both their language and intercultural skills.

Chao (2013) explored the effects of watching foreign films on intercultural learning. Fifty-two university students in Taiwan took part in the study where they were enrolled in an intercultural program that was based on teaching through films. The purpose of the study is to identify the perceptions of EFL learners. To collect data, students' diaries were used; the data were analysed through content analysis. It was found that several students made a progress in promoting intercultural motivation, attitudes, understanding, and awareness. He further recommended that educational institutions should accentuate intercultural learning/teaching and integrate films as pedagogical tools.

Several researchers worked on the implementation of the intercultural approach in EFL classes using different materials. An example of such studies is one conducted by Gunes and Mede (2019) in an elementary private school in Turkey. In their article, entitled 'Integration of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in an EFL course: Perceptions of students and teachers', it aims to investigate students' and teachers' perceptions on the implementation of ICC in an EFL course. To gather data, a pre- and a post- ICC scale, students' interviews, and teachers' reflective journals were used. Results demonstrated that learners' perceptions changed after ICC integration. That is, they became aware of differences between their native culture and other cultures and the important role that culture plays in the process of FL learning.

One of the ways of implementing the intercultural approach in EFL classes is through the use of authentic materials. Pinzon and Norely (2020) investigated the use of authentic materials and tasks in enhancing EFL students' ICC in a Columbian university through action research.

To gather data, three research tools were employed: two surveys (prior and at the end of the course), students' interview, and teacher's field notes. Results indicated that the use of authentic materials and tasks yielded to promoting specific behaviours and changing attitudes, such as the ability to show understanding, openness, respect, and interest in other cultures.

A myriad of studies worked on the development of ICC in the Algerian context (Bagui & Adder, 2020; Mizab, 2020; Nemouchi & Byram, 2019). An interesting study explored the implementation of a cross-cultural pragmatic approach for promoting third-year EFL learners' ICC at Jijel University (Bousba, 2017). That is, this research mainly aims at incorporating a cultural pragmatic syllabus through a quasi-experiment. To evaluate the effectiveness of the suggested syllabus, a discourse completion task was done by students before and after the treatment. Results revealed that learners' ICC level was promoted as the EG highly outperformed the CG in the post-test results.

Research on developing learners' ICC through literature are numerous, an example of which is Bouhidel's (2018) study. In her study, she attempted to test the effectiveness of literary texts in promoting second-year EFL learners' ICC at Batna University, Algeria. To do that, a quasi-experiment was conducted where literary texts were introduced into the subject of culture. To analyse the results obtained from the pre-test and the post-test, the t-test was used. Results indicated that integrating literary texts in the EFL class led not only to developing learners' ICC but also to promoting their English language learning.

Research on the impact of Tellecolaboration on ICC has appeared recently in Algeria. For example, Bennacer's (2019) project aims to explore the effects of telecollaborations via Facebook on promoting ICC in learners. The project enrolled Algerian students to interact via Facebook with Brazilian students and to participate in some tasks under the teacher's guidance. To analyse the data, a pre-test and a post-test were used. Findings revealed that the project

yielded positive results as students' ICC was enhanced compared with those students who did not take part in the research project, i.e., Facebook was not implemented in their classes.

Conclusion

Effective communication cannot take place without the interdependence of language and culture. Teaching a FL should entail also teaching its culture. Thus, with the introduction of the intercultural approach, FL teaching aims at the development of the IS rather than the NS. In other words, it seeks to promote learners' ICC which was the focal point discussed in this chapter. The procedures used in developing and assessing ICC have also been examined. The next chapter aims to evaluate the existing syllabuses from an intercultural point of view.

Chapter Two: Course Design in EFL Teaching

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Introduction

With the emergence of learner-centred approach in the realm of FL teaching, course and syllabus designers, policy makers, and even teachers involve students in the process of curriculum development by considering their needs. Hence, this chapter first examines the principles of syllabus design. A distinction between syllabus, course, and curriculum is provided. Then, a short overview of syllabus design is introduced so that one can understand how and when this process was initiated. Several syllabus types are listed and defined. Second, specific processes are explicated carefully as they represent steps that should be done before designing a course, the first of which is needs analysis. Third, after identifying learners' needs, setting objectives and goals will come next. This will proceed with the selection and sequencing of content. An important element that is also regarded is the development of materials. Finally, all the mentioned steps should be evaluated to assess the effectiveness of the course.

2.1. Syllabus Design

2.1.1. Definition of Syllabus

In North America, the terms 'syllabus' and 'curriculum' are mostly employed to mean the same thing (Nunan, 2004; Yalden, 1987). According to Nunan (1988a), the word 'syllabus' can be defined according to either a narrow or a broad approach to syllabus design. For the first view, a syllabus is only restricted to the selection and the organisation of content; others went far and included the specification of learning tasks and activities. That is, traditionally, a syllabus means the 'what'; later on, with the advent of new syllabuses, it becomes almost impossible to make a separation between the what (content) and the how (methodology).

2.1.2. Difference Between Curriculum, Course and Syllabus

By definition, curriculum "contains a broad description of general goals by indicating an over-all educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a

theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand”. A course is “an integrated series of teaching-learning experiences, whose ultimate aim is to lead the learners to a particular state of knowledge” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 65). A syllabus is a “more detailed and operational statement of teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level” (Dubin & Olshtain, pp. 34-35). One can understand that the relation between the three terms is that the curriculum is the umbrella term that embraces the view of the nature of language, the view of the nature of language learning, and the view of the nature of language teaching. However, the syllabus is the realisation of the curriculum that results from it and in turn refers to a specific audience with their own needs and objectives. That is, (Graves, 1996, p. 13), curriculum is a general term that is comprised of many components; course design is one of them, and in turn the design of a syllabus is another part of course design. In a similar way, Roberston (1971) defined the curriculum and the syllabus in what follows:

The curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community through classroom instruction and related programs...the syllabus should be viewed in the context of an ongoing curriculum development process. (as cited in Yalden, 1983, p.18)

1.3.1. Background to Syllabus Design

First, the concept of ‘syllabus design’ should be defined. According to Richards (2010), syllabus design refers to the way or the procedure by which a syllabus is developed. That is, it is where particular content is specified to be taught and evaluated.

The process of syllabus design started early in the 20C with what is called ‘vocabulary selection’ and ‘grammar selection’ (Richards, 2001). Hence, due to the selection done in these two areas, syllabus design was established in language teaching. When having a look at the history of language teaching, one can understand that methods were not based on a syllabus at that time.

At this stage, the concept of the method should be clarified. At the beginning of the twentieth century, there was a search for the best method. Therefore, a myriad of methods were introduced, and others vanished. It is of significant importance to know that teaching methods do not only describe the way of teaching but also the content of instruction. For instance, the direct method, which emerged as a reaction to the grammar translation method, describes both the how and the what of instruction. That is, it focuses on the use of the target language through teaching in a natural way and without resorting to the mother tongue. Besides, emphasis is put on the identification of the grammatical structures to be mastered and words to be learnt and the ones to be presented first and last. Thus, the direct method is not haphazard, but rather it “assumes a particular type of syllabus” (Richards, 2001, p. 3). Nevertheless, when new methods were developed after the demise of grammar translation method, their aims were not to address syllabus matters but rather with methodological principles and how to approach teaching.

Applied linguists shifted their interest to content and syllabus design issues related to the structural method. The specification of vocabulary and grammar to be taught was the first to be done, which in turn resulted in what is called selection and gradation. When designing courses and writing materials for language teaching, one of the major problems encountered is what should be included and excluded from the language. In other words, applied linguists should select certain elements of the language to be taught because it is impossible to teach everything

since the time is limited. Hence, at that time ‘vocabulary selection’ and ‘grammar selection’ resulted in the emergence of syllabus design in language teaching (Richards, 2001).

1.3.1.1.Vocabulary Selection

Vocabulary, which is considered as one of the core elements of the language, has been the object of applied linguistic studies. In this regard, applied linguists raised questions of how many words to teach and on what basis to teach some and exclude others. In other words, they encountered the problem of vocabulary selection in the field of language teaching. They wondered whether to leave the selection to the intuition of course planners and material writers or to set some criteria on which to base the selection. However, they argued that if the selection was kept to their intuition, it would lead to unrealistic findings (Richards, 2001).

The first criterion on which to base the selection of vocabulary is called ‘frequency’. It means taking into account the number of times words repeatedly appear in the text. However, the problem encountered while basing the selection on frequency was on what basis to choose the material type to be examined since the frequency in two different materials results in different frequency lists. Besides, it was found that frequency and range were not enough for deciding upon a wordlist since words that are highly frequent in written texts may or may not be the ones to be taught first in any language course. Thus, the following criteria were employed in identifying wordlists (Richards, 2001, p.8):

- *Teachability*: Teaching a lesson under the principles of concrete vocabulary must take place first since pictures and demonstrations can be used to facilitate the process of teaching.
- *Similarity*: Some words may be opted for because they share similarities with other words in the mother tongue. That is, some languages as French and English have items in common as spelling and meaning yet different in pronunciation.

- *Availability*: Some items are probably not frequent. However, when some topics are mentioned, these items come directly to one's mind.
- *Coverage*: Teaching the items that entail the meaning of other items is essential.
- *Defining Power*: Despite their lack of frequency, some words are selected due to their significance in defining other items of the like as the word 'container' defines other words as *bucket*, *far*, and *cartoon*.

Following the steps to vocabulary selection results in a list of 'basic vocabulary' or a 'lexical syllabus' ; that is to say, it consisted of the words that represent the cornerstone of a language, and most of the time these words were presented into groups such as the first 500 words, the second 500 words, and so on.

1.3.1.2. Grammar Selection and Gradation

Like vocabulary, in the 1920s, applied linguists felt a strong need to select the basic grammatical structures to be taught systematically since grammar rules are numerous (Richards, 2001). To illustrate, according to Wilkins (1976), there are many grammatical structures used to ask for permission, so the question asked was on what basis one should select the grammatical structures to be taught. According to the old teaching traditions, grammar teaching was dealt with differently according to the teaching method adopted (Richards, 2001). For instance, it was very common that teachers started with the auxiliary 'to be', 'this' and, 'that', etc. However, if much emphasis was put on reading, teachers would start with tenses used in narration (Hornby, 1959).

The findings of a study conducted by Li and Richards (1995) on the examination of the grammatical rules used in five textbooks revealed that they employed a myriad of grammatical structures represented by 221 rules. In addition, the number of these rules varied from one book to another. That is, they differed in the number of rules used from a book to another which had

an impact in turn on how learners viewed the book regarding difficulty or easiness. What is also worth mentioning is that only a few items were repeated in the five books, yet almost half of the items were found just in one book. This shows that the authors of the five books had various perceptions of the grammar that learners are required to master.

Starting from the 1930s, applied linguists started to implement the procedures of selection in designing grammatical syllabuses. Nevertheless, the problem faced while selecting grammar rules was related to gradation, that is, the way grammatical structures were grouped and ordered. In other words, a grammatical syllabus includes both the selection of grammatical structures to be taught and the way in which they are ordered (Richards, 2001).

Palmer (1922) was the first who worked on the selection of vocabulary and grammar. He argued that grammar rules are numerous and cannot be taught altogether. However, some rules are more essential than others and, thus, should be selected to be taught and then organised on that basis. Unlike vocabulary selection, the frequency procedure was not used with grammatical syllabuses. These syllabuses were organised and selected based on teaching first what is straightforward to be learned and delaying what is viewed to be difficult. In addition, some criteria were employed and proposed as the core of designing grammatical syllabuses:

- *Simplicity and Centrality*: This requires selecting simple grammatical structures and excluding those that are complex.
- *Frequency*: It was suggested for the development of grammatical syllabuses, but it was important only to some extent because it was hard to put codes for examining the grammatical structures. Later on, with the availability of computers, the ability to analyse the grammatical units used in real-life conversations became possible.
- *Learnability*: According to second language acquisition (SLA) research (Dulay & Burt, 1993, 1974), there is an order of acquiring the grammatical rules; that is, some rules

tend to be acquired before others. Consequently, grammatical syllabuses should take into consideration these findings when designing materials for teaching (Richards, 2001).

Not only the procedures for the selection of grammatical structures should be identified but also those about the organisation of the items. In what follows, some approaches to the organisation are introduced:

- *Linguistic Distance*: According to Lado (1957), items that share something in common should be taught first, or before those which are dissimilar to the native language.
- *Intrinsic Difficulty*: What is simple precedes what is complex is a rule to be followed when grading a syllabus.
- *Communicative Need*: Despite their difficulty, some grammatical structures are required to be taught at the beginning, an example of that is the simple past in English because it is unavoidable to use the past for long when teaching.
- *Frequency*: The gradation of structures and grammatical units may be influenced by the criterion of frequency (Richards, 2001).

There are basic assumptions behind the principles of syllabus design. They were introduced at the beginning of the twentieth century and in turn appeared to have shortcomings that should be taken care of when designing other syllabuses:

1. The basic units of language are vocabulary and grammar.
2. Learners everywhere have the same needs.
3. Learners' needs are identified exclusively in terms of language needs.
4. The process of learning a language is largely determined by the textbook.
5. The context of teaching is English as a foreign language. (Richards, 2001 pp.15-

16)

1.3.2. Syllabus Types

In the past, there was a surge of interest to the kinds of language components that were included in the syllabus, and to how they were ordered (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). In what follows, several syllabus types are discussed.

1.1.4.1. The Structural Syllabus

The structural syllabus (also grammatical or linguistic) is “centered around items such as tenses, articles, singular/plural complementation, adverbial forms, etc” (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 37). The grammatical syllabus is considered the most common among other types, and it is still the kind that its content is chosen and sequenced according to the criterion of what is simple comes before what is complex (Nunan, 1988a). The language in the grammatical syllabus is made up of a limited number of grammatical rules that can be related to each other in different ways. As a result, an unlimited number of sentences that vary in the meaning they express can be generated. Language learning can take place step by step; that is, students learn one rule at a time, and after they finish, they are introduced to others in an additive way. Further, it is hypothesised that when learners master the rules, they will be able to use them in real-life communication and generalise them to other contexts (Nunan, 1988a).

However, this kind of syllabus was hotly criticised for several reasons. A major criticism was that the grammatical syllabus neglects other important facets of the language and views it as just made up of grammar rules. Critiques were also addressed to it since it is hard to develop such kind of syllabus because of the specification of grammar items that require the adoption or modification of the materials to avoid getting a natural context for language use. Further, it was found that a grammar rule can express different functions, and a function can be expressed using different forms. However, the grammatical syllabus fails to cater for the communicative purpose of language, as it made no match between the grammatical forms and the functions they express.

This syllabus was also downplayed by the findings of some researchers in SLA (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1973). It was found that learners tend to acquire the grammatical rules in a certain order, which is the same for all learners regardless of their first languages and their ages be they children or adults. This revealed that these findings should be applied when writing materials; otherwise, what is taught would not have an impact on the pre-specified order of acquisition. That is, syllabus planners should consider this order while developing a syllabus rather than basing it on the simplicity and complexity characteristics. In addition, the way of ordering the syllabus grammatically and presenting one item each time was full of shortcomings. In doing so, the process of SLA can be hindered because it is a global process (Long, 1987).

1.1.4.2. The Notional-functional Syllabus

First, the terms ‘functions’ and ‘notions’ should be explicated. Nunan (1988a) defined them as “[functions] the communicative purposes for which we use language” while notions are “the conceptual meanings (objects, entities, states of affairs, logical relationships, and so on’) expressed through language” (p. 35). That is, functions are employed by speakers to do something through language whereas notions are linguistic labels that are stated by means of language, so they express a meaning.

Wilkins (1976) developed this syllabus as a reaction to the grammatical syllabus as well as the situational syllabus, for they are not designed to meet learners’ communicative purposes. For this reason, in the notional syllabus, unlike the grammatical and the situational syllabuses, attention is paid to the communicative capacity that learners want to achieve. He further stated that “instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask (in the notional syllabus) what is they communicate through language” (p. 18).

According to Wilkins (1976), the notional syllabus is far better than the preceding

syllabuses, the grammatical and the situational syllabuses, because the former considered real-world communication without neglecting grammar rules and contextual factors. As such, the notional syllabus was an attempt to heal the weaknesses of the grammatical syllabus and the situational syllabus as it integrated the communicative skill which was absent in the grammatical syllabus. Moreover, it overcomes the problem of the situation as it does not only integrate some rules and some functions that go with certain situations but also all of them.

The procedure followed in identifying the content of the notional syllabus is to select what is beneficial for learners' communicative ability in the FL. After doing so, one can determine what to include its suitability to the different kinds of instructions. Regarding the courses, they do not have grammatical names, but rather semantic ones since they include functions and notions. The integration of functions is based on what learners need in communication which in turn determines the grammatical structures that should be learned to express these functions. When designing a notional syllabus, unlike the grammatical syllabus, the designer is not restricted to the criteria of simplicity and difficulty to express a communicative need; he might find himself using various linguistic forms (Wilkins, 1976).

This kind of syllabus was not free from criticism. One of the shortcomings addressed to it was that there is no clear or systematic way in which course designers could relate notions (e.g., time, frequency) to communicative events (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986). Richards (2001) listed some causes that are behind the shortcomings addressed to functional syllabuses:

- There are no clear criteria for selecting or grading functions.
- They represent a simplistic view of communicative competence and fail to address the processes of communication.
- They represent an atomistic approach to language, that is, one that assumes that language ability can be broken down into discrete components that can be taught separately.

- They often lead to a phrase-book approach to teaching that concentrates on teaching expressions and idioms used for different functions.
- Students learning from a functional course may have considerable gaps in their grammatical competence because some important grammatical structures may not be elicited by the functions that are taught in the syllabus (pp. 155-156).

1.1.4.3. The Situational Syllabus

The situational syllabus, developed as a reaction to the grammatical syllabus, regards the situational needs as a point of departure for building a situational syllabus. Language, for the proponents of this syllabus, is not described as the abstract system but rather as a social phenomenon that is employed in everyday life communication, so it cannot be interpreted when it is decontextualised. The use of language is limited to the situation where learners find themselves and thus need to communicate. That is, teaching depends on the learners' needs of the situations they need to communicate in and according to the language used in that context. The syllabus will be organised into situations rather than grammatical units. Accordingly, syllabuses are determined by learners' needs. When learners' needs are different, their syllabuses will also vary. This kind of syllabus is centred on situations; its content also will depend on the language required in that context (Wilkins, 1976).

Since this syllabus type is made up of situations, the titles of the lessons are labelled according to the situations such as 'at the post office'. These courses are effective to achieve some purposes. However, when they are used as a cornerstone for the organisation of language teaching, this brings about some issues. The first problem lies in the word 'situation' because it is inappropriate to use what is learned in real-life communication. As it is not restricted to particular vocabulary expressions and grammar rules, language cannot be learned by just learning a situation. If the same situation that is learned in the classroom is encountered in real-life, it does not mean that the language learned in that particular situation in class will be used

even for a different purpose (for example, seeking information instead of making a request). In addition, there are certain purposes for which they highly likely cannot be used in any situation even though they are frequently used in one's dialogues as *possibility, probability, certainty, doubt, or conviction* (Wilkins, 1976 p. 17).

Wilkins (1976) stated that the situational syllabus is only beneficial for learners with particular situational needs. On the contrary, it is not the case with those who want to learn the language for general purposes. Thus, the situational syllabus does not contribute to solving issues in syllabus design. Moreover, Richards (2001) listed other critiques in what follows:

- Little is known about the language used in different situations, so selection of teaching items is typically based on intuition.
- Language used in specific situations may not transfer to other situations.
- Situational syllabuses often lead to a phrase-book approach.
- Grammar is dealt with incidentally, so a situational syllabus may result in gaps in a student's grammatical knowledge (pp. 156-157).

1.1.4.4. The Content-based Syllabus

In content-based syllabus, what to teach is taken from the subject matters. That is, to design such a syllabus, the content is chosen from certain subject matters in the curriculum of an educational institution such as Computing. What is good when choosing content from subjects is that the syllabus will be ordered in a logical way. Nevertheless, learning from such kind of syllabus may seem confusing to learners, for they might think that they learn it for another sake rather than as a tool for language learning. To avoid this problem, teachers should discuss with their students and explain to them the linkage between content and language (Nunan, 1988a).

1.1.4.5. The Procedural Syllabus

The procedural syllabus is related to the Bangalore/ Madras Communicational Teaching Project done by Prabhu, Ramani, and others in India (Prabhu, 1980, 1987). It was introduced as a reaction to the methods that were adopted to teach English there. White (1988) stated that in this syllabus much emphasis is put on the task, and, thus, it is learning-centered rather than learner-centered. The focus is not on form but rather on meaning. Prabhu's (1987) project was centered around teaching tasks to learners (a task-based approach). Prabhu (1987) opposed Krashen's (1982) idea of comprehensible input_ for it is not enough for language acquisition to take place. Instead, he was of the view that learners should benefit as much as possible from chances that help in promoting their comprehension skills before they are required to produce language. He opposed the traditional way of teaching grammar explicitly as he argued that linguistic structures cannot be acquired as a "one-step procedure". Similar to Krashen, Prabhu (1987) believes that language acquisition takes place in a subconscious way via "the operation of some internal system of abstract rules and principles" when the learner pays attention, not to the language form but, to meaning; that is, his focus is put on the completion of the task.

Prabhu (1987) defined the 'task' as, was used in the project, "an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allow teachers to control and regulate that process" (p.24). The task should be beyond students' current level where they are required to think in order to solve it without others' assistance.

According to Nunan (1988a), both the procedural and task-based syllabuses share a lot in common even though they are somehow different in practice. Similarly, Ellis (2003) was of the view that the procedural syllabus is a different version of the task-based syllabus. Likewise,

Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) considered them as being one syllabus with two labels. They stated that:

.... A syllabus which is organised around tasks, rather than in terms of grammar or vocabulary. For example, a syllabus may suggest a variety of different kinds of tasks which the learners are expected to carry out in the language, such as using the telephone to obtain information; drawing maps based on oral instructions; performing actions based on commands given in the target language; giving orders and instructions to others, etc. It has been argued that this is a more effective way of learning a language since it provides a purpose for the use and the learning of a language other than simply learning language items for their own sake. (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985, p. 42)

That is, it is a different syllabus from the preceding ones in that it is not ordered in terms of grammar and vocabulary exercises but in terms of communicative tasks which are encountered in real-life communication, such as making a phone call or writing an application letter. These tasks are performed through language. It is believed that learning a language through doing tasks rather than learning about the abstract system of the language leads to better results.

The Bangalore project was criticised on the basis that it only focused on the way learners carry out tasks and ignored what learners want to achieve at the end (outcomes of learning) (Nunan, 1988a). Moreover, Long and Crookes (1992) stated that the tasks suggested by Brabhu might be effective for language learning since they are pedagogical tasks. However, they will not be useful for real-life communication because they are not based on what learners need in the future. Another main critique is that the procedural syllabus failed to include the evaluation part in the design. Besides, the task selection was not based on a needs assessment procedure

which raises the problem of appropriacy. Therefore, that was a real blow to the procedural syllabus.

1.1.4.6. The Task-based Syllabus

Task-based syllabus, unlike the grammatical and notional-functional syllabuses which are based on structures and notions and functions, is centred around ‘tasks’ (Long, 1985; Long & Crookes, 1991). Different researchers defined the word ‘task’ differently. Long (1985) clarified the meaning of a task in general stating that it refers to anything done by one individual or many in life such as booking a ticket and wearing clothes to a baby.

However, Crookes (1986) gave a narrow definition to task as merely restricted to the pedagogical setting, “a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, or at work” (p. 1). Ellis (2003) suggested that a pedagogical task should aim at using the language communicatively through paying attention to meaning instead of form. The language output used should resemble the language employed in real-world conversations. A task, also, can involve various cognitive processes and different skills as well. In the same line of thought, Nunan (1988a) made a distinction between two types of tasks: *real-world tasks* and *pedagogic tasks*. The former refers to “those tasks that the learner might be called upon to perform in real-life”; the latter refers to “those tasks the learner is required to carry out in the classroom” (p.45).

Long (1985) adopted ‘needs analysis’ as a point of departure when planning for tasks. Long and Crookes (1991) stated that it is a prerequisite to identify the kinds of tasks that learners are going to solve.

1.1.4.7. Other Syllabus Types

There are other syllabus types which are dichotomous such as cyclic versus spiral, process versus product, and analytic versus synthetic.

1.1.4.7.1. Cyclic versus Linear

What is meant by a ‘cyclical’ or ‘spiral’ syllabus is that the language items are taught progressively, being repeated each time in a different context. However, in the past, the linear way was used to present courses that were organised in which moving to the next item depends on whether the first item is taught completely or not. That is, they are presented once without being repeated later on (Rutherford, 1987).

1.1.4.7.2. Process versus Product

Product-based syllabuses and process-based syllabuses are another distinction of syllabus types. Product syllabuses are those syllabuses that are oriented toward the results (outcomes) of instruction. That is, at the end of the teaching process, students are expected to achieve or reach a certain level. On the contrary, process syllabuses are those syllabuses that are oriented toward the procedure to be followed while delivering knowledge and practicing skills (Nunan, 1988a). Breen (1984) stated that “a process syllabus addresses the over-all question: ‘Who does what with whom, on what subject matter, with what resources, when, how and for what learning purpose (s)’” (as cited in Long & Crookes, 1991, p.15).

1.1.4.7.3. Analytic versus Synthetic

Approaches to syllabus design can be seen from two different views: a synthetic syllabus and an analytic syllabus. A synthetic approach is “one in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up”. When teaching through

the use of this approach, language is divided into small units of grammar and vocabulary which are organised in a certain order. A particular language course is presented each time to learners. The courses are related to each other in the sense that what is coming is built up on what is preceded. The learners are supposed to re-synthesise the different units learned gradually to form the language system as a whole. Examples of synthetic approaches are the grammatical, the situational, the lexical, and the functional syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976, p. 2).

However, analytic approaches do not consider that the linguistic units should be developed in an additive way. Wilkins (1976, p. 13) added:

Prior analysis of the total language system into a set of discrete pieces of language that is a necessary precondition for the adoption of a synthetic approach is largely superfluous....analytic approaches are organised in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language that are necessary to meet these purposes.

An example of the analytic approach is the situational, the notional, and the functional syllabuses, for Wilkins (1976), yet it also includes the process syllabus and task-based syllabus for Breen (1987). In contrast, Long and Crookes (1991) opposed Wilkins' classification and proposed that the analytic syllabus is subdivided into three types: the process syllabus, the procedural syllabus, and the task-based syllabus. They argued that notions and functions are obviously 'linguistic units', but when it comes to using them alone, they yield to a synthetic syllabus, to practice a function as a request seems the same as practicing a grammar rule, tenses for example (p. 3). Similar to Wilkins, White (1988) distinguished between Type A and Type B syllabuses. Nevertheless, White's approach is wider than Wilkins' in the sense that Wilkins' approach is only restricted to the various ways that learners use to learn the language (the

difference in their roles) whereas White's includes two broad approaches to designing courses, learning a language, making instructions, and evaluating them.

On the one hand, Type A syllabuses put emphasis on the content (the what) of learning. In these syllabuses, the learners have no say in deciding what to learn. Instead, syllabus designers, planners, and material writers intervene in the process. They determine what to be taught, how, and what learning outcomes should be attained, disregarding the learners' lacks and wants. In addition, the subject matter is viewed as being significant. Thus, teachers are responsible for teaching what is dictated to them and to evaluate learners' achievements and weaknesses.

On the other hand, Type B puts emphasis on the methodology (the how). There is no intervention on the part of syllabus designers and policy-makers in the selection and organization of content. The outcomes of learning are not specified in advance, yet after the teacher discusses them with his students. Thus, decisions cannot be made unless negotiation with the learners takes place. Besides, in type B, importance is not given to the subject matter but rather to the process of learning. As far as evaluation is concerned, teachers assess learners' achievement in reference to learners' features for success (White, 1988). An example of Type B is the process syllabus (Long & Crookes, 1991). White (1988) added that the procedural and task-based syllabuses are classified in Type B, but they have one feature from Type A which is the selection of tasks that occurs in advance. That is, it takes place before the teacher and the students discuss the matter together. However, he criticised, synthetic, Type A syllabuses on the ground that its proponents are supposing that the language is acquired in a particular way which is not proven by research in SLA. Nonetheless, research found that language cannot be acquired when the structures are decontextualized and learned in a linear and additive way.

1.3.3. Stages of Course Design

To explain the different steps that a course designer should go through in order to design a syllabus or a course, researchers developed different models. It is worth stating that the models to be presented in what follows are developed as curriculum or course models. That is to say, they provide steps in general; it is mentioned earlier that the syllabus is a subpart of the curriculum. Graves (2000) mentioned that there are classical models (e.g., Taba, 1962; Tyler, 1949) and recent models (e.g., Brown, 1995; Johnson, 1989; Nunan, 1988b; Richards, 1990; Yalden, 1987), in addition to her own model (1996) and Nation and Macalister's (2010) model. Graves (1997) further stated that even several models were developed using different components and labels, they are similar in content, two of which are discussed in what follows.

1.3.3.1. Brown's Model

Language curriculum, according to Brown (1995), is comprised of five elements: needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching, and evaluation. Importantly, evaluation is another element in this model, but it may happen at any time. That is, it is ongoing. One may evaluate, at the beginning, before designing the curriculum through conducting needs analysis. Evaluation can also take place at the end of the assessment procedure or after the teaching process.

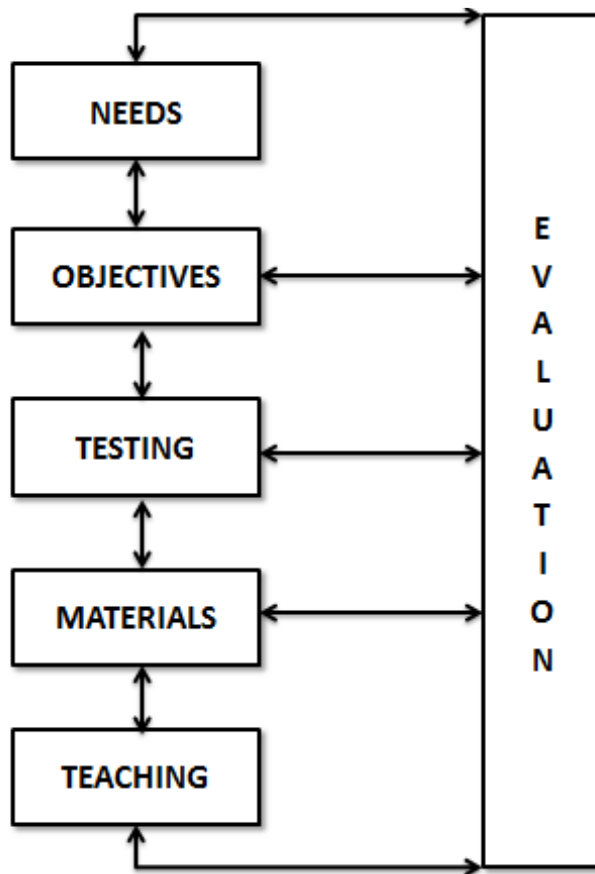


Figure 2.1. Brown's curriculum model (1995).

2.3.2.2. Graves' Model

Graves (2000) used the framework specifically to explain course design and not curriculum development. The components of Grave's framework are:

- *Needs assessment*: what are my students' needs? How can I assess them so that I can address them?
- *Determining goals and objectives*: what are the purposes and intended outcomes of the course? What will my students need to do or learn to achieve these goals?
- *Conceptualizing content*: what will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus?

- *Selecting and developing materials and activities*: how and with what will I teach the course? What is my role? What are my students' roles?
- *Organizing content and activities*: how will I organise the content and activities? What systems will I develop?
- *Evaluation*: how will I assess what students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?
- *Consideration of resources and constraints*: what are the givens of my situations?

Besides, Graves (2000) stated that the elements of her model are not set up in an ordered way, that is, they are not organised linearly.

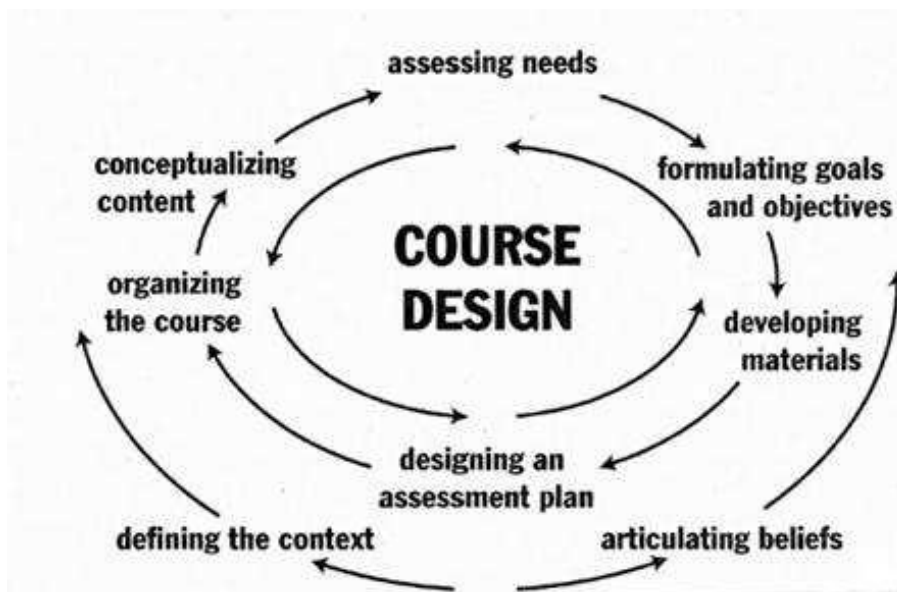


Figure 2.2. Graves' framework of course development processes (Graves, 2000, p. 3).

2.2. Needs Analysis

2.2.1. Definition of Needs

Many researchers made a distinction between different types of needs (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1984; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Richterich, 1983). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) differentiated between two types of needs: target needs and learning needs. Target needs refer

to “what the learner needs to do in the target situation”, and learning needs refer to “what the learner needs to do in order to learn” (p. 54). They further divided target needs into *necessities*, *lacks*, and *wants*. Firstly, necessities refer to “the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation” (p.55). Secondly, it is important to identify the necessities of the learner; nevertheless, they are not sufficient unless they are combined with the learners’ previous knowledge in order to know the necessities that the learner lacks. Hence, the point of departure is from what he already knows, and this space in between should be filled to reach the target proficiency. Wants refer to what learners like to learn. In this line of thought, Graves (1996) argued that the majority of learners do not have target needs as learning needs because they just need English to pass an exam or to use it only in class.

Thirdly, if needs are considered objectively, it was found that they are made up of necessities and lacks. In this case, learners will have a passive role. However, they should be part and parcel of this process, and they should have a say upon their needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This idea is supported by Richterich (1984) who stated that “...a need does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment” (p. 29).

In much the same way, Berwick (1989) distinguished between ‘felt needs’ and ‘perceived needs’. The former means “those (NEEDS) which learners have”; the latter means “judgments of certified experts about the educational gap in other people’s experience”. He believes that these two types make the difference between learner-centeredness and teacher-centeredness (p. 55). He mentioned that ‘perceived needs’ are named differently by different researchers such as ‘real needs’ (Chambers, 1980) and ‘objective needs (Richterich, 1980).

Objective and subjective needs are another distinction made by Richterich (1983). Objective needs are very important because they are used to put the general principles for designing a program. When the learning process is initiated, it is possible for the already defined needs which are related to language to be changed. Besides, other learning needs would evolve which in turn were not identified at the beginning of the course. Brindley (1989) has the opinion that Richterich's (1983) objective needs would not result in a syllabus. However, he views that both needs are of crucial importance. In fact, when CLT was brought to light, subjective needs were neglected, for it is believed that they cannot be predictable and defined (Richterich, 1980, as cited in Brindley, 1989). Objective needs were the heart of the syllabus. Nevertheless, the development of humanistic approaches brought about a surge of interest in both cognitive as well as affective variables. Similarly, Graves (1996) thinks that equal importance should be given to subjective as well as objective needs.

Richterich and Chancerel (1997) used another concept that is 'present situation analysis' which is used from time to time to refer to 'lacks'. It refers to what learners are capable to perform with the language when the course starts and what is required of them to perform when the course finishes. Similarly, Graves (1996) used the term 'needs assessment' instead of needs analysis. She asserted that most of the time they are used as synonymous, yet she believes that they are used to mean different procedures. As assessment entails information; however, analysis "involves assigning value to those data, as one proposed to her" (p. 12).

2.2.2. Needs Analysis and ESP

The first time West (1994) used the concept of needs analysis in the field of SLA in the 1920s. At that time, West was working in India as an English teacher. He used needs analysis to refer to the language demands of learners; needs analysis includes also the learners' capacities for the sake of achieving a good mastery of the target language. Needs analysis before

the 1970s was an informal process where teachers used what they thought about learners' needs. From 1970s forward, needs analysis became a systematic process and began to be acknowledged in the English for specific purposes (ESP) literature. At that time, needs analysis was extremely explicated via target situation analysis, "what learners are required to do with the foreign or second language in the target situation" (Flowerdew, 2003).

Needs analysis is defined as "a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about communicative tasks for use in syllabus design" (Nunan, 1988a, p. 75). Similarly, Richards (2001) defined it as "the procedures used to collect information about learners' needs" (p. 51)

the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situations.

(Brown, 1995, p.36)

According to Brown (1995), both subjective and objective data are a prerequisite. Hence, needs analysis leads to the specification of goals and objectives that should be regarded as the cornerstone for writing materials, tasks, and developing assessment procedures (Brown, 1995; Johns & Price-Machado, 2001).

Jordan (1997) argued that the procedure of needs analysis should take place first before designing courses and writing materials. In the same line of thought, Albakrawi (2013) stated that needs analysis is restricted to ESP for the majority. However, he is of the view that needs analysis is not only linked to ESP. Instead, all courses that have to do with education should start with needs analysis.

Additionally, 'informal needs assessment' refers to the discussion that occurs informally between teachers and their learners in the classroom in an individual mode or in groups. Jordan (1997) added that all teachers should devote the first week of the course to know something about their learners' needs. Informal needs assessment findings can be then employed as a source for setting goals and objectives and planning courses (Shaw & Dowsett, 1986). Richards (2001) believes that what is gathered from informal needs assessment may play a central role in completing information gathered in a formal and a systematic way.

2.2.2.1. Background to ESP

By definition, ESP is "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 19). Mumby (1978) defined ESP courses as "those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner" (p. 2). Both the foregoing definitions emphasise learners' needs to design syllabuses.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP has evolved by means of three major factors: the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner.

1. The Demands of a Brave New World

English has evolved and has become the international language because of the developments in many fields such as technology and commerce. As a result, this led to a raise in the number of learners who are learning English for different purposes such as business, medicine, and engineering. As such, the design of courses for just particular learners became an urgent need.

2. A Revolution in Linguistics

There was a tremendous shift in linguistics. At first, the focus was on grammar; then it became on language use in real-life discussions. In addition, it was found that there is a

difference between the way one speaks and writes (i.e., written and spoken discourse). This yields another finding in the arena of English teaching. To explain, it was revealed that the English used in engineering varies from the one used in commerce. That is, since the language used in various contexts is not the same, one should identify the characteristics of a particular context. After that, these features should be regarded as the building blocks when designing courses for English language learners.

3. Focus on the Learner

Educational psychology put a strong emphasis on the role of learners and their attitudes towards learning. Learners have various wants, preferences, and lacks, which in turn affect strongly their desire to learn. It is assumed that the more learners' needs were taken into account when designing courses, the more the learners would be motivated, and thus the more and quicker learning would take place (Richards, 2001).

2.2.3. Purposes of Needs Analysis

In the field of FL teaching, needs analysis can be conducted for a plethora of purposes, for instance:

- To find out what language skill a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as, sales manager, tour guide, or university student
- To help determine if the existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing

(Richards, 2001, p. 52)

Richards (2001) stated that the process of needs analysis may occur before, during, or after the course. When needs analysis is done before the course is initiated, it is considered as a set of course planning. This type of procedure necessitates the availability of enough time and resources used. On the contrary, when time is not available, it is impossible to know the learners' lacks and wants which will be useful when designing a course in advance. In this case, it is to be conducted at the same time as teaching. Elements of teaching such as aims, content, and methodology are changed by what is gathered during the teaching process. The gathering of data, which is a part of needs analysis, can be carried out after the end of the course. In doing so, one needs what is gathered for the sake of assessing and making modifications to the program.

2.2.4. Needs Analysis Tools

According to Richards (2001), when conducting a needs analysis procedure, the following tools can be used for gathering data:

- ✚ Questionnaires: they are a widely used tool for the fact that they are easy to design and can be used to collect data from a large sample. Besides, data gathered from questionnaires are not difficult to be transformed into statistics and then to be interpreted. Data obtained from questionnaires are of variant types of issues such as the use of language, opinions, attitudes, preferred pedagogical tasks, and preferred learning styles, that is, learning preferences in general. It is of paramount importance to pilot the questionnaire before administering it to the sample so that the researcher can make sure that it is free from problems or ambiguities in order to make changes to it.
- ✚ Self-ratings: they are made up of “scales that students or others use to rate their knowledge or abilities” (Richards, 2001, p. 6). They can also be integrated into

questionnaires as a subpart or section. For instance, learners may evaluate themselves on doing a certain task.

- ✚ Interviews: they are considered a completion for questionnaires, for they provide descriptions in detail, which is impossible to be done in questionnaires. Unlike questionnaires, interviews take a long period to be made, and they are not appropriate with a large sample. Interviews can be helpful before designing questionnaires, for they can give an idea of the topics and the issues that should be emphasised in the questionnaire.
- ✚ Meetings: they allow much data to be gathered in a short time. For instance, teachers might meet to discuss the problems that learners encounter in listening comprehension ; hence, several ideas might be produced. Nevertheless, data gathered from the meeting might not be objective and reflect ideas of the majority.
- ✚ *Observation*: Observing the way students behave in the target situation can be also done to assess students' needs.
- ✚ *Collecting learner language samples*: gathering information on how well students can achieve while doing various language activities (e.g., telephone calls) and identifying the main problems they encounter are beneficial and allow for providing direct data about learners' needs concerning the language. One may gather language samples as follows:
 - Written or oral tasks: examples of students' oral or written work are collected.
 - Simulations or role-plays: students are given simulations to carry out, and their performance is observed or recorded.
 - Achievement tests: students are tested for their abilities in different domains of language use.

- Performance tests: students are tested on job-related or task-related behaviours such as “how well a job interview can be carried out in English” (Richards, 2001, p. 62).

✚ Task analysis: it refers to the “analysis of the kind of tasks the learners will have to carry out in English in a future occupational or educational setting and assessment of the linguistic characteristics and demands of the tasks” (Richards, 2001, p. 62). For instance, a worker at a hotel might have to do certain activities in English such as:

- Greet hotel guests
- Inquire about their accommodation available at the hotel

(Richards, 2001, p. 62)

✚ Case studies: a student or a small number of students is put under scrutiny through a project or an educational experience for the sake of identifying the feature of that case.

✚ Analysis of available information

✚ Informal consultation with sponsors, learners and others (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 58)

In any context where a needs analysis should be conducted, different sources can provide a wide range of relevant data such as in books, journal articles, and records and files. Thus, examining these data should be the first step done while conducting a needs analysis procedure for only a few issues were not tackled or investigated in the arena of language teaching (Richards, 2001).

Many researchers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Long, 2005) are of the view that one should cross-check the results. According to Long (2005, p. 25), triangulation is:

a procedure long used by researchers, e.g., ethnographers, working within a qualitative, or naturalistic, to help validate their data and thereby, eventually, to increase the credibility of their interpretations of those data. The process involves the researcher comparing different sets and sources of data with one another.

Similarly, Hyland (2006) believes that both reliability and validity in the process of needs analysis is realised through the following:

- Triangulation. Conclusions are developed using a range of data sources, research methods or investigators.
- Prolonged engagement. The use of repeated observation and collection of sufficient data over a period of time.
- Participant verification. The analysis is discussed with participants and its ‘reliability’ verified by them.

(as cited in Flowerdew, 2013, p. 330)

In the same line of thought, Richards (2001) has the same opinion. He thinks that the data that are collected from one source are not complete that is why it is important to use more than one source. For instance, in order to recognise the writing issues faced by foreign learners studying at American universities, one should conduct a needs analysis using several sources such as students’ tests, experts’ views, examples of students’ writings, related literature, and data gathered using students’ questionnaires and interviews (Richards, 2001, p. 59)

Long (2005) also mentioned that triangulation can be done by methods and/or sources. The later means involving both students’ and the department’s opinions, for example, using a questionnaire. However, triangulation by methods means using two methods or more, such as questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation, to study learners’ opinions. In other words, it means using various data gathering tools and then comparing the results. He went on

to say that when getting opposing results from triangulation studies be they by sources and/or methods, one should not stop here. On the contrary, it is of significance to carry on with the investigation to decide upon the ones to take from designing the program. However, Stern (1992, as cited in Graves, 1996) opposed the process of collecting a large amount of information that is impossible for one to examine and to put into practice.

2.2.5. Needs Analysis Design

According to Richards (2001), the preliminary step that should be done when designing a needs analysis is to choose the most appropriate tool. It is also of significant importance to gather only the information needed, that is, much information, which is not useful, is not needed. In doing so, one should have a justification for gathering much data. That is, one should guarantee to use what is only required. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that the selection of the appropriate tool relies on the availability of time and resources. Additionally, it is worth mentioning that the procedure of needs analysis should not be done only for once; on the contrary, it should be done repeatedly to evaluate what is found (Graves, 1996; Graves, 2000; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Graves (2000) preferred when needs analysis or assessment takes place while teaching, that is, not at the beginning nor at the end.

Graves (2000) mentioned some kinds of data that can be collected when doing needs analysis. She said that the collected data could be about the present and/or the future. Examples of data collected in the present are: personal information about the learners, their opinions, their wants, their learning styles, their levels regarding the language proficiency and intercultural competence. Examples of data collected in the future are aims and expectations of learners, kinds of interactive skills that will be required and acted by learners, and the target situations_ such as themes, settings, and roles.

Graves (2000, p 100) developed a process that should be followed when assessing needs. It is made up of six steps:

1. Decide what information to gather and why
2. Deciding the best way to gather it : when, how, and from whom
3. Gathering the information
4. Interpreting the information
5. Acting on the information
6. Evaluating the effect and effectiveness of the action
7. (back to 1) Deciding on further or new information to gather

She further introduced a framework for designing needs assessment activities. It is mentioned in what follows:

1. What information does it gather?
2. Who is involved and why?
3. What skills are necessary to carry it out? Is preparation needed? In other words, are the students familiar with this type of activity or do they have to be taught how to do it?
4. Is the activity feasible given the level and number of your students? how could you adapt it?
5. Is the activity focused only on gathering information which you will analyze or does it ask students to
 - Identify problems and solutions?
 - Identify priorities
6. How will the teacher and learners use this information? (Graves, 2000, p. 114)

Richards (2001) commented on the study's findings of needs analysis saying that they are insufficient. He added that "there is no direct application of the information obtained from NA

[needs analysis]. Although the information gathered is useful, it has to be subjected to a great deal of interpretation before it can be usefully applied in program planning'' (p. 65). Besides, another problem encountered after conducting needs analysis is to get a plethora of needs. In this case, not all of them will be catered for, but only those that are of prime importance since the time and the space will not allow dealing with all of them. That is to say, course designers must cater for the needs of the majority (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Richards, 2001).

Conducting needs analysis does not mean that changes should take place. The first thing that should be done is to see whether the needs that are discovered are being met or not and to what degree? Then, decision-making should take place regarding the most significant, critical, and interesting ones. The results will be analysed in different forms such as:

- A full written document
- A short summary document
- A meeting
- A group discussion
- A newsletter (Richards, 2001, p. 67)

The data gathered from needs analysis can be employed in various ways. It can be used as a significant reference to setting aims and objectives for future courses, to design a new syllabus and pedagogical materials for a course and to assess the effectiveness of the current program or just one of its elements. Besides, it may help to devise a test and other assessment techniques (Richards, 2001).

2.3. Material Design

After conducting a needs assessment, one should start thinking of the materials to include in the syllabus.

2.3.1. Goals, Aims, and Objectives

The information gathered from needs analysis comes into play when designing the syllabus. Primarily, it is needed to specify the objectives of the course. In EFL settings, the departure is from the document goal stated by the national priorities and then specified further by policy makers. However, in ESL settings, the specification of objectives is related to social survival needs. Thus, personal needs are taken into account in ESL settings more than in EFL ones. Besides, syllabus designers should also take into consideration the current trends of FL teaching methods when specifying objectives (Dubin & Olshtain, 1984).

Graves (1996) stated that setting goals and objectives are of crucial importance because they simplify the teacher's job in specifying what to teach and the tasks that are suitable for the course. Furthermore, they help in making a value-judgement about the tasks, whether they are effective or not. For Richards (2000), the words 'aim' and 'goal' are used as synonymous to refer to "a statement of general change that a program seeks to bring about in learners... reflect the ideology of the curriculum and show how the curriculum will seek to realize it" (p. 120). Statements of aims seek to achieve several purposes such as providing a clear statement of the goals of a program and instructions for students, teachers, and materials writers, and identifying vital and attainable shifts in learning. Importantly, he added that statements of aims in general are the result of data obtained from a needs analysis.

However, objectives are defined as "a statement of specific changes a program seeks to bring about and results from an analysis of the aim into different components" (Richards, 2001, pp. 122-123). Objectives are characterised with special features. Firstly, they express the purpose of the aim by dividing it into small parts of learning. Secondly, objectives provide the cornerstone on which the pedagogical tasks are ordered. Finally, they explain the learning process with regard to observable actions.

Regarding the way of writing objectives, Richards (2000) mentioned that transforming the aims into objectives has three positive effects:

- *They facilitate planning:* after writing objectives, several processes can take place such as the planning phase and the selection of materials.
- *They provide measurable outcomes and thus provide accountability:* The fact that the program fails or succeeds in including the objectives in the teaching process can be easily assessed because the objectives are already written.
- *They are prescriptive:* objectives are written in a way that is far from subjectivity as they show how the planning process should occur.

In addition, objectives should not also be written haphazardly, but there should be coordination or a match between them and the aims. That is, objectives should be set in a way that helps in achieving the aims. Further, objectives should not be broad but clear and concise. Besides, they should be achievable within the time limits of the classroom session (Richards, 2000). Graves (1996) pointed out that for the sake of reaching goals, one should find out the reasons and the results of the course. The answer may be affected by data obtained from learners' needs and teachers' way of conceptualizing what to be taught.

Goals should be also formulated in such a way that can be achievable. To move from goals to objectives, one should discover what should be done in order to realise their purpose (Graves, 1996). Dubin and Olshtain (1984) stated that goals are formulated from the statement of curriculum that in turn integrates the nature of language, language learning, and the philosophy of education. Thus, the statement of the curriculum affects the syllabus in three ways: language content dimension, process or means, and product or outcomes. In fact, language programs differ according to the dimension they stress. If the emphasis lies on the language content, consideration is given to themes and situations. Similarly, the process to be followed is

determined by the views of language learning. That is, the organisation of course content and the sequencing rely on the nature of language theory and educational philosophy as well as the learning process (e.g., simplicity, frequency). Differently, the specification of expected outcomes is determined according to the audience’s needs for assessing the usefulness of the course.

2.3.2. Content Selection and Organisation

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) admitted that “the basic dilemma which course planners must reconcile is that language is infinite, but a syllabus must be finite” (p. 51). That is, selecting what to teach is not straightforward as language is unlimited. Further, course designers find difficulties in the selection of the content and the organisation of the syllabus. There is a myriad of organisation formats; in what follows, there are some (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).

Table 2.1

Syllabus Format

Syllabus Format	Characteristics
<i>Linear</i>	It is the traditional format used in grammar syllabuses.
<i>Modular</i>	It is suitable for courses that includes thematic and situational language content
<i>Cyclic</i>	It means working on the same topic more than once. That is, each time an element is reintroduced.
<i>Matrix</i>	It gives its users the flexibility to select a topic from a table of content.
<i>Story-line</i>	Its basis is narrative. It is suitable for the notional-functional syllabus. It solves the problem of ordering the categories.

Graves (1996) stated that there are only two rules for organising content: ‘building’ and ‘recycling’. Building means that the organisation of content usually follows the features of what is easy precedes what is difficult. For example, in a writing class, students are supposed to learn how to write a narrative text before writing an argumentative essay. That is, organising courses in such a way resembles building, each unit is built on the other, and one cannot move to the next unless the first block is done (Low, 1989, p. 145, as cited in Graves, 1996). The second way of organising content is recycling. It means that the already used materials appear again but in a very different way. The change is either in the skill_in the kind of task_ or in the focus. For example, the same activity is encountered in both the listening and the writing tasks. This procedure to recycling materials suppose that each new experience with the material makes learners challengeable, enthusiastic, and motivated. Therefore, it results in raising learners’ capacity to utilize and grasp the material.

According to Richards (2000), the process of course development and material design, which is dependent on aims and objectives that are already set up for a language program, involves a set of various levels of planning and development. Thus, developing a course involves the following processes (p. 145):

- Developing a course rationale
- Describing entry and exit levels choosing course content
- Sequencing course content
- Planning the course content (syllabus and instructional blocks)
- Preparing the scope and sequence plan

When developing a course, one should begin with the course rationale. It is where the causes of the course as well as its nature are described in short. It aims at answering three questions: “‘who is the course for ?’”, “‘what is the course about ?’”, and “‘what kind of teaching and

learning will take place in the course ?”’. The answers to these questions are a description of the beliefs, values, and aims that the course is based on. Those immersed in planning and teaching the course will write this description in a statement, in no more than three paragraphs. It will be useful in explaining the way of how teaching and learning will proceed during the course. In addition, it helps in providing an exact statement that expresses the philosophy of the course for those who need it be they teachers, learners, or others.

For the sake of planning a language course, it is prerequisite to have a clear insight into learners’ level at the beginning of the program as well as the one that learners are assumed to reach when the course is over. This is referred to as the difference between the entry and the exit level. Such a goal can be achieved through learners’ proficiency levels, which are known through taking international proficiency tests like the Test of English as a Foreign Language, the International English Language Testing System, or particularly constructed tests taken before the course started. Hence, the results obtained from the proficiency tests will help in assessing the target level of the course, and this in turn may lead to making changes to the objectives of the program in case they are too far or too near to learners’ levels.

Selecting what to teach in a course might be considered the most difficult part of course design. Since the course development is based on meeting particular needs of learners and covering a specific number of objectives, one thinks of what to integrate into the content. The planner makes decisions upon the content of the course assumptions about the nature of language, the use of language, and language learning, what the most important parts of language are, and in what way they can be ordered as an effective basis for language learning. Selecting a particular approach to content selection relies on several factors as “subject-matter knowledge, learners’ proficiency levels, current views on second language learning and teaching, conventional wisdom, and convenience” (Richards, 2001, p. 148).

The planning process is initiated from ideas written down and brainstormed in groups. The result is a list of themes, units, skills, and other elements of course sequencing. An individual proposes something that is related to the course; the other individuals add their ideas, and their suggestions are then compared with different sources of data until more convincing and appropriate ideas are reached concerning the content of the course. During this procedure, the planners use the objectives and the aims as a reference. They can modify them as well as what is suggested in the content of the course.

The way content is distributed throughout the course is called planning the scope and sequence of the course. The scope is “concerned with the breadth and depth of coverage of items in the course” (Richards, 2001, p. 149). In other words, it seeks to answer both questions: what range of content will be covered? To what extent should each topic be studied? Sequencing “involves deciding which content is needed early in the course and which provides a basis for things that will be taught later” (p. 150). Richards (2001) added that there are different ways of sequencing content: from simple to complex, chronology, need, prerequisite learning, whole to part or part to whole, and spiral sequencing.

The following stage in course development is about “mapping the course structure into a form and sequence that provide a suitable basis for teaching”. A small part of this process would have taken place in the previous stage while ideas for course content were being brainstormed. Nevertheless, there are two elements that need to be planned carefully: *selecting a syllabus framework* and *developing instructional blocks*. Selecting a syllabus framework means opting for one type of syllabus (situational, topical, functional, or task-based). Some factors affect the planners when selecting a specific syllabus. These factors are:

- *Knowledge and belief about the subject area*
- *Research and theory*

- *Common practice*
- *Trends*

(Richards, 2001, p. 152)

Developing instructional blocks involves choosing the right blocks as well as the sequence in which they will be shaped. The instructional blocks that are widely selected are planning by modules and planning by units.

2.3.3. Material Development

Materials development is “the planning process by which a teacher creates units and lessons within those units to carry out the goals and objectives of the course” (Graves, 2000, p. 149). In other words, it refers to developing, selecting, modifying, and ordering materials and tasks for learners to be able to reach the objectives that will, in turn, facilitate the realisation of the aim of the course. Teaching materials are the cornerstones of almost all language programs. Regardless of the material types being used, they are beneficial in providing language input for learners as well as activities for practicing the received input inside the classroom (Richards, 2001).

Instructional materials have a central role in the process of language teaching. In what follows, Cunningsworth (1995, p. 7) summed up their significance:

- A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written)
- A source for activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on
- A source for stimulation and ideas for classroom activities
- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)
- A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence

Making choices is a crucial element in materials development. Since teachers cannot focus on everything, they tend to select materials that serve in achieving the goals and objectives of the course (Graves, 2000) which are suitable to both teachers and learners. Being appropriate to learners means that they could feel at ease with the material, which meets their wants, and it should not be above or under their levels (Graves, 1996). In this respect, Richards (2001) stated that the first choice to be made is whether to use authentic materials or created materials. Authentic materials refer to everything as pictures, texts, audio, etc., used in teaching, yet they are designed for other purposes than pedagogy. Reversedly, created materials refer to the instructional resources that are particularly developed for the sake of teaching. Some preferred authentic materials to the other because the former includes real language, without modification, unlike created materials.

Consequently, authentic materials have several strengths and weaknesses (Clarke, 1989; Peacock, 1997; Phillips & Shettlesworth, 1978). Examples of their advantages are (Richards, 2001):

- They lead to raising students' motivation ;
- They are very pertained to students' lacks and wants ;
- They give exposure to real language and real cultural data about the foreign culture.

Critiques are addressed to them as well:

- Created materials can also raise students' motivation
- Authentic materials contains difficult language
- Created materials may be better than authentic materials
- It is hard for teachers to use authentic materials

Graves (2000) also said the use of authentic materials in language classes results in problems, for they are not designed to meet learners' particular needs and levels. Instead, she suggested to employ the created material instead for the sake of paving the way to using authentic materials. In the above continuum, three options are provided concerning the use of authentic materials (p.57):

Materials: pedagogically prepared ← semi-authentic → authentic

Another continuum is suggested about the tasks that the learner will do:

Tasks /activities: pedagogical ← real world → in the real world

Richards (2001) went on saying that teachers in many language programs use an amalgamation of the two since both of them have pros and cons. Besides, the differentiation between the two becomes difficult and confusing, as authentic texts and other materials used in real-life were incorporated into a myriad of published materials.

2.4. Evaluation

After the design and implementation of a new course, the last step is the evaluation stage. Richards et al. (1985) defined evaluation as the process of collecting data systematically for the sake of decision-making. Brown (1989) commented on their definition that it is too wide to the extent that it is suitable to explain the meaning of needs analysis. Instead, he suggested the following definition: “the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institutions involved” (p. 223).

2.4.1. Evaluation Types

Evaluation can have different types. One can distinguish between *summative* versus *formative*, *process* versus *product*, or *quantitative* versus *qualitative* evaluation. In what follows, the difference between them is elucidated.

2.4.1.1. Summative Versus Formative

The first type of evaluation is summative and formative evaluation as named by Scriven (1967, as cited in Bachman, 1989). Formative refers to the evaluation that occurs at the same time as designing a curriculum or a syllabus. It seeks to collect data in order to enhance the quality of the program. This evaluation results in making several small-scale decisions that in turn will bring about change in the design of the current program. On the contrary, summative evaluation generally takes place when a program is done, that is, at the last stage. In doing so, the evaluator aims to know if the program is effective or not. The decisions that will be made are supposed to be large-scale and may yield tremendous shifts. In his opinion, Brown (1989) stated that all evaluations should be formative in order to lead to the betterment of language learning and the teaching process and not the opposite.

1.4.1.2. Process versus Product

Another type of evaluation is the ‘process’ versus ‘product’ distinction (Long, 1984, as cited in Nation & Macalister, 2000). On the one hand, product evaluation refers to that kind of evaluation that seeks to find out if the outcomes of the program are realised. On the other hand, ‘process’ evaluation refers to any evaluation that revolves around the ways used to carry out the program in order to achieve the predetermined goals. These two types of evaluation are linked to the aforementioned types. As such, formative evaluation will put more emphasis on the process as it does not seek only to find out if the goals are achieved or not, but also to examine and make the processes involved better. In contrast, summative evaluation in turn is

also centred around the results, for the process of data collection aims at finding out if the program takes into consideration the goals or not; subsequently, the process of making decisions will take place (Brown, 1989).

1.4.1.3. Quantitative versus Qualitative

The last distinction is between quantitative evaluation and qualitative evaluation. The difference between the two lies in the type of information gathered to be used in the evaluation process. Quantitative data are collected by means of tools that will be transformed later on into statistical figures and numbers, on the one hand. On the other hand, qualitative data are obtained via procedures which will not be transformed into numerical but instead kept as they are. Brown (1989) added that even though this type of data does not appear to be objective and systematic, it might be of much significance when making action about the worth of the program. Richards (2000) viewed that in program evaluation both types of evaluation are of equal importance because they are made for different purposes.

1.4.2. Evaluation Procedure

The first step that should be done when evaluating a course is to decide upon the type of evaluation from the ones discussed earlier or to integrate all of them (Richards, 2000). The data gathering tools are almost the same as those used in conducting needs analysis (Nation & Macalister, 2000); however, they differ in their goals (Richards, 2000). The following table presents the tools used in the evaluation process as well as a brief description of their weaknesses and their strengths:

Table 2.2

Advantages and Disadvantages of Evaluation Procedures (Richards, 2001, pp. 299-303)

Procedure	Advantages	Disadvantages
_ Tests	_ They can provide a direct measure of achievement	_ difficult to construct because of reliability and validity criteria
_ Interviews	_ In-depth information can be obtained on specific questions	_ time consuming and not suitable for a large sample
_ Questionnaires	_ easy to administer and suitable for a large sample	_ difficult to be designed to avoid unbiased answers and difficult to interpret information
_ Teachers' Written evaluation	_ a quick way to prepare an evaluation	_ possibility to get biased information
_ Diaries and journals	_ provide detailed information that is impossible to obtain by other tools	_ difficulty to employ the data gathered _ unsystematic
_ Teachers' records	_ provide detailed accounts of some aspects of the course	_ possibility of getting irrelevant and unbiased data

_Students logs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _provide students' perspective on the course _provide insights that teachers may neglect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _need students' assistance _students may not be aware of the value of such activity
_Case study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _provides detailed information and a rich picture of different aspects of the course 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _time consuming _ data gathered may not be representative
_Observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _ observation can be done on any aspect of the course 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _ need for preparation and explicit guidance _ observer's presence may be disturbing
_Student evaluations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _easy to get _ a large number of learners can be part of the evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _ data collected may be biased and not representative _difficulty to interpret data
_Audio- or video- recording	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _ providing a rich account of teaching in real time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> _ data can be biased or disruptive because of bad quality of recordings

There are a myriad of procedures that can be employed in the evaluation process. Hence, selection of the method should be done carefully by accounting both the pros and cons.

Conclusion

Course design, and particularly syllabus design, is a process that goes through different and several stages. In the past, students have no say in this process. That is, they used to have a passive role. However, currently both teachers and learners are involved in the planning of courses, and students' needs are regarded before the course. Thus, students' motivation and interest in the course will be raised and expectedly effective teaching and learning will take place.

Chapter Three: Evaluation of the Currently Used Syllabi

Introduction

3.1. Content Analysis

3.1.1. Definition of Content Analysis

3.1.2. Content Analysis Procedures

3.1.3. Reliability and Validity of Content Analysis

3.2. Methodology

3.2.1. Definition of ICC

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3.2.3.1. Interview Findings

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3.2.4. Discussion of the Interview and Content Analysis Findings

Conclusion

Introduction

To design any course, an evaluation of the preceding one should be done to heal the weaknesses and to find out the shortcomings. Thus, before designing an intercultural course, an evaluation of the existing syllabi regarding the teaching of ICC is the first step to be done, which is the central aim of this chapter. The chapter starts with a description of the research tool followed by the procedure used to analyse the data. At the end, the results are displayed and discussed.

3.1. Content Analysis

3.1.1. Definition of Content Analysis

Content analysis is employed for analysing data (Mayring, 2014, p. 43). By definition, content analysis is “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p, 1278). To put it differently, it is a process by which textual data are reduced into categories and themes through researchers’ constant comparison, interpretation, and examination. Krippendorff (2004) defined it as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the context of their use” (p. 18). That is, the results obtained from content analysis should be valid and replicable. Replicable means that if the same technique is applied at different periods of time using the same data, this should yield the same findings. In much the same way, Weber (1990, p. 9) defined it as “a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from texts”.

Content analysis is based on reducing the data by summarising it into categories (Myring, 2014). In addition, content analysis is a method that can be used both quantitatively (Krippendorff, 2004; Neuedorf, 2002) and qualitatively (Berg, 2001). Data in quantitative

content analysis are displayed in a frequency form where percentages and numbers of the important themes are presented. The methodology followed is summing up instead of describing data in detail, and its focal point is to answer the ‘how many’ question (Krippendorff, 2004; Neuendorf, 2002). However, data in qualitative content analysis is displayed using words and themes, which in turn allows the researcher to draw some conclusions (Burnard, 1991).

3.1.2. Content Analysis Procedures

In contrast to quantitative content analysis, qualitative content analysis has no set procedure to be followed while analysing the data. However, there are several principles developed by researchers used in content analysis. These principles are almost the same yet different in the number or the order of steps (Burnard, 1991). For example, the procedure developed by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) is made up of eleven steps:

- Define the research questions to be addressed by the content analysis,
- Define the population from which units of text are to be sampled,
- Define the sample to be included,
- Define the context of the generation of the document,
- Define the units of analysis,
- Decide the codes to be used in the analysis,
- Construct the categories for analysis,
- Conduct the coding and categorizing of the data,
- Conduct the data analysis,
- Summarizing, and making speculative inferences.

To overcome the weaknesses of qualitative methods, it is suggested to include quantity in content analysis. According to Weber (1990), the best way to get reliable results is to combine quantitative and qualitative content analysis. For others, it is stated that the nature of content

analysis entails quantity, not only quality, since it relies on measuring the degree that words occur in texts and using statistics to report the results (Neuman, 2014). In the same vein, Krippendorff (2004) disagreed with the distinction between quantitative and qualitative content analysis; he stated that they should not be separated at all.

Another procedure which was developed by Lynch (1996) to evaluate programs is composed of five steps. The steps are introduced and explained in what follows:

- *Developing a thematic framework:* In the first place, the researcher is supposed to describe the central issues, questions to be answered, and information that the audience needs. In addition, he is required to determine the goal of the study which is dependent on the audience. To state it differently, the researcher has to focus his study by developing a thematic framework that represents the most important questions to be answered.
- *Organising the data:* In this stage, the data should be gathered (e.g., transcribe tape-recordings from interviews). If the researcher has data from various techniques, he has to organise them separately (e.g., “questionnaire file”, “documents file”, etc). Then, the stage of forming hypotheses, revising preliminary themes, and constructing categories and codes for the data has to take place.
- *Coding the data:* The researcher, in this stage, should have several readings through the data for the sake of primarily thinking of ways to code the data and then subsequently starting to code either on the margin or in another note-taking sheet. Codes are defined as the use of abbreviations to refer to the themes that the researcher starts to find (Lynch, 1996).
- *Classifying and reducing the data:* After the coding stage, the data should be further reduced by using classification schemes such as category system, typologies, and

display matrices. The rudimentary idea is to look for patterns that are occurring more than once in the data and to find ways of classifying them together.

- *Interpretation and conclusion:* This stage entails interpreting the reduced data and drawing final conclusions. Even though it is the last step, it is necessary to come back to the previous stages and to do some revisions concerning the thematic framework and the reconstruction of categories and displays. The conclusion can be drawn in different ways, for instance, through scanning the display matrix for specific difference patterns or specific similarity patterns.

Krippendorff's (2004, p. 83) procedure of content analysis, or what he called research design, is made up of six steps:

- Unitizing: relying on unitizing schemes.
- Sampling: relying on sampling plans
- Recording/ coding: relying on coding instructions
- Reducing data to manageable representations: relying on established statistical techniques or other methods for summarizing or simplifying data
- Inductively inferring contextual phenomena: relying on analytical constructs or models of the chosen context as warrants
- Narrating the answer to the research question: relying on narrative tradition or discursive conventions established within the discipline of the content analyst.

However, Dornyei's (2007) procedure for content analysis is made up of only three steps. He stated that one should not depart with coding directly. Instead, one reads the data first. The coding procedure aims at "reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts" (p. 250). Moreover, coding "involves extracts of the transcribed data and labeling these in a way that they can be

easily identified, retrieved, or grouped” (p. 250). Dornyei’s three-step procedure is explained below:

- **Initial coding**

As a first step, one reads the data and at the same time highlights what is related and important to one’s area of interest. At the same time, on the margin, one should insert a clear label.

-Second level coding:

In this stage, the researcher is required to go through the data and make a list of all the already identified codes. Undoubtedly, one will find common or nearly linked categories that can be grouped under a general label. What should be done next is seeing if there is a linkage between the particular extracts and the recently formed general category to check whether the new label is suitable for all of them or others need to be coded again. In case almost all the extracts adequately fit the new category, it means that the coding is valid. When one is done with checking the codes list, one might revise the original data and code them again using the new categories. Sometimes, this procedure is applied many times.

Crabtree and Miller (1999; as cited in Dornyei, 2007) called another way used in that stage ‘a template organizing style’. This method does not focus on developing codes gradually; however, it begins the analysis with a list of codes, like what is done in quantitative content analysis. Hence, the departure is from a coding list, which is determined before the analysis process. In order to make such a procedure sound qualitative, one should revise or modify the coding list ‘template’ during the process of analysis.

- **Growing Ideas: memos, vignettes, interview profiles, and forms of data display**

The majority of researchers pointed out that coding is a paramount step in content analysis, yet it should be combined with other tools such as *memos, vignettes, interview profiles, and different forms of data display* (Dornyei, 2007, p. 254). The most significant tool for analysis

is writing 'memos'. *Analytic memos* refer to "all notes of the thoughts and ideas that come to mind" about codes during the coding process. They are very useful and helpful to the second-level coding, and it is possible to be a source of some central conclusions that will be derived from the study. That is, they may result in ideas that will in turn bring about central themes.

Vignettes are another analytical tool. They are defined as "short narratives that provide focused descriptions of events or participant experiences" (p. 255). They are the opposite of memos since they provide a description of something perceived as special. In addition to vignettes, *data display* is another tool. There are different forms of displays such as matrices, graphs, charts, and networks. They seek to display and order data in a simple and visual way. The significance of such displays is represented in the fact that they have a big role to play when coming to drawing conclusions. They are the basis for data interpretations.

- **Interpreting the data and drawing conclusions :**

The interpretation of data and writing conclusions are the last steps when analysing qualitative data. The interpretation of data is a cumulative and ongoing process that starts from the coding step to growing ideas. However, at the final stage, the whole process will result in selecting the main theme (s), which lights will be shed on. In other words, writing conclusions requires opting for central themes that are generated from the aforementioned steps. Importantly, the focus will be put on some concepts based on their salience and their linkage with other significant categories.

2.5.1. Reliability and Validity of Content Analysis

Reliability refers to "our measure repeatedly delivering the same (or near same) results. Ideally, if we use the same measure with the same people under the same conditions, our measure should give us the same result" (Litosseliti, 2010, p, 55-56). Validity, on the other hand, is "our measure actually measuring what is supposed to measure" (Litosseliti, 2010, p. 55-56). They are considered as standards for evaluating the effectiveness of research. To decide

upon the reliability of research, researchers analyse a study and then compare their findings to see if they agree on the same codes or not (Mayring, 2014). Hence, content analysis is considered a threat to reliability mainly because researchers may use different codes and categorizations. Hence, if a study is replicable, different results will be obtained. Additionally, the documents may be subjective, and chosen on purpose, not complete, etc., for they are meant to be used for a another goal which is totally different from that of the researcher (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Several researchers hotly criticized the use of the old criteria ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ for the evaluation of research in content analysis (Myring, 2014; Steinke, 2000). To measure the reliability of research, researchers resort to a comparison between the findings. However, this method was also rejected because a high match between coders is possible to be found except in analyses that are not complex. That is, the more category system is precise and explicit, the higher difficulty to obtain reliable findings (Ritsert, 1972, as cited in Myring, 2014).

It is very common that different results are found even if the data is the same. To overcome the problem, more than one researcher should analyse the data separately from others and then compare their results and get an agreement (Burnard, 1991; Catanzaro, 1988). To raise validity in content analysis, researchers should immerse an individual who has not participated in the study in making a comparison between the data obtained and the findings and then to see if it says the truth or not, i.e., the data reasonably reflect the findings. Some researchers claim that this process is one type of triangulation. In order to confirm the findings, one should employ various methods or sources for data gathering which are other forms of triangulation (Patton, 2002).

Nevertheless, some researchers suggested other criteria to evaluate content analysis and rejected the old criteria (Long & Johnson, 2000). These new criteria are ‘credibility’, which is linked to ‘validity’, ‘dependability’ linked to ‘reliability’, and ‘transferability’ linked to

‘generalization’ (Patton, 2002). What is worth stating is not the selection of terms, yet how these terms are explained with reference to ‘truth’ and ‘truth worthiness’ because, unlike quantitative research, in qualitative research the truth is not finite. Instead, interest is drawn to the quality of the data and on interpreting a particular problem in detail rather than focusing on generalizing the results (Patton, 2002).

3.2. Methodology

The technique used for analysing data is content analysis since the target aim is the evaluation of Literary Texts and Culture of the Language syllabi. Content analysis was used instead of document analysis because the latter unlike the former allows to go deeply in the analysis and to provide statistics. Hence, the analysis of syllabi would be the focal point of this chapter in addition to the teachers’ interview.

3.2.1. Definition of ICC

The definition of ICC that is adopted in this study is adapted from Byram (1997) and that of Barrett et al., (2014) which is in turn based on Byram’s model of ICC (1997) (see chapter 2):

- Attitudes: stop making judgements and develop attitudes of openness, respect, tolerance, acceptance, and empathy towards other cultures.
- Knowledge: of one’s culture’s values, beliefs, and practices and that of the others.
- Skills: skills of interpreting and relating and skills of interaction and discovery. The former refer to the ability to interpret events and documents from one’s own culture and to relate them to events or documents from the target culture or the opposite. The latter refer to the ability to use knowledge, attitudes, and skills of interpretation to discover other cultures and to interact with members from other cultures. Another skills was added which skill of

- Awareness: evaluating and judging critically one's own culture and that of others.

3.2.2. Description of the Evaluation Procedure

To collect data, two research tools were used: document syllabi and an interview. In the first place, we opted for some document syllabi to be evaluated for the sake of finding out if teachers of English at the Department of English at Jijel University, the field of the study, take into account ICC when designing their courses or not in the academic year 2019/2020. We worked with the licence levels (L1, L2 and L3). Hence, the syllabuses of the following subjects were evaluated :

- Oral Expression
- Literary Texts
- Culture of the Language

The sampling procedure used in selecting the syllabi documents is purposive sampling or what is called 'relevant sampling' by Krippendorff (2004) which means "selecting all textual units that contribute to answering given research questions" (p. 119). The reason behind selecting the previously mentioned subjects, in particular, is due to their relation with culture.

Unlike the subjects of Literary Texts and Culture of the Language, only Oral Expression, which is a skill-based module, does not have a fixed syllabus in the department at the three levels. From our experience teaching this module at the department for three years and from our discussion with other teachers teaching the same module, it was found that teachers of Oral Expression rely on their experiences and skills to design their own courses. However, we could hardly collect the syllabi of the other modules from other teachers. We asked the teachers for their syllabuses via emails and via contacting the head of the department. The majority of teachers were hesitant because they thought that their syllabi are personal since they were self-designed, as stated by one teacher. After a long period, we received all syllabuses (appendix A)

in the academic year 2020/2021; some of them were printed, yet others were written by hand (appendix A). As stated before, the syllabi we got were the teachers' personal efforts. Each teacher designed his/her own.

In the second place, because Oral Expression teachers did not have any syllabuses, a semi-structured interview was conducted with six Oral Expression teachers in February 2021 to get the necessary data about what they teach. Each two of them were teachers of L1, L2, and L3. We relied on note-taking strategy to obtain data from the teachers. The procedure for selecting the sample is convenience; we selected the teachers that they work at the same day with us, so it was easy to meet them and conduct an interview with them. Finding out whether EFL teachers aim implicitly or explicitly at developing learners' ICC is the main aim the interview. Hence, questions were addressed to the teachers were about the teaching objectives, the method (techniques and activities), and the content (appendix B).

Regarding the other subjects namely Literary Texts and Language and Culture, we got three syllabi of each subject from three different teachers teaching different levels (first-year, second-year, and third-year)_ that is, different syllabi for both subjects. In fact, the reason for analysing only this limited number is due to the fact that only one teacher taught one level. Even though there were two teachers teaching the same level, they had one syllabi since they designed it together. What is worth mentioning is that the syllabi we got are not detailed. That is, only the titles of the lectures were written. Objectives were missing as well as activities and techniques.

It is of paramount importance to state again the research question that will be answered after the interpretation of the results.

✚ Do the EFL existing syllabi cater to the learners' ICC development?

Interestingly, the content analysis procedure chosen to be used in this study is that of Dornyei (2007). We selected his model instead of others because it is made up of only three-steps.

Besides, it is comprehensive. Further, it is approximately the same as Lynch (1996) and Cohen et al. (2007) in terms of content. They differ only in the use of labels and the number of steps. We used a predefined code_ that is; codes are defined before the analysis is done. The aim of the evaluation is to see whether particular teachers at the Department of English, Jijel University, take ICC into account in the process of designing their syllabi. Because teachers only provided us with titles, and not the whole content, of their courses, we could not use all ICC dimensions _attitudes, skills, and awareness as predefined categories to code the data, except for knowledge. Instead, we opted for three categories adopted from Cortazzi and Jin (1999) to be used in the analysis: target culture, source culture, and international target culture.

- Source culture: it refers to one's native culture. In this study, it is the Algerian culture.
- Target culture: it refers to English speaking countries.
- International culture: it refers to a wide variety of cultures except for the Algerian and the English cultures.

Besides, data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively where we counted the frequencies and percentages based on titles of course contents. To raise validity and reliability, a teacher of literature was immersed with us when coding the data to achieve inter-reliability of coding. At the end, we compared the findings, and few changes were made.

3.2.3. Findings

3.2.3.1. Interview Findings

To analyse data obtained from interview, themes were used. The first question was about the teaching objectives. All teachers said that their courses are targeted at developing both listening and speaking skills. Two teachers devised one semester for one skill, yet others mixed between the two. Importantly, one teacher stated that raising cultural awareness is one of her

aims in addition to the listening and speaking skills. She added that because of globalisation, teachers should integrate culture in the EFL classroom.

As far as what to teach, one teacher said that sometimes she does not have something in mind before entering the classroom. Instead, she let the students themselves decide what topics they like to discuss or games to play_ what is important is the discussion or the interaction to take place between the students. The teacher discussed their suggestions and then agreed on one thing or more if time allows. Generally, the topics revolve around social topics that happened recently in Algeria or around the world like wars, elections, diseases, etc. Other topic types are social media, the Internet, autism, bullying, stereotypes, weddings all around the world or in a specific country, etc. Moreover, the majority of teachers (5) shared the fact that they rely highly on authentic materials. They mentioned idioms, proverbs, videos, short films, etc. Only one teacher argued that watching videos and films then discussing elements of the target culture is vital for learners.

Regarding the method used by Oral Expression teachers, different methods were used. Three teachers stated that they used group work for they believe that they raise learners' motivation towards participating in different tasks. Speaking about presentations, two teachers said that they devote one whole semester to presentations of different topics. The others said that they do it once a week in case there are two sessions (L1 and L2), or once in two weeks in case there is only an Oral Expression session (L3). The presentations are either opted for by students or suggested by the teacher. Role-plays are frequently used to learn and practise vocabulary and expressions used in that context, as stated by four teachers. Examples are conversations in a restaurant, at the doctor's check-up, doing a job interview, etc. Importantly, one teacher mentioned that she relies much on comparison technique whenever students present topics about the American or the British culture. Two teachers mentioned that they use the summary technique whenever they make students listen to an audio, such as that of Mr. Dunken

and 6 minutes English. They also rely on analysing the language and comprehension questions, in the after listening stage.

3.2.3.2. Content Analysis Findings

In what follows, the findings from analysing the syllabi of the Literary Texts and Culture of the Language will be explicated separately in each level.

➤ **Literary Texts**

- **L1 Literary Texts**

Table 3.1

Categories of Culture in L1 Literary Texts

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	2	100
Source Culture	0	0
International Culture	0	0
Total	2	100

Table 3.1 shows that the target culture category is only present in the L1 Literary Texts syllabus. Both the source culture and the international culture are absent.

- **L2 Literary Texts**

Table 3.2

Categories of Culture in L2 Literary Texts

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	11	68.75
Source Culture	00	00
International Culture	5	31.25
Total	16	100

The category of the target culture appears considerably (68.75%) in L2 Literary Texts subject unlike the source culture which appeared slightly (31.25%). On the contrary, the source culture is absent in the L2 Literary Texts subject.

- **L3 Literary Texts**

Table 3.3

Categories of Culture in L3 Literary Texts

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	7	77.77
Source Culture	0	00
International Culture	2	22.2
Total	9	100

Table 3.3 shows that the target culture category represented by 77.77% whereas the international culture represented only by 22.2 %. Unsurprisingly, the source culture category is not dealt with in the L3 Literary Texts subject.

➤ **Culture of the Language**

• **L1 Culture of the Language**

Table 3.4

Categories of Culture in L1 Culture of the Language

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	29	60.41
Source Culture	0	00
International Culture	19	39.58
Total	48	100

Results displayed in Table 3.4 reveal that the target culture is a dominant category (60.41%) followed by the international culture category (39.58%). However, the source culture is not present (00%).

• **L2 Culture of the Language**

Table 3.5

Categories of Culture in L2 Culture of the Language

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	18	100
Source Culture	0	00
International Culture	0	00
Total	18	100

The dominant category in the subject of L2 Culture of the Language is the target culture (100%). However, both the source culture and the international culture are not covered (00%).

- **L3 Culture of the Language**

Table 3.6

Categories of Culture in L3 Culture of the Language

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	21	100
Source Culture	00	00
International Culture	00	00
Total	00	00

Table 3.6 shows that the target culture is the only central category in the L3 Culture of the Language (100%). The source culture as well as the international culture were not present (100%).

Table 3. 7

Categories of Culture in Literary Texts and Culture of the Language (L1, L2, and L3)

Categories	F	%
Target Culture	88	77.19
Source Culture	00	00
International Culture	26	22.81
Total	114	100

The overall categories obtained from the analysis of the syllabi of Literary Texts and language and culture (L1, L2, and L3) are presented in Table 3.7.

First Category: Target Culture

The target culture, British or American, is present highly (77.19%) in all the teachers' syllabuses, be they in Literary Texts or Language and Culture at the three levels. The target culture in L1 Literary Texts which appears only twice (100%) is dealt with by studying different literary genres: prose and poetry and then analysing samples of either British or American literary works such as Shakespearian sonnets and the novel of 'The Old Man and the Sea' by the American novelist Hemingway. Likewise, in L2 Literary Texts, the target culture (68.75%) is tackled through studying poetry, drama, and fiction and then reading and analysing different types of Literary Texts. Examples of these literary works are: 'The Single Man' by Charles Dickens, 'Fire and Ice' by Robert Frost, 'Macbeth' and 'the comedy of Errors' by Shakespeare, 'The Road' by 'Cormac McCarthy', 'Death of a Salesman' by 'Arthur Miller'. The target culture is shown, in L3 Literary Texts subject, through studying literary movements like feminism, Marxism, and post-colonialism then reading and analysing literary samples belonging to these movements, such as 'The Yellow Wall Paper'. Further, the target culture is also shown when studying samples of literary theories _reader-response criticism, deconstruction, and new historicism_ like 'The Great Gatsby'. An Irish literary work, entitled 'Araby', was analysed in the L3 Literary Texts syllabus when teaching the theory of reader-response criticism.

Knowledge about the target culture is also covered through studying the American and British civilizations and history. The American civilization taught to L1 revolves around the early people who lived in America, ancient American civilizations (the Maya, the Aztecs, and the Inca), the age of explorations, the Renaissance, and the search for new trade routes. The British history taught to L1 students revolves around Roman Britain, the invaders (Angles/Saxons/ Jutes), the Vikings, the Normans, etc. The British history taught to L2 includes Roman Britain, Saxon Britain, Norman Britain, Lancastrian & Yorkish Britain, Tudor Britain,

Stuart Britain, Georgian Britain, the Agricultural Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution. Regarding American civilization, the syllabus starts with American geography. Then, it deals with the foundation of English America, the birth of the American nation, slavery, the American civil war, etc. The target culture is the dominant category in L3 language and culture syllabus (100%). It is represented by teaching only the American history where Native America is taught first. Then, the syllabus tackles the issue of slavery prior to, during, and after the civil war. Industrial America is taught at the end.

Comparing the L1, L2, and L3 target culture category of both Literary Texts and Culture of the Language, it is found that the frequencies of Literary Texts ($F=2+11+7=20$) exceeds those of Culture of the Language ($F=29+18+21=68$). This difference may be attributed to the nature of the subject as Literary Texts deals much with literary theories and movements unlike Culture of the Language that has a direct link with history and civilizations.

Second Category: Source Culture

The native culture is absent (00%) in both ‘culture and language’ and ‘Literary Texts’ syllabuses. This absence in the culture of language subject can be due to the nature of the subject, which is content-based. Because teachers are restricted by the curriculum, and the target language is English, the curriculum is either targeted toward British or American civilization in L2 and L3 and toward ancient western civilizations in L1. Regarding the subject of Literary Texts, similar to teachers of culture of language, teachers are restricted to select either target or international Literary Texts (i.e., non-source culture) to exemplify some literary movements. Feminism, for example, took place mainly in the United States; consequently, this requires teachers to use an American literary work to explain the theory. Moreover, the absence of the source culture can be attributed to the lack of Arabic literary works that are written in English in general and Algerian ones in particular into English.

Third Category: International Culture

The international, non-target culture includes all cultures that do not belong to either the target culture, British and American, or the native culture. The international culture was moderately present (22.81%) in both syllabi. In the L2 Literary Texts syllabus, a French work was used to exemplify drama, entitled ‘*No Exit*’ by *Jean-Paul Sartre*. In the unit of fiction, a work was used entitled ‘*In the Penal Colony*’ by ‘*Franz Kafka*’. Another work by the Indian author Jhumpa Lahiri is entitled ‘*The Interpreter of Maladies*’. In the L3 syllabus, another literary work for African literature is used when teaching the theory of post-colonialism, entitled ‘*Once upon a time*’ for *Nadine Gordimer*. Similarly, another French work entitled ‘*Diamond Necklace*’ is used.

Regarding the syllabus of language and culture, the non-target culture category was only present in L1, but absent in L2 and L3, through teaching about ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. This absence in the later is due to dealing only with the target culture history.

3.2.4. Discussion of the Interview and Content Analysis Findings

The interview conducted with the Oral Expression teachers yielded that ICC is not an essential aim to be achieved by the majority of teachers. This module seeks primarily to improve both the speaking and listening skills. The majority of teachers relied on students’ presentations as their favourite teaching activity, audios, films, and videos as their major teaching materials. However, their content was not culture-gearred since students usually like to present about social topics; teachers used audio-visual materials to teach English lessons.

Exceptionally, one teacher indicated that raising learners’ intercultural awareness is a secondary aim. From analysing the content and methodology employed by these teachers, ICC development is seen when doing role plays in different contexts and when presenting few

topics that entail comparing between one's own culture and that of others,. This implies that ICC is catered to in the Oral Expression subject to a small extent.

The syllabuses of the L1, L2, and L3 Literary Texts and Culture of the Language were analysed through the procedure of content analysis, particularly relying on the checklist introduced by Cortazzi and Jin (1999). Results obtained showed that the category of the target culture is the dominant category (F=88; 77,19). The international culture was dealt with moderately (F=26; 22.86%). However, the source culture is totally absent. First, only the target culture category is covered in the L1 Literary Texts subject by a low frequency (F=2 ;100%). Similarly, the dominant category in both L2 and L3 Literary Texts is the target culture which is covered by a moderate frequency, (F=11;86.75%) and (F=7; 77.77%) respectively.

The target culture category is highly covered in L1 Culture of the Language. (F=29 ;60.41%). The international culture is also considerably accounted (F=19 ; 39.58%). Importantly, the category of the target culture is dominant also in both L2 (F=18;100%) and L3 (F=21; 100%) Culture of the Language subject.

Relating Chen's checklist to Byram's adapted model in this study, findings indicated that the knowledge about the target culture is highly included in the analysed syllabuses than the international culture, which in turn got a low frequency. However, the source culture is not covered. Therefore, results, from the analysis of syllabi, yielded that both subjects do not aim at the development of ICC but instead at delivering knowledge of either British and American civilisations or literature. Besides, since tasks were not included in the document syllabi, we could not say whether awareness, attitudes, and skills are accounted or not. Hence, the existing EFL syllabi do not cater to the learners' ICC development.

Conclusion

This chapter aimed at evaluating the existing syllabi from the ICC perspective. Findings revealed that the syllabi of Literary Texts and Culture of the Language cover knowledge of target culture more than the international culture. On the contrary, the home culture, the Algerian culture, is totally neglected. That is, the development of ICC is not the aim of the existing syllabi. To have the complete picture on whether attitudes, skills, and awareness were targeted or not, the whole course, which is made up of tasks and content, should be provided. The teachers' interviews indicated that their teaching practices are highly focused on developing the learners' oral skills: listening and speaking. Development of learners' ICC takes place explicitly by a few of them mainly through the comparison technique.

Chapter Four: Students' Needs Analysis

Introduction

4.1. Means and Data Collection

4.2. Population and Sampling

4.3. Piloting the Questionnaire

4.4. Description of the Questionnaire

4.5. Interpretation of the Results

4.6. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Conclusion

Introduction

After the evaluation of Literary Texts and Language and Culture syllabi that showed that they do not aim at fostering learners' ICC, one should proceed with the evaluation of the learners' needs for the sake of designing an intercultural course (the aim of the next chapter). In other words, this current chapter is centred on the students' needs. It starts with the description of the research tool used in order to gather data about the learners' lacks and wants, then describes the sample, the piloting stage, and the administering of the questionnaire. This chapter ends with a discussion and interpretation of the results.

4.1. Means and Data Collection

As it is mentioned in the literature of the first chapter, there are a myriad of tools that can be used for collecting information about learners' needs. The questionnaire is chosen amongst other tools, for it is suitable for a large sample (Robinson, 1991), easy to be administered and to be interpreted (Richards, 2001). Thus, a student's questionnaire is employed to explore the first-year EFL learners' needs. The questionnaire is self-designed.

4.2. Population and Sampling

The population that was selected in this study is first-year EFL students at Jijel University. We opted for this population in particular because we live in Jijel. Besides, we have been working there as a part-time teacher at the Department of English of the same university for more than six years. Thus, it is the most suitable fieldwork for the researcher to conduct her study to avoid wasting time and cost. Further, we opted for the first-year level in particular because ICC can be developed at any level even starting from primary schools as well as children (Barrett, 2014; Doyé, 1999; Dziejewicz, Gajda, & Karwowski, 2014). Furthermore, the first-year level is a good choice to exclude the intervention of any extraneous variables, i.e., unlike second-year and third-year levels, first-year students did not spend much time studying

culture-related modules namely American and British Civilization and Literary Texts. Accordingly, if there is a change in the students' ICC level, it will be due to the treatment and not because of other intervening variables.

The whole number of first-year students is estimated by 300 students divided into 12 groups. Each group includes about 25 students. We administered the questionnaire to 100 first-year EFL students, that is, the third of the population. However, only 88 students filled out the questionnaires, three of which returned them empty, and the rest were incomplete. Hence, 88 students are considered as the sample of this study. We opted for a convenience sampling procedure since we selected a sample that is available and easy to reach (Dornyei, 2007; Nunan, 1992). That is, the sample includes students taught by us, and students from other groups were available when administering the questionnaire. We administered the questionnaires to students; we were present when they were filling them out to ensure they would return them.

4.3. Piloting the Questionnaire

First, the questionnaire was piloted (appendix C) before distribution to, randomly selected, seven students on the 17th of October 2022. Robinson (1991) put a strong emphasis on making few participants from the population answer the questionnaire before being administered “to see whether the questions are comprehensible and whether the answers can be easily analysed and compared” (p. 12).

From the pilot study, we gained some insights and used them to modify some elements of the questionnaire. Importantly, students found difficulties understanding some words such as ‘attitudes’, ‘inauthentic’, and some activities such as ‘brainstorming’, ‘drama’, and ‘ethnographic tasks’. Thus, we defined them. Besides, an explanation to the teacher’ and students’ roles was provided, and a definition of the approaches that develop ICC was added. In addition, we further altered some words and replaced them with clear ones (as

‘cooperatively’ by ‘helping each other’ and ‘dominated’ by ‘controlled’). Learners also asked to clarify some of the suggested topics. Accordingly, we exemplified those topics, in particular, to make them comprehensible. Besides, we reformulated a few questions to make them clear to the students after they said they are ambiguous. For example, one of the questions was ‘how much do you agree that teaching language and culture should introduce both the foreign culture and one’s own culture’ and becomes ‘to what extent do you agree that teaching culture should introduce both the foreign culture and the native culture’ (Q11).

4.4. Description of the Questionnaire

This questionnaire is addressed to first-year LMD students of English. In the introductory part, we explained the aim behind it, which is exploring EFL students’ needs from an ICC point of view. These needs in turn will help in designing an intercultural course for the sake of developing learners’ ICC. A definition of ICC is provided to avoid any ambiguities.

The students’ questionnaire (appendix D) is made up of twenty (20) questions presented in six sections: ‘General Information’, ‘Learning Preferences’, ‘Attitudes and Expectations’, ‘Abilities’, ‘Areas of Interest’, ‘Methodology’ and ‘Further Comments and Suggestions’. The questions are of three types: close-ended, open-ended, and (five-point) Likert scale questions.

The first section, which is called ‘General information’, is made up of four questions (4Qs). It aims at describing the sample’s gender (Q1), the number of years spent studying the English language (Q2), learners’ choices of studying English at the university (Q3), and the reasons behind learning English (Q4).

The second section is intended to explore the way in which learners prefer to learn, ‘Learning preferences’. It is made up of five questions. They are about learning styles (Q5), pedagogical approaches (Q6), learning environment in the classroom whether led by the teacher or the students (Q7), teacher’s role (Q8), and students’ role (Q9).

The third section which is entitled 'Attitudes and Expectations' is comprised of three questions. It is about learners' opinions about learning a FL in parallel with its culture (Q10), learners' opinions about teaching a foreign culture in parallel with learners' own culture (Q11), and learners' views on the degree of the importance of developing ICC (Q12).

The fourth section of the questionnaire has to do with investigating students' lacks and necessities concerning ICC competences. In Q13 and Q14, students were asked to evaluate themselves as far as their English level is concerned and then their ICC level (self-evaluation), respectively. In Q15, students are requested to mention the difficulties they encounter while communicating then to opt for the ICC competence (s) they need to enhance more (Q16).

The fifth section is pertained to learners' areas of interest. That is, the central aim of this unit is to explore the content for developing learners' ICC. It includes one question; twelve themes were suggested for ICC development (Q17). Learners were asked to say to what extent each theme is interesting to them.

The sixth section has to do with methodology. It is made up of two questions: preferred materials then tasks and techniques preferred by learners for ICC development (Q18 & Q 19).

The last section allows the learners to add any comments or suggestions (Q20).

4.5. Interpretation of the Results

The questionnaire was analysed through SPSS using the frequency of answers (F) and percentages (%). For Likert scale questions, the mean (M) and the standard deviation (SD) were counted too. The mean is calculated by the total of each frequency in the Likert scale divided on the total number of the participants. The highest mean score indicates the highest needs. The SD indicates the dispersion or the spread out of the students' answers.

To analyse the questions, five-point Likert scales were used (Prachanant, 2012, p.120).

Scale	Mean Average (M)
5	4.50- 5.00
4	3.50-4.49
3	2.50-3.49
2	1.50-2.49
1	1.00-1.49

Section One: General Information

Q1: What is your gender?

a. Male

b. Female

Table 4.1

Students' Gender

Options	F	%
a.	10	11,4
b.	78	88,6
Total	88	100,0

From Table 4.1, we notice that females represented the majority of the sample. This can be justified by the fact that females prefer to study FL.

Q2: How long have you been learning English?

Table 4.2

Number of Years Spent Studying English

Years	F	%
7,00	68	77,2
8,00	9	10,2
9,00	3	3,4
10,00	4	4,5
11,00	2	2,3
12,00	1	1,1
No answer	1	1,1
Total	88	100,0

Most students (77, 2%) reported that they spent seven years studying English, four years in the middle school, and three years in the secondary school. However, the remaining percentage (32,8 %) stated that they spent more than seven years, from eight years to twelve years.

Q3: Is studying English at university your own choice?

- a. Yes**
- b. No**

Table 4.3

Desire of Studying English

Options	F	%
a.	71	80,7
b.	17	19,3
Total	88	100,0

One of several factors behind success in learning a FL is to love what one is studying because it results in a positive attitude. Remarkably, the highest percentage (80.7%) represents the students who answered positively. On the other hand, the rest (19.3%) answered negatively; that is, they stated that their choice is not to study English, but something else. These students in particular are likely to be demotivated. Therefore, their choices would influence them negatively as motivation is one of the factors that leads to better learning and the opposite is true for the others.

Q4: Why are you learning English?

- a. To get a job**
- b. To communicate appropriately and effectively**
- c. To Travel Abroad**
- d. Others: Please, specify**

Table 4.4

Purposes for Learning English

Options	F	%
A	3,00	3,41
B	5,00	5,68
C	3,00	3,41
D	2,00	2,27
a+b	1,00	1,14
a+c	3,00	3,41
b+c	9,00	10,23
a+b+c	55,00	62,50
b+c+e	1,00	1,14
a+b+c+e	6,00	6,82
Total	88,00	100,00

The majority of learners (62.5%) are learning the English language for a combination of three reasons (a+b+c) : ‘communicating appropriately and effectively’, ‘travelling abroad’ (33.3%), and ‘getting a job’. This may be attributed to the fact that learners are aware of the significance of the English language as it is an international language; English has been recently integrated as a subject in the Algerian primary school. The remaining are very dispersed as they chose either one reason or a combination of two reasons.

The other reasons for learning English are:

- I love English (1 student).
- I learn English for pleasure (1 student).

Section Two: Learning Preferences

Q5: What kind of learner are you?

a. Auditory b. Visual c. Kinaesthetic d. Others. Please, specify

Table 4.5

Learning Styles

<i>Options</i>	F	%
A	19,00	21,59
B	13,00	14,77
C	10,00	11,36
a+b	7,00	7,95
a+c	9,00	10,23
a+d	1,00	1,14
b+c	7,00	7,95
a+b+c	16,00	18,18
a+b+d	1,00	1,14
a+c+d	1,00	1,14
a+b+c+d	4,00	4,55
Total	88,00	100,00

The results in Table 4.5 show that students do not have a particular learning style as only almost half of them ($47.68\% = 21.59\% + 14.77\% + 11.36\%$) selected one option. The remaining

half preferred two or three learning styles. The highest percentage (21.59%) is for the auditory learning style. The remaining learning styles ‘visual’ and ‘kinaesthetic’ got approximately the same percentages which are (14.77%) and (11.36%), respectively. A considerable number of learners (18.18%) stated that they have three learning styles (a+b+c). The remaining stated that they have two or more than three learning styles. This combination of learning styles goes hand in hand with those who argued that learning styles are not dichotomous, that is either this or that. On the contrary, learners can be somehow auditory and somehow visual for example (Ehrman, 1996).

Q6: How do you prefer to learn?

- a. *Cooperative learning*
- b. *Experiential learning*
- c. *Project work*
- d. **Others: Please, specify**

Table 4.6

Preferences about Learning Approaches

Options	F	%
A	27	30,7
B	16	18,2
C	7	8,0
D	4	4,5
a+b	4	4,5
a+c	4	4,5
a+e	1	1,1
b+c	3	3,4
b+e	1	1,1
a+b+c	19	21,6
a+b+c+e	1	1,1
No answer	1	1
Total	88	100,0

A significant number of respondents (30.7%) said that they prefer learning through the cooperative approach. Other respondents (18, 2%) preferred to learn by experience. Only few (8%) selected 'project work' to be their preferred learning approach. For 21.6%, they preferred learning through a combination of the three ways. However, very few of them (4.5%) selected 'others' which means that they do not prefer the three mentioned approaches yet others. Unfortunately, none of them specified their choices.

Q7: Which learning environment do you prefer most?**a. Where the classroom is controlled by the teacher**

b. Where the classroom is led by the students

Table 4.7

Student/Teacher Dominance in the Class

Options	F	%
a.	60	68,1
b.	27	30,7
Missing	1	1,1
Total	88	100,0

The above question aims at finding out whether learners prefer a learner-centred approach or a teacher-centred approach. Results show that more than half of the informants (68.1%) prefer the dominance of the teacher. However, only more than a quarter of them stated that they are oriented towards learner-centeredness. This may be attributed to the fact that students are influenced by the approaches used by their teachers from primary school to secondary school, where students did not have much freedom and autonomy in the class.

Q8: What kinds of role do you like your teacher to have?

- a. A facilitator**
- b. A participant**
- c. A controller**
- d. Others: Please, specify**

Table 4.8

Teacher's Roles

Options	F	%
A	25	28,41
B	37,00	42,05
C	18,00	20,45
D	00	00
a+b	2,00	2,27
a+c	1,00	1,14
b+c	3,00	3,41
a+b+c	1,00	1,14
a+b+c+d	1,00	1,14
Total	88,00	100,00

As far as teachers' roles are concerned, 'a participant' has the highest rate (42.05%). The remaining percentages opted for 'a facilitator' and 'a controller', (28.41%) and (20.45%) respectively. However, opted for more than one role.

Q9: What kinds of roles do you like to have in the classroom?

a. An active role

b. A passive role

Table 4.9

Students' Roles

Options	F	%
a.	73	83,0
b.	15	17,0
Total	88	100,0

Table 4.9 indicates that the vast majority of the informants (83%) selected an 'active role' to be their favourite role taken in the classroom while learning. The rest (17%) chose the

‘passive role’. This is an indication that learners like to change their old role and start depending on themselves instead of the teachers.

Section Three: Attitudes and Expectations

Q10: To what extent do you agree that learning a foreign language involves learning its culture as well?

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Neutral
- d. Agree
- e. Strongly agree

Table 4.10

Including Culture in FL Learning

Options	F	%	M	SD
Strongly disagree	1	1,1		
Disagree	2	2,3		
Neutral	21	23,9	3,91	0,81
Agree	44	50,0		
Strongly agree	20	22,7		
Total	88	100,0		

Respondents who answered by ‘strongly disagree’ were given a rating of 1, those who answered by ‘disagree’ were given a rating of 2, those who are not sure of their answers ‘neutral’ were given a rating of 3, those who ‘agreed’ were given a rating of 4, and those who ‘strongly agree’ were given a rating of 5.

From Table 4.10, half of the respondents (50%) stated that they are with the inclusion of culture in FL classes. Moreover, almost one-quarter of the participants (22.7%) strongly agreed. The M score for this question is high (3.91), which means that the majority agree with the incorporation of culture in EFL classes. The SD is somehow low (0.81) which means that the others' choices are not spread out from the mean. One can conclude that the learners have positive attitudes towards culture integration in EFL classes.

Q11: To what extent do you agree that teaching culture should introduce both the foreign culture and the native culture?

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Neutral
- d. Agree
- e. Strongly agree

Table 4.11

Including the Foreign and the Home Culture in EFL Classes

Options	F	%	M	SD
Strongly disagree	2	2,3		
Disagree	7	8,0		
Neutral	21	23,9	3,71	0,94
Agree	41	46,6		
Strongly agree	16	18,2		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Respondents expressed their favourable attitudes towards that question as the slight majority (64.8) of them answered by ‘agree’ (46.6%) and 18.2% of them answered by ‘strongly agree’. Almost one quarter (23.9%) selected ‘neutral’. Very small percentages selected either ‘strongly disagree’ (2.3%) or ‘disagree’ (8%). The mean score is high (M=3.71) which indicates that the majority are in agreement with the native culture and target culture when teaching language and culture. The SD is below one (0.94) which indicates that the respondents’ choices are slightly spread from each other and a bit far from the M.

Q12: To what extent do you think that developing your ICC level is important?

- a. Not important**
- b. Slightly important**
- c. Not sure**
- d. Important**
- e. Very important**

Table 4.12

Importance of Developing ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not important	2	2,3		
Slightly important	0	0,0		
Not sure	7	8,0	4,45	0,83
Important	26	29,5		
Very important	53	60,2		
Total	88	100,0		

Participants in this question are requested to rate their answers from 1 to 5 moving from ‘not important’, ‘slightly important’, ‘not sure’, ‘important’, to ‘very important’. The overwhelming majority of the participants either answered that developing their ICC is important or very important (89.7%). A small number (8%) selected ‘Not sure’. Only 2.3% answered ‘slightly important’. Interestingly, ‘slightly important’ was selected by no one (0%). As the mean score is very high ($M= 4.45$), this indicates that almost all of them agree to a high extent towards the development of their ICC. That is, they hold positive attitudes toward it. As the SD is below one (0.83), this means that the students’ answers are centred on the M and, thus, there is less dispersion.

Section Four: Abilities

Q13: How would you evaluate your level in English?

- a. Very low**
- b. Low**
- c. Average**
- d. Good**
- e. Very good**

Table 4.13

Self-Assessment of English Level

Options	F	%	M	SD
Very low	0	0,0		
Low	4	4,5		
Average	38	43,2	3,55	0,69
Good	40	45,5		
Very good	6	6,8		
Total	88	100,0		

In Q13, the learners were asked to assess their English levels on a ranking scale from very low (1), 'low' (2), 'average' (3), 'good' (4), to 'very good' (5). The answers to that question divided the respondents into nearly two halves. The first half (43, 2%) believe that they have an average level. Surprisingly, the second half (45, 5%) believe that they have a good level despite that they are first-year university students. This indicates that students are satisfied with their levels in English. The mean is quite high (M=3.55) which indicates that the fair majority have a good level of English. The SD is low (0.69). Hence, this means that there is homogeneity between students' levels since the others' responses are not far from the M.

Q14: How would you evaluate your ICC level?

- a. Very low**
- b. Low**
- c. Average**
- d. Good**
- e. Very good**

Table 4.14

Self-assessment of ICC Level

Options	F	%	M	SD
Very low	2	2,3		
Low	18	20,5		
Average	38	43,2	3,13	0,86
Good	27	30,7		
Very good	3	3,4		
Total	88	100,0		

In Q 14, students were probed to self-assess their ICC level. Almost half of the informants (43.2 %) assessed themselves as having an average level regarding ICC. Less than one quarter (20.5%) believe that they have a low level. While more than a quarter self-assessed their ICC level as ‘good’. ‘Very low’ and ‘very good’ were chosen by very small percentages, (2.3%) and (3.4%) respectively. A possible interpretation is that they are still first-year students and their ICC level is not expected to be that advanced since they are at the beginning of their learning experience at university. The mean rate is medium (M=3.13). That is, the level of the fair majority is average. The SD is below one (0.86); this can explain why there is less dispersion and the others’ answers are not really far from the M.

Q15: How often do you face the following problems that hinder you when you communicate in English or understand the English language?

- a. Lack of vocabulary**
- b. Difficult pronunciation**
- c. Ignorance of grammar rules**

d. Non-fluency and hesitation

e. Cultural differences between the native and the foreign cultures

f. Others, please specify

This question aims to find out the extent to which the students encounter particular issues while interacting in English as well as those faced when they are trying to comprehend the English language, that is, spoken English and Written English. These problems are in the areas of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, non-fluency, culture, and others if any.

Table 4.15

Frequency of Facing Vocabulary Problems

Options	F	%	M	SD
Never	2	2,3		
Rarely	20	22,7		
Sometimes	48	54,5	3,03	0,92
Often	9	10,2		
Always	9	10,2		
Total	88	100,0		

Results outlined in Table 4.15 show that a little more than half of the participants (54,5%) said that they face difficulty in vocabulary ‘sometimes’. Besides, few number of participants confessed that they face it ‘often’ and ‘always’ with the same percentage (10.2%). The rest said that it is either faced rarely (22.7%) or never (2.3%). As the M score is average (3.03%), this indicates that vocabulary is sometimes faced by the fair majority. The SD is below one (0.92)

which means that there is a kind of dispersion between students' answers as they are not close to the M.

Table 4.16.

Frequency of Facing Pronunciation Problems

Options	F	%	M	SD
Never	13	14,8		
Rarely	27	30,7		
Sometimes	33	37,5	2.59	0,99
Often	13	14,8		
Always	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

Results displayed in the above table indicate that pronunciation is not a serious problem for learners as the highest percentage of the participants answered either 'sometimes' (37.5%) or 'rarely' (30.7%). Two equal percentages (14.8%) answered by 'never' and 'often'. Only a few of the learners (2.3%) stated that they 'always' face such a problem. The mean score is not high (M= 2.59) which explains that this problem is encountered sometimes by the fair majority. This may be attributed to the fact that learners are not interested in achieving native-like pronunciation yet instead comprehensible pronunciation.

Table 4.17

Frequency of Facing Grammatical Problems

Options	F	%	M	SD
Never	9	10,2		
Rarely	29	33,0		
Sometimes	31	35,2	2,71	1,01
Often	14	15,9		
Always	4	4,5		
Missing	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

As far as grammatical problems are concerned, findings show that 35.22% of the students faced this difficulty ‘sometimes’. Besides, 33% of them stated that the same problem is ‘rarely’ faced; 10.2 % said that they ‘never’ face it. Others (15.9%) faced such a problem ‘often’ or ‘always’ (4.5%). The M score for this question is medium (2.71) which means that the majority of the respondents face grammatical problems from time to time and not all the time they communicate in English. As the SD is just above one (1.01), this explains the spread out of the students’ answers from the M. One can conclude that grammar rules are not causing serious issues in communication in English. This may be attributed to the fact that students have a good mastery over grammar rules as they did so in secondary school.

Table 4.18

Frequency of Facing Non-fluency Problems

Options	F	%	M	SD
Never	8	9,1		
Rarely	17	19,3		
Sometimes	32	36,4	3,00	1,04
Often	23	26,1		
Always	5	5,7		
Missing	3	3,4		
Total	88	100,0		

For non-fluency and hesitation problems faced by learners, the highest number answered by ‘sometimes’ (36.4%). The rest of the two-thirds are split between either ‘never’ (9.1%) and ‘rarely’ (19.3%) or ‘often’ (26.1%) and ‘always’ (5.7%). The mean score is quite high (M=3). That is, most of the learners face non-fluency problems ‘sometimes’. The SD is (1.04); it indicates that the respondents differ about the M rate as they are quite spread from each other.

Table 4.19

Frequency of Facing Cultural Differences Problem

Options	F	%	M	SD
Never	11	12,5		
Rarely	23	26,1		
Sometimes	31	35,2	2,83	1,11
Often	16	18,2		
Always	7	8,0		
Total	88	100,0		

Regarding the problem caused by differences between the native culture and the foreign culture, the highest percentage of learners (35.2%) reported that they encounter it 'sometimes'. In addition, another considerable number of learners (F= 34, 38.6%) said that they face this difficulty either 'rarely' (26.1%) or 'never' (12.5%). The mean score is somehow low (M=2.83); this means that cultural differences related problems happen to the majority sometimes. As the SD is 1.11, this explains why the dispersion between the answers is raised and why their answers are not centred around the M. One can explain this variation in answers between never and sometimes (for the majority) with learners' ignorance that differences in cultures may cause communication breakdowns. That is, learners are not aware of the significance of cultural differences in understanding the language as well as in achieving appropriate and effective communication.

Table 4. 20

Comparison of the Difficulties Faced While Communication

Areas of Difficulty	M	SD
a. Vocabulary	3.03	0.92
b. Pronunciation	2.59	0.99
c. Grammar	2.71	1.01
d. Non-fluency and hesitation	3.00	1.04
e. Cultural Differences	2.83	1.11

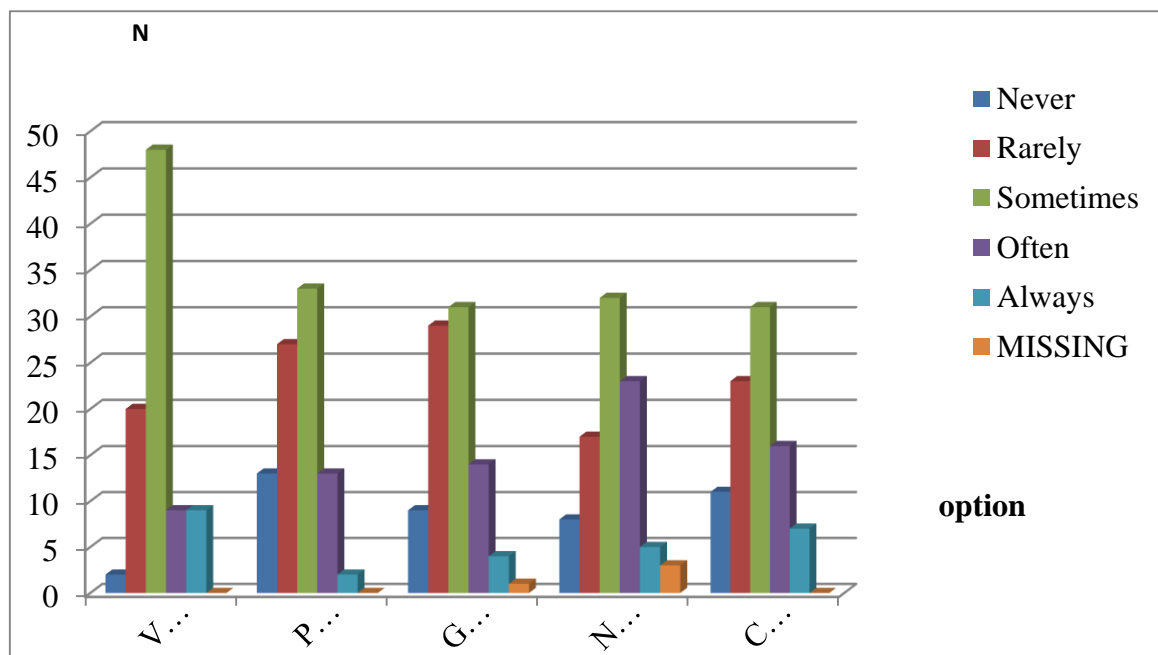


Figure 4.1 Difficulties faced by learners when communicating in English.

Table 4.20 and Figure 4.1. show that learners face different difficulties regarding ‘vocabulary’, ‘pronunciation’, ‘grammar rules’, ‘non-fluency and hesitation’ and ‘cultural differences between the native culture and the target culture’. A comparison between the means shows that ‘vocabulary’ problem is ranked first as it got the highest M score (3.03). ‘Non-

fluency and hesitation' problem gets the second rank, as the mean is 3.00. The overwhelming majority of learners face these difficulties 'sometimes'. 'Cultural differences' is ranked as the third difficulty encountered by students while communicating in English (M=2.83). 'Grammar' and 'pronunciation' are ranked last with a medium mean (M=2.71; 2.59), respectively. The implications that can be drawn from this comparison is that when designing the course, special focus should be put on vocabulary, non-fluency and hesitation, and cultural differences more than grammar and pronunciation.

Q16: To develop your ICC, one should have five competences, which of the following competences do you need to develop?

- a. *Attitudes* of openness, curiosity, tolerance, and respect towards other people from other cultures.
- b. *Knowledge and understanding* of other cultures' beliefs, values, practices, non-verbal communication and knowledge of one's culture as well.
- c. *Skills of interpreting* other cultures' beliefs, values, and practices and *relating* them to one's culture.
- d. *Skills of discovering* information about other cultures and *interacting* with individuals from different cultures.
- e. *Critically judging and evaluating* the other cultures' beliefs, values, and practices.
- f. All of them

Table 4.21

Needs in Terms of ICC Competences

Options	F	%
a.	7,00	7,95
b.	9,00	10,23
c.	2,00	2,27
d.	9,00	10
e.	2,00	2,27
f.	30,00	34,09
a+b	1,00	1,14
a+c	1,00	1,14
a+d	1,00	1,14
b+c	1,00	1,14
b+d	6,00	6,82
b+e	1,00	1,14
c+d	1,00	1,14
c+e	1,00	1,14
d+e	4,00	4,55
a+b+c	1,00	1,14
a+b+e	1,00	1,14
a+c+d	1,00	1,14
b+d+e	2,00	2,27
c+d+e	2,00	2,27
a+b+c+d	2,00	2,27
a+b+c+e	1,00	1,14
a+b+e+f	1,00	1,14
b+c+d+e	1,00	1,14
Total	88,00	100,00

This question was asked to find out what competences the learners lack and need to develop.

Table 4.21 shows that there are differences between the frequencies of answers. The highest

percentage is for ‘all of them’ (34.09%). Equal percentages of the respondents (10.23%) opted for ‘knowledge’ and ‘skills of discovering and interaction’. However, ‘attitudes’ (9.75%), skills of ‘interpreting and relating’ (2.27%), and ‘awareness’(2.27%) are the least competences needed to be developed by learners. A possible interpretation is that learners are not aware that effective and appropriate interaction requires the development of all ICC competences and not only knowledge and skills of interaction.

Section Five: Areas of Interest

Q17. How interesting are the following themes for you?

	Not interesting	Slightly interesting	Neutral	Interesting	Very interesting
	1	2	3	4	5
a. Education					
b. Time					
c. Food and eating habits					
d. Conversation and silence					
e. Men and women’s role					
f. Romance and love					
g. Celebrating social events					
h. Children raising					
i. Way of living					
j. Politics					
k. Beauty					

The participants in this question were asked to rate their topics of interest which are education, time, food and eating habits, conversation, and silence, men and women’s roles, romance and love, celebrating social events, children raising, way of living, dating, politics,

and beauty. The rating scale used is from very interesting (5), interesting (4), neutral (3), slightly interesting (2), not interesting (1).

Table 4.22

Interest in the Topic of Education

Option	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	3	3,4		
Slightly interesting	5	5,7		
Neutral	13	14,8	3,90	0,99
Interesting	41	46,6		
Very interesting	24	27,3		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

According to the results displayed in Table 4.22, where the participants expressed their interest in the theme of education, ‘interesting’ was opted by almost half (46.6%) of them followed by ‘very interesting’ which was opted by more than a quarter (27.3%). ‘Neutral’ was the answer given by 14.8%. ‘Not interesting’ and ‘slightly interesting’ were chosen by the minority, (3.4%) and (5.7%) respectively. As the mean is high (M=3.90), this indicates that the topic of education is interesting for the vast majority. Because the SD is low (0.99), this indicates that the frequency of answers is dispersed from each other and from the M.

Table 4.23

Interest in the Topic of Time

Option	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	5	5,7%		
Slightly interesting	6	6,8%		
Neutral	24	27,3%	3,60	1,06
Interesting	34	38,6%		
Very interesting	17	19,3%		
No answer	2	2,3%		
Total	88	100,0%		

Table 4.23 shows that the highest percentage of respondents (38.6%) stated that the topic of time is interesting to them. Besides, 19.3% stated that it is ‘very interesting’. More than a quarter (27.3%) stated that they are not sure about it. A small number said that they are either not interested (5.7%) or slightly interested (6.8%) in this topic. Two learners (2.3%) did not answer. The M score for this topic is high (M=3.60) which indicates that the majority of learners view the topic of time as interesting.

Table 4.24

Interest in the Topic of Eating and Drinking Habits

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	8	9,1		
Slightly interesting	7	8,0		
Neutral	10	11,4	3,79	1,26
Interesting	32	36,4		
Very interesting	30	34,1		
Missing	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Concerning the topic of food and drinking habits, more than two-thirds of the respondents reported that it is either interesting (36.4%) or very interesting (34.1%). As the mean score is high (M=3.79), this means that this theme is interesting for the majority. As the SD is high (1.26), this indicates that the respondents do not have homogeneous answers, and the dispersion between them is high.

Table 4.25

Interest in the Topic of Conversation and Silence

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	6	6,8		
Slightly interesting	8	9,1		
Neutral	21	23,9	3,63	1,18
Interesting	28	31,8		
Very interesting	23	26,1		
Missing	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

Regarding students' opinions about the topic of 'conversation and silence', 'interesting' and 'very interesting' are the highest opted choices with percentages of (31.8%) and (26.1%), respectively. About a quarter (23.9%) opted for 'neutral'. 'Slightly interesting' and 'not interesting' were opted by just some students, (9.1%) and (6.8%) respectively. The mean rate score for this topic is high ($M=3.63$). Hence, it is considered an interesting topic for the fair majority. As the SD is high (1.18), this explains why there is a heterogeneity between the answers' rates and from that of the M.

Table 4.26

Interest in the Topic of Men and Women's Roles

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	9	10,2		
Slightly interesting	12	13,6		
Neutral	12	13,6	3,53	1,29
Interesting	32	36,4		
Very interesting	22	25,0		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

From Table 4.26, 36, 4% of the students reported that the topic of 'men and women's role' is 'interesting', and another quarter (25%) reported that it is 'very interesting' for them. Equal percentages (13.6%) selected 'neutral' or 'slightly interesting'. The remaining percentage (10.2%) reported that this topic is not interesting at all. One learner (1.1%) did not answer. The mean rate score is high (3.53); therefore, this topic is interesting for most students. As the SD is high (SD=1.29), this means that learners' responses on the other options are spread out from the M and from each other, that is, there is a variation in their answers.

Table 4.27

Interest in the Topic of Love and Romance

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	22	25,0		
Slightly interesting	13	14,8		
Neutral	17	19,3	2,85	1,38
Interesting	24	27,3		
Very interesting	10	11,4		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

Table 4.27 shows that less than half of the informants ($38.7\%=27.3+11.4$) said that the theme of romance and love is interesting (27.3%) or very interesting (11.4%). However, an equal percentage of the informants ($39.8\%=25\%+14.8\%$) said that it is either 'not interesting (25%) or slightly interesting (14.8%). The remaining percentage said that they have a neutral stand (19.3%). In addition, two students (2.3%) did not answer. As the M is quite low ($M= 2.85$), this means that this topic is neutral by the fair majority. The SD is quite high; this means that the informants' choices are spread out from the M. In other words, they are dispersed from the M and each other.

Table 2.28

Interest in the Topic of Celebrating Social Events

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	9	10,2		
Slightly interesting	9	10,2		
Neutral	17	19,3	3,52	1,25
Interesting	31	35,2		
Very interesting	21	23,9		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

The results in Table 4.28 show that the topic of celebrating social events is either interesting (35.2%) or very interesting (23.9%) by more than half of the respondents (59.1%). Equal percentages (10.2%) stated that this theme is either slightly interesting or not interesting. As the M score is high (M=3.52), this indicates that this topic is viewed as interesting by the majority. The SD is high; this indicates that the respondents' answers are heterogeneous with each other. That is, they are not circulated around the mean.

Table 4.29

Interest in the Topic of Children Raising

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	8	9,1		
Slightly interesting	2	2,3		
Neutral	12	13,6	3,88	1,18
Interesting	35	39,8		
Very interesting	30	34,1		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Out of 88 participants in the study, 35 of them (39.8%) reported that the topic of raising children is interesting. In addition, approximately one-third (34.1%) reported that it is very interesting. A small number of the participants (13.6%) reported that they are 'neutral'. The remaining reported that they are either 'not interesting' (9.1%) or 'slightly interesting' (2.3%) about that topic. One student (1.1%) did not reply to such a question. As the M rate score is high (3.88), this means that this theme is interesting for the majority. The SD is high (1.18) which means that the participants' answers are spread out from the mean and each other.

Table 4.30

Interest in the Topic of the Way of Living

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	3	3,4		
Slightly interesting	13	14,8		
Neutral	12	13,6	3,71	1,11
Interesting	36	40,9		
Very interesting	22	25,0		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

The highest percentage (40.9%) of learners stated that the topic of ‘the way of living’ is interesting. Then, a quarter (25%) of them stated that it is very interesting. A very few (3.4%) stated that they are not interested in such a topic whereas a small percentage (14.8%) stated that they are interested in it yet only to a small extent. The rest (13.6%) did not express their attitude and opted for neutral. Two learners (2.3%) did not answer. The mean score is high (M=3.71) which indicates that this topic is favoured by the majority. The SD is high (1.11) which means that learners’ responses are not centred around the M.

Table 4.31

Learners' Interest in the Topic of Dating

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	17	19,3%		
Slightly interesting	10	11,4%		
Neutral	33	37,5%	2,85	1,15
Interesting	23	26,1%		
Very interesting	4	4,5%		
No answer	1	1,1%		
Total	88	100,0%		

More than one-third (37.5%) of the informants were not sure whether the topic of dating is interesting for them or not. The second third's answers are divided between 'slightly interested' (11.4%) or 'not interested' at all (19.3%). The responses of the third are split into 'interested' (26.1 %) and 'very interested' (4.5%) about such a topic. This spread out between the answers explains the SD's high rate. As the M is quite low, this means that the majority have neutral opinions about the theme of dating. This may be due to the influence of our culture on students, as they do not like to discuss such kind of topics in the classroom.

Table 4.32

Interest in the Topic of Politics

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	20	22,7		
Slightly interesting	20	22,7		
Neutral	20	22,7	2,72	1,31
Interesting	18	20,5		
Very interesting	9	10,2		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Almost two quarters perceive the politics topic as not interesting (22.7%) and slightly interesting (22.7%). However, the same percentage (22.7) of learners are not sure if this topic interests them or not. The rest answered either interesting (20.5%) or very interesting (10.2%). One learner did not answer (1.1%). This spread out in answers is shown in the high SD rate (SD= 1.31). As the M is quite low (2.72%), this means that this topic is considered as neither interesting nor not interesting yet neutral by the fair majority. This may be attributed to the fact that almost all the sample's gender is females and not males.

Table 4.33

Interest in the Topic of Beauty

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not interesting	12	13,6		
Slightly interesting	8	9,1		
Neutral	20	22,7	3.42	1,33
Interesting	25	28,4		
Very interesting	22	25,0		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Table 4.33 shows that the topic of beauty is interesting for more than a quarter (28.4%) and very interesting for another quarter (25%). However, little percent of respondents view this topic as either slightly interesting (9.1%) or not interesting at all (13.6%). Almost one quarter (22.7%) stated that they are not sure about it. One learner did not respond. The M score rate is quite high which means that the topic of beauty is interesting for the majority (M=3.42). The SD is quite high for this topic, which indicates that their choices are not spread out from each other and from the mean.

Table 4.34

Topics of Interest

Topics	M	SD
a. Education	3.90	0.99
b. Time	3.60	1.06
c. Food and Eating habits	3.79	1.26
d. Conversation and Silence	3.63	1.18
e. Men and women's roles	3.53	1.29
f. Love and romance	2.85	1.38
g. Celebrating social events	3.52	1.25
h. Raising children	3.88	1.18
i. Way of living	3.71	1.11
j. Dating	2.85	1.15
k. Politics	2.72	1.31
l. Concept of Beauty	3.42	1.33

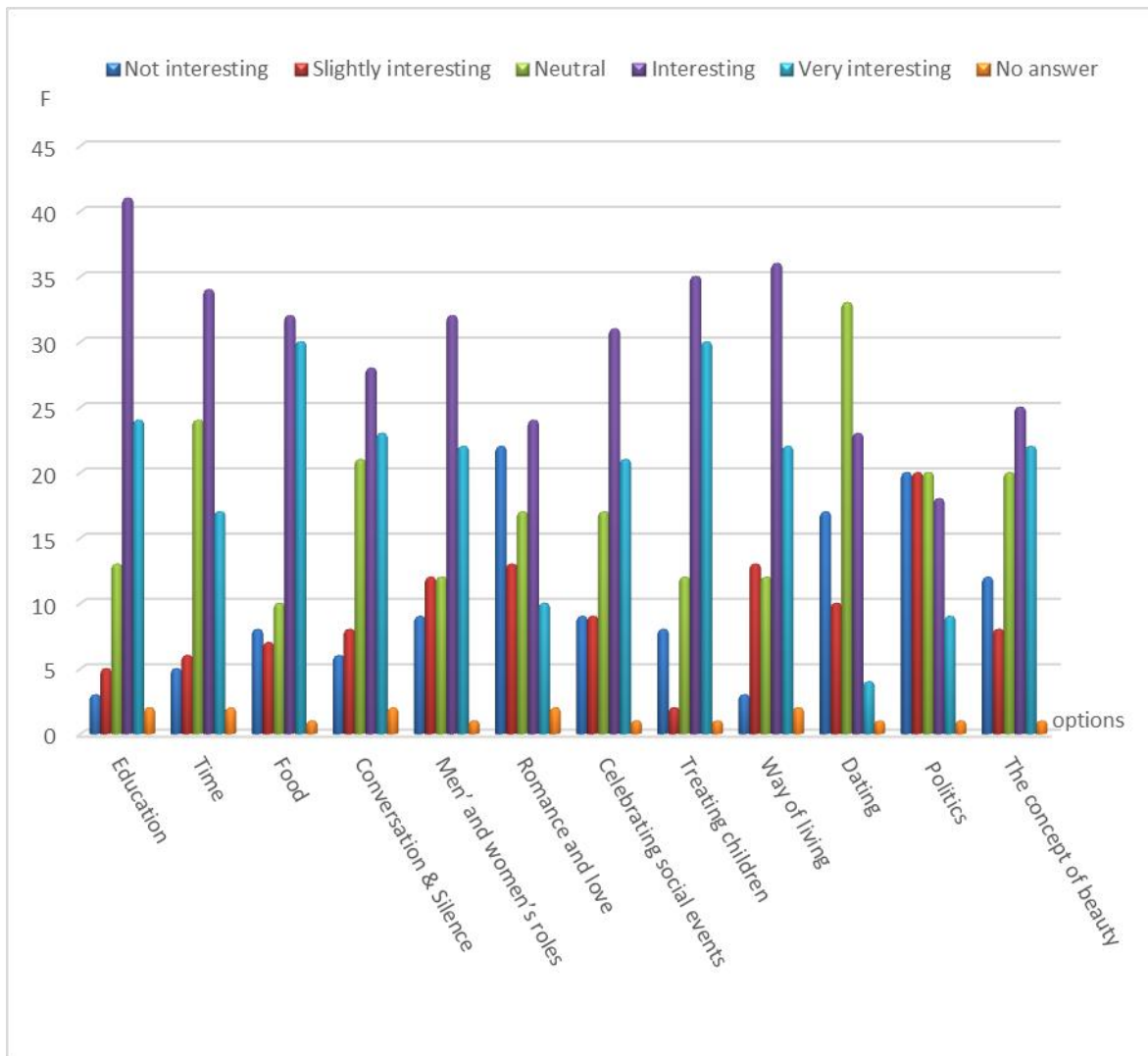


Figure 4.2. Topics of interest.

Table 4.34 and Figure 4.2 show a comparison between the results of the topics that interest learners. The topic of ‘education’ is ranked first (M=3.90) followed by the topic of ‘raising children’ (M=3.88). ‘Food and eating habits’ gets the third rank (M=3.79) followed by the topic of ‘way of living’ (M=3.71). ‘Conversation and silence’ gets the fifth rank (M=3.63) followed directly by the topic of ‘time’ (M= 3.60) as they got close means. The topic of ‘men and women’s roles’ is ranked seven (M=3.53). The topics of ‘celebrating social events’ and ‘the concept of beauty’ are on the eighth and the ninth grades, respectively. The topics of ‘dating’ (M=2.85), ‘romance and love’ (M=2.85), and ‘politics’ (M=2.72) get the last ranks where learners have a neutral stand toward these topics.

Section Six: Methodology

Q18: To what extent do you prefer the following materials to be used for the development of ICC?

a. Music b. Literature c. Videos d. Unauthentic materials e. Online materials

This question aims at finding out the degree of preference towards the use of particular materials_ music, literature, videos, inauthentic materials, and online materials_ for the sake of developing learners' ICC. Students were asked to rate their answers from one to five, moving from the least to the most preferable. That is, they were asked to give 1 for not preferable, 2 for slightly preferable, 3 for neutral, 4 for preferable, and 5 for highly preferable.

Table 4.35

Music as a Teaching Material to Develop ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	8	9,1		
Slightly preferable	4	4,5		
Not sure	14	15,9	3.69	1.14
Preferable	42	47,7		
Highly preferable	19	21,6		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Almost half of the participants (47.7%) prefer music for the development of their ICC. To add, almost a quarter (21.6%) highly prefer it. However, only small percentage said that they do not prefer it (9.1%) or just slightly prefer it (4.5%). The remaining percentage (15.9%) did not express their preferences and opted for 'not sure'. One participant did not answer. As the

mean score is high (3.69), this means that music is a preferable material for the majority. The SD is high (1.14), this indicates that students' options are quite far from the M and each other.

Table 4.36

Literature as a Teaching Material to Develop ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	5	5,7		
Slightly preferable	9	10,2		
Not sure	13	14,8	3.72	1.13
Preferable	37	42,0		
Highly preferable	22	25,0		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

The majority of the participants reported that they view literature as a 'preferable' material (42%) or as 'highly preferable' (25%). Nevertheless, few of them (14.8%) decided to be neutral. A very small percentage reported that they do not prefer this material for developing their ICC (5.7%) or just slightly prefer it for the rest of them (10.5%). Two participants (2.3%) did not answer. As the M score is quite high (M=3.72), this indicates that this material is preferred by the majority. The SD is above one (1.13); this means that the dispersion is high, and the participants' answers are different from each other.

Table 4.37

Videos as a Teaching Material to Develop ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	1	1,1		
Slightly preferable	2	2,3		
Not sure	17	19,3		
Preferable	31	35,2	4.13	0.89
Highly preferable	35	39,8		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

The highest percentage of the respondents (39.8%) stated that the use of videos as a material to promote their ICC is very preferable for them and preferable for others (35.2%). On the contrary, only a very small number views that this material is not preferable (1.1%) or just slightly preferable (3.3%). Some of them (19.3%) decided to be neutral by not expressing their opinions. Two learners did not respond. Remarkably, the M score is high (4.13); this indicates that videos are preferable materials by a great number of learners. As the SD is quite low (0.89), this means that the others' responses are quite close to the M and each other.

Table 4.38

In-authentic Materials to Develop ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	2	2,3		
Slightly preferable	5	5,7		
Not sure	20	22,7	3.97	0.92
Preferable	42	47,7		
Highly preferable	18	20,5		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Based on the results shown in Table 4.38, almost half of the informants (47.7%) stated that they prefer the use of in-authentic materials to develop their ICC, and another small number (20.5%) said that they highly prefer them, on the one hand. On the other hand, only a few participants said that either they do not prefer them (2.3%), or they do but just slightly (5.7%). Almost a quarter did not state their views about that kind of material and opted for 'not sure'. Two informants (2.3%) did not give their answers. As the M score is high (3.97), this indicates that this material is preferred by most of the informants. The SD is quite low (0.92); this means that the others' choices are not spread out from the M and each other.

Table 4.39

Online Materials to Develop ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	6	6,8		
Slightly preferable	6	6,8		
Not sure	15	17,0	3.84	1.19
Preferable	29	33,0		
Highly preferable	31	35,2		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

From the participants' answers outlined in Table 4.38, more than one-third (35. %) stated that they highly prefer online materials and another one-third (33%) stated that they just prefer them. However, another small number of the participants (17%) stated that they are not sure. Only small percentages stated either that they do not prefer online materials (6.8%), or they prefer them just slightly (6.8%). One student did not answer. As the mean score is high (3.84), this indicates that this material is preferred by the majority. As the SD is high (1.19), this means that there is more dispersion, and there is less agreement about the M rate.

Table 4.40

Teaching Materials to Develop ICC

Teaching Materials	M	SD
a. Music	3.69	1.14
b. Literature	3.72	1.13
c. Videos	4.13	0.89
d. In-authentic Materials	3.79	0.92
e. Online materials	3.84	1.19

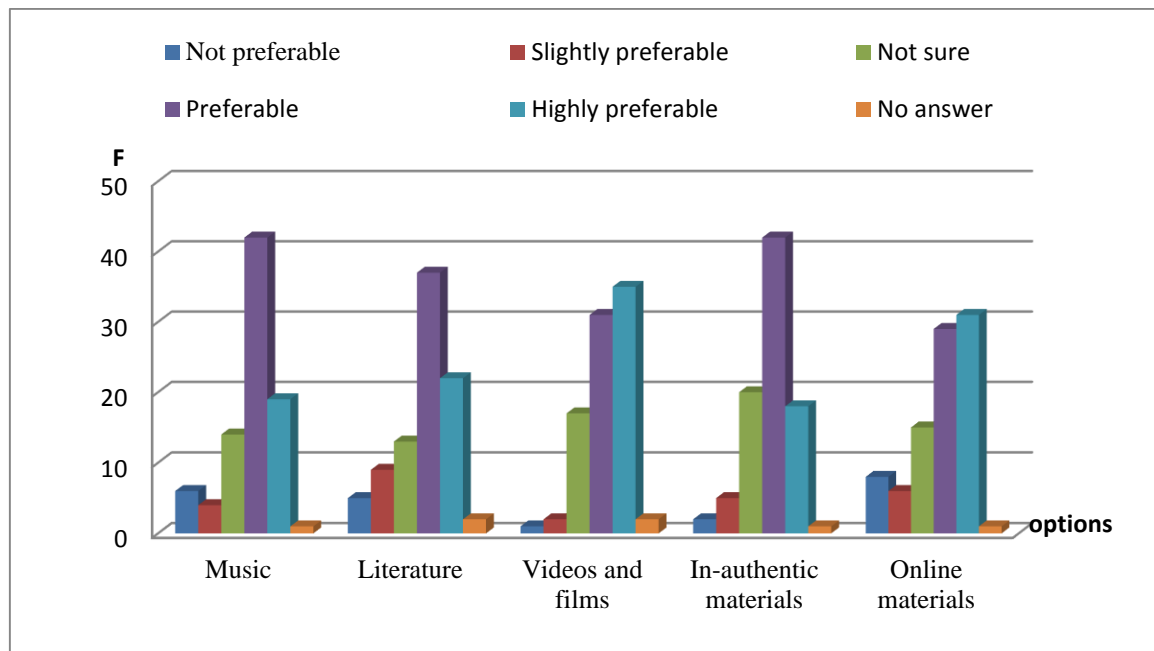


Figure 4.3. Teaching materials to develop ICC.

In Table 4.40 and Figure 4.3, a comparison between the results of learners' attitudes towards the teaching materials to develop ICC is provided. The first preferred teaching materials is 'videos and films' (M=4.13). Online materials is classified as the second teaching material preferred by learners. 'In-authentic materials' (M= 4.84) followed by 'literature' (M=3.72) are

ranked third and fourth, respectively. Music is classified as the last preferred teaching material by learners (M=3.69).

Q19: To what extent do you prefer the following activities and techniques to be used for developing your ICC?

- a. Brainstorming**
- b. Short presentations**
- c. Role plays, simulations, and drama**
- d. Ethnographic tasks**
- e. Problem-solving activities**
- f. Quizzes**
- g. Pair or small work discussion**
- h. Whole class discussion**

Q 19 aims at finding out the learners' degree of preference for particular activities and techniques that are used for the sake of promoting their ICC. For each activity or technique, the learners were required to rate their degree of preferences from the least to the most preferred ones. Not preferable is given the rate of one; slightly preferable is given the rate of two; not sure is given the rate of three; preferable is given the rate of four; highly preferable is given the rate of five.

Table 4.41

Brainstorming as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	2	2,3		
Slightly preferable	1	1,1		
Not sure	14	15,9	3.96	0.80
Preferable	50	56,8		
Highly preferable	19	21,6		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

More than half of the participants (56.8%) stated that brainstorming is a preferred technique for them. Almost one quarter (21.6%) stated that it is highly preferable. However, a small number (15.9%) did not express their opinions and answered with 'not sure'. Only very few participants stated that they do not prefer it (2.3%) or just do yet to a slight extent (1.1%). Two students (2.3%) did not answer. As the M rate is high (3.96), this indicates that this technique is preferred by a great number of students. The SD is below one (0.80) which means that the students' answers are not far from the M, and there is a kind of agreement about its rate.

Table 4.42

Short Presentation as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	4	4,5		
Slightly preferable	5	5,7		
Not sure	22	25,0	3.72	1.03
Preferable	36	40,9		
Highly preferable	20	22,7		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

The highest rate of participants expressed their preference for short presentations in that the highest percentage (40.9%) of them selected 'preferable', and less than a quarter (22.7%) selected 'highly preferable'. However, a quarter (25%) answered by 'not sure'. Only a very small of learners selected 'not preferable' (4.5%) and others 'slightly preferable' (5.7%). One participant did not answer (1.1%). As the M rate is quite high, this indicates that the majority favour short presentations. The SD is just above one (1.03) which means that the participants' answers are quite spread out from the M.

Table 4.43

Role-plays, Simulations and Drama as Activities to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	9	10,2		
Slightly preferable	7	8,0		
Not sure	21	23,9	3.59	1.29
Preferable	22	25,0		
Highly preferable	27	30,7		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

As far as their preferences about role-plays, simulations, and drama are concerned, the respondents' high rates are for 'preferable' (25%) and 'highly preferable' (30.7%). Almost a quarter (23.9%) selected 'not sure'. The choices 'not preferable' and 'slightly preferable' were only selected by small percentages, (10.2%) and (8%), respectively. Two respondents (2.3%) did not select any options. As the M score is quite high (3.59), this is an indication that role-plays, simulations, and drama are preferred by the fair majority. The SD is high which means that there is more dispersion and, thus, more variation between the students' answers.

Table 4.44

Ethnographic Tasks as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	3	3,4		
Slightly preferable	4	4,5		
Not sure	14	15,9	3.91	0.96
Preferable	43	48,9		
Highly preferable	23	26,1		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Answers outlined in Table 4.42 show that approximately half of the informants (48.9%) said that they prefer the use of ethnographic tasks for enhancing their ICC, and more than a quarter (26.1%) said that they highly prefer them. However, a small number said that they are not sure (15.9%). Only very few percent of the students said that they either do not prefer (3.4%) such kinds of tasks or prefer them to a small extent (4.5%). One did not answer such a question. As the M score is high (3.91), this indicates that these tasks are favoured by a great number. The SD is just below one (0.96); this means that the dispersion between the informants' options is not very high, and they are not far from the mean and from each other.

Table 4.45

Problem-solving as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	6	6,8		
Slightly preferable	10	11,4		
Not sure	18	20,5	3.62	1.19
Preferable	30	34,1		
Highly preferable	23	26,1		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Regarding problem-solving activity, the highest percentages of the students selected preferable (34.1%) followed by highly preferable (26.5%). Others estimated by 20.5% selected the 'not sure' option. The remaining percentages of students are divided between 'not preferable' (6.8%) and 'slightly preferable' (11.4%). One did not answer (1.1%). As the M score is quite high, this means that the fair majority prefers this kind of activity. The SD is above one (1.19). This means that the answers are spread from each other and the M since there is less homogeneity in their answers.

Table 4.46

Quiz as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	3	3,4		
Slightly preferable	14	15,9		
Not sure	9	10,2	3.79	1.17
Preferable	32	36,4		
Highly preferable	28	31,8		
No answer	2	2,3		
Total	88	100,0		

The highest percentage of the learners reported that they either prefer (36.4%) or highly prefer (31.8%) the use of quizzes for promoting their ICC. A small percentage (10.2%) reported that they are not sure whether they prefer them or not. Nevertheless, the remaining percentages reported that quizzes are preferable for them yet only to a small extent (15.9%) or not preferable at all for a few others (3.4%). Two of them did not answer this question (2.3%). The M rate is high (3.79); one can conclude that quizzes are preferred by a great number of learners. As the SD is high, this indicates that learners' replies are spread out from the M and the degree of dispersion is quite high. That is, there is more heterogeneity in their answers.

Table 4.47

Pair or Small Group Discussion as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	5	5,7		
Slightly preferable	5	5,7		
Not sure	11	12,5	3.86	1.07
Preferable	42	47,7		
Highly preferable	24	27,3		
No answer	1	1,1		
Total	88	100,0		

Almost half of the respondents (47.7%) stated that pair or small group discussion is preferable for them, and almost a quarter stated that it is highly preferable (27.3%). However, a small number stated that they have a neutral stand. Equal percentages of the students stated that it is either not preferable (5.7%) or slightly preferable (5.7%). One learner did not answer. The M rate score is high (3.86). Hence, it can be concluded that the majority favours pair or small group discussion. The SD for this question is just above one (1.07); this indicates that the learners' responses are not quite far from the M and from each other.

Table 4.48

Whole Class Discussion as an Activity to Teach ICC

Options	F	%	M	SD
Not preferable	5	5,7		
Slightly preferable	4	4,5		
Not sure	17	19,3	3.86	1.12
Preferable	30	34,1		
Highly preferable	28	31,8		
Missing	4	4,5		
Total	88	100,0		

‘Preferable’ and ‘highly preferable’ got the highest rates, (34.1%) and (31.8%), respectively. ‘Not sure’ got a small percentage (19.3%). ‘Not preferable’ and ‘slightly preferable’ got the lowest rates, (5.7%) and (4.5%) respectively. Few participants did not express their preference toward whole class discussions (4.5%). The M rate is high (3.86); this indicates that the fair majority of students prefer whole class discussion. The SD for this question is high (1.12); this means that the students’ responses are dispersed and spread out from each other and the mean.

Table 4.49

Activities and Techniques to Develop ICC

Activities	M	SD
a. Brainstorming	3.96	0.80
b. Short presentations	3.72	1.03
c. Role plays, simulations, and drama	3.59	1.29
d. Ethnographic tasks	3.91	0.96
e. Problem-solving activities	3.62	1.19
f. Quizzes	3.79	1.17
g. Pair or small work discussion	3.86	1.07
h. Whole class discussion	3.86	1.12

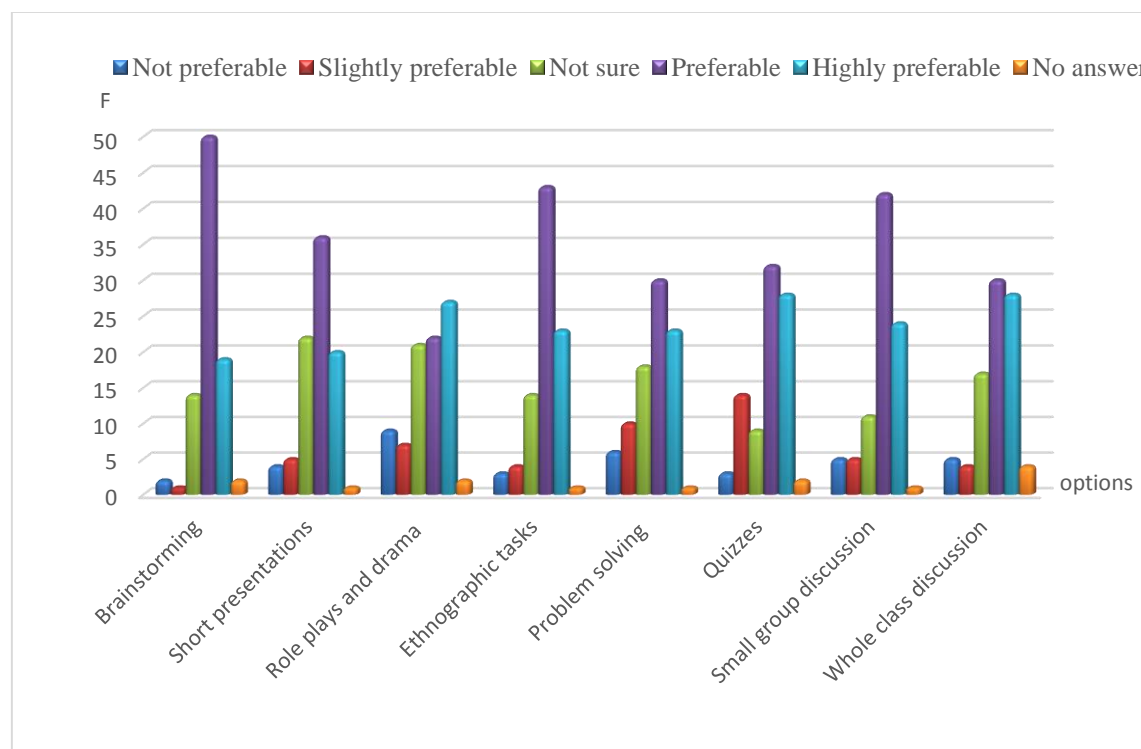


Figure 4.4. Activities and techniques to develop ICC.

Table 4.49 and Figure 4.4 show that learners expressed positive attitude towards the techniques and activities used for enhancing ICC. 'At a higher level, brainstorming' and 'ethnographic tasks' ranked first and second as they got the highest means (M=3.96, 3.91), respectively. Small group discussion and whole class discussion are classified third as they got the same mean score (M= 3.86). At a lower level, activities are classified as follows: 'quizzes' (M=3.79), 'short presentations' (M=3.72), 'problem-solving activities' (M=3.62), 'role plays, simulations and drama' (M=3.59). This differentiation may be attributed to the fact that learners perceived activities at the second level more difficult than those of the first level. Thus, this implies to use activities related to the first level in the beginning of the course and second level activities to later stages.

Q20: Further comments and suggestions

1. Please, add any further comments or suggestions

There are only seven students (7.95%) who added comments, some of which are outlined in what follows:

- ICC topic is not interesting. I am interested more in topics about travelling and hobbies, not discovering new cultures.
- Topics and questions are interesting.
- We need to do more role-plays because they are interesting and useful at the same time.
- Learning about others' languages and cultures is very necessary and helps to avoid racism.
- The best way to develop ICC is through communication.

4.6. Analysis and Discussion of the Results

The interpretation of the questionnaire results is of great importance to find out the needs of learners. The questionnaire started by collecting information about the sample's gender; the vast majority of learners (88, 6%) were females (Q1). This can be justified by the fact that females are more inclined to learn languages rather than males who are inclined towards scientific specialities. To add more information about the sample, most of the learners (77.2 %) spent seven years studying English (Q2). For most of them (80%), studying English is their first choice (Q3). One can conclude that learners have positive attitudes towards learning the English language. Moreover, the majority of learners (62.5%) stated that they learn the English language not only to get a job but also to communicate effectively and to travel abroad (Q4).

Discovering the preferred way to learn is a part of learners' needs specifically subjective ones. In doing so, regarding the students' learning styles, a slight inclination (21.59%) was towards the auditory learning style. Yet, more than half of the students (52.32%) combined between two or three learning styles (Q5). Hence, the course designer should give almost equal importance to the three learning styles. Yet, a slight emphasis is given to the auditory style more than the others. Moreover, as far as the preferred pedagogical approach is concerned, almost one-third (30.7%) reported that they like to learn cooperatively more than through the other approaches (Q6). As a result, this finding should be considered by making learners learn in a cooperative way but without neglecting the other two approaches as they are selected by the rest (nearly 60.3%). The majority of learners (68.1%) preferred to have a teacher with full control over the class rather than being led by the learners themselves (Q7). In the same vein, learners preferred a teacher with a facilitator role (42.05%), more than a controller and a participant in the learning process, roles which should be taken into account since they are chosen by almost (50%) (Q8). Apart from teachers' roles, students' preferred role is active

rather than passive, as stated by the vast majority (83%) (Q9). That is, when implementing the course, students should take part in the learning process.

Moreover, knowing about the learners' attitudes and expectations is part and parcel of finding out learners' subjective needs. The majority of the informants agreed that learning a FL entails learning its culture too (Q10) as the mean rate is high (M=3.91). Additionally, almost all learners (M=3.71) agreed that when teaching a FL both the target culture as well the native culture should be incorporated (Q11). Accordingly, one can conclude that learners hold positive attitudes towards the English language and its culture as well as the native culture. Concerning their attitudes towards the significance of developing ICC (Q12), learners agreed to a high extent with that as the mean is high (M= 4.45). This in turn indicates that they bear positive attitudes towards promoting their ICC.

Finding out about learners' abilities is a part of objective needs; it is done through self-assessment. The fair majority of learners assessed themselves as having a good level of English (M=3.55) although they are first-year students of English (Q13). This may be attributed to the fact that English is an international language: it is spoken almost everywhere. Movies and songs are also in English; the majority of students nowadays study it in private schools. Besides, as far as their opinion about assessing their ICC level is concerned (Q14), learners think that they have an average level (M= 3.13).

Exploring learners' needs and specifically objective ones is done through revealing the frequency of difficulties learners face when they communicate in English (spoken and written English). The overwhelming majority of learners faced difficulties in particular linguistic and cultural aspects yet with different frequencies (Q15). To explain, they encountered issues more in vocabulary (M=3.03), non-fluency (M=3.00), and culture (M=2.83) than in grammar (M=2.71) and pronunciation (M=2.59). However, all these difficulties were faced only

sometimes. This medium frequency may be attributed to the fact that learners are still new to the English learning experience at university, which in turn explains why they rarely faced problems. That is, the less they communicate and are exposed to the English language, the fewer difficulties they encounter. Furthermore, in terms of their lacks, more than a quarter of the learners (34.09%) agreed that they need to develop all the ICC competences (Q16).

Regarding their wants, learners expressed their interest in particular topics, a cornerstone on which the content of the course is built, that is the syllabus. On the one hand, learners favoured almost all the suggested topics as education (M=3.90), food and eating habits (M=3.79), time (M=3.60), conversation and silence (M=3.63), men and women's roles (M=3.53), celebrating social events (M=3.52), children raising (M=3.88, the way of living (M=3.71), and beauty (M=3.42) (Q17). On the other hand, they were neutral about a few other topics such as love and romance (M=2.85), dating (M=2.85), and politics (M=2.72), which should not be included in the suggested course. One can explain their neutral opinion towards both dating and love and romance by referring to the influence of their culture on them as they feel shy to discuss those matters in the classroom and in front of the teacher. As almost all the respondents were females, politics is not the best topic in Algerian society. Rather, females are more interested to know about topics that have to do with beauty, education, celebration of wedding ceremonies, etc.

In addition to the themes, the selection of teaching materials is part of the content. Importantly, all the suggested materials namely music, videos, literature, inauthentic materials, and online materials proved to be preferred by the majority of learners (Q18). Particularly, music was favoured to a high extent (M= 3.69). This means that learners have a positive attitude towards introducing music into the classroom. Remarkably, videos and films were also preferred to a very high extent (M= 4.13). This may be due to fact that the majority of learners had an audio-visual learning style as Gabrovec (2002) stated “it is the visual culture”.

As far as the methodological part is concerned, the suggested techniques and activities which are brainstorming (M=3.96), short presentations (M=3.72), role plays (M=3.59), simulations, drama (M=3.59), ethnographic tasks (M=3.91), problem-solving activities (M=3.62), quizzes (M=3.79), pair or small work discussion (M=3.86), whole class discussion (M=3.86) were perceived as preferable by almost all learners (Q19). More importance should be given to brainstorming, ethnographic tasks, pair or small work discussion, and whole class discussion when implementing the course.

To sum up, the questionnaire results served to identifying learners' needs, both subjective and objective needs, which will be considered as the basic tenet for designing the intercultural course.

Conclusion

The needs analysis questionnaire is of great help to explore the learners' subjective as well as objective needs. The objective needs of learners show that they require to develop their ICC since they learn English for the sake of being effective and appropriate interactors, travelling abroad, or getting a job. Besides, they need to develop other competences as the linguistic and the communicative competences since they face problems such lack of vocabulary and hesitation.

On the other hand, the questionnaire findings also revealed learners' subjective needs. They have different learning styles, and they like to learn through different pedagogical approaches. Furthermore, they selected the active role to be played by them in the classroom and the role of the facilitator to be played by the teacher. Learners expressed a positive attitude towards integrating culture in their classes. Learners' wants also were explored regarding the what and the how to teach. The coming chapter is the fruit of this chapter. That is, the data gathered from

the questionnaire will be employed to select the content, the methodology, the objectives, etc., to design and then to implement an intercultural course.

Chapter Five: Intercultural Course Design , Implementation, and Evaluation

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Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter is about the stage of designing the intercultural course, its implementation, and its evaluation. After exploring the learners' needs as far as ICC is concerned, the information gathered from the needs analysis procedure is used for designing the intercultural course. This chapter is also devoted to putting the designed course into practice in order to see if the intercultural course used was effective. That is, a quasi-experiment was conducted to achieve this aim. Thus, the results of the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire were compared and analysed. Other qualitative methods were used to measure the learners' ICC namely students' portfolios and the teacher's reflective journal to validate the results.

5.1. Course Design

Course design describes the different teaching stages starting from the identification of goals to setting objectives, selecting the content and methodology to be adopted, and the way of sequencing the course.

5.1.1. Aims and Objectives

The general aim behind designing the present syllabus is the development of first-year EFL students' ICC. In doing so, one should design courses that lead to the development of the competences developed in Byram (1997)'s and Barrett (2014)'s models, which are made up of attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness.

One of the famous taxonomies for educational objectives that help to write learning outcomes is that of Bloom. Bloom working with other researchers developed a taxonomy of educational objectives in 1956. Three dimensions of learning were specified: cognitive (knowledge), affective (attitudes), and psychomotor (skills). It was stated that the majority of educational objectives can be set in one of the three domains. However, the psychomotor

domain was not of interest to Bloom. Instead, it was developed by others (Simpson, 1972). The three kind of objectives were regarded in this study because ICC model adopted in this study includes these areas. The competence of knowledge is a cognitive one; the competence of attitudes is an effective dimension; the competence of skills is included in the psychomotor domain where interaction takes place.

- Cognitive Domain: it “includes objectives that deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills” (Bloom, 1956, p.7). The cognitive domain is made up of six categories. This domain was revised later where a slight change took place. The original categories were written in a form of nouns; however, the new categories are written in a verb form. Further, there was a change in two categories. The three first categories are lower-level skills; the remaining ones are higher-level skills (Figure 5.1). Reaching higher-level skills requires going first through lower-level skills.

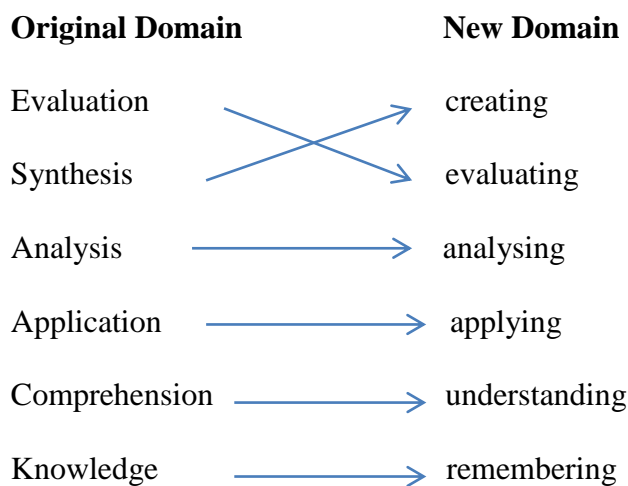


Figure 5.1. New Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson, Krathwohl, & Bloom’s, 2001).

Table 5.1.

Verbs Used with Knowledge Level (Bloom, 1956)

Categories	Examples of Verbs Used
Remembering : recalling information	Define, name, label, list, match, arrange, order, describe, recite, repeat, recall, relate, underline, order, recognise, record, reproduce, state
Understanding: translating and interpreting the meaning	Arrange, classify, describe, discuss, sort, explain, express, identify, indicate, translate, interpret, locate, report, restate
Applying : the use of already learnt knowledge in a new context	Apply, choose, operate, illustrate, practice, prepare, schedule, sketch, solve, use, demonstrate, measure
Analysing: separate knowledge into parts and show the link between them	Analyse, calculate, contrast, categorise, criticise, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, test, differentiate, compare
Evaluating: making a value judgement about materials	Argue, assess, compare, evaluate, judge, predict, value
Creating: construct components of knowledge to form new ideas	Write, conduct, create, compose, organise, plan, modify

- Affective Domain: It “includes objectives which describe changes in interest, attitudes, and values and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment” (Bloom, 1956, p.7). Examples of subcategories and verbs are: ask, choose, show willingness, identify, describe, name, greets, perform, write, report, discuss, differentiate, explain, describe, relate, compare, complete, order, act, perform, solve, use, discriminate, and cooperate (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964).
- Psychomotor Domain: this domain focuses on physical movements and motor-skills. Examples of verbs used in such a domain are: move, react, respond, distinguish, relate, select, start, change, and adapt (Simpson, 1972).

1.1.2. Content Selection

The content of the intercultural course is outlined below (table 5.2). In each unit, the learning outcomes, the activities and techniques, and the ICC component are specified.

Table 5.2

Content of the Intercultural Course

Title of Units	Objectives : By the end of the unit, SS will be able to	Activities/ Techniques	Target ICC component
1.Language and Culture	- define culture -distinguish between big C and small c culture - to know the importance of culture in communication	-brainstorming - pair or small group discussion -whole class discussion	-knowledge
2.Education	-to compare and contrast education in UK, USA, and Algeria -to write an email describing the Algerian educational system	-brainstorming -whole class discussion	-Knowledge -skills of interpreting and relating
3.Time	-to compare the concept of time in the native culture, target culture and other cultures -to participate in imaginary intercultural encounters -to encourage learners to express their views on the target culture	-pair discussion -whole class discussion -presentation -ethnographic task (interview) -role-play	-Knowledge -skills of discovery and interaction

4. Way of Living	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -discuss individualism and collectivism and relate them to the native and the target culture -to interpret a scene in a movie and to relate it to the Algerian culture - to stop judgements about the target culture -to be aware of differences and similarities in the way people live in the target culture and the Algerian Culture - to encourage openness and empathy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -small group discussion - whole class discussion - presentation -role-play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Knowledge - skills of interpreting and relating - Attitudes - Awareness
5.Eating and Drinking Manners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to discuss and compare essential eating and drinking habits in the target culture, Algerian culture and other cultures -identify communication breakdowns in intercultural communication in texts and movies and be able to explain them -To describe their emotions and opinions about others' foods and drinks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - brainstorming -small group discussion - whole class discussion -presentations -role-play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - knowledge - skills of interpreting and relating - attitudes

- to engage in an imaginary intercultural conversation (dinner party)
- to stop making generalisations
- encourage tolerance and respect

6.Raising children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - compare the way of raising children in the target culture and the native culture -discuss ways of punishing children in the target culture and other cultures -show awareness of the danger of generalisations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Whole-class discussion - problem-solving activity -role-play -interview -presentation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -knowledge - attitudes - awareness
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7. Conversation and silence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - discuss some essential conversation starters and taboos in the Algerian culture and the target culture - recognise the role of non-verbal communication when interacting interculturally -to participate in an imaginary dialogue about conversation starters -to greet appropriately in the target culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -brainstorming -whole-class discussion -quiz - ethnographic task -presentation - role-play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Knowledge -skill of discovery and interaction
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	-to act a play using appropriate non-verbal communication		
8.Women and men's roles	- to discuss the difference between men and women's roles in the Algerian culture and the target culture -show awareness of the negative impact of stereotypes	-Small group discussion -whole class discussion	-knowledge -awareness
9.The concept of beauty	- to discuss how beauty is viewed in the Algerian and the target culture and others	-brainstorming -discussion	-knowledge
10.Celebrating social events	- discuss important celebrations in the Algerian culture and the target culture as Christmas -to interpret a scene in a movie and relate it to the Algerian culture - show awareness of differences and similarities in celebrating weddings in the Algerian and the target culture		-knowledge -awareness -skill of interpreting and relating

The course , we designed, which is one element of the course, is made up of seven units (appendix E). The first unit is an introduction to language and culture. It aims at making the students able to define the term culture and to recognise that there is a relationship between

the English language and the target culture. The teacher is required to explain, define, and to exemplify since the students lack knowledge about the topic. Therefore, the teacher's role is a facilitator and a controller.

The second unit which is made up of four tasks is entitled 'Education'. The first task is a reading activity. The material used is a reading text which explains the American schooling system; it is adopted by Huber-Kriegler and Lazar (2003). Some questions are created by us and others adopted from the aforementioned source. The second task, a listening activity, is about the British educational system. A video is used which is retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OV3tImRJVU8>. We created the questions. The third task is another reading activity. The reading text which is about taking a driving license was adopted from Huber-Kriegler and Lazar (2003). It aims to show that taking a driving license is a different experience from a culture to another. The last task, which is adapted from Huber-Kriegler and Lazar (2003), is a kind of project done by the learners. It is a writing task where students are required to write an email. This task is chosen to make learners able to interpret knowledge of their culture to others from different cultures.

The third unit is entitled 'Time'. The first task, which is adopted from Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) aims at showing that time, is viewed differently by various cultures. The second and the third tasks, which are reading activities, are about punctuality in different cultures. This unit ends with a role-play where students acted different roles. In the fourth task, students are asked to search for how other cultures view time and whether they are punctual or not; it can be done through two options. The first option is to make the learners display their findings in the form of short presentations. The second option is through interviewing different people from different cultures and present the finding to the whole class.

The fourth unit is entitled 'Way of Living'. It aims at showing how people live and behave differently from one culture to another. The first task, which is adopted from Cankova (2007), is a reading text, a poem, from memo for spring, 1972. It is entitled 'For my Grandmother Knitting'. The poem revolves around how an old women's life changed from the past to the present. The task aims at raising learners' intercultural awareness of the way elders of the target culture live. It reflects on how the home culture members behave and live.

The second task, which is a listening task, is an adaptation of a film entitled 'Now is Good'. The film revolves around a girl who is suffering from leukaemia, and she is managing to realise several wishes before she dies. The task is divided into three stages: a pre-listening, a while listening, and a post-listening stage. The first stage aims at raising learners' motivation and critical thinking by asking them to write an imaginary plot of the movie. The second stage aims to discover different ways of living in the target culture such as dating and dealing with sickness. The third stage aims at making learners reflect and compare the target culture with the home culture in the aspects discussed in the while reading stage. Furthermore, a follow-up task where learners are required first to write the second part of the movie and then to rewrite a scene from the movie and to adapt it to the learners' cultural context for the sake of developing their skills of interpreting and relating as well as the skill of discovery and interaction. Another important aspect that is discussed is 'privacy' and 'space' and how they are shown in the movie, and how they are dealt with in the home culture.

The third task is a song entitled 'Roar' for Katy Perry. The song shows how women are strong, and how they live independently and rely on themselves. The first part of the task requires students to order the stanzas of the song. The second part of the task is about the main idea of the song in general and each stanza in particular. The third part is where students are supposed to compare women in their culture with those in the target culture. This task aims at developing students' intercultural knowledge, developing attitudes of openness and respect

towards other cultures, skills of interpreting and relating, and raising learners' cultural awareness. A follow-up activity in this unit is a presentation made by students about the theme of 'collectivism' and 'individualism'. Whole-class discussion was raised about this topic. Students and the teacher discussed how both terms are shown in the target culture and the home culture. It aims at raising the learners' knowledge about the themes. It also aims at making learners reduce or stop judgement and attitudes towards both cultures.

The fifth unit is entitled 'Eating and drinking manners'. The first task in this unit is a reading activity. The reading text used is adopted from Huber-Kriegler, Lazar, and Strange (2003). It revolves around the idea that the British people have their own food etiquette which differ from those of the Polish culture. The task ends with a discussion where learners are supposed to reflect on their own culture. That is, learners are supposed to interpret their knowledge about their eating and drinking manners and compare them to the British culture.

The second task revolves around alcoholism. Students watch a video about this theme to understand that it is the favourite drink for western culture in general, as well as the target culture in particular. The video also informs learners about some cultural rituals that govern drinking alcohol in some cultures. A follow-up whole-class discussion takes place where learners discuss the theme of alcoholism in their own culture. That is, students compare drinking alcohol in the target culture and in their native culture as well as the cultural rituals for drinking alcohol in the cultures they know. This task is chosen for the sake of mainly developing the learners' attitudes of respect and tolerance for ambiguity towards the target culture.

The last task in this unit is an intercultural encounter where students are supposed to write a script of four or five students belonging to different cultures having party dinner of first-year undergraduate students. The students are supposed to follow different eating and drinking manners (food, drink, toast, etc.) that govern each culture and other behaviours (greetings,

goodbyes, conversation starters, etc.). Then, students are supposed to act out the script to develop the skill of discovery and interaction as they take different roles from theirs. In the end, students' acts are evaluated. That is, they are asked to justify their way of behaviour and choices. A comparison is made about the similarities and the differences as well as what the students learnt from the plays to raise their awareness.

The sixth unit which is entitled 'Raising children' is about the raising system in different cultures. This unit aims at raising learners' intercultural awareness towards some aspects of raising children between different cultures. The first task is a listening activity which is targeted towards showing that each culture has its own way of raising children. The material used is a video for a psychologist who explains that children are raised differently from one culture to another. A follow-up activity aims at reflecting on the learners' own culture in raising children.

A second task from this unit is about punishing children. The content is shown through an extract from an American movie entitled 'Home Alone'. The first part of the task requires learners from the title to imagine what the movie is about. The extract shows how an American mother punishes her son for behaving badly. The third part of the task aims at reflecting on the learners' own culture as far as children's punishments and rewards are concerned. A follow-up activity requires learners to get involved in the ethnographic task namely the interview where they should interview several people from different cultures about how they punish and reward their children and then to present their findings to the class.

The third task is a problem solving activity. The learners are asked to write an imaginary conversation between an Algerian novice teacher teaching at a British school and a child's parent about punishing his/ her child at school. In the end, the students are required to act the conversation. The aim behind this activity is to show that punishing children in schools are different from a culture to another.

The seventh unit entitled ‘Conversation and Silence’ tackles some verbal and non-verbal communication differences between the native culture and the target culture. The first task is a reading activity. It is about verbal communication particularly on how to start a conversation and what to say. The material used is an adaptation of an article entitled ‘Why do Brits Talk about the Weather so Much? The first stage aims at introducing the conversation topic to the students. The second part of the task revolves around the topic of the weather, as it is the most common topic that British people speak about in conversations. The third part of the task is where the students reflect on their culture and discuss how people in their culture start a conversation and the topics they can speak about when they meet for the first time and compare it to the target culture.

The second task is a quiz about non-verbal communication. The task starts with a video, as a warm-up, to show that non-verbal communication differs from a culture to another, and these differences may lead to communication breakdowns. Then, the task is presented through a picture of gestures as a type of non-verbal communication where students are asked to guess whether they are used in the UK or in the USA and then to reflect on their culture. The task aims at developing the learners’ knowledge of non-verbal communication as well as the skill of interpreting and relating.

To conclude this unit, the students are asked to do a project work in which they have three options. The first option is an ethnographic task where students are supposed to conduct an interview with people from different cultures about the non-verbal communication in their culture and then to report the results to the whole class. The second option is performing a role-play about a situation that leads to communication breakdowns because of verbal and/or non-verbal communication. These two tasks are adopted from Huber-Kriegler (2003). The third task is a problem-solving activity adopted from Bouhidel (2018) where students are

supposed to write an imaginative conversation in which they met with an English man or a woman. These tasks aim chiefly at developing the skill of discovery and interaction.

The eighth unit is entitled 'Women and Men's Roles'; it aims at revealing the different roles of males and females in the target culture and the native culture. The first task in this unit is about gender equality. The material used is a video for Emma Watson. It is about gender equality. The task is divided into three stages: a pre-listening, a while listening, and a post-listening. The pre-listening stage aims at introducing the presenter of the speech: Emma Watson. The second stage revolves around comprehension questions about gender equality. In the third stage, a comparison between the students' own culture and the target culture as far as gender equality is concerned. The students' views on gender equality are also discussed for the sake of raising tolerance, respect, and openness towards the difference. This task is also used to make learners decentre from their point of view and to see the variation that exist in other cultures. In addition, raising learners' knowledge of the differences between the roles done by both genders in the target culture and their own culture is another significant aim of this task.

The second task is about the genders' roles in doing house chores in different cultures. This task, which is a reading activity, is adapted from Huber-Kriegler (2003). The material used is an essay entitled 'I Want a Wife' by Judy Praddy published in Ms. Magazine in 1972. The essay is about women's stereotypes for men's needs of a wife. The first part of the task, which takes place before the reading step, aims at asking learners about the title of the essay. The second part of the task, which is done while reading, aims at analysing the essay and finding out the writer's aim from the poem. The third part of the task_ post-reading stage_ aims at comparing the genders' roles in doing the house chores in the target culture and the British culture. This task is chosen for the sake of raising the learners' understanding and awareness of the meaning and the danger of stereotypes as well as developing the skill of interpreting documents from the target culture and relating them to one's own culture.

The ninth unit is entitled 'The Concept of Beauty'. It revolves around how the meaning of beauty changes from the native culture to the target culture. This unit is made up of only one task. The material used is a song entitled 'Beautiful' by Christina Aguilera. The first part of the task_ the pre-listening stage_ is about introducing the material_ the song_ for the learners by guessing the content from the title. After that, they fill in the gaps in the song lyrics. The second part of the song_ is the listening stage_ where students are supposed to listen to the song and check whether the words they fill are the same as the songs in the lyrics or not. The third part of the task, which is adapted from Huber-Kriegler (2003), is where students reflect on their culture and compare related concepts of the target culture as body shape and sexual attractiveness with those of the native culture.

The final unit, the tenth, is about celebrating social events. The first task is about Christmas Eve. The material used is a video. It revolves around celebrating Christmas Eve in different cultures. The task ends with a whole-class discussion where students reflect on their culture and discuss the celebrations they have, and how they celebrate them. This task mainly aims at raising intercultural knowledge as far as Christmas Eve is concerned. Moreover, it seeks at developing attitudes of openness, respect, and tolerance toward other cultures.

The second task in this unit is about celebrating wedding ceremonies. The material used is an adapted movie clip which is entitled 'Bride Wars'. The movie revolves around two friends whom were preparing for their weddings together. However, they struggled before the wedding and then became enemies. The task aims at showing the different steps American people go through while planning for their weddings. The last stage of the task opens the floor for letting students reflect on and discuss how weddings are celebrated in their native culture. Besides, it gives learners the chance to rewrite an imaginary plot for an adapted version film appropriate to the learners' native culture and to rewrite concrete scenes. This task aims at developing

learners' attitudes of openness, and knowledge of the target culture, developing the skills of interpreting and relating as well as the skills of discovery and interaction.

5.1.3. Methodology

As the present course follows an intercultural syllabus, it is logical that we use an intercultural approach to implement it. First, the choice of tasks stems from intercultural tasks as named by Corbett (2003). The intercultural tasks were of different kinds and made up generally of three stages. When the task is a listening activity, for example, it is made up of three parts: pre-listening task, while listening, after listening. There are also other task types such as role-plays and presentations.

To teach ICC, several points should be considered. First and foremost, the integration of both the target culture and the native culture is deemed necessary (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993). Experiential learning, which means learning by doing like performing plays, is the adopted method used to develop ICC. That is, while implementing the intercultural course knowledge is not transmitted to learners directly. However, they are responsible for their learning as they are required to do many techniques and activities such as comparison, analysis, reflection, and action (Barrett et al, 2013). Another approach used to support the intercultural approach is the cooperative approach where learners work in groups to assist each other. The techniques and activities used are brainstorming, whole-class and small-group discussion, role-plays, problem-solving activities, ethnographic tasks, and quizzes,

The teacher's role is a facilitator and/or a guide most of the time, i.e., facilitating tasks for learners through assisting them and giving them instructions. However, the teachers' role is sometimes a controller when it comes to introducing new information about the target culture or when arranging groups. Students have an active role most of the time as they are required to

work in groups, discuss, compare, brainstorm, analyse, write and summarise, act, interact with each other, do interviews outside class and do presentations inside the class.

5.2. Experimental Design

5.2.1. Definition of Experimental Design

Experimental design refers to “the conceptual framework within which the experiment is conducted”. The experimental design puts some rules needed for explaining cause and effect relationships. These rules are “(1) cause precedes effect in time, (2) the cause variable covaries (occurs together) with the effect, and (3) alternative explanations for the causal relationship can be ruled out” (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2014, p. 291). An experiment, by definition, is “a scientific investigation in which the researcher manipulates one or more independent variables, controls any other variables, and observes the effects of the manipulation on the dependent variable(s)”. The aim of conducting any experiment is to establish a cause and effect relationship between at least two variables (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2014, p. 285).

Griffiee (2012) argued that the basic tenet on which experimental design lies is a comparison between the EG and the CG. Thus, a definition of important variables is introduced below:

- *A dependent variable* cannot be dealt with alone yet it is always linked to another one called the independent variable. The dependent variable is the dominant variable on which the other variables will act. Generally, the dependent variable is the measure, that is testing and what it represents (Griffiee, 2012). This variable is considered a response to a stimulus (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).
- *The independent variable* refers to the treatment. It is the one that the researcher doubts that it may affect or is linked to the dependent variable (Griffiee, 2012). It is described as a stimulus (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

- *Intervening variables* are abstract theoretical labels applied to the relationship that links the independent and dependent variables. They are constructs that may explain the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but are not directly observable themselves (Brown, 1988, as cited in Griffiee, p. 73).

5.2.2. Experiments Types

There are three types of experiments: pre-experiment, quasi-experiment, and true experiment (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Griffiee, 2012; Nunan, 1992). They are defined in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3.

Contrasting Pre-experiments, Quasi-experiments, True-experiments (Nunan, 1992, p. 41)

Type	Characteristics
Pre-experiment	May have pre- and posttreatment tests, but lacks a control group
Quasi-experiment	Has both pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups, but no random assignment of subjects
True experiment	Has both pre- and posttests, experimental and control groups, and random assignment of subjects

Thus, the main difference between quasi-experiments and true-experiments is the randomization of sampling. That is, unlike quasi-experiments, randomization of sampling is prerequisite in true experiments (Brown, 2011). Quasi-experiments *_or non-equivalent control group design_* refers to a kind of experimental design that is common in educational research. It has both an EG and a CG taking both a pre-test and a post-test (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

5.2.3. Description of the Current Study

A quasi-experiment was conducted to implement the designed course. Two groups of first-year EFL students were assigned by the administration. Only one group received the treatment, which is the EG. However, the second group received no treatment, which is the CG. Rather, the CG was taught using the traditional program (conventional syllabus) used each year for the Oral Expression module, respecting the curriculum goals which mainly aim at the development of both the speaking and the listening skills. In doing so, any change with the EG would be due to the implementation of the suggested course and not due to chance or other variables.

The experiment lasted for ten weeks divided into thirty-four hours. The experiment aims to test the hypothesis which states that designing and implementing an intercultural course which is based on students' needs would develop first-year EFL university learners' ICC. The experiment took place in the first semester of the academic year 2022/2023. Each week, learners had two Oral Expression sessions. Each session lasted for one hour and a half.

5.2.4. Threats to the Internal Validity of the Experiment

Internal validity is where “the findings must accurately describe the phenomena being researched” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 107). Several extraneous variables are a threat to internal validity. Thus, they should be controlled when designing any experiment so that they will have no impact on the treatment of the experiment. Some of which are history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, experimental mortality, and selection (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Griffee, 2012).

- *History* is defined by Campbell and Stanley (1963) as “the specific events occurring between the first and second measurement in addition to the experimental variable” (p.5). According to Ary et al. (2014), if the two groups were equally influenced by the

same events, this would not be a threat to internal validity. The extraneous variables that they may affect the treatment are the exposure to modules of ‘Language and Culture’ and ‘Literary Texts’. However, since the two groups are exposed to the same content which is taught by the same teachers, this would not be a confounding variable.

- *Maturation* variable: To control the maturation variable, which is affected mainly by time (Campbell & Stanley, 1963), we implemented the course in two months, which is considered a relatively short period. Informal interviews with the participants also revealed that their ages are between 17 and 21. Moreover, we opted for first-year EFL learners because this goes hand in hand with Griffiee’s (2012) argument that one should choose individuals that have the same cognitive abilities and thus could be presumed to develop at nearly the same rate.
- *Testing, or test effects or practice effects*: if test takers have a first test, they may learn something from the test, which in turn influences the scoring of the second test to be taken after a specific period (Griffiee, 2012). To avoid the test effects, we used the CG strategy as proposed by Griffiee (2012). In other words, if students are influenced because of taking the same test twice, this would be shown in the differences between pre-test and post-test of the CG. Moreover, the period between the pre-test and the post-test was long, more than ten weeks, as suggested by Ary et al. (2014). That is, students by then would have forgotten the form and content of the first test.
- *Instrumentation* threat means, according to Griffiee (2012), that the tool employed for measuring lacks reliability and validity, for these tools were created in particular contexts and with particular participants and then taken to be used in a totally different context from the one that was used in at first. Thus, he suggested that any researcher should explicate how validity and reliability are achieved in one’s research. Moreover, he proposed to make a pilot test and explain the results in order not to fall into the trap

of this threat. We piloted the test before starting the experiment and explained the findings in a section. This threat might occur also when the researcher uses two different tools in the pre-test and the post-test. We avoided this threat by using the same instrument on both tests. That is, we used the same questionnaire in both the pre-test and the post-test.

- *Experimental mortality*: it is considered a threat to internal validity as it is highly likely that only good participants will be kept in the study because of others' dropouts, and thus results will show that the significant difference is due to the treatment (Griffiee, 2012). Because of repeated absences, we decided to exclude three students from the EG. We asked them about the reasons behind their absences as well as their level in the English language, as recommended by Griffiee (2012) to avoid the experimental mortality variable. The first student dropped out because she wanted to sit for the Baccalaureate exam again to get a high average that enables her to study medicine. Actually, she is a good student since she got a good average in the Baccalaureate exam (14), and she has a good level in English (fluency). The other two students are not good at English because they failed to pass to second-year a year ago; instead, they repeated their first-year at university. Thus, excluding a good student and two other weak students from the EG reduce the chance that the scores are caused by the leave of weak students from the group. Thus, the size of the two groups is reduced. The EG is made up of twenty-three instead of twenty-five; the CG is made up of twenty-two instead of twenty-three.
- *Selection-maturation interaction*: In Griffiee's (2012) words, this extraneous variable takes place when the researcher is responsible for forming the EG and the CG. Because the groups differ from each other, their scores will not be the same. Thus, one may think that the groups' distinction is due to the scores differences instead of the treatment. This

problem is found especially in the quasi-experimental group as randomization is absent (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Griffee, 2012). To control this extraneous variable, as suggested by Griffee (2012), we used a pre questionnaire (functions as a pre-test) which in turn reveals that there was not any significant difference in the learners' ICC level. Besides, we employed the ANCOVA test for data analysis which accounts for the differences between the CG and the EG (Dornyei, 2007). Because random assignment was absent, controlling the differences was another solution by taking into account personal and demographic variables (Griffee, 2012). Hence, the two groups showed a high level of homogeneity as the majority were females. Informal interviews also showed that all of them live in Jijel and no one of them lived outside. Besides, no one of them travelled abroad except for one student; she travelled to Tunisia.

- *The Hawthorne effect* happens “if participants, probably students in our case, come to know they are in a special study, they may be impressed by the attention they are receiving, and this attention may cause them to do better, or at least act differently, than they normally would” (Griffee, 2012, p. 77). To control this effect, we did not inform the students that we were conducting an experiment as suggested by Griffee (2012). Because our course was implemented in the Oral Expression module, which aims to develop the speaking and listening skills, our course, employed watching videos and films and presenting and discussing different topics orally. This was followed by answering comprehension questions and reading texts then starting discussions.

5.2.5. Description of the Questionnaire

Both the pre questionnaire and the post questionnaire (functions as a pre-test and a post-test) are adopted from the ICC questionnaire developed by Fantini and Tirmizi (2006, pp. 18-12). The pre questionnaire and the post questionnaire were addressed to both the EG and CG for the

sake of assessing their ICC level. They were administered on the 23rd of October 2022; we were present to explain any ambiguities. Students were given the whole session to self-assess themselves. They took from twenty minutes to half an hour to hand them back. The post questionnaire was administered on the 10th of January 2023.

Fantini and Tirmizi's (2006) questionnaire of ICC adopted in this study is a six-point Likert scale from not at all competent to extremely high competent. It is made up of four areas: knowledge, attitudes, skills, and awareness. The knowledge component comprises ten (10) statements. Attitudes comprise thirteen (13) statements. Skills comprise eleven (11) statements. Awareness comprises twelve (12) statements. Some statements were present in the original survey (appendix F). However, they were either deleted or modified in the questionnaire adopted in this study (appendix G) because the context of both studies is different. While this study took place in an educational setting, Fantini and Tirmizi's project was not. Besides, this research took place in an Algerian university, the latter was in Ecuador. Hence, some words automatically should be changed like Ecuador, host culture, etc. The term target culture was used instead of the latter.

The questionnaire is reliable as the Cronbach's Alpha is higher than 0.05 in all ICC components as well as for the overall ICC (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Reliability of the Questionnaire

Components	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Knowledge	.902	.902	10
Attitudes	.949	.950	14
Skills	.945	.946	11
Awareness	.935	.937	10
Overall ICC	.980	.981	45

N= number

5.2.6. Piloting the Questionnaire

It is of overriding importance to pilot the questionnaire (appendix G) which was used as a pre-test and a post-test before starting the experiment (Simon, 1978, as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The pre questionnaire, before its distribution, was piloted on eight (8) first-year EFL students in the study context. The pilot study resulted in some changes. First, in the knowledge part, all the students mentioned that the word *taboo* was unclear. Thus, a definition of the word was provided. The word target was also ambiguous for all the students in the four areas. It was replaced by the word foreign. The word 'adapt' was also replaced by the word 'modify' to make it clearer. To add, the word 'willingness' was replaced by the word 'desire'. The word 'accustomed' seemed difficult to get for all the students. Therefore, the word 'familiarised' took its place. My 'own' to mean 'own culture' sounded unclear; hence, the word 'culture' was added. The word 'variety' was used instead of 'diversity'. The word 'stop' was replaced by 'suspend'. A definition was provided by Oxford dictionary to explain the meaning of flexibility. The term 'difficulties' was used instead of 'dilemmas' (Appendix H).

5.2.7. Piloting the Course

Pilot studies, by definition, are small-scale studies that precede the main study. They are conducted for several purposes. Pilot studies are vital when doing research since they seek to improve research quality. Thus, they aim at raising validity and reliability (Gudmundsdottir. & Brock-Utne, 2010). Secondly, They also give the chance to evaluate the research tool used for collecting data and thus to identify problems or ambiguities that may occur so as to avoid them when conducting the main study (Ary, 2014). Hence, pilot studies should be regarded as one pillar of a research design (Kim, 2011). Because of time-constraint, the researcher could pilot only one unit of the designed course. This unit is entitled 'Education' and was implemented on one group of first-year LMD students of English. This was a different group from the EG and CG. As a result, slight changes were made.

The first change, resulted from piloting the unit of education, was made on the warm-up. For example, the warm-up of the first task was to activate learners' background knowledge. The question asked was 'What *do you know about American schools*'? It was changed since learners were not participating. After a discussion with them to look for the reasons for their non-participation, they claimed that the topic was interesting, yet they did not have any information about it. Thus, students instead were asked in the warm-up to look for the meaning of some vocabulary words. The words were related to the unit of education, and they were included in the text they would read in the reading stage.

Concerning the second task, it was decided to devote more time to the listening stage as students claimed that they needed to listen more than twice to the video because the accent was British English, and they were accustomed to the American accent. As far as the project work is concerned, students were asked directly to write an email, yet it was noticed that they did not differentiate between a paragraph and an essay. Moreover, they were not aware of the writing

process. Hence, we added to the EG a brief explanation of the different writing steps as well as an explanation of the differences between an essay and a paragraph.

5.2.8. The Treatment

The treatment refers to something implemented by the researcher (Griffiee, 2012). In this study, the treatment is the implementation of the intercultural course (appendix E). It was only done with the EG. Due to the end of the semester and the strike that took place at jijel University on December, 2022, by student organisations, we could not implement the whole course. That is, the second task of the eighth unit entitled ‘Women and Men’s Roles’ and the last two units namely ‘The Concept of Beauty’ and ‘Celebrating Social Events’ were not done.

The schedule of quasi-experiment is outlined above. There was a variation in time devoted to each unit and each task. Some of the units were longer than others, and, consequently, require much time, and the opposite is true. Besides, some tasks, unlike others, required the learners to perform several activities in one task such as to write, peer-assess their writings, play-roles, and discuss their roles.

Table 5.5

Schedule of the Experiment

N	Units	Intercultural Topics	Date	Time allotted
1	An introduction	-Language and culture	23/10/2022	1h
2	Education	-American schools	25/10/2022	1h
		-British educational system	30/10/2022	1h 30m
		-Driving test	6/11/2022	1h 30m
		-Email writing	8/11/2022	2h
3	Time	-The Concept of Time	13/11/2022	1h30m
		-Waiting for Trains and Planes	15/11/2022	45m
		-Late Arrivals		45m
		-Role Play		1h 30m
		-Presentations/interview report	20/11/2022	1h 30m
4	Way of Living	-My grandmother Knitting	22/11/2022	1h 30m
		-‘Now is good’ movie	27/11/2022	1h30m
			29/11/2022	1h30m
		-‘Roar’ Song	1/12/2022	45m
		-Collectivism versus Individualism	1/12/2022	45m
5	Food and Eating	What is for Lunch?	4/12/2022	1h 30m
	Manners	Alcoholism	06/12/2022	1h
		Intercultural encounter	08/12/2022	3h
6	Raising children	Cultural differences in raising children	11/12/2022	1h30m
		Home Alone	13/12/2022	1h30m
7	Conversation and Silence	Weather talk	15/12/2022	2h
		Non-verbal communication	18/12/2022	1h 30m
		Role-plays	20/12/2022	1h 30m

5.3. Course Evaluation

To evaluate the effectiveness of the intercultural course, we opted for a mixed method approach to strengthen and validate the results (Brown, 2011). Thus, triangulation or mixed-method approach is to employ more than one research tool (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p 112). To do so, three research tools were used. First, the questionnaire was used as a pre-test and a post test. Students' portfolio and the teacher's reflective journal were also employed. In addition, formative assessment was used while teaching. That is, the teacher observed students while performing role plays, for example, and then gave them feedback.

5.3.1. Analysis of Pre-questionnaire Post-questionnaire Results

To analyse the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire results, the descriptive statistics was measured. The, ANCOVA test was used to test the hypothesis; it is "a statistical technique used to control for the effects of an extraneous variable known to be correlated with the dependent variable" Ary et al (2014, p. 309). The independent variable in this study is the intercultural course, on the one hand. On the other hand, the dependent variable used to measure learners' ICC is the questionnaire for Fantini and Tirmizi (2006). The extraneous variable is the CG.

6.2.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics was used to describe the data statistically. To do so, the M, the SD, the maximum (Max), and the minimum (Min) were used to analyse the data.

Table 5.6

Students' Size in the Two Groups

Groups	F	Valid Percent
CG	22	48,89
EG	23	51,11
Total	45	100,00

Note: CG (control group), EG (experimental group)

Table 5.6 shows that the sample size in the study is 45 students divided into two groups: the CG which is made up of 22 whereas the EG is made up of 23.

It is worth reminding first that the students were asked to self-assess their ICC on the basis of four components: knowledge, attitudes, skills, and awareness. To do so, a Likert scale was provided with each statement belonging to a component of ICC. Students rated their ICC level from 0 (not competent at all) to 6 (very high competence). The range (R) was calculated manually by subtracting the higher value in a distribution from the lower (6-0=6), the total will be divided on the number of options (7); we get 0.86; 0.86 is the interval width. Thus, each time we add 0.86 to the Likert coefficient (Ary, 2014, p.127; Lalouche, 2023):

$$R=(X_h-X_1)$$

R= Range

X_h= highest value in a distribution

X₁= lowest value in a distribution

The interval width is 0.86.

Table 5.7

Mean Average Scale

Scale	M Average	ICC Level
0	0-0.86	Not competent at all
1	0.86- 1.72	Slightly competent
2	1.72-2.58	Somehow competent
3	2.58-3.44	Competent
4	3.44-4.3	Very competent
5	4.3-5.16	Highly competent
6	5.16-6	Very high competence

Table 5.8

EG Results in the Pre-questionnaire and Post-questionnaire

EG	Knowledge		Attitude		Skills		Awareness		Overall	
	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post
1	1,40	2,20	1,36	2,43	1,36	2,55	1,10	2,60	1,31	2,44
2	,80	2,60	,50	2,43	,91	1,64	,60	2,80	,69	2,36
3	,40	,80	,57	,64	,27	,55	,60	,60	,47	,64
4	1,00	1,50	1,57	2,00	1,00	1,91	1,30	2,10	1,24	1,89
5	1,00	1,70	,79	2,07	,55	1,73	,60	1,50	,73	1,78
6	,60	2,40	,64	2,57	1,00	2,45	,70	2,20	,73	2,42
7	,20	,70	,29	,14	,09	,36	,30	,30	,22	,36
8	,20	1,80	,57	1,86	,45	2,18	,40	2,00	,42	1,96
9	1,80	2,00	1,71	2,43	1,55	2,09	1,40	2,10	1,62	2,18
10	1,20	,90	,86	1,07	1,64	,45	,80	1,00	1,11	,87
11	1,40	1,10	1,36	1,36	,82	,55	,70	,80	1,09	,98
12	,50	1,40	,79	1,07	,55	1,00	,70	,90	,64	1,09
13	2,70	2,10	1,36	2,00	2,18	2,73	1,80	2,00	1,96	2,20
14	,60	1,30	,43	1,93	,45	1,18	,40	1,50	,47	1,51
15	,50	1,70	,57	1,86	,55	2,00	,80	2,30	,60	1,96
16	,10	,50	,43	,64	,82	,36	1,10	,40	,60	,49
17	,40	1,90	,79	2,21	,27	2,00	,40	2,30	,49	2,11
18	1,30	1,40	1,71	1,64	1,00	1,73	1,40	1,80	1,38	1,64
19	2,00	1,60	2,07	2,64	2,27	2,18	2,50	2,50	2,20	2,27
20	1,10	1,00	1,43	1,50	,73	1,45	,20	1,40	,91	1,36
21	,40	,70	1,00	1,43	,64	1,09	1,30	1,30	,84	1,16
22	,50	1,50	1,07	1,86	,82	1,18	,60	1,40	,78	1,51
23	1,40	1,50	,93	,93	,73	1,09	1,40	1,00	1,09	1,11

Results in Table 5.8 show that the M of the overall ICC in the post-questionnaire of EG is higher than that of the pre-questionnaire for almost all students. However, the mean score for

three students was decreased (students number 10, 11, and 16). That is, the overall ICC mean in the post-questionnaire of these three students are lower than that of the pre-questionnaire results.

Table 5.9

CG Results in the Pre- and Post-questionnaire

CG	Knowledge		Attitude		Skills		Awareness		Overall	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
1	,90	,90	,57	,86	,91	,73	1,00	1,10	,82	,89
2	1,00	1,40	1,64	1,50	1,27	1,27	1,20	1,30	1,31	1,38
3	,50	2,50	,93	2,93	1,27	2,18	1,10	2,50	,96	2,56
4	1,50	1,50	2,86	3,29	2,45	2,27	2,10	1,20	2,29	2,18
5	1,00	,40	1,21	1,43	1,00	,91	1,30	1,40	1,13	1,07
6	1,20	1,20	1,00	1,36	1,09	1,91	,70	1,40	1,00	1,47
7	,90	,60	1,43	,57	1,00	,64	1,30	,70	1,18	,62
8	1,10	,90	,71	,71	,64	,36	,40	,70	,71	,67
9	,90	,70	,86	1,14	1,18	1,00	1,00	,70	,98	,91
10	,30	,50	,29	,71	,36	,55	,60	,50	,38	,58
11	1,30	,50	1,64	,50	1,36	,45	1,60	,70	1,49	,53
12	,60	,30	,64	,64	1,09	,27	1,30	,80	,89	,51
13	,50	,70	1,43	1,43	,82	,82	,70	1,00	,91	1,02
14	,80	,80	,79	,79	,82	,45	,60	,60	,76	,67
15	1,20	,80	,64	1,00	1,64	1,09	,60	1,10	1,00	1,00
16	,50	,30	,79	,79	,73	,09	,80	,60	,71	,47
17	,60	,30	,57	,57	,64	,18	,50	,30	,58	,36
18	,70	1,00	,71	1,21	1,09	1,09	,80	,80	,82	1,04
19	1,10	1,20	1,50	1,29	1,36	1,18	,50	,60	1,16	1,09
20	1,00	,30	1,43	1,00	1,36	,36	1,20	,30	1,27	,53
21	,70	,80	1,00	,86	,45	,36	,50	,30	,69	,60
22	2,50	1,20	1,50	1,21	,36	1,18	,40	,90	1,20	1,13

Table 5.9 shows that the pre-questionnaire CG results are higher than those of the post-questionnaire for the majority. The overall ICC mean scores of thirteen students out of twenty-two are lowered. One can explain this slight decrease by the fact that learners' way of thinking, feeling, and perceiving the otherness is changed.

Table 5.10

Students' Self-assessment of ICC in the Pre-questionnaire (CG)

	N	Range	Min	Max	M	SD
knowledge_pretest	22	2,20	,30	2,50	,9455	,45953
Attitude_pretest	22	2,57	,29	2,86	1,0974	,55963
Skills_pretest	22	2,09	,36	2,45	1,0413	,46838
Awareness_pretest	22	1,70	,40	2,10	,9182	,43604
Overall_ICC_pretest	22	1,91	,38	2,29	1,0101	,38756

Table 5.10. shows that the attitude component got the highest mean (M=1,09) with a MAX of 2.86 and a MIN of 0,29. Subsequently, the skills component also got a high mean (M=1.04) with a MAX of 2.45 and a MIN of 0.36. The knowledge and awareness sub-competences get the lowest means, (M=0.94) and (M= 0.91) respectively. Thus, the participants of the CG in the pre-questionnaire self-evaluated their ICC level as slightly competent as the mean score for the overall ICC is low (M=1.01, SD=0.38). The SD is low for all four components and thus for the overall ICC which indicates that the students' scores are centred around the means. It is worth remembering that students self-assessed their ICC differently, yet the mean score is the average of their rating scores.

Table 5.11

Students' Self-assessment of ICC in the Pre-questionnaire (EG)

	N	Range	Min	Max	M	SD
Knowledge_pre-	23	2,60	,10	2,70	,9348	65130
Attitude_pre-	23	1,79	,29	2,07	,9907	,49172
Skills_pre-	23	2,18	,09	2,27	,8972	,56793
Awareness_pre-	23	2,30	,20	2,50	,9174	,54826
Overall_ICC_pre-	23	1,98	,22	2,20	,9391	,50083

Table 5.11 exhibits the pre-questionnaire scores of the participants in the EG. Hence, results show that the attitudes sub-competence got the highest rank ($M=0.99$, $SD=0.49$), with a MAX of 2.07 and a MIN of 0.29. Knowledge as well as awareness got approximately the same means, ($M=0.93$, $SD=0.65$) and ($M=0.91$, $SD=0.54$) respectively. However, skills got the lowest mean scores ($M=0.89$, $SD=0.56$) with a Max of 2.27 and a Min of 0.09 which indicate that students self-assessed themselves differently. Hence, the overall ICC mean is low ($M=0.93$, $SD=0.50$) which indicates that the students of the EG are slightly competent in the overall ICC as well as in the four sub-competences.

Table 5.12

Students' Self-assessment of ICC in the Post-questionnaire (CG)

	N	Range	Min	Max	M	SD
Knowledge_post_	22	2,20	,30	2,50	,8545	,51707
Attitude_post_	22	2,79	,50	3,29	1,1721	,69939
Skills_post_	22	2,18	,09	2,27	,8802	,61618
Awareness_post_	22	2,20	,30	2,50	,8864	,49212
Overall_ICC_post_	22	2,20	,36	2,56	,9667	,54656

Regarding students' achievements on the pre-questionnaire, results reveal that the attitude sub-competence got the highest mean ($M=1.17=SD= 0.69$) with a high Max ($Max=3.29$) and a low Min ($Min=0.50$). Skills and awareness got the same mean ($M=0.88$) with a different SD, (0.61) and (0.49) respectively. On the contrary, the knowledge sub-competence got the lowest mean score ($M=0.85$, $SD=0.51$). For the overall ICC, the total mean score is low ($M=0.96$, $SD=0.54$) which indicates that the participants are only slightly competent regarding ICC.

Table 5.13

Students' Self-assessment of ICC in the Post-questionnaire (EG)

	N	Range	Min	Max	M	SD
Knowledge_post_	23	2,10	,50	2,60	1,4913	,56642
Attitude_post_	23	2,50	,14	2,64	1,6832	,68167
Skills_post_	23	2,36	,36	2,73	1,4980	,73440
Awareness_post_	23	2,50	,30	2,80	1,6000	,72676
Overall_ICC_post_	23	2,09	,36	2,44	1,5768	,64355

Table 5.13. shows that students' ICC level in the four sub-components is close to each other. Remarkably, the attitude component got the highest mean ($M=1.68$, $SD=0.68$) with a Max of 2.64 and a Min of 0.14. Subsequently, both knowledge and skills got equal mean scores ($M=1.49$) yet with differences in the Max and the Min, ($Max=2.60$, $Min=0.50$) and ($Max=2.73$, $Min=0.36$), respectively. In the same vein, the overall ICC got a low mean ($M=1.57$) compared to the others which indicates that the participants' ICC level is slightly competent. The SD is low for all the sub-competences as well as for the overall ICC ($SD=0.64$); this in turn indicates that their scores are not spread out from the average mean. In other words, the majority of them evaluated themselves as near to slightly competent, and only a few of them evaluated themselves as highly competent, for example, as it is far from the mean.

The descriptive statistics imply that the treatment, quasi-experiment, made a change in developing the ICC level of the EG as it got higher mean scores in the post-questionnaire compared to the pre-questionnaire. However, this is not enough to confirm the hypothesis. As a result, the need for inferential statistics namely the ANCOVA test is a prerequisite.

6.2.2. Inferential Statistics: ANCOVA Test

We opted for the ANCOVA procedure to test the hypothesis and not other tests like the t-test, for example, although they lead to the same answer which is whether there is a significant difference between the means of various groups or not. However, the difference between ANCOVA and the t-test is that the latter, unlike the former, statistically abolishes particular confounding effects. For example, in the quasi-experimental design, ANCOVA is employed where a comparison between the post-test scores of the EG and the CG is done and controls the scores of the pre-test which is the covariate (Dornyei, 2007). That is, in case any significant difference is found between the post-test scores of the two groups, these differences would be attributed to the treatment since “pre-existing differences of the two groups have been removed by controlling for the pre-test scores” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 222). Thus, it is argued that ANCOVA provides more accurate results (Ary, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2004, as cited in Dornyei, 2007). Importantly, methodologists (Dornyei, 2007, p.118) believe that ‘gain scores’ obtained from the difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the two groups (EG and CG), and then comparing these scores via a t-test, for example, are not reliable “as they are systematically related to any random error of measurement”.

The research question that we aim to answer here is to what extent the intercultural course can be beneficial to EFL learners in developing their ICC. As ANCOVA is a parametric test, one should first proceed by testing the assumptions of parametric statistics. The major assumptions for ANCOVA are continuous level dependent variable, independence of observation, categorical-level independent variable, normal distribution, and homogeneity of variances (One-way ANCOVA in SPSS Statistics, 2018). The first assumption is not violated since the dependent variable, the covariate in the study, which is students’ ICC level, is measured in terms of numbers and not categories. Since the study has only two variables: an independent variable which is the intercultural course and the dependent variable which is the

learners' ICC level, this confirms the first assumption which is the linear relationship between the two variables. The second assumption, which is the independence of observation, means that measurement of the independent and the dependent variables are separate, on the one hand, and measurement of the participants in the CG and EG are separate too. It means also that no participant in the CG is included in the EG and the opposite is true. The third assumption is also met since the independent variable, which is the intercultural course, is not measured using numbers.

The normality assumption is tested via the test of Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a and Shapiro-Wilk as shown in Table 5.14. Results show that the data for Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a test are distributed normally for pre-questionnaire scores for the CG ($D(22)=,142, p=,200$) and the EG ($D(23)=,161, p=,125$) and the post-questionnaire CG ($D(22)=,100, p=,200$), and EG ($D(23)=,177, p=,061$). Similarly, for Shapiro-Wilk test, the data also follow a normal distribution for pre-questionnaire scores for the CG ($D(22)=,956, p=,416$) and the EG ($D(23)=,944, p=,219$) and for the post-questionnaire CG ($D(22)=,958, p=,447$) and EG ($D(23)=,963, p=,537$). Thus, the normality assumption is met as $P > 0,05$. The third hypothesis, absence of outliers, is not violated as Boxplots 5.1 show that there are no outliers. Regarding the homogeneity of variances, this assumption is checked using Levene's Test. Results shown in Table 5.15 indicate that there is a homogeneity of variances between the groups for the pre-questionnaire scores for ($F(4,067)= 2.455, p=.124$) as well as for the post-questionnaire ($F()=0.005, p=.953$). That is, as the P-value is more than 0.05, the groups are homogeneous.

Table 5.14

Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a Shapiro-Wilk Test for Control and Experimental Group

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Pre_	control group	,142	22	,200*	,956	22	,416
	experimental group	,161	23	,125	,944	23	,219
Post-	control group	.100	22	.200*	.958	22	,447
	experimental group	.177	23	.061	.963	23	,537

Table 5.15

Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
ICC pre-test	2.455	1	43	.124
ICC post-test	0.005	1	43	.943
ICC post-test*pre-test	0.027	1	43	.870

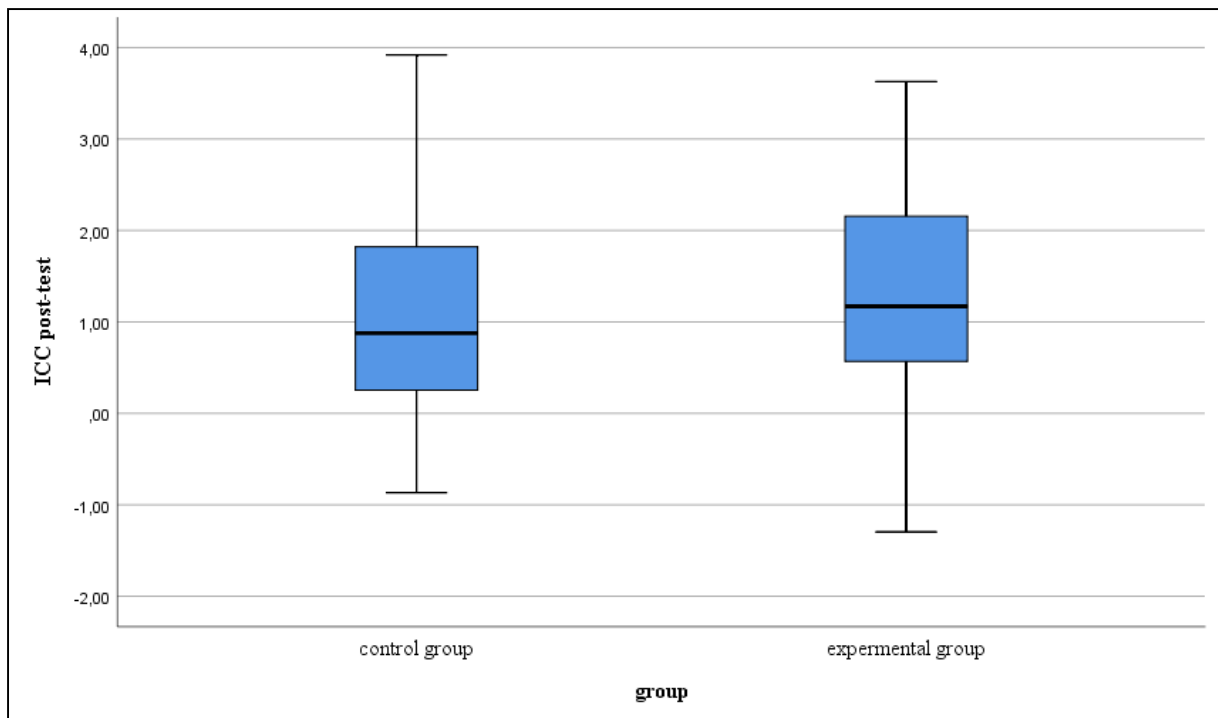


Figure 5.2. Boxplots for pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire.

Table 5.16

ICC Pre-questionnaire (Descriptive Statistics)

Group	Mean	SD	N
control group	.9931	.92978	22
experimental group	.6733	1.33602	23

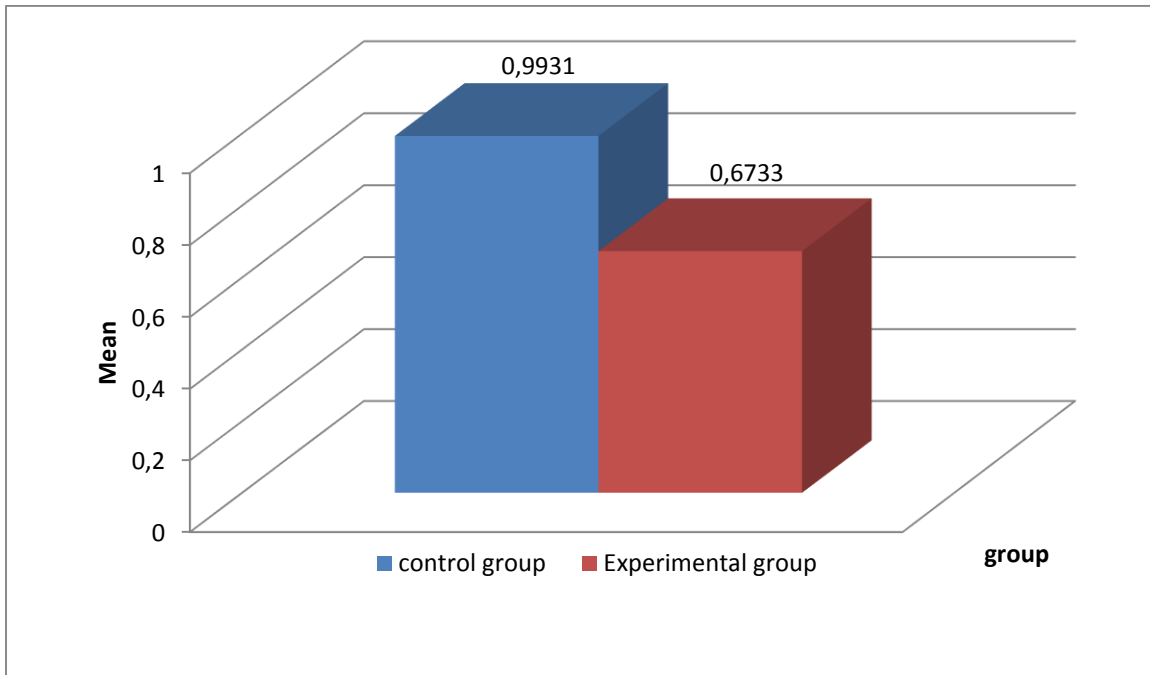


Figure 5.3. ICC development for the pre-questionnaire.

Table 5.16 and Figure 5.3 show that the ANCOVA test for the pre-questionnaire. The pre-questionnaire results reveal that the ICC level of the CG ($M=.99$) is higher than that of the EG ($M=.67$). However, the SD is higher in the EG ($SD=1.34$) than that of the CG ($SD=.93$).

Table 5.17

*ANCOVA Results for the Pre-questionnaire***Tests of Between-Subjects Effects****Dependent Variable: Pre-ICC**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Corrected Model	1,150 ^a	1	1,150	,861	,359
Intercept	31,227	1	31,227	23,384	,000
Group	1,150	1	1,150	,861	,359
Error	57,423	43	1,335		
Total	89,549	45			
Corrected Total	58,573	44			

a. R Squared = ,020 (Adjusted R Squared = -,003)

Table 5.17 reveals that $F_{cal}=0,861 < F_{(0, 05.1.43)}=4, 07$. Thus, according to the data presented in this table, there are no significant differences between the EG and the CG. That is, hypothesis H_0 _Designing and implementing an intercultural course would not develop EFL university learners' ICC_ is accepted ; however, hypothesis H_1 _Designing and implementing an intercultural course would develop EFL university learners' ICC_ is rejected, and this is reflected in the following formula, $Sig=0,359 > p=0,05$.

Table 5.18

ICC Post-questionnaire

(Descriptive Statistics)

Group	Mean	SD	N
control group	,4951	1,35174	22
experimental group	1,7039	1,42898	23

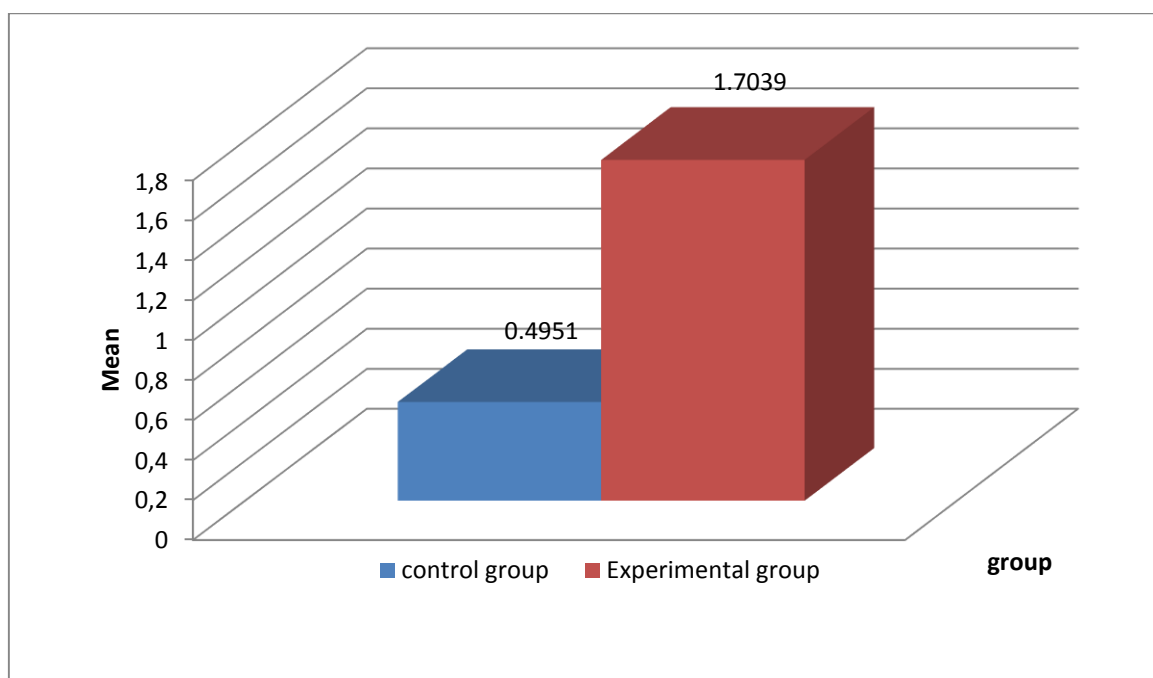


Figure 5.4. ICC development for the post-questionnaire.

From Table 5.18 and Figure 5.3, results reveal that the students of EG performed better in the post-questionnaire as they got a higher mean ($M=1.70$) than the CG ($M=.49$).

Table 5.19

ANCOVA Results for the Post-questionnaire

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Post-ICC

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16,430a	1	16,430	8,482	,006
Intercept	54,371	1	54,371	28,068	,000
Group	16,430	1	16,430	8,482	,006
Error	83,295	43	1,937		
Total	155,459	45			
Corrected Total	99,725	44			

a. R Squared = ,165 (Adjusted R Squared = ,145)

Table 5.19 represents the results of the CG and the EG for the post-questionnaire. Data show that $(f(4.07) = 8.482 = P=0.006)$. Hence, H_0 is rejected, yet H_1 is confirmed. That is to say, there are significant differences between the EG and the CG since $\text{sig}=0,006 < 0,05$.

Table 5.20

ICC Pre-questionnaire and Post-questionnaire (Descriptive Statistics)

Descriptive statistics

pICC post-test *pre-test

Group	Mean	SD	N
control group	,440 ^a	1,35174	22
experimental group	1,776 ^a	1,42898	23

a. covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values ICC pre-test = 0,8297.

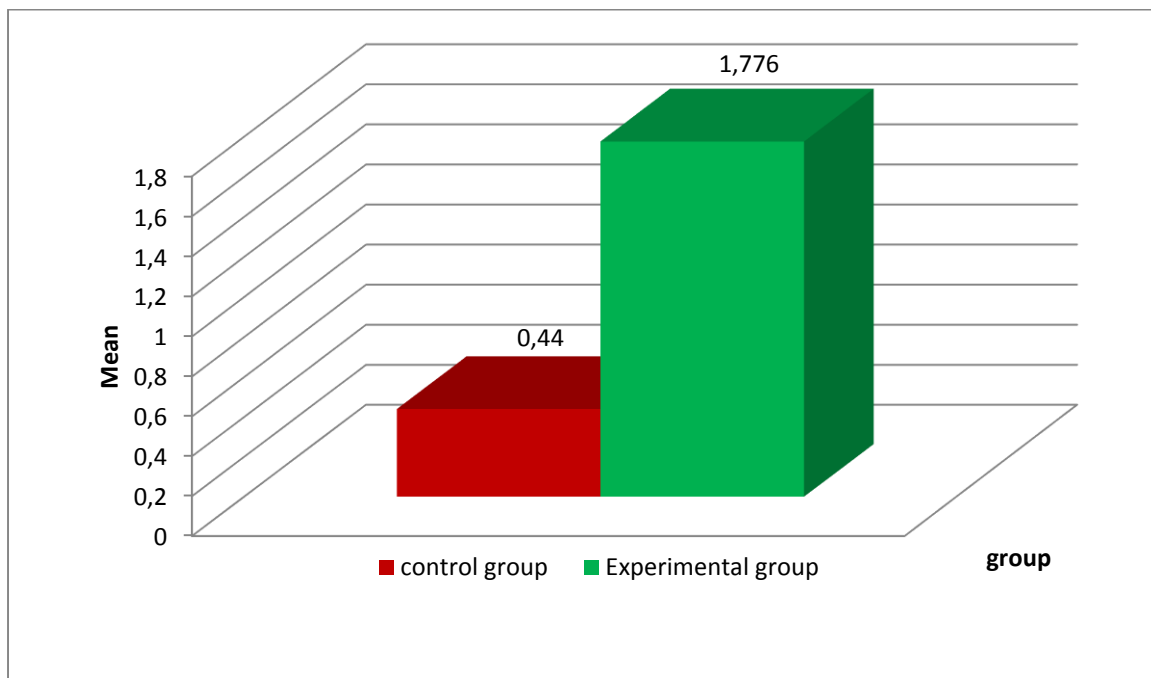


Figure 5.5 ICC pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire.

Both Table 5.20 and Graph 5.5 reveal that the EG (M=1.78) got a higher mean score than the CG (M=0.44). The SD of both groups is slightly high which indicates that the participants' answers are spread out from the mean.

Table 5.21

ANCOVA Results Controlling for Pre-test (Pre-questionnaire)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Post-ICC*Pre-ICC

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	26,909a	3	8,970	5,050	,005
Intercept	15,596	1	15,596	8,782	,005
Group	9,767	1	9,767	5,499	,024
ICC pre-test	7,922	1	7,922	4,461	,041
Group*ICC pre-test	,204	1	,204	,115	,736
Error	72,816	41	1,776		
Total	155,459	45			
Corrected Total	99,725	44			

a. R Squared = ,270 (Adjusted R Squared =,216)

Table 5.21 represents the results of the ANCOVA test taking into account the pre-test (pre-questionnaire), which is the covariate. Results show that $(F(4.07) = 5.499, p = .024)$. That is to say, sig is inferior to the p-value (0.05). Hence, these differences between the EG and the CG are attributed to the treatment which is the implementation of the intercultural course. In other words, there are significant differences between the two groups. Importantly, there are only significant differences between the groups that are due to the covariate variable_ the pre-test (pre-questionnaire).

Another important row is ICC pre-test. This row displays the effects of the covariate, ICC pre-questionnaire, on the dependent variable, post-questionnaire ICC level. As shown, the pre-questionnaire ICC level significantly predict the post-questionnaire ICC level ($F= 4.46$, $p=0.41$). Differently stated, pre-questionnaire results have a vital role in predicting post-questionnaire results to the extent where if it was not included in the analysis, there would likely be great confounding.

5.3.2. Discussion of the Quasi-experiment Results

The findings of the quasi-experiment demonstrated that the design and the implementation of the intercultural course is effective in developing first-year university learners' ICC. The treatment used could help learners of the EG promote their ICC level; however, the conventional method used to teach the CG failed to do so. Both pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire results indicated the effectiveness of the intercultural course in developing learners' ICC.

Descriptive statistics revealed that the participants in the CG performed slightly better in the pre-questionnaire ($M= 1.01$) than the post-questionnaire ($M=0.96$). This means that their ICC level was slightly competent in the pre-questionnaire and did not change in the post-questionnaire. However, the participants of the EG outperformed the post-questionnaire. Results of the pre-questionnaire indicated that students of EG are slightly competent ($M=0.93$). Similarly, the post-questionnaire indicated that the ICC level of EG participants is slightly competent ($M=1.57$).

Inferential statistics of the pre-questionnaire showed that the CG ($M=0.99$) got a higher mean than the EG ($M=0.67$). That is, the ICC level of the participants in the CG is higher than that of the EG. However, ANCOVA test (Table 5.17) revealed that there are not any significant differences between the EG and the CG as the p-value is superior to the probability significance level ($\text{sig}=.359>0.05$). Regarding the results of the post-questionnaire, the EG ICC level

($M=1.70$) is higher than that of the CG ($M=.49$). This means that there are significant differences between the EG and the CG as the p-value is inferior to the probability significance level ($\text{sig}=0.006 < 0.05$). Considering the ANCOVA test when accounting for pre-questionnaire results, the participants of the EG ($M=1.77$) got a higher ICC level than those of the CG ($M=0.44$). This means that the test showed statistically significant growth among the EG ($\text{sig}=.024$) as they were 'slightly competent' in the initial test; they became 'somehow competent'. This indicated that the treatment led to effective results.

5. 3.3. Learners' Portfolio

A portfolio is an alternative method for assessment, and it is a continuous and authentic form of assessment. It is defined as "a purposeful collection of student work that tells the story of student's efforts, progress, or achievements in (a) given area(s)" (Arter & Spandel, 1992, p. 36). Portfolios have been used widely to assess learners' achievement in language skills. Further, the portfolio is an assessment technique that differs from the traditional ones that are based on grades. However, portfolio use allows students to judge their own learning experience and achievement. Besides, a student "is a participant in, rather than the object of, assessment...it provides a forum that encourages students to develop the abilities to become independent, self-directed learners" (Paulson, Paulson, & Mayor, 1991, p.63). This line of thought was echoed by MacIsaac and Jackson (1994) who argued that students have an active role in portfolio assessment where, unlike other forms of assessment, they have to put aims and then provide illustrations that show that the aims are realised, examine and reflect on changing knowledge, specify aspects for development, and put plans for further accomplishment.

Thus, when using portfolios, learners go through three different levels. The first level is where to describe the experiences, the tasks, and the outcomes that have been attained by students. That is, at this stage, reflection means recalling what has been fulfilled, when, and in what way. The second stage demands learners to "analyse, interrelate, and synthesise their

various accomplishments in relation to their learning’’ (MacIsaac & Jackson, 1994, p.69). In other words, at this stage, one moves from describing the evidence of achievements to its real meaning. Comments are of overriding importance in this step because they are a source for students ‘‘to reflect on the meaning of certain changes for themselves and for other audiences; and analyze and synthesize the implications of these changes for their present activities and practices within a variety of activity and interpersonal context’’ (p.69). At the last stage of reflection, a student not only proves that he has learnt something but also he should be responsible to carry on progress and learning through planning a future course. In the same line of thought, Levi (1990) added that the assessment of learning should not stop at this point where one evaluates achievements. On the contrary, learners should express their wishes for the future. Hence, portfolios have another function that is helping them to assess their achievements for the sake of making a clear link between accomplished works and those suggested in the future.

According to Lussier et al. (2007), the intercultural portfolio should be comprised of three components: intercultural/ multilingual biography, intercultural/multilingual passport, and multi-cultural/lingual dossier.

- Intercultural/ multilingual biography: this kind of biography functions as an intercultural awareness agenda. It entails different kinds of data about learners’ linguistic and cultural experiences acquired in formal and informal educational settings. It seeks to motivate learners to measure their abilities in different language skills, and to push them to reflect on learning and/or intercultural strategies.
- Intercultural/multilingual passport: this passport gives an idea of the learners’ competency in different linguistic and cultural skills and the ability of interacting interculturally and allows learners to self-assess themselves concerning their involvement of employing various languages and cultures_ ‘can do statements’ is a good example.

- Multi-cultural/lingual dossier: after writing their achievements in the intercultural biography, learners need to provide illustrations and evidence of the progress they achieved. Different types of evidence can be used in this dossier as a sample of students' essays, a presentation they have done, answers and/or comments on questions generated when reading an article, role-plays and interviews, etc.

Importantly, one of the aims of using portfolios is to promote and measure learners' development of their ICC. We used the portfolio, in addition to the questionnaire, as a secondary tool for evaluating learners' ICC as it is a vital way to assess ICC at the end of the course (Deardorff, 2009; Griva & Koufou, 2020 ; Jacobson, Sleicher, & Maureen, 1999 ; Lussier, et al., 2007). However, awareness was not evaluated in the portfolios as portfolios were used to assess only attitudes, knowledge, and skills (Lussier et al., 2007). It is important to state that when implementing the portfolio we set up some rules to make it systematic. To do so, before starting the experiment, we asked students to buy a portfolio and bring it to the class. Actually, students bought a notebook instead of a portfolio. When the experiment started, we asked students to choose a nickname and to write it on the notebooks instead of their real names. That is to say, we kept students anonymous for the sake of making them express their ideas freely without thinking that the teacher would know what they have written and feel embarrassed. We used a box to keep their portfolios there since students were not allowed to take the portfolios with them out of the class. Rather, we kept them in a box where students get them at the beginning of the class and returned them at the end of each session, on their way out of the class (samples of students' portfolios are shown in appendix J).

The teacher used such a portfolio to encourage students to write their reflections about each session, record, and evaluate their progress. Specifically, we reminded them each session to write further about the things learnt in today's session to see if they reached the objectives or not. Students also were asked to write their feelings about things learnt or something in

particular, and the most interesting thing about the unit, the questions asked were adapted from the use of a portfolio in the English Centre for Modern Languages project (ECML) (Lussier, et al., 2007). We encouraged students to draw pictures that express their feelings, to include interviews they conducted with individuals from different cultures, role-plays, presentations they prepared, emails, comments, and summaries.

5.3.3.1. Analysis of Learners' Portfolios

To analyse the learners' portfolios, we used the content analysis procedure (explained in chapter three). A checklist was designed from the operational definition of ICC (appendix I) which was based on Byram's model (1997). First, we went through reading students' portfolios many times before starting the coding process. We used an inductive content analysis; that is, we established a set of categories before the analysis. We coded the statements that belong to the categories of ICC based on the criteria mentioned in checklist. The indicators that were explained in the checklist, are based on Byram's (1997) ICC model. On that basis, we counted how many times an indicator is repeated in each category. To raise reliability, we invited another teacher to take part in the analysis. That is, after we finished the analysis, we submitted it to that teacher in addition to the data to compare between them. After that, slight changes were made. Thus, results are shown in Table 5.22:

Table 5.22

Frequencies of ICC Dimensions in Learners' Portfolios

ICC Dimensions	F	%
Knowledge	176	80%
Attitudes	32	15%
Skills	11	5%
Total	219	100%

5.3.3.1.1. Attitudes

Knowledge is the first category shown in Table 5.22. As explained earlier, attitude is to stop judging one's as well as others' cultures positively or negatively; however, one should develop attitudes of respect, openness, tolerance, acceptance, and empathy towards other cultures. In the beginning, students expressed their disagreement with the intercultural content being taught; nevertheless, their attitudes changed somehow during and until the end of the experiment.

I enjoyed learning about cultures...at first i thoughtboring....but most of the topics were great. (Cherry)

I had a lot of wrong ideas about western cultures and now they are corrected by the information i learned (igo.assm)

I think I don't like this topic because I actually feel disgusting about such things (Cherry)but we have to respect other cultures and religions.

Other students expressed their acceptance of the differences as they did not judge the other cultures negatively.

Anyway, we can't judge all these methods because every culture is free and different....variation is good.....we are born to be different (Assma).

At the end, we can not say that this raising children system is better than the other one or not (Bellkis).

Other students develop the attitude of readiness to interact with members from different cultures and learn from others their language and culture.

I enjoyed doing the interviews with my penfriends from different cultures. This kind of homework is really kind of interesting (Cherry).

The session was very great and the topic too (collectivism and individualism). (Cherry)

I like USA and everything related to it. (Cherry).

As far as changing perspectives are concerned, some students expressed their acceptance and openness and/or respect towards the different other.

I found out that being opened to other cultures will not corrupt your own ideas and beliefs (igo.issm).

Finally, we must accept all the methods of raising children and respect the culture of other countries.

Each country has its way of thinking, so is we talk about the way children are raised is different from a culture to another but we cannot say that this way is better than the other (Cherry).

If i saw someone drinking, I will not mind because he is free and he can do what he want (Assma).

Everyone is free in his life so it's up to him if he drinks alcohol or not. Don't judge someone basing on what he was raised on. We're different, we grew in different ways we are not the same (M.R).

Personally, I agree with putting the baby under responsibility to discover their deeps and thinking through their personal needs (Assma).

For me, I like how Americans raise their children with self-independent and being responsible rely on themselves. (T-van).

Few other students showed interest in the target culture, which in turn led to changing the feeling of fear to openness and interest.

Today's lesson is about British schools ...I was very excited to expand my knowledge because I really love the development Britain is living... (Nomi)

We discussed driving license inthat made me less stress and more and more excited and curious(Jimin).

Moreover, few students expressed their feelings towards the otherness where they managed to develop somehow the attitude of empathy.

...Tessa ..is a girl suffering from cancer, she was trying to enjoy her life ...before leaving this life, I was so sad about her

The movie was not fun...having a deadly disease is really hard for all people no matter what their religion is, where they come from or which culture they belong to (M.R)

However, other students did not develop their attitudes and they expressed negative reactions to the differences. For example, some students did not accept the otherness, but they rather had negative judgements about them.

Personally, I don't like it (alcohol) because it contrast with our religion. (Br)

I am not agree with Americans when they put their babies (new borns) in other rooms. (Cherry).we have to keep our babies close to us.

I am not into gender equality because Islam give us ...our rights which are fair, but actually our society deprive the women from these rights. In fact, I am not interested in this topic (Nanah).

The idea of women should have the same rights like man is totally wrong because we follow our religion...we can take our own decisions about many things but not in everythings (T-van).

I don't agree with giving the baby his own-bedroom (Assma).

I don't support gender equality because god creted women and man with different abilities...(Jimin).

Collectivist societythe religious side.....it is forbidden...Islam is always true (Belkis).

I will be annoyed and feel disgust of that person (drinking alcohol) (Black swan).

Alcohol is dangerous...I don't like people drinking this toxics (Fifi).

5.3.3.1.2. Knowledge

Knowledge is the second category in the learners' portfolio. The students' portfolios show good development in the knowledge component (80%). Knowledge includes knowledge of one's culture and that of others. First, some students were able to define the term culture.

It is devided into two categories : big C culture ...like literature language and religion and small c culture like food clothes (Bellkis).

Culture is a set of customs and values, artifacts, stories...that are shared and transmitted in a given society and passed from one generation to another (V-tan)

Knowledge also includes knowing not only about the target culture but also the target language. Therefore, some students developed their linguistic competence through learning new words.

Grasp : understand ;shrunk : get smaller ; temper : mood ; ample : enough (Mahraz).

Moreover, learners were capable of describing the writing process in general and writing an email in particular as a process guided by some steps.

In writing we must not use short forms. There are steps... pre-writing (before start writing), select a specific topic collect ideas and examples. Writing finally editing and revising (V-tan).

Each text has a specific structure, an essay is made of several paragraphs (introduction, body, and conclusion)before writing we must select a specific topic, collect ideas about the subject (we use illustrations examples from real life, then writing...revise and correct mistakes finally (M.R)

Besides, students were able to speak about essential norms such as greeting.

Each culture has its own way to greet, and behave ...for example Japanese and Korean people are generally polite and when greeting they bow and say things like 'ohayu' while other cultures like Algerian and Turkey ...kiss each other of the same gender when they are not they shake hands or even do nothing and say 'salam alaykoum'. (Belkis).

Greeting is different from country to another, for example in Algeria we kiss each other 2 kisses or 4 kisses and sometimes hugging. Korean and Japanese people bow down. For UK they just shake hands, one kiss or said a simple hi hello (T-van).

In addition, students could compare between the similarities and the differences of the educational system in Britain, America, and Algeria as far as the schools, teachers, facilities, etc.

We share some parts with British and American schools, but we differ in the payment..schools and universities here are for free however in American and Great Britain they have to pay to study (Black swan).

The educational system in Britain is different from Wales and Scotland. In Britain, there are public and private schools and both of them are not for free, and there is also what is calling homeschools ... (V-tan).

In the same unit, learners recognised that taking a driving licence in the target culture differs from other cultures.

I also knew that taking a driving licence is different from a country to another that made me surprised because I thought it is the same all over the world (Bellkis).

Concerning the unit of 'time', students were able to contrast between the native culture and the target culture when speaking about the value of time and punctuality.

In Algeria, most of people don't respect time and being late in many events...in Britain USA people don't waist it on waiting so they come to events either early or on time ...place a lot importance on punctuality...time is money (V-tan).

One student recognised a sign of culture shock or culture stress:

I am very surprised because I thought that all Italian people are strict and punctual. (Br)

I have been surprised with some informations because i did not think that some Asian countries do not value time so much like Indonesia and Malaysia.

As far as the unit on 'Food and Eating Habits' is concerned, students could know some food etiquette.

The British man when he went to Poland, he surprised and discovered that their ...food ..is different and the timing also. (Br.)

The type of food differ from a country to another for example in the UK they demand for fish and chips a lot and ramen and rice in Japan (Belkis).

I learnt that...the Japanese people drink bear most situations...they prefer rice...kabab is a traditional dish ...turkey (Fifi).

Regarding the unit of 'way of living', the majority of students recognised the differences in the theme of the way of living in the target culture and the native culture.

In our culture, if someone is going to die, he will spend the rest of his life praying, reading Quran, and get closen to god. But in other cultures, they will encourage him to do what he wants and his wishes before he die (V-tan).

The learners were able to discuss some taboos, which are considered unacceptable to speak about them in front of one's parents in Algeria, yet it is normal in the target culture. A good example is dating:

Relationships are forbidden in Algeria, but it's a normal thing in western cultures...having a boyfriend in Algeria is different from having one in other cultures. Generally, Algerian girls hide this from their parents, and it is the opposite in western cultures...dating is different too (Assma).

If someone wants to be in a relationship, he should do it in a 'halal' way in Algeria. When the couple get engaged they will be free to meet each other, but in foreign countries ...they are not

muslims to be in a relationship is a normal thing...no strict rules there they meet hung out together...no limits (Black swan).

Another instance of taboos is the students' understanding that they should not talk about is when speaking about privacy in conversations.

People in Britain like talking about the weather as an icebreaker because it is part of their culture because they don't like people to ask private questions. ...while in our culture people usually talk and ask about family children age salary and private topics ...it is normal (Bellkis).

Regarding elders' way of living, few students knew that elders in the target culture are living and treated differently from those in the native culture in terms of dress and socialisation, for example:

Old people here are less caring about themselvesthey can't practice sport ...in our culture, also because of religion and beliefs old people here don't dress like old people in other cultures ...and sons and daughters take care of their parents when they become old, but in the other cultures sons and daughters don't (Bellkis).

Speaking about non-verbal communication, few students were able to define non-verbal communication. In addition, they knew that one should keep a space when talking to strangers in the target culture.

Non-verbal communication is giving information without use words ...using certain facial expression or gestures eye contact, physical distance, touch, for example in Britain when close the hand it means I wish you good luck (Kamilia).

British people do not like physical touches...Japanese thought that if someone hiding his hand under the table is a kind of threat, they think that they are hiding something like a weapon (V-tan).

Students could also discuss and differentiate between individualism and collectivism.

Western cultures educate the individual from the childhood on self-independence and focus on his personal interestliving in a Muslim society ...the existence of collective culture that prioritizes the interest of family ties and the group over the individual (Assma).

In the unit on raising children, some students made a comparison between ways of punishing children.

In our country, they follow the negative one like beating. But in western cultures they use the mental punishment like “ do not get out from his room” (V-tan).

Additionally, some students contrasted women in the target culture and the native culture.

Women are totally different in our culture comparing to western culture. There are a lot of jobs which women can not deal with them here but in western culture they can (Belkis).

...In politics women can become a president but in our culture is impossible cause our religion, beliefs... (Fifi).

5.3.3.1.3. Skills

Skills is the third category accounted in the students' portfolios. Results show very slight development in the skill component (5%). Skills are of two types: skills of interacting and discovery and skills of interpreting and relating.

Very few students developed the skill of interpreting and relating where they were able to compare aspects seen in the movie to the Algerian context.

We watched a movieabout a dying girl which has a wish list, she wanna achieve it before her death, she was so afraid to tell her boyfriend about her illness, but at the end, she decided to tell him....her family supported and encouraged their daughter (igo.assm).

We wrote a scene of the movie...imagined happened in Algeria ...in Algeria things are different so we made many changes ...changing names ...in Algeria the parents do not allow their daughter to have a boyfriend and to meet him ... (Rayan).

The song ...women in western culture powerful strong independent...in our culture women can't do whatever you want and she keeps following her parents until she gets married and follow her husband (Rayan).

- **Other Findings from the Portfolio:**

The majority of students have positive attitudes towards the experiment as they expressed their preference and interest in the course in general and the sessions in particular.

- Several students enjoyed what they learnt in this semester.

I like it because we could learn a lot of things about other cultures ...the important thing that I was able to learn and discover something new and thinking in different points of views (T-van).

We discuss different topics about different cultures, and I like this session because we learnt a lot of things about different communities (Cris).

Before I study here I had not any idea for culture ... I took some information this is very importance (Fifi).

It is a very good experience and I love ...all topic and lessons...the program was full of information (Rayan).

It was fun and interesting ...I learnt a lot of things especially about the British culture (Meriem).

I am not very interested in cultures but with this way of learning like group work and role plays it was very interesting and made me more curious too learn (Nomi).

- Several students enjoyed doing role plays.

Acting a play, it was so fun. (igo.assm)

I actually loved when we did a play in a group work, it was something amazing (Assma).

- A lot of students enjoyed working in groups.

I enjoy ...especially working in groups.

It was the best session...all students liked it because we can learn from each other and make the lesson easierworking in groups is really great (Cherry)

I like the syllabus....all cultures especially British one,.....at the beginning i did not know about all of these cultures, but now I am sure that I can identify it myself (Nanah).

We enjoyed this way of teaching like having different topics to discuss, watching videos doing role plays ...also working in groupsI really enjoyed this kind of program (Black swan).

5.3.3.2. Discussion of the Portfolio Results

The portfolio results show that there is a profound difference in the frequency of occurrences of the three ICC dimensions in learners' portfolios where knowledge got the highest percentage (80%). Knowledge developed by learners is categorised into three types: knowledge of the target culture, knowledge of the native culture, and knowledge of non-target culture. Learners develop knowledge of the essential cultural facts, values, beliefs, taboos. Learners developed this knowledge from videos, texts, or discussion taking place in the class about themes of education, time, food and drinks, lifestyle, women's roles, conversation and non-verbal communication. However, the occurrence of the other two ICC dimensions was limited to less than a quarter. The occurrence of attitudes was only restricted to (15%) where it includes two categories. The first category is about identifying generalisations about cultures. The second one is about changing perspectives into attitudes of acceptance, openness, interest, respect, tolerance, and empathy. The skill dimension only occurred slightly (5%). The skill that gained this percentage is the skill of interpreting and relating. This skill is presented when learners read

texts and/or watched videos then interpreted and analysed different aspects of the otherness. Then, they were asked to reflect on their culture and thus to identify the similarities and differences. The second type of skill is discovery and interaction. As far as the skill of interaction is concerned, learners' portfolios did not cover this skill because it requires interaction, which was not included in their portfolios, as they mentioned that they conducted interviews and acted different roles in particular themes but without bringing any evidence. That is, they did not include any script for the interviews or role-plays in their portfolios, except for one student. As far as the skill of discovering other cultures is concerned, students developed it very slightly as they discovered other intercultural aspects about the target and non-target cultures. It was done when interviewing British people about how they view time, for example, and whether they are punctual or not. It is worth stating that it is hard to say that these changes in development are only due to the treatment because we are not aware if they had already been in the learners or not (Helm, 2009; Vogt, 2006).

6.4. Teacher's Reflective Journal

We kept a journal with us during the implementation of the whole course. We used it to record students' progress regarding their performance. We took notes on the journal in the classroom each time students were performing role-plays (intercultural encounters) and doing written tasks. We wrote comments when students can communicate effectively. That is, they succeeded to apply the knowledge learnt in the classroom. Moreover, we were interested also when students failed to communicate in an appropriate way so that discussions on these particular points were raised later. The reason behind choosing only role-plays and written tasks in particular in this reflective journal is because both of them are skills, and the best way to evaluate skills is through action and performance.

The first task is writing an email to a person from Britain coming to study at an Algerian university/ school. Students were able to explain the way the educational system in Algeria works. Students were also motivated and enjoyed working in groups cooperatively.

The first role-play was acted by students as part of the second unit entitled 'time'. The students acting as American and British students succeeded to show punctuality while interacting with others from different cultures, unlike the Algerian and Indian students others who do not value time.

We also remarked when having an imaginary intercultural dinner that students from America, Britain, China, Japan, and Germany succeeded to arrive on time. However, students who were from the native culture came late to the dinner party. Students also were capable to order different types of food and drinks common to particular cultures. For example, students from China asked for rice; students from Turkey ordered Kabab and beer, etc. Interestingly, one student was able to act as a mediator between two students belonging to different cultures when one of them ordered beef; another student from India said surprisingly, "How comes you would like to eat beef and we worship it?". Therefore, another student interfered and explained that she meant 'meat' by the word 'beef' and not the animal which is eaten in Western culture and others. Muslim students succeeded to perform acts showing acceptance and respect to others who drink bear.

The skills of interpreting and relating can also be assessed by the teacher through the task of imagining and writing the second part of a movie, or choosing a scene from the movie and adapting it to the Algerian context. The movie which was about a girl called Tessa who had cancer. Tessa had a boyfriend; his name was Adam. The doctors said that Tessa was about to die that is why she wanted to do many things before she died. Students were capable of thinking of second part scenes as one group wrote, for example, that Tessa's boyfriend opened a charity

for healing people who had cancer. The majority of students were thinking as Americans do. Similarly, they were able to opt for a scene and to adapt it to the Algerian culture and performed the play. To go back to the previous example, the majority of the students changed Adam and Tessa's names to Algerian names. Two groups chose the scene when Tessa had a date with Adam, and how they met in secret. Students after the play were asked to analyse and discuss their writings. That is, they should explain what they have adapted and for what reason. Students said that Algerian couples meet in secret, as their families are usually unaware that their sons and daughters have boyfriends and girlfriends, respectively. They also discussed the differences in dating between one's culture and the target culture. The same thing when Tessa came back late from the date; her mother was very angry with her, to the extent that she was about to be beaten by her brother, as acted by another group. That is, students were successful in promoting the skill of interpreting and relating because they wrote different plots for the second part of the movie from their culture. The skills of interaction and discovery were also targeted as students did not fail to interact appropriately, but they rather adapted their behaviours according to their culture.

In the unit of 'conversation and silence', a conversation took place between a British person and someone from the students' own culture. It showed that the majority of students succeeded to use the weather as an ice-breaker or to show that they were obsessed with it. Moreover, students also avoided talking about particular topics and asking personal questions such as age and salary as a way of respecting other people's privacy. In the second role-play of the same unit, students were asked to act different roles using non-verbal communication. It was revealed that students used appropriate ways of greeting, one kiss for British people and a handshake for greeting man.

4.3. Pedagogical Implications

Because the research hypothesis on which this research lies is confirmed, that is, the design and implementation of the intercultural course which catered to the learners' needs led to promoting EFL learners' ICC, three pedagogical implications are outlined below:

- First, the significance of learners' needs while designing courses and syllabi cannot be neglected. Therefore, it is a prerequisite for curriculum developers, course and syllabus designers, and even teachers to conduct needs analysis in their classes, a small scale, before initiating any course.
- Second, in establishing a cause-and-effect relationship between the intercultural course and the development of learners' ICC level in Oral Expression classes, teachers of culture related modules in general and Oral Expression in particular should adapt their teaching methods to promote students' ICC. To do so, we recommend the implementation of the intercultural approach in their teaching practices that integrates both the learners' culture, the target culture, and international cultures.
- As students expressed their positive attitudes towards the cooperative approach, it is recommended for Oral Expression teachers to give students more opportunities to work cooperatively in groups, which in turn would lead to raising their motivation.

4.4. Limitations of the Study

The current study has several limitations. First, we only evaluated the syllabi of particular modules that are related to culture due to time constraint and not all of them. Besides, we did not evaluate the whole course. Another limitation is that we just used a questionnaire to conduct the needs analysis. Instead, a triangulation of methods and sources would be more appropriate. Concerning the test used to measure ICC, it is not a real test but a questionnaire instead where students self-assess their competences on a six-point Likert scale.

We could not use a true-experiment in which random sampling is required; this is mainly attributed to administrative constraints. In addition, while designing the course, we could not include online tasks as wanted by learners, while conducting the needs analysis. That is, the teacher wanted to make learners interact with others from different cultures to develop their ICC. However, the teacher felt short to equip the labs with the Internet.

Another limitation is the short treatment period. As ICC is a lifelong competence, two months period seems to be insufficient. As we used the portfolios to assess learners' progress in each session, we came to know later that some students acquired some knowledge, but they did not include it in their portfolios. In fact, we did not train and guide students on how to use the portfolio. Moreover, students were asked to write in their portfolios for the last ten to fifteen minutes, which was not sufficient.

Conclusion

This current chapter aims at describing the intercultural course, its implementation and evaluation. That is, it seeks to answer the research question and its corresponding hypotheses. To do so, the data gathered from both qualitative and quantitative procedures were collected namely from the analysing students' portfolios, and teacher reflective journals, and the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire. Students' portfolios were analysed via content analysis procedure. However, pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire results were analysed via the ANCOVA procedure. Finally, after the discussion of the results, the hypothesis that states that if the intercultural course was implemented, students' ICC level would be developed is confirmed.

General Conclusion

People are living in a globalised world where English is an international language. Hence, successful communication between people whose languages and thus cultures are different has become a prerequisite. To interact successfully, students should not need only the linguistic and communicative skills, but they need also to develop intercultural competences. To be interculturally competent means one should have the ability to converse appropriately and effectively with other people from various cultures and to act as a mediator between these people to solve intercultural problems that may occur. To do so, one should develop attitudes of openness towards others, empathy, tolerance, acceptance, and respect. Knowledge of the cultural differences and similarities between one's own culture and that of others should be acquired. Skills of interpreting cultural events and documents and relating them to one's own culture should be developed. Moreover, this also includes the skill of interacting and discovering other cultures. Last but not least, interculturally competent individuals should develop an awareness towards the importance of intercultural variations and similarities as well as the ability to critically evaluate and judge other cultures.

The current study mainly aimed at designing and implementing an intercultural course to see if the learners' ICC level would be developed. The review of the literature was about syllabus design, needs analysis, and ICC teaching and assessment. The practical part was about the evaluation of the existing syllabi, the exploration of students' needs analysis, the design of an intercultural course, its implementation via a quasi-experiment, and evaluation. That is to say, it explains the sample used, the intervention, the pilot study, and the questionnaire. It is also devoted to the interpretation and discussion of the results. The practical part ends with the pedagogical implications and the different limitations encountered by the researcher.

Thus, the thesis is divided into several phases: literature review, evaluation, course design, implementation, and evaluation. Each phase seeks to answer a research question. First, the

review of the literature served to have an understanding of the ICC model adopted in this study. The second phase is an evaluative phase to see if the current syllabi accurately dealt with the ICC component in the study context or not. Thus, we used a content analysis procedure and an interview to achieve the aforementioned aim. Thus, this study aims to answer the following research question:

- Do the existing EFL syllabi cater for the learners' ICC development?

The third phase is design. With the shifts in learning theories into learner-centred approaches, learners have become the centre of learning as opposed to the traditional approaches. However, the learners have gained credence over the years. Thus, we, before designing the intercultural course, conducted a needs analysis via a questionnaire for learners in order to know about their subjective and objective needs. Based on the findings and the literature, we designed an intercultural course where objectives are set, content is selected and graded, and methodology is opted for. The research questions posed were:

- What intercultural content should be taught to learners to develop their ICC?
- What methodology should be used to implement the course?
- What are the activities and tasks that should be included in the course?

The fourth phase was the implementation phase. We first piloted the questionnaire, used to test the learners' ICC, and the designed course. Then, we distributed the pre-questionnaire, and, finally, we implemented the treatment with only one group followed by the post-questionnaire. After that, we evaluated the effectiveness of the intercultural course through results from the pre-questionnaire post-questionnaire comparison, teachers' reflective journals, and students' portfolios. This phase sought to answer the following:

- To what extent can the designed intercultural course be beneficial to EFL learners in developing their ICC?

Thus, it was hypothesised that:

- Designing and implementing an intercultural course that caters to students' needs would develop EFL university learners' ICC.
- Designing and implementing an intercultural course would not develop EFL university learners' ICC.

After answering the above asked questions and testing the aforementioned hypotheses, it was found:

- The existing EFL syllabi do not cater to developing EFL learners' ICC as learners' source culture was neglected, which is a primordial component when teaching ICC.
- Oral Expression teachers catered very slightly to developing EFL learners' ICC, mainly through comparison.
- The students' questionnaire revealed that EFL students have positive attitudes towards integrating both the native and the target culture in their teaching.
- EFL students expressed their preferences about the use of audio-visual materials like videos in their Oral Expression classes.
- EFL students expressed their preference for the cooperative approach.
- EFL learners' ICC was developed when the intercultural course based on learners' needs was implemented. That is, after implementing the treatment on the EG, the ICC level of the EG was higher than that of the CG. The same finding was obtained from the analysis of students' portfolios as well as teacher's reflective journal.

In brief, needs analysis is proven to be a primordial step before designing any language course. We used a mixed-method approach to confirm the hypothesis that states that EFL learners' ICC would be developed if the intercultural course based on their needs was implemented.

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Appendices

Appendix A : L1 L2 L3 Document Syllabi

Appendix B: Oral Expression Teachers' Interview

Appendix C : Original Students' Questionnaire

Appendix D : Students' Questionnaire (After piloting)

Appendix E: The Intercultural Course

Appendix F: Original Intercultural Communicative Competence Survey (Fantini and Tirmizi, 2006)

Appendix G: Intercultural Communicative Competence Questionnaire (Before Piloting)

Appendix H: Intercultural Communicative Competence Questionnaire (After Piloting)

Appendix I: Intercultural Communicative Competence Checklist

Appendix G: Samples of Learners' Portfolios

Appendix A : L1, L2, L3 Analysed Syllabi

1 st year Syllabus: Literary Texts

- i. General introduction to literature
 1. Definition of literature
 2. Definition of fiction and non-fiction
 3. Definition of a literary text
 4. Characteristics of Literary Texts
 5. The importance of learning literature
- ii. Literary genres
 1. Poetry
 - 1.1. Definition
 - 1.2. Parts of the poem : speaker-audience-subject-theme-diction-figures of speech-sound devices-imagery
 - 1.3. Case study: Shakespearian sonnets.
 2. Prose
 - 2.1. Novel
 - 2.1.1. Definition
 - 2.1.2. Elements of the novel : setting-plot-character-theme-point of view-style.
 - 2.1.3. Types of novels : allegary-eppistolary-initiation novel-picaresque-historical novel-science fiction.
 - 2.1.4. Case study : analysis of the “ Old Man and the Sea”.

CL Syllabus: 1st Year

- i. Culture and civilization
 1. Definitions
 2. Components
 3. Characteristics
- ii. Ancient civilizations
 1. Ancient Greek Civ
 - 1.1.Introduction
 - 1.2. The geography of Greeek
 - 1.3. Greek city-states
 - 1.4.Greek citizenship
 - 1.5. Greek methology
 - 1.6. Greek education
 - 1.7. Greek poetry and fables
 - 1.8.Greek drama
 - 1.9.Greek philosophy
 2. Ancient Roman Civ
 - 2.1. Introduction
 - 2.2.Where was Rome located ?
 - 2.3.How did Rome begin ?
 - 2.4.The birth of a republic
 - 2.5.Rome's government
 - 2.6. How did Rome's government work ?
 - 2.7.Plebeians against Patricians
 - 2.8. The collapse of the republic

- 2.8.1. Economic turmoil
 - 2.8.2. Military upheaval
 - 2.8.3. Juluis Caesar' reforms
 - 2.9.Beginning of the empire
 - 2.10. Pax Romana
- iii. American civilization
 - 1. Early people
 - 1.2.The journey from Asia
 - 1.3.Crossing the land bridge
 - 1.4.In search of hunting grounds
 - 1.5.Humling for food
 - 1.6.Setting down
 - 2. Early American Civilizations
 - 2.1. The Maya
 - 2.2. The Aztec
 - 2.3. The Inca
 - 3. The Age of Exploration
 - 4. The Renaissance
 - 5. Seeking New Trade Routes
 - 5.1. Early Portuguese Voyages
 - 5.2. Partholomeu Dias
 - 5.3. Vasco da Gama
 - 5.4. The Portuguese Empire
 - 5.5. Columbus Crossed the Atlantic
 - 5.6. The Viking Voyages

5.7. Spain Backs Columbus

5.8. Columbus First Voyage

iv. The British History

1. Romain Britain

2. The invaders (Angles/Saxons/ Jutes)

3. The Vikings

4. The Normans

5. Feudalism

6. The Magna Carta

7. The British Constitions

8. The Parliament

9. The State

10. The Age of Enlightenment

Second-Year British Civilization Syllabus

- Introduction to British Civilization (Testing students' knowledge about Britain)
- Roman Britain
- Saxon Britain
- Norman Britain
- Lancastrian & Yorkish Britain
- Tudor Britain
- Stuart Britain
- Georgian Britain
- The Agricultural Revolution
- The Industrial Revolution

Second-Year American Civilization Syllabus

- Introduction to American Civilization (Testing students' knowledge about America)
- An Outline of American Geography
- The Founding of English America
- The Birth of the American Nation
- The Geopolitical Growth of the United States
- Slavery
- The American Civil War
- The Reconstruction

- I. The Birth of a Nation : Key Concepts
 1. Republicanism Vs Monarchism : Thomas Paine
 2. Age enlightenment
 - 2.1. Individualism : Rousseau, Locke
 - 2.2. Rationalism : Descartes, Kant
 - 2.3. Mercantilism : Adam Smith
 - 2.4. Separation of Powers : Montesquieu, John Locke
 - 2.5. The American Constitution
- II. Native America
 1. Main Indian Tribes : indigenous Peoples Places, Languages, and Culture
 2. Federal Indian Policy
 - a. Treaties
 - b. Allotment and Assimilation
- III. Slavery : Prior and After the Civil War
 1. Prior
 - 1.1. The Peculiar Institution in the South
 - 1.2. Abolitionists in the North
 2. During
 - 2.1. Abraham Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation
 - 2.2. African-Americans in the war
 3. After
 - 3.1. Reconstruction Efforts
 - 3.2. Reaction of the South : (KKK, black codes)

4. Ante-slavery Activities Vs Abolitionist (equality)

5. Free-soil – free-labour - Free-man : Eric Foner

IV. Industrial America (Gilded Age)

1. Reasons : Inventions, Rail Roads...

2. Robber Barxsons

3. New Immigration

4. Labor Monements, Women's rights Issues

Semestrial Syllabus:

Second-year

Literary Texts

Ilham MELIT

Course Objectives:

- To familiarize students with the different genres of literature.
- To enable students have a better critical thinking and acquire appropriate analytical means through class discussions.
- Spark students' intellectual curiosity and expand their skills.

Week	Topic	Literary Works
One	Introduction	
Two	Poetry : Sound	✓ Fire and Ice by Robert Frost ✓ Do not go gentle into that good night by Dylan Thomas
Three	Poetry : Rhythm and metre	✓ The Rime of the Ancient Mariner by Samuel Taylor Coleridge ✓ Dover Beach by Matthew Arnold
Four	Drama : Subgenres	✓ Macbeth, and ✓ The Comedy of Errors by William Shakespeare
Five	Drama : Contemporary drama	✓ Death of a Salesman by Arthur Miller ✓ No Exit by Jean-Paul Sartre
Six	Fiction : Characters	✓ The Red-Headed League by Sir Conan Doyle

		✓ In the Penal Colony by Franz Kafka
Seven	Fiction : Narration	✓ The Yellow Wallpaper by Charlotte Perkins Gilman ✓ A Very Old Man with Enormous Wings by Gabriel Garcia Marquez
Eight	Evaluation Test	
Nine	Fiction : Imagery	✓ The Interpreter of Maladies by Jhumpa Lahiri ✓ The Single Man by Charles Dickens
Ten	Fiction : Meaning	✓ The Road by Cormac McCarthy ✓ God Help the Child by Toni Morrison
Eleven	General Discussion	

Literature Syllabus

Semester 1

12 Weeks = 4 Units = 3 Lessons per Unit

Unit 1: Narrative Technique

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 1	What is Narrative	Narrative Point of View	Speech and Narration and Narrative Realism

Unit 2: The Reading Process

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	
Unit 2	Description and Setting	Techniques of Characterisation	

Unit 3: Creating Meaning

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 3	Understanding Metaphor and Figurative Language	Understanding Irony and Juxtaposition	Intertextuality, Allusion, Authorship and Intention

Unit 4: Writing about Literature

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 4	The Pre-writing Process and The Writing Process	Writing a Convincing Argument	The Rewriting Process

Semester 2

12 Weeks = 4 Units = 3 Lessons per Unit

Unit 5: Introducing Feminism

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
	Introduction to Feminism <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction to Feminism <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Feminist Literature Primary Texts

Unit 5			<i>Huckleberry Finn</i> <i>The Yellow Wallpaper</i>
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Unit 6: Introducing Marxism

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 6	Introduction to Marxism <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction to Marxism <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Marxist Literature Primary Texts <i>Barn Burning</i>

Unit 7: Introducing Reader-Response Criticism

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 7	Introduction to Reader Response Criticism <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction to Reader Response Criticism <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Literature from A Reader-Response perspective Primary Texts <i>Araby</i> <i>The Great Gatsby</i>

Unit 8: Introducing Deconstruction

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 8	Introduction to Deconstruction <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction to Deconstruction <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Literature from the perspective of Deconstruction Primary Texts <i>The Diamond Necklace</i> <i>The Great Gatsby</i>

Unit 9: Introducing New Historicism

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
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Unit 9	Introduction to New Historicism <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction New Historicism <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Literature from the perspective of New Historicism
			Primary Texts <i>Once Upon a Time</i> <i>The Great Gatsby</i>

Unit 10: Introducing Post-colonialism

	Lecture 1	Lecture 2	Lecture 3
Unit 10	Introduction to Post-colonialism <i>Part 1</i>	Introduction Post-colonialism <i>Part 2</i>	Analysing Post-colonial Literature
			Primary Texts <i>Once Upon a Time</i> by Nadine Gordimer Poetry of Langston Hughes <i>The Great Gatsby</i> (<i>Critical Theory Today</i>)

Appendix B

Oral Expression Teachers' Interview

1. What are your objectives behind teaching Oral Expression?
2. What do you teach in Oral Expression (content)?
3. What is the method used to teach the Oral Expression subject?

Appendix C:

Original Students' Questionnaire

Students' Questionnaire

Dear students:

This questionnaire is a part of a doctoral thesis at the University of Larbi Ben M'hidi, Oum El Bouaghi. It aims at determining first-year EFL learners' needs from the intercultural communicative competence point of view in order to help in designing an intercultural syllabus. I would appreciate if you could complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire is confidential. Please, tick the appropriate box (es) and complete whenever necessary.

I. General information

1. What is your gender?

a. Male

b. Female

2. How long have you been learning English?

.....

3. Is studying English at university your own choice?

a. Yes

b. No

4. Why are you learning English?

a. To get a job

b. To communicate appropriately and effectively

c. To Travel Abroad

d. All of them

e. Others: Please, specify.....

II. Learning preferences

5. What kind of learner are you?

a. Auditory : To learn by listening

b. Visual : To learn by seeing

c. Kinaesthetic : To learn by doing

d. Others. Please, specify.....

6. How do you prefer to learn?

a. *Cooperative learning* : Learning takes place when learners work together cooperatively

b. *Experiential learning*: Learning takes place through experiencing how the others behave and converse.

c. *Project work*: It is a group of activities done by students.

d. *All of them*

e. Others: Please, specify

7. What learning environment do you prefer most?

a. Where the classroom is dominated by the teacher

b. Where the classroom is led by the students

8. What kinds of role do you like your teacher to have?

a. *A participant*

b. *A facilitator*

c. *A controller*

d. Others: Please, specify.....

9. What kinds of role do you like to have in the classroom?

a. *An active role*

- b. *A passive role*

III. Attitudes

10. How much do you agree that learning a foreign language involves learning its culture as well?

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Neutral
- d. Agree
- e. Strongly agree

11. To what extent do you agree that teaching language and culture should introduce both the foreign culture and one's own culture?

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Neutral
- d. Agree
- e. Strongly agree

Intercultural communicative competence is defined as the capacity to mutually understand and communicate effectively and appropriately with individuals from different cultures and identities without abandoning one's own culture (Byram, Gribcova & Starkey, 2002).

12. To what extent do you think that developing your ICC level is important?

- a. Not important
- b. Slightly important
- c. Not sure
- d. Important
- e. Very important

IV. Abilities

13. How would you evaluate your level in English?

- a. Very low
- b. Low
- c. Average
- d. Good
- e. Very good

14. How would you evaluate your ICC level?

- a. Very low
- b. Low
- c. Average
- d. Good
- e. Very good

15. How often do you face the following problems when you communicate in English and/or hinder you understand the English language?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Lack of vocabulary					
b. Difficult pronunciation					
c. Ignorance of the grammar rules					
d. Fluency					
e. Cultural differences between the home and the foreign culture					
f. Others.....					

Appendix D

Students' Questionnaire (After Piloting)

Dear students:

This questionnaire is a part of a doctoral thesis at the University of Larbi Ben M'hidi, Oum El Bouaghi. It aims at determining first-year EFL learners' needs from the intercultural communicative competence point of view to help in designing an intercultural syllabus. I would appreciate it if you could complete this questionnaire. This questionnaire is confidential. Please, tick the appropriate box (es) and complete it whenever necessary.

I. General information

1. What is your gender?

c. Male

d. Female

2. How long have you been learning English?

.....

3. Is studying English at university your own choice?

c. Yes

d. No

4. Why are you learning English?

f. To get a job

g. To communicate appropriately and effectively

h. To Travel Abroad

i. All of them

j. Others: Please, specify.....

II. Learning preferences

5. What kind of learner are you?

e. Auditory : To learn by listening

f. Visual : To learn by seeing

g. Kinaesthetic : To learn by doing

h. Others. Please, specify.....

6. How do you prefer to learn?

f. *Cooperative learning*: Learning takes place when learners work together and help each other.

g. *Experiential learning*: Learning takes place through experiencing how the others behave and converse.

h. *Project work*: It is a group of activities done by students.

i. *All of them*

j. Others: Please, specify

7. What learning environment do you prefer most?

c. Where the classroom is controlled by the teacher

d. Where the classroom is led by the students

8. What kinds of roles do you like your teacher to have?

e. *A participant*: The teacher participates with learners in the learning process.

f. *A facilitator*: The teacher just simplifies the learning process and offers help to learners when necessary.

g. *A controller*: The teacher controls the learning process by giving instructions to learners.

h. Others: Please, specify.....

9. What kinds of role do you like to have in the classroom?

- c. *An active role*: The students interact with other students and rely on themselves to learn.
- d. *A passive role* :The students do nothing in the classroom, they just receive knowledge from the teacher

III. Attitudes

10. How much do you agree that learning a foreign language involves learning its culture as well?

- f. Strongly disagree
- g. Disagree
- h. Neutral
- i. Agree
- j. Strongly agree

11. How much do you agree that teaching culture should introduce both the foreign culture and the native culture?

- f. Strongly disagree
- g. Disagree
- h. Neutral
- i. Agree
- j. Strongly agree

Intercultural communicative competence is defined as the capacity to mutually understand and communicate effectively and appropriately with individuals from different cultures and identities without abandoning one's own culture (Byram, et al., 2002).

12. To what extent do you think that developing your ICC level is important?

- f. Not important
- g. Slightly important

- h. Not sure
- i. Important
- j. Very important

IV. Abilities

13. How would you evaluate your level in English?

- f. Very low
- g. Low
- h. Average
- i. Good
- j. Very good

14. How would you evaluate your ICC level?

- f. Very low
- g. Low
- h. Average
- i. Good
- j. Very good

15. How often do you face the following problems when you communicate in English and/or hinder you understand the English language?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
g. Lack of vocabulary					
h. Difficult pronunciation					
i. Ignorance of the grammar rules					

	1	2	3	4	5
- Music					
- Literature					
-Videos					
- Inauthentic materials (<i>any written texts made for teaching purposes</i>)					
- Online materials					
- Others. Please, specify.....					

19. To what extent do you prefer to use the following activities and techniques for developing your ICC?

Not preferable Slightly preferable Not sure Preferable Highly preferable

1

2

3

4

5

	1	2	3	4	5
- Brainstorming (<i>generating many ideas from the participants' minds about a topic</i>)					
- Short presentations					
- Role plays, simulations, and drama (<i>playing different theatrical roles</i>)					
- Ethnographic tasks (<i>activities that require doing interviews and observations</i>)					
-Problem-solving (<i>activity of finding a solution to a problem</i>)					

- Quizzes					
- Pair or small group discussion					
-Whole class discussion					

VII. Further comments and suggestions

20. Please, add any further comments or suggestions

.....

.....

.....

Appendix E:

The Intercultural Course

Lesson Plan of Unit One

First-year LMD

Oral Expression

Course One: An Introduction to Language and Culture

1. Materials:

- ✓ A video

2. Techniques:

- ✓ Brainstorming
- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Pair or small group discussion
- ✓ presentation

3. Procedure:

Task One:

- Students (Ss) are asked to define culture and to produce as many words and phrases associated with culture.
- From the list of words and phrases generated by Ss, the teacher (T) tries to make Ss classify the list into two categories to introduce big C culture and small c culture.
- Ss are asked about language and culture relationships.

Course of Unit Two: Education

1. Materials

- ✓ Worksheets comprising inauthentic texts
- ✓ A video

2. Techniques and Activities

- ✓ Whole class discussion
- ✓ Brainstorming

Task One:

Before Reading

Explain the following words, using the dictionary if necessary.

Decentralised- curriculum- funding- compulsory- uniforms- bilingual.

While Reading

American Schools

The educational system of the United States is much more decentralised than that of any other country. Although certain federal regulations apply, the curriculum and funding are largely determined at the state level. Funding is partly local (the local school district, which is usually a town or city) and partly state (for example, California, New Jersey) with only a small percentage of funds coming from the federal government.

Approximately 70% of American teachers are female. Teachers' conditions and salaries vary widely, and are also locally determined. Many teachers are unionised, although a few of the southern states do not have teachers' unions. In New Jersey, for example, all the teachers belong to a union, and their contracts are arrived at through collective bargaining.

American schools are free and compulsory, and 90% of American children attend public (that is, state) schools. The remaining 10% attend religious private schools. Most American students do not wear a school uniform, nor do they pay for their own textbooks. (That cost is borne by the school district.)

In several states, such as California, Texas and New York, a large number of students are not native speakers of English. In that case, the school districts are required by law to provide either bilingual education or ESL courses.

1. How does the American school system like?
2. Do students pay to study in American schools?
3. How do non-natives of English study?

After Reading

Whole-class discussion

- Where does the funding come from in the educational systems of the countries you know?
- Are the majority of teachers female?
- Do children wear a uniform?
- Do all students have the right to study in their mother tongue?

Task Two

Before Listening

What do you know about the British educational system or any other education system?

While Listening

Watch the video (retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OV3tImRJVU8>)

to answer the following questions.

- Does England have the same educational system as Wales and Scotland?
- Is the primary school in the UK obligatory?
- When the entrance exam is taken?
- What is the difference between state schools and private schools regarding the curriculum?

After Listening

- Summarise the video.

Whole class discussion :

- Is the educational system in Algeria similar or different to that of the UK? explain.
- Select another educational system and compare them to the Algerian one

(Presentation).

Task Three

Before Reading

Do you have a driving license or not? If no, why not?

If yes, tell us about the experience/ a story or anecdote that happened to you while passing the driving test.

While Reading

Read this short story then answer the above question.

Taking a driving test in Greece

Elizabeth, a South African lady permanently living in Greece had to take a driving test to get a licence that would entitle her to drive around in Greece. She had taken the test once before, albeit a long time ago, and now drove with the confidence which only accompanies experience. But nothing could prepare her for what was to happen. Mr George, the owner of the driving school, told Elizabeth to park. For the life of her, she could not understand why they had to stop outside a local café in a suburban neighbourhood. “Where is the traffic department?” she queried silently ... but the sight of other driving school cars made her hold her tongue. “Well, we’re very lucky indeed,” Mr George pronounced self-righteously! “You see, we seem to be the last car here. That means that you’ll take the test after everyone else. So you’ll have ample opportunity to observe the other candidates and avoid repeating their mistakes.” So, off they went to the café to have refreshments and settle the nerves.

The examiner had quite a reputation among the driving school owners and Mr George felt obliged to inform his student of her evil temper, sabre-like tongue and reluctance to pass candidates. Her marital status was also a source of much debate amongst the driving school owners. Surely she was an old maid, for which man in his right mind would be married to her?

In the meantime, the convoy set off: with the first candidate at the wheel, the driving instructor on the right and the two examiners in the rear. Round and round they went; turning left, turning right, reverse parking, stopping by the kerb. After some ten minutes or so the first candidate, a young man, emerged from the car. Immediately, the second candidate took his place while he entered the next car in the convoy. After the succession of several other candidates it was Elizabeth’s turn at last. Upon entering the car she handed over her existing driver’s licence and explained the

reasons for retaking the test so many years after initially passing it. All this was tantamount to speaking to a brick wall. “We’ll see,” the examiner remarked coldly. And so, off they went. Eventually, even Elizabeth began to realise that they had gone round the neighbourhood several times whereas other candidates only completed the route once. Surely this was a bad sign.

Then, at last, they approached the café and Elizabeth’s reverie was broken by the abrupt barking of the examiner. “Out!” was all she said. The kind Mr George gestured to his dazzled candidate that she had better leave and not talk at all. By now the sun had set. Elizabeth paced up and down the pavement. Some time later, a sombre looking Mr. George emerged and quickly gave her the thumbs-up sign before the examiner emerged with a blank expression and marched off to her car without so much as a “Good evening”. Thus the marathon-like driving exam ended anti-climatically. Elizabeth obtained her Greek driver’s licence and off she drove into the sunset.

by Joseph E. Chryshochoos

- Who is Mr. George?
- What does Mrs. Elizabeth need from Mr. George?
- Did Mrs. Elizabeth pass the test?

1. After Reading

- Summarise the text.

Whole-class discussion

- Is obtaining a driving licence an important part of someone’s education in the cultures you are familiar with?

- Is it obligatory to take a driving licence in your culture? What about other cultures that you know?
- Would taking a driving test be a similar experience in your culture? Explain.
- Can instructors/teachers talk to students like the examiner in the story above in your culture or any others you know?

Project work

1. Write an email advising a student from Britain who is coming to study in Algeria regarding the following points :

- Beginning and end of the school year ;
- Subjects and what they cover ;
- Daily routine ;
- Relations with teachers ;
- Deadlines and punctuality ;
- Attendance requirements ;
- Facilities

Lesson Plan of Unit Two: Education

Task One

Allotted time: 45m

Pre-reading/ Warm-up

T greets the Ss.

_ T writes the title *American School* on the board.

_ T asks Ss if they know something about American Schools or the American educational system in general.

_ Ss respond.

_ *In pairs*: T writes six words on the board and asks Ss to define them using the dictionary if necessary. **10m**

_ Ss share the definition of words with the T.

While Reading

_ T distributes the text sheets on the Ss.

_ T asks Ss to read the text silently and to underline the difficult words if any.

_ T asks Ss to read the text aloud, each paragraph is read by a student.

_ T and Ss explain the text together.

_ Ss answer the questions.

_ T asks the SS to summarise the text orally.

Post Reading

Whole-class discussion: T asks the Ss to speak about the Algerian educational system with reference to the questions asked.

_ Ss answer the questions.

_ T asks the Ss to summarise what they have learnt by comparing the Algerian and American schools in the points raised in the text.

Task Two

Allotted time: 1h 10m

Warm-up/ Pre- Listening

5m

_ T asks the Ss if they know something about the British educational system.

While Listening

40m

_ T tells the Ss that they are going to watch a video about the British educational system.

_ Ss read and/or write down the questions to be answered from the video.

_ T plays the video three times.

_ T explains the difficult words in the video and the difference between UK and GB.

_ Ss answer the questions.

After Listening

25m

_ T asks the Ss for a summary of the video.

Whole-class discussion: Ss compare the British educational system to the Algerian one in a form of a discussion.

Task Three

Warm-up/ Pre-Reading

- _ T tells the Ss that the task is about taking a driving test.
- _ T asks the Ss to explain the difference between having a test, taking a test, sitting for a test, and passing the test/ exam.

T as a guide

- _ T gives Ss feedback.
- _ T shares her experience with Ss about driving tests and then asks Ss to share their experiences orally.

While Reading

- _ T asks the Ss to read the text silently, underlining any difficult words.
- _ Ss read the text aloud.
- _ T asks the Ss to answer the questions in pairs.
- _ Ss answer the questions.

After Reading

Whole-class Discussion:

- _ Ss answer a couple of questions about the topic of taking a driving license in Algeria in the form of a discussion.

Project Work

Group work:

Prewriting (30m)

_T first explains to the Ss that the process of writing is composed of several steps: brainstorming, outlining, writing, revising, and editing.

_T explains the form of paragraphs and essays in general with examples.

_ Ss work in groups in the class to complete the task.

_ T assists Ss if they need any help.

_ One S from each group reads their emails.

_ T asks Ss to exchange the papers (peer assessment).

_T gives feedback.

Course of Unit Three: Time

1. Techniques

- ✓ Pair discussion
- ✓ Whole-class discussion

Warm-up:

Watch the video retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iuotQE9Ukp0>

Task One: Imagine that the following events take place in the UK or the USA. Decide whether you should arrive early, on time, or late. Put a tick () in the appropriate column.

Event	Early	On time	Late
1. A business meeting			
2. A school examination			
3. A concert			
4. A date			
5. A job interview			
6. A meeting with a friend			
7. A film			
8. A graduation ceremony			
9. A dinner party			
10. A class			
11. A wedding			
12. A play			

1. What have you learnt about the concept of time in the UK and USA?
2. In what ways, if any, is the concept of time in the UK and the USA different from the concept of time in your culture? What about other cultures you are familiar with?
3. Search for how the concept of time is viewed in other cultures and report your findings in a form of a presentation.

Task Two:

Before Reading

Speaking about time, do you think it is acceptable to wait for trains and planes by people of other cultures when they make delays?

While Reading

Read the following text then answer the above question.

Waiting for trains and planes

It has been said that a German speakers' whole world and value system is disturbed if trains are delayed. These are cultures which place a lot importance on punctuality to the minute in public transport and professional settings. The same approach in Britain or the Netherland is simply unimaginable. And in these later cultures, the best description of passengers' attitudes to delays is "resigned".

In the united states, the phrase 'time is money' seems to be more valid than elsewhere.

When you miss a connection due to delays or overbooking, American airlines tend to offer generous compensation, for example free tickets, for your loss of time.

- What is the main idea of the text?

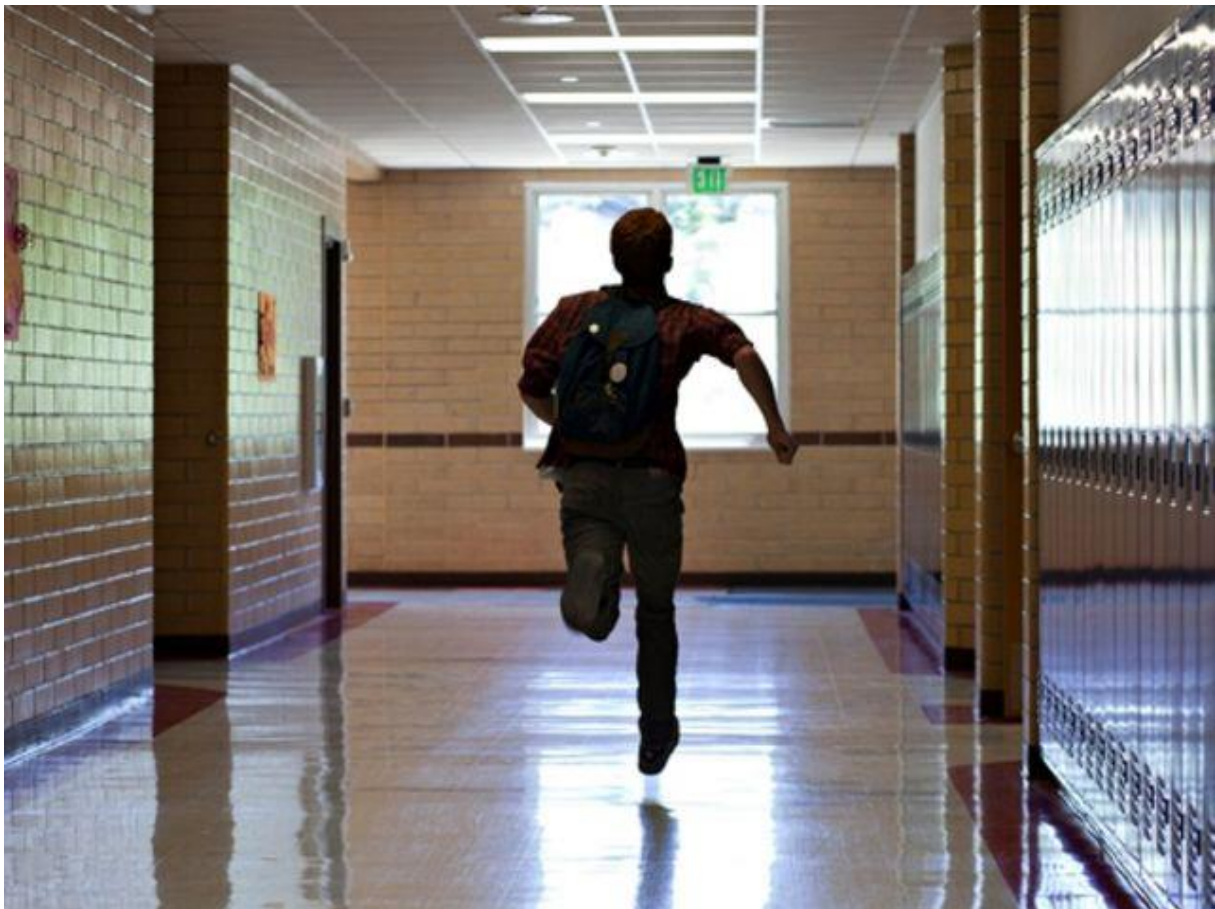
After Reading

Answer the following questions in a form of a whole-class discussion.

- How do people in your culture and other cultures you know behave when it comes to delays in public transport?
- What is the attitude of passengers if trains and buses are late? Angry? Resigned? Accepting?

Task Three:

Before Reading



While Reading

Read the text then answer the above question.

- What is the main idea of the text?

Late Arrivals

An Italian student on a postgraduate course at a British university never once, in a whole year, turned up for lectures and seminars on time. She was always, without exception, about 10 minutes late. It became a standing joke, and some lecturers simply started 10 minutes late to allow for her late arrival. Of course, other Italian students were quite punctual, but the point is that the student seemed not to notice. Apparently 11 a.m. seemed to mean 11.10 a.m. to her.

After Reading: Answer the following questions in a form of a whole-class discussion.

- Do you think she had a responsibility to be punctual?
- Should lecturers delay the start of their classes?
- What would you say to the student about this?
- Would it be fair to assume that Italians are late in general?
- What do you think of the Italian student's lack of punctuality?
- What about in your culture, do students attend classes late? If so, do teachers accept it?
- Do teachers start lecturing late too?

Role-play

Write a dialogue about how people react when they have to wait:

1. Boyfriend arriving late on a date to meet girlfriend outside a café in a busy

Street (they should be from different cultures);

2. A student arrives late for a seminar at the university; the teacher has to interrupt the introduction to a debate.

Lesson Plan of Unit Three: Time

1. **Materials:**

- ✓ Inauthentic materials

2. **Techniques and Activities:**

- ✓ Presentation
- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Role-play

Task One:

Warm up

Allotted Time: 10m

- SS watch a video to introduce the topic of time.
- T asks SS about the video.

Presentation

Allotted time: 30m

- T distributes the worksheets on SS about some events taking place in the UK or the USA.
- SS work in pairs to decide if one should arrive early, late, or on time for these events.
- SS share their answers with the T.

Discussion

Allotted Time: 30m

Whole-class discussion

- T asks about what SS learnt from the task.
- T asks SS to reflect on their cultures by saying if the aforementioned events taking place in their culture are similar or different to that of the UK and USA.

- T asks SS to speak about the concept of time regarding these events in other cultures they are familiar with (*presentation*).

Task Two

Pre-reading:

- T asks SS about whether they have ever travelled by plane and/or train.
- T tells the SS that people from other cultures take planes and buses a lot.
- T asks SS if it is acceptable to wait for trains and planes by people of other cultures when they make delays.

While-reading

- T distributes the text sheets on the SS.
- T asks the SS to read the text.
- SS say the general idea of the text.

Post-reading

- T asks SS about how people in their culture deal with delays in trains, planes, and public transport.
- T asks SS about people's attitudes when trains and buses are late, angry, resigned or accepting.

Task Three:

Pre-reading

- T asks SS about what the picture represents.



While Reading

- T distributes the paper sheets comprising the text on SS.
- SS read the text silently.
- T asks one S to read the text loudly; T explains the difficult words if any.
- SS say the general idea of the text.

Post Reading

Whole-class Discussion

- T asks the SS if they think that the Italian student had a responsibility of being late.
- T asks SS if teachers had to delay classes in this case.
- T asks SS about what they would say to the student if they were in the teacher's place.
- T asks SS if it would be fair to say that Italians are late in general.

- T asks SS about what they think of the students' lack of punctuality.
- T asks SS if they attend classes late in their culture.
- T asks SS if the T accepts it.
- T asks SS if teachers start teaching late in their culture.

Role-play

Pre-writing

Time-allotted: 30m

- T asks the SS to form groups of four students.
- T asked SS to write a dialogue either on a boyfriend who arrives late on a date and his girlfriend's reaction or a student who arrives late to the class and the teacher's reaction.

Acting

Time-allotted: 30m

- T asks two representative students from each group to act out the dialogue giving them ten minutes to prepare themselves.
- Two pairs from each group come to the front of the class and do their role-plays.

Discussion

Time-allotted: 15m

- T discusses the role-plays with the SS.
- T gives SS feedback on their role-plays.

Unit Four: Way of Living

1. Materials

- ✓ A poem by **Liz Lochhead** adopted from Cankova (2007)
- ✓ The movie ‘**Now is Good**’ adapted from
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0C0Mb8mRSiE>

2. Techniques and Activities

- ✓ Small group discussion
- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Presentation

Task One:

Before Reading

Think of your grandmother and tell your classmates about her. Choose three adjectives to describe her. Compare the adjectives and thus the personalities of your grandmothers. Is there a feature they all have in common?

While Reading: Read the poem and answer the above questions

For My Grandmother Knitting

(From memo for Spring, 1972)

There is no need they say

But the needles still move

Their rhythms in the working of your hands

As easily

As if your hands

Were once again those sure and skilful hands
Of the fisher girl.
You are old now
And your grasp of things is not so good
But master of your moments then
Deft and swift you slit the still-ticking quick silver fish.
Hard work it was too
Of necessity
But now they say there is no need
As the needles move
In the working of your hands
Once the hand of the bride
With the hand-span waist
Once the hands of the miner's wife
Who scrubbed his back
In a tin-bath by the coal fire
Once the hands of the mother
Of six who made do and mended
Scraped and slaved slapped sometimes
When necessary
But now they say there is no need
The kids they say grandma
Have too much already
More than they can wear

Too many scarves and cardigans
Gran you do too much
There is no necessity
At your window you wave
Them goodbye Sunday
With your painful hands
Big on shrunken wrists
Swollen-jointed. Red. Arthritic. Old.
But the needles still move
Their rhythms in the working of your hands
Easily
As if your hands remembered
Of their own accord the pattern
As if your hands forgotten
How to stop.

1. Talk in small groups to find out what we know from the poem about grandmothers' life in the past.
2. What is her life like now? Talk in small groups
3. The speaker changes the view (and the pronouns): Once THEY is used, then SHE. Which part of her body does the speaker pay attention to? Quote from the poem to justify your answer.

4. The words ‘need, necessity, necessary’ appear in most stanzas: In small groups, discuss how their content changes: with the age of a person, changing times, and different stages in life.

After Reading

Discuss the following questions in small groups:

- Are there different concepts of ‘being old’ in different cultures?
- When a person is considered ‘old’ then? Does he/she start dressing differently? Is he/she willing to learn new things?
- Does it depend more on an individual or the culture he/she comes from? Compare, for example, the situation in your home country and another country.

Task Two

Before Listening

What might be the relation between the characters?

From the pictures, write an imaginary plot of the movie.

While Listening

Watch the movie clip then answer the following:

Why did the father and Tessa go to the radio station?

Why did Tessa get angry there?

What does Tessa suffer from?

What did Tessa want to do before she dies?

After Listening

What have you learnt from the movie?

Is it allowed for girls in your culture to have a boyfriend?

When someone will die, does he do as Tessa did? Why?

1. Write part two of the film or just a summary of what could happen in the last scene of the film.
2. Imagine the story had taken place in your own culture and country :

Rewrite concrete scenes taken from the film adapting them to your own cultural context.

Task Three

Before Listening

Before students listen to the song, they do the following:

Inpairs: arrange the cut-up stanzas in the order they expect to hear them.

I got the eye of the tiger, a fighter

Dancing through the fire

‘cause I am a champion, and you ‘re gonna hear me roar

Louder, louder than a lion

‘Cause I am a champion, and you’re gonna hear me roar

You held me down, but i got up (hey)

Already brushing off the dust
You hear my voice, you hear that sound
Like thunder, gonna shake the ground
You held me down, but I got up (hey)
Get ready 'cause I've had enough
I see it all, I see it now

I used to bite my tongue and hold my breath
Scared to rock the boat and make a mess
so I sat quietly, agreed politely
i guess that I forgot I had a choice
I let you push me past the breaking point
I stood for nothing, so I fell for everything

While Listening

1. Check if the order of the stanzas is correct.

Students listen to the song for a second time to answer the above questions

After Listening

1. What is the message of the song?
2. What is your personal opinion about the song?
3. Compare between women in your culture and those in the song.
4. Find out more about the singer. Where is she from? What kind of songs does she play?

Follow-up Activity

Look for the meaning of Collectivism and Individualism.

How can you classify the Algerian and the target culture as a collectivist society or individualistic society? (Presentation and discussion)

Lesson Plan of Unit Four: Way of Living

1. Materials

- ✓ Authentic materials: **A poem by Liz Lochhead**
- ✓ **The movie ‘ Now is Good’** adapted from
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0C0Mb8mRSiE>

2. Techniques /Activities

- ✓ Small group discussion
- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Presentation
- ✓ Comparison

Task One:

Before Reading/ Warm-up:

Allotted Time: 10m

- T asks SS to think of their grandmothers and tell their classmates about her.
- T asks SS to choose three adjectives to describe her.
- T asks SS to compare the adjectives and thus the personalities of their grandmothers.
- T asks SS to say whether there is something in common between their grandmothers.

While Reading

Allotted Time: 45m

- T asks SS to read the poem silently and to underline difficult words, if any.
- T asks SS to work in small groups to find out what they know from the poem about grandmothers’ life in the past.
- SS work in small groups to find out how is her life now.

- T asks the students to find out which part of the grandmother’s body the speaker pays attention to when the speaker changes the view and the pronoun (from THEY to SHE).
- T asks SS to quote from the poem to justify their answer.
- T tells the SS that the words ‘need, necessary, necessity’ appear in most stanzas.
- T asks SS how their content changes: with the age of a person, changing times, and different stages in life.

After Reading

Allotted Time: 20m

- T asks SS if there are different concepts of being old in different cultures.
- T asks SS about when a person is considered old in their culture.
- T asks SS if a person starts wearing differently when /she gets old.
- T asks SS if a person is willing to learn new things when he gets old. T asks SS if it depends on the individual or the culture that a person comes from.
- T asks SS to compare the situation in their country with another one.

Task Two:

Before Listening

Allotted Time: 30m

- T asks SS to look at three pictures representing the movie characters.
- T asks them to guess what the relationship between the characters is.
- T asks SS to work in a small group to write an imaginary plot of the movie.



While Listening

Allotted time: 50m

- SS watch the movie clip twice.
- T asks SS to mention why Tessa and her father went to the radio station.
- SS are asked why Tessa got angry at the radio station.
- Ss are asked about what Tessa suffers from.
- SS are asked about the things Tessa wanted to do before she dies.

After Listening

Allotted Time: 80m

- T asks the SS about what they have learnt from the movie.
- T asks SS if it is normal for girls to have a boyfriend in their culture.
- T asks SS if people in their culture who know that they are going to die do the same as Tessa did.
- T asks SS to work in small groups to write part two of the film.
- T asks SS to imagine that the story of Tessa happened in their country and culture.
- T asks SS to rewrite concrete scenes taken from the film adapting them to their cultural context (*group work*).

Task Three:

Before Listening

Allotted Time: 10m

- T tells SS that they are going to listen to a song by Katy Perry ‘Roar’.
- T distributes sheets comprising the song to the students.
- T asks SS to arrange the cut-up stanzas in the order they are expected to hear them.

While Listening

Allotted Time: 20m

- SS listen to the song for the first time.
- SS check if the order of the stanzas is correct.

- T asks SS about the main idea of each stanza.

After Listening

Allotted Time: 30m

- T asks SS about the message and themes of the song.
- T asks SS about their personal opinion about the song.
- T asks SS to compare women in the song (target culture) and women in their own culture.
- T asks SS about the singer's nationality and the kind of songs she sings.

Presentation

Allotted time: 45m

- T asks SS beforehand to search for the difference between 'individualism' and 'collectivism' and to present their findings in class.
- T asks SS one by one to define the concepts according to their findings.
- T asks SS to discuss collectivism and individualism with reference to the American and British cultures and their own culture.
- T asks SS to discuss how individualism is shown in the poem 'my grandmother knitting' and the movie 'Now is Good'.

Unit Five: Food and Eating Habits

Task One:

Before Reading

What comes to your mind when reading the title ‘What time for lunch’? Compare your expectation with a partner?

While Reading

Read the following text and answer the follow-up questions:

What Time is Lunch?

A British man went to Poland to run a workshop about teaching and learning English as a second language. He arrived, after a long and complicated journey, at the teacher training centre in the mountains in Upper Silesia at 2.30 in the afternoon, feeling, he had to admit, rather hungry. He was told that “lunch” was to be served in half an hour, and at 3 p.m. he sat all alone in the dining-room and was served vegetable soup, roast chicken and boiled potatoes and a “salad” (this, however, was a bit of a disappointment. It consisted of finely grated vegetables: carrots, cabbage and cucumber, which had been marinated for some time in vinegar). There was also a glass of stewed plums in syrup, but no water.

Apparently, most of the food was locally produced, and was absolutely delicious. He ate his fill. However, his body was completely unused to eating anything at all at this time of the day. He normally had a simple breakfast of bread and jam, or muesli, had a snack at midday (a sandwich or roll) and ate his main meal at about 7 p.m.

At 6 p.m., when most of the workshop participants had arrived, the “evening meal” was served. This consisted of a selection of ham and sausage, bread, butter and sliced tomato. Having eaten so much only three hours before, he was still full and could only eat the tomato. Fortunately, nobody noticed. He wondered what would have happened had he refused or only partly eaten the “lunch”. Would people in the kitchen have been offended? Probably. And by 10 p.m. he was a bit hungry again.

1. What is the text about? Is your expectation about the title correct?
2. Do you think that the British man has the same eating and drinking habits as Polish people? Explain.

After Reading

Whole-class discussion

1. Summarise the story.
2. What have you learnt from the story?
3. What are the eating and drinking habits governing your culture? At what times of the day?
4. How do people react in your culture when someone refuses to eat their food?
5. Have the eating habits of your culture changed over the last fifty years? Would your grandparents answer these questions the same way as you?
6. Are the eating habits in your culture related to social class?
7. How are meals named in your culture? If you had guests from another culture, how would you describe the meals to them? How would you react if they could not conform and eat the same sorts of meals at the times you propose? Are there any types of food that in your culture you can only eat at certain times, at particular meals?

(As an example, many Dutch people find it literally incomprehensible – not distasteful, but incomprehensible – that British people can eat “baked beans”¹ at breakfast, while the British have exactly the same reaction to the Dutch eating grated chocolate on bread in the morning.)

Task Two

Before Listening

What do you know about alcohol?

While Listening

Students listen to the video three times to answer the following:

1. When did first alcohol appear?
2. What is ethanol?
3. What are the cultural rituals that alcohol denotes in several cultures?

After Listening

Answer the following questions in a form of a group discussion:

1. Is it widely spread to drink alcohol in your culture, as in Europe for example?
2. What laws regulate the selling and consumption of alcohol? Do you approve of them?
3. Are there any special rituals connected to drinking alcoholic drinks in cultures you are interested in? *(For example, in Australia when they decide to use first names or the informal terms of address, they link each other's arms and cling glasses to mark the occasion.)*

4. Is drunken driving a problem in your culture or other cultures you know?

Project Work: Intercultural encounter

Write a script then act out the conversation (role-play) of four or five people from different cultures at a dinner table together (reception or a party of first-year undergraduate students).

Pay attention to the following:

- What are the suitable conversation starters? Or what are the different greeting customs?
- Who would order what in what sequence?
- Would you have to agree on something that everybody would have to order and eat or drink?
- Would everybody order different drinks (alcoholic, non-alcoholic, hot, cold)?
- Would everyone start eating as soon as he/she got his or her plate or wait?
- Would someone make a toast?
- What would be said for a toast?

Evaluation

After acting out the role-play, the teacher asks students why they have acted so depending on the questions above. They make a conclusion together to evaluate the intercultural experience (what have you learnt, are there any similarities? what are the differences?).

Lesson Plan of Unit Five: Food and Eating Habits

1. Materials

- ✓ Worksheets of a short story
- ✓ A video retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6TgnrDIjroc>

2. Techniques /Activities

- ✓ Brainstorming
- ✓ Whole-class/ small-group discussion
- ✓ Role-play

Task One

Before Reading

- T writes on the board the question ‘What is for lunch?’ and then asks SS to say what comes to their minds when hearing that question.
- T asks SS to compare students’ expectations with their partners.

While Reading

- T distributes sheets comprising texts.
- T asks SS to read the text silently and to underline the difficult words.
- T asks SS to read the text and to explain together.
- T asks SS to say what the text is about and to compare it to their expectations.
- T asks SS if the British man has the same eating habits as Polish people.

Post Reading

- T asks SS to summarise the story.
- T asks SS about the eating and drinking habits governing their culture.
- T asks SS about their reaction towards someone who refuses to eat their food.
- T asks SS if their eating habits changed over time, over the last fifty years.
- T asks SS if their grandparents would answer these questions the same way as they do.

- T asks SS if the eating habits are related to social class.
- T asks SS about the names of meals in their culture.
- T asks SS about the way of describing the meals to someone else from a different culture.
- T asks SS about their reaction in case guests could not eat the same sorts of meals at the time they propose.
- T asks SS if there are any types of food that they can only eat at certain times at particular meals in their culture.

As an example, many Dutch people find it literally incomprehensible – not distasteful, but incomprehensible – that British people can eat “baked beans” at breakfast, while the British have exactly the same reaction to the Dutch eating grated chocolate on bread in the morning.

Task Two

Pre-listening

- T asks SS to share what they know about alcoholism.

While Listening

- SS listen to the video three times.
- T asks SS to say when alcohol first appeared.
- T asks SS about the meaning of ethanol.
- T asks SS about the cultural rituals that alcohol denotes in several cultures.

After Listening

- T asks SS about alcohol in their culture by saying if it is widespread as in Europe or not.
- T asks SS about the laws that regulate the selling and consumption of alcohol and if they approve of them.
- T asks SS if there are any special rituals connected to drinking alcoholic drinks in cultures they are interested in (*for example, in Australia when they decide to use first names or the informal terms of address, they link each other's arms and cling glasses to mark the occasion.*).
- T asks SS if drunken drivers a problem in their culture and the cultures they know.

Task Three: Intercultural Encounter

- T asks SS to write a script of four or five people from different cultures at a dinner table together (reception or a party of first-year undergraduate students).
- T asks SS to pay attention to the following while writing:
 - What are the suitable conversation starters? Or what are the different greeting customs?
 - Who would order what in what sequence?
 - Would you have to agree on something that everybody would have to order and eat or drink?
 - Would everybody order different drinks (alcoholic, non-alcoholic, hot, cold).
 - Would everyone start eating as soon as he/she got his/her plate or wait?
 - Would someone make a toast?
 - What would be said for a toast?
 - How would they eat?

- T asks them to act the script as a role-play.
- T tries with SS to analyse their acts by asking them for the reason for behaving in a particular way, and not in another, according to the instructions above.
- T asks SS to draw the conclusion about the intercultural encounter (what they learnt, what are the similarities and the differences).

Unit Seven: Raising Children

Task One:

Before Listening

What are the cultural differences that you are familiar with regarding raising children?

While Listening

Answer these questions while listening:

1. What the video is about?
2. What are the cultural differences that the psychologist discussed in the video?
3. What are the similarities?

After Listening

Whole-class discussion

1. What is your attitude towards the raising system in the cultures in the video?
2. Do families in your culture depend on nannies to raise their children?
3. Do parents that you know teach their children to be independent and obedient?
4. How do parents raise their children in your culture? What do parents focus on more while raising children?

Task Two

Before Listening:

The title of the movie is *Home Alone*.

Group work: Discuss in groups of four what the movie might be about.

While Listening:

Answer the following questions:

1. *Individually:* Give a brief summary of the context of the scene.
2. Does the kid in the movie follow the rules of his mother?
3. Does he seem well behaved?
4. What is your view on the way the mother used to punish him?

After Listening

Whole-class discussion :

- In your culture, if children make a noise or a mess, in what situations would they be told off?
- Are children generally punished for breaking rules? How? Are they smacked? Can this be done in public?
- Are children of that age allowed to stay up late for adult socialising?
- Do young children allowed to mix freely with adults or do they tend to be told to play elsewhere?
- How much room is allotted to children in public spaces (e.g., children's seats in trams and play areas in trains or shops)?
- *In pairs:* write an imaginary plot for the whole movie.

Task Three: Intercultural Encounter

Write an imaginary script of an Algerian novice teacher teaching at a British school and a child's parents for punishing his/her child at school.

Lesson Plan of Unit Seven: Raising Children

1. Materials

- ✓ A scene from a movie <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Aacz4pPqndk&t=199s>
- ✓ A video about cultural differences

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9WHUO1GGBi8>

2. Techniques and Activities

- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Comparison
- ✓ Brainstorming

Task One

Warm-up:

- T asks SS to brainstorm as many ideas as possible concerning cultural differences in raising children.

While Listening

- T asks SS to listen to a video three times.
- T asks SS to say the main idea of the video.
- T asks SS to mention the cultural differences in raising children mentioned by the psychologist.
- T asks SS about the similarities in raising children mentioned by the psychologist.

After Listening

- T asks SS about their opinion on the children-raising system in the cultures mentioned in the video.

- T asks if parents in their culture depend on nannies to raise their children.
- T asks SS if parents in their culture teach their kids to be independent and obedient.
- T asks SS about the way that parents use to raise their children and the things they focus on.

Task Two

Warm-up/ Before Listening

- T tells the SS the title of the movie: **Home Alone**.
- T asks SS to work in a group of four to discuss what the movie might be about, from the title.

While Listening

- T asks SS to give a brief summary of the context of the scene.
- T asks if the child behaves well and if he is pampered.
- T asks SS about their views towards the way used to punish the child.

After Listening

- T asks SS if children make noise in their culture, and what the situations that will be told off are.
- T asks SS if children in their culture are punished if they break rules. If yes, how (are they smacked), and if this can happen in public or not?
- T asks SS about how other cultures punish and reward their children.

Task Three: Intercultural Encounter

- T asks SS to work in a group to write a script of a conversation between an Algerian novice teacher teaching in a British school and a child's parent for punishing her child at school.
- T asks two students from each group to act on the script.

- T asks SS about the things they have learnt, the similarities and differences between the target culture and the home culture regarding the way of punishing children at schools.

Unit Seven: Conversation and Silence

Task One

Before Reading

What are the topics that the British people are obsessed of?

While Reading

Read the article then answer the questions below:

Why do Brits talk about the weather so much

More than nine in 10 Brits have talked about the weather in the last six hours. But is this unusual – and if so, is it their culture or the climate that makes them so obsessed?

According to recent research, 94% of British respondents admit to having conversed about the weather in the past six hours, while 38% say they have in the past 60 minutes. “This means at almost any moment in this country, at least a third of the population is either talking about the weather, has already done so or is about to do so,” says social anthropologist Kate Fox, who performed the studies in 2010 for an update of her book *Watching the English*.

So why do the British do it? Is there something about the nation’s weather that makes it worthy of discussion, or is it simply a cultural foible? And do any other nationalities share this peculiar conversational trait?

Stormy skies

Several features of Britain's geography make the weather the way it is: mild, changeable, and famously unpredictable.

Britain's position at the edge of the Atlantic places it at the end of a storm track – relatively narrow zones over oceans that storms travel down, driven by the prevailing winds. “These storms are feeding on the temperature difference from the equator to the pole,” says Douglas Parker, joint Met Office professor of meteorology at the University of Leeds.

As the warm and cold air fly towards and over each other, the earth's rotation creates cyclones – and the UK bears the tail end of them.

Then there is the **Gulf Stream**, which makes the British climate milder than it should be, given its northern latitude, and the fact that the UK is made up of islands, meaning there is a lot of moisture in the air. “Water in the atmosphere makes the weather particularly unpredictable,” Parker says.

The variability means residents never know quite what to expect. Snow in summer? T-shirts in winter? Recently, **the hottest-ever November day** was recorded in mid-Wales, with temperatures hitting a balmy 22.4C. “It's much more unpredictable than the climate of many countries,” says Trevor Harley, chair of cognitive psychology at the University of Dundee, who runs a **website devoted to the British weather**. “There's always something happening – and if there isn't, there is the promise.”

It is these types of extremes that generate much of the debate on online forums about the British weather (yes, they do exist!). The **British Weather Newsgroup**, for example, has been running since the mid-1990s and was started as a forum for enthusiasts to discuss scientific aspects of the British weather.

Today, almost all aspects of the weather are up for debate, although there are two major themes, says Harley. One is speculation about – and a desire for – severe weather, such as a traditional white Christmas – never mind the fact the UK has only experienced a widespread, Dickensian-like Christmas snow **four times in the past 51 years.**

Coded conversations

Many of the day-to-day conversations British people initiate about the weather, however, are more mundane. Comments like “cold, isn’t it?” do not even particularly demand a full response; a grunt of agreement will suffice.

Weather talk helps us overcome social inhibitions—Kate Fox

Fox has eavesdropped on hundreds of such weather-related conversations as part of her research. She concludes that they are less about the weather and more akin to the kind of physical grooming that occurs among our primate cousins. “Weather talk is a kind of code that we have evolved to help us overcome social inhibitions and actually talk to one another,” says Fox.

Even if you know it is raining out, British etiquette calls for you to phrase it as a question:

‘Raining again?’ (Credit: Agencja Fotograficzna Caro/Alamy)

In some situations, weather talk is an icebreaker. In others, it is used to fill awkward silences, or divert the conversation away from uncomfortable topics. Often it’s an excuse for a good old grumble, which can be a bonding experience in itself, but we can also use weather speak to gauge other people’s moods: “Depending on their response to your

weather greeting, you can tell if someone is in the mood for a chat, or is feeling grumpy and negative,” says Fox.

But there are certain unwritten rules that the British follow when conducting these weather-related conversations. Firstly, the topic will almost always be introduced as a form of question, even if only in the intonation (e.g., “Raining again?”). Secondly, the person answering must agree. “Failing to agree is quite a serious breach of etiquette. Or at least if you disagree, you have to express it in terms of a sort of personal foible,” says Fox. “If someone says: ‘Cold, isn’t it?’ and you say: ‘Well actually, no,’ the person would be a bit taken aback, and feel that that was a discourteous thing to say.”

Positive or negative?

Of course, these kinds of purely social conversations also occur in other cultures. But both the nature of the conversation – and their content – will vary. Derek Bousfield, an expert in language and impoliteness at Manchester Metropolitan University, explains that in every culture, individuals tread a delicate balance. On the one hand, they want approval by other members of society and to forge closer bonds with others. On the other, they desire to be autonomous and left alone.

Countries that privilege positive face will choose personal topics, such as someone’s age or weight, as an appropriate icebreaker

Academics call these opposing needs a ‘positive face’ and ‘negative face’, respectively, and most societies privilege one over the other. “British people stereotypically favour negative face (the desire to be unimpeded) over positive face (the desire to be approved of), although we still have a sense of positive face,” says Bousfield. “For instance, getting on the bus and ignoring someone you know would be an affront to positive face, and cause interpersonal

issues. But negative face” – which in this example, might mean not intruding on a stranger’s personal space, or refraining from starting an unwanted conversation – “has greater weight.”

When it comes to small talk, countries that privilege positive face will choose personal topics, such as someone’s age, weight or what they do for a living, as an appropriate icebreaker. That explains why people from some cultures – including the Middle East, China, Southeast Asia, South America and the United States – will ask questions that British people might find rude at worst or a tad forward at best, says Bousfield.

A country like Britain, on the other hand, will choose a safe and personally unobtrusive topic – such as the weather.

For a country like Britain, which privileges personal space, the weather provides a safe topic of conversation (Credit: Alex Segre/Alamy)

Japan, Switzerland and Finland are other examples of negative face cultures. And certainly in Japan, another island nation with unpredictable weather, the weather and the seasons are common conversation topics. Take the following haiku by the Japanese novelist Natsume Soseki: “Over the wintry forest, winds howl in rage with no leaves to blow.”

The Swiss and Finns, though, are not quite as obsessed, possibly because there’s less to talk about. In Finland, for example, you can bond with people simply by sitting and drinking with them; you don’t even have to talk much, says Bousfield. “When you do this in the depth of winter – where Helsinki has underground tunnels so the shops can still operate even in deep snow – what weather is there to talk about?” he says. “Everyone knows it’s

only going to be ice and snow for up to four, five or sometimes six months, so why talk about it?"

In Britain, on the other hand, we can be wrapped up against the elements on Saturday; picnicking in shorts and t-shirt on Sunday; and battling torrential rain on Monday. That's just the way it is here.

Cold, isn't it?

1. What is the main idea of the text?
2. Why are people obsessed with talking about the weather?

After Reading

1. Are people in your culture obsessed with the weather? Why?
2. How do people in your culture start a conversation with other people whom they meet for the first time? Do they ask each other about age, family relationships, private life, health problems, politics, health, professions, and money?

Task Two

Watch the video and then say its main idea:

- *In pairs*: look at the above picture then answer the questions.

**SAMPLE
FRONT**



Photocopiable © Oxford University Press

ANSWER KEY

The gestures that would be understood by speakers of English are: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 (American), 11, and 12.
 Number 1 means 'Good luck!' or 'I hope everything goes well!'
 Number 2 means that a person is crazy. It is often used as a joke and is normally used only when talking privately about a third person.
 Number 3 means 'I don't know' or 'I have no idea'.
 Number 4 means 'I can't/didn't hear you'.
 Number 5 means 'That's enough' or 'It's all over for me'.
 Number 6 is the 'thumbs down' sign, used to indicate rejection or refusal.
 Number 7 is used in some parts of the world to mean 'Something's a bit suspicious/odd here'.
 Number 8 means 'Come here'.
 Number 9 is widely used in the US (but not in Britain, where a 'thumbs up' sign is used) to mean 'OK'.
 Number 10 is used in Italy to say 'Hello'. For Indonesians, Malaysians, and some speakers of Arabic, it signals 'Come here'. Some speakers of English might confuse this gesture with the wave for 'Goodbye'.
 Number 11 means 'Oh, I forgot' or is used as an expression of surprise.
 Number 12 means 'Slow down', 'Relax', or 'Wait a second'.

Gestures not used in the UK or US are numbers 7 and 10.

Acknowledgement

This activity is an adaptation of 'The message is...' in Rob Nolasco and Lois Arthur, *Conversation* (Oxford University Press, 1987), pp 64-5.

5.10 Whisperround

AIM To increase awareness of the difficulty of translating meaning accurately to another language

MATERIALS No special materials are needed

LEVEL Upper-intermediate and above

TIME 15-20 minutes

PREPARATION (This activity is designed for classes in which the students all speak the same native language. For multilingual classes, see the variation below.) No special preparation is needed.

IN CLASS 1 Ask for six student volunteers. The volunteers should seat themselves in a circle.

- What does each gesture mean?
- Which ones could you use in the UK or USA?
- Which of the gestures, if any, are different from the gestures used in your culture?
- In what situations do you use gestures?
- Are there any gestures that should not be used with certain people?

Project work: Emotions in different cultures

- 1.** Interview some people about non-verbal communication in their culture and report the findings to the class in the form of a short presentation.
- 2.** Form yourselves into groups of four members. Role-play a situation that caused communication breakdowns based on the sources of misunderstanding between people of different cultures (because of non-verbal communication differences

between our culture and the target culture, like gestures, facial expression, space, eye contact, etc.,)

- 3.** Imagine a situation where you have met an English man/ woman and you had a talk with him or her. Write down the conversation.

Lesson Plan of Unit Seven: Conversation and Silence

1. Materials

- ✓ An article retrieved from <https://www.bbc.com/future/article/20151214-why-do-brits-talk-about-the-weather-so-much>
- ✓ A video retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HXDjJ9KL9bU>
- ✓ Worksheets comprising inauthentic texts
- ✓ A picture

2. Techniques/Activities

- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Brainstorming
- ✓ Ethnographic task (interview)
- ✓ Presentation
- ✓ Role play

Task One

Before Reading

Time Allotted: 5m

- T asks SS if they know the topics that the British people are obsessed with while conversing with others.

While Reading

Time Allotted: 60m

- T distributes the worksheets comprising the article on students.
- T asks SS to read the article silently.
- T asks the SS to underline any difficult words.
- T asks SS to read the text aloud and explain it.
- T asks SS about the main idea of the text and each paragraph.

- T asks SS about the reason behind the British obsession with the weather.
- T asks SS about the differences between positive and negative faces.

After Reading

- T asks SS to summarise the article.
- T asks SS about how people in their culture start a conversation with a person, for example, of the same age whom they meet for the first time at a party.
- T further asks SS if they ask others about age, family relationships, private life, health problems, politics, health, professions, money, etc.

Task Two

Warm-up / Before Listening

- T asks SS about the meaning of non-verbal communication.
- SS watch the video.
- T asks SS to identify the source of misunderstanding occurred in the video.

Presentation

- T distributes the picture sheets.
- T asks SS to look at the pictures.
- T asks SS about the meaning of the gestures.
- T asks SS to mention if the gestures are the same or different from their culture.
- T asks SS about the situations where they use gestures.
- T asks SS if they know any gestures that should not be used with certain people or in certain situations.

Unit Eight: Men's and Women's Roles

Task One

Before Listening

1. Who is Emma Watson?
2. From the video cover, what do you think the video is about?

While Listening

1. What is the video about?
2. What does the introducer say about Emma at first?
3. How does it come that Emma became a supporter of feminism?

After Listening

1. Do you agree or disagree with Emma?
2. Summarise the video.
3. What are the stereotypes and prejudice about gender that you are familiar with?
Search for others.
4. Does gender equality exist in your culture? Explain why?
 1. Do you think it is a good idea for a woman to work as a soldier or in the army?
 2. In your culture, how is it perceived for women working in other men-positions (e.g., a maid, a tractor-driver, a fire-fighter)? What about other cultures that you know?
5. Do you think that the number of women working in masculine roles will grow in the future?

Task Two

Before Reading

What do you know about women's stereotypes?

While Reading

Read the essay then answer the above questions.

An essay 'I Want a Wife'

Judy Brady's essay became an instant classic when it appeared in 1971 in the premier issue of the feminist magazine Ms. As you read, analyze the definitions of "husband" and "wife" that Brady uses, and consider why this essay became so powerful in the 1970s.

I belong to that classification of people known as wives. I am A Wife. And, not altogether incidentally, I am a mother.

Not too long ago a male friend of mine appeared on the scene fresh from a recent divorce. He had one child, who is, of course, with his ex-wife. He is looking for another wife. As I thought about him while I was ironing one evening, it suddenly occurred to me that I, too, would like to have a wife. Why do I want a wife?

I would like to go back to school so that I can become economically independent, support myself, and, if need be, support those dependent upon me. I want a wife who will work and send me to school. And while I am going to school I want a wife to take care of my children. I want a wife to keep track of the children's doctor and dentist appointments. And to keep track of mine, too. I want a wife to make sure my children eat properly and are kept clean. I want a wife who will wash the children's clothes and keep them mended. I want a wife who

is a good nurturant attendant to my children, who arranges for their schooling, makes sure that they have an adequate social life with their peers, takes them to the park, the zoo, etc. I want a wife who takes care of the children when they are sick, a wife who arranges to be around when the children need special care, because, of course, I cannot miss classes at school. My wife must arrange to lose time at work and not lose the job. It may mean a small cut in my wife's income from time to time, but I guess I can tolerate that. Needless to say, my wife will arrange and pay for the care of the children while my wife is working.

I want a wife who will take care of my physical needs. I want a wife who will keep my house clean. A wife who will pick up after my children, a wife who will pick up after me. I want a wife who will keep my clothes clean, ironed, mended, replaced when need be, and who will see to it that my personal things are kept in their proper place so that I can find what I need the minute I need it. I want a wife who cooks the meals, a wife who is a good cook. I want a wife who will plan the menus, do the necessary grocery shopping, prepare the meals, serve them pleasantly, and then do the cleaning up while I do my studying. I want a wife who

will care for me when I am sick and sympathize with my pain and loss of time from school. I want a wife to go along when our family takes a vacation so that someone can continue to care for me and my children when I need a rest and change of scene.

I want a wife who will not bother me with rambling complaints about a wife's duties. But I want a wife who will listen to me when I feel the need to explain a rather difficult point I have come across in my course of studies. And I want a wife who will type my papers for me when I have written them.

I want a wife who will take care of the details of my social life. When my wife and I are invited out by my friends, I want a wife who will take care of the babysitting arrangements.

When I meet people at school that I like and want to entertain, I want a wife who will have the house clean, will prepare a special meal, serve it to me and my friends, and not interrupt when I talk about things that interest me and my friends. I want a wife who will have arranged that the children are fed and ready for bed before my guests arrive so that the children do not bother us. I want a wife who takes care of the needs of my guests so that they feel comfortable, who makes sure that they have an ashtray, that they are passed the hors d'oeuvres, that they are offered a second helping of the food, that their wine glasses are replenished when necessary, that their coffee is served to them as they like it. And I want a wife who knows that sometimes I need a night out by myself. If, by chance, I find another person more suitable as a wife than the wife I already have, I want the liberty to replace my present wife with another one. Naturally, I will expect a fresh new life; my wife will take the children and be solely responsible for them so that I am left free.

When I am through with school and have a job, I want my wife to quit working and remain at home so that my wife can more fully and completely take care of a wife's duties.

My God, who *wouldn't* want a wife?

1. What is the main idea of the essay?
2. Why does the author want a wife?

After Reading

Who does the following jobs in your house?

- Making breakfast;
- Cooking lunch or dinner;

- Doing the dishes;
- Mopping the floor;
- Vacuuming;
- Dusting;
- Fixing things
- Doing the shopping;
- Washing/ironing clothes;
- Washing the car;
- Taking care of children;

Lesson Plan of Women and Men's Roles

1. Materials

- ✓ A video by Emma Watson

Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gkjW9PZBRfk>

- ✓ An essay entitled ' I Want a Wife' by Judy Brady

2. Techniques/Activities

- ✓ Small-group discussion
- ✓ Whole-class discussion
- ✓ Role-play
- ✓ Presentation

Task One

Before Listening

Allotted Time: 5m

- ✓ T asks SS about Emma Watson.

While Listening

Allotted Time: 40m

- ✓ T asks SS to listen to the video three times.
- ✓ T asks SS about what the video revolves around.
- ✓ T asks SS if they agree with Emma's point of view.

After Listening

Allotted Time: 30m

- ✓ T asks SS to summarise the video.
- ✓ T asks SS to discuss the case in their own culture.

Task Two

Before Reading

- T asks SS to guess what the essay might be about from the title.
- T asks SS about how they want their future wives and husbands to be.

While Reading

- T distributes the essay sheets on SS.
- T asks SS to read the essay silently.
- SS read the essay aloud.
- SS say the main idea of the essay and each paragraph.
- T asks SS about the writer's aim behind the essay.

After Reading

- T asks SS to summarise the essay.
- T asks SS about their view towards the essay.
- T asks SS if the women's roles as mentioned in the essay are still the same as today.
- T asks SS about women's roles in their culture, whether they are the same as those in the target culture or not.

You may use the following questions:

- Who does the following jobs in your house?

Making breakfast; cooking lunch or dinner; doing the dishes; mopping the floor; vacuuming; dusting; Fixing things; doing the shopping; washing/ironing clothes; washing the car; taking care of children, etc.

Unit Nine: The Concept of Beauty

Task One

Before Listening

1. From the title of the song, what the song is about?
2. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.

Don't look at me

Every day is so wonderful

Then suddenly it's hard to breathe

Now andI get insecure

From all the pain

I'm so ashamed

I amno matter what they say

Words can't bring me down

I am beautiful in every single way

Yes, words can't bring me down, oh no

So don't you bring me down today

To all your friends you're delirious

So consumed in all your doom

Trying hard to fill the emptiness

The pieces gone, left the puzzle undone

Is that the way it is?

You areno matter what they say

Words can't bring you down, oh no

You are beautiful in every single way

Yes,can't bring you down, oh no

So don't you bring me down today

No matter what we do

(No matter what we do)

No matter what we do

(No matter what we do)

We're the song inside the tune (Yeah)

Full of beautiful mistakes

And everywhere we go

(And everywhere we go)

The sun will always shine

(The sun will always, always shine)

Andwe might wake on the other side

'Cause we are beautiful no matter what they say

Yes, words won't bring us down, no, no

We are beautiful in every single way

Yes, words can't bring us down, oh, no

So don't you bring me down today

Ooh-oh-oh, yeah

Don't you bring me down today

Yeah, ooh

Don't you bring me down

Ooh, today

While Listening

1. Check if the words in the gaps filled appropriately or not.
2. What is the song about?

After Listening

Whole-class discussion

People in Europe in general are obsessed with body shape and its relation with beauty. Is it the case in your culture?

1. What role does the image of a slim figure play in different cultures?
2. Is body weight linked to concepts of beauty and sexual attractiveness? Has this changed over time?

Lesson Plan of Unit Nine: Concept of Beauty

1. Materials

- ✓ A song retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0C2tFNi_9Ug

2. Techniques

- ✓ Brainstorming

Task One:

Before Listening

- The teacher tells the SS the title of the song ‘*Beautiful*’.
- T asks SS to predict from the title of the song what it is about.
- T gives sheets to the SS comprising the song with gaps.
- T asks SS to fill in the gaps with the words they may think appropriate.

While Listening

- SS listen to the song entitled ‘*Beautiful*’ for Cristina Aguilera three times.
- SS check if they filled the gaps with the appropriate words.
- T asks SS to say the main idea of the song.

After Listening

- T asks SS to discuss the relationship between the topic of beauty and its relation with body shape in the target culture and then to reflect on the learners’ own culture.
- T asks SS about the image of a slim figure played in different cultures.
- T asks SS whether body weight is linked to the concept of beauty and sexual attractiveness, and if this relationship has changed over time or not.

Unit Nine: Celebrating Social Events

Task One

Before Listening



1. Which ceremony does the picture refer to?
2. What are the related words to the ceremony?

While Listening

SS listen to the video then answer the following:

1. What is the video about?
2. How people celebrate Christmas in different parts of the world?

After Listening

1. Do people in your culture celebrate Christmas? If yes, how? If not, why?
2. What are the ceremonies that you celebrate in your culture and other cultures that you are familiar with? Explain how?

Task Two

Before Listening

Predict from the title what the movie is about.

While Listening

1. What is the movie about?
2. What are the steps that the bride should follow before the wedding?
3. Why did the two friends fight?
4. Why did Emma cancel her wedding at the last moment?

After Listening

1. Do people in your culture plan weddings the same as in the video? If not, how ?
2. Write an imaginary plot for an adapted version film appropriate for your own culture.
3. Rewrite concrete scenes taken from the film adapting them to the students' own cultural context and then act them.

Lesson Plan: Celebrating Social Events

1. Materials

- ✓ A picture
- ✓ A video retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7cFyWMdQBQ8>
- ✓ An adopted movie clip retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=quxqiljUkzE>

2. Techniques/Activities

- ✓ Comparison
- ✓ Guessing
- ✓ Brainstorming
- ✓ Whole-class discussion

Task One:

Before Listening

- T shows the SS a picture of the Christmas tree.
- T asks SS to guess which ceremony the picture is related to.
- SS brainstorm all the ideas related to Christmas.

While Listening

- T tells the SS that they are going to listen to a video.
- SS listen to the video three times.
- T asks SS to say what the video is about.
- T asks SS to say how other cultures celebrate Christmas.

After Listening

- T asks SS if people in their culture celebrate Christmas.

- T asks SS to justify their answer.
- T asks SS to mention some of the ceremonies that people in their culture celebrate in and explain how they do that.

Task Two

Before Listening

- T tells the SS that they are going to watch a movie clip entitled ‘Bride Wars’.
- T asks SS to predict from the title what the movie might be about.

While Listening

- SS listen to the video a few times.
- SS say what the movie is about.
- T asks SS to mention the steps that the brides go through to prepare for the wedding.
- T asks SS to mention the reason that led the brides to fight.
- SS say why Emma’s wedding was called off.

After Listening

Whole-class discussion

- T asks SS to say if people in their culture plan weddings the same as Liz and Emma did.
- T asks SS to write an imaginary plot for an adapted version film appropriate for the learners’ own culture.
- T asks SS to rewrite concrete scenes taken from the film adapting them to the students’ cultural context.

Appendix F

Intercultural Communicative Competence Survey

Fantini and Tirmizi (2006)

Knowledge

1. I could cite a definition of culture and describe its components and complexities 0 1 2 3 4 5
2. I knew the essential norms and taboos of the host culture (greetings, dress, behaviours, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
3. I could contrast important aspects of the host language and culture with my own 0 1 2 3 4 5
4. I recognised some signs of culture stress and some strategies for overcoming it 0 1 2 3 4 5
5. I knew some techniques to aid my learning of the host language and culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
6. I could contrast my own behaviours with those of my hosts in important areas (e.g., social interactions, basic routines, time orientation, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
7. I could cite important historical and socio-political factors that shape my own culture and the host culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
8. I could describe a model of cross-cultural adjustment stages 0 1 2 3 4 5
9. I could cite various learning processes and strategies for learning about and adjusting to 0 1 2 3 4 5

the host culture

10. I could describe interactional behaviours common

among Ecuadoreans in social and professional areas (e.g., family roles, team work, problem solving, etc.)

0 1 2 3 4 5

11. I could discuss and contrast various behavioural

patterns in my own culture with those in Ecuador

0 1 2 3 4 5

Attitude

While in Ecuador, I demonstrate willingness to:

12. Interact with host culture members (I did not avoid them or primarily seek out my Compatriots)

0 1 2 3 4 5

13. Learn from my hosts their language, and their culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

14. Try to communicate in Spanish and behave in 'appropriate' ways, as adjusted by my hosts

0 1 2 3 4 5

15. Deal with my emotions and frustrations with the host culture (in addition to the pleasures it offers)

0 1 2 3 4 5

16. Take on various roles appropriate to different situations (e.g., in the family, as a volunteer, etc).

0 1 2 3 4 5

17. Show interest in new cultural aspects (to understand the values, history, tradition, etc)

0 1 2 3 4 5

18. Try to understand differences in behaviours, values,

- attitudes, and styles of host members 0 1 2 3 4 5
19. Adapt my behaviour to communicate appropriately
in Ecuador (e.g., in non-verbal and other
behavioural areas, as needed for different
situations) 0 1 2 3 4 5
20. Reflect on the impact and consequences of my
decisions and choices on my hosts 0 1 2 3 4 5
21. Deal with different ways of perceiving,
expressing, interacting, and behaving. 0 1 2 3 4 5
22. Interact in alternative ways, even when quite
different from those to which I was accustomed
and preferred 0 1 2 3 4 5
23. Deal with the ethical implication of my choices
(in terms of decisions, consequences, results, etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
24. Suspend judgement and appreciate the complexities
of communicating and interacting interculturally 0 1 2 3 4 5

Skills

25. I demonstrated flexibility when interacting
with persons from the host culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
26. I adjusted my behaviour, dress, etc., as appropriate,
to avoid offending my hosts 0 1 2 3 4 5
27. I was able to contrast the host culture with
my own 0 1 2 3 4 5
28. I used strategies for learning the host language
and about the host culture 0 1 2 3 4 5

29. I demonstrated a capacity to interact appropriately
in a variety of different social situations in the
host culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
30. I used appropriate strategies for adapting to the host
culture and reducing stress 0 1 2 3 4 5
31. I used models, strategies, and techniques that aided
my learning of the host language and its culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
32. I monitored my behaviour and its impact on my
learning and my growth, and especially on my host 0 1 2 3 4 5
33. I use culture-specific information to improve my
style and professional interaction with my hosts 0 1 2 3 4 5
34. I helped to resolve cross-cultural
misunderstanding and conflicts when they arose 0 1 2 3 4 5
35. I employed appropriate strategies for adapting
to my own culture after returning home 0 1 2 3 4 5

Awareness

- While in Ecuador, I realised the importance of
36. Differences and similarities across my own
and the host language culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
37. My negative reactions to these differences (e.g.,
fear, ridicule, disgust, superiority, etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
38. How varied situations in the host culture required
modifying my interactions with others 0 1 2 3 4 5
39. How host culture members viewed me and why 0 1 2 3 4 5
40. My self ' as a culturally conditioned' with

- personal habits and preferences 0 1 2 3 4 5
41. Responses by host culture members to my own social identity (race, class, gender, age, etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
42. Diversity in the host culture (such as differences in race, class, gender, age, ability, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
43. Dangers of generalising individual behaviours as representative of the whole culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
44. My choices and their consequences (which made me either more, or less, acceptable by my hosts) 0 1 2 3 4 5
45. My personal values that affected my approach to ethical dilemmas and their resolution 0 1 2 3 4 5
46. My hosts' reactions to me that reflected their cultural values 0 1 2 3 4 5
47. How my values and ethics were reflected in specific situations 0 1 2 3 4 5
48. Varying cultural styles and language use, and Their effect in social and working situations 0 1 2 3 4 5
49. My own level of intercultural development 0 1 2 3 4 5
50. The level of intercultural development of those I worked with (other program participants, hosts, co-workers,etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
51. Factors that helped or hindered my intercultural Development and ways to overcome them 0 1 2 3 4 5
52. How I perceived myself as communicator, participant, mediator, in an intercultural situation 0 1 2 3 4 5

53. How others perceived me as communicator, 0 1 2 3 4 5
participant, mediator, in an intercultural situation

54. Is there anything else you would like to

Appendix G

Intercultural Communicative Competence Questionnaire

(Before Piloting)

Please answer by putting an (x) on the scale from 0 (not at all competent) to 5 (extremely high competence).

Knowledge

1. I could cite a definition of culture and describe its components and complexities 0 1 2 3 4 5
2. I knew the essential norms and taboos of the target culture (greetings, dress, behaviours, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
3. I could contrast important aspects of the target language and culture with my own 0 1 2 3 4 5
4. I recognised some signs of culture stress and some strategies for overcoming it 0 1 2 3 4 5
5. I knew some techniques to aid my learning of the target language and culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
6. I could contrast my own behaviours with those of the target culture in important areas (e.g., social interactions, basic routines, time orientation, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
7. I could cite important historical and socio-political factors that shape my own culture and the target culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
8. I could cite various learning processes and

strategies for learning about and adjusting to

the target culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

9. I could describe interactional behaviours common

among the English people in social and

professional areas (e.g., family roles, team

work, problem solving, etc.)

0 1 2 3 4 5

10. I could discuss and contrast various behavioural

patterns in my own culture with those in

the target culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

Attitude

I demonstrate willingness to:

11. Interact with members from other cultures

0 1 2 3 4 5

12. Learn from others their language and culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

13. Try to communicate in English and behave in

‘appropriate’ ways

0 1 2 3 4 5

14. Deal with my emotions and frustrations with

the target culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

15. Take on various roles appropriate to different

situations (e.g., in the family, as a volunteer, etc).

0 1 2 3 4 5

16. Show interest in new cultural aspects (to

understand the values, history, tradition, etc)

0 1 2 3 4 5

17. Try to understand differences in behaviours, values,

attitudes, and styles of the target culture members

0 1 2 3 4 5

18. Adapt my behaviour to communicate appropriately

in the target culture (e.g., in non-verbal and other

- behavioural areas, as needed for different situations) 0 1 2 3 4 5
19. Deal with different ways of perceiving, expressing, interacting, and behaving. 0 1 2 3 4 5
20. Interact in alternative ways, even when quite different from those to which I was accustomed and preferred 0 1 2 3 4 5
21. Suspend judgement and appreciate the complexities of communicating and interacting interculturally 0 1 2 3 4 5
22. Respect others' cultural values, customs, and behaviours 0 1 2 3 4 5
23. Be tolerant and empathetic towards the differences between the target culture and my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5

Skills

24. I demonstrated flexibility when interacting with persons from other cultures 0 1 2 3 4 5
25. I adjusted my behaviour, as appropriate, to avoid offending others 0 1 2 3 4 5
26. I was able to contrast and relate the target culture with my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
27. I used strategies for learning the English language and about the target culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
28. I demonstrated a capacity to interact appropriately in a variety of different social situations in the

- target culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
29. I used appropriate strategies for adapting to the target culture and reducing stress 0 1 2 3 4 5
30. I was capable of explaining my point of view about one's and others' cultural values, beliefs, And practices 0 1 2 3 4 5
31. I used strategies and techniques that helped my learning of the foreign language and its culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
32. I used culture-specific information to improve my style and interaction with others 0 1 2 3 4 5
33. I helped to resolve cross-cultural misunderstanding and conflicts when they arose 0 1 2 3 4 5
34. I employed appropriate strategies for adapting to my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5

Awareness

- I realise the importance of
35. Differences and similarities across my own and the target culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
36. My negative reactions to these differences (e.g., fear, disgust, superiority, etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
37. How varied situations in the target culture required modifying my interactions with others 0 1 2 3 4 5
38. My self 'as a culturally conditioned' with personal habits and preferences 0 1 2 3 4 5
39. Diversity in the target culture (such as differences

- in race, class, gender, age, ability, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
40. Dangers of generalising individual behaviours
as representative of the whole culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
41. My choices and their consequences (which made
me either more, or less, acceptable by others) 0 1 2 3 4 5
42. My personal values that affected my approach to
ethical dilemmas and and their resolution 0 1 2 3 4 5
43. Others' reactions to me that reflected their
cultural values 0 1 2 3 4 5
44. How my values and ethics were reflected in
specific situations 0 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix H

Intercultural Communicative Competence Questionnaire

(After Piloting)

Please answer by putting an (x) on the scale from 0 (not at all competent) to 5 (extremely high competence).

Knowledge

1. I could cite a definition of culture and describe its components and complexities 0 1 2 3 4 5
2. I knew the essential norms and taboos of the foreign culture (greetings, dress, behaviours, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
taboo is something prohibited by society
3. I could contrast important aspects of the foreign language and culture with my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
4. I recognised some signs of culture stress and some strategies for overcoming it 0 1 2 3 4 5
5. I knew some techniques to aid my learning of the foreign language and culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
6. I could contrast my own behaviours with those of the foreign culture in important areas (e.g., social interactions, basic routines, time orientation, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
7. I could cite important historical and socio-political factors that shape my own culture and the foreign culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
8. I could cite various learning processes and

strategies for learning about and adjusting to

the foreign culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

9. I could describe interactional behaviours common

among the English people in social and

professional areas (e.g., family roles, team

work, problem solving, etc.)

0 1 2 3 4 5

10. I could discuss and contrast various behavioural

patterns in my own culture with those in

the foreign culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

Attitude

I demonstrate the desire to:

11. Interact with members from other cultures

0 1 2 3 4 5

12. Learn from others their language and culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

13. Try to communicate in English and behave in

‘appropriate’ ways

0 1 2 3 4 5

14. Deal with my emotions and frustrations with

the foreign culture

0 1 2 3 4 5

15. Take on various roles appropriate to different

situations (e.g., in the family, as a volunteer, etc).

0 1 2 3 4 5

16. Show interest in new cultural aspects (to

understand the values, history, tradition, etc)

0 1 2 3 4 5

17. Try to understand differences in behaviours, values,

attitudes, and styles of the foreign culture members

0 1 2 3 4 5

18. Modify my behaviour to communicate appropriately

in the foreign culture (e.g., in non-verbal and other

- behavioural areas, as needed for different situations) 0 1 2 3 4 5
19. Deal with different ways of perceiving, expressing, interacting, and behaving. 0 1 2 3 4 5
20. Interact in alternative ways, even when quite different from those to which I was familiarised and preferred 0 1 2 3 4 5
21. Stop judgement and appreciate the complexities of communicating and interacting interculturally 0 1 2 3 4 5
22. Respect others' cultural values, customs, and behaviours 0 1 2 3 4 5
23. Be tolerant and empathetic towards the differences between the foreign culture and my own culture

Skills

24. I demonstrated flexibility when interacting with persons from other cultures 0 1 2 3 4 5
flexibility is the ability to be easily modified or willingness to change
25. I adjusted my behaviour, as appropriate, to avoid offending others 0 1 2 3 4 5
26. I was able to contrast and relate the foreign culture with my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
27. I used strategies for learning the English language and about the foreign culture 0 1 2 3 4 5

28. I demonstrated a capacity to interact appropriately
in a variety of different social situations in the
foreign culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
29. I used appropriate strategies for adapting to the foreign
culture and reducing stress 0 1 2 3 4 5
30. I was capable of explaining my point of view
about one's and others' cultural values, beliefs,
And practices 0 1 2 3 4 5
31. I used strategies and techniques that helped my
learning of the foreign language and its culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
32. I used culture-specific information to improve my
style and interaction with others 0 1 2 3 4 5
33. I helped to resolve cross-cultural
misunderstanding and conflicts when they arose 0 1 2 3 4 5
34. I employed appropriate strategies for adapting
to my own culture 0 1 2 3 4 5

Awareness

- I realise the importance of
36. Differences and similarities across my own
and the foreign culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
37. My negative reactions to these differences (e.g.,
fear, disgust, superiority, etc.) 0 1 2 3 4 5
38. How varied situations in the foreign culture required
modifying my interactions with others 0 1 2 3 4 5
39. My self 'as a culturally conditioned' with

- personal habits and preferences 0 1 2 3 4 5
40. Variety in the foreign culture (such as differences
in race, class, gender, age, ability, etc) 0 1 2 3 4 5
41. Dangers of generalising individual behaviours
as representative of the whole culture 0 1 2 3 4 5
42. My choices and their consequences (which made
me either more, or less, acceptable by others) 0 1 2 3 4 5
43. My personal values that affected my approach to
ethical difficulties and their resolution 0 1 2 3 4 5
44. Others' reactions to me that reflected their
cultural values 0 1 2 3 4 5
45. How my values and ethics were reflected in
specific situations 0 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix I: ICC Checklist

ICC Dimension	Objectives	Description/Indicator
Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Understanding the concept of culture - Knowledge of the target culture and target language -Knowledge of the native culture -Knowledge of the non-target culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Cultural facts about TC and others - Cultural beliefs rituals practices, non-verbal communication, taboos, etc. -Linguistic competence and communicative competence
Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stop making generalisations and judgements (stereotypes and prejudice) - Changing perspectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inferiority and superiority (stop judgements) -Openness , interest, respect, tolerance, empathy, understanding, and acceptance
Skills of interpreting and relating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To interpret different events or documents from the NC and to relate them to the TC or the opposite? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss events and compare and contrast them and reflect on one’s own culture

<p>Skills of discovery and interaction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identifying and explaining misunderstandings and problems - Discover information about the TC and others. - Solving cross-cultural communication (acting as a mediator) -Use appropriate strategies to interact appropriately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Identify intercultural communication problems and explain them in relation to their cultural context. -Searching for new cultural information using ethnographic tasks -argue about misunderstandings and help to solve them - interacting with others using knowledge, attitudes, and skills
<p>Awareness</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - evaluate and critically judge other cultures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - awareness of the significance of similarities and differences between native culture and the target culture -awareness of the danger of generalizations, stereotypes -awareness of the significance of one's values

Appendix I: Samples of Learners' Portfolios

Lesson 19: Nonverbal

communication +
Conversation between
Algerian and British
person.

- We learned that Nonverbal communication is the process of saying words without talking, just using body movement for example.
- There's so many ways of nonverbal communication and it differs from one country to another.

Lesson 18: starting conversation.

- British ppl tend to talk about weather so much just because their culture; because they respect privacy and safety just to avoid embarrassment.

So maybe some topics like talking about family relations are not acceptable for them.

Lesson 17: Women Independent and roles.

Women in Western cultures can do whatever they wanna do and choose the job they want but here this doesn't exist because of our religion and beliefs. A woman can't work as a taxi driver she will get bad reputation.

Lesson 16: Gender equality.

- The video was about Emma Watson, She is a feminist. She talked about women and men right, She supports gender equality.
- In our religion we cannot say that we are totally agree with gender equality because Islam gives us our rights.

Lesson 15: Punishment in Western cultures.

- In our culture we focus on the physical punishment which is the negative ones like beating for example.
- In western culture they focus on the positive punishment like left the boy or the girl alone at a closed room.

Americans when they put their babies (New borns) in others rooms. In my opinion we have to keep our babies close to us.

- Each country has its religion and its way of thinking, so if we talk about the way children are raised is differ from culture to other but we cannot say that this way is better than the other.

In New York city parents prefer to keep their children close to them but vice versa for the Scotland people. In Japan and China parents teach their children when they're young to study and work hard that's why they get high scores in mathematics and so on.

I think I like how New Yorker people in New York city keep their children close to them and take them wherever they go. But I'm not agree with

In America parents give their children their own bedrooms while in Britain they raise them in a tradition way given to nanes -

In African society Gucci they prefer to put their children on their backs (mother's back). When a mother get pregnant again she will give her child to another nanes.

All The parents in all the cultures care about ~~parental~~ but ~~they~~ they protect or raise them is different from one country to another. for example,

Lesson 14: Raising Children.

- Raising children is different from one country to another.

For example in Western culture like USA and UK parents like to see their children independent they told them that they are responsible for themselves and they have to be truly them and discover the world. They also teach them how to show loyalty to their country and respect to their parents and others superior.

drink juice but that's not true, in a restaurant they tend to drink Beer.

- for the 4th group they mentioned that Korean girls or people in general don't talk so much but that's very wrong, I know some people from South Korea and they told me that they talk so much with their friends. They just like to talk a lot.

feel like discussing about such things but we have to respect other cultures and religions.

Lesson 13: Acting (at a dinner table).

- We learned that dinner etiquettes differ from one country to another. We have to respect others. The session was really great and the topic too.

- I have only two comments that the 1st group said that Japanese ppl like to

So, what we can say is that types of food and times for food are different from one country to another.

Lesson 12: Alcohol.

- We saw in the video different types of Alcohol like wine and beer and how they produced in several cultures like Germany, Egypt and China and Australia.
- I think that I don't like this topic because I actually

Lesson 11: What time is lunch?

The text was about A British man went to Poland for working. When the time was for lunch at 2:30 pm he felt rather than hungry and the food was served at 3:00 pm; he was a bit disappointment because of the types of foods, but when he started eating he realised that the food is delicious. ~~then~~, after that he had a snack. At 6:00 pm he had dinner meal.

can discuss our thoughts.

Lesson 10: Collectivism Vs Individualism

- Collectivism values independence
ppl are more likely to see themselves in terms of relationships. They care about other's emotions.
- Individualism values dependence
ppl are more likely to see themselves as separate from others.
- The session was very great and
The topic too.

We learned that life is short
and we have to live every
moment, we mustn't give up;
it's okay to let things go
sometimes.

Lesson 09: The imagination of
the movie (now is good)
if it was here in Algeria.

- Working in groups is really great.
I don't like this kind of movies
I want to see new things. 15 min
to imagine a scene and write
it, it's not enough in my opinion.
We need more time, so we

Lesson 07: for my grandmother

Knitting

- The poem was a kind of difficult. There's a lot of words that I couldn't understand.

Lesson 08: the movie about
'Now is good'

- We watched the movie "Now is good". It was good, but it was hard to watch and understand it because of the problem on the computer. It was annoying but still going.

Lesson 06: The presentation
of "The Time's concept"

- I really liked this session. We have known things that we haven't known about how different cultures value time such as: USA, German, Japan, South Korea - - -
- Actually, I've been surprised with some informations because I didn't thought that some Asian countries do not value time so much like Indonesia and Malaysia. And yeah, I enjoyed the session.

session it was kinda good and I like it somewhat yeah.

Lesson 05: Waiting for trains
and planes.

Late Arrivals.

- It was a good session. We learned about British and American cultures how they deal with time.
- About the dialogue that we asked to write it. Actually I like it, And it was really great and so funny.

Lesson 04: Time in culture.

- We learned that ppl do not agree with the best use of time cause it differs from one country to another, for example in the USA people appreciate time it means money for them. But not here in Algeria, most people do not respect time, they usually come late, however there's here some ppl who come on time, so being late has a relation to the person himself. That's all.
- About what I think about the

to understand Elisabeth's story but at the end I realised everything. I think we need to make the session more funny ~~to be~~ ~~it's always~~

• 3th lesson: Algerian educational system.

• It was the best session. I really love it. It was great and funny. I know that all the students liked it because we can learn from each other and make the lesson easier.

• 3rd lesson: British educational system.

- It was kind of good. We learned about the British educational system. We could make difference between UK, England and Great Britain...

I couldn't participate as well. I don't know why I still feel shy about it. But

- I will work on it.

• 4th lesson: Driver's license.

- It wasn't good for me.

The text was a bit hard

• First lesson : culture.

- The first lesson was so boring.
But we learned so many thing
like Big C, Small C ...

• Second lesson : American school.

- Well, I like this lesson because
I like USA and everything
has a relation with it.

We learned about the curriculum
~~there~~ there, we learned some
new words such : bilingual,
funding. I think the text was
kinda easy. I guess it was
the best lesson in my opinion.

waiting for trains and planes

- Actually different cultures developed various views on time use.
- It's known that American people view time as money, that's why they say "time is money"
- The American culture places a big importance on punctuality that's why they don't accept that trains and planes have the right to be late.
So, here the American airlines tend to offer generous compensation like free tickets for the loss of time
- In Britain or the Netherland, people don't wait, they just leave.
- In Algeria, even the bus will be late, people wait
- It's not good to generalize something in a way of stereotype

Résumé

Le développement de la compétence communicative interculturelle (CCI) a gagné du terrain avec l'avènement de la mondialisation et des technologies Internet où l'exigence d'une communication réussie est devenue nécessaire. Par conséquent, l'CCI est devenue l'un des objectifs essentiels dans le domaine de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage des langues étrangères. La présente étude tente de mettre en œuvre un programme interculturel en vue de promouvoir la CCI auprès des étudiants de première année de l'ALE à l'Université de Jijel. Pour répondre aux besoins des apprenants, un questionnaire a été distribué à quatre-vingt-huit apprenants de l'ALE de première année à l'Université de Jijel. Les résultats ont révélé les préférences des apprenants quant aux sujets, matière, techniques et activités favorisant la compétence communicative interculturelle. Sur la base de ces résultats et du modèle de CCI proposé par Byram (1997), qui a inspiré l'ensemble de ce travail, un programme interculturel a été conçu puis mis en œuvre auprès d'un échantillon de 23 étudiants ALE de première année (le groupe expérimental). Un groupe témoin de 22 étudiants faisait aussi partie de cette recherche quasi-expérimentale. Pour évaluer l'efficacité du programme interculturel, une approche mixte a été utilisée, à savoir un questionnaire, un portfolio et le journal de réflexion de l'enseignant. Les résultats du pré-questionnaire et du post-questionnaire ont été analysés statistiquement grâce au test ANCOVA. Ils ont montré des différences significatives dans le niveau CCI des deux groupes en faveur du groupe expérimental car la valeur *p-value* était inférieure au niveau de la signification de probabilité ($\text{sig} = 0,024 < 0,05$). Cela confirme que le programme interculturel mise en œuvre a développé l'CCI des apprenants universitaires d'ALE de première année. Les résultats des portfolios des élèves et du journal de réflexion de l'enseignant appuient les mêmes résultats. Des suggestions pédagogiques ont été présentées à la lumière des résultats.

Mots-clés: besoins des apprenants, compétence communicative interculturelle, programme interculturel, analyse des besoins.

ملخص

يغطي موضوع "تطوير الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات" باهتمام متزايد مع بروز العولمة وتكنولوجيا الإنترنت والسعي الدؤوب لبلوغ الفعل التواصلية الناجح. ونتيجة لذلك، أصبح "تطوير الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات" أحد الأهداف الأساسية لميدان تعليم اللغات الأجنبية وتعلمها.

تسعى هذه الدراسة، انطلاقاً مما سبق، إلى تطبيق "منهج التعدد الثقافي" في أوساط متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية - بوصفها لغة أجنبية - من أجل تعزيز منهج "الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات"، خاصة مع بزوغ "المقاربات المتمركزة على المتعلم" وأقول تلك السائرة في فلك المعلم، حيث أصبح للمتعلمين رأي وحاجة ينبغي الإحاطة بهما في مساهمهم التعليمي وأثناء صياغة مناهجهم الدراسية.

عطفاً على ما سبق، تم توزيع استبيان على ثمانية وثمانين من طلاب السنة الأولى لغة الإنجليزية - بوصفها لغة أجنبية - يزاولون دراستهم في جامعة جيجل، وأظهرت النتائج ميول المتعلمين فيما يتعلق بالموضوعات والمواد والتقنيات والأنشطة المستخدمة لتعزيز "الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات". ومن ثم، فإن نتائج البحث ومراجعة أدبيات الدراسة أفضيا إلى ضرورة تصميم "منهج متعدد الثقافات". ولتنفيذ هذا المنهج، تم تقسيم عينة من 45 طالباً إلى مجموعتين تم اختيارها من طلاب السنة الأولى إنجليزية. تتكون المجموعة التجريبية من 23 طالباً، وتتكون المجموعة الضابطة من 22 طالباً. وعلى عكس المجموعة الضابطة، خضعت المجموعة التجريبية للمتغير المستقل وهو التدريس / التعلم باستخدام منهج متعدد الثقافات. أما لتقييم فعالية "منهج التعدد الثقافي"، فتم استخدام مقارنة البحث المندمج. وأجري تحليل نتائج الاختبار القبلي والبعدي إحصائياً من خلال تحليل اختبار التباين المتبادل (أنكوف). هذا الأخير أظهر فروقا ذات دلالة إحصائية على مستوى "الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات" لكلا المجموعتين، وذلك لصالح المجموعة التجريبية، حيث ظهرت القيمة "بي" أقل من مستوى الدلالة الاحتمالية. أخيراً، أظهرت النتائج أن "الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات" قد تعزز في المجموعة التجريبية بعد التحكم في نتائج الاختبار المسبق. وهذا ما يؤكد صحة الفرضية. من جهة أخرى، عززت النتائج المستقاة من حافظات الطلاب والمذكرات الشخصية للمدرسين تلك النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من خلال الاختبارين القبلي والبعدي. على ضوء هاته النتائج، تم اقتراح بعض التوجيهات البيداغوجية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: احتياجات المتعلمين، الكفاءة التواصلية بين الثقافات، المنهج بين الثقافات، تحليل الاحتياجات.