A Descriptive and Analytical Study of the Communicative Functions and the Pragmatic Force of the Exclamatory Sentences in Written Discourse: A Speech Acts Perspective

The Case of 3rd-Years, University of Jijel

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

- My father who taught me reading by being an exemplary avid reader

- My mother who is a protective umbrella against bad weather in my life

- My beloved sister, Radia, who was strongly supportive during my studies

- My best friends who were my heart-saving *defibrillator* whenever a dose of support was needed.

Acknowledgements

"Most of our misunderstandings of other people are not due to any inability to hear them or to parse their sentences or to understand their words. Such problems do occur of course. But a far more important source of difficulty in communication is that we so often fail to understand a speaker's [writer's] intention"

(Miller 1974, p.15).

Abstract

The present research work is an examination of exclamatory sentences from a pragmatic perspective. It aims at delineating these sentences place in Speech Act Theory. It also aims, through an experimental study, at verifying the efficacy of training third-year students at the Department of English, University of Jijel, to decipher the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences in literary excerpts by means of the heuristic strategy and its influence on their written discourse. It has been hypothesised that using exclamatory sentences effectively in written discourse is only possible when the students have the necessary intake of adequate knowledge about the pragmatic force of these sentences. The outperformance of the experimental group over the control group in the post-test results and their effective use of exclamatory sentences in their post-test writing task confirmed this research hypothesis. This research work additionally encompasses a descriptive study which aims at revealing third-year students' problems at the level of exclamatory sentences form-function pairing when realising the expressive speech act by virtue of a written discourse completion test and two questionnaires. The test detected the existence of such problems and the questionnaires divulged that the students' lack of pragmalinguistic competence as far as the exclamatory sentences are concerned is ascribed to their poor reading practice on one hand, and their Written Expression teachers' negligence in allocating attention to sentences meaning and context when teaching writing on the other. Accordingly, Written Expression teachers are called to integrate pragmatics into teaching writing for attaining the circumvention of their students' pragmalinguistic problems.

Key words: Exclamatory sentences, Speech Act Theory, pragmatic force, written discourse.

List of Abbreviations and Coding Conventions

Adj   Adjective

DCT   Discourse Completion Test

DPs   Determiner Phrases

EAP   English for Academic Purposes

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

Exp.   Experimental

L1   First Language

L2   Second Language

N   Noun

NG   Nominal Group

PRED Predicate

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General Introduction

"Make visible what without you, might never have been seen."
—Robert Bresson

(cited in Wolff, 2011, p. 16)

1. Statement of the Problem

It is widely acknowledged that attaining a high degree of proficiency in English entails appropriately using this language to serve various purposes in its spoken and written forms. These purposes cover, but are not limited to, showing an attitude toward something or venting strong emotions. Emanating such emotional expressiveness in writing is said to be elusive and this elusiveness is attributed to the dearth of paralinguistic and kinesic features. For this reason, coupling expressiveness with exclamativity is a requisite in written discourse as exclamatory sentences in their different forms can, to an extent, compensate this dearth.

By bringing exclamatory sentences under scrutiny, it was noticeable that these sentences have been traditionally overlooked in the study of language which resulted in a scarcity of resources that cast light on these language forms. Being problematic forms in syntax and semantics encouraged some scholars to examine them pragmatically. However, the shadings of opinions among pragmaticians raised more questions about these sentences than answered them. In addition, to the best of my knowledge, all the studies with respect to exclamatory sentences are of a descriptive nature such as Rett (2011, 2008a, 2008b), Collins (2005), Portner & Zanuttini (2005), Michaelis (2001), Elliot (1974, 1971) and no single study discussed the *teachability* of these sentences from a pragmatic perspective.

These sentences significance is unquestionable in expressing strong emotions and they are precisely as important as the other types of sentences. Nonetheless, they are also overlooked by EFL learners. The preliminary analysis of third-year students' written performance at the Department of English, University of Jijel revealed that they seem to be lacking the knowledge with respect to these sentences' communicative functions and pragmatic force in written discourse. For this reason, It is assumed that developing their knowledge about the pragmatic value and the load of such sentences through extensive analysis of literary excerpts will lead them, as it will be investigated, to acquire the *know-what* and *know-how* about these sentences and correspondingly judiciously use such sentences in their writings.

2. Aims of the Study

The aims of the study are manifold and delineated to be both analytical and practical. For analytical purposes, the study attempts to scrutinise the pragmatics of these sentences and specifically their place in Speech Act Theory. The study tries to explore third-year students' knowledge with regard to exclamatory forms, their ability to decipher these forms' pragmatic force and to pair them with their functions when realising the expressive speech act. For practical purposes, it attempts to investigate the efficacy of adopting literary excerpts and the heuristic method in Written Expression classes for training the students to successfully determine the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences and, thus, induce them to appropriately use these sentences in their writings to appropriately communicate their intended meanings.

3. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The study sought to answer the following specific research questions.

- Where is the place of exclamatory sentences in Speech Act Theory?

- What are the exclamatory forms that third-year students are cognizant of?

- Are the students able to pair the exclamatory forms with their appropriate functions when realising the expressive speech act?

- What are the teachers' views about the pragmatic competence of third-year students and their attitudes towards exclamatory sentences?

- Will the students be able to recognise the types of feelings the exclamatory sentences communicate through ongoing analysis of written discourse, specifically literary excerpts? Will they be able to decipher their pragmatic force?

- If students recognise the significance and the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences, will they know how to employ them in their writings?

In the light of these questions, it could conceivably be hypothesised that using exclamatory sentences in writing is only possible when learners have the necessary *intake* of adequate knowledge about the pragmatic force of such sentences.

4. Research Tools and Methodology

To answer the research questions and check the hypothesis, two research groups –an experimental and a control group– of third-year students (30 students in each) are involved. These groups are first pre-tested at the level of their writing to check their use of exclamatory sentences and then at the level of their knowledge about these language forms to check their parity. The experimental group receives a treatment represented in an exposure to 10 literary excerpts and being trained to decipher the pragmatic force of the exclamatory sentences occurring in these excerpts through the Heuristic Strategy. They are also given oral feedback with respect to these sentences' intonation. The control group receives no treatment and is taught with no reference to exclamatory sentences. At the end of the treatment, both groups are post-tested and the students' scores difference are calculated to verify the students' pragmalinguistic development with regard to exclamatory sentences and the use of these sentences in writing.

For the descriptive study, it is set out to answer the research questions related to the students' knowledge about the form-function pairing of exclamatory sentences when realising

the expressive speech acts. 60 third-year students undertake a written discourse completion test. To probe into a descriptive view of these students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences, these students also answer a questionnaire. Last but not least, and to elicit data about the teachers' views about exclamatory sentences, a teachers questionnaire is administered among 8 writing teachers at the Department.

5. Structure of the Thesis

The present thesis is of five chapters. The first three chapters are for the theoretical stance, while the remaining two chapters treat of the experiment. Chapter One lays out the theoretical dimensions of the research and discusses how writing is described as a skill in learning English as a foreign language and as a means of communication. It evenly tries to relate this skill to thinking and to two other language skills: speaking and reading. The chapter also encompasses a description of the theories of the writing process, the various approaches to teaching writing and the different factors influencing the feedback given to students on their writings.

Chapter Two considers the syntax and the semantics of exclamatory sentences. It first denotes the term exclamatory sentence and then examines exclamatory forms in English: declarative exclamatory sentences, wh-exclamatives, elliptical exclamatives, inverted exclamatives, nominal exclamatives, elliptical exclamatory sentences, embedded exclamatory sentences, echo exclamatory sentences and interjections. The chapter also discusses the delineation of the forms which show their properties. This is accompanied with examples written by the researcher. Providing more characteristics about exclamatives than any other form of exclamativity in English is merely ipso facto the availability of research literature about exclamatives and the scarcity about others.

Chapter Three contextualises the research by providing background information on pragmatics and particularly the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences. It initially seeks to

select a definition of pragmatics from a view that aligns with the present study and defines some of its keynotes that are significant in the analysis of exclamatory sentences such as context, encoding and decoding and the sentence utterance distinction. This chapter elucidates pragmatic competence and how it is developed, especially pragmalinguistic competence as it is squarely linked to this study. It also sheds light on Speech Act Theory, briefly introduces speech acts and the conditions for learning them. Much importance in this chapter is given to the pragmatic force, its elements and its illocutionary indicating devices, specifically intonation and to the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences. It garners some studies that tackled problematical pragmatic issues with respect to exclamatory sentences and summarises their principal findings with respect to their views of these sentences' position in Speech Act Theory.

Chapter Four is concerned with the methodology employed for the experimental study and analyses the data gathered. It describes the sample of the study, gives an insightful introduction to the experimental design and its conditions. Then it delineates the experimental approach and the instrumentation utilised represented in the pre-test form, the treatment and the post-test form. This chapter also explains the method of scoring the tests and the formulas used in calculating the differences between these tests' scores. The obtained results are also exposed and compared to verify the hypothesis.

Chapter Five focuses on the descriptive study. It introduces the written discourse completion test as a pragmatic research tool and then delineates the written discourse completion test used to verify the students' cognizance of the exclamatory forms and their ability to pair these forms with their appropriate communicative functions. Additionally, it describes the students questionnaire administered to be a complementary source of information to the findings of the written discourse completion task and to investigate the learning context of exclamatory sentences and the students' attitudes toward these language

forms. Last but not least, this chapter details the teachers questionnaire administered to teachers of writing in the Department of English, University of Jijel, analyses and discusses its results.

Chapter 1
Writing As a Context to the Study of Exclamatory Sentences

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Introduction

To narrow the scope of the literature review to fit the thesis theme and provide a context to the present study, this first chapter attempts to give the reader an overview of writing as one of the four language skills besides speaking, listening and reading. It provides the definitions of this skill from different perspectives and purposefully relates it to thinking, speaking, reading and communication. This chapter also outlines the theories of the writing process, along with the advantages and disadvantages of some approaches adopted when teaching this medium of communication in the EFL classroom. Last but not least, it briefly introduces some feedback forms that could be used in responding to the students' written works.

1.1. Writing Definition

Writing cannot have the same meaning in various contexts and cultures. Many disciplines showed their interest in this medium and studied it from different views; hence diverse conceptions of how this medium functions and how it should be explored emerged. Obviously, the substantial evolution of writing throughout history is ascribed to the development of technology (Coulmas, 2003) and this logically resulted in a change of how people look at it or define it. Hyland (2003), for example, defines writing as a set of either on screen symbols or symbols put down on paper. It is a logical combination of words, clauses, and sentences arranged by a number of rules. It is clearly observable, then, that the definition of writing is no longer restricted to the use of a pen and a paper, but nowadays extended into the use of the computer or other electronic devices thanks to the development of technology.

A broadened definition of writing was provided by Coulmas (2003) who states that partially due to the various meanings an English word can communicate and both the long

history and the crucial significance of this language skill, it is well-nigh impossible to give a truly lucid definition of writing. For this reason, he states the following six definitions respectively:

> (1) a system of recording language by means of visible or tactile marks, (2) the activity of putting such system to use; (3) the result of such activity, a text; (4) the particular form of such a result, a script style such as block letter writing; (5) artistic composition; (6) a professional occupation. (p. 1)

Another definition might be a core module for EFL learners in all the Algerian universities curricula whereby the students' language proficiency is assessed. In this module, EFL learners are supposed to genuinely prove their writing competence and be evaluated accordingly.

The definition of writing can also be based on different orientations which give importance to particular characteristics or features. As a way of example, *the structural orientation* adopts the notion that writing is successfully combining syntax with lexis. Meanwhile, the *functional approach* sees writing as not solely the ability to combine those two things, but rather the ability to choose the befitting language structures to achieve the intended communicative purposes (Hyland, 2003).

1.2. What Good Writing Is

To Hyland (2003), there is no one feature wherewith to say that a piece of writing is good or not. Using correct grammatical constructions and achieving certain complexity of forms do not reflect any improvement in this skill. That is to say, these two elements do not necessarily emanate from how any written performance is good, simply because there are learners who are able to form grammatically accurate sentences, yet unable to create well-written pieces. Additionally, not making many mistakes on their part can be merely a sign of hesitation and not of mastery.

Vallis (2010) relates good writing to the right selection of words. She suggests that accomplishing good writing is not about putting one's thoughts in the right order. It is rather

enquiring into the world of words. In other words, the writer should differentiate between what the words mean and what s/he wants them to mean.

Earlier on, Nunan (1989) set out the elements that should be followed by any writer to reach successful writing at both the sentence level and beyond. According to him, successful writing encompasses different elements: 1. controlling mechanics; 2. complying with both spelling and punctuation rules; 3. reaching the intended meaning through the use of accurate grammatical constructions; 4. arranging the paragraphs and the whole text to faithfully convey a particular message; 5. getting an amended version of what has been written via revision and choosing a style that is suitable for the audiences' expectations.

1.3. Reasons for Writing

When probing deeper into writing, a question that may occupy one's mind is about the reasons behind doing the act of writing. People do things for different purposes and this spurs them to question themselves about why they write. According to Hughey (1983), a large number of students view writing as a classroom activity that is directed to pleasing their teacher or simply answering questions. Writing for these learners is a separate action that is addressed to one reader who is their teacher and through which their performance is assessed. In this case, the kinds of compositions students produce are forgettable and merely represent the teacher's insights into different ideas rather than the students' ones. If it is so, then the learners' final products are not genuine because they are devoid of idiosyncratic way of putting ideas across. Hughey (1983) sees that writing should not be limited to the classroom setting, but that writing teachers should make their students aware of the advantages of writing inside and outside the walls of the classroom. She goes on saying that in addition to composing well-written pieces, learners should also look at this skill as a helpful medium that they will depend on in their lives. Writing is, Hughey (1983) adds, a *lifetime skill* that "serves

four crucial, enduring purposes for the learner: communication, critical thinking and problem solving, self-actualization, and control of personal environment" (p. 33).

Writing is indeed a crucial mode of communication for it helps people show different sentiments, thoughts, beliefs and the reasons behind thinking. By putting ideas across, the people can perceive the world surrounding them and become critical thinkers. In making ideas visible, one can detect possible defect in their cognizance and thinking. The writer becomes a reader who is able to examine and assess their ideas, accept or reject them and consequently start to perceive them from different viewpoints. The other writing purpose is to also help broaden the grasp of the inner self: it helps people know who they actually are, what they are capable of doing and their aims. By communicating with one self, writing enables people to use their inner abilities to analyse various features about them as individuals; it can help them associate, interpret and reshape different pieces of information which result in discovering endless new ideas and thus making them advance and evolve. Based on this self-actualisation, aka self-realisation, which is achieved through writing, learners can successfully meet their objectives and expectations such as writing research papers to prove that they fully perceive others' thoughts and are able to integrate them with theirs. Writing is indeed an act of self-discovery (Hughey, 1983).

EFL learners often overlook the true significance of writing for they only take an interest in having a pass mark in this module. On the contrary, these students ought to understand, with the help of their teachers, that writing is the medium through which they can express themselves to the outside world and ultimately receive knowledge from this world.

1.4. Differences between L1 and L2/EFL Writing

Silva (1993) conducted a study in which he thoroughly examined and reviewed seventy two research reports to uncover the discrepancies between the L1 and L2/EFL written compositions. The results of his meticulous examination revealed that L2/EFL writing differs

from L1 writing at various levels. In effect, in comparison with native speakers' compositions, the L2/EFL written ones contain fewer expressions and more errors. As far as discourse is concerned, the L2/EFL writers are said to be less effectual than their L1 counterparts in terms of describing, arguing, narrating, responding to examinations written tasks and employing their background reading. Additionally, the readers of L2/EFL writers are generally poorly and inadequately orientated. Stylistically speaking, the L2/EFL written pieces are deemed as simpler in structure. The L2/EFL writers, in fact, use fewer long and subordinate clauses than coordinate ones and few modified nouns and passivised verbs. As for the cohesive devices, L2/EFL writers express coherence through conjunctions more than lexical cohesion means and showed less variation in use, complexity or manipulation.

For the present study, what is salient in the differences between L1 and L2/EFL compositions is the use of linguistic features. EFL learners need to know how, when and when not to use some linguistic features, such as exclamatory sentences, as will follow subsequently.

1.5. Writing and Thinking

Prior to examining the relation between writing and thinking, conceptualising the latter is required. The following definition of thinking is to be adopted here to evade digging deeper into disparate delineations that are irrelevant to the present study. Thus,

> thinking is what our minds do. Thinking encompasses everything we know and remember, consciously or not; our beliefs and values; our opinions, attitudes, and feelings; and thinking includes every kind of mental activity our minds are capable of: our ability to perceive, distinguish, imagine evaluate, judge, reason; the list could go on. (Smit, 2004, p. 100)

Remarkably, Smit (2004)'s overview encapsulated almost all parts of writing in a few lines and more importantly covered the mental activities that thinking include and which are also parts of the writing process.

A student, a professor, a scientist, a journalist, a business executive, a novelist and a diarist appear to be dissimilar in terms of the feats they have to perform while doing their work. However, when it comes to write, they share the same purpose: they need to express their thoughts through linguistic symbols and create texts for the sake of transmitting a clear and straightforward message to their readers. By indulging in such an activity of meaning-making, all those *writers* seem to ensure their absolute uniqueness (Kellogg, 1994). Kellogg sees that writing is about encoding one's personal thoughts to be communicated publicly. Writers are committed to representing their emotions, thoughts and experiences so that they are intelligible, which is indeed a tedious, strenuous and challenging matter to do. For that writing is always seen to be embedded in thinking and vice-versa. In fact, "important insights into writing processes can be gleaned from careful analyses of written products" (Witte and Cherry, 1986, p. 112). Accordingly, it is by analysing students writing, that one can see into how students think, what they think about and how much they lack knowledge.

Although the relationship between writing and thinking is indisputable, it is not as clear as it seems but rather problematic. The promoters of the notion that writing and thinking are directly and causally connected claim what Smit (2004) summarises as follows:

- Writing is a kind of transcribed thought. (A tenet of much of the process movement and those who promote free writing "just help students get their thoughts down on paper.")
- Writing improves learning and thinking. (A tenet of writing-to-learn and much of the writing-across-the-curriculum movement.)
- Better thinking will result in better writing; to teach thinking is in fact tantamount to teaching writing. (A tenet of much critical pedagogy and cultural studies pedagogies.). (p. 99)

However, Smit (2004) in his critique of these assumptions considers them as overstatements. Writing, he states, is sometimes an enunciation of thought but is not a written thought per se. It can promote thinking, yet this effect is limited to some circumstances. In addition to that, the improvement in writing about a particular subject is not necessarily

attributed to successfully thinking critically about that subject and there is no tangible evidence for that writing can broaden one's cognitive abilities.

For further elucidation in relation to the present study, one should draw attention to the premise that written pieces can represent, to an extent, the students' thoughts but they are not a representation of all their thoughts; the researcher then should not completely depend on this written performance to check the students' knowledge but should also employ other methods as asking direct questions.

1.6. Writing and Speaking

The writing-speaking dichotomy should not be disparaged in this study as writing is better understood by being compared to speaking. Previous to the nineteenth century, language had been considered to be truly shaped through writing and works of literature and not through speaking which was rather unworthy in research studies and linguistic analyses at that time. It is until the nineteenth century that speaking gained value in research studies. Consequently, instead of being equally analysed, a tendency to make speaking prior to writing has arisen and been advocated by linguists like Sapir (1921) Bloomfield (1933), Hall (1964), Postal (1966), Fillmore (1981) and Arnoff (1985).

Within this notion of prioritising speech, there was a lack of motivation for making a comparison between them. Although writing was considered a secondary form of language, this was only in linguistics because outside linguistics, literature kept dominating the laymen's viewpoint (Biber, 1988).

Speaking is a distinctive mode of communication whose function is primarily to preserve social connections. In addition to being based on the phoneme system, it is active, temporary and its time is constrained. Consequently, it is unplanned and done under compulsion, which does not give any opportunity to the speakers to well structure their sentences and define their boundaries. Speakers tend to use simple and informal words and contractions, and the

withdrawal of these words when speaking is not possible. Additionally, the presence of the communicative partner in speaking guarantees a receipt of an immediate feedback on what has been said and the presence of extralinguistic features, such as stress and intonation, is one of its peculiar features (Crystal, 2003).

Contrary to speaking, writing is generally used for memorising facts. It is based on the grapheme system. As it is stable, enduring and restricted to space, it is painstakingly structured. Its sentences boundaries are identified thanks to the pivotal role that the punctuation marks play. The words used in writing are more complex and they can easily be deleted in later phases of revision. Unlike speaking, the absence of the communicative partner deprives writers of receiving any kind of immediate feedback on what it has been written. In addition, writing is completely devoid of extralinguistic features like stress and intonation (Crystal, 2003). Intonation will be discussed further down as it is important in the study of exclamatory sentences.

1.7. Writing and Reading
1.7.1. Reading Defined

Prior to linking writing and reading in the present thesis, a definition of reading is essentially required. Reading is defined as "the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language and the context of the reading situation" (Wixson & Peters, 1984, p. 5). Fischer (2003) says that reading is the act of understanding written signs or graphemes. These signs are used to retrieve *information* from the reader's memory and afterwards employ it in interpreting the communication of the writer. This, however, is not always the definition of reading because at the outset,

> it was the simple faculty of extracting visual information from any encoded system and comprehending the respective meaning. Later it came to signify almost exclusively the comprehending of a continuous text of well written signs on an inscribed surface. More recently it has included the extracting of encoded information from an electronic screen. And reading's definition will doubtless continue to expand

in future, as with any faculty, it is also a measure of humanity's own advancement. (p. 11)

Fischer (2003) identifies two kinds of reading, namely *mediate* and *immediate*. People, he claims, start with mediate reading which is relating sounds to letters then advance to immediate reading which is relating meaning to these letters. Achieving successful reading is dependent upon the following acts according to Nunan (1989): relating graphic marks to sounds, using linguistic competence to decode the meaning encoded, employing multiple skills while reading like skimming and scanning depending on the aim behind reading, associating the one's knowledge about subject to the content of the text and recognising the functions of single sentences and their *rhetorical intention*, for example, being able to identify if the writer is defining or giving a summary even when this is not explicitly stated.

Celcia-Murcia and Olshtain (2002) referred to what a reader does in an attempt to perceive a written piece as follows:

> In the process of trying to understand a written text the reader has to perform a number of simultaneous tasks: *decode* the message by recognizing the written signs, *interpret* the message by assigning meaning to the string of words, and finally, *understand* what the author's intention was. In this process, there are at least three participants: *the writer*, *the text*, and *the reader* (p. 119)

They also referred to the intrinsic interactive nature of reading. Despite the absence of the writer at the very moment of reading a text, the writer virtually interacts with the reader through the text because while producing it they had the objective of conveying a message to their readers.

As other faculties, reading is done with different purposes in mind. The list of the academic purposes of reading entails, but not limited to, 1. reading for seeking knowledge, otherwise known as scanning and skimming, 2. reading for rapidly comprehending information, assessing it, integrating it and 3. writing a critique about it. Moreover, it can be done with an intention to learn (Grabe, 2009).

1.7.2. The Relation between Reading and Writing

The relationship between reading and writing was discussed in the past twenty years. Reading was seen as a completely different act from writing in terms of cognitive exertion. At that time, readers were looked at as inactive recipients, whereas writers as active ones. However nowadays, this notion is proved to be a fallacy and both writers and readers are deemed to be active. Additionally, scholars advocate that reading positively affects the learners' writing, although it is not easy for that to be proved. Despite the fact that writing may, in one sense, be similar to reading because both rely on the linguistic knowledge, it is clearly different from it. While reading is about grasping the meaning of a text, writing is about composing the text. These two dissimilar purposes require the use of knowledge in different ways. Thinking in writing and in reading is not the same even when the topic being discussed is. This is why students do not automatically learn to write when they know how to read a piece of, say, prose (Hampton and Resnick, 2009).

Whatever might be said, reading and writing are interlinked. For example, when one reads, they generally take notes and when someone pens, they read what they have penned before the audience does. People read in order to have a clue about the additions the writer may include in their piece, to check the effectiveness of their selection and to imagine the reader's attitude toward the piece. It is during the writing process that writers have to be acutely conscious of the message they are trying to convey. They also have to consider some factors that shape the reader's conceptions such as giving importance to the audience needs, having a clear aim behind writing and maintaining coherence in the piece of writing (Hampton and Resnick, 2009).

Reading and writing are also interlaced in the sense that reading can support writing. During the reading process, students learn words, language structures, and the characteristics of different writing styles. They also become acquainted with different linguistic features of

texts in a variety of subjects. Professional writers employ a number of resources of language for forming a text that emotionally and aesthetically affect their readers. Good readers, on their part, can use these resources while writing. Students also study the writer's purposes by reacting to texts, puzzling over, discussing or inscribing the writer's selections. When reading, learners are supposed to painstakingly analyse the texts and probe deeply into the reasons behind passing a piece of information, favouring a selection of words over another and choosing certain examples. Doing so is believed to be useful to learners for it supports their learning of writing, as it allows them to acquire the strategies that would facilitate for them reaching their aims in writing. Furthermore, the students can know of the writer's purposes by giving feedback on their own selections or receiving it. Obviously, the relation between writing and reading is strong and cannot be discounted. Thus, students are in need for a reflective curriculum that stresses the importance of betterment in both skills (Hampton and Resnick, 2009).

Earlier, Krashen (1981) claimed that "reading remains the only way of developing competence in writing" (p. 9). Unfortunately, in the English Department at the University of Jijel, reading is not taught as a separate module whereby the students would become familiar with analysing texts and learning different reading strategies.

1.8. Writing and Communication

The purpose behind learning language is communication (Hymes, 1972; Wilkins, 1972) and when language is used as such, it is labelled discourse (Cook, 1989). On the purpose behind communicating, Parret (1974) as cited in Widdowson (1980) believes that "in communicating we express our thoughts in the hope that the listener [or the reader] understands what we are saying. We may be hoping to persuade him, to inform that we believe such-and-such, and so on" (p. 52).

In taking communication as a primary purpose of language use, a new approach called the Communicative Approach sprang to teaching language. As an adherent of adopting this approach in teaching writing in particular, Widdowson (1980) called for a reasonable application of this approach when teaching without reaching any distorting exaggeration or excess. The purpose of teaching language through this approach is developing the learner's ability to exert language when they think or act. This however should not be narrowed down to only covering the teaching of how to express some notions or how to perform some speech acts. It should rather cover learning how to combine conceptual and communicative functions in discourse through some techniques such as expansion and reduction. Written discourse resembles the spoken one in terms of the rudimentary, interactive discourse-making process the communicative partners go through. Nonetheless, the fact that it is devoid of reciprocity which provides an opportunity of negotiation between the interlocutors and that the writer is exempt from receiving an instant feedback makes the latter embark on an expansion on the conceptual content to clearly communicate their message. In writing, this process is partially represented by a text. In reading, however, this order is reversed in the sense that the reader rather elicits a process from the text produced. S/he embarks on a reduction of the conceptual content to match their cognition and reading objectives. Widdowson explains "in general terms, that in writing expansion provides the means whereby the conceptual function can come to terms with the communicative and in reading reduction provides the means whereby the communicative function can come to terms with the conceptual" (p. 242).

Furthermore, in dealing with communication the question is how it is attained. The Message Model which was used to represent the human linguistic communication, referred to by Akmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish (2001), suggests that the success of linguistic communication is only achieved when the hearer (and this can be applicable to the reader as well) deciphers the same message encoded by the speaker (or writer). Communication

breakdowns, therefore, occur when the two messages are completely different. This model, however, suffers from some shortcomings that stem from the inability to cover the richness of the human language use. It necessitates assuming that language is not ambiguous. It does not accept any reference in language use. According to this model, the meaning of the sentence should designate the writer's communicative intention. It supports the literal image of language along with directness in its use and in the process; it limits the means of the linguistic communication to the use of words, phrases and sentences. Moreover, the defectiveness of this model lies in that ambiguity is part of language and the hearer/reader has to select from a number of possible interpretations of a linguistic expression, that is to guess the speakers' or the writer's intention. The occurrence of reference in language is doubtless and is not merely designated by means of the different meanings of the expressions used. The communicative intention is not always understood through the meaning of the linguistic expression. This model does not account for the non-literal aspect of language. The meaning is sometimes more than what it is communicated and there occurs indirectness in communication. Finally, communication is not always the purpose of people's language use; language can be used for other purposes such as baptising someone.

The other model that is concerned with communication and which gives it another view is the Inferential Model. It proposes the notion that the success of communication is possible when the hearer (also the reader) knows the speaker's (writer's) communicative intention. In other words, "linguistic communication works because the speaker and the hearer share a system of inferential strategies leading from utterance of an expression to the hearer's recognition of the speaker's communicative intent" (Akmajian et al, 2001, p. 370). Unlike the Message Model that theorises the idealisation of linguistic communication, the Inferential Model connects between language expressions and the communicative intentions through

reference, context and presumptions. Such elements which are part of the pragmatics of language will be subsequently discussed in Chapter Three.

1.9. Theories of the Writing Process

Successful writing is not an accidental act; it is rather the result of a series of steps in a process that the writer goes through: the *writing process*. According to Murray (1972), the writing process is of three steps: prewriting, writing and rewriting. Prewriting is anything that precedes the act of writing. Writers spend approximately 85% of their writing time on this stage in which they allocate their attention to determining the subject of writing, selecting their audience and choosing from the suitable forms which can clearly communicate this subject to their audience. "Prewriting may include research and daydreaming, note-making and outlining, title-writing and lead-writing" (p. 4). Writing is the act of penning the first draft in a relatively very short period of time equals to 1% of the writing time. It is a formidable phase, Murray (1972) explains, because in it the writers commit themselves to the act of writing. The significance of this phase lies in helping the writers recognise their knowledge and lack of knowledge after finishing their draft. Rewriting is the act of re-examining and revising the written piece. In this stage, writers spend 14% of their time in verifying the subject matter of their written work, reconsidering to whom it has been written and how it should be done, through amending sentences and selecting appropriate words.

Later on, Hayes and Flower (1980) established an influential model of the writing process. Their model covers three basic elements: task environment, cognitive processes and the writer's long-term memory. First, task environment is every external influence on the written production. Second, cognitive processes are the different cognitive practices that writers use. This involves planning which is about setting aims; creating and orchestrating concepts, translating which is about transforming these abstract concepts into visible ones and reviewing which is about honing the writer's production. What is important in these steps is

that they are flexible and they may intertwine. That is to say, the writer occasionally halts and turns back to the preceding step even after s/he has finished writing. Last but not least, long-term memory involves the writer's stored information about a given topic, the readers to whom s/he writes and the writing schemes (see Figure 1).
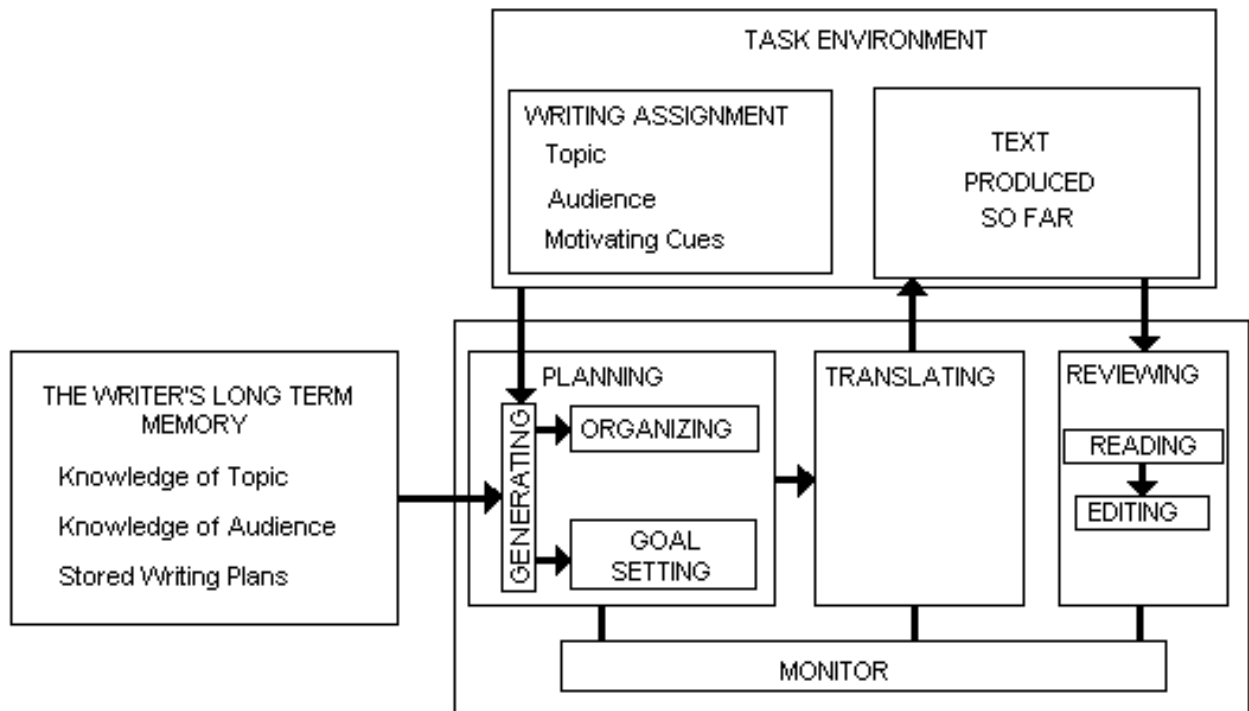
Figure 1. Hayes and Flower's (1980) Model of the Writing Process
(Hayes & Flower, 1980, p. 11)

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) set two composing processes whereby written pieces are produced: the Knowledge Telling Model and the Knowledge Transforming Model. The Knowledge Telling Model describes the cognitive process that novice writers go through during composition. These writers form a mental portrayal of the writing task via identifying the topic and the kind of writing to be produced. This allows for a search in memory for the appropriate information that could be employed when composing and that could befit the text type. It is to be noted, however, that in this model, both well formation and coherence are not consciously and deliberately sought by the writer. They are, rather, more automatically achieved during the process. Unlike the Knowledge Telling Model that describes novice writers process, the Knowledge Transforming Model painstakingly explains professional

writers process. This model has a focal role in developing the writer's knowledge. It relates "text processing" with "knowledge processing". In this model, the knowledge telling process remains to be one of its parts alongside two types of what Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) call "problem spaces". The first space is the "content space" in which problems of insights and views are circumvented. The second space is the "rhetorical space" in which problems about reaching the writing aims are considered. The two spaces are linked by showing that the production of one space could be used as contribution to the other (p. 11).

Hayes (1996) shaped up the 1980 model and that resulted in a new model of the writing process (see Figure 2). This new model differs from Hayes and Flower's model in terms of four central aspects. Firstly, it highlights the significance of the vital role that memory plays in composition. Secondly, it subsumes the embodiment of "spatial" and "linguistic" features which are important in understanding what it has been communicated in a piece of writing. Thirdly, "motivation" and "affect" were significantly added to the model as the writing processes are based on them. Last but not least, the model has been reconstructed with respect to its steps. Thus, "text interpretation" has substituted "revision", reflection was extended to comprise "planning" and text production process incorporated translation (p. 5).

THE TASK ENVIRONMENT

The Social Environment
- The audience
- Collaborators

The Physical Environment
- The text so far
- The composing medium

THE INDIVIDUAL

MOTIVATION/AFFECT
- Goals
- Predispositions
- Beliefs and Attitudes
- Cost/Benefit Estimates

WORKING MEMORY
- Phonological Memory
- Visuospatial Sketchpad
- Semantic Memory

COGNITIVE PROCESSES
- Text Interpretation
- Reflection
- Text Production

LONG-TERM MEMORY
- Task Schemas
- Topic Knowledge
- Audience Knowledge
- Linguistic Knowledge
- Genre Knowledge

Figure 2. Hayes' (1996) Model of the Writing Process (p. 4)

Harmer (2004) divides the writing process into four stages: planning, drafting, editing; and final version. In planning, the writer ponders about what s/he is going to write. This stage is considered as a decision-making step because the writer makes his/her decision about what

they are going to communicate. Planning, however, can be in different forms and considerably differs from one person to another. That is to say, some people prefer to write some words quickly on a paper while others prefer to keep their thoughts on their heads. What is necessary is that they think. In this step one should give much importance to the aim behind writing because it influences the style of a piece. It is according to the aim that the writer can select which form and words to use while communicating their ideas. Furthermore, skilful writers also have to think about their readers in this stage because doing so helps them in using befitting words, selecting appropriate language structures and successfully use or not formal or informal language. Finally, in this stage they have to take into consideration the basis of their selection to their thoughts' arrangements. Writing is like building houses, the builder cannot start putting the parts of the house together without having the architect's plan. Thus the writer has to make a plan before writing down.

The second stage of the process is making a draft. In drafting, writers make their thoughts visible. The writer transforms the thoughts into sentences and also bears in mind that the draft will be revamped in the coming stages. Thus, it is logical to make many drafts before reaching the editing and final version stages.

Editing is also significant in the writing process. After writing their thoughts, writers always read their piece of writing to check whether what they have written is suitable. They also check if their thoughts are logically ordered and if the message communicated in their piece is clear or ambiguous. By so doing, the writers might change the order of the paragraphs or change the sentences. They can probably replace some words by other ones in sentences. Successful writers, generally, check the general meaning and the structure of a piece before scrutinising the details like words choice and grammar correctness which are both significant in writing. The revision stage can be done by other people and not only by the writer himself/herself. This reader might suggest amendments or provide the writer with

comments on a given piece because this reader's attitude towards the written work will definitely help the writer to ameliorate their piece.

After editing their piece by adjusting the structures and bringing different amendments to it, the writers come to make a final version which might be completely different from what they have planned or what they have drafted and this is ascribed to the changes that happened in the editing stage. In this final step, this final piece is what the readers must receive.

These stages, however, are non-linear (see Figure 3) in the sense that they can be applied repeatedly. The writer might plan, draft, and edit, but later change their opinion to repeat the same stages which means to plan, draft and edit for the second time. They may also jump over planning and directly start drafting and later go through the different aforementioned phases as in the case of some novelists.

Figure 3. The Process Wheel by Jeremy Harmer (2004, p. 6)

1.10. Teaching Writing Approaches

It is generally acknowledged that EFL writing teachers' duties include conceiving ideas, making plans and giving lessons. These duties are discharged by teachers through the use of their past experience, namely the practical knowledge, which helps them in forming a clear concept of what writing is and how it is performed by learners. Furthermore, these teachers'

duties are also fulfilled through the adoption of various teaching writing theories or approaches, namely the theoretical knowledge. Adopting only one of these approaches in the classroom is rare; most of teachers employ them eclectically. Teaching writing approaches are said to be seen intertwined. They can stress various aspects such as the importance of form and linguistic constructions, writing purposes, subjects, the steps that the writer goes through, expressiveness, context and text types (Hyland, 2003). The main teaching approaches for writing that will be discussed in the present thesis are: the Product Oriented Approach, The Process Oriented Approach, and the Genre Approach.

1.10.1. The Product Oriented Approach

Being one of the earlier approaches in teaching writing, the Product Oriented Approach is an approach that emphasizes the significance of the results of the writing act. Gabrielatos (2002) defines it precisely as "a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage" (p. 5). In other words, the teacher of writing provides the learners with a text that they thoroughly examine first and then write their pieces through imitating that text. Earlier on, Pincas (1982a, 1982b) described this approach, claiming that it is chiefly viewed as the practical use of linguistic cognizance through focusing on the right implementation of diction, sentence constructions and cohesion. To her, this approach includes four stages represented in: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing. To White (1988), this approach is widely used in English for Academic Purposes (EAP), mainly because writing in EAP is known for being restricted to a given form and set of rules. He goes on saying that this approach does not show how the writer reached the final product. The starting point is addressing the product without referring to the preceding phases that the writer went through. To put it in a nutshell, writing in this approach is "mainly concerned with knowledge about the structure of

language, and writing development as mainly the result of the imitation of input, in the form of texts provided by the teacher" (Badger & White, 2000, p. 154).

As it is clearly noticed, this approach neglects the processes in writing at the expense of form. It is undeniable that this approach helps EFL learners improve their grammar level. However, writing is not only about grammar. One of this thesis aims, in particular, is to shed light on the importance of knowing how to use grammatical structures in the right contexts to communicate the intended meaning. The students, therefore, should not only be asked to blindly imitate the form of sentences but to know when and when not to use given forms of sentences.

1.10.2. The Process Oriented Approach

Unlike the Product Oriented Approach which takes the final product as a starting point, the Process Oriented Approach is terminated with this amended product. In this approach, "writing is seen as predominantly to do with linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, and there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure" (Badger & White, 2000, p. 154). To Hyland (2008), this approach is led by cognitive psychology and therefore focuses on the students' thinking when they write rather than the written forms they use. This is, in fact, among the shortcomings of this approach. Through stressing the psychological perspective, the followers of this approach belittle the significance of context, knowing that contextualisation is significant in writing. Besides, since giving feedback is kept back until the end of the process, it generally causes a kind of worry to the teachers whenever they think to intervene. Also, the presumption that when teaching the stages that professional writers follow to beginners, the latter's writing will be bettered, is a fallacy, for not all the types of writings are the same. Every type of writing demands particular prowess. As a way of example, the skills required when writing for an exam do not cover drafting and editing many times. Academic writing is time-bound and

frequently done collaboratively. Additionally, such a learner-based approach prevents teachers from frequently intervening in the students' writing process and this makes of them mere onlookers whose work is limited to giving assignments and assessing them. Last, as in this approach amending the form of the written work is left to the final stage of the process, the students are not given the chance to learn how to appropriately write various forms of texts for specific purposes and specific readers to clearly communicate their intentions.

1.10.3. The Genre Approach

Swales (1990) defines the term genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 58). In the Genre Approach, aka the Communicative Approach, the bottom line is that it focuses on why a piece of writing has been written and by whom it will be read. The teachers are generally the only readers for their students. However, the readership under this approach is extended to involve other students who are not allowed to correct their peers' writings but instead are invited to reply to these pieces of writing, reformulate them, comment on them or write summaries about them. It is believed that the students become better writers when they genuinely communicate through writing and when they know that real readers will read their pieces (Raimes, 1983).

Dudley-Evans (1997) points out that there are three stages in the Genre Approach. As a first step, the students are exposed to a text of a given genre which they analyse. After that, they do some exercises in relation to the form of this text in discussion and finally they write a text. This approach is somehow an extension of the Product Based Approach. Bruffee (1986) says that the context is very crucial in the Genre Approach. He believes that writing is taught inside communities and that teaching genre has to be viewed as answers to the aims of these communities. These aims can be social, academic or professional. Successful writers produce good texts by anticipating their audience's knowledge and trying to meet the readers' expectations. In different places, it is easy to write in different genres because writers are

accustomed to them and are able to produce pieces that enable them to communicate with their readers. Nevertheless, it is not easy to get the meaning across via writing in new circumstances like a new job, a new field or a foreign language.

1.10.4. Comparing the Product, Process and the Genre Approaches

As each of the aforementioned approaches in teaching writing has both advantages and disadvantages, one can conclude that these approaches are complementary. The Product Approach devalues both the processes the writers go through and the students' cognitive capacities, but it helps them gain linguistic competence through text analysis and also shows them the benefits of imitation. The Process Approach adopts the notion that all the texts are written via going through some phases without paying attention to the types of texts, the purposes of writing or the audiences, and without assuring a sufficiency of the linguistic intake the students should have in writing. Nonetheless, the students under this approach become aware of the language skills they need while writing and of the effectiveness of their knowledge which helps their writing act in the classroom. The Genre Approach encourages the students to be passive and disparages the skills that they require in writing. However, it gives importance to the setting and purposes of this mode of communication and also advocates the notion that learning to write can be achieved through analysing texts and imitating them (Badger & White, 2000).

1.11. Responding to Written Work

To clearly understand why assessing writing is unquestionably pivotal in both teaching and learning to write, one should know the purposes behind practising assessment. In effect, there are various causes for assessing students' pieces. To Crusan (2000), assessment can be "used to place students into appropriate courses, to give feedback, to give students grades, to determine whether or not they can exit from a program, to verify proficiency, and to evaluate programs" (p. 32).

Since giving feedback is one of assessment purposes, Nation (2009) believes that its significance lies in that it motivates students to write and helps them in bettering their writing quality. The type of feedback given to students, he claims, vary according to many factors. The first factor is the source of feedback. This source can be the tutor, the classmates or the writers themselves. When students give feedback to each other, they instil in themselves the habit of writing for audiences. However, when they give this feedback to themselves, they become metacognitively aware of the processes of writing and the criteria whereby they can achieve successful writing. In other words, these students reflect on the process they go through in writing and accordingly make amendments when necessary. The second factor is the form of feedback. The feedback can be written, oral or both. Oral feedback permits a conversation to take place between the writer and the feedback-deliverer forthwith. It is therefore, more interesting than the written one. Written feedback is said to be more durable and is used to help the teacher in defining the amount of improvement occurring in a piece of writing. It can also remind the students of their own mistakes. The third factor is the size of feedback. That is to say, the teacher of writing can give the feedback individually, to some students or to all of them. While giving feedback to all the class allows the teacher to gain more time, giving it on an individual scale allows them to painstakingly dig into the students' problems.

The fourth factor is the focus of the feedback. Significantly, the teacher can give feedback on some features of written language rather than others. S/he can focus on some phases that the writer goes through before reaching the final product or merely focuses on a single one. The fifth factor is the form of feedback. The teacher of writing may give feedback systematically, i.e. may follow a particular pattern when giving feedback to their students, such as checklists or scales, or may give their feedback spontaneously without being constrained to any form. Finally yet importantly, the sixth factor that affects the kind of

feedback given to students on their writing is the amount of writing on which feedback is given. The teacher might give feedback partially. That is to say, s/he can give their feedback on solely some sentences of what the students have written or on the whole written piece.

Conclusion

In this chapter, some light was shed on writing as one of the major language skills. The focus was on introducing this act as a communicative one that is different from speaking in various ways and is affected by reading. Reaching success in learning or teaching it is contingent upon giving equal importance to its forms and functions. The definitions and features related to writing discussed through this chapter were selected with the intention to be linked to the present study, namely the use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse, and the context in which they will be determined.

Chapter 2
The Grammar and Semantics of Exclamatory Sentences

Chapter 2
Exclamatory Sentences in Grammar and Semantics

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to give insights into exclamatory sentences in grammar and semantics. It begins with providing a specific delineation of the term *exclamatory sentence* and shows what it denotes throughout the thesis. Then it provides, though not exhaustively, a general overview of the various exclamatory forms in English, along with explanatory examples for each form and a meticulous description of the existing differences between these variegated sentences.

2.1. Exclamatory Sentence: Definition and Denotation

When researching into exclamatory sentences in English, two central issues are addressed. The first one is the substantial disagreement among grammarians as to whether exclamatory sentences should be deemed an independent sentence type as the declarative, the interrogative, and the imperative (Elliot, 1971; Radford, 1997; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985) or a minor sentence type (Sadock & Zwicky, 1985). This is so, provided that by minor it is not meant to be less important because "minor sentences have an important communicative role, and often perform a more effective job than their major counterparts" (Crystal, 2004, p. 33). The second issue is related to terminology as the terms *exclamation*, *exclamative* and *exclamatory* are ambiguously employed in different books of grammar, syntax and semantics. For this reason, it is necessary to precisely determine what the term exclamatory sentence denotes in the present study.

Exclamatory sentences, in their broadest sense, are any form of language that is ended with an exclamation point (Bolinger, 1989, p. 249). More precisely, they are "grammatical forms which express the speaker's affective response to a situation: exclamations [or

exclamatory sentences] convey surprise. Surprise may be accompanied by positive or negative effect" (Michaelis, 2001, p. 1039). With this intention, it is generally agreed upon the premise that exclamatory sentences are used for expressing strong emotions (Baker, 1995; Crystal, 2008; Fasano, 2014; Leech, 2006) and are represented in English through various forms and constructions (Hargis, 2008; Michaelis, 2001). These forms "can vary from single exclamatory words such as Oh! (called an interjection) to sentences with a full clause structure, including a verb phrase, as in It's so absurd!" (Leech, 2006, p. 39). The term exclamatory sentence, of concern in this research work, refers to all these forms existing in English. It also encompasses exclamatives and exclamations in the sense that exclamatives are forms which refer to a restricted type of constructions that are initiated by a wh-exclamative word such as how and what (Quirk et al, 1985) while exclamations refer to, inter alia, an interjection, a word, or a phrase that functions as an interjection (Fowler, 1994).

2.2. Exclamatory Forms in English

Compiling an exhaustive list of grammatical forms that convey an exclamatory meaning in English is not possible because of the vagueness of the concept itself. In effect, exclamativity is not always indicated by means of lexico-grammatical forms but rather sometimes by means of prosody (Prosody will be discussed in later section), and also because the researcher is restricted to research feasibility and the literature at hand. What follows is a grammatical and semantic examination of some of the common exclamatory constructions in English.

2.2.1. Declarative Exclamatory Sentences

Of the myriad constructions that embody exclamativity in English, the declarative-like form of exclamatory sentences occurs less frequently than other structures in the exclamatory sentences research literature and grammar books. Although this type of exclamatory sentences has a verbatim form of the declarative, it takes, as Downing and Locke (2006)

claim, a distinct intonation. Being referred to as *absolute exclamations* by Elliot (1974) and as *sentence exclamations* by Rett (2011), this form as in (1a) and (1b) has various functions.

(1) a. I can't believe you did it!
   b. It's the best book I've ever read! (The researcher's examples)

In addition to the form expressed in (1a) and (1b), there exist in English "so" and "such" exclamations which are to be regarded as declarative exclamatory sentences in this thesis. The use of the emphatic degree items "so" and "such" exerts an exclamative force on the declarative (Quirk et al, 1972). To Swan (2005) and syntactically speaking, "so" can front the adjective as in (2a), whereas "such" can front a combination of an indefinite article, an adjective and a singular noun as in (2b) and (2c) or can front an uncountable noun (that could be preceded by an adjective) or a plural noun as in (2d) and (2e) respectively.

(2) a. You're so handsome!
   b. She's such a kind girl! (Not she's a such kind girl!)
   c. It was such an amazing experience!
   d. They were talking such nonsense! (or pure nonsense)
   e. She has such extraordinary powers! (The researcher's examples)

Stilman (1997) points out the functions of declarative exclamatory sentences and states that they are to show the importance of the statement, the writer's emotions or grab attention.

2.2.2. Exclamatives (Wh-exclamatives)

Exclamatives are a restricted formal class of exclamatory sentences that begin with the wh-elements "what" or "how" (Gelderen, 2010; Radford, 1997). Quirk et al (1985) say that these wh-exclamative words are the counterparts of the emphatic degree items "so" and "such" and they can take different positions. They can occur as a subject (3a), an object (3b), a complement (3c), an adverbial (3d), a prepositional complement (3e), a pushdown element of an indirect statement (3f) or as a prepositional phrase (3g).

(3)   a. What a big audience attended!

   b. What a nice story she wrote!

   c. How amazing his performance was!

   d. How beautifully he draws!

   e. What a dilemma he was in!

   f. How crazy you must have considered her!

   g. In what disaster they died! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.1. Exclamatives Properties

According to Miro (2005)**,** exclamatives in English are said to have the following features:

• The adverbials employed in exclamatives should show extreme degree, hence using slightly, fairly and reasonably is not allowed as in (4).

(4) *****How fairly typical her reaction was!**1** (The researcher's example)

• Exclamatives do not require an answer. You cannot, therefore, answer the exclamative in (5) by replying twenty centimetres.

(5) How very short it is! (The researcher's example)

• Exclamatives cannot precede a question that can be made narrower as in (6).

(6) *****How very short it is! Twenty centimetres or thirty? (The researcher's example)

• Exclamatives cannot be an answer. Thus, the dialogue in (7) is grammatically unacceptable.

(7) Q: How long is the course?

   A: How very long the course is! (The researcher's example)

Huddleston (1984) adds another feature in that he claims it is permitted to use question tags with exclamatives. The stated purpose behind that is to obtain an approval for the exclamative as in (8).

(8) What a fuss she made of that! Didn't she? (The researcher's example)

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1 The asterisk (*****) will be used to indicate the ungrammatical structures throughout this chapter.

2.2.2.2. Exclamatives and Negation

Unlike other English structures and exclamatory forms, a distinct feature of exclamatives is that it does not accept negation (Bache & Nielsen, 1997). Accordingly, it is unacceptable to utter the examples in (9a) and (9b).

(9) a. *****How beautiful she does not look!

    b. *****What a fascinating view it is not! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.3. Exclamatives and Indefiniteness

Indefiniteness is another property of wh-exclamatives. A noun phrase in what- exclamatives must be fronted by the indefinite articles "a" or "an", for "indefiniteness in the noun phrase corresponds to degree potential in the adjective phrase" (Quirk et al, 1972, p. 52). Thus, the exclamative form in (10b), where the noun is preceded by the definite article "the" is grammatically unacceptable in English. Compare it with (10a)

(10) a. What a gift she had bought for him!

    b. *****What the gift she had bought for him! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.4. The Exclusive Use of "What" and "How" in Exclamatives

In English, question words that wh-exclamatives can begin with are limited to merely cover those which express degree: what and how (Rett, 2008a). Unsurprisingly, this restriction is due to the fact that these wh-elements denote the highest degree on a scale and consequently are exclusively used when the sentence permits *gradability* (Rett, 2008b). The following forms thereupon are not allowed in English:

(11) *Who she works with!

(12) *When he starts working!

(13) *Which instrument he bought!

(14) *Why he sold that car!

(15) *Where she hid the letter! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.5. The Difference between What-exclamatives and How-exclamatives

Huddleston & Pullum (2002) state that "How" is different from "What" in terms of style and distribution. As far as style is concerned, how-exclamatives as in (16a) are said to be considerably more formal than what-exclamatives as in (16b) when they are main clauses.

(16)   a. How intelligent he is!

        b. What an intelligent boy he is! (The researcher's examples)

As far as distribution is concerned, unlike "what" that can solely be a modifier in a noun phrase, "how" can rather modify adjectives, degree determinatives, adverbs and verbs. It also operates as an external modifier in a noun phrase with a countable singular noun. However, it is not allowed to be used with plurals and uncountable nouns as in (17a) and (17b).

(17)   a. *How beautiful dresses!

        b. *How nice music! (The researcher's examples)

In an analysis of what and how-exclamatives, Collins (2005) indicated through corpora that these exclamatives generally appear in personal and informal forms of writing. For this reason, these structures are mostly used in works of fiction and seldom occur in scientific writing. In addition, what-exclamatives are employed in speech more than in writing, be it general or scientific, whereas how-exclamatives occur more often in writing.

2.2.2.6. A Comparison between Exclamatives and Wh-interrogatives

In terms of structure, exclamatives are said to be similar to wh-interrogatives with regard to some features and different from them with regard to others. Despite the fact that they both share the beginning with the wh-element, it is, as it has been earlier mentioned, limited to "how" and "what" in exclamatives, but not limited to these two elements in wh-interrogatives. Moreover, the wh-element must front wh-exclamatives and not wh-interrogatives (Collins, 2005). Accordingly, the structures in (19a) and (19b) are allowed in English but (18b) is not.

(18)   a. What an idiot he was!

   b. **He was what an idiot!

(19)   a. What did he do to her?

   b. He did what to her? (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.6.1. Elliot's Comparison

Elliot (1974) provides a list of differences between exclamatives and wh-questions and states the following:

- Questions accept the use of any but exclamatives do not. Thus, the structure in (20b) is not allowed in English.

(20)   a. How does she spend any money?

   b. **How she spends any money! (The researcher's examples)

- Questions accept the use of ever, but exclamatives do not. For this reason, it is not grammatical to use sentence (21b) in English.

(21)   a. What did you ever give him?

   b. *What you ever gave him! (The researcher's examples)

- Questions permit the use of phrases as "the hell" but exclamatives do not. The exclamative in (22b) is then unacceptable in English.

(22)   a. Where the hell is he?

   b. **What the hell he is! (The researchers' examples)

- There are certain adverbs that can only occur in exclamatives and not in questions such as very, unbelievably and extremely.

(23)   a. *How unbelievably big is the prototype?

   b. How unbelievably big the prototype is! (The researcher's examples)

- Exclamatives permit appositive clauses as the example of "a Mercedes" in (24a), but questions do not.

(24)   a. (It's incredible) what sort of car he bought, a Mercedes!

       b. * (I wonder) what sort of car he bought, a Mercedes? (The researcher's examples)

2.2.2.6.2. Grimshaw's Comparison

In his discussion about interrogatives and exclamatory complements, Grimshaw (1979) adds more distinctions between the two. He claims that the structure "What a (Adj.) N" cannot be an interrogative one. This structure can be a complement to "amazing" and "be surprised at" but not to "ask" and "wonder" (pp. 281-282). On this basis, the structures in (25) are permitted in English along with the embedded complements in (26).

(25)   a. What a genius she is!
       b. What a gigantic explosion the bomb caused!

(26)   a. It's **amazing** what a genius she is!
       b. I'm **surprised at** what a gigantic explosion the bomb caused!

However, the following structures in (27) along with the embedded structures in (28) are not.

(27)   a. ***What a genius is she?
       b. ***What a gigantic explosion the bomb caused?

(28)   a. ***He will ask** what a genius she is.
       b. ***I wonder** what a gigantic explosion the bomb caused. (The researcher's examples)

The difference between exclamatives and questions can be clearly found in embedding. Unlike embedded complements that start with "what", those which are introduced by "whether" are possible with the predicates "ask" and "wonder" but not with "amazing" and "surprised at" as in the following examples:

(29)   a. I will ask **whether** she is a genius.
       b. I wonder **whether** the bomb caused a gigantic explosion. (The researcher's example)

(30)   a. *It is amazing **whether** she is a genius.
       b. *I'm surprised at **whether** the bomb caused a gigantic explosion. (The researcher's
   example)

The use of predicates such as "find out" and "know" is possible with both "what" and "whether" as follows:

(31) a. I know whether she is a genius.

b. I know what a genius she is.

c. I found out whether the bomb caused a gigantic explosion.

d. I found out what a gigantic explosion the bomb caused. (The researcher's examples)

It is deducible then that the structure "What a (Adj.) N" is restricted to exclamatives whereas "whether" is restricted to interrogatives. However, this is not the case of how exclamatives because how-complements can be either exclamative or interrogative. This is illustrated in examples (32) and (33).

(32) a. It's **amazing** how big the garden is.

b. I am **surprised** at how well she can drive.

(33) a. I will **ask** how big the garden is.

b. I **wonder** how well she can drive. (The researcher's examples)

It is clear that the sentences in (32) are exclamative, whereas the sentences in (33) are interrogative. Nonetheless, ambiguity occurs when the predicates "know" and "find out" are used as in the following example:

(34) a. I know how big the garden is.

b. I found out how well she can drive. (The researcher's example)

In (34) if one construes the complements from an exclamatory perspective, the garden is no doubt big and she can drive well to the extreme degree. This extreme degree, however, is not indicated in an interrogative interpretation of the same sentences. The distinction between the two interpretations is similar to the following difference between sentences in (35) and (36).

(35) a. How big the garden is!

b. How well she can drive!

(36) a. How big is the garden?

  b. How well can she drive? (The researcher's examples)

Exclamatory complements also allow the use of intensifiers like "very", but interrogatives do not. (cf. 37, 38)

(37) a. It is **amazing** how very big the garden is.

  b. I am **surprised at** how very well she can drive.

(38) a. *I will **ask** how very big the garden is.

  b. I am **wondering at** how very well she can drive. (The researcher's examples)

Wh-complements with "who" and "what" are found in both embedded exclamatives and interrogatives. The following example is for illustration:

(39) a. It is **amazing** who she met.

  b. I **asked** who she met. (The researcher's example)

2.2.2.6.3. Huddleston and Pullum's Comparison

In their comparison between how-exclamatives and open interrogatives, Huddleston & Pullum (2002) claim that "how" as an adverbial in exclamatives can similarly function as the interrogative "how"; it modifies an adjective, a degree determinative or an adverb. The following examples are put forward to illustrate this very point:

(40) a. How big the toy is!

  b. How big is the toy?

(41) a. How much money you spent!

  b. How much money did you spend?

(42) a. How fast it moved!

  b. How fast did it move?

(43) a. How very smart she is!

  b. How very smart is she? (The researcher's examples)

The function of "how" in the aforementioned examples is showing degree noticeably. The difference, however, lies in that exclamatives allow the use of intensifiers such as very,

absolutely, etc. while interrogatives do not. Another difference is that the exclamative in (40a), for example, entails that the toy is plainly big. On the contrary, (40b) does not entail it is big, but rather has some degree on the scale of bigness. Moreover, in its use as a verb modifier, "how" in exclamatives is completely different from "how" in interrogatives in that it shows degree in exclamatives but not in interrogatives as shown in the following examples:

(44)   a. How she tricked him!
       b. How did she trick him?

(45)   a. How I abhorred it!
       b. *How did I abhor it? (The researcher's examples)

In contrast to the exclamative in (44a) which means that she tricked him to a high degree, the interrogative in (44b) means that the way of how she tricked him or the means used to trick him are required to be known. This justifies why (45b) is not allowed in English.

Huddleston & Pullum (2002) also made a comparison between what-exclamatives and open interrogatives. The wh-element "what" in nominal phrases can be followed by a countable singular noun, a countable plural noun, or an uncountable noun. While there is no difference between exclamatives and open interrogatives when plural and uncountable nouns are used as in (47) and (48), there is a difference between the two when "what" is followed by a countable singular noun. In addition, it is compulsory that the indefinite article precedes the noun in what exclamatives (cf. 46a) but it does not precede it in open interrogatives (cf. 46b).

(46)   a. What a film it was!
       b. What film was it?

(47)   a. What films she directed!
       b. What films did she direct?

(48)   a. What news he heard!
       b. What news did he hear? (The researchers' examples)

In the open interrogatives (46b) and (47b), "what" is related to identification. That is to say, in response to the questions, the films and news are identified: "He directed Titanic" and "He heard about Ana's tragic death," for example (The researcher's examples). "What" in exclamatives is rather related to the quality or degree. It shows the quality of the film, i.e. whether it was approved or disapproved by the speaker/writer or it shows degree if the noun is gradable, thus becomes similar to "how". For example, in "What strength he had!" the meaning is that the strength is noticeable unlike "What strength did he have?" where there is an enquiry.

2.2.2.7. Ambiguity in Exclamatives

As there are some similarities between exclamatives and interrogatives, it is logical that a kind of ambiguity can be identified. That is to say, sometimes the sentence can be understood as an exclamative or an interrogative depending on the prosody and the context where it occurs (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). A simple example is the sentence in (49) which can be perceived as an interrogative or as an exclamative.

(49) How often your mother has told you not to go to that place (!/?) (The researcher's example)

2.2.2.8. Exclamatives and Inversion

The subject auxiliary inversion can every so often occur in exclamatives, particularly in literary texts and it is likely to be a rhetorical or a literary feature (Collins, 2005; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002; Quirk et al, 1985). By way of illustration, the following example is put forward:

(50) a. How frequently does one feel such sadness in this city!
      b. How much tiring does it feel now that you have done all the work alone!
      c. What a rencontre would it have been if he had heard you were in the same town!

(The researcher's examples)

Quirk et al (1985) add that the inversion in exclamatives is preferable when "rarely" is used to have a negative connotation as in (51).

(51)   How rarely does he give her money! (The researcher's example)

Another feature Huddleston & Pullum (2002) shed light on when discussing inversion in exclamatives is the possibility of postponing the subject in case the exclamative phrase is an adjectival predicative. Example (52) illustrates this very point:

(52)   How great it would have been his success if **he** had done what his mother had asked him to do! (The researcher's example)

They went further explaining that inversion in exclamatives is, however, impossible with "how" when it functions as a verb modifier as in the aforementioned example (24a), "How she tricked him!", because there is no doubt that the structure "How did she trick him" is interrogative.

2.2.2.9. The Semantics of Exclamatives

According to Rett (2008a), exclamatives are said to be semantically restricted to *degree* and *evaluativity*. In other words, the exclamative must get a "degree interpretation" (p. 603), its context must be surprising and the degree must transcend the norm. As exclamatives cannot be interpreted without referring to degrees, the same exclamative can even have two different degree readings: an "amount reading" and a "gradable one" (p. 604). Amount reading is about understanding that what-exclamatives include quantity even when this quantity is not openly expressed.

In an example similar to that provided by Rett (2008a), imagine that you thought John only plays guitar and then you were surprised to know that he plays five other musical instruments. You can utter one of the following sentences to show surprise:

(53)   a. (Wow,) John plays six musical instruments!
    b. (My,) What instruments John play! (The researcher's examples)

Quantity is understood then in exclamative (53b) even though it is not morphologically stated.

Rett (2008a) states that gradable reading is about finding gradability in these sentences, regardless of not being morphologically indicated. This could be clearly explained through the present example. Imagine now that you thought John plays string instruments and then you were informed he also plays brass instruments. You can utter the following sentences to express surprise.

(54) a. (Wow,) John plays brass instruments!

    b. (My,) What instruments John plays! (The researcher's examples)

Gradability is perceived in exclamative (54b) in spite of the fact that it lacks a morphological indication of it. It is actually used to express the speaker's surprise that the instruments John plays are brass. The gradable reading is not ambiguous in an exclamative such as in (55).

(55) What brass instruments John plays!" (The researcher's example)

As for how-exclamatives, semantically speaking, the wh-element "how" can be employed in exclamatives to indicate *evaluation* or *manner*. The evaluation interpretation is different from the manner one in that it is gradable (Rett, 2008b).

Imagine that you have heard that Jane is a bad driver, but when you saw her driving, you were surprised that she drives well.

(56) a. (Wow,) Jane drives well!

    b. (Oh,) How Jane drives her car! (The researcher's examples)

By applying Rett's (2008b) analysis to the researcher's example, it is correct to utter both (56a) and (56b) in this situation. In exclamative (56b), there is a lack of manner and how Jane drives can be interpreted as "driving well", though it can be interpreted as "driving poorly" in other situations. By uttering this, the speaker is demonstrating surprise at the degree to which

Jane drives her car well. In a situation in which you are surprised that Jane drives barefoot, (56b) cannot be uttered because it cannot be used to show surprise at a particular manner.

2.2.3. Elliptical Exclamatives

Elliptical exclamatives, otherwise known as "reduced exclamatives", are considered minor clauses. This type of exclamatory sentences was discussed in various grammar books (see Ballard, 2013; Crystal, 2004, Hargis, 2008; Thompson, 2014) and was referred to as "verbless exclamatives" by Huddleston & Pullum (2002). This form as Eggins & Salade (1997) earlier on state "must retain the wh-element which is the key to their exclamative import. Thus, where the wh-element was attached to either Subject or Complement, typically both Subject and all verbal elements are ellipsed" (p. 92). Compare between the full form of exclamatives in (57) and the reduced forms in (58)

(57) a. What a lovely trip we had!
    b. What a mess you made!
    c. How nice the party is!   (The researcher's examples)

(58) a. What a lovely trip!
    b. What a mess!
   c. How nice! (The researcher's examples)

An important aspect in the exclamative discussion is polarity of the emotion. That is to say, whether the emotion expressed in the exclamative is positive or negative because "it is typically hard to determine which direction a given exclamative tends to lean. For example, the polarity of conical exclamatives like What a PRED seems to be determined largely by the nature of the lexical items involved" (Potts & Schwarz, 2008, p. 5). Examples in (59) express positive emotions while examples in (60) express negative ones:

(59) a. What a great performance!
    b. What a joy!

(60) a. What a burden!
    b. What a failure! (The researcher's examples)

In these examples, it is noticeable that the emotions expressed by exclamativity are easily deciphered from the lexical content of the sentences. However, Potts & Schwarz (2008) referred to ambiguity which occurs when the lexical items do not show the direction of the emotions as in (61) which are interpreted positively in the default case.

(61) a. What a performance!

    b. What a place!

    c. What a class! (The researcher's examples)

It is in such cases that the interpretation of exclamatory sentences is context-bound and therefore a pragmatic analysis is required.

2.2.4. Inverted Exclamatives

Inverted exclamatives, also dubbed "exclamatory questions", have a form that is said to be similar to the form of yes/no questions but function as exclamatives (McCawley, 1998). Consider the example in (62).

(62) a. Is it pretty!

    b. Isn't it pretty! (The researcher's examples)

In his comparison between two forms of inverted exclamatives similar to the earlier mentioned in example (62), Quirk et al (1972) assert that such forms call the listener to agree on something that the speaker has strong feelings towards. Unlike what they appear to be, the meaning of these sentences is certainly positive. To explain further this meaning Geukens (1989) claims that these sentences show an extreme degree. For example, (63a) and (63b) demonstrate that the place is nice to the extreme degree, which supports the idea of the high degree property in exclamatives.

(63) a. Man, isn't this a nice place!

    b. Man, is this a nice place! (The researcher's examples)

He also claims that "even in sentences with predications that are not easily gradable the exclamative conveys there is something intense, extreme or unexpected about the event" (p.

133). Consider the inverted exclamative in (64). This exclamative does not only express that the speaker made a mistake but it was a big one.

(64) a. Boy, did I make that mistake! (The researcher's example)

2.2.5. Nominal Exclamatives

Portner & Zanuttini (2005) state that nominal exclamatives are syntactically constructed as noun phrases. As far as their meaning is concerned, this type of exclamatives is similar to clausal exclamatives. Their form, however, is not elliptical and, therefore, differs from the generally used noun phrases that retain an exclamatory function. Compare between the exclamative in (65a) and the noun phrase with an exclamatory function as in (65b)

(65) a. The bad marks he got!
     b. Those bad marks! (The researcher's examples)

Rett (2008a) referred to that this type of exclamatory sentences should be formed with definite DPs and cannot be formed with indefinite ones. Compare between (66a) and (66b).

(66) a. (Oh,) the colour of that dress!
     b. *(Oh,) a colour of that dress! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.6. Elliptical Exclamatory Sentences

The term elliptical exclamatory sentences is used in this research to refer to the exclamatory constructions that consist of a sentence lacking an auxiliary and ended with an exclamation mark as (67a) and (67b) or merely a single word as in (67c) (see Hargis, 2008; Onions, 1969)

(67) a. Smith the president! (Smith is the president!)
     b. Poor kitten!
     c. A party! (The researcher's examples)

2.2.7. Embedded Exclamatory Sentences

This type of exclamatory sentences, also called "indirect exclamatives", was discussed by Onions (1969) and Elliot (1971) and defined by Downing & Locke (2006) as a sentence that

is "introduced by either how (+adjective) or what (+NG) after two types of verbs: verbs of communicating such as say and tell, and mental verbs such as believe and think. Like ordinary exclamatives, it has an emotive quality" (p. 107). The following are embedded exclamatives.

(68) a. I told her how happy I was when receiving the gift.

    b. You can't believe what a scary place it was. (The researcher's examples)

To explain the notion of embedding in exclamativity, Onions (1969) provides the following example: "It is strange how unjust you are" He claims that this sentence is similar to "It is strange: How unjust you are!" and states that the subordinate clause here is exclamatory and called a "dependent exclamation" (p. 76).

2.2.8. Echo Exclamatory Sentences

Quirk et al (1985) referred to another category of exclamatory sentences they called echo exclamations. In echo exclamations, a part of the aforesaid utterance is repeated with particular intonation. The following is an example of an echo exclamation occurring in a dialogue:

(69) A: I am travelling to Constantine.

    B: To Constantine! I thought you would travel to Algiers. (The researcher's examples)

Quirk et al (1985) also said that echo exclamations can be done with different levels of completeness. Accordingly, instead of repeating just "To Constantine!" the repetition could rather be "You are travelling to Constantine!" or "Travelling to Constantine!"

2.2.9. Interjections
2.2.9.1. Interjections Defined

Interjections can be defined with regard to their forms, semantic value or pragmatic function. Wilkins (1992) considers them as lexemes and utterances. He believes that the difficulty in their study lies in that they are a matter of concern to linguistics. They, require, he claims, a semantic and a pragmatic description along with a study of their association with

sentences and their morphological status. In this section, it is attempted to look at this part of speech from a formal and a semantic view while their pragmatics will be examined in the following chapter. Their definition provided by Wierzbicka (1992) is not

exhaustive but is straightforward nevertheless. He states that an interjection is

> a linguistic sign expressing the speaker's current mental state (1) which can be used on its own, (2) which expresses a specifiable meaning, (3) which does not include other signs (with specifiable meaning), (4) which is not homophonous with any other lexical item whose meaning would be included in its own meaning (that is, in the meaning of the putative interjection), and (5) which refers to the speaker's current mental state or mental act. (p. 164)

The weight of interjections is reflected in their independence from other language forms in the sense that they have their own meaning. As an important part of speech, an interjection can express strong feelings and is usually used by native speakers in instant reactions to different situations.

2.2.9.2. Interjections Pedigree

To provide some insights into interjections, a look at their history and the issues raised in relation to them in the past is indispensable. As a part of speech found in all languages (Schachter & Shopen, 2007), interjections are said to be the least discussed of parts of speech. Their crucial importance is highlighted by Müller (1996) who believes that "one short interjection may be more powerful, more to the point, more eloquent, than a long speech" (p. 24).

One of the main issues that has been raised during studying interjections was whether they are parts of language or not. Actually, the 19th century linguists who regarded them as non-linguistic items have treated them as incidental to language. As a way of example, Sapir (1921) sees them as "never more, at best than a decorative edging to the ample, complex fabric" (p. 5). Modern grammarians share this view. Quirk et al (1985) define them as "purely emotive words which do not enter into syntactic relations" (p. 853). Trask (1993) says that an interjection is "a lexical item or phrase which serves to express

emotion and which typically fails to enter into any syntactic structure at all" (p. 144). Crystal (2008) sees them as "a class of words which are unproductive, do not enter into syntactic relationships with other classes, and whose function is purely emotive" (p. 249). This view should not be a reason for not studying the oddity of these items from a linguistic perspective because "like other linguistic items, they are conventionally language specific elements" (Ameka, 1992, p. 112). Conceptualists do oppose the view that supports the peripherality of these items and consider them to be paralinguistic, Ameka (1992) and Wilkins (1992), for example, affirm the semantic richness of interjections and their *conceptual structure,* as Wilkins (1992) adds, is able to be expounded.

2.2.9.3. The Semantics of Interjections

Semantically speaking, interjections are part of language and they possess several layers of meaning. Smidt (cited in Aijmer, 2002) advocates this notion by comparing an interjection to a fully laden bag with "twenty different senses and hundred different shades of meaning, all dependent on context, emphasis and tonal accent. It can express anything from indifference to comprehension, incomprehension, query, rebuttal, rebuke, indignation, disgust, and delight in any number of degrees" (p. 101).

The conceptualists concur with the view that interjections are part of language because they possess a semantic content. Wierzbicka (1992) decomposed interjections in her semantic analysis and provided the conceptual structure for the interjection "wow" as follows:

> I now know something
> I wouldn't have thought I would know it
> I think this is very good
> (I wouldn't have thought it could be like that)
> I feel something because of that. (p. 164) (see the shortcomings of this analysis in Chapter 3)

In addition to being emotions-carriers as it has been previously stated, interjections are context-bound items. Their pragmatic analysis will be discussed in the third chapter.

2.2.9.4. Interjections Properties

Biber et al (1990) consider interjections to be subsumed under what they call inserts that have an exclamatory function. Consequently, interjections share the following characteristics with inserts.

- They may appear on their own, i.e. not as part of a larger grammatical structure.
- On the other hand, they may appear attached (prosodically, or in the transcription, by absence of punctuation) to a larger structure, which maybe a clausal unit or a noun clausal unit.
- They rarely occur medially in a syntactic structure.
- They are morphologically simple.
- They are not homonyms of words in other word classes.
- Semantically, they have no denotative meaning: their use is defined rather by their pragmatic function. (p. 1082)

Although interjections are commonly informal, there are also formal ones. Additionally, they do alter with time (Crystal, 2004). When written, "interjections are separated off from the main clause by means of a comma or an exclamation mark" (Wharton, 2009, p. 176).

2.2.9.5. Reasons for Using Interjections

Interjections are similar to sentences in terms of function and are considered as minor ones (Bloomfield, 1933). They also have their counterparts as major sentences; for example, the meaning of "ugh" is "I don't like this" and "ouch" is "I am hurt". Interjections are used mainly because they are an appropriate choice when people are in need of an instant emotional reply in a circumstance that requires a form of language that is concise, satisfactory and possesses an acoustic prominence (Crystal, 2004, p. 34).

2.2.9.6. Types of Interjections

To provide a clear and an insightful account of interjections, it seems useful to shed some light on their classification which can be founded on their form or communicative function. As far as form is concerned, interjections can be primary or secondary. Primary interjections are "little words or non-words which in terms of their distribution can constitute an utterance by themselves and do not normally enter into construction with other word classes, for

example, *Ouch!, Wow!, Gee!, Oho!, Oops!*, etc." (Ameka, 1992, p.105). Primary interjections have a distinctive phonological and morphological anomaly that refuses both inflection and derivation. Secondary interjections are independent utterances used to convey feelings. They can be alarm calls, attention-getters or swear and taboo words such as "Help!", "Fire!" and "Hell!" (p. 111). They can also be emotive words like "Shame!". Swan (2005) classified swearwords into two categories: exclamation of annoyance such as "Damn!' and "Blast!" and exclamation of surprise such as "God!", "Jesus!", "Christ!". Another type of interjections is interjectional phrases that are classified as exclamations; "Dear me!" and "My Goodness!" are two examples of "multi word expressions" (p. 567).

2.2.9.7. Interjections and Other Forms of Exclamatory Sentences

In addition to being able to stand alone, interjections can also precede other types of exclamatory sentences, for example "Boy", "Gee" and "God." Interjections, however, are not randomly employed with other types of exclamatory sentences. The use of interjections differs according to the type of the exclamatory sentence. Interjections as "boy" and "man" can introduce inverted exclamatives but not interrogatives, for example (McCawley, 1998, p. 556).

(70)   a. Boy, am I stupid!

         b. God/Boy, how stupid I was!

         c. God/Boy, I was so stupid! (The researcher's examples)

Conclusion

Examining exclamatory sentences syntactically or semantically is not an easy task. This is because of the various discrepancies in the views of scholars with regard to their classification in grammar, how their forms should be dubbed and the lack of literature about these sentences. This chapter attempted to shed some light on the prominent research works on the description of the syntax and semantics of these sentences. The chapter also attempted to differentiate between this type and other types of sentences to clear up any confusion that

may occur. Debunking the syntactic and semantic view of these sentences by some scholars encouraged others to suggest their pragmatic examination whereby these language forms are scrutinised as context-bound utterances.

Chapter 3
The Pragmatics of Exclamatory Sentences

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The Pragmatics of Exclamatory Sentences

Introduction

The previous chapter exposed the syntactic and semantic view of exclamatory sentences and by so doing it was deduced that these sentences require a pragmatic examination, as their interpretation is most of the time context-bound. This chapter presents a pragmatic analysis of these sentences that is based on the few research studies on pragmatics that discussed these sentences.

The chapter starts with an introduction to the discipline of pragmatics by briefly referring to its pedigree, determining the meaning of the term that will be adopted throughout the thesis and defining some of the pragmatics' keynotes. Central to this chapter is the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences, which is presented after providing a description of Speech Act Theory.

3.1. Pragmatics

3.1.1. A Pithy History of the Term

Investigating the history of pragmatics is necessary to delve into what pragmatics is all about. For a study of pragmatics, it is important to know where its uniqueness lies and how it has been developed to play a crucial role in the study of language.

Pragmatics emerged as a branch of modern linguistics which De Saussure marked its turning point in the early twenty century when he rejected the prescriptive view of language and replaced it with a descriptive one. In essence, linguists have been exhorted to describe language as it is with all its forms and uses rather than merely prescribe how it should be. Saussure also established *semiology* that he defines as the meaningful use of signs (Chapman, 2011).

A further detailed study of semiology was done later by Charles Morris (1938) who classified what he called *semiotics* into syntactics, semantics and pragmatics, though some believe that the term had been used before Morris (cf. Jucker, 2012; Nerliche & Clarke, 1996). To Morris, the ability to explain some language features is based upon the relation between these features and their users and therein lies the significance of pragmatic rules in dealing with situations.

3.1.2. Definition of the Term

Defining pragmatics seems not easy because many difficulties faced pragmaticists in their attempt to provide a possibly clear definition to this discipline. This actually justifies the divergent directions of practice that pragmatics has taken. In spite of the difficulty of forging a comprehensive definition of pragmatics, in this chapter, there will be an endeavour to shed some light on the common definitions of pragmatics. Levinson (1983) believes that the definitions of pragmatics have many shortcomings and some of them are unsatisfactory. To him, pragmatics is the relations that exist between language and context which specially abide by grammatical rules. Such a view of pragmatics encompasses the debate on deixis, speech acts, etc., and is delimited to linguistics. It is understanding an utterance in virtue of associating language with context, provided that understanding totally differs from grasping the meaning of the words that form this utterance and their grammatical associations. It is the study of all facets of meaning that were not considered in semantics. It is also the study of people's capacities to appropriately use utterances in the right context. This latter definition, Levinson (1983) explains, is supported by adherents of the view that pragmatics falls under Chomsky's linguistic competence and therefore is cognitive.

Pragmatics will thus be seen from a linguistic view in this research work. Of the contemporary definitions of pragmatics that go with the present study's concern, i.e. which will be applied to the analysis of exclamatory sentences, pragmatics is

the study of language form from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interactions and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication (Crystal, 2001, p. 269).

It is the study of what a language user means by a given utterance, how the context impacts what it has been said, what it can be inferred from this utterance and what influences people's choice of what they should communicate and what they should not (Yule, 1996). Or in other words, it is the study that "concerns both the relationship between context of use and sentence meaning, and the relationships among sentence meaning, context of use, and speaker's meaning" (Fasold, 2006, p. 157).

3.2. Pragmatics and Other Disciplines

Pragmatics is said to have an ability to influence other academic disciplines and also receive equal influence from them. To Cumming's (2005), "pragmatics is a branch of enquiry in its own right, one which can contribute insights to neighbouring academic disciplines in much the same manner that these disciplines can contribute insights to it" (p. 1). Previous to Cummings, Mey (1993) emphasised the relation between pragmatics and psychology, and Green (1996) mentioned the relation of pragmatics to other fields. She stated that linguistic pragmatics is related to various academic areas in and out of cognitive science "not only linguistics, cognitive psychology, cultural anthropology, and philosophy (logic, semantics, action theory) but also sociology (interpersonal dynamics and social convention) and rhetoric contribute to its domain" (pp. 1-2).

One of the significant associations of concern in the present research is the one that exists between pragmatics and grammar. According to Ariel (2008), grammar is a combination of links that closely connect particular language constructions with appropriate positions, meanings and distributions whether this is compulsory or non-compulsory, but this might be neither enough for meeting people's communicative goals, nor for decoding the meanings of these constructions. Pragmatics, then, as she claims, comes to compensate for this

shortcoming as it provides the different interpretations of what is being communicated. This conclusively proves that both grammar and pragmatics are required to successfully communicate thoughts. Indeed, these two disciplines are complementary.

Accordingly, such a connection between grammar and pragmatics should be applicable to teaching English as a foreign language. Language forms should be taught from both a grammatical and a pragmatic angle in order to prevent students from communication breakdowns and rather help them establish effective communication, be it in speaking or in writing.

Pragmatics is also related to writing. Despite the fact that writing is not generally analysed from a pragmatic perspective, various pragmatic features have been adopted in written discourse analysis. The relation between pragmatics and writing is found in "the ways particular text features can be seen as signalling contextual presuppositions, or shared meanings, which provide an interpretive framework for understanding written discourse" (Hyland, 2009, p. 219). Donnelly (1994) states that pragmatic features are most beneficial when used by the writer in their revision or analysis of the text. He goes on saying that having awareness of these pragmatic features is important for writers who aim at communicating their messages clearly. In fact, "experienced communicators and writers in specialized fields often forget that novice writers and readers must be taught the conventions of that field" (p. 154).

On this basis, EFL students, as novice writers, should be taught the different pragmatic approaches in order to adequately convey their messages when writing and successfully analyse written texts when reading.

3. 3. Pragmatics Keynotes
3.3.1. Context

As it is a principal part of pragmatics definition, it is worthwhile to try to shed some light

on context and the considerable influence it has on meaning in both spoken and written forms of language. Despite its complex nature, Fetzer (2004) says that

> context is deliminated to the local (or immediately adjacent) surroundings of the phenomenon to be investigated and refers to the immediately surroundings of a morpheme, to the immediately adjacent surroundings of a phrase, to the immediately adjacent surroundings of a grammatical construction, to adjacent surroundings of a lexical item, to the immediately adjacent surroundings of a sentence, or to the immediately adjacent surroundings of an utterance. (p. 4)

The types of contexts have been discussed in different occasions by many pragmaticists. Cutting (2002) distinguishes three types of context: The situational context, the background context and the co-textual context. The situational context is the cognizance of the visible surroundings. It embodies the instant presence of the language users which help them understand to what they refer because they share the same setting. This can be also found in writing. For example, an image can be added to a poem and is employed to help the readers recognise what it is referred to in this poem. The background knowledge context is about the knowledge of these language users about each other and their surroundings. It is composed of the cultural knowledge, the knowledge of the different domains of life that a community shares and their relations towards this cultural knowledge itself, and the interpersonal knowledge, the exclusive, private knowledge that can be shared by two people after sharing information or experiencing things together. Finally yet importantly, the co-textual context is the context within the text. It is about knowing what it has been said. The language producers use language around the assumption that the conversation partners are aware of the meaning of what is being discussed.

As a matter of fact, contexts do not show stability; they are always in a continuous change and they are reformulated by the communication partners (speaker/hearer, writer/reader). This is ascribed to the existence of multifarious meanings intrinsic in any part of speech. When formulating texts, spoken or written ones, the producers make them suitable to satisfying their own needs and communicating their meanings (Kramsch, 1993).

3.3.2. Encoding and Decoding

Encoding refers to the process of rendering an abstract idea to a visible linguistic construction that communicates something. For this process to be meaningful, it should be used in an appropriate context with a language receiver whose primary role is to decipher what has been communicated to him. Decoding, on the other hand, is of a complex nature. It is actually a psycho-linguistic, multifarious task incorporating many interconnected mechanisms. Decoding can be based on the semantic meaning of an utterance, i.e. what the words that constitute this utterance mean. However, what these words mean can be different from what the speaker intends them to mean and, therefore, it is required to attempt to infer the meaning that is similar to the speaker's intended meaning (Cumming, 2005).

3.3.3. Sentence versus Utterance

One of the distinctions that should be drawn in this study is the one between the sentence and the utterance and precisely between sentence meaning and utterance meaning. Lyons (1981) points out that while the study of sentence meaning is said to belong to semantics, the study of utterance meaning resides within the realm of pragmatics. It is commonly acknowledged that sentences, in contrast with utterances, are abstract units which are free from context-dependency and whose interpretation is not confined to a given spatial and temporal dimension. However, utterances can be ambiguous; they can "refer to an act or to the product of that act" (Lyons, 1981, p. 164). The confusion between the sentence and the act of an utterance never occurs, but a sentence can be designated through the utterance-product. In other words, a sentence can be an utterance when the latter refers to what is uttered, but never to the act of an utterance. Lyons (1981) explains

> And in this sense of 'sentence' –i.e. the sense in which a sentence is what is uttered– sentences are obviously to a greater or less degree, context-dependent. But they are also repeatable at different times and in different places. Context-dependence does not therefore imply spatio-temporal uniqueness; and abstractness, in the sense of not being tied to any particular time and place, does not imply complete contextual independence. (p. 164)

Fasold (2006) and Lyons (1981) agree that an utterance is a *contextualised sentence*. Lyons (1981) defines utterance meaning as "the product of sentence meaning and context" (p. 165). This is why an utterance is said to be richer than a sentence as far as meaning is concerned.

3.4. Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence was included as a composing element in Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence. In this model, pragmatic competence was classified as the ability of using language appropriately in various contexts. This definition was expanded by Canale (1988) to encompass the illocutionary competence (to be discussed presently) which is the ability to recognise the pragmatic rules to abide by when performing language functions and sociolinguistic competence which is the sociolinguistic norms to follow when performing these actions in particular context.

Bachman (1990) describes the framework of communicative language ability as "the knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use" (p. 84). The framework of this ability, he propounds, comprises language competence, strategic competence and psychophysio-logical mechanisms. Language competence, aka, the knowledge of language, consists of pragmatic competence and organisational competence. While organisational competence is a set of competence used in manipulating the form of language to construct or perceive grammatical sentences and to employ them in certain texts, including both grammatical and textual competence, pragmatic competence is

> the knowledge necessary (. . .) for appropriately producing or comprehending discourse. Specifically, it includes the illocutionary competence or the knowledge of how to perform speech acts, and sociolinguistic competence, or the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions which govern language use. (p. 42)

Thomas (1983) defines it as "the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context" (p. 92). On what pragmatic competence includes, Bialystok (1993) states that

> Pragmatic competence entails a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts. It includes the speakers' ability to use language for different purposes —to request, to instruct, to effect change. It includes the listeners' ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions, especially when these intentions are not directly conveyed in the forms, as indirect requests, irony and sarcasm. Pragmatic competence also includes command of the rules by which utterances are strung together to create discourse. This apparently simple achievement to produce coherent speech itself has several components as turn-taking, cooperation, cohesion. (p. 43)

Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) distinguished two types of pragmatic competence: pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. Since pragmalinguistics focuses on the coalition of pragmatics with linguistic constructions and is the "study of the more linguistic end of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, p. 11), pragmaliguistic competence, then, entails the ability to use the appropriate linguistic forms to fulfil particular communicative functions. Kasper (2001) says that "pragmalinguistic knowledge requires mappings of form, meaning, force and context" (p. 51). Accordingly, pragmalinguistic failure happens "when the pragmatic force mapped by S [speaker] onto a given utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to the utterance by native speakers of the target language" (Thomas, 1983, p. 99).

3.4.1. Developing Pragmatic Competence

Attaining pragmatic competence entails becoming pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically competent and being able to perceive and develop both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic understanding. Developing this pragmatic competence, be it in second or foreign language, is affected by ample exposure to input (to be discussed later) provided that this input is observed and perceived by learners, their mastery of second/foreign language, transfer of pragmatic knowledge and individual involvement in

some pragmatic aspects (Kasper & Roever, 2005). The dearth of efficient methods that could be adopted to develop the learners' pragmatic competence is ascribed to the little attention allocated to teaching pragmatics. In fact, "research seeking to identify the most effective ways of developing pragmatic competence continues to take a back seat to such domains of form-focused instruction as grammar or vocabulary" (Pawlak, 2010, p. 440).

The development of pragmatic competence requires longitudinal studies because this development takes a long time as it involves an intersection of language, language users and the context (Taguchi, 2009).

3.5. Speech Act Theory

Speech Act Theory has triggered considerable interest and gained major importance in the study of language usage. This justifies the existence of voluminous literature on this theory especially that it is related to other areas of knowledge such as psychology, anthropology, second language acquisition and linguistics. It is logically impossible, then, to review the existing literature on this theory. It is rather attempted to provide a general description of the most important works and features that are directly linked to the area of interest of this study.

3.5.1. Austin's Work

Austin (1962) introduced Speech Act Theory after proclaiming the misclassification of philosophers to utterances. He was particularly interested in how words are used to do various things. According to him, every act has three levels. The first act is saying something, viz. the locutionary act. This locutionary act, itself, can be seen from three distinctive views: the phonetic act, the phatic act and the rhetic act. He explains:

> The phonetic act is merely the act of uttering certain noises. The phatic act is the uttering of certain vocables or words, i.e. noises of certain types, belonging to and as belonging to, a certain vocabulary, conforming to and as conforming to a certain grammar. The rhetic act is the performance of an act of using those vocables with a certain more-or-less definite sense and reference. (p. 95)

The performance of the locutionary act is generally accompanied with another act which is about what to do in saying something, namely the illocutionary act. Indeed, by performing the locutionary act, people perform an act with a certain force such as ordering, questioning, promising, etc. These two acts contrast with a third one, dubbed the perlocutionary act. The latter is the act of doing by saying something. In other words, it is the act of producing "certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the audience, or of the speaker, or of other persons" (Austin, 1962, p. 101). In addition to explaining the aforementioned trichotomy, Austin also classified the classes of utterances by means of their illocutionary force into verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives and expositives.

3.5.2. Searle's Work

Searle (1969, 1975) came to develop Speech Act Theory and criticised Austin's classification on the grounds that Austin's study of these acts was limited to scrutinising the illocutionary verbs. In other words, Austin (1962) presumed that the illocutionary acts are determined by examining the illocutionary verbs. Searle (1969) opposed this claim by stating that there should not be confusion between illocutionary verbs and illocutionary acts. It is true that an illocutionary verb can be a good indicator of the type of the illocutionary act. However, two verbs which are not even synonymous can designate the same illocutionary act. He also criticised the vagueness of the criteria Austin used to classify speech acts especially that his division is not satisfactorily clear to differentiate between the types and is not systematic. For this reason, Searle (1975) set up a new classification of speech acts based on twelve aspects that will be discussed briskly presently.

The first aspect of his classification is the illocutionary point. By the illocutionary point, Searle (1975) means the purpose of an illocutionary act. For instance, the purpose behind giving an order is trying to make the hearer do a particular thing and behind making a promise is to give a word to the hearer that you will do something. The illocutionary point,

Searle goes on saying, is different from the illocutionary *force* and is rather a part of it. The illocutionary point of a command and a request, for example, is the same which is to make someone do something, but their illocutionary forces completely differ.

The second dimension on which Searle (1975) based his classification of speech acts is the direction of fit between words and the world. He advocates that the point in some illocutionary acts is to make the words fit the world as in assertions and in others is to make the world fits the words as in requests.

The third classification criterion is the expressed psychological states. Searle (1975) propounds that

> in general, in the performance of any illocutionary act with a propositional content, the speaker expresses some attitude, state, etc. to that propositional act. Notice that this holds even if he is insincere, even if he does not have the belief, desire, intention, regret, or pleasure in the performance of the speech act (p. 347).

He dubbed this psychological state as the *sincerity condition* of the act.

Another aspect for classification is the strength of the illocutionary point. Searle (1979) believes that the same illocutionary point can have different levels of strength. In the example of saying "I suggest we go to the movies" and "I insist we go to the movies" the illocutionary point is the same but the forces are completely different (p. 348).

Speech acts were also classified based on the status of the speaker and the hearer. The illocutionary force of the utterance differs according to the position of the speaker and the hearer. Searle gives the example of cleaning a room and claims that asking somebody to clean a room is an order/a command if it is said by the general to the private but it is a suggestion/request if it is said by the private to the general because the general is in a higher rank (position) than the private in the army.

The way the utterance relates to the interests of the speaker or hearer is another aspect of speech acts classification. As another kind of the preparatory conditions in speech act analysis, speech acts are classified according to the differences between what concerns the

speaker and the hearer and what does not. Speech acts classification was also based on the relations to the rest of discourse; this is to be found on how some "performative expressions" are used to link the utterance to the context surrounding it and the remainder of discourse. In other words, the expressions can be used to oppose what it has been said, to conclude something, to reply to a previous statement, etc.

The propositional content that is determined by the illocutionary force indicating devices (to be discussed further down) is also among the classification criteria. The differences at this level are related to differences in the conditions of the propositional content. As a way of example, a report requires the use of the present tense or the past, whereas a prediction requires the use of the future tense.

Searle (1975) classified the speech acts according to the distinction drawn between acts that it is compulsorily to consider them as acts and those which have the possibility of being acts but it is not obligatory to consider them as such. Furthermore, some acts do not need extra linguistic institution to be performed, whereas other needs it along with a particular position of the speaker and the hearer for the act to be performed. In order to declare a war, for instance, one compulsorily has to have the right position amid the extra-linguistic position.

Finally yet importantly, Searle classified speech acts according to the belief that some illocutionary verbs are of a performative nature while others are not. One should stress the that the illocutionary verbs adopt a performative use but this does not mean this is applicable to every illocutionary verb.

Searle (1975) used the aforementioned criteria to classify speech acts into representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations. The following is a brief description of each act.

3.5.2.1. Representatives

Searle (1975) claims that in this kind of speech acts the illocutionary point is to state the speaker's belief about the truth of the proposition. By definition in pragmatics, "the claim that every statement that is either true or false expresses a proposition. For example, the statement that "All men are equal" expresses the proposition that all men are equal" (Allott, 2010, p. 156). The constituents of this act, according to Searle (1975), can be measured on a true/false scale. As far as this act's direct of fit is concerned, the speakers make their words fit the world.

3.5.2.2. Directives

The purpose in this act is the speaker's attempt to incline the hearer to do something. This attempt can be an invitation, a suggestion or an order. In this type of act, the speaker makes the world fits the words and the propositional content is about the fact that the hearer will perform an act in the future (Searle, 1975).

3.5.2.3. Commissives

As the name reveals, the purpose of this speech act is to make the speaker commit himself to a future act. The propositional content in this case is that the speaker will do something in the future. Thus, the act expresses what the speaker intends to do (Searle, 1975).

3.5.2.4. Expressives

Unlike other kinds of speech acts, the expressive speech act's purpose is to show the speaker's attitude or psychological state in his mind. Exceptionally, this kind of acts does not have a direction of fit. Thus, the speaker neither makes the world fits his/her world nor makes his/her words fit the world (Searle, 1975).

3.5.2.5. Declarations

When performing this type of acts, the world is changed by uttering something. When the members of the act are successfully performed, a connection between the propositional conte

content and the real world is established (Searle, 1975).

3.5.3. Directness and Indirectness in Speech Acts

Yule (2010) states that speech acts differ from each other in terms of directness. Syntactic structures as the declarative, the imperative and the interrogative are employed to communicate functions represented in a statement, a command/request and a question respectively. When the structure is interrogative as in "Did you eat the pizza?" and functions as a question, the speech act is said to be direct. However, when the syntactic structure is interrogative as in "Can you pass the salt?" but does not function as a question and rather functions as a request, the speech act is said to be indirect. The failure to distinguish direct and indirect speech acts can have some odd implications in given contexts as in the following dialogue between a visitor and a passer-by who takes the visitor's words literally.

Visitor: Excuse me, Do you know where the Ambassador Hotel is?

Passer-by: Oh sure, I know where it is. (and walks away) (Yule, 2010, p. 134)

In this example, the passer-by considers the interrogative structure used by the visitor as a question and thus as a direct speech act, whereas the visitor's interrogative structure functions in this example as a request and therefore is an indirect speech act.

3.5.4. Applying Speech Act Theory to Language Teaching

Although some language courses are still based on language forms, an increasing attention has been given to other language features in the classroom as language proficiency, pragmatics and discourse analysis (Yalden, 1987). Bardovi-Harlig (1996) addressed the question of why we should shed light on bringing pragmatics to the classroom. In relation to that, she has discussed the idea that it would be beneficial to teach speech acts as there are significant differences between EFL learners and native speakers in terms of speech acts performance. This can be seen in differences in the performance of speech acts even in the same contexts, in the form, at the level of the semantic formula or the context of the semantic

formula. On which speech act to teach, Bardovi-Harlig (1996) states that speech acts do not differ in terms of significance. The selected speech act to be taught should be chosen to meet the learners' needs and the future learning goals. The learners' need for a particular speech act can be identified through the analysis of the spoken or written performance or by directly asking the students about their difficulties. Earlier on, Canale & Swain (1980) referred to teaching speech acts through discussing the adoption of the Communicative Approach. The approach is set to easily integrate this kind of language in the classroom. It should be founded on the learners' communicative needs and these learners should be granted the chance to participate in intentions. In the early phases of this approach, the learners need to employ these properties of the communicative language in their native language. The approach's goal should cover providing the learners with the necessary knowledge, training and experience to fulfil their communicative needs.

3.5.5. Conditions for the Learning of Speech Acts

In order to communicate successfully in the target language, learners have to be exposed to suitable input and have to be given the chances of output. Moreover, they have to be provided with the necessary feedback. These aspects can help in developing the learner's pragmatic competence and, therefore, their learning would result in the successful production of speech acts (Flor & Juan, 2010).

3.5.5.1. Input

Input refers to "the language learners are exposed to" (Flor & Juan, 2010, p.10). Learners need to have an exposure to a large quantity of samples of language employed for communicating information (Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; White, 1989). The significance of the vital role input has in developing language and particularly for developing the pragmatic competence was referred to by Schwartz (1993) who believes that "for the knowledge system of a particular language to grow, the acquirer must have exposure to

instances and exemplars of that particular language. Without such exposure language development will not take place" (p. 148). However, being exposed to language does not necessarily entail absorbing this language by the brain because if this was the case, learning would be instantly acquired.

What really happens as VanPatten (1996) puts it forward "learners filter the input; they possess internal processors that act on the input and only part of this input makes its way into the developing system at any given time. The part of input that learners process is generally called intake[2]" (p. 7).

In a discussion of how input is different from intake, Hatch (1983) explains that

> if we wish to keep both terms, we may say that input in what the learner hears and attempts to process. That part that learners process only partially is still input, through traces of it may remain and help in building the internal representation of the language. The part the learner actually successfully and completely processed in a subset called intake. (p. 81)

Bardovi-Harlig (1996) believes that learners are not exposed to satisfactory input to develop their pragmatic competence. The problem is that they do not at times notice the input due to their lack of pragmatic awareness or even their grammatical competence. VanPatten (2000) sees that input is tremendously important as it is a condition for the success of second language acquisition. Kasper (2001) points out that second language learners have the opportunities to be notified of and directed to the various examples of pragmatic aspects they come across out of the classroom. Such opportunities "encourage them to try out new pragmatic strategies, reflect on their observations and their own language use, and obtain feedback" (p. 56). Foreign language learners, however, are deprived of similar opportunities and are confined to the only input they are exposed to in the classroom for developing their pragmatic competence.

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[2] The term *intake* was coined by Corder (1967).

According to LoCastro (2003), there are three types of input: the teacher, the materials and the learners. In relation to the current study, more stress should be put on the materials as they are deemed the second source of input to learners in the classroom.

The importance of input has been highlighted in research studies (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). The necessity of input in developing the pragmatic competence, however, is not satisfactory because psycho-linguistically speaking; the relevance of input is defined by the attention given to it (Schmidt, 2001). This attention should be turned to the act of being performed, the forms used for performing the act and the contextual settings surrounding it at the level of textual or situational context. In addition, we require noticing and understanding the phenomenon. Understanding was earlier on defined by Schmidt (1995) as "the recognition of some general principle, rule, or pattern. Noticing refers to surface level phenomena and item learning, while understanding refers to deeper level(s) of abstraction system learning" (p. 29).

3.5.5.2. Output

Swain (1985) referred to the output hypothesis which is founded on the notion that the production of language benefits the acquisition of second language (Which is thought to be applicable to foreign language learning as well). In other words, the learners' development of second language proficiency is based on their need to produce language in a spoken or written form. Swain (1995) discussed the functions of output that are related to accuracy. Actually, output first encourages noticing. The production of the target language helps the learners to pay attention to the differences existing between what they say and what they intend to say. This particularly makes them notice what they need to know and discover their linguistic problems. In effect, the language production helps the learners become aware of how the language works and form a hypothesis on that in their minds. Output also enables

learners to control their linguistic knowledge. This can be applicable to teaching speech acts and as this output can be full of errors, learners necessarily need corrective feedback.

3.5.5.3. Feedback

In addition to the previous conditions for learning speech acts; input and output, feedback is also necessary to develop the learners' development of the pragmatic competence, and therefore successfully produce speech acts. Flor & Juan (2010) explain two kinds of feedback: explicit feedback and implicit one. In explicit feedback, the learner's error that occurs in their output is not secretly but directly pointed to that it has occurred. In implicit feedback, the error can be referred to indirectly through the use of various methods.

3.6. The Illocutionary/Pragmatic Force of an Utterance

3.6.1. Meaning and Pragmatic Force

In order to provide an insightful account for meaning in pragmatics, the various levels of meaning and how they differ from each other will be developed. To Thomas (1995), there are three levels of meaning: abstract meaning, utterance meaning and force. Abstract meaning is the literal meaning of a language form, be it a word, a phrase or a sentence. It is the meaning found in the dictionary and it is also referred to as *sense* or *face-value meaning*. Earlier, Leech (1983) claimed that the description of sense is made through "semantic representation" (p. 30). However, sometimes albeit the meaning of some language forms is known, people do not know to what they are referring. For understanding an utterance, it is not merely required to relate sense to form, but to define what it is being referred to in context as well. In this regard, deictic expressions are the quintessence of what people generally do not understand without the help of context. In a sentence like "She bought a very expensive car", the meaning of "she" is known to mean a pronoun but to whom it refers to out of context is not known. Deictic expressions include place deictics such as "here" and "there", person deictics as the personal pronouns "he", "your", etc., and discourse deictics as "sir" and "madam"

Thomas, 1995, pp. 9-10). The problem occurs as Thomas (1995) says when the expressions are taken out of context. Ambiguity, however, is not limited to reference but expands to cover the structure, i.e. it can be syntactic. As a way of example, the sentence "The policeman threatened the man with the gun" is ambiguous as we do not know whether it is the policeman who was holding the gun or the man.

The third level of meaning is the *pragmatic force*. This notion was first introduced by Austin (1962) and the term "force" is employed in pragmatics to refer to the communicative intention of the speaker. In uttering a sentence like "Is that your book?", for example, one has to be aware of the speaker's communicative intention behind it. This sentence may have been uttered out of admiration, to show you did not know that somebody reads such kind of books, or as a request to move it as it is on a table I need and so on. Miller (1974) stressed the importance of the pragmatic force when he stated that not understanding people is not only ascribed to our "inability to hear them or parse their sentences or understand their words. Such problems do occur, of course. But a far more important source of difficulty in communication is that we often fail to understand a speaker's intention" (p. 15).

Kearns (1984) says that the pragmatic force, otherwise known as the illocutionary force, is only ascribed to the producers of the language forms and particularly to their main purpose of getting their messages communicated. Recanati (1987) puts it in other words by claiming that the pragmatic force of an utterance is

> the intention manifested by the speaker to perform a certain illocutionary act by means of his utterance. An utterance has the force of an order if the speaker intends in uttering it to give an order to the hearer; likewise, it has the force of a suggestion if he intends to make a suggestion. (p. 10)

The possible interpretations of the utterance are related to the context in which it occurs and herein lies its significance.

3.6.2. The Context of the Utterance

Context as set by Searle & Vandervenken (1985) is squarely linked to disambiguing the

illocutionary force. According to them, the context in which an illocutionary act of an utterance is produced is called *the context of the utterance.* The need for this concept arises from the notion that an utterance can have various illocutionary acts when occurring in different contexts and its indexicality and propositional content can also differ from one context to another. Thus, the context determines the illocutionary act of an utterance. In an attempt to precisely delineate the context, the latter is composed of five features: "A speaker, a hearer, a time, a place, and those other various features of the speaker, hearer, time, and place that are relevant to the performance of speech acts" (p. 27). Such features are related to the language producer's psychological state and they are labelled *the worlds of the utterance.* These worlds are said to be required for exactly deciphering the illocutionary force of the utterance as we need to be informed about the speaker, the hearer and the elements of reference in these worlds. As a way of example and in a similar analysis to that of Searle & Vandervenken (1985), by uttering "Close the door" in a context in which the speaker has power over the hearer, this utterance might be considered an order but it is a request if the speaker does not possess such an authority. Moreover, the success or failure of the act of ordering is dependent upon the speaker-hearer relation in the different worlds. It is being cognizant of the different features of an utterance what helps the hearer to recognise the illocutionary force of the utterance.

3.6.3. The Elements of the Illocutionary Force

It is of great importance to mention that the illocutionary force is a part of the illocutionary act. In fact, the majority of illocutionary acts "that are performed by successful utterances of sentence in appropriate contexts in the use of the natural language are elementary illocutionary acts of the form F(P) which consists of an illocutionary force F and a propositional content P" (Vandervenken, 1990, p. 8). Accordingly, the speech act performed

by the utterance "The sky is blue", for example, is an illocutionary act that has the illocutionary force of an assertion and a propositional act that "The sky is blue."

Previously referred to in the works of Austin (1962), Searle (1969, 1975) and Searle & Vandervenken (1985), the illocutionary force is said to be composed of seven elements: the illocutionary point, the mode of achievement, the degree of strength of the illocutionary point, propositional content conditions, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions and the strength of these sincerity conditions. It is, therefore, believed that clearly understanding the notion of the illocutionary force is attained by means of scrutinising its components (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985).

3.6.3.1. The Illocutionary Point

The illocutionary point is the most important part of the illocutionary force because the other components of the pragmatic force are obtained through designating or altering the illocutionary point or they are the results produced from this point. It is the purpose of the utterance. The illocutionary point, for example, of a statement or a description is informing people how something is. The significance of the illocutionary point lies in that it is the deciding factor of the success or failure of a performance of an act. In other words, the act cannot be successful if it does not fulfil the purpose. For example, the success of the act of promising necessitates the person's commitment to do something and this is exactly the illocutionary point of promising. Various illocutionary forces can possess the same illocutionary point such as the case of order and request; they do have the same illocutionary point but differ in terms of other things. In addition, as far the relation between the illocutionary point and the propositional content is concerned, when performing an act of form F (P), the illocutionary point differs from the proposition, it is rather fulfilled on it (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985).

3.6.3.2. Degree of Strength of the Illocutionary Point

The illocutionary point can be the same with different amounts of strength. For example, insisting on having something is stronger than just requesting it. Profusely apologising and swearing under oath that it is the case is stronger than merely expressing regret and suggesting that it is. This degree of strength which is required to realise an illocutionary force F is called the characteristic degree of strength of the illocutionary point of F. It is worth mentioning this difference in degrees results from different sources. The strength of ordering, for instance, comes from the authority the speaker possesses while the strength of begging is drawn from the force of the wish to have something (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985).

3.6.3.3. Mode of Achievement

While performing speech acts, some of the illocutionary acts need particular conditions whereby the illocutionary point is fulfilled. In the example of performing a successful command, the speaker does not only need to be in a power position but also to make use of it. In realising the utterance act, such features that differentiate ordering from requesting, though they both have the same illocutionary point, are dubbed the "modes of achievement" of the illocutionary point and the special mode that is needed for the performance of an illocutionary force F is called "the characteristic mode of achievement" of the illocutionary point. Attention should be drawn to that occasionally there is a kind of interdependency between the degree of strength and the mode of achievement (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985, p16).

3.6.3.4. Propositional Content Conditions

The propositional content conditions are some conditions that are enforced by the illocutionary force. The propositional content is sometimes restricted to the type of the illocutionary force, as in promising, for example, the propositional content is compulsorily related to the speaker's commitment of the doing, which cannot be done by another person

and cannot be about something in the past. Analogously, when apologising, the speaker must apologise for something s/he has done. These conditions can alter the syntactic construction of sentences to forestall the occurrence of any linguistic oddity (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985).

3.6.3.5. Preparatory Conditions

The success of most of the illocutionary acts is dependent upon particular conditions. For example, the act of promising would be a defective one even if it is successfully performed and the illocutionary point is fulfilled if it does not fall in the speaker's desire. Promising presupposition is formed by the ability to do what one has promised and the hearer's interest. These conditions are not, however, the psychological states of the language producer and the language receiver, they are rather a kind of states that are necessary for the performance of a speech act. They incarnate the axioms that designate the preparatory conditions that are reflected in the psychological state (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985).

In a nutshell, every illocutionary act possesses preparatory conditions. Vandervenken (1980) defines the preparatory condition as "a state of affairs that the speaker presupposes to be actual in the world of the utterance when he performs this act in that context" (p. 255). and gives promising as an example, stating that the preparatory condition for a promise is having the ability to keep that promise.

3.6.3.6. Sincerity Conditions

The performance of an illocutionary act with a propositional content comprises expressing the psychological state. Accordingly, in stating an utterance, for instance, the speaker expresses an opinion. The act's propositional content is on par with the psychological state's propositional content. As there is a possibility to disclose a false psychological state, sincerity and insincerity in speech acts is therefore possible. In fact, "an insincere speech act is one in which the speaker performs a speech act and therefore expresses a psychological state even

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though he does not have that state" (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985, p.18). A lie then, according to them, is an insecure statement because the speaker does not believe what s/he stated. The insincerity of the speech act does not reveal its defectiveness; a lie, for instance, is a successful assertion. However, the success of the speech act necessitates expressing the psychological state that is determined by this type of act's sincerity conditions.

3.6.3.7. Degree of Strength of the Sincerity Conditions

As it has been earlier mentioned, the strength of the illocutionary point varies and so is that of the psychological state. For example, "the speaker who makes a request expresses a desire that the hearer do the act requested; but if he begs, beseeches, or implores, he expresses a stronger desire than if he merely requests" (Searle & Vandervenken, 1985, p. 19). Sometimes the illocutionary force demands expressing the psychological state with a certain degree of strength. In this case, that degree of strength is labelled the "characteristic degree of strength".

Based on what it has been explained so far pertaining to the illocutionary force, Searle & Vandervenken (1985) summarise their discussion as follows.

> An illocutionary force is uniquely determined once its illocutionary point, its preparatory conditions, the mode of achievement of its illocutionary point, the degree of strength of its illocutionary point, its propositional content conditions, its sincerity conditions, and the degree of strength of its sincerity conditions are specified. So two illocutionary forces F1 and F2 are identical when they are the same with respect to these seven features. (p. 20)

It is advisable for any analyst of the pragmatic force of an utterance to refer to all these elements in their examination in order to be a thorough one.

3.7. The Illocutionary Indicating Devices

The illocutionary force indicating devices are elements that determine the illocutionary force of a speech act (Searle, 1969; Searle & Vandervenken, 1985). On how the illocutionary force indicating device functions, Searle (1969) claims that it "operates on the propositional content to indicate among other things the direction of fit between the propositional content

and reality" (p. 18). It is a determining factor of the illocutionary force because it helps in exhibiting how the propositional content should be interpreted and what the illocutionary act of the utterance is. The list of illocutionary force indicating devices comprises "word order, stress, intonation contour, punctuation, the mood of the verb, and the so-called performatives" (Searle, 1969. p. 30).

Searle (1969) goes on saying that the explicitness of these elements, however, is not necessary for a given illocutionary force to be indicated. That is to say, an illocutionary indicating device is not required when both the context and the utterance are clear enough to show that the illocutionary force conditions are fulfilled. Récanati (1980) distinguished two types of the illocutionary force indicating devices, namely the primary indicators and the secondary indicators. In uttering it as a part of the sentence, primary indicators' function is to indicate the type of the illocutionary force that is performed in the utterance. This function, therefore, is identical to its meaning. However, the secondary indicators' function is not restricted to merely indicating. Its meaning is rather the function of its constituents meaning and this clarifies their possibility of being employed as illocutionary indicators.

3.7.1. Intonation and Exclamatory Sentences
3.7.1.1. Intonation Definition and Functions

According to Chun (2002), the use of the term intonation is indistinguishable from the use of other terms like prosody and suprasegmentals. Intonation refers to "everyday language as speech melody or sentence melody, terms that focus on speech variations and modulations" (p.3). In Ladd's (2008) words, it refers to "the use of suprasegmental phonetic features to convey 'postlexical' or sentence level pragmatic meaning in linguistically structured way" (p. 4). Simply defined, "intonation refers to patterns of pitch variation in a sentence" (Brinton, 2002, p. 62).

The significance of intonation lies in the various functions it fulfils. Crystal (2003) states that intonation has six functions: emotional, grammatical, textual, informational,

psychological, and indexical. In terms of emotions, intonation is used to make different feelings known through tone and in relation to grammar, it helps us recognise the grammatical structures, where sentences start and end, and the several clause types found in English. Its role in speaking is similar to that of punctuation marks in writing. However, intonation is not confined to the sentence; it is also extended to cover discourse. Through its textual function, it indicates coherence and contrast in large units. In addition, intonation tends to have an informational function in the sense that it can easily help us make a distinction between old and new information via making some parts of language more prominent than others. Its psychological function is embodied in enabling us to comprehend, easily remember and repeat large stretches of language. Finally yet importantly, intonation plays an indexical role by being a personal indicator or shows that a person belongs to a given society: clergymen, newsreaders, etc., have their own particular intonation, for example.

In addition to the aforementioned functions of intonation and by regarding it an illocutionary indicating device, it is the pragmatic function of intonation that is brought to the fore. Chun (2002) discussed the association between intonation and illocutionary acts. He claims that a simple example of this function encompasses employing intonation to express the speaker's illocutionary force. In uttering a sentence as "Why don't you go to the gym?" it is the intonation used that distinguishes the speaker's possible intentions which include enquiring for information, making a suggestion or urging.

In Hervey's (1994) discussion about the illocutionary function of intonation, he propounds that "morphemes, words and phrases contribute to the *syntactic material* that determines the propositional (locutionary content) of sentences, whereas intonational signa contribute to the *interactional* (illocutionary) *purport* that overlays the literal meaning of the sentences' syntactic bases" (p. 39). He says that a combination of words can make a single locutionary

content, yet can make different sentence forms and illocutionary meanings due to intonation. As a way of example, a nominal sentence as "The salt", he expounds, has one proposotional content but can make different forms of sentences: the declarative sentence "The salt.", the exclamatory sentence "The salt!" and the interrogative sentence "The salt?"

These sentences can be taken by the hearer as a statement of fact, a warning and an enquiry respectively due to intonation which is contributing factor in illocutionary meaning (p. 39).

3.7.1.2. The Importance of Teaching Intonation

Wells (2006) views that studying any language linguistically is beneficial. However, EFL learners should also master intonation. He posits that these learners generally focus on the study of segmental features. They are taught how to produce the English sounds and the differences between them, but they are, most of the time, not taught intonation. This is why, some of these learners end up acquiring it unintentionally and others do not acquire it at all. Teaching intonation is essential because native speakers tend to shut an eye to any error performed by non-native speakers at the level of segmental features, but they do not permit intonation mistakes, simply because they are not aware that one can make errors in relation to intonation. As it has a direct relation with meaning, the problem lies in that the pattern "the learner uses may not have the meaning he or she intends. Speakers of English assume that– when it comes to intonation– you mean what you say. This may not be the same what you think you are saying" (pp. 1-2). For this reason, any error in intonation would result in a breakdown in communication; hence this suprasegmental feature should be given a valuable position in any EFL curriculum.

3.7.1.3. The Intonation of Exclamatory Sentences

Since exclamatory sentences can possess copious intonational patterns, what is essential to bear in mind is that these sentences "reach for the extreme" be it higher than usual or lower than usual. They also "show the voice in some manner 'out of control' " (Bolinger, 1989, p.

249). Exclamatory sentences are known for nearly all having an exclamatory fall which is deemed as a type of the definite fall (Wells, 2006).

Intonation, however, can differ from one form of exclamatory sentence to another. As for the declarative exclamatory sentence as "She was a wonderful woman!" This sentence should be read with a rising nucleus on wonderful (Jackson & Stockwell, 1996, p.23). Inverted exclamatives, despite they are similar to yes/no questions in form, they have a different intonation from them; the former have a falling intonation while the latter have a rising one. Additionally, inverted exclamatives bear two primary stresses; "one on the subject and one on the focus of the exclamative construction" (McCawley, 1998, p. 554). For wh-exclamatives, Bolinger (1989) states that these forms of sentences have a degree word that bears a higher pitch than the other constituents of the sentences. In the sentence "What a woman she is", the degree word is "woman" and thus it receives a higher pitch (p. 250). Echo exclamations are characterised by a rise-fall tone. The nucleus in this case is on the old information which is significant for the speaker (Cruttenden, 1997).

3.8. Speech Acts and Sentence Types

Any language speaker is able to fulfil a communicative purpose with their language sentences. These tasks include initiating a conversation, adjuring somebody to do something, requesting information, making a promise, giving information, showing surprise or dismay, proposing a conjoint act, allowing somebody to do something, betting, providing somebody with something, etc. Some syntactic constructions or particular forms in language are devoted to particularly accomplish these communicative tasks, along with "special particles, affixes, word order, intonation, missing elements, or even phonological alterations (or several of these in concert); when a sentence shows one of these it is to be understood as being used in a specific way" (Sadock & Zwicky, 1985, p. 155).

Following the form-function analysis of Sadock & Zwicky (1985), inversion and rising the final intonation in the following English sentence "Have you done your homework?" shows that you are requesting your communicative partner to inform you whether the propositional content of the utterance is true or false. Put differently, this specific way of forming a sentence in English is related to the pragmatic meaning of asking yes/no questions. In addition to being used to communicate a conventional force, this sentence can be used alternatively or additionally to indicate other forces. That is to say, the same sentence about doing the homework can be used to remind the hearer that they did not do their homework.

One of the controversies in Speech Act Theory is questioning the nature of the relation between sentence forms and pragmatic functions. A tentative answer to this very question was provided by Akmajian (1984) in his paper entitled "Sentence Types and Form-function Fit". To him, "particular clusterings of formal properties should be singled out as constituting significant sentence-types" (p. 18). In English, designating sentence type is based on the presence/absence of the auxiliary, its position in the sentence and the intonation that is combined with syntax. To Akmajian (1984), a "one-to-one form function fit is theoretically possible as input is provided from formal grammar to pragmatics, [and] there is a need for establishing (…) a set of correspondence principles that relate certain formal sentence-types and certain pragmatic functions" (p. 21). On this very issue, Lambrecht (1994) sees that one should not disbelieve the existence of the relation between syntactic constructions and pragmatic meaning of sentences. However, he advocates that an authentic image of this relation is not shared in most of approaches as the number of associations existing between language forms and functions in real language use does exceed what is usually presumed in these approaches.

In their attempt to link communicative purposes and language forms, Verspoor and Saunter (2000) state that people communicate for different purposes. The main ones are to

share a piece of information, to seek one, to perform an action and to expose feeling about something. These communicative functions and adjacent ones are reflected according to purpose and manner in the types of sentences as the declarative, the interrogative, the imperative and the exclamatory.

3.9. The Pragmatics of Exclamatory Sentences

It has already been mentioned earlier that exclamatory sentences are problematic in both syntax and semantics due to a disagreement among scholars on what the term exclamatory sentence refers to in language. This is also applicable to pragmatics, as many pragmaticists analysed certain types of exclamatory sentences pragmatically while overlooking the remainder. For this particular reason, and in addition to that there is a lack of literature about this important issue, this part of the current study is not a fully-fledged examination of the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences.

3.9.1. Exclamatory Sentences as Expressives

Expressives are about the psychological state of the speaker/writer or, in other words, their attitude towards an explicitly mentioned state of affair. They possess an empty direction of fit, i.e. there is no success or failure of fit and their purpose is expressing the speaker's attitude embodied in the propositional content (Searle, 1975). Exclamatory sentences constitute one of various constructions through which strong feelings and emotions can be expressed and as illocutionary points, Vandervenken (1990) asserts, are manifested by virtue of verb mood or sentence types, expressives are, therefore, said to be represented by exclamatory sentences in English. This view that exclamatory sentences are expressives which is also supported by several studies (Plag et al, 2009; Miro, 2008; Rett, 2011; Vandervenken, 1998) is adopted in this thesis with the belief that exclamatory sentences are expressives in Searle's classification of speech acts for reasons that will be mentioned later on in this section.

As far as the illocutionary force of the expressives is concerned, Vandervenken (1990) states that "by definition, the primitive expressive illocutionary force has the expressive point and the neutral mode of achievement, degree of strength and propositional content, preparatory and sincerity conditions. It is realized syntactically in the type of exclamatory sentences" (p. 127).

Moreover, he points out that the expressive illocutionary forces are of a complex nature since it is impossible for one to express an attitude toward a state of affairs embodied in a propositional content if they do not associate this propositional content with the world via a given *psychological mode*.

3.9.2. On the Pragmatics of Declarative Exclamatory Sentences

Declarative exclamatory sentences and declaratives represent a propositional content that is true (Michaelis, 2001; Moutaouakil, 2005; Sadock & Zwicky, 1985). Michaelis (2001) and Moutaouakil (2005) and despite not providing a satisfactory explanation, consider this type of exclamatory sentences as assertions (which fall under the category of representatives in Speech Act Theory). However, Sadock & Zwicky (1985) claim that in contrast to declarative sentences which are said to be informative in nature, declarative exclamatory sentences are expressive. Oomen (1979) says that the difference between declarative sentences and exclamatory ones is in introducing new information. Declarative sentences tend to introduce new information while exclamatory ones do not. In essence, exclamatory sentences, including declarative exclamatory sentences, are rather expressives and not assertions (See the previous point). To give a reasonable argument for why exclamatory sentences should be deemed as expressives, Rett (2011) carefully compared between assertions and declarative exclamatory sentences to conclude that these sentences are not assertions because they have a different intonation from that of assertions. She advocates that "because sentences exclamations [declarative exclamatory sentences] are always uttered with an intonation

distinct from matrix assertions I believe they should not be analyzed as assertions" (p. 418). Additionally, she believes that both declarative exclamatory sentences and exclamatives have the same felicity conditions and, therefore, should be scrutinised as the same speech act whose illocutionary force is sui generis.

In Searle's (1969) work, performing speech acts is restricted to obeying some constitutive rules. These constitutive rules determine whether these speech acts are felicitous. Rett (2011) argues that the following are the general constitutive rules for declarative exclamatory sentences.

> a. Content rule: The content of a sentence exclamation is the proposition p
> [proposition] denoted by that sentence.
> b. Preparatory rule: S [speaker] has direct evidence that p is true.
> c. Sincerity rule: 1. S believes p; 2. S considers p not worthy or remarkable.
> d. Essential rule: S's utterance of a sentence exclamation counts as an expression of S's
> attitude towards p. (p. 415)

To Rett (2011), the content of the declarative exclamatory sentence is a proposition that is true and in order to be sincere, the content of this sentence should be considered as note worthy or remarkable by the speaker. In the case of exclamatory sentences and as they are considered expressives, these sentences are allowed to be uttered insincerely. The last rules show that the utterance is the speaker's attitude towards a propositional content that is either remarkable or note-worthy.

Rett (2008b) suggests an illocutionary force operator of declarative exclamatory sentences. She claims that for one operator with regard to expressiveness, the correctness of an exclamatory utterance which possesses a content p in context is not achieved unless the producer of the utterance considers it *surprising*. For the other factor, it is entailed in the salience of the proposition in context.

In an example of a comparison between a declarative sentence and a declarative exclamatory sentence provided by Rett (2008a), the propositional content of the declarative sentence is "Sue wore orange shoes" and its illocutionary force is an assertion. In this

assertion, the speaker believes this propositional content and communicates its truth. However, the declarative exclamatory sentence "Sue wore orange shoes!" is a different speech act. It has the same propositional content as the declarative in this example, but in its illocutionary force the speaker believes the propositional content and communicates that this content is contrary to expectations or surprising (p. 602).

This analysis of the illocutionary force of declarative exclamatory sentences is not exhaustive for many reasons. First, the notion of surprise here is *neutral* in the sense that surprise can be positive or negative. Thus, one should be more specific about which emotions are intended to be conveyed by the speaker through the use of exclamatory sentences and whether these emotions are positive or negative. Besides, the pragmatic analysis of the exclamatory sentences is out of context despite the fact that the pragmatic analysis in the first place is based on context. It is preferable to say the illocutionary force communicates that, instead of the content is surprising, the speaker has a strong emotion for this content. Another problem that emerges concerning the declarative exclamatory sentences is related to the declarative exclamatory sentences with so and such. These constructions were considered under the category of declarative sentences with regard to their syntax. However, they "are pragmatically similar to the constructions with *what* and *how*. The words *so* and *such* in themselves indicate extreme positions on scales, and the utterances are to be regarded as exclamatives" (Beijer, 2002, p. 13).

3.9.3. On the Pragmatics of Exclamatives

Most of the research studies on the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences are devoted to the pragmatics of wh-exclamatives more than any other forms of exclamatory sentences. The reason is that the form of wh-exclamatives does not intersect other types of sentences as the declaratives and the interrogatives. Accordingly, they constitute an independent form that represents *pure exclamativity*.

Uttering a sentence in a given context entails an attempt on the part of the language producer to form an illocutionary act that is a part of their meaning and intention to make the language receiver understand in context (Vandervenken, 1990). The expressive illocutionary act is expressed through the intonational pattern and the construction made up of the wh-element with the adjective that follows it. Generally, it is the adjective that designates the type of the emotion expressed. In Vandervenken's example, "How glad I am you have come!" the construction is deployed to show pleasure or joy (p. 108).

Unlike declarative exclamatory sentences, wh-exclamatives are not uttered with a proposition E-force (E-force stands for the illocutionary force of an exclamatory sentence) because they do not denote propositions. Instead they are uttered using a different illocutionary force operator that expresses surprise. An exclamative utterance is "expressively correct if its content is a degree property which is salient in the discourse, the speaker is surprised that a specific degree holds of that degree property, and that degree exceeds a contextually provided standard *s*" (Rett, 2008a, p. 609).

 Saying that the wh-exclamatives express the speaker's strong feeling towards a state of affairs is opaque as it does not reveal much of these sentences function. It does not show what exclamations do to know that the speaker has feelings towards a fact. In order to make such perception more specific, Zanuttini and Portner (2003) suggest the possibility to "frame the contribution of exclamatives as conveying a reaction of some sort. Thus, *How cute Shelly is!* can be seen as expressing adoration and *What a vicious dog I met on my bike ride!* as expressing fear" (p. 55). They go further and explain that the emotions in these sentences are known through the adjectives used; cute and vicious respectively. The cuteness of Shelly goes beyond the speaker's expectation and, therefore, is the source of their adoration. Similarly, the dog's viciousness exceeded the speaker's thoughts and that caused their fear.

3.9.3.1. Exclamatives and Implications

A central question to be raised when examining wh-exclamatives is what these utterances convey. As a matter of fact, wh-exclamatives have two types of content, viz the descriptive content and the expressive content. The descriptive content is about showing that the amount described by a given exclamative structure is high and it represents "a fact about the world" while the expressive content is the speaker's emotional attitude such as surprise, amazement, etc. towards this descriptive content (Chernilovskaya et al; Miro, 2008). The descriptive content of the wh-exclamative "How many people took part in the rally" is "Many people took part in the rally", whereas the expressive content is that "the speaker is impressed/amazed/ surprised/awed ... by the number of people who took part in the rally" (Chernilovskaya et al, 2012, p. 109). On how these contents are communicated, Chernilovskaya et al (2012) propounded to analyse the relation between wh-exclamatives and the set of utterances that surround them.

On the function of wh-exclamatives, Murano (2006) states that "the illocutionary function of the exclamative clause is to present a propositional content —or a part of it— as somehow unexpected or noteworthy" (p. 186). Wh-exclamatives cannot be assertions because their descriptive content cannot be asserted and their content is *presupposed* (Chernilovskaya et al, 2012; Grimshaw, 1979; Zanuttini &,Portner 2003; Rett, 2011). Miro (2008) made a comparison between the discourse effect of declaratives and that of wh-exclamatives. For example, the sentences "I'm amazed at Pau's tallness" and "How tall Pau is", she suggests, "commit the speaker and bias the context towards p" (p. 58). That is to say, the speaker compels the addressee to accept the propositional content of the utterance. The difference between declarative sentences and wh-exclamatives in this case is that in declarative sentences the commitment is towards its content, but in the wh-exclamatives it is towards both the descriptive and the expressive content of the utterance. The descriptive content of

"How tall Pau is!" is that Pau is as tall as the context determines and that the expressive content is the emotional reaction towards Pau's tallness. Assertions and expressives, Miro (2008) believes, do differ because the objective of assertions is providing the hearer with information while the objective of expressives is to express feelings. Grimshaw (1979) sees that exclamatives cannot be employed as replies to questions because they do not semantically possess certain content for replying to a question. Gutzmann (2013) also believes that unlike assertions, wh-exclamatives are not acceptable as a reply to a question. However, Miro (2008) posits that exclamatives can be used as answers to questions in some situations as in the following dialogue:

A: Why don't we go to Cala S' Alguer?
B: What a wonderful idea! (p. 50).

3.9.4. The Pragmatics of Interjections
3.9.4.1. The Pragmatic Classification of Interjections

Ameka (1992) defines interjections "as a subset of items that encode speaker attitudes and communicative intentions and are context-bound. In this approach, interjections are a subclass of pragmatic markers" (p. 107). To him, pragmatic markers are divided into particles and routines. While routines can stand on their own, particles cannot, and since interjections can be utterances themselves they cannot, then, be particles, but rather routines. Although particles and interjections are different grammatical classes, they share context-dependence, that is to say, their interpretation is bound to the context in which they occur.

Recall from chapter two that interjections are classified by Ameka (1992) into primary and secondary interjections or into expressive, conative and phatic on the basis of their communicative functions. This classification depends on the function of language (Jackobson, 1960). Ameka (1992) defines expressive interjections as interjections that are about the speaker's mental state. More specifically, they constitute the "vocal gestures" that represent this state. This category of interjections comprises the emotive interjections and the

cognitive ones. Emotive interjections are the ones that are used instantly to express the emotions and the feelings of the speakers such as "yuk", "wow" and "ouch". Cognitive interjections are the ones that are used to transmit the speaker's knowledge at the moment of speaking. By conative interjections, it is referred to the ones whose function is to grab the addressee's attention or seek a reaction or an answer on the part of the hearer; "sh" and "eh" are a request for silence and an information-seeking interjection respectively. Phatic interjections "are used in the establishment and maintenance of communicative contact. A variety of conventional vocalisations which express a speaker's mental attitude towards the ongoing discourse, that is backchanneling or feedback signalling vocalisations, may be classified phatic" (Ameka, 1992, p.114). In this category, "yeah" and "mhm" are good examples. Under this category, we find interjections with the function of greeting, farewell and welcoming people. As the function of these interjections may intersect, the aforementioned classification was based on the dominating functions.

9.4.2. Interjections as Lexemes and Utterances

Wilkins (1992) considers interjections to be both lexemes and utterances. Indeed, they were deemed as "primitive sentences", "instinctive utterance" and "minor sentences" (Curme,1947; Sapir, 1921; Bloomfield, 1933) respectively. By examining interjections, however, one can question whether as the other utterances, they possess a propositional content in a particular context. Wilkins (1992) believes that if one wants to consider interjections as utterances, especially that they are different from other normal sentences composed of noun phrases or verb phrases, they need to prove that they can predicate and refer. To argue that interjections have a proposition, Wilkins (1992, p. 129) refers to ellipsis and provides examples of one word sentences one may use as answers to questions such as the utterance "Black" to respond to the question "What colour is her car?". The elliptical utterance is based on the complete form of the question and the context. It is understood that

the words that were omitted are "her car" and "is" and "black" is a reduced form of the full form "Her car is black". Wilkins (1992) argues that they are "understood within semantic structure of the elliptical utterance which are not present in the surface structure, but are recoverable from some other linguistic structure in the discourse context" (p. 129).

3.9.4.3. Interjections and the Communication of Meaning

Wharton (2009) attempts to answer two fundamental questions pertaining to the communication of meaning: the first question is about what interjections communicate and the second is about how they communicate. He claims that an appropriate examination of what interjections communicate should consider some observations. Interjections are said to communicate propositional attitudes. As a way of example, the interjection "alas" replaces showing regret through sighing or changing the tone of voice. In addition to that, they communicate emotions, feelings and sensations. Wharton (2009) emphasises the difference between these three and says that "while emotional states crucially involve cognitive as well qualitative and psychological elements, feelings or sensations need not" (p. 88). On the meaning of these elements, Rey (1980) previously explained that emotional states are identified by various components. The main components are the cognitive, the qualitative and the psychological.

First, the cognitive component is the belief in the occurrence of something and wishing it will not occur or the belief in something that occurred and wishing it had not. People can be frightened of imaginary evil spirits, for instance, because they assume they are real. Second, the qualitative component, also called the "inner feels" or "qualia" appears to be "the sorts of things someone might regard as the object of the 'knowledge of what it's like' to be afraid, to feel lust, to experience a friendship of a great many years" (Rey, 1980, p. 177). Qualia are more related to sensations like touching, hearing, etc. Last but not least, the psychological component is the behaviours that are "typical of a particular emotional state: thus, in sadness

the features tend to be drawn down, the body relatively immobile; in joy just the reverse; in passion we languish; in fright we tense" (p. 179). In his comparison between emotions and feelings, Solomon (1980) believes that emotions are intended, whereas feelings are not.

On how interjections communicate, Wharton (2009) suggests a procedural coding, aka non-transitional (procedural) coding, account of interjections. There are two types of coding: a transitional and a non transitional one and the difference between them is explained through the following analogy:

> There are two ways a friend might help you get from A to B. He might choose to take you in his car and drop you there directly, or he might simply point you in roughly the right direction, trusting that you will find your own way. If the destination is the identification of a communicator's intended interpretation, this analogy brings out (albeit in highly intuitive terms) the difference between translational and non-translational coding. (p. 61)

Wharton (2009) believes that the coding in interjections is procedural as that the hearer might use interjections in various ways. When the interjection is the only part of the utterance, this utterance is logically devoid of encoded forms and consequently what is communicated is based on what is implied. For this reason, interjections can be similar to "paralinguistic and non-verbal behaviours" and, therefore, are unable to clearly communicate when they are employed alone. As a way of example, "wow would not encode a unique conceptual representation that the hearer translates as 'X is delighted'. Instead, it might activate (or add an extra layer of activation to) a range of attitudinal descriptions associated with delight, surprise, excitement, etc." (p. 90). Wharton (2009) goes on saying that intonation and facial expressions play a vital role in determining what the interjection means. In their discussion of interjections, Leech & Svartvik (2013) referred to the meaning of interjections through a list of the common ones in English:

> Oh / oʊ/ (surprise):
> Oh, what a beautiful present.
> Ah /ɑː/ (satisfaction, recognition, etc.):
> Ah, that's what I just wanted.
> Aha /əˈhɑː/ (jubilant satisfaction, recognition):

Aha, these books are what I exactly what I was looking for.
Wow /waʊ/ (great surprise):
Wow, what a fantastic goal!
Yippee /ˈjɪpi: / (excitement, delight):
Yipee, this is fun!
Ouch /aʊʧ/ (pain)
Ouch, my foot!
Ow /aʊ/ (pain):
Ow that hurt!
Ugh /ʌx/ (disgust):
Ugh, what a mess.
Ooh /u:/ (pleasure, pain):
Ooh, this cream cake's delicious. (pp. 159-160)

Obviously, the interjections that have more than a meaning are context-dependent as they need an exact interpretation. Additionally, even synonymy exists in interjections, as some interjections have identical meanings. The earlier mentioned list is not an exhaustive list of all English interjections as it is not feasible to mention all of them in this thesis.

3.9.4.4. Interjections and the Theory of Speech Acts

It is debatable to say whether interjections are speech acts or not. Wierzbicka (1992), for example, claims that primary interjections are not speech acts because they are devoid of the illocutionary force, the "I say" component and the illocutionary purpose. Wierzbicka's claim is based on her examination of the behaviour of utterances when reporting direct discourse in the frame "X said in Language L" (p. 161). She draws her conclusion with regard to primary interjections by stating that they are not compatible with the frame due to the peculiarity of their semantic content. She also believes that interjections do not have an illocutionary force because it is mandatory for the particular use of a given language to separate the content from manner; in other words, what is said from how it is said, especially that for interjections the manner must not be represented by concrete words, but rather by the illocutionary force of the original utterance. Consequently, she sees, primary interjections lack an illocutionary force that is detached from their original utterance.

Wilkins (1992) opposes Wierzbicka's (1992) claim by affirming she said it is not easy to report direct discourse in the aforementioned frame. In addition to that, most of the English

interjections, she analysed, can be reported using the verb "say". Primary interjections are deemed to be the most inappropriate language forms to this frame and this is ascribed to the peculiarity of their semantic content. Wilkins disagrees with Wierzbicka's reasoning as far as the absence of the "I say−component" is concerned. He says that "those interjections that match the typical word phonology of English are indeed regarded by native speakers as words, and thus are regarded as things which are 'said' " (Wilkins, 1992, p. 148). He goes on saying that the ones that do not comply with the frame are considered "vocal gestures" and entail an "I do component" instead. In debunking Wierzbicka's (1992) view pertaining to their lack of the illocutionary force, Wilkins (1992) states that interjections do not overly give any indication about their content and it is also difficult to separate their content from their manner and this justifies their bad behaviour in her frame. Wilkins exemplifies with "Ow" and "Ouch" as interjections that are accompanied with the reporting verb "say" in literature. He also stands against Wierzbicka's claim that interjections have no illocutionary purpose. He explains this particular point by relating it to conventionality. "Ow" for example is a "conventional form" which does not need an addressee. Wilkins (1992) poses the question of why a person might use a conventional form such as "Ow" and not a non-conventional one. Generally speaking, when a person feels pain, for example, they use an instant gesture instead of using a conventional form because the use of the conventional forms most of the time requires a moment for an evaluation of context and selection of the suitable form. Wilkins (1992) believes that the use of conventional forms indicates that the speaker does have a communicative purpose in mind. By applying this to the interjection "Ow", the purpose is to demonstrate the pain felt by the speaker in a way that is demonstrated by other English speakers. Conforming to this examination, Wilkins sets the following definition:

"**OW!**"
I, suddenly feel a pain (in this$_I$, part of my$_U$ body) right now$_T$ that I$_U$, wouldn't have expected to feel. I$_U$ say "[aѡ!]" because I$_U$ want to show that I$_U$" am feeling pain right now$_T$[and because I$_U$ know that this is how speakers of English can show (other speakers of English) that they are in pain (in a situation like the situation here$_P$)]**³**. (p. 149)

In effect, another way to prove that "Ow!" has a communicative purpose is through scrutinising how it is used by children. Children do often use other non-conventional, non-linguistic signals to show pain such as crying, screaming, etc. Instead of this, children use 'Ow!' not to merely express pain but also to call their parent's attention or just because they know this will put their siblings in a troublesome situation. Wilkins (1992) criticised Wierzbicka's (1992) semantic definition of "Wow" (see the definition in the previous chapter) because this interjection, he advocates, is not always related to a positive expression of a feeling. To explain further, he illustrates the point with the following example.

A. My mother and sisters still live in Australia.
B. Wow! It must be really hard living so far away from your family. (p. 150)

Later, Wierzbicka (2003) introduced interjections as elements that show the speaker's feelings and wants and which possess an illocutionary force in the form of I feel something or I want something. Since interjections and other utterances do often co-occur, it is of great importance that their illocutionary force shows certain compatibility with that of the utterance with which they are coupled. For example, in uttering: "Ah, my God, are they still in the bus?", Wierzbicka explains, the illocutionary force of the whole sentence is realisation regardless of that the utterance used after the interjection is a question, because of the use of "Ah, my God". Wierzbicka (2003) provides the following analysis:

Oh, my God, S!
I think I now know something bad is happening (S)
I wouldn't have thought this would happen
I feel something bad because of this
I say this in this way because of this. (p. 243)

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³ U: you, T: time, P: place

In relation to the emotions expressed by interjections and other illocutionary devices, Wierzbicka adds that these emotions are specified to include the three forms: "I feel something", "I feel something bad/good" or "I feel something bad/good towards you" (p. 245).

3.9.5. The Perlocutionary Effect of Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences were not studied from the addressee's view, but they have rather been examined only from the speaker's perspective. This justifies the lack of literature about their effect on hearers or readers. On exclamatives, for example, Olbertz (2012) states that

> the perlocutionary effect of the utterance on the addressee is different from that of declaratives: in the case of declaratives the addressee is supposed to add information to his/her knowledge of the world or of the situation, whereas in that of exclamatives, the addressee is expected to take note of the speaker's affective stance towards some piece of information, which may already form part of his/her knowledge. (p. 81)

This can be applicable to other forms of exclamatory sentences as discussed earlier in this chapter that they are not about giving information to the language receiver; they are more about describing the emotions of the speaker expressed at something.

Conclusion

The pragmatic examination of exclamatory sentences is the interest of a few research studies that shed some light on some forms of the exclamatory sentences while neglecting others. For example, from the initial analysis of the literature about these sentences, it was noticed that most of the studies attached much importance to wh-exclamatives at the expense of other types. This has been done without providing any plausible reasons. In terms of their place in Speech Act Theory, the analysis of these sentences is insufficient as it does not cover in-depth discussions that are exhaustive of all the aspects of this theory.

Chapter 4
The Experimental Study

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Introduction

By taking into account the few previous descriptive research studies on the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences, the present study is to be deemed distinctive due to its experimental nature. Through this chapter, the experimenter seeks to present a detailed description of the methodology adopted in the experimental study and a thorough analysis of the results gleaned from the data collected.

4.1. Experimental Design Vignette

The experimental design is one of the cardinal forms of educational experimentation. It is adopted from the scientific realm and deemed to be the only research form which proposes a direct cause/effect relationship. The uniqueness of this kind of research lies in that it allows an intentional control or manipulation of two variables, namely the dependent and the independent variable. It specifically entails altering the independent variable, aka "the input variable" and monitoring the effect of that alteration on the dependent variable, aka "the outcome variable". This causality design encompasses at least two groups: an experimental group and a control one which differ in that the experimental group receives a treatment while the control group does not. Moreover, this design is characterised by randomisation which permits the generalisation of the sample's results to cover the whole population (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006; Pathak, 2008) and by being founded on one of three forms of hypotheses that are explained in Table 1.

Type of Hypothesis	Definition
Directional[a]	States that a difference between the variables is expected and predicts the direction of that difference
Nondirectional[a]	States that a difference between the variables is expected but does not predict the direction of that difference
Null	States that no difference between the variables is expected
[a] Often referred to as the research hypothesis	

Table 1. Hypotheses in Educational Research by Lodico et al. (2006, p. 182)

The difference between the three hypotheses as clearly indicated in Table 1 is directly linked to the differences existing between the variables and the predictions pertaining to the outcomes. In the directional hypothesis, it is conceptualised that a group will achieve better than the other(s). However, in the non-directional hypothesis, it is envisaged that there will be a difference between the groups without predicting the outperformance of one group over the other(s). As for the null hypothesis, it is predicted that there will be no difference between the variables after receiving the treatment. In fact, the null hypothesis is implicitly stated in every experimental research with the hope of rejecting it to the advantage of confirming the research hypothesis.

According to Cohen et al. (2007) a genuine experimental design includes many vital elements: it should encompass a control group and an experimental group or several ones whose subjects should be selected randomly. The groups should be pretested to check their equality state at the beginning of the research and post-tested to check the effect of the treatment on the dependent variable. In this design, the experimental group(s) receive(s) at least one intervention and the independent variables should be secluded, controlled and operated. Equally importantly, the control group(s) should not be affected by the experimental group treatment.

The experimental design has different forms and amongst them is the pre-test post-test control and experimental group design which is adopted in the present study. Known also as

the pre-test post-test control group design in research literature, a detailed description of this design's experimentation outline was presented by McMurray, Pace, and Scott (2004) as follows.

> A design where two groups of subjects, called an experimental group (E) and a control group (C), are used. The subjects (people or items to be tested) are randomly assigned to either the control group or the experimental group and a treatment (T) is applied only to the experimental group. Observations are made on the experimental group both before and after applying the treatment and repeated observations of the control group are made at the same time. The effect of the treatment can then be ascertained by determining the difference between the control-group observations and the experimental-group observations before and after the treatment. (p. 116)

Constructing the pre-test and the post-test is decisive in the experimental design. Both tests should be tailored for both the control and the experimental groups. To Cohen et al. (2007), in devising the pre-test and the post-test, the researcher has to abide by a set of rules. The pre-test may have questions that differ in form or wording from the post-test, though the two tests must test the same content, i.e. they will be alternate forms of a test for the same groups. In addition to that,

- The pretest must be the same for the control and experimental groups.
- The post-test must be the same for both groups.
- Care must be taken in the construction of a post-test to avoid making the test easier to complete by one group than another.
- The level of difficulty must be the same in both tests. (p. 432)

In what follows, the procedure established in this research study is untangled. The selection of the subjects along with the pre-test form, the treatment and the post-test form will be detailed.

4.2. The Subjects

The subjects of this study were third-year students at the Department of English at the University of Jijel. The selection of these students was purposefully based on the thought that third-year students relatively possess the ability to write complete essays and have at least a basic familiarity with reading literary texts. In addition to that, as third-year students

simultaneously took a pragmatics course whereby they were introduced to meaning-making and understanding beyond the superficial meaning of the sentence, the researcher's work in using pragmatics jargon in writing classes, whenever necessary, was facilitated.

To ensure the genuineness of the present experimental design, the researcher attained randomisation via depending on her timetable. Correspondingly, the first group to be taught was assigned to be the experimental group while the second group was appointed to be the control group. Each of the groups included 30 students to constitute 60 students in total who completed the pre-test, the post-test and wrote the essays.

4.3. The Pre-test Form

The specific objective of the pre-test in this study was to verify the parity of the control and the experimental group with regard to their knowledge about the exclamatory sentences and their use of these sentences in their writings. For this particular purpose and to elicit the required data, the pre-test was tailored to be in two forms: a test of knowledge and a writing task.

4.3.1. The Pre-test Writing Task

The writing task was the first classroom assignment that the experimental and control groups completed as part of the pre-test. The writing task preceded the test of knowledge for fear that the students can indirectly be sensitised to the significance of the exclamatory sentences, i.e. to exempt their written performance from being affected by the questions of the test of knowledge, especially that the two tasks were not undertaken on the same day. In this task, the students of both groups were required to write an essay about the following topic:

Most of us remember exactly where we were and what we were doing when we received surprising or shocking news. Write an essay about that and how it affected you.

This kind of essay topics was particularly selected for allowing the students to write about their strong feelings and emotions and to create a relevant context for inducing them to use different forms of exclamatory sentences.

4.3.2. The Pre-test of Knowledge

The second form of the pre-test, dubbed "Pre-test of Knowledge," consisted of ten open-ended questions and was administered to be completed by the experimental and control groups within the time of one hour and a half. In constructing tests, according to Cohen et al. (2007), the researcher has to define the purpose behind tailoring a test, determine the test details, choose its content and form, itemise it, assent to its design and time allocation and design its scoring. The pre-test of the present experiment was devised by the researcher to meet the objective of the research design and facilitate eliciting data with regard to the students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences. In addition to that, the aforementioned key elements in designing a test were considered by the researcher while constructing it.

To accurately elicit enough information about the students' knowledge of exclamatory sentences, the researcher divided the Pre-test of Knowledge into two parts. The first part of the test aimed to question the students about the grammar of these sentences; the students were asked about the definition, the function, the types and the rules controlling the use of an exclamatory sentence. The second set of questions aimed to test their knowledge about the pragmatics of these sentences; they were required to compare between the meaning of six pairs of exclamatory sentences and their non-exclamatory counterparts. The subjects were free to imagine the settings of the exclamatory sentences which expressed both positive and negative feelings (see Appendix 1).

4.4. The Treatment
4.4.1. The Treatment Form

The treatment in the present experimental study was in a form of exposing the experimental group to literary excerpts and training them to extract exclamatory sentences

from these excerpts, assisting them with identifying the exclamatory forms along with determining their pragmatic force. The selection of such a method was due to many reasons: some are related to the effect that reading has on writing (most of these reasons were already discussed in the first chapter of this thesis), the benefit of using literature in the classroom or specifically the link between these excerpts and exclamatory sentences use.

4.4.2. The Benefits of Using Literature in the Classroom

Integrating literature into language teaching has been widely advocated since the early eighties. This integration was theoretically broached by Widdowson (1975) and later on thoroughly discussed by other scholars as Brumfit &Carter (1986), Oster (1989), Collie & Slater (1990), Carter & Long (1991), Maley & Duff (1991) and many others. In addition to being the content of a tertiary educational course, literature can be a useful teaching classroom resource and teachers are encouraged to use it for various reasons.

Highly esteemed, elevated and ubiquitous in multifarious syllabi, literature is a genuine, motivational, enjoyable resource in the classroom. It introduces the students to cultural differences, fosters and stimulates their language learning, promotes their interpretation skills and raises their awareness of language aspects. In addition to that, emboldened by literature, the students can find no difficulty in expressing their viewpoints and releasing their feelings (Lazar, 1993).

Since literature encourages the students to express their emotions, it makes them, then, engaged in learning emotional language. This intersects with the aim of this study in enticing them to express their feelings while writing and employ exclamatory sentences for this very purpose.

Widdowson (1978) referred to the layers of linguistic knowledge, namely language use and usage. While usage is one's knowledge of linguistic rules, use is about knowing how to employ these rules for communicative purposes. In accordance with literature, McKay (1986)

asserted that the application of literature to teaching has been most of the time for promoting linguistic usage rather than language use development. For this reason, he highlighted the fact that literature can be a quintessential resource for raising the awareness of language use and why a given language form is used, because it displays language in discourse.

By specifically relating literature to teaching writing, the latter is considered one of the effective tools that improve writing according to many research studies (See Oster; 1989; Spack, 1985; Willoquet-Maricondi, 1991) because it makes the students better at meaning interpretation, text analysis, critical thinking, vocabulary acquisition and various language forms use. Collie & Slater (1990) elucidates as follows:

> Reading a substantial and contextualised body of text, students gain familiarity with many features of written language− the formation and function of sentences, the variety of possible structures, the different ways of connecting ideas− which broaden and enrich their own writing skills. The extensive reading required in tackling a novel or a long play develops the students' ability to make inferences from linguistic clues, and to deduce meaning from context. (p. 5)

It is by exposing the students to texts that their attention is devoted to writing conventions as well as meaning. Barnett (1991) believes that language development is related

to both literary analysis and reading skills development which makes the latter interlaced. It was previously mentioned in the first chapter of this thesis how reading is inextricably linked to writing and how it can affect it, in addition to what it was referred to so far, Shook (1994) sheds light on the significance of employing reading passages as an input for improving foreign language learning. He explains that

> increased exposure to FL/L2 input as a whole through reading passages will provide the learners with more opportunities to process the input they need; a natural by-product of this increased exposure to FL/L2 input in general will be increased exposure to the grammatical input, which, depending on the attention drawn to the grammatical input, may be used as a short-cut for FL/L2 learning. (p. 88)

Exposing the students to literary excerpts, then, can be an effective tool for teaching language forms and thus can have wide applicability to drawing the students' attention to different

forms of exclamatory sentences existing in English and their communicative functions, especially that literature encompasses a myriad of exclamatory forms used in different contexts.

4.4.3. Criteria for Literary Excerpts Selection

Literary works, undeniably, provide a natural exposure to language and are a rich source of exclamatory sentences. Nevertheless, these works and when used to improve language learning in the classroom should not be selected randomly. Taking this into account, the literary excerpts adopted in the present study were rigorously selected based on the following criteria:

• The excerpts should contain a list of multifarious forms of exclamatory sentences communicating both positive and negative feelings.

• The context of the excerpts should be easily understood by the reader as recognising the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences is context-dependent.

• For attaining successful time management in class, the excerpts should not be so long and thus should not exceed 600 words.

4.4.4. The Pilot Study

The significance of conducting a pilot study in educational research before undertaking the true research is ascribed to the attempt of the researcher to check the accuracy of the research design and the adequacy and the effectiveness of the research tools to achieve the desired outcomes. Pilot studies prevent the researcher from conducting frivolous or worthless research studies (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998).

In the present research, the pilot study was conducted to investigate whether or not it is appropriate to use excerpts from literary works to teach the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences and, particularly, to check whether extracting excerpts from different parts of

works of literature would not affect correctly grasping the meaning of the exclamatory sentences and the students' understanding of these sentences in context.

For the aforementioned reasons, the researcher exposed the experimental group to a 300-word excerpt from *Pride and Prejudice* by Jane Austen (see Appendix 2). Jane Austen is known for her expressiveness in British literature. Her famous romance novel depicts marriage in the eighties and the urge of a mother of five daughters to secure a wealthy husband for one of them. The excerpt portrays the dialogue held between the mother, Mrs Bennet, and her husband after her return with her daughters from a ball he had not attended. The passage is full of strong emotions, the mother released, due to her great admiration for the party, especially after meeting Mr Bingley, one of the wealthiest men in the local community. The excerpt includes the 9 exclamatory sentences analysed in Table 2.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	The Pragmatic Force
1. Oh! my dear Mr. Bennet,	Interjection	Attention-getting
2. Everybody said how well she looked	Embedded exclamatory sentence	Emphasizing the degree of beauty
3. Bingley thought her quite beautiful, and danced with her twice!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing excitement
5. He actually danced with her twice!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing excitement and emphasis
5. I was so vexed to see him stand up with her!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing irritation and frustration
6. he would not have danced half so much!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing exasperation
7. O that he had sprained his ankle in the first place!'	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing exasperation
8. Oh! my dear	Interjection	Showing excitement and delight
9. He is so excessively handsome!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing admiration

Table 2. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Pride and Prejudice*

The most striking observations that emerged from this pilot study after exposing the students to the literary excerpt were:

- Extracting the excerpt from the middle of the novel, and not from the beginning, did not negatively affect the students' understanding of the context. However, it was of great importance to explicate it for the students through narrating for them the necessary part of the plot, introducing the characters to them and making them know of the relation between these characters.

- The length of the excerpt was appropriate to the time allocated for the activity, especially that it was inserted into the lesson.

- Some students were asked to read the excerpt aloud which allowed the researcher to perceive their need for receiving oral feedback on the intonation of exclamatory sentences.

- The researcher saw the necessity of helping the students construe all the words used in the excerpt to easily understand the context of the sentences.

4.4.5. Description of the Study's Modus Operandi

The researcher was the teacher of the writing course whereby the 60 subjects were supposed to learn writing different types of essays for 90 minutes twice a week. The research treatment lasted 7 weeks in which the control group were merely taught the essay types while the experimental group, and in addition to learning the types, were exposed to ten literary excerpts imbued with strong emotions expressed through various exclamatory forms. During the research treatment span, both the experimental and the control groups wrote a total of 3 essays in the classroom.

The exposure to the literary extracts was for the purpose of converting input into intake and verifying whether this intake would have an effect on the students' writing. Input is turned into intake when and only when the students notice it. This notion is covered under what is called the noticing hypothesis. According to Schmidt (1993, 1995), this hypothesis revolves around the significance of the learners' awareness and attention. Noticing, he

asserts, is an essential precondition for input to become intake and result in acquisition. In pragmatics, Kasper & Roever (2005) explain that

> attention must be allocated to the action that is being accomplished, the linguistic, paralinguistic, and non verbal forms by which the action is implemented, its immediate interactional or textual context, and the dimensions of the situational context that are indexed by linguistic and pragmatic choices. Attending simultaneously to an input complexity of this order exceeds working memory space by far. This is one reason why input frequency plays a particularly important role in pragmatics. (p. 318)

Accordingly, in the present study and for input to become intake, it is inevitable that the students notice the exclamatory forms, their intonation and the context enclosing them by virtue of extensive exposure. Evidently, from a pragmatic perspective, noticing should not be confined to merely the forms of exclamatory sentences, the students have to go beyond that to grasp these sentences meaning and particularly identify these forms' pragmatic force in context through analysis. It is indispensable, therefore, to correspondingly question how to analyse the pragmatic force.

Leech (1983) states that the common analysis of the pragmatic force, inter alia others, is to start from syntax and relate the utterance to context, replacing the addressee's task. He goes further forward with this discussion as follows:

> The kind of problem solving task which an addressee faces in interpreting an utterance may be described as HEURISTIC. A heuristic strategy consists of trying to identify the pragmatic force of an utterance by forming hypotheses and checking them against available evidence. If the test fails, a new hypothesis is formed. The whole process may be repeated cyclically until a solution (a hypothesis which is successful, in that it does not conflict with evidence) is arrived at. (pp. 40-41)

Under the heuristic strategy, then, the hearer/ reader forms the right hypothesis about the intention or the intentions of the utterance by virtue of sense, context and other background presumptions. This strategy was adopted in the present study to determine the pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence occurring in the different literary excerpts whither the 30 subjects were exposed. Whenever the experimental group read a literary excerpt, they form hypotheses about the pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence by analysing the

proposition and the contextual features surrounding every exclamatory utterance and then verify the validity of the hypotheses with the teacher-researcher. Figure 4 is a summary of the method followed in this study for converting input into intake.

Exclamatory forms-filled literary excerpts

⬇

Noticing
The forms, the intonation, the context and the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences

⬇

Noticing the Pragmatic Force
The Heuristic Strategy

⬇

Intake
Adequate knowledge of the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences
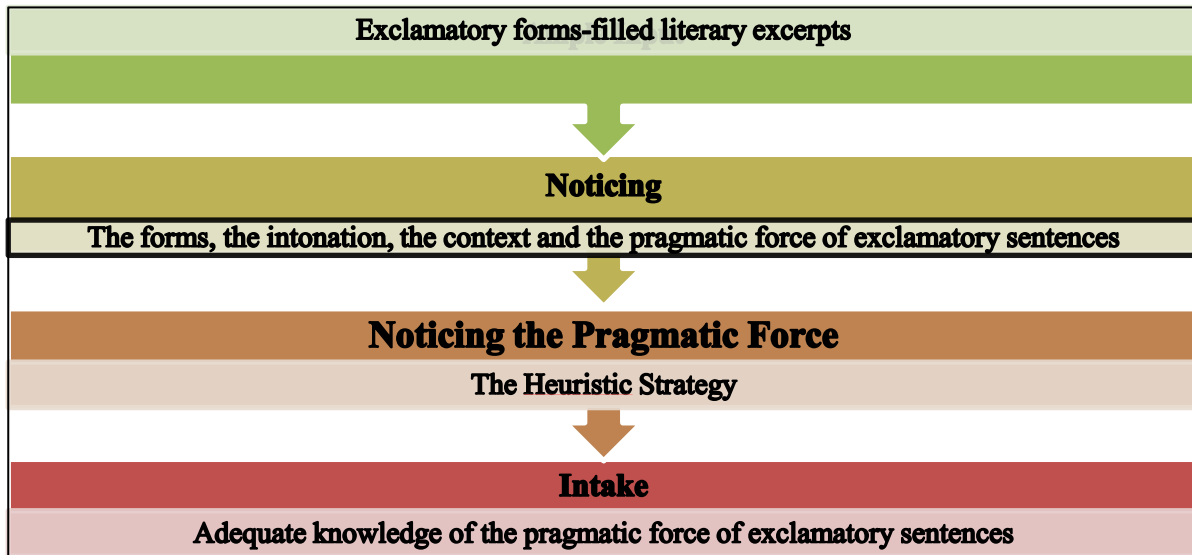
**Figure 4. Converting the Pragmatic Force of Exclamatory Sentences
Input into Intake**

4.4.6. A Detailed Description of the Treatment Timeline

Week 1

During the first week, the researcher presented the experimental group with an excerpt from *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (see Appendix 3) which is a universally well-known fantasy novel written by the English author Lewis Caroll. The novel, as its title reveals, relates the exciting adventures a girl called Alice embarked on when falling into a rabbit hole and unexpectedly finds herself in wonderland. The excerpt, particularly, depicts Alice inside the hole seeking an exit from a tiny door. The teacher-researcher introduced the novel to the students through providing them with a general overview of the plot and, then, assisting them in understanding the context of the excerpt. After that, the students were required to extract all the exclamatory sentences from the excerpt and identify their types. Last but not least, a discussion between the teacher and the students was opened on the

pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence. Following the heuristic strategy in determining the pragmatic force of an utterance that was referred to earlier, the students were allowed to form hypotheses about the possible pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence occurring in the excerpt and checked the validity of their answers with the teacher. The excerpt included the exclamatory sentences exhibited in Table 3.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	The Pragmatic Force
1. Alas!	Exclamation	Expressing sadness
2. She tried the little golden key in the lock, and to her great delight it fitted!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Showing enthusiasm
3. How she longed to get out of that dark hall, and wander about among those beds of bright flowers and those cool fountains,	Wh-exclamative	Sympathy-seeking
4. Oh, how I wish I could shut up like a telescope!	Wh-exclamative fronted by an interjection	Yearning and empathy-seeking

Table 3. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

The exposure to the excerpt was only a part of the 90 minute lesson given on writing and during this lesson the students were also taught how to write a cause/effect essay (Essay#1). As the students required practising writing, on the following writing session, the experimental and control groups completed a 90-minute writing task represented in an essay on the various effects of divorce on children and the essays were collected to be analysed by the researcher later. Writing on a completely different topic from that of the excerpt to which the students were exposed would preclude them, the researcher thought, from merely imitating the exclamatory forms of the literary extract and their context of use, especially that the researcher's objective was to verify whether the students would be able to correctly form their own exclamatory sentences in a different context they create.

Week 2

In the second week, the students were exposed to an excerpt from *Charlie and the*

Chocolate Factory (see Appendix 4): an adventurous story filled with exciting events written by the British author Roald Dahl. The story tells the adventures of the poor young child Charlie inside the unusual chocolate factory of Mr Willy Wonka. The excerpt, in particular, evinces that Charlie had nothing but great admiration for the factory that he goes past twice a day in his path to and fro his school. As with the previous excerpt, the students were required to extract all the exclamatory sentences, identify their types and attain their pragmatic force through the heuristic strategy. The excerpt encompasses the exclamatory sentences displayed in Table 4.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	The Pragmatic Force
1. There was an enormous chocolate factory!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing admiration
2. Just imagine that!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Expressing enthusiasm
3. It was the largest and most famous in the whole world!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasis
4. And what a tremendous, marvellous place it was!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing wonder
5. The air was scented with the heavy rich smell of melting chocolate!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing surprise
6. Oh, how he loved that smell!	Wh-exclamative fronted by an interjection	Expressing strong love
7. And oh, how he wished he could go inside the factory and see what it was like!	Wh-exclamative fronted by an interjection	Expressing enthusiasm

Table 4. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*

In the following writing session, the students of both the experimental group and the control group were required to write another cause/effect essay (Essay#2) about the effects of dropping out of university in one hour and a half. The essays were collected by the researcher to check whether or not the students were affected by the exposure to the literary excerpt and used the exclamatory sentences in their writings.

Week 3

In the first session of the third week, the students were exposed to an excerpt from the English novel *Vanity Fair* by William Thackeray (see Appendix 5). The novel sheds light on

wealth seeking and social class climbing and introduces the sister of Sir Pitt, one of the characters, who is a fabulously wealthy woman featured through the excerpt as a well-respected, high maintenance lady. It particularly depicts people's attitude towards her. After reading the excerpt, the experimental group analysed the exclamatory sentences through identifying their types and pragmatic force. The exclamatory sentences occurring in this excerpt are exhibited in Table 5.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	The Pragmatic Force
1. What a dignity it gives an old lady, that balance at the banker's!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing wonder
2. How tenderly we look at her faults if she is a relative	Wh-exclamative	Expressing great tenderness
3. What a kind good-natured old creature we find her!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing awe.
4. How the junior partner of Hobbs and Dobbs leads her smiling to the carriage with the lozenge upon it, and the fat wheezy coachman	Wh-exclamative	Expressing surprise
5. How, when she comes to pay us a visit, we generally find an opportunity to let our friends know her station in the world!	Wh-exclamative	Showing great pride

Table 5. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Vanity Fair*

In the second session of the third week, the students were exposed to an excerpt from *David Copperfield* authored by Charles Dickens (see Appendix 6). The novel in its distinctive autobiographical form describes the life events of the protagonist, David Copperfield, from birth to maturity. The excerpt, used, features Miss Murdstone, the sister of the antagonist in this novel, who moves to the Copperfields' house and makes it miserable. The students examined the exclamatory sentences of this excerpt listed in Table 6.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Its Illocutionary Act
1. What irksome constraint I underwent, sitting in the same attitude hours upon hours, afraid to move an arm or a leg lest Miss Murdstone should complain (as she did on the least pretence) of my restlessness, and afraid to move an eye lest she should light on some look of dislike or scrutinythat would find new cause for complaint in mine!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing great misery for rousing sympathy
2. What intolerable dullness to sit listening to the ticking of the clock; and watching Miss Murdstone's little shiny steel beads as she strung them; and wondering whether she would ever be married, and if so, to what sort of unhappy man; and counting the divisions in the molding of the chimney-piece; and wandering away, with my eyes, to the ceiling, among the curls and corkscrews in the paper on the wall!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing irritation for rousing sympathy
3. What walks I took alone, down muddy lanes, in the bad winter weather, carrying that parlour, and Mr. and Miss Murdstone in it, everywhere: a monstrous load that I was obliged to bear, a daymare that there was no possibility of breaking in, a weight that brooded on my wits, and blunted them!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing loneliness and suffering misery
4. What meals I had in silence and embarrassment, always feeling that there were a knife and fork too many, and that mine; an appetite too many, and that mine; a plate and chair too many, and those mine; a somebody too many, and that I!	Wh-exclamative	Sharing the feeling of worthlessness
5. What evenings, when the candles came, and I was expected to employ myself, but, not daring to read an entertaining book, pored over some hard-headed,harder hearted treatise on arithmetic; when the tables of weights and measures set themselves to tunes, as 'Rule Britannia', or 'Away with Melancholy'; when they wouldn't stand still to be learnt, but would go threading my grandmother's needle through my unfortunate head, in at one ear and out at the other!	Wh-exclamatives	Expressing sadness and oppression
6. What yawns and dozes I lapsed into, in spite of all my care	Wh-exclamative	Expressing tiredness
7. What starts I came out of concealed sleeps with;	Wh-exclamative	Challenging many times
8. What answers I never got, to little observations that I rarely made	Wh-exclamative	Expressing the feeling of disdain
9. What a blank space I seemed, which everybody overlooked, and yet was in everybody's way;	Wh-exclamative	Expressing the feeling of worthlessness
10. What a heavy relief it was to hear Miss Murdstone hail the first stroke of nine at night, and order me to bed!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing great relief

Table 6. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *David Copperfield*

Week 4

In the first session of the fourth week, the students analysed an excerpt from *Little Women* by the American author Louisa May Alcott (see Appendix 7). The novel revolves around the life of four poor sisters who work to financially support their family and the excerpt, in particular, describes "Jo" or Josephine who is the second oldest sister of the four. As Jo loves literature and writes stories, the excerpt conjures up one of the scenes when she is absorbed in writing. This excerpt was selected purposefully as the writer was referring to that Jo used many exclamation marks in her writing. It was analysed by the students and included the exclamatory sentences in Table 7.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Its Illocutionary Act
1. Quite absorbed in her work, Jo scribbled away till the last page was filled, when she signed her name with a flourish and threw down her pen, exclaiming...There, I've done my best!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasising the degree of satisfaction
2. Then she tied it up with a smart red ribbon, and sat a minute looking at it with a sober, wistful expression, which plainly showed how earnest her work had been.	Embedded exclamatory sentence	Expressing satisfaction and emphasising the degree of earnestness

Table 7. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Little Women*

In the second session of the fourth week, the students were required to analyse an excerpt from the novel entitled *Emma* and written by the novelist Jane Austen (see Appendix 8). Known for the expressive power of her writing, Austen describes in the novel a woman who, despite her cleverness, badly meddles in people's lives. The excerpt is a dialogue between some of the characters and encompasses the exclamatory sentences shown in Table 8.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic Force
1. So very obliging of you!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Expressing gratitude
2. Well!	Interjection	Introducing a statement
3. This is brilliant indeed!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing enthusiasm
4. This is admirable!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing great admiration
5. So well lighted up!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Expressing enthusiasm
6. Oh! Mr. Weston, you must really have had Aladdin's lamp.	Interjection	Expressing surprise
7. Oh! Mrs. Stokes	Interjection	Attention-getting
8. So afraid you might have a headache!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Showing sympathy
9. Ah! dear Mrs. Elton, so obliged to you for the carriage!	Interjection Declarative exclamatory sentence	Realisation Expressing gratitude
10. Oh! and I am sure our thanks are due to you, Mrs. Weston, on that score.	Interjection	Attention-getting
11. But two such offers in one day!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Great satisfaction
12. So kind of her to think of my mother!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Expressing gratitude

Table 8. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Emma*

Week 5

In the first session of the fifth week, the students were exposed to an excerpt from the story *A Visit to Newgate* written by Charles Dickens (see Appendix 9). The story describes the state of people in a notorious prison. The excerpt specifically details the night of a man in one of the prison cells before the day of his execution. Filled with sad emotions and agony, the excerpt included the exclamatory sentences exhibited in Table 9.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic Force
1. The deep bell of St. Paul's strikes - one!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasis that time has flown.
2. Seven hours left!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Terror of time speed
3. Seven hours!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Emphasis of the terror of time speed
4. The book is torn and soiled by use - and like the book he read his lessons in, at school, just forty years ago!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasis that time has flown.
5. It is!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasis that time has flown.
6. Tell him not of repentance!	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Empathy-seeking
7. Six hours' repentance for eight times six years of guilt and sin!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing anguish
8. How different from the stone walls of Newgate!	Wh-exclamative	Emphasising the great difference and expressing the misery of the prisoner's state.
9. And oh! how glad he is to tell her all he had forgotten in that last hurried interview, and to fall on his knees before her and fervently beseech her pardon for all the unkindness and cruelty that wasted her form and broke her heart!	Wh-exclamative fronted by interjection	Expressing the extreme joy for having a chance to offer apology.
10. How full the court is	Wh-exclamative	Emphasising that the court is extremely full.
11. What a sea of heads	Wh-exclamative	Expressing being surprised at the unexpectedly huge number of people.
12. And how all those people stare at *him*!	Wh-exclamative	Emphasising the extreme eeriness of the stares.

Table 9. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from
A Visit to Newgate

In the second writing session of the fifth week, the students of both the experimental group and the control group undertook a writing task in which they were required to write an argumentative essay (Essay#3) about whether native speakers make the best of teachers of English or not. The researcher collected the students' essays that were completed in an hour and a half for later analysis.

Week 6

In the first session of the sixth week, the experimental group was exposed to an excerpt from the fairy tale *Fir Tree* written by the Danish author Hans Christian Andersen (see Appendix 10). In the tale, a fir tree expresses "his" anxiety and impatience for growing up and shows his inability to live in the moment and appreciate his state. The excerpt was taken from the beginning of the tale in which the fir tree is introduced to the reader and it included the exclamatory sentences in Table 10.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic Force
1. Oh, how pretty he is!	Wh-exclamative fronted by an interjection	Showing surprise at the extreme beauty of the tree.
2. What a nice little fir!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing admiration
3. Oh! Were I but such a high tree as the others are	Interjection	Expressing disappointment
4. Then I should be able to spread out my branches, and with the tops to look into the wide world!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing resentment
5. I could bend with as much stateliness as the others!'	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing resentment
6. Oh, that made him so angry!	Declarative exclamatory sentence fronted by an interjection	Emphasising the feeling of anger
7. To grow and grow, to get older and be tall,' thought the Tree—'that, after all, is the most delightful thing in the world!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing satisfaction

Table 10. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from ***Fir Tree***

In the second session of the sixth week, the students examined an excerpt from one of the internationally recognised short tales *The Emperor's New Clothes* by Hans Christian Andersen (see Appendix 11). The tale is about two weavers who promised the king of making him the finest of apparel. They wove for him clothes they claimed to be invisible for anyone who is simpleton or unfit for his position. The excerpt features when the emperor receive the clothes and parade in the streets arrayed in them. It included the exclamatory sentences in Table 11.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic Force
1. See**!**	Elliptical exclamatory sentence	Attention-getting
2. The Emperor's new clothes are ready!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement
3. Here are your Majesty's trousers!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement
4. Here is the scarf!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement
5. Here is the mantle!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement
6. Yes indeed!	Ellyptical exclamatory sentence	Emphasising the unexpected agreement
7. How splendid his Majesty looks in his new clothes, and how well they fit!	Wh-exclamatives	Expressing pleasantness towards the beauty of the King when wearing the clothes.
8. What a design!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing admiration for the extreme beauty of the clothes' design.
9. What colors!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing admiration for the clolours of the clothes.
10. These are indeed royal robes!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasising approval
11. Oh! How beautiful are our Emperor's new clothes!	Wh-exclamative fronted by an interjection	Expressing admiration for the extreme beauty of the clothes.
12. What a magnificent train there is to the mantle; and how gracefully the scarf hangs!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing admiration for the attractiveness of the clothes.
13. But the Emperor has nothing at all on!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing shock

Table 11. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from T*he Emperor's New Clothes*

Week 7

In the first session of the seventh week, the the experimental group was exposed to an excerpt from *Sherlock Holmes Short Stories* originally written by the British author Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and retold by Clare West (see Appendix 12) to be fitting to the level of the students. Known for adventure and suspense, Sherlock Holmes detective stories were selected with the aim of evoking strong emotions. The excerpt features a dialogue between Holmes and his friend and included the exclamatory sentences displayed in Table 12.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic force
1. He came to me for help and those men murdered him!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing that he is infuriated
2. I'm going to find them, if it's the last thing I do!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing anger
3. I know the names of Openshaw's enemies!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing pleasure
4. And now I'm going to send them a surprise!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement
5. This will frighten them!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing satisfaction
6. When they arrive in America, they'll get the pips and then the police will catch them!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing excitement

Table 12. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Sherlock Holmes Short Stories*

4.4.7. Observation of Intonation During the Treatment

One of the striking observations emerged from the pilot study was the students' monotonous reading of the excerpt to which they were exposed. This, in fact, particularly disclosed these students' errors at the level of the intonation patterns of exclamatory sentences. Due to the significance of intonation as an illocutionary force indicating device and the vital role it plays in deciphering the meaning of sentences because "however small the *direct* contribution of intonation to grammar, the indirect contribution to the pragmatics of communication is heavy" (Bolinger, 1989, p. 68), (see Chapter 3 for a detailed discussion), it was logically necessary to raise the students' awareness of this significance and assist them in finding the right pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence occurring in the literary excerpts by making use of intonation. Raising the students' awareness was by virtue of asking them to read the literary excerpts aloud and giving them feedback on how exclamatory sentences should be read because reading aloud is highly beneficial for students as through it they "practice the fundamental skill of listening intently, they connect what they know to new information and ideas, they are thinking actively and critically, and they are creating meaning" (Hahn, 2002, p. 16) and oral feedback, in this case, is of paramount importance to correct the students' errors with respect to relating the right intonation to each exclamatory

form. The frequent teacher-researcher remarks about the intonation of exclamatory sentences, the researcher presumed, would result in the students acquisition of the latter. To verify the effect of the read-aloud task and the oral feedback, an observation was recorded in a form of a list counting the number of students who read the exclamatory sentences correctly throughout the period of exposure to the excerpts.

4.4.8. A Summary of the Treatment Timeline

The students of the experimental group were trained to analyse 78 exclamatory sentences in a total of ten excerpts from different works of literature and they undertook some writing tasks to test their written performance. The experiment timeline is summarised in Table 13 below.

Time	Action
Week 1	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" by Lewis Caroll.
Week 1	Essay#1 is written by the students.
Week 2	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Charlie and the Chocolate Factory" by Roald Dahl.
Week 2	Essay #2 is written by the students.
Week 3	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Vanity Fair" by William Thackeray
Week 3	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "David Copperfield" by Charles Dickens.
Week 4	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Little Women" by Louisa May Alcott.
Week 4	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Emma" by Jane Austen
Week 5	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "A Visit to Newgate" by Charles Dickens
Week 5	Essay# 3 is written by the students.
Week 6	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Fir Tree" by Hans Christian Andersen
Week 6	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "The Emperor's New Clothes" by Hans Christian Andersen.
Week 7	Exposing the students to an excerpt from "Sherlock Holmes Short Stories" retold by Clare West.

Table 13. A Summary of the Treatment Timeline

4.5. The Post-test Form

4.5.1. The Post-test of Knowledge

To verify whether the experimental group gained adequate intake from the input they were provided with during the treatment and thus whether their pragmalinguistic competence has been ameliorated, it was of necessity to retest these subjects about the exclamatory sentences. The post-test was different from the pre-test in form. However, the aims of the questions were set to elicit the same data. In the post-test, the students were required to extract the exclamatory sentences occurring in a literary excerpt from the fairy tale *Snow Queen* by Hans Christian Andersen (see Appendix 13) and identify each exclamatory sentence type and its pragmatic force. While the tale enunciates the struggle between good and evil powers, the excerpt particularly features the turning point in a close friendship between two children, Kay and Gerda and exactly recounts how Kay became evil and started mistreating his friend Gerda. The extract included the ten exclamatory sentences displayed in Table 14.

The Exclamatory Sentence	Type	Pragmatic force
1. What lovely summer days those were!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing admiration
2. How delightful to be out in the air, near the fresh rose-bushes, that seem as if they would never finish blossoming!	Wh-exclamative	Expressing extreme delight
3. Oh! I feel such a sharp pain in my heart; and now something has got into my eye!	Declarative exclamatory sentence fronted by an interjection	Expressing sudden pain
4. You look so ugly!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing irritation
5. Ah	Interjection	Expressing annoyance
6. That rose is cankered!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing irritation
7. This one is quite crooked!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing irritation
8. After all, these roses are very ugly!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing irritation
9. They are just like the box they are planted in!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Expressing irritation
10. The boy is certainly very clever!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	Emphasising the cleverness

Table 14. The Analysis of the Exclamatory Sentences Occurring in the Excerpt Taken from *Snow Queen*

4.5.2. The Post-test Writing Task

In order to check whether the students would use the exclamatory sentences in their writing after being trained to decipher the pragmatic force of all the exclamatory sentences in the earlier described literary texts, they were required to write a 90-minute argumentative essay whereby they argued for or against the popular belief that women make better parents than men.

4.6. Calculating the Findings

4.6.1. Scoring the Pre-test and Post-test

Knowing how one intends to score the participants' responses and their written performance is of primary concern in any experimental research study to ensure the reliability of the scores. Bachman & Palmer (1996) state that designating a scoring method is based on firstly determining the correctness standard, i.e. devising a benchmark to be followed while judging the responses, and secondly designating the process to be followed for reaching a given score.

The pre-test of knowledge in this study was marked out of 20 by evenly devoting 2 marks for each question of the 10 questions posed. A partial credit scoring was adopted (see Bachman & Palmer, 1996) in all the questions except for question 3. Hence, a wrong answer received 0, a partly correct answer received 1 and a correct answer received 2. With regard to question 3 which was about the types of exclamatory sentences and as there are 8 forms discussed in this thesis, the 2 marks devoted to this question were divided by 8 (the number of types) and therefore 0.25 was devoted to each correct type.

The post-test of knowledge was also marked out of 20 by devoting 2 marks to each of the ten exclamatory sentences when extracting them, determining their type and identifying their pragmatic force. The suitable scoring for each question in this test, however, was deemed as either correct or wrong (see Bachman & Palmer, 1996). In each of the ten responses, 0.5

point was devoted for correctly extracting the exclamatory sentence, 0.5 was for the correct type of the exclamatory sentence and 1 mark was devoted to the right pragmatic force.

For the pre-test and post-test writing tasks, the language abilities were discharged from scoring because the specific purpose was to verify the students' use of exclamatory sentences. Thus, it was the number of exclamatory sentences that was counted by giving 1 mark to every exclamatory sentence used and 0 to the essays that were devoid of any exclamatory sentence.

4.6.2. The t-test Formulas

For the purpose of verifying the research hypothesis through comparing the means of tests scores, the t-test, as one of the most common and powerful tests in statistics, was adopted. The t-test allows the researcher to know if the difference between the means is statistically significant or not at a certain alpha level. The alpha level adopted in this experiment is equal 0.05 ($\alpha=0.05$). According to Martella et al (2013),

> the question to ask is not simply whether the two means are different, but whether the difference is so great as to be unlikely to have occurred by chance factors (i.e, sampling and measurement errors). If the result of the t-test indicates that the difference is statistically significant, then it provides evidence that enables the researchers to conclude that it is unlikely the obtained difference between the means is great enough to have occurred by chance factors alone. (p. 118)

When calculating, the researcher had to select between adopting a one tailed t-test or a two tailed t-test. The difference between the two, Cohen et al (2007) explain, lies in the fact that in the one tailed t-test, the researcher forms a prediction on which group will perform better than the other. In other words, the one tailed t-test accompanies the directional hypothesis, whereas in the two tailed t-test, the researcher does not form such a prediction. Moreover, they point out that the one tailed t-test is more powerful. It has earlier been mentioned in this thesis that the main hypothesis is a directional one and, therefore, the researcher had to adopt the one tailed t-test during making the calculations.

Another choice that the researcher had to make is that pertaining to whether to use a paired t-test or an unpaired one. It is known that the t-test is commonly applied to check the difference between experimental and control groups, teaching techniques and even the difference between a pre-test and the post-test of the same group. With respect to the distinction between a paired t-test and an unpaired one, Suter (2012) claims that the unpaired t-test is used when the two groups are separated from each other, whereas the paired t-test is employed when the two groups are connected and used, for example, when testing the difference between the pre-test and the post-test of one group, i.e. when testing a group before and after treatment. The researcher, therefore, had to use both. The paired t-test was employed to test the difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the control group and to test the difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group. The unpaired t-test, however, was employed to test the difference between the pre-test of the experimental group and the pre-test of the control group and also between the post-test of the experimental group and the post-test of the control group. When the groups are equal in size, i.e. n1=n2 (as in the present study 30 subjects in each group), the simplified independent t-test formula according to Ha & Ha (2012) is as follows:

The t-test formula for independent groups:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{SS_1 + SS_2}{n(n-1)}}}$$

Provided that $SS = \sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}$

The t-test formula for paired groups:

$$t = \frac{\bar{D}}{\sqrt{\frac{SS_D}{n(n-1)}}}$$

In this formula $\bar{D}$ refers to the mean difference score and $\bar{D} = \frac{\sum D}{n}$. The standard deviation SS_D is calculated as follows:

$$SS_D = \sum D^2 - \frac{(\sum D)^2}{n}$$

In the present study, the calculations were done by means of Microsoft Excel software.

4.6.3. The P-value

Dubbed also as the probability value or the significance probability, the p-value is a statistic for indicating whether or not the obtained results are attributed to chance. In other words, it shows if the differences are genuinely significant or merely coincidental. To decide upon this, a comparison between the p-value and the alpha level of significance should be made. When the p-value is equal or less than the alpha level (α), the researcher considers the obtained results to be statistically significant and therefore rejects the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative. The smaller the p value is, the more incontrovertible is confirming the hypothesis (Ha & Ha, 2012). The p-value in this study was also calculated by means of Microsoft Excel software.

4.7. The Results
4.7.1. The Pre-test Results
4.7.1.1. The Pre-test Writing Task Results

As it has been earlier mentioned, in the pre-test writing task the researcher collected the essays of 60 students equally divided between the experimental group and the control group. The researcher analysed every essay and counted the exclamatory sentences used by the students in their essays. The results are shown in Table 15.

Students	Experimental Group	Control Group
01	00	00
02	00	00
03	00	00
04	00	00
05	00	00
06	00	00
07	00	00
08	00	00
09	00	00
10	00	00
11	00	00
12	00	00
13	00	00
14	00	00
15	00	00
16	00	00
17	00	00
18	00	00
19	00	00
20	00	00
21	00	00
22	01	00
23	01	00
24	00	00
25	00	00
26	00	00
27	00	00
28	00	00
29	00	00
30	00	00

Table 15. The Number of Exclamatory Sentences Used by the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test Writing Task

Table 15 shows that only two students (S.22 and S.23) from the experimental group used an exclamatory sentence in their essays while no student from the control group used this type of sentences.

It was first indispensable to this research study to exhibit that the control group and the experimental group were equal before receiving the treatment because this would permit to easily draw an analogy between the two groups and make the results of both groups readily understandable. The researcher made a comparison between the experimental group and the

control group using the unpaired t-test. For statistical purposes and particularly for using the one tailed t-test formula, sub-hypotheses were formulated. Thus, sub-hypothesis 1 is:

There will be no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of the number of exclamatory sentences used in the pre-test writing task.

Table 16 below shows the results of the comparison between the number of exclamatory sentences employed by the experimental group and the control group in the pre-test writing task.

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Exp. Group	30	0.25	0.06	0.06	1.43	.079
Pre-test: Control Group	30	0	00			

Table 16. Comparing the Experimental Group and Control Group in Terms of the Number of Exclamatory Sentences Used in the Pre-test Writing Task

The results shown in Table 16 reveal that the mean of the total number of exclamatory sentences used by the students of the experimental group in their pre-test essays was 0.06 whereas the mean of the total number of exclamatory sentences used by the students of the control group was 0. The mean difference of 0.06 was not significant. With a degree of freedom of 58 and a level of significance α=0.05, the calculated *t* value is smaller than the critical value (1.43<1.67). It is deducible, therefore, that the means are not significantly different. (See the critical value in the distribution of t table in Sirkin, 2006). Equally importantly, since p=.079>0.05, by conventional statistical criteria, the difference between the experimental group and the control group is deemed to be not quite statistically significant. It is evidently clear that overall, these results confirm sub-hypothesis 1 and ensure the parity between the two groups with regard to their use of exclamatory sentences in the pre-test writing task.

4.7.1.2. The Pre-test of Knowledge Results

The researcher scored the answers of the participants after completing the pre-test of knowledge. Table 17 below shows the scores of the experimental group and the control group in this test.

Students	Experimental Group	Control Group
01	03	08
02	03	01
03	04	10
04	08	05
05	02	01
06	08	4.5
07	02	05
08	05	04
09	00	06
10	07	04
11	8	06
12	10	04
13	01	00
14	7	03
15	8	01
16	4	05
17	07	06
18	07	04
19	01	01
20	00	01
21	09	06
22	05	00
23	03	01
24	10	6.5
25	06	06.5
26	10	04
27	01	04
28	06	03.5
29	03	02
30	03	01.5

Table17. The Results of the Pre-test of Knowledge

Of the 30 students in the experimental group, only three students got the average (10 out of 20) which could be also interpreted as those remaining 27 students failed the test. As for the control group, only one student got the average in this test and thus 29 students failed it. Overall, the marks of the students in the control and experimental groups are approximate.

The highest mark achieved by the students was 10 out of 20 which shows that the highest level of knowledge about the exclamatory sentences is average. The lowest mark was 0 out of 20, referring to the student who did not give any correct answer.

As the pre-test was in two forms, a writing task and a test of knowledge, it was also necessary to check the equivalence between the experimental group and the control group with regard to their knowledge about the exclamatory sentences. The researcher made a comparison between the experimental group and the control group using the one tailed, unpaired t-test to verify sub-hypothesis 2:

There will be no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their knowledge about the exclamatory sentences in the pre-test of knowledge.

Table 18 clearly indicates the results of the comparison between both groups pre-test of knowledge results:

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Exp. Group	30	3.12	5	1.2	1.66	.051
Pre-test: Control Group	30	2.49	3.8			

Table 18. Comparing the Experimental Group and the Control Group Scores in the Pre-test of Knowledge

Table 18 exhibits that the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the experimental group was 5. However, the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the control group was 3.8. The mean difference of 1.2 was not statistically significant. With a degree of freedom of 58 and a level of significance $\alpha=0.05$, the calculated *t* value is smaller than the critical value (1.66<1.67). Thus, the means are not significantly different. In addition and since p=.051>0.05 by conventional statistical criteria, the difference between the experimental group and the control group is deemed to be not quite statistically

significant. Thus, sub-hypothesis 2 is confirmed and parity between the two groups pertaining to their knowledge about exclamatory sentence was achieved.

4.7.2. The Post-test Results

4.7.2.1. The Post-test Writing Task Results

As in the pre-test, the researcher had to collect data with regard to the students' written performance and count the number of exclamatory sentences used by the students of both the experimental group and the control group. Table 19 displays the number of exclamatory sentences used by each student in the experimental and control groups.

Students	Experimental Group	Control Group
01	02	00
02	01	00
03	02	00
04	01	00
05	02	00
06	01	00
07	00	00
08	02	00
09	02	00
10	02	00
11	02	00
12	01	00
13	01	00
14	01	00
15	01	00
16	02	00
17	03	00
18	00	00
19	02	00
20	00	00
21	02	00
22	01	00
23	02	00
24	02	00
25	03	00
26	01	00
27	02	00
28	00	00
29	00	00
30	00	00

Table 19. The Results of the Post-test Writing Task

Out of 30 students in the experimental group, 24 students employed exclamatory sentences in their essays. This is to be considered as a remarkable increase in the number of students who used exclamatory sentences in their essays in comparison with only 2 students who used the exclamatory sentences in the pre-test writing task. The total number of exclamatory sentences used in the essays of the experimental group was 41. However, for the control group and as in the pre-test writing task, the students did not use any exclamatory sentence in their essays. In contrast to the control group, the experimental group, thus, showed a difference pertaining to the written performance and precisely to the use of exclamatory sentences in their written discourse.

4.7.2.2. The Post-test of Knowledge Results

In the post-test of knowledge, as it has been earlier referred to in this chapter, the students were required to extract ten exclamatory sentences from a literary text to identify their type and pragmatic force. Table 20 below shows the scores of the experimental group and the control group after the treatment.

Table 20 clearly indicates that the scores of the experimental group in comparison with their scores in the pre-test of knowledge. The highest mark achieved by the students of the experimental group was 17 out of 20 while the lowest mark was 7. Out of 30 students in the experimental group, 24 students got the average, i.e. they passed the test, whereas only 6 students did not reach the average or, in other words, failed the test. However, for the control group, no student passed the test. The highest mark was 6.5 out of 20 while the worst mark was 0.

Students	Experimental Group	Control Group
01	11.5	03
02	12	04
03	11	04
04	14	05.5
05	13.5	01.5
06	11.5	6.5
07	13	06
08	14	04
09	17	04.5
10	15	05.5
11	14	04
12	16	06.5
13	15	04.5
14	14	03.5
15	15	01
16	12.5	04
17	11.5	04.5
18	9	05.5
19	10	03.5
20	07	05.5
21	11	05.5
22	10.5	00
23	09	04
24	16	04.5
25	09.5	06.5
26	11	03
27	10.5	04.5
28	15	03
29	08.5	02
30	08.5	02

Table 20. The Results of the Post-test of Knowledge

4.7.3. Comparing the Scores of the Groups

To verify the hypothesis of the experimental design, it is compulsory to compare the results of the groups. The researcher had to compare between the pre-test and post-test results of the experimental group and those of the control group separately and then compare between the results of both groups (see Chandra & Sharma, 2007).

4.7.3.1. Comparing the Scores of the Experimental Group

4.7.3.1.1. Comparing the Pre-test of Knowledge and Post-test of Knowledge of the Experimental Group

The researcher compared between the pre-test of knowledge and the post-test of knowledge scores of the experimental group to verify whether there was any difference between the students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences before and after the treatment and confirm or reject sub-hypothesis 3:

There will be a significant difference between the experimental group scores of the pre-test of knowledge and the post-test of knowledge.

The researcher compared between the scores using the one tailed, paired t-test and the results are shown in Table 21.

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Exp. Group	30	3.1	5.3	7.2	11.4	.000
Post-test: Exp. Group	30	2.6	12.2			

Table 21. Comparing Pre-test and Post- test of Knowledge Scores in the Experimental Group

Table 21 exhibits that the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the experimental group in the pre-test of knowledge was 5.3 and that the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the experimental group in the post-test of knowledge was 12.2. The mean difference was 7.2 and was significant. With a degree of freedom of 29 and a level of significance $\alpha=0.05$, the calculated *t* value is greater than the critical value (11.4>1.69). Consequently the means are significantly different. Moreover as p= .000<0.05, by statistical conventional criteria, the difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group is statistically significant. In other words, sub-hypothesis 3 is confirmed.

4.7.3.1.2. Comparing the Pre-test and Post-test Writing Task Scores of the Experimental Group

To check the effect of the students' intake on their written performance, the researcher compared between the written performance of the experimental group before the treatment and after the treatment with regard to the number of exclamatory sentences used in their essays. Through the comparison, the researcher aimed at confirming or rejecting sub-hypothesis 4:

There will be a significant difference between the experimental group scores of the pre-test writing task and the post-test writing task

By adopting the one tailed, paired t-test when calculating, the results of the comparison are exhibited in Table 22.

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Exp. Group	30	0.2	0.06	1.3	7.77	.000
Post-test: Exp. Group	30	0.8	1.36			

Table 22. Comparing the Pre-test and the Post-test Writing Task Scores of the Experimental Group

Table 22 emanates that the mean of the total of exclamatory sentences used by the students in the experimental group in the post-test was 1.36 and the mean of the total of exclamatory sentences used by the students in the experimental group in the pre-test was 0.06. The mean difference was 1.3 and thus was significant. With a degree of freedom of 29 and a level of significance α=0.05, the calculated *t* value is greater than the critical value (7.7>1.69). The means are, therefore, significantly different. Moreover as p=.000<0.05, by conventional criteria, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test writing task scores of the experimental group is statistically significant. Consequently, sub-hypothesis 4 is confirmed.

4.7.3.2. Comparing the Scores of the Control Group
4.7.3.2.1. Comparing the Pre-test and Post-test of Knowledge of the Control Group

The researcher compared between the pre-test of knowledge and the post-test of knowledge scores of the control group to verify whether there was any difference between the students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences when not receiving any treatment and verify sub-hypothesis 5:

There will be no significant difference between the control group scores of the pre-test of knowledge and the post-test of knowledge.

The researcher made a comparison between the scores using the one tailed, paired t-test and the results are displayed in Table 23

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Control Group	30	2.4	3.8	0.2	0.59	.279
Post-test: Control Group	30	1.6	4			

Table 23. Comparing the Pre-Test and Post Test of Knowledge Scores of the Control Group

Table 23 emanates that the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the control group in the pre-test was 3.8 and the total score obtained by each student in the control group in the post-test was 4. The mean difference was only 0.2 and was not significant. With a degree of freedom of 29 and a level of significance α=0.05, the calculated *t* value is smaller than the critical value (0.59<1.69). Ergo the means are not significantly different. Moreover as p= .279>0.05, by conventional criteria, the difference between the pre-test and post-test of the control group is not statistically significant. That is to say, sub-hypothesis 5 is confirmed.

4.7.3.2.2. Comparing the Pre-test and Post-test Writing Task Scores of the Control Group

The researcher compared between the written performance of the control group in the pre-test writing task and the post-test writing task with regard to the number of exclamatory

sentences used in their essays, noting that they received no treatment. Through the comparison, the researcher aimed at confirming or rejecting sub-hypothesis 6:

There will be no significant difference between the control group scores of the pre-test of knowledge and the post-test of knowledge.

The analysis of the essays revealed that the control group did not use any exclamatory sentence in their pre-test or post-test writing task. Accordingly, it was not necessary to use the t-test as it was patently clear that there is no difference between the pre-test and the post-test as far as the use of exclamatory sentences is concerned. Sub-hypothesis 6 is, therefore, confirmed.

4.7.3.3. Comparing the Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

4.7.3.3.1. Comparing the Post-test of Knowledge of the Control Group and the Experimental Group

To check the effect of the treatment on the students' knowledge, the researcher had to compare between the post-test of knowledge grades of the group that received the treatment; the experimental group, and the group that did not receive any treatment pertaining exclamatory sentences; the control group. The researcher used the one tailed, unpaired t-test to check sub-hypothesis 7:

There will be a significant difference between the post-test of knowledge scores of the experimental group and those of the control group.

The results of the comparison are displayed in Table 24 below.

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Pre-test: Exp. Group	30	2.6	12.2	8.2	14.4	.000
Post-test: Control Group	30	1.6	4			

Table 24. Comparing Post-test of Knowledge Scores in the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Table 24 clearly emanates that the mean of the total score obtained by each student in the experimental group in the post-test was 12.2 and the total score obtained by each student in the control group in the post-test was 4. The mean difference was 8.2 and, therefore, was significant. With a degree of freedom of 58 and a level of significance α=0.05, the calculated t value is greater than the critical value (14.4>1.67). Thus, the means are significantly different. Moreover as p=.000<0.05, by conventional criteria, the difference between the experimental group and the control group is statistically significant. Sub-hypothesis 7 is, therefore, confirmed.

4.7.3.3.2. Comparing the Post-test Writing Task Scores of the Control Group and the Experimental Group

To verify there is a difference between the experimental group that received the treatment and the control group that did not in so far the use of the exclamatory sentences in the post-test writing task, the researcher used the one tailed, unpaired t-test to check sub-hypothesis 8:

There will be a significant difference between the number of exclamatory sentences used by the experimental group and that of the control group in the post-test writing task.

The results are displayed in Table 25.

	N	SD	Mean	Mean Difference	T	P
Post-test: Exp. Group	30	0.8	1.3	1.3	8.4	.000
Post-test: Control Group	30	0	0.0			

Table 25. Comparing Post-test Writing Task Scores in the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Table 25 above shows that the mean of the total of exclamatory sentences used by the students in the experimental group in the post-test was 1.3 and the mean of the total of exclamatory sentences used by the students in the control group in post-test was 0. The mean difference was 1.3 and therefore was significant. With a degree of freedom of 58 and a level of significance α=0.05, the calculated t value is greater than the critical value (8.4>1.67).

Ergo the means are significantly different. Additionally as p= .000<0.05, by conventional criteria, the difference between the experimental group post-test and the control group post-test is statistically significant.

4.7.4. The Use of Exclamatory Sentences during the Experiment

It has been previously referred to in this chapter, when describing the treatment (see Table 13), that the essays written by the students of both the experimental group and the control group were collected by the researcher to be analysed in terms of the number of students who used different forms of exclamatory sentences.
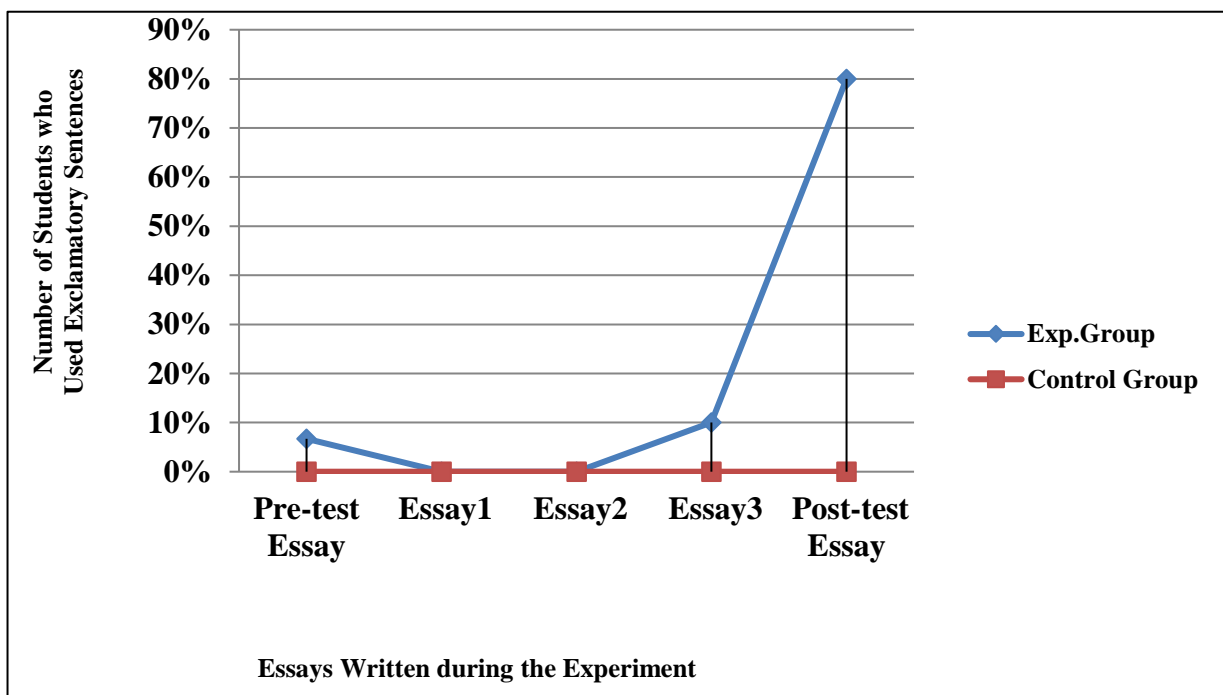
Figure 5. The Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Their Essays during the Experiment

Figure 5 displays the number of students who used exclamatory sentences in each writing task during the experiment. For the control group, it is clearly noticed that the number of students who employed exclamatory sentences levelled off at 0 in all the writing tasks. In other words, no student used a single exclamatory sentence in their writings. For the experimental group, merely 6.6% of the students used exclamatory sentences when responding to the pre-test writing task. The number of students dropped to 0 when writing

Essay#1 and levelled off at 0 in Essay#2. After that, it increased to reach 10% in Essay#3 and steeply increased to cover 80% in the post-test writing task.

A possible interpretation that no student used exclamatory sentences when writing Essay#1 and Essay#2 while they used them in Essay#3 is the number of excerpts they were exposed to before writing. Essay#1 was written after exposing the students to only one literary excerpt and similarly Essay#2 was written after presenting the students with a single literary excerpt. However, 10% of the students used exclamatory sentences when writing Essay#3 after being exposed to 5 literary excerpts successively (cf. Table 12). The steep increase of the number of students who employed exclamatory sentences in the post-test essay can be ascribed to the fact that it was written after training the students to analyse the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences in a total of 10 literary excerpts and this aligns with the aforementioned notion based on the effectiveness of frequency in input and its necessity for turning the latter into intake in pragmatics.

4.7.5. Results of the Effect of Feedback on the Exclamatory Intonation

As it has already been mentioned earlier in this chapter, the students were required to read the literary excerpts aloud and were provided with the necessary feedback with respect to the intonation of exclamatory sentences to attain the pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence. Accordingly, the researcher and to verify the effectiveness of the read-aloud activity and the oral feedback offered to the students, observed their intonation when reading aloud. The results of the observation are summarised in Figure 6.
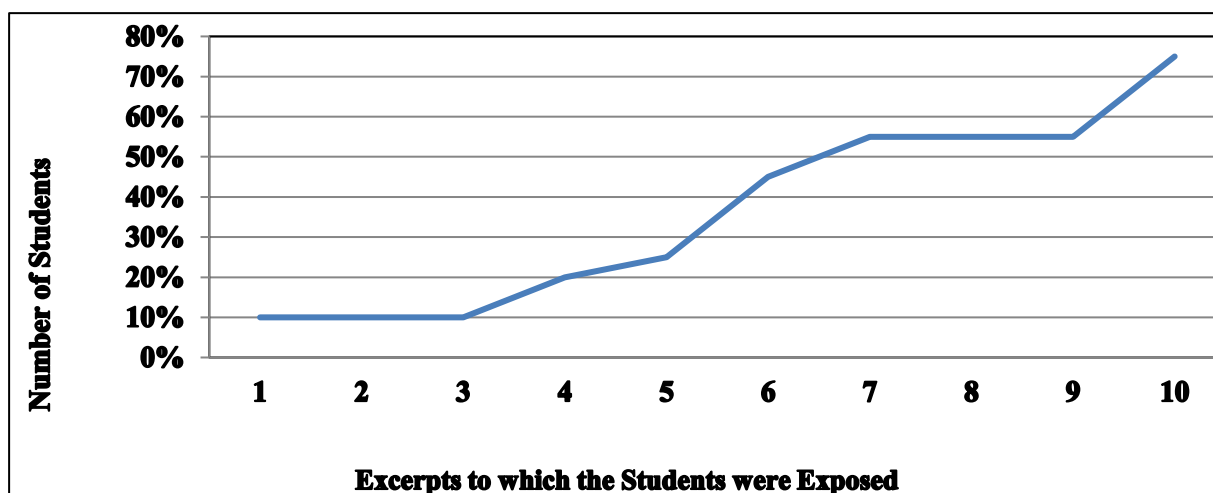
Figure 6. The Number of Students Who Read the Exclamatory Sentences with the Right

Figure 6 exhibits the number of students in the experimental group who read the exclamatory sentences with the right exclamatory intonation during their exposure to ten literary excerpts. It can be clearly seen that the number of students who did not commit intonation mistakes when reading the exclamatory sentences is 10% in the first excerpt (cf. Table 12). This number remained constant in excerpts 2 and 3 to reach 20% in excerpt 4. The number continued its increase to reach 25% in the fifth excerpt and sharply rose to 45% in excerpt 6. After that it levelled off at 55% in excerpts 7, 8 and 9 to go up again to reach 75% of the students in the last excerpt.

The results of the observation show that the students' reading was affected by the researcher's feedback. The students gradually started to allocate more attention to the intonation of these sentences. It is also noteworthy that the percentage of 75% of students who did not make intonation mistakes when reading exclamatory sentences approximates the percentage of the students who used exclamatory sentences in their post-test writing task. A possible interpretation of this is that recognising the intonation helped the students to identify the pragmatic force of sentences and be aware of their significance and thus induced them to inject their pieces of writing with different exclamatory sentences.

4.8. Analysis of the Students' Exclamatory Sentences in Their Writings

In order to verify that the experimental group use of exclamatory sentences in the post-test writing task was not merely due to their desire to please the researcher, who was also their teacher of Written Expression, but rather due to the adequate intake they had from the exposure to the literary excerpts, the students of the experimental group who employed exclamatory sentences in the post-writing task were required to justify their use of these sentences in their writings. More precisely, they were asked to extract the exclamatory sentences they employed, determine their types and identify their pragmatic force. In Table 26a, 26b and 26c, the exclamatory sentences and their types are displayed along with quotes of these students' explanation of the pragmatic force of their own sentences.

Students	The Exclamatory Sentence Used	Type	The Pragmatic Force
01	"How great the sacrifice she made!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show a feeling of pride and admiration to women."
	"How great they are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show compliment and pride."
02	"They think that the children's happiness is extremely related to the materials they have!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"Showing disagreement and opposition"
03	"What a lovely woman she is!"	Wh-exclamative	"It shows the feeling of admiration."
	"How patient she is!"	Wh-exclamative	"expresses the strong feeling of admiration and love"
04	"What [a] great wisdom she has!"	Wh-exclamative	"expresses a strong feeling. This feeling is admiration"
05	"They are the basis of the family and no one can deny this truth!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"Emphasising the truth that women are better parents than men."
	"They need a source of sympathy and peace which is mothers, of course not fathers!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"Showing sarcasm towards those who think the opposite."
06	"What a patient creature she is!"	Wh-exclamative	"Shows the high degree of patience and a feeling of admiration towards the woman."

Table 26a. The Students' Analysis of Their Own Exclamatory Sentences

Students	The Exclamatory Sentence Used	Type	The Pragmatic Force
08	"No one can [be] more patient than women!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To show compliment and pride."
	"We can't ignore this sacrifice"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"Emphasising the great favour women do for their children"
09	"How understanding our mothers are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the extreme degree of understanding and expressing respect towards mothers."
	"How thoughtful women are! "	Wh-exclamative	"To show gratitude towards women."
10	"How patient mothers are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To emphasise the degree of the patience and express appreciation towards that."
	"How a great sacrifice they made!"	Wh-exclamative	"Shows that the sacrifice of mothers reaches the extreme degree and it also expresses the feeling of [the writer's] gratitude and admiration."
11	"This is brilliant indeed!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To emphasise that the relation between the mother and her baby is amazing."
	"How could men be more sympathetic than women!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express that women are sympathetic to the extreme degree."
12	Love and care are more important, indeed!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To show emphasis."
13	Women know how to deal with their children very well!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"Emphasising women's responsibility."
14	"What a challenge it is"	Wh-exclamative	"To express a strong feeling of admiration."
15	"How difficult the responsibility of children it is!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express sorrow."
16	"What arguments they are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express the dislike and dissatisfaction and the weak degree of the arguments."
	"What a sacrifice!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the degree of sacrifice and to express admiration towards the sacrifice of women."

Table 26b. The Students' Analysis of Their Own Exclamatory Sentences

Students	The Exclamatory Sentence Used	Type	The Pragmatic Force
17	"How strong women are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the extreme degree of strength and express the feeling of pride. It means I am proud that I am a woman."
	"What a patience"	Wh-exclamative	"Show the feeling of admiration."
	"What a big heart"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the degree of kindness and forgiveness that women have."
19	"How strong they are when they bear a lot without saying anything!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the extreme degree of strength and express the felling of admiration towards women."
	He just wants to have a nap!	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To express disapoointment."
21	"What a great feeling it is!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show an extreme degree of greatness to express a great feeling of love towards. mothers."
	"How better children feel when they know that there is someone [who] supoort[s] them"	Wh-exclamative	"It conveys a strong feeling of relief."
22	"What a lovely mother she is!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show an extreme degree of loveliness. To show that she is the loveliest of mothers."
23	"What a wonderful woman!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express the feeling of admiration."
	"How tolerant mothers are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express admiration."
24	"What an incredible relation they love!"	Wh-exclamative	"To express admiration."
	"How tenderly she holds the situation!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the extreme degree of tenderness and express admiration towards that."
25	"How important parents are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To emphasise the importance of parents."
	"How frightening the power is sometimes!"	Wh-exclamative	"This shows the extreme degree of fear."
	"I wonder what kind of people are those who cannot see how wonderful mothers are!"	Embedded exclamative	"Feeling surprised."
26	"What great parents mothers are!"	Wh-exclamative	"To show the extreme degree of greatness and express the feeling of pride towards mothers."
27	"She is definitely more passionate about her child!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To emphasise the passion of mothers"
	"It is the truth that I can't simply alter!"	Declarative exclamatory sentence	"To emphasise certainty."

Table 26c. The Students' Analysis of Their Own Exclamatory Sentences

Note: Students 7, 18, 20, 28, 29 and 30 did not use exclamatory sentences in their post-test writing task and thus were left out the tables 26a, 26b and 26c.

As it is clearly indicated in Table 24, the students of the experimental group used the exclamatory sentences to express their strong feelings, especially that the essay topic, albeit of an argumentative nature, induced them to express their strong feelings whenever necessary. These students' selection of the exclamatory forms, mainly wh-exlamatives and declarative, was appropriate as it aligned with their communicative purposes and the context they created for that. The exclamatory sentences employed were mostly communicating admiration, pride and love towards the mothers. Moreover, some of the declarative exclamatory forms were deployed for emphasis. The students' appropriate use of exclamatory sentences in their writings and their ability to identify the sentences forms, create a clear context for them and determine their pragmatic force plainly reflects the development of these students' pragmalinguistic competence after receiving the research treatment. Additionally, these students could fathom the notion of that exclamatory sentences can communicate what is not necessarily visibly written. By way of illustration, Student 3 did not directly express the feeling of admiration towards the patience of mothers through directly stating "I admire the mother's patience." but through the wh-exclamative sentence: "How patient she is!" allowing the reader to decipher their feeling of admiration through the form of the exclamatory sentence and its context.

4.9. Discussion of the Experimental Study Results

The primary objective of conducting this experimental study was to investigate whether or not training the students to identify the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences would make them pragmalinguistically competent and thus enable them to employ exclamatory sentences effectively in written discourse; in other words, to verify whether the independent variable "the intake of adequate knowledge about exclamatory sentences" would affect the dependent variable "the use of exclamatory sentences in writing."

The results of this study divulged that the scores of the experimental group post-test, in its two forms, were significantly different from their pre-test scores. The students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences has increased and their written performance with respect to the use of these language structures has improved. It is reasonable to infer, in this case, that the experimental group benefited greatly from the research intervention.

On the contrary, the absence of any significant difference between the scores of the control group's post-test, in its two forms, and the scores of the pre-test emanated that the students' knowledge about exclamatory sentences remained unchanged and levelled off at its low level and their written performance with regard the use of exclamatory sentences has not altered.

Moreover, statistically proved through the calculation of the t-test, the experimental group and the control group achieved parity with regard to their knowledge and use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse before the research intervention, but showed a significant difference between them after the research intervention. The experimental group obtained higher scores with regard to their cognizance of the forms and the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences and the number of exclamatory sentences employed in their essays.

Overall, the research intervention represented in the exposure of the experimental group to ten literary excerpts encompassing various forms of exclamatory sentences and the implementation of the heuristic strategy for training these students to decipher the pragmatic force of each of these sentences by means of context features and these sentences' intonation had its efficacy in making the students pragmatically competent, more precisely pragmalinguistically competent with regard their use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse. This competence was remarkably demonstrated in their written performance as the students did not overrun their essays by exclamatory sentences to please the researcher, but rather deployed these language structures judiciously and successfully in their writings.

Therefore, the research hypothesis has been confirmed; using exclamatory sentences in writing is only possible when learners have the necessary intake of adequate knowledge about the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to detail the experimental research study. The obtained quantitative data, which comprised the pre-test and post-test scores, were thoroughly analysed to verify the research hypothesis. The findings in this chapter confirmed an association between the students' lack of knowledge about exclamatory sentences and the dearth of these language forms in these learners' writings. The students could only effectively deploy exclamatory sentences in their writings when they had the adequate knowledge about these sentences pragmatic force. This knowledge was gained through frequently exposing them to exclamatory sentences in context and instructing them in pragmatic force analysis through the heuristic strategy.

Chapter 5
The Descriptive Study

Chapter 5
The Descriptive Study

Introduction

This chapter provides a description of a complementary study to the previous experimental one. Through this study, of a descriptive nature, the researcher sought to answer some of the research questions, which was impossible to answer while conducting the experimental study, by virtue of some descriptive research data eliciting tools, viz the written completion discourse test and two questionnaires. It was in fact necessary to verify whether the students' lack of the pragmalinguistic competence, insofar as the use of exclamatory sentences is concerned, temporarily applied to only a batch of students in a certain academic year or rather was incessant to include the following year. It was also the researcher's prime concern to delve into the details about the students' use of exclamatory forms when realising the expressive speech act and their teachers' attitude towards that.

5.1. Written Discourse Completion Test Analysis
5.1.1. Sampling

A representative sample of sixty third-year students (N=60) at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Med Saddik Benyahia, Jijel were chosen to take part of the descriptive part of the present thesis and therefore complete the written discourse completion test. The purposive selection of third-year students was made specifically for the reason that final-year undergraduates are expected to have, at least to an extent, a better written discourse competence than sophomores and freshmen, as they were taught writing for a longer period of time. With this intention, the researcher supposed that these students possess the necessary reading and writing dexterity to easily answer the test. More specifically, they have the ability to understand the situations described in the test properly

and express their intentions through writing easily. Additionally, at such a level it is reputed that they take cognizance of most of the exclamatory forms existing in English, if not all, and possess the ability to know how to use them effectively in the suitable context.

To ensure randomisation, the researcher administered the test to the third-year students she could meet on Monday, her working day at university. The selected third-year cohort is thought to share the same background knowledge as they studied their first year and second year at the same university. Homogeneity, therefore, was achieved to a reasonable degree.

5.1.2. Written Discourse Completion Test

The discourse completion test or task (henceforth DCT) is an elicitation research instrument implemented to garner pragmatic information. It is particularly devised to probe into the use of speech acts. In this test, the respondents are provided with a description of some situations where some speech acts are realised. Subsequent to each situation, a blank space is given so that the participants write what they would say (Archer, Aijmer & Wichmann, 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2011). This test was introduced by Levenston and Blum (1978) and was initially adopted in a comparative study to investigate aspects of lexical simplification and then adopted later by Blum-Kulka (1982) in pragmatics to investigate speech acts.

It is noteworthy in the present thesis to acknowledge that the DCT has advantages and caveats as a pragmatic research tool. In addition to being known for gathering large, varied amounts of data in a short period of time, this research means is deemed to be advantageous in data elicitation for its easiness in answer and administration; "a discourse completion test is a pencil and paper task that requires subjects to write what they believe they would say in particular context" (Gass & Houck, 1999, p. 26). In other words, it is not one of those tests that are characterised by complexity of form or contingent upon necessarily responding electronically. However, it is said that its validity is questioned with regard to its genuine

representation of naturally occurring data. Thus, the probing question to be raised here is whether written data accurately reflect natural talk or not. Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992), for instance, compared between the written responses to the DCT and natural speech and concluded that there was a significant difference between the two which makes the DCT a limited research tool. In a similar vein, Beebe and Cummings (1996)'s study also revealed that there was a difference between the participants' written forms of answers elicited through the DCT and the oral data. Gass & Houck (1999) explained that written data is restricted because "they do not convey prosodic (e.g. pitch, intonation) nor kinesic features (e.g. gesture, facial expressions, posture) which can be crucial to the interpretation of the data" (p. 69).

Since the present research study targets the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences in written discourse, the fact that the written form of the DCT does not precisely represent the oral form of the students' answer will not affect, in any way, the results of the study and thus the written DCT is valid. The absence of the prosodic features in the answers is rather a boon than a hindrance in this case because it is a compelling reason for the respondents to use exclamatory sentences as the latter substitute, to an extent, these features in written discourse.

5.1.3. Description and Administration of the Written DCT

The written DCT used in the present study (Appendix 14) was devised by the researcher with an exploratory objective to shed light on third-year students' use of exclamatory sentences and specifically on their selection of the exclamatory forms they would use in responding to emotionally-triggering situations. The test consisted of ten situations that were particularly set to provoke a variety of emotional reactions in the participants, both positive and negative and, therefore, induce them to employ specific forms of exclamatory sentences to communicate their feelings when realising the expressive speech act.

The test was administered to 60 third-year students who were required to fill it in within an hour and a half. The researcher made the description of the situations concise and precise to evade any cumbersome, confusing information. The researcher employed words that are readily understandable for the participants and asked them about whether they understood every situation during the period of the test. The space provided for answer was enough for one sentence.

One of the significant questions that are raised with regard to the written DCT is about the size of the speech act realisation form. It is noteworthy that the realisation of a speech act is not restricted to only one sentence. Even though it is common that the typical speech act unit is represented by a single sentence, a speech act can be represented by more or less than a sentence. A single sentence can also be used to manifest many speech acts. Nonetheless, it is blatantly obvious that the size of the speech act realisation form should be specified because by not so doing recognising the linguistic representation of this speech act is impossible (Flowerdew, 2013). In accordance with this, the respondents were required to react to the situations of the written DCT adopted in the present study by writing a single sentence or less, but not by many sentences.

5.1.4. Analysis of the Written DCT Results

The analysis of the students' responses to the situations in the written DCT was at two levels; first in terms of the number of respondents who used exclamatory sentences in their answers to each situation and, then, in terms of the forms of exclamatory sentences employed. Echo exclamatory sentences were excluded from the analysis because they cannot be suitably deployed in any of the tenth situations.

Situation 01: *You are in front of Burj Khalifa for the first time. Although you have already heard that it is the highest building in the world, its height exceeded your imagination.*

This situation was selected specifically to evoke positive surprise felt when something is observed for the first time.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
30	30	60
50%	50%	100%

Table 27. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 1

50% of the test takers (N=60) did not use exclamatory sentences when responding to the surprising stimulus while the remainder 50% did. The forms of the exclamatory sentences that were employed by the students are displayed in Table 28.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	13
	43.33%
Wh-exclamatives	03
	10%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	01
	3.33%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	13
	43.33%
Total	30
	100%

Table 28. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 1

Table 28 clearly emanates that of the 30 exclamatory sentences used by the participants to express surprise, 43.33% were declarative exclamatory sentences and analogously 43.33% were interjections. 10% were wh-exclamatives and only 03.3% were nominal exclamatives. The table also shows that inverted exclamatives, elliptical exclamatory sentences and embedded exclamatory sentences were totally absent from the participants' answers to this situation.

Situation 2: *You heard about the death of your best friend. (Express your deep sadness towards that)*

Through the second situation, the researcher attempted to test the reaction of students to hearing sorrowful news.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
12	48	60
20%	80%	100%

Table 29. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 2

Of the total respondents, 80% abstained from employing exclamatory sentences in response to situation 2 while merely 20% did employ them. The forms of the exclamatory sentences used are displayed in Table 30.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	06
	50%
Wh-exclamatives	02
	16.66%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	01
	08.33%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	03
	25%
Total	12
	100%

Table 30. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 2

Table 30 exhibits that half of the exclamatory sentences (50%) used to bewail were declarative exclamatory sentences, 25% of them were interjections, 16.66% were wh-exclamatives and 08.33% were nominal exclamatives. The respondents abstained from using inverted exclamatives, elliptical exclamatory sentences and embedded exclamatory in reaction to this situation.

Situation 3: *You went to the mall for shopping with your family and you were irritated by the large crowds there.*

The third situation was selected with the objective of testing the students' response when expressing a strong negative emotion which is that of irritation.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
12	48	60
20%	80%	100%

Table 31. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 3

To show irritation, 80% of the students did not write exclamatory sentences, whereas 20% did. Table 32 exhibits the forms of exclamatory sentences the students used in response to this situation.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	03
	25%
Wh-exclamatives	03
	25%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	01
	08.33%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	05
	41.66%
Total	12
	100%

Table 32. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Responses to Situation 3

Of the 12 exclamatory sentences used in this situation, 41.66% were interjections, 25% of them were declarative exclamatory sentences and also 25% were wh-exclamatives. 8.33% were nominal exclamatives. As Table 32 patently emanates, no respondent deployed inverted exclamative, elliptical exclamatory sentences or embedded exclamatory sentences.

Situation 4: *You dropped a glass and it broke into pieces. While collecting the bits from the floor, you cut your finger.*

The aim set behind devising this situation was to examine the participants' reaction in a situation of pain in terms of their use of exclamatory sentences.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
28	32	60
46.66%	53.33%	100%

Table 33. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 4

53.33% of the participants did not select exclamatory sentences to express pain as against 46.66% who did. The forms of exclamatory sentences deployed in response to this situation are shown in Table 34.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	00
	25%
Wh-exclamatives	03
	10.71%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	02
	07.14%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	23
	82.14%
Total	28
	100%

Table 34. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 4

82.14% of the exclamatory sentences employed in response to Situation 4 were interjections, 10.71% of them were wh-exclamatives and 7.14% were nominal exclamatives. As it is indicated in Table 34, a total absence of inverted exclmatives, elliptical exclamatory sentences or embedded ones was observed.

Situation 5: *You accompanied your brother to the airport who is going to live in another country and you find it the right time to state your affection for him.*

This situation was purposefully selected to make the students emotionally moved by an affectionate farewell and investigate their use of exclamatory sentences in response to that.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
06	54	60
10%	90%	100%

Table 35. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 5

Of the 60 test takers, 90% of them did not respond to Situation 5 with an exclamatory sentence as against only 10% who did. Table 36 displays the forms of exclamatory sentences that the participants used.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	03
	50%
Wh-exclamatives	00
	00%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	01
	16.66%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	02
	33.33%
Total	06
	100%

Table 36. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 5

Of the exclamatory sentences employed in answers to Situation 5, half of them were declarative exclamatory sentences, 33.33% were interjections and 16.66% were nominal exclamatives. None of the exclamatory sentences were inverted, elliptical or embedded.

Situation 6: *Your sister has just broken your expensive iPhone and you are furious with her.*

The sixth situation was set up to test the students' reaction to another strong negative feeling which is that of anger.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
09	51	60
15%	85%	100%

Table 37. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 6

To express their anger, 85% of the respondents did not opt for exclamatory sentences use whereas 15% of them did. Table 38 exhibits their selection of the exclamatory forms in response to this situation.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	06
	66.66%
Wh-exclamatives	00
	00%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	00
	00%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	03
	33.33%
Total	09
	100%

Table 38. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 6

In the sixth situation, 66.66% of the exclamatory forms employed were declarative exclamatory sentences and 33.33% were interjections. As it is indicated in Table 38, no other forms were used.

Situation 7: *You have been invited to dine in your aunt's house and the food was very delicious, hence you have decided to praise her cooking.*

Situation 7 was selected for testing the participants on expressing praise with regard to their use of exclamatory sentences.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
16	44	60
26.66%	73.33%	100%

Table 39. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 7

Of the total respondents (N=60), 73.33% abstained from opting for exclamatory sentences when expressing praise, whereas 26.66% did not. The exclamatory forms used by the latter are shown in Table 40.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	02
	33.33%
Wh-exclamatives	00
	00%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	00
	00%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	04
	66.66%
Total	06
	100%

Table 40. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 7

66.66% of the exclamatory sentences used were interjections and 33.33% were declarative exclamatory sentences. Wh-exclamatives, inverted and nominal ones along with elliptical and embedded exclamatory sentences were completely absent from the students' answers to the seventh situation.

Situation 8: *You have entered your friend's room in the dormitory, and you found it smelly, too dirty and dusty.*

This particular situation aimed at examining the students'use of exclamatory sentences to express another strong, negative emotion which is that of disgust.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
12	48	60
20%	80%	100%

Table 41. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 8

In this situation, 80% of students did not employ exclamatory sentences in a state of disgust, whereas 20% did. Table 42 clearly indicates the exclamatory forms deployed in Situation 8.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	03
	25%
Wh-exclamatives	04
	33.33%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	00
	00%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	05
	41.66%
Total	12
	100%

Table 42. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 8

41.66% of the respondents used interjections to express disgust, 33.33% used wh-exclamatives and 25% used declarative exclamatory sentences. No respondent employed inverted exclamatives or nominal exclamatives. Also, none used elliptical or embedded exclamatory sentences.

Situation 9: *You travelled for eight hours by bus. Your weariness is indescribable.*

The ninth situation was selected specifically to check the students' use of exclamatory sentences in a state of exhaustion.

158

Used	Did Not Use	Total
00	60	60
00%	100%	100%

Table 43. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 9

Table 43 clearly indicates that no student employed an exclamatory sentence to express exhaustion.

Situation 10: *For the first time, you won a car in a prize draw.*

This situation was chosen to investigate the respondents' use of exclamatory sentences when they are extremely overjoyed to win a prize for the first time.

Used	Did Not Use	Total
14	46	60
23.33%	76.66%	100%

Table 44. Number of Students Who Used Exclamatory Sentences in Situation 10

76.66% of the students did not deploy exclamatory sentences in their replies to Situation 10 while 23.33% did. The types of exclamatory sentences used are displayed in Table 45.

Declarative exclamatory sentences	06
	42.85%
Wh-exclamatives	01
	07.14%
Inverted exclamatives	00
	00%
Nominal exclamatives	00
	00%
Elliptical exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Embedded exclamatory sentences	00
	00%
Interjections	07
	50%
Total	14
	100%

Table 45. Exclamatory Forms Used in Students' Response to Situation 10

50% of the participants opted for interjections to show they are overjoyed. 42.85% rather preferred to employ declarative exclamatory sentences for that and 7.14% employed wh-exclamatives. The test takers abstained from employing inverted exclamatives, nominal exclamatives, elliptical exclamatory sentences and embedded ones in response to this situation.

5.1.5. Discussion of Written DCT Results

The written DCT that the 60 third-year students took provided significant results which could greatly help in giving important insights into whether or not the students can effectively use exclamatory sentences to realise the expressive speech act. Equally importantly, it allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of the students' choice of certain exclamatory forms over others to fulfill some language functions.

Notwithstanding the strength of emotions the ten situations were demanding, the bulk of participants in this test did not employ exclamatory sentences when reacting to these situations. Only 50% of them used exclamatory sentences to show positive surprise, 46.66% of them used these sentences to express pain. Merely 26.66% students employed them to express praise and 23.33% to show extreme happiness. 20% of the test takers used them to express sadness, the same percentage to show irritation and to express disgust, 15% to communicate anger and none of them (0%) to show exhaustion. By examining the different exclamatory sentences forms that the participants wrote in their answers in every situation, the researcher has observed what it follows.

In the first situation whereby the respondents had to react to a positively surprising stimulus, the interjections use was limited to "Oh!" despite the fact that other English interjections could have been employed to show surprise such as "Wow!" (see the discussion about interjections in Chapter 3). In addition to that, although wh-exclamatives are specifically deployed when something exceeds someone's expectations, which is evident in

the case of looking at the highest building in the world for the first time, only 3 students used these structures to show their utter surprise.

In the second situation, the participants' selection of interjections was erroneous; they opted for "Ouch" and "Ah" to emanate sadness which are rather suitable for emanating pain and recognition respectively (see the non-exhaustive list of English interjections in English of Leech & Svartvik (2013)). Moreover, the communicative function of the declarative exclamatory sentences, they used, showed shock instead of sadness.

In the third situation devoted to irritation, the students' wh-exclamatives were full of syntactic miscues and the use of interjections was again restricted to the interjection "Oh". Not employing an inverted exclamative, an elliptical exclamatory sentence or an embedded one to clearly express irritation might be interpreted by stating that the participants select the exclamatory forms randomly, with no intention in mind.

As for the fourth situation, the test takers did not succeed in deploying the exclamatory forms to express pain. The wh-exclamatives and the nominal exclamatives (cf. Table 32) were used with the communicative function of cursing the day rather than expressing pain. The participants did not also succeed in selecting the suitable interjections to express pain, of the 23 students who used them, only 6 used "Ouch". The remaining subjects used "Oh" that is not associated with showing pain, "Oh, my God" that is rather generally associated with feeling bad and "Ah" that is used for recognition (see Chapter 3 for a more detailed explanation about interjections).

In the fifth situation, that of showing affection in a farewell context, of the only 6 students who used exclamatory sentences (N=60), only 2 students employed the exclamatory sentences to show strong love. Two students rather referred to the farewell itself instead of affection and two others used "Oh!" and "Oh, my God!" which were inappropriate for showing affection

With respect to expressing anger, in the sixth situation, the students did not successfully express this emotion through the exclamatory sentences they used. The declarative exclamatory sentences were communicating pure surprise in lieu of anger. Additionally, their selection of interjections to show anger was erroneous as they used "Oh" and "Oh, my God".

For expressing praise, in the seventh situation, the use of exclamatory sentences was restricted to declarative exclamatory sentences and interjections despite that the remaining exclamatory forms can be employed appropriately in such a context, including wh-exclamatives. By way of illustration, uttering "What a delicious meal you have made", for example, is certainly correct in this situation because what is genuinely communicated is not that the speaker/writer is surprised at that the meal was unexpectedly delicious but rather they flatter the hearer for social purposes (see Rett, 2011).

When showing disgust in the eighth situation, the exclamatory sentences employed by the participants, were expressing surprise instead of disgust as in "You live in this place!" and in addition to that the test takers used "Oh" for the purpose of showing disgust while "Ugh!" is the most suitable interjection to be employed.

Interestingly, the participants did not employ a single exclamatory sentence to express exhaustion in the ninth situation. This comes to support the evidence that the students know little about associating language forms with communicative functions. Moreover, the last situation was no exception to the previous ones, as the participants overused "Oh!" to show their state of being overjoyed.

The students' written form of language can richly dispense innumerable, significant pieces of information about its writer (Witte & Cherry, 1986) and indeed the students' written responses to the DCT could provide us with an in-depth account of their knowledge about exclamatory sentences, and particularly the link they established between these language forms and their communicative functions in various contexts. The responses to the written

DCT clearly disclosed a students' failure in associating strong emotions with exclamatory sentences use and a mismatch made between the appropriate exclamatory forms and their intended communicative functions. It is a matter of fact that some scholars as Golato (2003) argued against the effectiveness of the written DCT as a research tool casting light on its inability to reflect the real situations. To her "a DCT is not an *on-line* task in which a person uses language spontaneously and without consciously focusing on linguistic output, but instead an *off-line* task in which a person has time for introspection" (p. 110) (Original italics). Cohen & Olshtain (1994) also pointed out its weakness as a pragmatic research tool, explaining "it is a projective measure of speaking and so the cognitive processes involved in producing utterances in response to this may not truly reflect those used when having to speak relatively naturally" (p. 148). Thus, by bringing the students answers under close scrutiny, we can, correspondingly, plausibly infer that these students are ignorant of the *know-how* about exclamatory sentences. Failing in coupling the suitable exclamatory forms with each context, regardless that the students were given the opportunity of introspection and went through writing processes instead of speaking ones and were given sufficient time to choose the appropriate form to communicate their intended meaning by retrieving information from their minds obviously shows that they lack the pragmatic competence with regard to these sentences. More precisely, their performance in the written DCT was not pragmalinguistically successful; pragmalinguistic failure in the present study is the wrong use of linguistic forms when attempting to perform a certain speech act, in our case the expressive speech act. In the following section, the researcher attempts to uncover the reasons behind the students' ignorance of these particular language forms and their teachers' attitude toward this very issue.

5.2. The Questionnaires

Questionnaires are "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of

questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from existing answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 6). The questionnaires are constructed with the objective of gathering data that will help the researchers in attaining their research objectives, provided that the data collected should be the most accurate. Moreover, in research studies of exploratory nature, the researchers are commissioned to identify the type of data required for collection and the most suitable way of collecting it (Brace, 2008). As any other research instruments, questionnaires have advantages and caveats. They are among the best research tools that preserve the researcher's time, effort and money; the researcher can gather a huge amount of data in a relatively short period of time through easily distributing this comparatively inexpensive research tool (Dörnyei, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2011). Of their major disadvantages Dörnyei (2003) agrees with Moser & Kalton (1971) on that questionnaires require from the researcher to ask simple, clear, direct questions which might preclude garnering fastidiously detailed data. Moreover, Dörnyei (2003) goes on saying that every now and again the respondents of the questionnaires are untrustworthy or expose unwillingness to answer.

5.2.1. Questionnaires Construction

Effective questionnaires need time to be well constructed because the questionnaires that are not meticulously tailored lead to confusing and unfinished answers. In addition to that, they should, as formerly mentioned, consist of simple and straightforward questions, and unlike what is generally thought, this requires elaborate preparation on the part of the researcher (Genessee & Upshuur, 1996). Questionnaires are employed to elicit three forms of data, namely factual, behavioural and attitudinal. Factual questions are of a demographic nature and are set for eliciting data about the respondents' background. Behavioural questions aim at gaining information about the respondents' present actions or past experiences, including their rituals and personal styles. Attitudinal questions, as their name reveals, are for

eliciting data about the respondents' thoughts and that cover their attitudes, "beliefs", "interests" and "values" (Dörnyei, 2003).

5.2.2. Description and Administration of the Students Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to the 60 students who completed the written discourse completion test. The primary aim behind devising this questionnaire was exploratory. The researcher attempted to firstly check the results obtained from the written DCT with respect to the students' knowledge about the exclamatory forms existing in English and secondly to unravel the possible cogent reasons for their inability to use these language forms to communicate their intended meaning when realising the expressive speech act. The first objective of this questionnaire tallies exactly with what Gass & Mackey (2011) pointed out with regard to the vital role of questionnaires in permitting and facilitating data elicitation of the students' knowledge that cannot be gathered by the researcher from their spoken or written performance. They explained it further in their own words as follows.

> in addition, to directly targeting learners' linguistic knowledge, some questionnaires allow researchers to gather information that learners are able to report about themselves, such as their beliefs and motivations about learning or their reactions to classroom instruction and activities— information that is not available from production data alone. (p. 148).

The students questionnaire was carefully tailored to encompass 13 closed-ended and 6 open-ended questions, making a total of 19 questions (see Appendix 15). The close-ended questions in this questionnaire were dichotomous whereby the respondents had to answer with either "yes" or "no". This kind of questions, as Cohen et al (2007) explains, compels the respondents to avoid sitting on the fence of the matter. Unlike closed-ended questions, in open-ended ones the participants are granted total freedom to employ their own expressions while responding without being confined to any particular responses. Deemed as an earmark of qualitative studies, "an open-ended question can catch the authenticity, richness, depth of

response, honesty and candour (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 330). The choice of the question type in the present questionnaire was directly linked to each question's aim.

5.2.3. Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

Questions 1: Do you read works of literature written in English?

Yes	No	Total
51	09	60
85%	15%	100%

Table 46. Reading Literature

Table 46 clearly indicates that of the total participants (N=60), 85% claimed they read works of literature as against 15% who claimed they do not. This question called us for further probing into how many works they have read so far.

Questions 2: If *yes*, how many works have you read so far?

From 5 to 8 works	Less than 5 works	Total
04	47	51
7.48%	92.15%	100%

Table 47. Number of Literature Works Read by the Students

As it is patently exhibited in Table 47, 92.15% of those who previously claimed they read works of literature have read less than five works while the remainder 7.48% have read from five to eight works.

Questions 3: When you read, do you give much importance to sentence sense and context?

Yes	No	Total
11	40	51
21.56%	78.43%	100%

Table 48. Giving Importance to Sentence Sense and Context While Reading

While reading, 78.43% of the participants do not give much importance to sentence sense and context whereas 21.56% do.

Questions 4: Do you pay any attention to the exclamatory sentences used by the author in these works?

Yes	No	Total
20	31	51
39.21%	60.78%	100%

Table 49. Paying Attention to Exclamatory Sentences When Reading

With respect to the attention devoted to exclamatory sentences when reading works of literature, 65% of the respondents said they disregard these sentences when reading, whereas 39.21% stated that they pay attention to them.

Question 5: If *yes*, what are the different forms of exclamatory sentences you encountered in the works you read?

Of the 20 respondents who said yes to the previous query pertaining to perceiving exclamatory sentences while reading, only one student (1.66%) could mention a form of exclamatory sentences observed when reading: wh- exclamatives. The remaining students (98.33%) failed to mention any form of exclamatory sentences they noticed when reading, which logically contradicts their aforementioned claim.

Question 6: if *yes* again, have you ever encountered any difficulty in grasping the meaning of the exclamatory sentences?

Yes	No	Total
40	11	51
78.43%	21.56%	100%

Table 50. Encountering Difficulty in Grasping Exclamatory Sentences' Meaning

81.66% of the participants have already encountered difficulties in attempting to grasp the meaning of exclamatory sentences when reading. Only 21.56% of students have never faced any problems with regard to understanding these sentences meaning.

Question 7: When reading the exclamatory sentences, do you depend on the context where they occur to (easily) understand what they communicate?

Yes	No	Total
42	09	51
82.35%	17.64%	100%

Table 51. Depending on Context for Understanding Exclamatory Sentences

The answers to this question revealed that 85% of the participants depend on context to fathom exclamatory sentences. However, the minority (15%) do not depend on it.

Question 8: Do you read aloud?

Yes	No	Total
28	32	60
46.66%	53.33%	100%

Table 52. Reading Aloud

With regard to reading aloud, the percentages of participants who read aloud (53.33%) and of those who do not (46.66%) are nearly equal.

Question 9: Does the teacher of Written Expression ask you to read aloud in the classroom?

Yes	No	Total
40	20	60
66.66%	33.33%	100%

Table 53. Reading Aloud in the Classroom

When queried about whether the participants' teacher of Written Expression asks them to read aloud in the classroom, 66.66% of the respondents said that the teacher asks them to read aloud in the classroom while 33.33% of them said that he/she does not.

Question 10: Has your teacher ever given you oral feedback on how to read the exclamatory sentences aloud?

Yes	No	Total
25	35	60
41.66	58.33	100%

Table 54. Receiving Feedback on Reading Exclamatory Sentences Aloud

As a follow-up question to the former one, the students were asked about whether their teacher has ever provided them with feedback in relation to reading exclamatory sentences aloud. 58.33% of the respondents stated that they have never received the feedback as against 41.66% who claimed they have.

Question 11: If yes, you read aloud, do you pay attention to the intonation of exclamatory sentences?

Yes	No	Total
33	27	28
55%	45%	100%

Table 55. Paying Attention to the Exclamatory Intonation

The participants who answered *yes* to Question 8 with respect to reading aloud were required to answer the present question about whether they allocate attention to the intonation of the exclamatory sentences when reading aloud. 55% of the respondents confirmed that they pay attention to the intonation of these sentences while 45% of them stated that they do not.

Question 12: Explain the intonation of the exclamatory sentences and how they should be read.

Correct Answer	Wrong Answer	No Answer	Total
02	38	20	60
3.33%	63.33%	33.33%	100%

Table 56. Explaining the Exclamatory Intonation

63.33% of the participants provided wrong answers to this question, for example "The exclamatory sentence should be read with surprise" and "You should read it slowly and clearly". 20% of them did not answer at all leaving the blank space as it is. Only 3.33% of the students provided correct answers.

Question 13: Do you think that the exclamatory sentences are important in written discourse?

Yes	No	Total
37	23	60
61.66%	38.33%	100%

Table 57. Importance of Exclamatory Sentences in Written Discourse

The students were questioned on their viewpoint about the significance of exclamatory sentences. 61.66% of them deemed these sentences significant, whereas 38.33% believed they are not.

Question 14: if *yes*, please explain why.

Because they communicate strong feelings	15
	40.54%
Because they influence the reader	08
	21.62%
Because they help the writer to easily communicate	03
	8.10%
Because they make writing better and clearer	07
	18.91%
Irrelevant answers	04
	10.81%
Total	37
	100%

Table 58. Why Students Think Exclamatory Sentences Are Important

Question 14 was posed to probe into the cogent reasons as to why the participants previously considered these sentences significant. 40.54% of the respondents linked this significance to these sentences' communication of strong feelings. 21.62% of them associated it with the influence they have on the reader, without providing any further explanation such as how. 18.91% of them justified their importance by stating that they make writing better and clearer and 10.81% provided irrelevant answers to this question. The remaining (8.10%) asserted that these sentences are important due to the role they play in helping the writer to easily communicate.

Question 15: In your writings, have you ever used the exclamatory sentences?

Yes	**No**	**Total**
27	33	60
45%	55%	100%

Table 59. The Use of Exclamatory Sentences in Students' Writings

This question was particularly set to know whether the students have already deployed exclamatory sentences in their writings or not. Over half of the respondents (55%) confirmed their use of these sentences in writing while 45% did not.

Question 16: if *yes*, what are the types of exclamatory sentences you have used and why have you used them?

Declarative Exclamatory sentences	02
	7.40%
Wh-exclamatives	03
	11.11%
Wrong answer	01
	3.70%
No answer	21
	77.77%
Total	27
	100%

Table 60. The Types of Exclamatory Sentences Used by the Students

This follow-up question was asked with the aim of gaining a clear and insightful account of the various forms of exclamatory sentences the respondents have already used. 77.77% of the respondents failed to provide any answer. 11.11% said they used wh-exclamatives and 7.40% used declarative exclamatory sentences. 3.70% provided a wrong answer, specifically an interrogative form instead of an exclamatory one. In a nutshell, the exclamatory forms the students used in their writings are reduced to only two forms.

The second part of the question was for verifying the students' intentions behind using these exclamatory sentences.

Strong emotions	09
	33.33%
Irrelevant reasons	03
	11.11%
No answer	15
	55.55%
Total	27
	100%

Table 61. Reasons for Using Exclamatory Sentences

55.55% of the respondents abstained from providing any reasons behind using exclamatory sentences in their writings. 33.33% said that they used them to show strong emotions and 11.11% gave irrelevant reasons and stated they used these sentences to "understand the sentences"!

Question 17: Do you create a clear context for these sentences to be clearly understood by the reader?

Yes	No	Total
25	02	27
92.59%	7.40%	100%

Table 62. Creating a Clear Context When Using an Exclamatory Sentence in Writing

92.59% of the students who have used exclamatory sentences in their writings claimed to create a clear context for these sentences so that the reader can easily decipher their meaning as against 7.40% who do not create a clear context to these sentences.

Question 18: The exclamatory sentence must be ended with an exclamation mark.

Yes	No	Total
53	07	60
88.33%	11.66%	100%

Table 63. Students' Perception of the Relation between the Exclamatory Sentence and the Exclamation Mark

88.33% of the participants think that the exclamatory sentences must be ended with an exclamation mark while only 11.66% agree with that it is not compulsory for all exclamatory sentences to be ended with an exclamation mark.

Question 19: The exclamatory sentence shows that what is communicated is more than what is said. Please, exemplify and explain.

Irrelevant answers	34
	56.66%
Correct answers	02
	03.33%
No answer	24
	40%
Total	60
	100%

Table 64. Students' Perception of the Pragmatics of Exclamatory Sentences

Testing the students' knowledge about the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences was necessary. The researcher attempted to check the students' understanding of how an

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exclamatory sentence can communicate more than what is said through an open-ended question whereby they can exemplify and explain. 56.66% of the respondents provided irrelevant answers such as "when you use it you feel that this written piece is real" and "the exclamatory sentence shows the content". 40% did not answer at all leaving the blank space; against 3.33% of the respondents could provide correct answers: "For example, you say, your dress is very classy! The exclamatory sentence shows that you admired the dress." and "For example, what a dirty place! In this sentence the speaker communicates that he is disgusted."

5.2.4. Discussion of the Students Questionnaire Results

The students' answers to the questionnaire provided us with a vast array of verisimilar information with respect to their perceptions about exclamatory sentences. Interestingly, in the first section which targeted reading and the exclamatory sentences, although 85% of the students confirmed reading works of literature, the number of works the bulk of them read did not exceed 5 works which is inexcusably insufficient. This clearly entails that third-year students read an average of two books a year. On this evidence, these students showed remarkably lamentable ignorance, never bliss, about the value of reading, formerly stressed in the previous chapters, especially in developing their English language proficiency. In addition, more than half of those who read literary works asserted they had allocated attention to exclamatory sentences during reading, but nevertheless they totally failed to present us with the different exclamatory forms existing in English apart from a student who referred to only one form represented in the wh-exclamatives. This comes as an indubitable proof that our students might have seen the exclamatory sentences but assuredly have not observed them.

78.83% of the respondents confirmed they faced difficulty in grasping the meaning of the exclamatory sentences when reading. However, their answers unfolded some apparent contradictions when they illogically claimed they depend on the context to fathom these

sentences' meaning, but have earlier denied giving much importance to sentence meaning and context during reading.

Further analysis of the students questionnaire divulged more contradictions in their responses. As a way of example, with reference to the strong association between reading aloud, the intonation of the exclamatory sentences and the meaning of these sentences, thoroughly discussed in previous chapters, strangely enough, though 46.66% of the students alleged they read aloud, 66.66% of them claimed their teacher had asked them to read aloud in the classroom, 41.66% said they had received feedback on the exclamatory intonation and 55% affirmed allocating attention to the exclamatory intonation when reading, merely 3.33% could provide the right intonation of the exclamatory sentences. It seems, then, reasonable to assume in this point that the students are oblivious to the intonation of the exclamatory sentences and this compels us to suspect the truthfulness of their answers about reading aloud, receiving feedback about the exclamatory intonation and paying attention to these sentences intonation when reading. From the second section of the students questionnaire, the researcher could glean significant data about the learners' perception of the relation between exclamatory sentences and written discourse. 61.66% of the respondents endorsed the vital role the exclamatory sentences play in written discourse. However, the justifications they presented to support their viewpoint were, to an extent, ambiguous. By way of illustration, they ascribed the significance of these sentences to making writing better and clearer, to simplifying communication and to exerting an influence on the reader, without further explicating in what way or manner.

Interestingly, only 45% of the respondents confirmed their use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse. 77.77% of these students were unable to identify any form of the exclamatory sentences they employed. This comes as an evidence of their ignorance about the exclamatory forms existing in English. Additionally, the few ones who could cite some of

the forms reduced them to only cover declarative exclamatory sentences and wh-exclamatives. Equally interestingly, 55% of the students failed to provide a reason for their use of exclamatory sentences and 11.11% did present irrelevant answers, which posits the premise that they use exclamatory sentences, if they really do, with no intention in mind.

More contradictions were pinpointed in answers of the respondents. The bulk of students (92.59%) agreed that, as writers and context makers, they create a clear context for exclamatory sentences whenever they use them in written discourse to make them clearly understandable for the reader. However, they had previously denied devoting much importance to sentence meaning and context when reading. Logically speaking, a student-reader who is not acutely aware of the focal role of the context cannot make a clear context as a student-writer.

With respect to probing the students' insight into the identification of the exclamatory sentence, the majority of them thought that an exclamatory sentence should compulsorily be ended with an exclamation mark, though some exclamatory sentences are identified by means of their structure rather than by the exclamation mark.

Last but not least, the students could not explain how an exclamatory sentence can communicate more than what is said. In fact, only 3.33% could provide correct examples and accurate explanation and this is evidently attributed to the students' lack of knowledge about the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences.

5.2.5. Discussion of the Written DCT and the Students Questionnaire Results Together

The thorough analysis of the written DCT and the students questionnaire results permitted the researcher to reach the conclusion that both the students' abstention from using exclamatory sentences and their randomness in choosing some exclamatory forms in written discourse, formerly noticed in their answers to the written DCT in particular, are not ascribed to anything but their great scarcity of knowledge about the various exclamatory forms

employed in English and the communicative functions of these sentences. This was specifically deduced from the students questionnaire which unravelled the students' failure in providing the different exclamatory forms they encountered when reading or they used in their writings. Far worse than that, they were even unable to justify their use of these sentences! Moreover, their inability to grasp the meaning of exclamatory sentences came as an evidence of their lack of the pragmatic competence with regard to these sentences.

5.2.6. Description and Administration of the Teachers Questionnaire

The teachers questionnaire was devised by the researcher and distributed among 8 teachers of Written Expression at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Jijel with the objective of unfolding these teachers' attitudes towards stressing the importance of teaching the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences.

The questionnaire consisted of 18 questions: 13 of which were close-ended and 5 were open-ended (see Appendix 16). These questions were set to be precise, concise and time selected to firstly elude being answered superficially by the teachers, since, most of the time, if not all the time, teachers confine themselves to respond to so long questionnaires against time due to the hectic nature of their job and to secondly enable the researcher to elicit the necessary information required for answering some of the present study research questions.

In addition to the general queries related to the teachers' background and the teaching approaches followed in their writing classes, Written Expression teachers were canvassed for their views on using literature in the classroom, their students' pragmatic competence, the importance of teaching the pragmatic force of sentences, particularly that of the exclamatory sentence and the various methods that can be adopted for raising the students' awareness of the judicious use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse. They were also invited to share their thoughts about action research with regard to circumventing the problems their students face when writing.

5.2.7. Analysis of the Teachers Questionnaire

Question 1: Which academic degree do you hold?

BA	Master's	Magister	PhD	Total
00	04	04	00	08
00%	50%	50%	00%	100%

Table 65. Teachers' Academic Background

50% of the Written Expression teachers at the Department of Letters and English Language hold a Master's degree while the the other 50% hold a Magister degree.

Question 2: How long have you been teaching Written Expression?

1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years	Total
03	02	01	01	00	01	08
37.5%	25%	12.5%	12.5%	00%	12.5%	100%

Table 66. Teachers' Experience in Teaching Written Expression

As far as their teaching writing experience is concerned, 37.5% of teachers have taught writing for only one year, 25% of them have taught this core module for 2 years. 12.5% of them have taught it for 3 years and the same number represents those who have taught it for 4 years and 6 years.

Question 3: Which approach(es) do you adopt while teaching writing?

Product Approach	Process Approach	Genre Approach	Others	Total
02	03	01	02	08
25%	37.5%	12.5%	25%	100%

Table 67. Teaching Writing Approaches Adopted by Teachers

Of the total number of participants, 37.5% follow the process-based approach when teaching writing, 25% of them adopt the product-based approach and 25% use other methods; they either use the project-based approach or do not use a specific approach. The remaining (12.5%) adopt the genre approach.

Question 4: Do you think that using excerpts from literature (novels, short stories, etc.) to teach writing is a useful method?

Yes	No	Total
05	03	08
62.5%	37.5%	100%

Table 68. Teachers' Perceptions of Using Literature in Teaching Writing

62.5% of the teachers believe that using excerpts from different works of literature is beneficial and effective in teaching writing as against 37.5% who think it is not.

Question 5: Do you expose your students to excerpts from literature when teaching them writing?

Yes	No	Total
04	04	08
50%	50%	100%

Table 69. Teachers' Use of Literary Excerpts When Teaching Writing

50% of the teachers questioned confirmed they have already employed literary excerpts in their writing classes, whereas the remaining half claimed they have never used them.

Question 6: if *yes*, on what basis do you select the excerpts?

This question is a follow-up to the previous one whereby the researcher aimed at garnering information with respect to the criteria used by the teachers of writing, formerly confirmed using literature in their classes, for selecting literary excerpts. The four teachers' selection criteria varied considerably. They claimed to depend in their selection on the topics and themes of their writing lessons, the reliability of the excerpts' context, the writing genre they intend to teach, or the excerpts' form and content which serve their lessons goals.

Question 7: if no, please explain

With an attempt to gain more insight into the cogent reasons behind abstaining from the use of literary excerpts in writing classes, the remaining respondents were required to provide an explanation for their avoidance. In justification, the four teachers pointed out to the

difference between academic writing and literature, the subjectivity of the latter which does not meet with teaching writing objectively and the inability to use the excerpts with freshmen, who are not accustomed to literature and who fail to meet the required standard for understanding literature.

Question 8: Do you use texts when teaching writing?

Yes	No	Total
08	00	08
100%	00%	100%

Table 70. The Use of Texts in Teaching Writing

100% of the total respondents (N=8), as indicated in Table 70, said they use texts when teaching writing.

Question 9: In using texts, do you give importance to sentence meaning and context?

Yes	No	Total
04	04	08
50%	50%	100%

Table 71. **Giving Importance to Sentence Meaning and Context**

This follow-up, probing question was necessarily required to investigate the status accorded to sentence meaning and context in writing classes. 50% of Written Expression teachers claim to attach importance to sentence meaning and context when they expose their students to different texts while the remainder do not.

Question 10: Do you think that your students lack pragmatic competence?

Yes	No	Total
08	00	08
100%	00%	100%

Table 72. Teachers' Opinion about the Students' Lack of Pragmatic Competence

100% of the teachers of Written Expression agreed on the fact that their students lack pragmatic competence.

Question 11: If *yes*, is this lack shown in their written performance?

Yes	No	Total
08	00	08
100%	00%	100%

Table 73. Teachers' Opinion about the Students' Lack of Pragmatic Competence in Writing

Through this follow-up question to the preceding one about the students' lack of pragmatic competence, the researcher sought to know whether the teachers think the students' lack of pragmatic competence covers written discourse or not. 100% of the respondents confirmed that their students also lack pragmatic competence in writing.

Question 12: Do you think that the students' lack of pragmatic competence and their poor written performance are attributed to their lack of reading practice?

Yes	No	Total
08	00	08
100%	00%	100%

Table 74. Teachers' Perception of the Reasons Behind the Lack of the Students' Pragmatic Competence

100% of the teachers of writing (N=8) avowed that the lack of the students' pragmatic competence and their poor written performance are ascribed to their lack of reading practice.

Question 13: Does teaching the pragmatic force of sentences make students better at writing?

Yes	No	Total
07	01	08
87.5%	12.5%	100%

Table 75. Teachers' Opinions about the Efficacy of Teaching the Pragmatic Force of Sentences

87.5% of Written Expression teachers believe in the effectiveness of teaching the pragmatic force of sentences in students' writing betterment as against 12.5% who do not.

Question 14: Have you ever noticed that your students do not know how to employ exclamatory sentences in written discourse or do not employ them at all?

Yes	No	Total
08	00	08
100%	00%	100%

Table 76. Noticing the Wrong Use or the Absence of Exclamatory Sentences in the Students' Writings

100% of the teachers of writing (N=8) remarked their students' inability to effectively deploy exclamatory sentences in their writings or their avoidance of using these language forms.

Question 15: Exclamatory sentences should be judiciously used in written discourse, have you ever raised your students' awareness of their pragmatic force and when and when not to use them?

Yes	No	Total
01	07	08
12.5%	87.5%	100%

Table 77. Raising the Students' Awareness of the Pragmatic Force of Exclamatory Sentences

87.5% of the respondents said they have never raised their students' awareness of the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences, whereas 12.5% of them have.

Question 16: if *yes*, how did you raise their awareness? Please explain.

This follow-up question to the previous one was set for the purpose of learning about the method(s) followed by the teachers who previously claimed to raise their students' awareness with respect to the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences. Only one teacher of Written Expression asserted that he raised their awareness through teaching and exposure to media literacy.

Question 17: Do you believe that action research is what we need in order to decrease the number of students' shortcomings in writing?

Yes	No	Total
06	02	08
75%	25%	100%

Table 78. Teachers' Attitude towards Action Research

75% of teachers of writing think that action research can decrease the number of the students' shortcomings in writing while 25% do not share with them this opinion.

Question 18: Would you willingly accept to participate in action research to solve your students' problems in learning writing?

Yes	No	Total
07	01	08
87.5%	12.5%	100%

Table 79. Participation in Action Research

87.5% of the respondents to this questionnaire showed willingness in participating in action research in order to overcome the students' problems in learning writing as against 12.5% who abstained.

5.2.8. Discussion of the Teachers Questionnaire Results

The teachers questionnaire results divulged significant information that enlightened the researcher about the view of these teachers on teaching writing in general and teaching exclamatory sentences in particular. To begin with, and though this observation appears a matter of minor detail, most of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire are not very experienced; not a single teacher holds a PhD degree and only one has been teaching writing for 6 years. Although research studies varied in their results about whether teaching experience positively correlates with the students' achievement and betterment, one of the studies conducted by Rockoff (2004) conclusively demonstrated that the students' achievement in reading was positively influenced by a teaching experience equal to or beyond ten years. In a similar vein, presumably, to attain the same positive influence on writing, the teacher of Written Expression and due to the nature of writing as a strenuous skill, especially in a foreign language context, requires high competence and long experience.

The questionnaire results showed that Written Expression teachers follow differing approaches when teaching writing. Three of the teachers use the process oriented approach, two of them use the product oriented approach and one uses the genre approach. It was discussed earlier (see Chapter 1) that each of these methods has its advantages and disadvantages. Since the weaknesses of one approach are the strengths of another, the

eclecticism of the approaches would be of substantial benefit to the learners. Accordingly, teachers of writing can adopt various teaching writing methods to meet their students' needs. By embarking on a meticulous analysis of the teachers questionnaire, one of them strikingly claimed that she does not follow any specific method. Given her experience of only one year as a teacher, it seems reasonable to assume that not selecting a particular approach to follow is attributed to the state of confusion most of novice teachers suffer from at early stages of teaching. There seems to be some evidence here, therefore, to our earlier claim, that experience is essential for teaching writing.

The effectiveness of using literature in teaching the pragmatic force of sentences in written discourse, exclamatory sentences, in particular, was demonstrated and fastidiously discussed in the preceding chapter. Correspondingly, in view of using works of literature when teaching writing, 62.5% of the teachers questioned (N=8) advocated adopting this method in writing classes and, more precisely, half of them claimed they have already employed literary excerpts when teaching writing. They also claimed to select their excerpts according to the topic, the writing genre or the form and content that suitably befitted their lessons goals.

The remaining half of teachers (N=8) who abstained from the use of literature in their writing classes, and in defence of their viewpoints, shed light on the difference existing between literary and academic writing in general and the subjectivity of literature in contrast to the objectivity of academic writing in particular. However, in Written Expression, students are not taught academic writing *per se*. Through this module, the students are supposed to learn how to write in different genres. In fact, exposing them to literary excerpts does not necessarily entail that they are confined to writing similar literary excerpts, literature at the level of form and content can serve different learning purposes (see the benefits of using literature in Chapter 4). As a way of example, it can be useful for reference to the distinguishing features in literature that should be avoided in academic writing because the

significance of teaching students what to avoid when writing should be on a par with teaching them what they should include. Furthermore, literature can also be used to teach reasoning such as the following passage from *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*.

> "Do you mean that you think you can find out the answer to it?" said the March Hare.
> "Exactly so," said Alice.
> "Then you should say what you mean," the March Hare went on.
> "I do," Alice hastily replied; "at least—at least I mean what I say—that's the same thing, you know."
> "Not the same thing a bit!" said the Hatter. "Why, you might just as well say that 'I see what I eat' is the same thing as 'I eat what I see'!"
> "You might just as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like'!" (Caroll, 2010, pp. 44-45)

Through this example, the students can be pointed to the importance of word order and word choice in conveying meaning in English. While saying what to mean refers to communicating an intention through words, meaning what to say refers to having sincerity in these words. The Hatter stresses the distinction between the two expressions via drawing another less confusing, logical distinction between eating and seeing to make the notion clearer in Alice's mind. The students can be even directed to learn how to understand some of language structures' meaning and to think logically by virtue of analogy.

Other teachers attributed not using literature in their writing classes to the students' low level because first year students are taught to write simple paragraphs while literature, they presume, is more complicated to be easily understood by them. Evidently, this can be but a feeble excuse as teachers can easily select the literary excerpts that befit the students' reading proficiency level.

The teachers questionnaire also uncovered that 50% of teachers devalue the importance of sentence meaning and context when using texts in their writing classes which pertinently aligns with the answers of most of the students who previously claimed not to devote importance to these two elements when reading. Moreover, all of the teachers remarked their students' lack of pragmatic competence, especially in writing which, they think, is ascribable

to these students' lack of reading practice. Apropos of that, what to be construed is that the teachers bear some responsibility for the students' lack of pragmatic competence because they beset their students' insight about sentence meaning in context, especially that pragmatic competence is about the ability to use the right language in the right context.

Regarding the efficacy of teaching the pragmatic force of sentences, 87.5% of teachers concurred that it promotes efficient improvement in students' writing. However, albeit having remarked that their students do not use exclamatory sentences in written discourse or do not use them effectively, 87.5% of teachers have never raised their students' awareness of this very issue. The only remaining teacher employed media literacy as a method to raise his students' awareness.

It was important to know about the views of teachers with respect to action research as an effective research means to reach the diminution of the students' mistakes in writing, especially that they lack pragmatic competence in writing, as it was previously asserted. Action research is simply defined as a form of research, less complicated than the experimental design, that is carried out by teachers with the objective of solving problems and improving pedagogy in the classroom through suitable interventions (see Burns, 1999; Tomal, 2010). 75% of Written Expression teachers at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Jijel, believe that action research would be effective in decreasing the number of mistakes their students commit when writing. Additionally, 87.5% of them showed their willingness in participating in action research. Burns (1999) stressed the importance of collaboration in doing action research and claimed it is one of its characteristics: "It [action research] is participatory as it provides for collaborative investigation by teams of colleagues, practitioners and researchers" (p. 30). It is true that this thesis suggested a method for solving the problems related to the pragmatics of exclamatory

sentences through the aforementioned experimental study, teachers and by means of action research can find more suitable methods for teaching the pragmatic force of sentences.

Conclusion

Developing the competence of students to attain successful writing is not reached through solely teaching them the grammar and vocabulary of the English language. It transgresses this limit to cover the necessity of these students to acquire a pragmatic competence whereby they are trained and taught how to use and link the appropriate language forms to their functions in different contexts.

The present descriptive study revealed that the students' dearth of knowledge about the exclamatory sentences existing in English and their inability to appropriately link these language forms to their communicative functions when realising the expressive speech act are in consequence of the students' lack of reading practice on one hand and the teachers' negligence in devoting ample attention to the significance of sentence meaning and context when teaching writing on the other. As far as the students are concerned, increasing their autonomy with reading more in English to expand their knowledge about these language forms and their functions in context seems inevitable. And as for teachers of writing, a useful approach for teaching this skill would be based on lumping the writing approaches with pragmatics to meet their students' needs. It is necessary, therefore, that teachers of writing should be knowledgeable about Speech Act Theory in order to easily train their students to produce contextually appropriate sentences when writing. Moreover, teachers should work collaboratively to discuss the various problems their students face when writing and circumvent these problems through action research.

General Conclusion and Recommendations

The importance of this study lies not in being one to supplant other studies but in being one of the first studies to have investigated the students' pragmalinguistic failure with regard to the use of exclamatory sentences in written discourse and to suggest a teaching approach to be adopted for tackling this very problem. The researcher's objective in this study was to particularly develop the students' pragmalinguistic competence and specifically their knowledge about the exclamatory form-function pairing for that they can employ these forms effectively in their writings. The researcher also sought to investigate the reasons behind the occurrence of such a pragmalinguistic failure. In this research it has been hypothesised that using exclamatory sentences in writing is only possible when the learners have the necessary intake of adequate knowledge about the pragmatic force of such sentences.

The overall structure of the study took the form of five chapters. The first three chapters were devoted to a review of literature with the last two chapters constituted the practical part. The study yielded insightful results whereby the researcher could confirm the research hypothesis. In addition to that, the performance of 60 third-year students in a written discourse completion task insofar as their use of exclamatory forms to realise the expressive speech act revealed some significant information about the students' knowledge about the exclamatory forms and their wrong use of these sentences. It also showed these problems of knowledge ipso facto their poor reading practice and their teachers' negligence in allocating attention to sentence meaning and context while teaching writing.

Upon the findings outlined above, the researcher suggests the following research implications and pedagogical recommendations:

- While reviewing the literature about the grammar of exclamatory sentences, the researcher observed ambiguity and sloppiness in the grammarians use of the terms

exclamatory, exclamation and exclamative. It is imperative, therefore, that grammarians establish a clear distinction between the terms and designate their meanings to clear any possible confusion.

- It has been noticed that, in addition to the dearth of research studies on the pragmatics of exclamatory sentences, the bulk of these studies were targeting wh-exclamatives. Accordingly, more research studies are required to shed more light on the pragmatics of other exclamatory forms.

- There is a dearth of studies about the perlocutionary effect of exclamatory sentences and the study of exclamatory sentences from the addressee's point of view.

- It has also been remarked that there is a scarcity of pragmatic analyses of literary works and thus pragmaticians are invited to examine more literary works pragmatically.

- Teachers should integrate pragmatics into the teaching of writing. They should give importance to sentence meaning and context making when teaching writing. More precisely, they should train students to accurately link language forms to their functions.

- Teachers should raise their students' awareness of the significance of exclamatory sentences through allocating attention to these sentences' pragmatic force so that these students can judiciously use them when necessary in their writings.

- The implementation of literature in teaching writing should be given importance by teachers of writing as it provides the learners with a myriad of examples of authentic language.

- The students have to improve their reading practice by being autonomous learners and depend on themselves in reading more works of literature as it expands their knowledge in general and about exclamatory forms in particular.

The duration of the research treatment did not exceed seven weeks. The teacher-researcher could only use some of the Written Expression lessons time to insert the

suggested method for teaching the pragmatic force of exclamatory sentences, because she also simultaneously had to follow the core curriculum devoted to teaching writing to third-year students. It would be beneficial, thus, if any other research would be conducted for a longer period such as for the whole academic year in order to obtain more exhaustive results in terms of all the possible exclamatory sentences the students can be enticed to use in their writings.

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Appendix 1

The Pre-test of Knowledge

Student's Name: ....

Test of Knowledge

1. Define the exclamatory sentence.
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2. What is the function of the exclamatory sentence?
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3. What are the types of the exclamatory sentence that you know?
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4. What are the rules governing the use of the exclamatory sentence?
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5. As far as meaning is concerned, what is the difference between the following sentences?

    a. I love this car.

    b. I love this car!

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    a. Is not she pretty?

    b. Is not she pretty!

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    a. Tom is taller than Vanessa.

    b. Tom is taller than Vanessa!

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    a. It is a beautiful sunset.

    b. What a beautiful sunset it is!

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    a. I did not intend to hurt her.

    b. I did not intend to hurt her!

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    a. He was, alas, sentenced to death.

    b. He was sentenced to death.

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Appendix 2

Pilot Study: An Excerpt from *Pride and Prejudice*

Oh! my dear Mr. Bennet,' as she entered the room, 'we have had a most delightful evening, a most excellent ball. I wish you had been there. Jane was so admired, nothing could be like it. Everybody said how well she looked; and Mr. Bingley thought her quite beautiful, and danced with her twice! Only think of THAT, my dear; he actually danced with her twice! and she was the only creature in the room that he asked a second time. First of all, he asked Miss Lucas. I was so vexed to see him stand up with her! But, however, he did not admire her at all; indeed, nobody can, you know; and he seemed quite struck with Jane as she was going down the dance. So he inquired who she was, and got introduced, and asked her for the two next. Then the two third he danced with Miss King, and the two fourth with Maria Lucas, and the two fifth with Jane again, and the two sixth with Lizzy, and the BOULANGER—'
'If he had had any compassion for ME,' cried her husband impatiently, 'he would not have danced half so much! For God's sake, say no more of his partners. O that he had sprained his ankle in the first place!'
'Oh! my dear, I am quite delighted with him. He is so excessively handsome! And his sisters are charming women. I never in my life saw anything more elegant than their dresses. I dare say the lace upon Mrs. Hurst's gown—
' Here she was interrupted again. Mr. Bennet protested against any description of finery. She was therefore obliged to seek another branch of the subject, and related, with much bitterness of spirit and some exaggeration, the shocking rudeness of Mr. Darcy (Austen, 2005, p. 22).

Appendix 3

Excerpt from *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

There were doors all round the hall, but they were all
locked; and when Alice had been all the way down one
side and up the other, trying every door, she walked sadly
down the middle, wondering how she was ever to get out
again. Suddenly she came upon a little three-legged table, all
made of solid glass; there was nothing on it except a tiny
golden key, and Alice's first thought was that it might
belong to one of the doors of the hall; but, alas! either the
locks were too large, or the key was too small, but at any
rate it would not open any of them. However, on the second
 time round, she came upon a low curtain she had
not noticed before, and behind it was a little door about
fifteen inches high: she tried the little golden key in the
lock, and to her great delight it fitted!
Alice opened the door and found that it led into a small
passage, not much larger than a rat-hole: she knelt down
and looked along the passage into the loveliest garden you
ever saw. How she longed to get out of that dark hall, and
wander about among those beds of bright flowers and
those cool fountains, but she could not even get her head
though the doorway; "and even if my head *would* go
through," thought poor Alice, "it would be of very little
use without my shoulders. Oh, how I wish I could shut
up like a telescope! I think I could, if I only know how to
begin." For, you see, so many out-of-the-way things had
happened lately, that Alice had begun to think that very
few things indeed were really impossible (Caroll, 2010, pp. 3-4).

Appendix 4

Excerpt from *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*

In the town itself, actually within sight of the house in which Charlie lived, there was an enormous chocolate factory! Just imagine that!

And it wasn't simply an ordinary enormous chocolate factory, either. It was the largest and most famous in the whole world! It was Wonka's Factory, owned by a man called Mr Willy Wonka, the greatest inventor and maker of chocolates that there has ever been. And what a tremendous, marvellous place it was! It had huge iron gates leading into it, and a high wall surrounding it, and smoke belching from its chimneys, and strange whizzing sounds coming from deep inside it. And outside the walls, for half a mile around in every direction, the air was scented with the heavy rich smell of melting chocolate! Twice a day, on his way to and from school, little Charlie Bucket had to walk right past the gates of the factory. And every time he went by, he would begin to walk very, very slowly, and he would hold his nose high in the air and take long deep sniffs of the gorgeous chocolatey smell all around him.

Oh, how he loved that smell! And oh, how he wished he could go inside the factory and see what it was like! (Dahl, 2001, p. 7)

Appendix 5

Excerpt from *Vanity Fair*

Sir Pitt had an unmarried half-sister who inherited her mother's large fortune, and though the Baronet proposed to borrow this money of her on mortgage, Miss Crawley declined the offer, and preferred the security of the funds. She had signified, however, her intention of leaving her inheritance between Sir Pitt's second son and the family at the Rectory, and had once or twice paid the debts of Rawdon Crawley in his career at college and in the army. Miss Crawley was, in consequence, an object of great respect when she came to Queen's Crawley, for she had a balance at her banker's which would have made her beloved anywhere. What a dignity it gives an old lady, that balance at the banker's! How tenderly we look at her faults if she is a relative (and may every reader have a score of such), what a kind good-natured old creature we find her! How the junior partner of Hobbs and Dobbs leads her smiling to the carriage with the lozenge upon it, and the fat wheezy coachman! How, when she comes to pay us a visit, we generally find an opportunity to let our friends know her station in the world! We say (and with perfect truth) I wish I had Miss MacWhirter's signature to a cheque for five thousand pounds. She wouldn't miss it, says your wife. She is my aunt, say you, in an easy careless way, when your friend asks if Miss MacWhirter is any relative (Thackeray, 1998, pp. 165–166).

Appendix 6

Excerpt from *David Copperfield*

What irksome constraint I underwent, sitting in the same attitude hours upon hours, afraid to move an arm or a leg lest Miss Murdstone should complain (as she did on the least pretence) of my restlessness, and afraid to move an eye lest she should light on some look of dislike or scrutiny that would find new cause for complaint in mine! What intolerable dulness to sit listening to the ticking of the clock; and watching Miss Murdstone's little shiny steel beads as she strung them; and wondering whether she would ever be married, and if so, to what sort of unhappy man; and counting the divisions in the moulding of the chimney-piece; and wandering away, with my eyes, to the ceiling, among the curls and corkscrews in the paper on the wall!

What walks I took alone, down muddy lanes, in the bad winter weather, carrying that parlour, and Mr. and Miss Murdstone in it, everywhere: a monstrous load that I was obliged to bear, a daymare that there was no possibility of breaking in, a weight that brooded on my wits, and blunted them!

What meals I had in silence and embarrassment, always feeling that there were a knife and fork too many, and that mine; an appetite too many, and that mine; a plate and chair too many, and those mine; a somebody too many, and that I!

What evenings, when the candles came, and I was expected to employ myself, but, not daring to read an entertaining book, pored over some hard-headed, harder-hearted treatise on arithmetic; when the tables of weights and measures set themselves to tunes, as 'Rule Britannia', or 'Away with Melancholy'; when they wouldn't stand still to be learnt, but would go threading my grandmother's needle through my unfortunate head, in at one ear and out at the other! What yawns and dozes I lapsed into, in spite of all my care; what starts I came out of concealed sleeps with; what answers I never got, to little observations that I rarely made; what a blank space I seemed, which everybody overlooked, and yet was in everybody's way; what a heavy relief it was to hear Miss Murdstone hail the first stroke of nine at night, and order me to bed! (Dickens, 2000, pp. 106-107)

Appendix 7

Excerpt from *Little women*

Jo was very busy in the garret, for the October days began to grow chilly, and the afternoons were short. For two or three hours the sun lay warmly in the high window, showing Jo seated on the old sofa, writing busily, with her papers spread out upon a trunk before her, while Scrabble, the pet rat, promenaded the beams overhead, accompanied by his oldest son, a fine young fellow, who was evidently very proud of his whiskers. Quite absorbed in her work, Jo scribbled away till the last page was filled, when she signed her name with a flourish and threw down her pen, exclaiming...
There, I've done my best! If this won't suit I shall have to wait till I can do better.'
Lying back on the sofa, she read the manuscript carefully through, making dashes here and there, and putting in many exclamation points, which looked like little balloons. Then she tied it up with a smart red ribbon, and sat a minute looking at it with a sober, wistful expression, which plainly showed how earnest her work had been. Jo's desk up here was an old tin kitchen which hung against the wall. It it she kept her papers, and a few books, safely shut away from Scrabble, who, being likewise of a literary turn, was fond of making a circulating library of such books as were left in his way by eating the leaves. From this tin receptacle Jo produced another manuscript, and putting both in her pocket, crept quietly downstairs, leaving her friends to nibble on her pens and taste her ink (Alcott, 2004, pp. 156-157).

Appendix 8

Excerpt from *Emma*

'So very obliging of you!—No rain at all. Nothing to signify. I do not care for myself. Quite thick shoes. And Jane declares— Well!' (as soon as she was within the door) Well! This is brilliant indeed! This is admirable! Excellently contrived, upon my word. Nothing wanting. Could not have imagined it. So well lighted up! Jane, Jane, look! did you ever see anything—? Oh! Mr. Weston, you must really have had Aladdin's lamp. Good Mrs. Stokes would not know her own room again. I saw her as I came in; she was standing in the entrance. 'Oh! Mrs. Stokes,' said I— but I had not time for more.' She was now met by Mrs. Weston.— 'Very well, I thank you, ma'am. I hope you are quite well. Very happy to hear it. So afraid you might have a headache!— seeing you pass by so often, and knowing how much trouble you must have. Delighted to hear it indeed. Ah! dear Mrs. Elton, so obliged to you for the carriage!—excellent time. Jane and I quite ready. Did not keep the horses a moment. Most comfortable carriage.— Oh! and I am sure our thanks are due to you, Mrs. Weston, on that score. Mrs. Elton had most kindly sent Jane a note, or we should have been.— But two such offers in one day!—Never were such neighbours. I said to my mother, 'Upon my word, ma'am—.' Thank you, my mother is remarkably well. Gone to Mr. Woodhouse's. I made her take her shawl—for the evenings are not warm—her large new shawl— Mrs. Dixon's wedding-present.—So kind of her to think of my mother! Bought at Weymouth, you know— Mr. Dixon's choice. There were three others, Jane says, which they hesitated about some time. Colonel Campbell rather preferred an olive (Austen, 2004, pp. 966-967).

Appendix 9

Excerpt from *A Visit to Newgate*

Hours have glided by, and still he sits upon the same stone bench with folded arms, heedless alike of the fast decreasing time before him, and the urgent entreaties of the good man at his side. The feeble light is wasting gradually, and the deathlike stillness of the street without, broken only by the rumbling of some passing vehicle which echoes mournfully through the empty yards, warns him that the night is waning fast away. The deep bell of St. Paul's strikes - one! He heard it; it has roused him. Seven hours left! He paces the narrow limits of his cell with rapid strides, cold drops of terror starting on his forehead, and every muscle of his frame quivering with agony. Seven hours! He suffers himself to be led to his seat, mechanically takes the bible which is placed in his hand, and tries to read and listen. No: his thoughts will wander. The book is torn and soiled by use - and like the book he read his lessons in, at school, just forty years ago! He has never bestowed a thought upon it, perhaps, since he left it as a child: and yet the place, the time, the room - nay, the very boys he played with, crowd as vividly before him as if they were scenes of yesterday; and some forgotten phrase, some childish word, rings in his ears like the echo of one uttered but a minute since. The voice of the clergyman recalls him to himself. He is reading from the sacred book its solemn promises of pardon for repentance, and its awful denunciation of obdurate men. He falls upon his knees and clasps his hands to pray. Hush! what sound was that? He starts upon his feet. It cannot be two yet. Hark! Two quarters have struck; - the third - the fourth. It is! Six hours left. Tell him not of repentance! Six hours' repentance for eight times six years of guilt and sin! He buries his face in his hands, and throws himself on the bench.

Worn with watching and excitement, he sleeps, and the same unsettled state of mind pursues him in his dreams. An insupportable load is taken from his breast; he is walking with his wife in a pleasant field, with the bright sky above them, and a fresh and boundless prospect on every side - how different from the stone walls of Newgate! She is looking - not as she did when he saw her for the last time in that dreadful place, but as she used when he loved her - long, long ago, before misery and ill-treatment had altered her looks, and vice had changed his nature, and she is leaning upon his arm, and looking up into his face with tenderness and affection - and he does *not* strike her now, nor rudely shake her from him. And oh! how glad he is to tell her all he had forgotten in that last hurried interview, and to fall on his knees before her and fervently beseech her pardon for all the unkindness and cruelty that wasted her form and broke her heart! The scene suddenly changes. He is on his trial again: there are the judge and jury, and prosecutors, and witnesses, just as they were before. How full the court is - what a sea of heads - with a gallows, too, and a scaffold - and how all those people stare at *him*! Verdict, 'Guilty.' No matter; he will escape (Dickens, 1976, p. 125).

Appendix 10

Excerpt from *Fir Tree*

Out in the woods stood a nice little Fir Tree. The place he had was a very good one: the sun shone on him: as to fresh air, there was enough of that, and round him grew many large-sized comrades, pines as well as firs. But the little Fir wanted so very much to be a grown-up tree.

He did not think of the warm sun and of the fresh air; he did not care for the little cottage children that ran about and prattled when they were in the woods looking for wild-strawberries. The children often came with a whole pitcher full of berries, or a long row of them threaded on a straw, and sat down near the young tree and said, 'Oh, how pretty he is! What a nice little fir!' But this was what the Tree could not bear to hear.

At the end of a year he had shot up a good deal, and after another year he was another long bit taller; for with fir trees one can always tell by the shoots how many years old they are.

'Oh! Were I but such a high tree as the others are,' sighed he. 'Then I should be able to spread out my branches, and with the tops to look into the wide world! Then would the birds build nests among my branches: and when there was a breeze, I could bend with as much stateliness as the others!'

Neither the sunbeams, nor the birds, nor the red clouds which morning and evening sailed above him, gave the little Tree any pleasure. In winter, when the snow lay glittering on the ground, a hare would often come leaping along, and jump right over the little Tree. Oh, that made him so angry! But two winters were past, and in the third the Tree was so large that the hare was obliged to go round it. 'To grow and grow, to get older and be tall,' thought the Tree—'that, after all, is the most delightful thing in the world!' (Andersen, 2006, pp 97-98).

Appendix 11

Excerpt from *The Emperor's New Clothes*

The rogues sat up the whole of the night before the day on which the procession was to take place, and had sixteen lights burning, so that everyone might see how anxious they were to finish the Emperor's new suit. They pretended to roll the cloth off the looms; cut the air with their scissors; and sewed with needles without any thread in them. 'See!' cried they, at last. 'The Emperor's new clothes are ready!'

And now the Emperor, with all the grandees of his court, came to the weavers; and the rogues raised their arms, as if in the act of holding something up, saying, 'Here are your Majesty's trousers! Here is the scarf! Here is the mantle! The whole suit is as light as a cobweb; one might fancy one has nothing at all on, when dressed in it; that, however, is the great virtue of this delicate cloth.'

'Yes indeed!' said all the courtiers, although not one of them could see anything of this exquisite manufacture.

'If your Imperial Majesty will be graciously pleased to take off your clothes, we will fit on the new suit, in front of the looking glass.'

The Emperor was accordingly undressed, and the rogues pretended to array him in his new suit; the Emperor turning round, from side to side, before the looking glass.

'How splendid his Majesty looks in his new clothes, and how well they fit!' everyone cried out. 'What a design! What colors! These are indeed royal robes!'

'The canopy which is to be borne over your Majesty, in the procession, is waiting,' announced the chief master of the ceremonies. '

I am quite ready,' answered the Emperor. 'Do my new clothes fit well?' asked he, turning himself round again before the looking glass, in order that he might appear to be examining his handsome suit.

The lords of the bedchamber, who were to carry his Majesty's train felt about on the ground, as if they were lifting up the ends of the mantle; and pretended to be carrying something; for they would by no means betray anything like simplicity, or unfitness for their office.

So now the Emperor walked under his high canopy in the midst of the procession, through the streets of his capital; and all the people standing by, and those at the windows, cried out, 'Oh! How beautiful are our Emperor's new clothes! What a magnificent train there is to the mantle; and how gracefully the scarf hangs!' in short, no one would allow that he could not see these much-admired clothes; because, in doing so, he would have declared himself either a simpleton or unfit for his office. Certainly, none of the Emperor's various suits, had ever made so great an impression, as these invisible ones.

'But the Emperor has nothing at all on!' said a little child (Andersen, 2006, pp 8-10).

Appendix 12

Excerpt from *Sherlock Holmes Short Stories*

The next morning we read in the newspaper that John Openshaw was dead.
A policeman found him in the river near Waterloo station.
The police said it was an accident, but Holmes was very angry about it.
'He came to me for help and those men murdered
him! I'm going to find them, if it's the last thing I do!'
he said to me, and he hurried out of the house.
In the evening, when he came back to Baker Street,
he was tired, but pleased. 'Watson!' he said, 'I know
the names of Openshaw's enemies! And now I'm going
to send them a surprise! This will frighten them!'
 He took five pips from an orange and put them in an envelope.
 On it he wrote 'S.H. for J.C.'
'I'm sending the pips, not from the K.K.K., but from
me, Sherlock Holmes, to Captain James Calhoun. His
ship is called the Star. He and his men are sailing back
to Georgia, USA, now.'
'How did you find him, Holmes?' I asked.
'Ship's papers,' he said. 'I've looked at hundreds of
them today. Only one ship, the Star, was in the three
ports at the right times, and this morning the Star left
London to sail back to Georgia. I found out that the
captain and two of his men, all Americans, weren't on
the ship last night, so I'm sure they killed poor John
Openshaw. When they arrive in America, they'll get
the pips and then the police will catch them!'
Sherlock Holmes is a very clever detective, but he
can do nothing about the weather. The winter storms
at sea that year were worse than ever, and so the Star
never arrived in Georgia, and nobody saw the captain
or his men again. The murderers of John Openshaw
did not get the pips, but, in the end, death came to
them (West, 1989, pp. 37-38).

Appendix 13

The Post-test Excerpt from *Snow Queen*

That summer the roses flowered in unwonted beauty. The little girl had learned a hymn, in which there was something about roses; and then she thought of her own flowers; and she sang the verse to the little boy, who then sang it with her:
'The rose in the valley is blooming so sweet, and angels descend there the children to greet.'
And the children held each other by the hand, kissed the roses, looked up at the clear sunshine, and spoke as though they really saw angels there. What lovely summer days those were! How delightful to be out in the air, near the fresh rose-bushes, that seem as if they would never finish blossoming!

Kay and Gerda looked at the picture-book full of beasts and of birds; and it was then—the clock in the church tower was just striking five—that Kay said, 'Oh! I feel such a sharp pain in my heart; and now something has got into my eye!'

The little girl put her arms around his neck. He winked his eyes; now there was nothing to be seen.

'I think it is out now,' said he; but it was not. It was just one of those pieces of glass from the magic mirror that had got into his eye; and poor Kay had got another piece right in his heart. It will soon become like ice. It did not hurt any longer, but there it was.

'What are you crying for?' asked he. 'You look so ugly! There's nothing the matter with me. Ah,' said he at once, 'that rose is cankered! And look, this one is quite crooked! After all, these roses are very ugly! They are just like the box they are planted in!' And then he gave the box a good kick with his foot, and pulled both the roses up.

What are you doing?' cried the little girl; and as he perceived her fright, he pulled up another rose, got in at the window, and hastened off from dear little Gerda.

Afterwards, when she brought her picture-book, he asked, 'What horrid beasts have you there?' And if his grandmother told them stories, he always interrupted her; besides, if he could manage it, he would get behind her, put on her spectacles, and imitate her way of speaking; he copied all her ways, and then everybody laughed at him. He was soon able to imitate the gait and manner of everyone in the street. Everything that was peculiar and displeasing in them—that Kay knew how to imitate: and at such times all the people said, 'The boy is certainly very clever!' But it was the glass he had got in his eye; the glass that was sticking in his heart, which made him tease even little Gerda, whose whole soul was devoted to him (Andersen, 2006, pp. 122-124).

1. Extract all the exclamatory sentences from the excerpt.

2. Identify the type of each exclamatory sentence.

3. Find the pragmatic force of each exclamatory sentence according to the context.

Appendix 14

The Written DCT

Read the situations below and write the appropriate sentence that, you think, can be stated as a reaction to each situation:

1. You are in front of Burj Khalifa for the first time. Although you have already heard that it is the highest building in the world, its height exceeded your imagination.
....
.

2. You heard about the death of your best friend. (Express your deep sadness towards that)
....

3. You went to the mall for shopping with your family and you were irritated by the large crowds there.
....

4. You dropped a glass and it broke into pieces. While collecting its pieces from the floor, you cut your finger.
....

5. You accompanied your brother to the airport because he is going to live in another country and you find it the right time to state your affection for him.
....

6. Your sister has just broken your expensive iPhone and you are furious with her.
....

7. You have been invited to dine in your aunt's house and the food is very delicious, hence you've decided to praise her cooking.
....

8. You have entered your friend's room in the campus and it is smelly and too dirty. Everything in there is covered with dust.
....

9. You travelled for eight hours by bus. Your weariness is indescribable.
....

10. For the first time, you won a car in a prize draw.
....

Appendix 15

The Students Questionnaire

1. Do you read works of literature written in English?

yes ☐   no ☐

2. If *yes*, how many works have you read so far?

☐ Works

3. When you read, do you give much importance to sentence sense and context?

yes ☐   no ☐

4. Do you pay any attention to the exclamatory sentences used by the author in these works?

yes ☐   no ☐

5. If *yes*, what are the different forms of exclamatory sentences you encountered in the works you read?

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

6. If *yes* again, have you ever encountered any difficulty in grasping the meaning of the exclamatory sentences?

yes ☐   no ☐

7. When reading the exclamatory sentences, do you depend on the context where they occur to (easily) understand what they communicate?

yes ☐   no ☐

8. Do you read aloud?

yes ☐   no ☐

9. Does the teacher of Written Expression ask you to read aloud in the classroom ?

yes ☐   no ☐

10. Has your teacher ever given you oral feedback on how to read the exclamatory sentences correctly?

yes ☐   no ☐

11. If *yes*, you read aloud, do you pay attention to the intonation of exclamatory sentences?

yes ☐   no ☐

12. Explain the intonation of the exclamatory sentences and how they should be read.

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

13. Do you think that the exclamatory sentences are important in written discourse?

yes ☐   no ☐

14. If *yes*, please explain why.

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

15. In your writings, have you ever used the exclamatory sentences?

yes ☐   no ☐

16. If *yes*, what are the types of exclamatory sentences you have used and why have you used them?

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

17. Do you create a clear context for these sentences to be clearly understood by the reader?

yes ☐   no ☐

18. The exclamatory sentence must be ended with an exclamation mark.

yes ☐   no ☐

19. The exclamatory sentence shows that what is communicated is more than what is said. Please, exemplify and explain.

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

Appendix 16

The Teachers Questionnaire

Dear colleagues, I definitely owe you a great debt of gratitude for your being enormously helpful. Through your answers, I will be able to have a clear and insightful account of the topic thoroughly discussed in my research study.

1. Which academic degree do you hold?

a) Bachelor's ☐   b) Master's ☐   c) Magistère ☐   d) PhD ☐

2. How long have you been teaching Written Expression?

☐ years

3. Which approach(es) do you adopt while teaching writing?

Product Approach ☐   Process Approach ☐   Genre Approach ☐

Others:

....
....

4. Do you think that using excerpts from literature (novels, short stories, etc.) to teach writing is a useful method?

Yes ☐   No ☐

5. Do you expose your students to excerpts from literature when teaching them writing?

Yes ☐   No ☐

6. If *yes*, on what basis have you selected the excerpts?

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

7. If no, could you please explain why?

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

8. Do you use texts when teaching writing to your students?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

9. In using texts, do you give importance to sentence meaning and context?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

10. Do you think that your students lack the pragmatic competence?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

11. If yes, is this lack shown in their written performance?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

12. Does teaching the pragmatic force of sentences make students better at writing?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

13. Have you ever noticed that your students do not know how to employ exclamatory sentences in written discourse or do not employ them at all?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

14. Have you ever noticed that your students do not know how to employ exclamatory sentences in written discourse or do not employ them at all?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

15. Exclamatory sentences should be judiciously used in written discourse, have you ever raised your students' awareness of their pragmatic force and when and when not to use them?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

16. If yes, how did you raise their awareness? Please, explain.

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

17. Do you believe that action research is what we need in order to decrease the number of students' shortcomings in writing?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

18. Would you willingly accept to participate in action research to solve your students' problems in learning writing?

Yes ☐   No ☐

ملخص

هذا البحث عبارة عن تحليل للجمل التعجبية من منظور تداولي. يهدف إلى تحديد مكان هذه الجمل في نظرية الأفعال اللغوية. كما يهدف من خلال دراسة تجريبية إلى التحقق من فعالية تدريب طلبة السنة الثالثة بجامعة جيجل على تحليل القوة الإنجازية للجمل التعجبية في بعض المقتطفات الأدبية باتباع الإستراتيجية الإستكشافية ومدى تأثير ذلك على خطابهم الكتابي. حيث افترضنا أن استعمال الطلبة للجمل التعجبية بفعالية في كتاباتهم مشروط بمعرفتهم الكافية بالقوة الإنجازية لهذه الجمل. ولقد أكد تفوق المجموعة التجريبية على المجموعة المرجعية في نتائج الإختبار النهائي واستعمالهم الموفق لهذه الجمل في كتاباتهم صحة هذه الفرضية. يتضمن هذا البحث كذلك دراسة وصفية تهدف إلى الكشف عن مشاكل طلبة السنة الثالثة في ربط أشكال الجمل التعجبية بوظائفها الإتصالية عند إدراك القول التعبيري في الخطاب الكتابي من خلال اختبار استكمال الخطاب الكتابي واستبيانين. حيث كشف الإختبار عن حقيقة وجود هذه المشاكل وأوضح الإستبيانين أن نقص كفاءة النشاط اللغوي عند الطلبة فيما يخص الجمل التعجبية يعود إلى عدم ممارسة هؤلاء الطلبة للقراءة من جهة وعدم إعطاء الأساتذة أهمية لمعنى الجمل و السياق من جهة أخرى. وبناء على ذلك، أساتذة التعبير الكتابي مدعوون لإدراج التداولية في تدريس التعبير الكتابي للحد من المشاكل اللغوية عند الطلبة.

الكلمات المفتاحية :الجمل التعجبية، نظرية الأفعال اللغوية، القوة الإنجازية، الخطاب الكتابي.

Résumé

La présente étude de recherche est une analyse des phrases exclamatives d'un point de vue pragmatique. Elle vise à déterminer la place de ces phrases dans la Théorie de l'Acte de Langage. Elle vise aussi à travers une étude expérimentale à vérifier l'efficacité de la formation des étudiants de troisième année du Département d'anglais de l'Université de Jijel à déchiffrer la force pragmatique des phrases exclamatives dans des extraits littéraires au moyen de la stratégie heuristique et de son influence sur leur discours écrit. L'étude a émis l'hypothèse que l'utilisation efficace des phrases exclamatives dans le discours écrit n'est possible que lorsque les étudiants ont la connaissance nécessaire de la force pragmatique de ces phrases. La surperformance du groupe expérimental par rapport au groupe témoin dans les résultats mesurés après test et leur utilisation efficace de ces phrases dans leurs écritures a confirmé cette hypothèse. L'étude également comprend une étude descriptive qui vise à révéler les problèmes des élèves de troisième année au niveau de l'appariement forme-fonction des phrases exclamatives lors de la réalisation de l'acte expressif au moyen d'un test écrit au moyen d'un test écrit et deux questionnaires. Le test a détecté l'existence de ces problèmes et les questionnaires ont révélé que le manque de compétence pragmalinguistique des étudiants en ce qui concerne les phrases exclamatives est attribué à leur manque de performance en lecture d'une part, et à la négligence des professeurs d'Expression écrite à accorder leur attention aux sens des phrases et le contexte lors de l'enseignement de l'écriture sur l'autre. En conséquence, les enseignants de l'expression écrite sont appelés à intégrer la pragmatique dans l'enseignement de l'écriture pour réduire ces problèmes linguistiques.

Mots clés: Phrases exclamatives, Théorie de l'Acte de Langage, force pragmatique, discours écrit .