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Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

Branch of English

The Role of Implicit Learning in Enhancing EFL Learners' Linguistic Competence

Case study: Second Year Pupils of Brothers Menacer Middle Scool in Tolga, Biskra

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages as a Partial Fulfillment   of the Requirements for the Master's Degree in Sciences of Language.

Submitted by: **Supervised by:**

Mrs. Djoudi Ouassila   Mrs. Messaibi Samira

Board of Examiners

The Head of the Jury	Mr. Laala. Y.
Supervisor	Mrs. Messaibi.S.
Examiner	Mrs. Bencharef. S.

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Declaration

In the name of **Allah** the most Gracious, the most Merciful,

Hereby, the writer fully declares that this study thesis, titled: **" The Role of Implicit Learning in Enhancing EFL Learners' linguistic Competence"** is made by the author herself, and it does not contain materials written or has been published by other "people" ideas except for the ones that she quoted or have been indicated, and duly acknowledged by means of complete references.

This declaration is made by the writer herself, and she hopes this declaration can be understood.

The writer's signature: **Date and place:**

Biskra –Algeria (27/05/17)

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

My parents, God bless them, their presence in my life makes me stronger.

My husband, for his constant support and encouragement.

My little hero Amdjed Abdennour, God bless him.

My sisters and my brothers.

All my family.

Everyone.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Implicit learning is an innate capacity that God endowed human beings with. Learning different skills such as language acquisition requires implicit learning and not only explicit learning. This fact has led to an ascendant interest in implicit learning processes in order to make use of them in designing new methods of education. Teachers who aim at improving their learners' abilities are in a constant search for methods and strategies that help learners to achieve better but the problem is that they do not give implicit learning the value that it deserves. As an EFL teacher, the researcher is interested in implicit learning as a strong strategy in teaching EFL and wants to make EFL teachers more interested in implicit learning. Hence, she has conducted this research aiming at investigating the impact of implicit learning on EFL learners' linguistic competence. The null hypothesis in this study claims that the implementation of implicit learning will not enhance EFL learners' linguistic competence. The alternative hypothesis, on the other hand, asserts that the application of implicit learning tools will enhance EFL learners' linguistic competence. To test these hypotheses, a quantitative research based on a quasi-experimental study has been undertaken. The researcher has dealt with two groups the experimental group that has been exposed to both implicit and explicit learning tools and the control group that was subjected to explicit learning basically. The two groups have been tested before the treatment. Both groups have had the same mean difference (3.6) in the pre-test result and the same standard deviation (1.42). However, the posttest results have not been the same. The experimental group has shown a significant progress with a mean difference of (6.2) and a standard deviation of (2.8) whereas the control group has realized a relatively moderate progress with a mean difference of (5.2) and a standard deviation of (1.90). These results of the quasi-experiment have led to rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis. The main aim of the current study, as mentioned before, is to prove the importance of implicit learning in enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence. Nevertheless, the researcher does not claim that implicit learning can stand alone. Explicit learning is also necessary in the learning process.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As an EFL teacher for more than ten years, the researcher has noticed that EFL teachers struggled a lot and are still struggling to improve their learners' linguistic competence while learners suffer from the difficulties they face to be linguistically competent. Most of EFL learners feel that learning English and mastering it well to communicate successfully is a burden, what makes them unmotivated. The researcher has always thought of ways that raise the learners' desire to learn English and to enhance their linguistic competence. Many applied linguists and researchers recognize that teaching of English as a foreign language is not that easy task. It requires the involvement of different techniques and mechanisms.

Many language teaching specialists have been attracted by 'implicit learning' as a relatively new area of research to put under investigation. Many teachers tend unconsciously to undertake it, sensing its importance in enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence without knowing that it is newly treated as an area of research and growingly attracting many specialists from different fields.

In this research, we attempt to spot the light on implicit learning and to show its importance for EFL learning. Moreover, this study aims at showing teachers different tools of undertaking this way of learning to enhance the six components of linguistic competence; the lexical competence, the syntactic competence, the semantic competence, the phonological competence, the morphological competence and the orthographic competence.

1. Statement of the Problem

Among the many purposes of applied linguists and EFL teachers is to enhance and reinforce the linguistic competence of the learner. Such a task is neither an easy nor a simple one. It requires different techniques and mechanisms to be successfully achieved. Implicit learning is one of the solutions that help learners in enhancing their linguistic competence, but unfortunately it is not recognized to be taken seriously. Hence, in this research, we are attempting to spot the light on as many of its different

angles as possible. However, the researcher sees that besides implicit learning there should be explicit learning because none of them can stand alone.

2. Significance of the Study

The present study would be a contribution to the research field on language teaching and learning. Precisely, it can help to enhance EFL learners' linguistic competence. The study attempts to show EFL teachers, course-book writers, syllabus designers and applied linguists the importance of implicit learning without neglecting the importance of explicit learning. Furthermore, the study tries to demonstrate the different ways to exploit implicit learning to enhance learners' linguistic competence. Piciorek (2012) states that different aspects of language are involving implicit learning including phonetics, syntax , orthography and other linguistic aspects.

3. Aims of the Study

The general purpose of this research is to attract the attention of everyone who is interested in English language teaching development to the crucial need to give more importance to implicit learning. It is an efficient way that can help both teachers and learners in enhancing the linguistic competence. Moreover, this general purpose can be categorized into some specific aims. These specific aims can be interpreted as follows:

●To encourage EFL teachers, syllabus designers, course-book writers and applied linguists to focus more on implicit learning.

●To show them that EFL learners can successfully acquire a foreign language from being allowed to experience and enjoy it.

●To remind them that almost every article and book on teaching English to young learners stresses that they should be given a lot of varied experience of the language in use through the use of stories, songs, games and play activities.

●To invite course-book writers and syllabus designers to give more importance to implicit learning to rethink about the issue more seriously.

4-Research Questions

To be linguistically competent, explicit learning is not sufficient. Implicit learning is also necessary. This research is conducted in order to try to answer the following questions:

- What is linguistic competence?
- What is implicit learning?
- What are the different tools that can be used in implicit learning?
- Can implicit learning help in reinforcing EFL learners' linguistic competence?

To answer these questions, different sources of data were gathered and analyzed. First, different books, articles and dissertations were studied. An experiment was conducted with two groups of EFL beginners to see whether learners' linguistic competence can be enhanced by implicit learning

1- Research Hypotheses

As the aim of the current study is to examine the effect of implicit learning on EFL learners' linguistic competence, we hypothesize that:

(H_0): The implementation of implicit learning will not enhance EFL learners' linguistic competence.

(H_1): The implementation of implicit learning will enhance EFL learners' linguistic competence.

6 – Research Methodology

6-1 Research Method

The current research aims at investigating the impact of implicit learning on EFL learners' linguistic competence. To do so, we decided to conduct a quantitative research based on a treatment preceded by a pretest and followed by a posttest to determine whether implicit learning can enhance or reinforce EFL learners' linguistic

competence. For many reasons, that will be explained in the practical chapter, we have chosen the quasi-experimental research.

6-2 Population and Sampling

It seems very difficult or even impossible that a researcher reaches an ideal sample to undertake the study with. In our case, the selection of the population of the study was affected by administrative issues. This sample consists of two groups from 2nd year pupils of Brothers Menacer Middle School in Tolga. It is the second year for them to learn English. They have two sessions of English (as a foreign language) per week in addition to one tutorial session fortnightly. However, they have five sessions weekly for both French (as a second language) and Arabic (as a mother tongue). That what makes pupils feel that English is not important. In addition to that, there is the problem of coefficient that is followed in the Algerian school. While French and Arabic language coefficient is five, English language coefficient is one; the same as sports and painting. Concerning the pupils social background, most of learners in this school come from poor families that are neither interested in study nor motivating their children to acquire English as a foreign language. Most of the pupils have to come to school at eight and return home at five by bus from their villages which are farther than twenty kilometers from the school.

6-3 Data Gathering Tools

This quantitative research was based on a quasi-experimental study. The purpose from this study was to investigate the existence of the relationship between implicit learning (the independent variable) and learners' linguistic competence (the dependent variable). This experiment is based on two groups; the experimental group and the control group. The two groups were exposed to a pretest then to a treatment and finally to a posttest. The comparison between the results of the tests that the two groups are exposed to is to show whether there is a relationship between the two variables; implicit learning and learners' linguistic competence.

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Chapter One

A General Overview on Linguistic Competence

Introduction

Linguistic competence is a basic competence that enables someone to use language to communicate since it is an essential component of communicative competence. For any EFL learner, to be linguistically competent is a crucial step to master the target language. However, to be linguistically competent that requires a competence in all the components of linguistic competence. This chapter shows some of the most important sides of linguistic competence. It deals with the difference between the two terms; competence and performance than it demonstrates how researchers have criticized the Chomskian concept of competence. In this chapter, linguistic competence is dealt with as one of different components of communicative competence besides sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Different models are demonstrated to explain the components of communicative competence. After that, the researcher deals with linguistic competence in details defining it and explaining its components; lexical competence, syntactic competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, morphological competence and orthographic competence.

1- Competence Versus Performance

The competence-performance distinction is generally associated with Chomsky's (1965) view of language. He expresses his view as follows :Linguistic theory is primarily concerned with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shift of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky,1965: 03 quoted in Llurda 2000:85-86).

Chomsky presents this dichotomy; competence-performance, describing language as rule governed systems which are not affected by social context: "We thus

make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations." (Chomsky, 1965:4 quoted in Newby.nd: 09). Newby adds another quotation to Chomsky explaining more the difference between the two terms ;competence end performance: "Observed use of language […] may provide evidence as to the nature of this mental reality, but surely cannot constitute the actual subject matter of linguistics, if this is to be a serious discipline." (Chomsky,1965: 04 quoted in ibid)

Thouesny (nd) shows that the term linguistic competence refers to the learners' grammatical knowledge of their mother tongue, while performance is what an individual does with this grammatical knowledge in concrete situations. Most of the linguists agree on the fact that competence is the knowledge that speakers have about the language they speak and performance is the actual use of that knowledge in different situations

Criticism of   Chomsky's Concept of Competence

Defining the concept of competence as the knowledge of an ideal speaker-hearer situation dissociating it from the real social context was soon criticized by researchers who adapted more situational and sociolinguistic approach. Hymes was one of the pioneers in criticizing the Chomskyan competence-performance concept. He argues: "Such a theory of competence posits ideal objects in abstraction from socio-cultural features that might enter into their description. Acquisition of competence is also seen as essentially independent of socio-cultural features."(Hymes 1972: 271 quoted in Newby nd :18). He adds: "It is, if I may say so, rather a Garden of Aden view. […] The controlling image is of an abstract, isolated mechanism, not expect incidentally, a person in a social world. (Hymes 1972 : 272 quoted in Newby. nd :17)

Taylor (1988) on his part, focuses on the confusion that surrounds the concept of competence; the confusion between knowledge and ability to use knowledge. Taylor (1988) supports his idea by Green's (1972). They disagree with the misuse of the terms "process", "states", "capacity" or "ability". For them, competence is a state and not a process and has nothing to do with capacity or ability. Many linguists and researchers do not agree with Chomsky in his way of approaching the two concepts;

'competence' and 'performance' isolating them from the socio-cultural features. Those socio-cultural features have a great influence on speakers' use of language in different situations and that is what might show whether such a speaker is competent or not. ability. Llurda,(nd)

2- Communicative Competence

The term 'communicative competence' was coined by Hymes (1972) as a counter-movement against the notion of 'competence' introduced by the structural linguist Noam Chomsky. Hymes and his opponents emphasize that the knowledge of grammatical competence is not sufficient for speaking a language and communicating. They reveal the importance of the ability to use grammatical competence in different communicative situations, thus giving a great importance to sociolinguistic competence.

Communicative competence is defined by (Gumperz & Hymes 1972: vii) as follows: "…what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings". Hymes 1972 defines communicative competence as knowledge of when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. (Hymes1972:60). Habermas (1970:140-141) insists that: "general semantics cannot be developed sufficiently on the narrow basis of the morphological linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky". (Savingon,1978:12) clarifies more what communicative competence is " the ability to function in a truly communicative setting; that is in a spontaneous transaction involving one or more other persons."

2-1   Models of Communicative Competence

2-1-1- The Model of Canale and Swain (1980-1983)

Canal and Swain (1980) have developed a model to show the components of communicative competence. In this model, they include three main components, that represent fields of knowledge and skills: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Some linguists, Savingon (1983) for instance, use the term 'linguistic

competence' for grammatical competence. Hence, the two terms are used interchangeably by many linguists and researchers. Later on, in Canale's (1983) model, discourse competence has been added as the fourth component of communicative competence. Discourse competence is the result of some transferred elements from sociolinguistic competence as it reveals in figure 1.1:
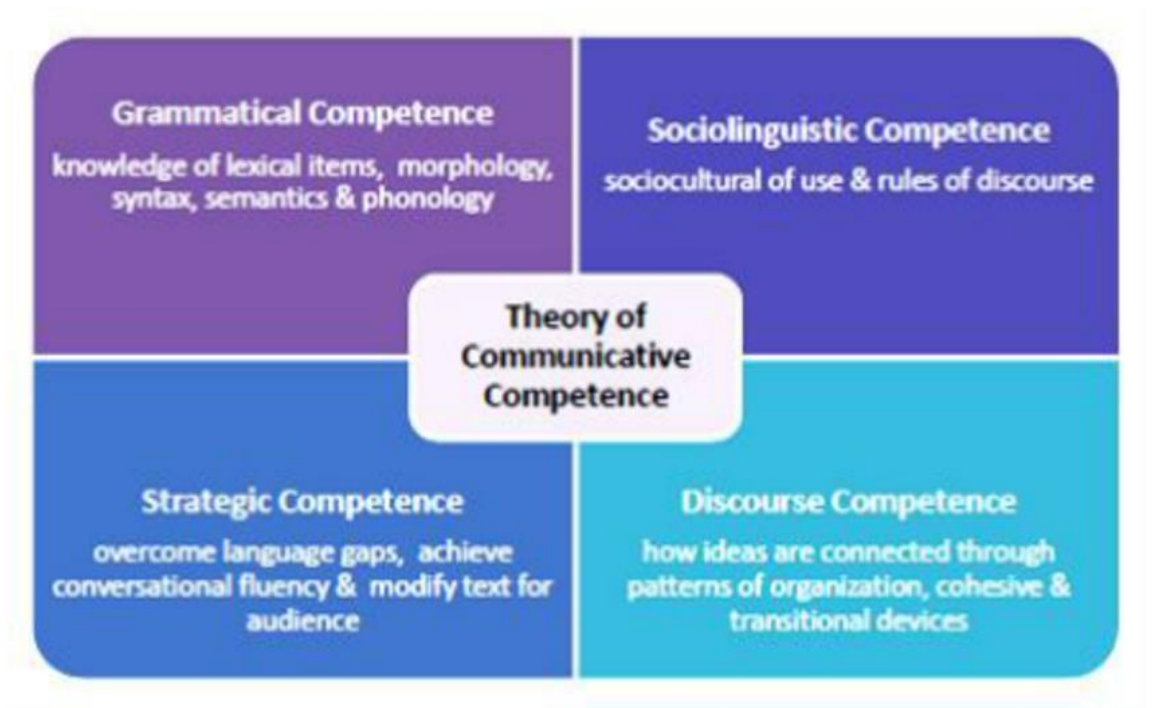
Figure 1.1: Canale's 1983 Model of Communicative Competence (firmanual.wordpress.com)

2-1-2   The Model of Communicative Language   Ability (CLA)

Bachman and Palmer (1996) have developed another model in communicative competence. They call it 'the model of communicative   language ability (CLA)'. In this model, Bachman and Palmer distinguish between the two terms 'knowledge' and 'skill'. They focus on the interaction between context and language use according to Fulcher and Davidson (2007). In Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model, the term 'language ability' is divided into two parts; language knowledge and strategic competence. Language knowledge consists of both organizational knowledge (grammatical and textual knowledge) and pragmatic knowledge; that is concerned with

the appropriateness of using and interpreting language in different situations. Strategic competence involves the ability to decide what one is going to do or say. This model is considered by many linguists and researchers as more complex, more comprehensive, and much clearer than the model of Canale and Swain, that is because of its detailed and very organizational description of basic components of communicative competence. Bachman and Palmer's 1996 Model of Communicative Competence is represented in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1. *Areas of language knowledge (Source: Bachman and Palmer, 1996:68)*
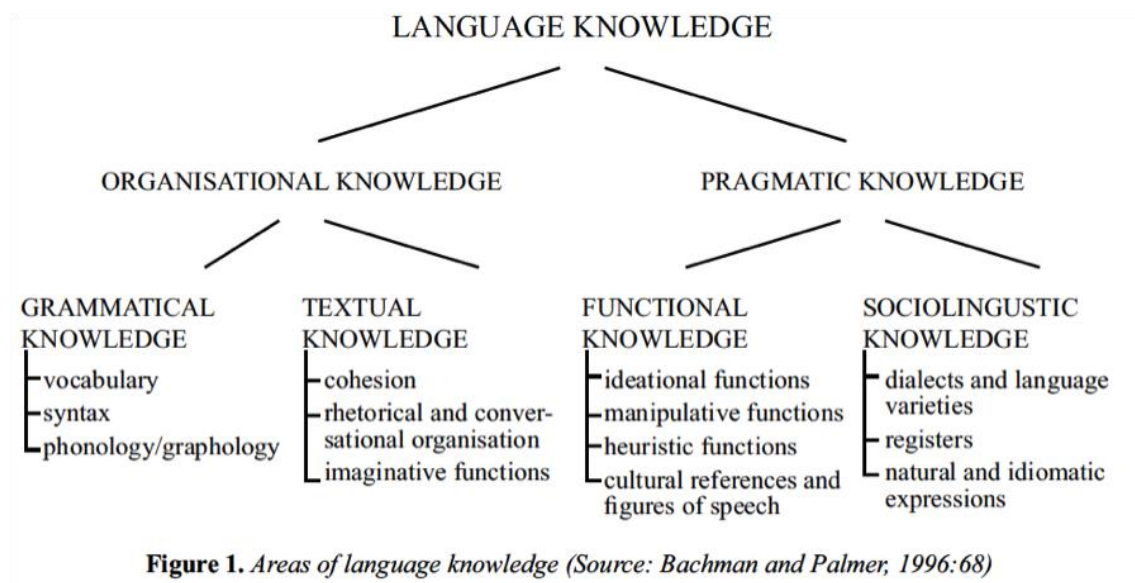
Figure :1.2: Bachman and Palmer's 1996 Model of Communicative Competence. (criticalalert.wordpress.com)

2-1-3   Celce-Murcia, Dorneyi and Thurell's Model of Communicative Competence

Another model was developed by Celce-Murcia, Dorneyi and Thurell. They attempted to produce: "a detailed description of what communicative competence entails in order to use the sub-components as a content base in syllabus design". (Celce-Murcia et al 1995:06 cited in Fulcher & Davidson 2007.

This model consists of five components. Discourse competence, which appears in the centre of the model, is a separate component while actional competence is

presented as the knowledge required to understand "communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts and speech act sets"(1995:9). This component , actional competence , is what clearly makes the difference from the Canale model. Sociolinguistic competence is re-labeled socio-cultural competence 'to better distinguish it from actional competence' . Grammatical competence is also re-labeled as linguistic competence; it encompasses lexis, phonology, syntax and morphology. Strategic competence is seen as a set of skills for overcoming communication problems; the same as it is defined by Canale and Swain(1980) according to Fulcher & Davidson (2007). Figure 2.3 represents Celce-Murcia , Dorneyi and Thurell model.
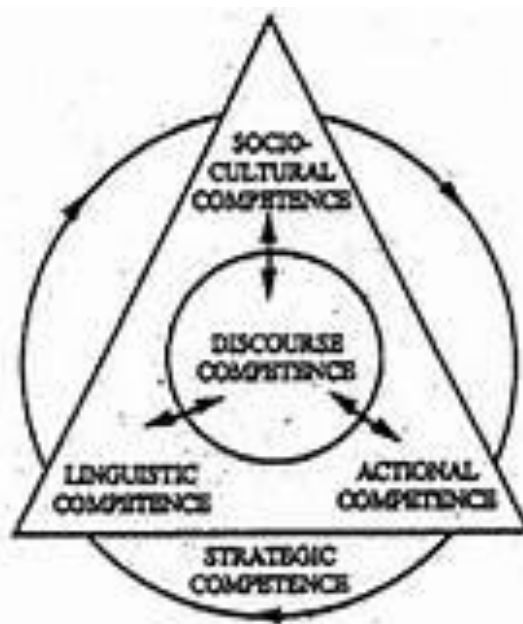
Figure 1.3: Celce-Murcia, Dorneyi and thurell model of communicative competence. (firmanual.wordpress.com)

2-1-4 The CEF Common European (2001) Model

In the CEF Common European Model, communicative competence is composed of three main components; language competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Strategic competence is not included in the main components of this model and discourse competence is considered as a subcomponent rather than a main component. Each of the three main components is defined as the knowledge of its content and the ability to apply it . For instance, language competence

or linguistic competence is the knowledge of and ability to use the linguistic resources to form well structured messages.

According to this model, language competence includes lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences. Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge and skills that help in using language in a social context appropriately. Pragmatic competence is the last component in this model. It is composed of two subcomponents; discourse competence and functional competence. (Bagarie and Djigunovie 2007). This model is based only on three main components that are: language competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. It is demonstrated in figure 1.4

Areas of competence	central competences
Knowledge specific to the subject	Ability to understand spaces at difference scales as physical and human geographical systems and to analyse the interrelations between man and environment.
Spatial orientation	Ability to orientate oneself in space (topographical orientation skills, map-reading competence, orientation in real spaces and reflection upon spatial perceptions).
Gathering information/ methods	Ability to collect and evaluate geographically/geoscientifically relevant information in real space and in media, as well as to describe the steps in the gathering of information in geography.
Communication	Ability to understand geographical information, to express and present it and to discuss it appropriately with others.
Evaluation	Ability to evaluate spatial information and problems, information in the media and geographical insights in terms of specific criteria and in the context of existing values.
Action	Ability and willingness to act in accordance with natural and social conditions in various fields of action.

Figure 1.4: The CEF Model of Communicative Competence. (comptingforsustainability.com)

2-2   Components of Communicative Competence

2-2-1   Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence is considered as a sub-component of communicative competence. In Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale's (1983) models of communicative competence, sociolinguistic competence encompasses both appropriateness of meaning and form and represents the concept of pragmatic competence. (Niezgoda & Rover.2001)

In Bachman's (1990) model, sociolinguistic competence refers to the appropriateness of language functions in relation to socio-cultural and discoursal features. Unlike Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale's (1983) models, Bachman's (1990) puts sociolinguistic competence as a sub-competence of pragmatic competence as it is presented in the figures representing the models above.

The Council of Europe (2001) simply relates the linguistic competence to the social context in its definition of sociolinguistic competence; "Sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use." (Council of Europe. 2001: 118)

According to Canale and Swain (1980), sociolinguistic competence is the ability to communicate appropriately in different contexts including both verbal and non-verbal communication. Another definition of sociolinguistic competence combines between socio-cultural competence end discourse competence : "Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the socio-cultural rules of language and of discourse. (Sarosdy et al,2006:24)

2-2-2   Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is the communicative competence component that attracts the attention of most linguists; As a field of study, pragmatics is getting wider and wider by time. Crystal (1987) defines pragmatic competence as: " … the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints, the encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effect their use

of language has on other participants in the act of communication and thus, pragmatics is concerned with communicative action in its socio-cultural context". (quoted in Bulut & Ozkan. 2005 :39). Nelson et al. (2002:164) focusing on the case of speakers who are pragmatically incompetent, show the importance of pragmatic competence and the negative consequences of lacking it as follows:

> The importance of pragmatic competence has been demonstrated by numerous researchers […] whose work reveals that while native speakers often forgive the phonological, syntactic and lexical errors made by L2 speakers, they are less likely to forgive pragmatic errors negatively as arrogance, impatience, rudeness, and so forth. Furthermore, pragmatic errors can lead to a listener's being unable to assign a confident interpretation to a learner's utterance.

In the same context, Bardovi et al (1996) point out :

> … speakers who do not use pragmatically appropriate language run the risk of appearing uncooperative at least, or, more seriously rude in insulting. This is particularly true of advanced learners whose high linguistic proficiency leads other speakers to expect concomitantly high pragmatic competence.

Bavordi (1996) states that linguistic errors made by L2 speakers can be tolerated, whereas pragmatic errors cannot be accepted. They may lead to a misinterpretation.

2-2-3 Discourse Competence

Discourse competence is the competence that allows language speakers to produce different types of coherent and cohesive discourse starting from individual sentences. The Council of Europe (2001:123) defines discourse competence as follows: "Discourse competence is the ability of a user/learner to arrange sentences in sequences so as to produce coherent stretches of language". Another definition of discourse competence says that: "It is the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances." (Sarosdy et al .2006:24). According to Yano (2003:78), "discourse competence is a matter of cohesion

and coherence. Discourse competence is the knowledge of rules regarding the cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combination of communicative functions) of various types of discourse."

2-2-4   Strategic Competence

Strategic competence is the competence that allows language speakers to deal with communication difficulties or breakdowns through certain techniques and strategies. Corder (1981:103) defines strategic competence as a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his (or) her meaning when faced with some difficulty. Savignon (2002:10) manifests the importance of strategic competence : "… is important for strategic competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly effective communicators from those who are less so".

Canale and Swain (1980:29-30) focus on the role of strategic competence to deal with any communicative problem : " […] verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for break-down in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence". According to Cohen , strategic competence is the evidence for a successful speaker : "A major trait of successful speakers is that they use strategies to keep the conversation going".(1991: 56) . Strategic competence for many linguists is an important competence that enables language speakers to communicate successfully.

2-2-5   Linguistic Competence

2-2-5-1- Linguistic Competence Definition

Linguistic competence is a pillar component of communicative competence. It is found in all of the models of communicative competence; Canale and Swain (1980) model ,Celce-Murcia, Dorneyi and Thurell's (1995) model, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model, and the CEF (2001) model. Some linguists label it grammatical competence. The two terms might be used interchangeably.

"Linguistic competence is associated with mastering the linguistic code of a language because it compasses the following: phonology, vocabulary, syntax, and morphology". (Brown.2007:219) . Crystal (2003:87-88) defines it as follows: "It refers to speakers knowledge of system and rules which they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand non-finite number of sentences, also it enables speakers to recognize grammatical mistakes and ambiguities". Switalla simply sees it as: "[…] an initial set of rules which helps a speaker to form various new sentences and understands them". (Switalla .1999: 204-205). The CFER, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, (2001:113) defines grammatical competence as:

> […] knowledge of and ability to use the grammatical resources of a language. Formally, the grammar of a language may be seen as the set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful labeled and bracketed strings (sentences). Grammatical competence is the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognizing well-formed phrases and sentences in accordance with these principles (as opposed to memorizing and reproducing them as fixed formulae.

This definition demonstrates grammatical competence from   a syntactic semantic view, excluding the phonological aspect. It is a definition of grammar rather than grammatical competence.   Celce-Murcia, Dorneyi and Thurell (1995:9-23) define the five components of their model; discourse competence, linguistic competence, actional competence, sociocultural competence and strategic competence. According to them, "linguistic competence: the basic elements of communication the sentence patterns and types, the constituent structure, the morphological inflection, and the lexical resources, as well as the phonological and orthographic systems needed to realize communication." (Cited in Juhasz.2015:05)

Yano (2003) defines grammatical competence and clearly states that it is the linguistic competence; Grammatical competence means the acquisition of phonological rules, morphological rules, syntactic rules, semantic rules and lexical items. Today, it is usually called linguistic competence. (Yano.2003:7).   Carrol illustrates the aspects of receptive and productive skills; listening, reading, speaking and writing and how they are interrelated with aspects of linguistic competence (phonology/orthography,

morphology, syntax and lexicon). That is shown in figure 2.4. It explains how each language skill involves the necessary linguistic aspect. (Majeed and Yassein 2013)

		Phonology and orthography	Lexicon		Grammar	
			Morphemes, words, idoms	Semantic and grammatical components of lexicon	Morphology and syntax	Semantic components
Spoken language	Receptive skills (Listening)	Phoneme recognition and discrimination; ability to discriminate words or phrases differing in one phoneme or distinctive feature [List phoneme pairs to be discriminated]	Recognition of lexical elements as belonging to the language [List lexicon]	Recognition of semantic and grammatical meanings (i.e. word class assignments) of lexical elements.	Recognition / Understanding of morphological and associated phonology [List]	
	Productive skills (Speaking)	Phoneme production; ability to produce phonemes or allophonic variants in word forms or phrases, with accuracy at either phonemic or phonetic level [List phonemes of language with variants]	Ability to produce lexical elements fitting semantic and grammatical specifications.		Ability to produce/ In appropriate contexts Morphological and syntactical features with appropriate phonology	
Written language	Receptive skills (Reading)	Recognition of the graphemic symbols of the language, with (as appropriate) ability to name them and give their sounds [List graphemes]	Above, plus recognition of meanings and pronunciation of written forms (including special graphemic symbols, abbreviations, etc.) [List]		Above, plus recognition of special grammar-related conventions of the written language, such as punctuation, capitalization certain spelling changes, etc. [List such conventions]	
	Productive skills (Writing)	Ability to write (by hand or other method) the graphemes of the language, state their customary ordering [List any details not covered above]	spelling		As for receptive skills, plus ability to produce written conventions in appropriate contexts.	

Figure : 1-5   Carrol's Chart of the Linguistic Competence. (from Majeed and Yassein)

2-2-5-2   Components of Linguistic Competence

Most of linguists and researchers agree on six components of linguistic competence ; lexical competence, syntactic competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, morphological competence and orthographic competence.

A- Lexical Competence

Lexical competence is the is the knowledge that language speakers have of that language vocabulary. Some linguists claim that there is a certain number of words that that any language speaker should know to be lexically competent. The following definition mentions that; Every speaker of language has a dictionary of lexicon in their head, with the words which they know […] . It has been estimated that the average person knows from 45,000 to 60,000 words; these must be stored in the mental lexicon. (nn,nd:08). The Council of Europe (2001:111) simply defines lexical competence stating

that it is: Knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and grammatical elements. Wilkins (1972) points out that :Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. (Wilkins.1972:111 cited in Thouesny 2011). Crystal explains the term lexis as follows:

> Lexis: A term used in linguistics to refer to the vocabulary of language and used adjectivally in a variety of technical phrases. A unit of vocabulary is generally referred to as a lexical item, or lexeme. A complete inventory of the lexical items of a language constitutes that language's dictionary, or lexicon- a term particularly used in generative grammar: items are listed ' in the lexicon ' a set of lexical entries.(Crystal.2008:279)

B/ Syntactic Competence

The knowledge of and the ability to use the rules that govern sentence forming is the syntactic competence that helps speakers to produce well formed sentences and to interpret other's sentences as well. The coming definition defines it as follows: Syntactic competence is a part of linguistic knowledge that tells speakers what constitutes a well-formed string of words, and how to put words together to form phrases and sentences. ( ). The writer   adds that the nature of syntax proves the fact that there is an infinite set of sentences in any language. Moreover, one cannot put a limit on the length of the sentence. Syntactic competence allows language speakers to embed sentences within sentences, to conjoin sentences and to negate sentences.

Another definition sees that syntax is a mechanism allows human beings to speak and interpret an infinite number of sentences formed from a finite number of 'building blocks'. Without syntax language speakers cannot express meanings more than those associated with isolated signs. Hence, the number of meaningful expressions would be equal to the number of sings in the language. The writer states: "The ingenious invention that enabled human beings to talk about everything they can imagine is syntax. Syntax is used to put together signs expressing relatively simple meanings into sign combinations expressing more complex meanings." (nn. nd). Another definition of syntax is:

Syntax : A traditional term for the study of the rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in language(…) is the study of the interrelationships between elements of sentence structure, and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentences in sequences(...)In initial formulations of generative linguistics, the syntactic component is one of three major organizational units within a grammar. (Crystal.2008:471)

C/ Semantic Competence

Semantic competence is another important component of linguistic competence. It enables language speakers to know the meaning of different words and expressions in their language. The following definition explains that competence as follows: Semantic competence allows speakers to know quite a lot about the meaning and significance of the expressions in their language besides the significance of the 'symbolic' sounds or gestures. A sentence resembles a sort of acoustic or gestural picture that represents something.(nn.nd)

Semantics is an important branch of linguistics concerned with the study of meaning of language. The term semantics is also used in philosophy and logic, but not in the same level of meaning or emphasis as in linguistics. In Linguistics, the study of semantic properties of natural languages is the emphasis (what opposes the logical languages). To make the distinction between natural languages and logical languages, the term 'linguistic semantics' is often used. (Crystal. 2008). Crystal explains well what is meant by semantic features; it is the minimal contrastive element of a world's meaning, called a semantic component in some approaches. For instance, the term 'girl' might be analyzed into the following features: 'young', 'female' and 'human'. Concerning child language acquisition, the semantic feature hypothesis (SFH) claims that the child's lexical items order of appearance is governed by the simplicity and complexity of the semantic features they contain. (Crystal 2008). Semantic competence is very necessary to be linguistically competent. It helps speakers to know the meaning of words and expressions and to use them suitably

D / Phonological Competence

Phonological competence is concerned with the knowledge of and more importantly the appropriate use of the rules of sound patterns and systems. The coming definition explains well what is meant by phonological competence. It says that Phonological competence is devoted to allow speakers of a language to know the sounds and also the sound patterns that occur and to know what sounds are part of that language and which sounds are not. Speakers of English, for instance, know that there are more than five vowel sounds in the language. There are five letters (a-e-i-o-u) that represent these different vowel sounds in the English writing system. However, there is no one-to-one mapping between alphabetic symbols and the sounds they represent. English speakers know also what strings of sounds that can be possible words and which are impossible words in their language. All these are constraints on the sound pattern of languages which are learnt by speakers while they are acquiring the language, but not rules or laws imposed by textbooks' writers. (nn, nd)

Crystal defines phonology as a major branch of linguistics that is concerned with the studies of the sound systems of languages. The human vocal apparatus can produce a very wide range of sounds that are studied by phonetics. However, only few sounds are used differently in any one language. The sounds are organized into a system of contrasts, which are analyzed according to the theory used, in terms of phonemes distinctive features or any other phonological units. Demonstrating the patterns of distinctive sounds found in a language is the main aim of phonology. In addition to that, phonology aims at making as general statements as possible about the sound systems nature in the languages of the world. In other words, phonology is concerned with the range and function of sounds in specific languages (therefore, it is often referred to as 'functional phonetics'), and interested in the rules that can be written to demonstrate the types of phonetic relationships which relate and contrast words and other linguistic units.(Crystal. 2008). Knowing the different sounds in a language and what systems govern them besides how to use them appropriately makes a language speaker phonologically competent.

Logan et al (1991) support the idea of varying the phonemic examples that learners would be exposed to .They see that this variation helps language learner to realize more success in phonological performance. They argue: "Experiments on second

language learning show that learners who are exposed to varied examples of phonemic category learn the category better than those who are exposed repeatedly to the same example". (Logan et al, 1991 cited in Llurda,nd:14)

E / Morphological Competence

To be morphologically competent, a language speaker must know the various rules that govern word forms; to know how nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are structured and to use that knowledge appropriately. The following definition gives more details about morphological competence; A speaker of a language also knows how words are structured. For instance, the use of prefixes and suffixes and their logical order. Since the speaker knows that to put a suffix like 'ment' at the beginning of a word is unacceptable and ungrammatical, so he / she is morphologically competent. (nn .nd)

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that is devoted to studying the structure or forms of words, initially the morpheme construct use. It is traditionally distinguished from syntax, which deals with the rules that govern the building of sentences starting from the combination of words. It is generally divided into two fields: inflectional morphology (the study of inflections) and the lexical or derivational morphology (word formation). The term morphemics is used when the focus is on the techniques of analyzing words into morphemes, specially as practiced by American structuralist linguists in the 1940s and 1950s. Morphemic analysis is part of a synchronic study. The diachronic studies apply the more general term' morphological analysis'. (Crystal 2008)

According to CEF (Common European Framework), morphology deals with the differences in modifying word forms in verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns. (Council of Europe.2001 : 114). Morphological competence is the competence that enables a language speaker to know how sentence constituents are formed; to know how nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are constructed. Besides knowing how sentence constituents are formed, to be morphologically competent, a language speaker must be able to use that knowledge and construct well-formed words.

F / Orthographic Competence

Orthographic competence may be considered as the less important linguistic competence because the nature of language is oral (not written) and most of the languages do not have a written form. Furthermore, there are many people in the world, who use their languages and have no problems in communication, do not know how to write or read. The coming quotation supports that idea:

> It should be noted that (…) the majority of languages of the world have no written form. They are, however, as complex and rationale as languages with written graphology or alphabet. Speech (or sign), is part of the natural endowment of the human species; writing systems are derived from spoken languages, which is why every normal human anywhere in the world who receives linguistic input as a child will learn the language of the environment but will not necessarily learn to read or write unless being specifically taught. (nn.nd)

It is true that there are many languages which do not have a written form and many people in the world are illiterate; they do not know how to read or to write but none can deny the role of orthographic competence. People exploit the orthographic competence, for centuries, for communication and for other various purposes. In sum, orthographic competence is as important as any other linguistic competence even though its absence do not hinder communication.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have tackled a general overview on linguistic competence as a main component of communicative competence. However, being an important component of communicative competence does not mean that it is sufficient to be linguistically competent. Communicative competence depends on other components such as: discourse competence, strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. In addition to that, we have seen the main components of

linguistic competence which are: semantic competence, syntactic competence, lexical competence, phonological competence, morphological competence and orthographic competence. In the coming chapter, we suggest a solution to enhance and reinforce EFL learners' linguistic competence which is implicit learning. For an EFL learner, to be linguistically competent means to be competent in all the components of linguistic competence mentioned before.

CHAPTER TWO: IMPLICIT LEARNING IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

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IMPLICIT LEARNING IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Introduction

Linguists and researchers who are interested in EFL attempt always to find ways that improve its learning. Implicit learning is one of the solutions that many linguists and researchers believe in its efficiency. According to Cleermans (1997). Implicit learning research has now reached a point of unprecedented interest. At the beginning, this field of research appeared as if it would stay marginal forever. But it is currently witnessing a noticeable revival, with serious continuous studies, many new authors contribute seriously, and many new bridges built to different related fields. Yet, despite all the contributions and the efforts that led to significant advances in the field, it seems to be only some attempts to provide answers to the questions that Reber has asked himself around 1967. Indeed, many issues are still controversial.

1 –Definition of Learning

Learning happens with human beings from the first days in their life. It may happen willingly or unwillingly, consciously or unconsciously. People intend to learn some things while they learn many things unintentionally. Learning is the process that accompanies human beings from their first days of life. Schunk(2009)puts forward that; '' learning involves acquiring and modifying knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. People learn cognitive, linguistic, motor, and social skills, and these can take many forms.'' (Schunk,2009: np). He sees that learning is an acquisition and a modification in different side of an individual's personality; knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes and behaviors. According to Longman Modern English Dictionary, learning is :" a large and well organized body of usually non scientific ideas, acquired and retained by long and great effort, a man of great learning // the mental process itself // the acquisition of skills or mental attitudes". Longman p 627.

The first definition, of Chunk(2009: np), is so narrow in the point that describes learning as: "well organized body of usually non scientific ideas". In addition to that, it

shows that learning needs 'long and great effort'. However, it manifests learning from a larger view describing it as ' the acquisition of skills ' what may involve cognitive, linguistic, motor, and social abilities.' or mental attitudes requiring cognitive, social and psychological features. The second definition reveals that learning is 'the mental process itself' and that is also very narrow.

2- Learning Theories

Although there are many different theories of learning have been proposed and discussed Schunk sees that they can be conveniently categorized into four major theories recognizing that there is some overlap. The four major theories are: conditioning, social cognitive, cognitive information processing, and constructivist.

2-1- Behaviorism

Environmental variables are the focus in conditioning theories."Learning is a change in behavior" (Schunk, 2009: 515) to change behavior and facilitate learning the environment should be structured so that the student can respond as correctly as it is expected of him . Schunk 2009.Conditioning theories dominated the psychology of learning for the first half of the twentieth century. Such theories explain learning in terms of environmental events.(Schunk, 2009:73).Schunk mentions different conditioning theories such as : connectionist, classical conditioning, Watsons behaviorism, contiguous conditioning, Operant conditioning .Schunk,2009)

2-2- Cognitivism

Bundura's social cognitive theory focuses on the idea that human learning happens in a social environment .People acquire knowledge , rules , skills , strategies, beliefs and attitudes by observing others .(Schunk, 2009). He adds;

> individuals also learn from models the usefulness and appropriateness of behaviors and the consequences of modeled behaviors, and they act in accordance with their beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of their actions" Schunk (2009:78).

Cognitive information processing theories emphasize people's attendance to environmental events, how they encode information to be learned and relate it to pre-existing knowledge, store acquired knowledge in memory and retrieve it when needed (Shvel, 1986) cited in (Schunk:2009). The principles of these theories are the following :" humans are processors of information. The mind is an information processing system. Cognition is a series o mental processes. Learning is the acquisition of mental representation"(Mayer,1996:154 cited in Schunk, 2009:131). Schunk explains:" cognitive information processing is not the name of single theory; it is a generic name applied to theoretical perspectives dealing with the sequence and execution of cognitive events". (Schunk 2009: 131).

2-3- Constructivism

Theories and researches in human development especially the theories Piaget and Vygotsky's have influenced the rise of constructivism ' Vygotsky's theory forms a cornstone of the constructivist theory' (Schunk 2009:235) "Vygotsky's sociocultural theory emphasizes the social environment as a facilitator of development and learning. The social environment influences cognition through its tools-cultural objects, language, symbols, and social institutions ; cognitive change results from using these cultural tools in social interactions and from internalizing and transforming these interactions" (Schunk 2009: 275).

Vygotsky sees that the child's mind is social; it is dependent on society to shape, and event to brainwash, it he insist that the individual is what the society is. He learns from what the society and culture offer him :' tools-cultural objects, language, symbols and social institutions'(Schunk, 2009:275). Constructivism has an increasing role in learning and teaching the recent years. It has led to a shift from the environmental influence on learning toward human factors as explanations for learning. Schunk ,2009.

Schunk(2009:235) clarifies "cognitive theories place great emphasis on learner's information procession as a central cause of learning. Yet despite the elegance of cognitive learning theories, some researchers have felt that these theories fail to capture the complexity of human learning".

3- Implicit Learning

Implicit learning is taking an important position in the researches that are concerned with teaching languages and teaching in general. It is asserted that implicit learning plays a great role in the teaching-learning process.

3-1- Definition of Implicit Learning

Implicit learning is the process of learning that happens unconsciously. Learners in this case are not aware of what they learn. Vinter et.al,(nd) see that implicit learning is the most attractive type of learning in the current studies. There have been various definitions of implicit learning. Implicit learning surrounds all kinds of intentional leaning, in which, as a result of repeated exposure, an individual becomes sensitive to the structural features of what is being exposed to, without being told to learn anything and without intending to do that.

Rebuschat(2013) mentions that the term implicit learning was first used by Arther Reber (1967) to describe the process when subjects learn a complex, rule governed stimulus without intending to and without being aware of the knowledge they have acquired. Seger(1994,163-196) defines implicit learning as: "learning complex information without complete verbalizable knowledge of what is learned" .This means that the learner acquires complex information without knowing exactly what he learned. Berry and Dienes(1993) see that implicit learning happens when someone learns a complex structure without an intention to do so, what makes the learned structure difficult to be expressed. Implicit learning is " learning without awareness of what is being learnt" (de Keyser,2003:314). Those were some of the definitions of implicit learning that almost all agree on the absence of the intention to learn and the consciousness of what is exactly learned.

3-2 Proving the Existence of Implicit Learning: Cognitive Psychology

Starting from Reber's 1960's work, much research has been conducted to prove the existence of implicit learning. In addition to Reber's Artificial Grammar Learning (1967), there was another important research; sequence learning based on serial-reaction time task (Nissen& Bullener 1987). They have been particularly crucial in establishing implicit learning (Bell .2012)

In Reber's seminal Artificial Grammar Learning (AGL) study , subjects are asked to memorize a set of letter strings by a finite-state grammar. After doing so, subjects were informed that those strings follow grammar rules, and then they were asked to classify new strings as grammatical or not. Subjects succeeded in that classification task, even they could not describe the rules of grammar in verbal reports. This dissociation between classification performance and verbal report is the result that prompted Reber to describe learning as implicit.(Cleermans,et al,1998).

Sequence learning based on a serial-reaction time task in the 1980's (Nissen & Bullemer,1987) starting from a stimulus that appears briefly on a computer screen in a number of locations; each location corresponds to a computer key. The subjects are asked to press a computer key that corresponds to the stimulus' location. The order of the stimuli appearance was governed by sequence. Without knowing that, the participants reaction times diminish. However, when the location of the object appears out of sequence, an intended interruption, the participants reaction times becomes significantly longer, and they could not verbalize the knowledge that causes this slowdown. That proves that implicit learning is what happened.(Bell,2012)

3-3 Implicit Learning: A New Field of Study

Implicit learning is dealt with as a new field of study as it is not rich in undertaken researches though the first studies conducted by Reber refer to decades before. "Even though there is a long tradition of research on implicit learning dating back to Reber's seminal 1967 publication, one senses that the study of implicit language learning is still in its infancy." (Williams.2009:342). This means that there are no

enough satisfying researches and developments to the study of implicit learning though Reber's studies have been started more than four decades ago.

Cleersman(1997) has been more optimistic in his opinion concerning the development of the study of implicit leaning . He sees that inspite of thinking that implicit learning is almost totally neglected as a field of study, after less than three decades it witnesses a revolution in terms of the number of studies and authors who tried to enrich it. Yet he does not deny the fact that this field of study still needs more efforts in order to answer many questions that have not been answered yet.

Implicit learning as a field of study still needs more researches and studies to be undertaken. This field of study requires more experiments and investigations from different angles. Many issues in implicit learning are still controversial and need to be investigated.

3-4   Implicit Versus Explicit Learning

Implicit learning and explicit learning are two controversial concepts. There are various differences between them. Williams (2009) sees that implicit learning is incidental since it happens without the intentions of the learners to do that. He illustrates; "for example, they might learn a rule of grammar in the course of performing a meaning- focused task, or they might learn more regularity in the sequencing of forms whilst performing a short-term memory task." Williams focuses on "the condition that there is no awareness of the regularity to be learned at the point of learning." In contrast, he sees that "explicit learning involves an intention to learn" in addition to "the use of conscious knowledge at the point of learning." Rebuschat (2013:298-302) shows the difference between implicit and explicit learning as follows:

> Reber 1967 used the term implicit learning to differentiate the process of incidental, unaware learning from that of explicit learning , a learning process in which subjects are instructed to actively look for patterns and develop conscious knowledge as a result."

According to Ellis (2005:306); "Implicit learning of language occurs during fluent comprehension and production. Explicit learning of language occurs in our conscious efforts to negotiate meaning and construct communication." He relates implicit learning to fluency and explicit learning to accuracy. In the same context, Richards et.al.(2002:250) focus on three different points to compare between implicit and explicit learning:

Various writers define the difference between implicit and explicit learning in slight different ways, for example:

●Explicit learning involves such conscious operations as hypothesis formation and testing, while implicit learning does not.

●Implicit l earning is learning without awareness of what has been learned, while in explicit learning it is aware of what has been learned.

●Explicit learning is accompanied by awareness that one is learning, while implicit learning is not."

To show the difference between implicit and explicit learning, Richards et al, mention first the conscious operations as hypothesis formation and testing. Second, they emphasize on the awareness of what is learned; i.e. the content. Finally, they highlight the awareness of the learning process; whether the learner is aware of being learning or not.

Mathews and Lane (nn, nd) put a comparison between implicit and explicit learning in a table. Table 2.1 is based on many characteristics. Among these characteristics there are; effort, robustness, type of cognition, speed,   and representation.

Characteristics	Implicit Learning	Explicit Learning
Effort	Easy	Hard
Learning	Unaware	Aware
Robustness	Error tolerant	Error intolerant
Knowledge	Difficult to verbalize	Easy to verbalize
Type of cognition	Hot (emotional)	Cool
Speed	Fast	Slow
Control	Cue-driven (unconscious)	Conscious
Solutions	Heuristic	Algorithmic
Representation	Holistic	Analytic

Table 2.1 : Characteristics of implicit and explicit learning (Mathews and Lane. nd,np)

3-5 Implicit / Explicit Learning and Krashen's Acquisition / Learning Dichotomies

It is clearly noticeable that there is a relationship between implicit and explicit learning and Krashen's dichotomy acquisition/learning. The characteristics of implicit learning are the same those of Krashen's 'acquisition' while the characteristics of explicit learning are similar to those of Krashen's 'learning'. Williams (2009) explains the relationship between implicit / explicit learning and Krashen's acquisition / learning dichotomies:

> Within second language acquisition (SLA), the contrast between implicit 'acquisition' and explicit 'learning' was brought to the fore by Krashen (1981-1994), but this acquisition- learning hypothesis is compatible with any theory of the putative implicit learning mechanism. At one extreme, generative linguists would appeal to process that operate with reference to universal grammar (UG). At the other, emergentists would appeal to domain general principles of associative learning, as exemplified perhaps by connectionism . All studies of 'acquisition' are studies of implicit learning." Willams (2009:319)

Williams asserts that according to Krashen's dichotomy, implicit learning equates 'acquisition' and explicit equates 'learning'. He argues that by saying: "All studies of 'acquisition' are studies of implicit learning." Williams (2009:319)

3-6 Characteristics of Implicit Learning

Implicit learning has special characteristics that make it different from explicit learning as they show its strength as a solution to some learning problems. These characteristics can be exploited to improve the learning processes. Ellis (1994) lists some characteristics of implicit learning; the first characteristic according to him is that it is easily accessible; since it depends on automatic processing, less depending on awareness efforts. The second is that it is unanalyzed; it is more memory based than rule based. The third is that it is abstract; it is not concrete. The fourth is that it can be consciously analyzed if needed, and thus this analysis leads to the occurrence of explicit rules of language. The last characteristic mentioned by Ellis(1994) is that implicit learning occurs closely adhering to natural language behaviour, as it happens nearly in a situation similar to the natural setting of language acquisition.

Vinter et al.(nd:120-123) delineate four characteristics that seem to be as recommendations rather than characteristics; first, they say that learners must be exposed only to positive examples of the rule(or whatever to be learned); avoiding including errors or counterexamples. A second characteristic that helps in successful implicit learning is the isolation of the rule or regularity to be learned. They see that the association of different rules limits the learner's attentional focus. A third important feature of implicit learning is that the learners must be exposed to the materials to be learned repeatedly. Finally, the last characteristic that they point out is that the learner must be exposed to what is supposed to be learned without making it explicit at all .

3-7 Tools Help in Implicit Learning

Teaching materials and tools is a topic that attracts the attention of many researchers and linguists. They value materials and tools as they help in the success of the learning process. In this concern, implicit learning depends on various tools that can make the difference in the quality of learning. Tomlinson (nd,np) expresses his surprise that all over the world there are many examples of young children who have successfully acquired a foreign language because of being allowed to experience and enjoy it and yet so many countries and governments have failed to help young children to learn a foreign language

He says that a look through some articles and books on teaching English to young learners will show the different materials that help in learning English; (Celce-Murcia, 1985;Ghost,2003; Moon,2005). From those materials, Tomlinson (nd) mentions:

- The use of stories to expose learners to language in use.
- The use of songs, poems and rhymes.
- Providing language linked kinesthetic activity through drama, games and PTR.
- Using materials that focus more on meaning than form.
- Focusing more on informal implicit learning than formal explicit learning materials.
- Making learners play with language.

3-7-1   Using Music

Listening to certain music, that is carefully chosen to help in the learning process, is an important prompter for EFL learners. Robertson and Acklam (2000:23) reveal the importance of using music to help in learning language. Listening to music while learners are working creates the favorable atmosphere to learn a language. Songs can be used as a basis for language learning activities. It is an intelligent way to involve learners in the learning process since it is a change from normal learning situations and something that makes them enjoy learning. Songs are rich in a lot of useful language that help them in learning grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Songs can be also used as prompters to discussions. "Music is a powerful stimulus for students' engagement…"(Harmer.2007:319). He demonstrates its influence on people's emotions while still allowing the brain to analyze. He adds: "Apiece of music can change the atmosphere in a classroom or prepare students for a new activity. (Harmer 2007:319) He argues that it makes a connection between leisure and learning and that what can be satisfying for both the teacher and the learner. He illustrates; "Some teachers, for example, like to put music on in the background when their students are working on a reading or language task, or they are involved in pair work or group work.' (Harmer.2007/319-320) According to him, this helps in making the classroom atmosphere much warmer. However, he insists on the necessity of the suitable choice of music that makes learners relaxed and feel happy; but not the contrary. Harmer strongly

supports learning by music;" One of the most useful kinds of text for students to work with is song lyrics…" (Harmer.2007: 320). In this concern, Sylvan Payne (2006) describes the ideal song which suits the learning process; " The ideal song… repeats key phrases; attracts students; and teaches some natural, interesting language without offending anyone." (Payne,2006: 42 cited in Harmer,2007:320)

3-7-2   Television and Video

Television and video are considered as powerful teaching materials, but in a reasonable extent. They help in motivating learners more. Robertson and Acklam (2000:26) put forward that television as a visual medium adds another dimension to the experience of learning. Having the chance to listen and see at the same time is fruitful for the learning process. Some learners prefer hearing and others visuals help them better in learning. In both cases, watching television and videos is useful. Using these tools in the classroom motivate learners to learn more.

Harmer also supports the idea of watching videos while listening. He shows that it is fruitful for learners to watch film clips on video, DVD or online while listening. He gives many reasons for that; that allows learners to see language in use and specially paralinguistic behaviors. Films also can show learners how people stand when they talk to each other, or what kind of food people eat. Harmer says that the more they do this (watch videos) the better for their learning. (Harmer, 2007)

3-7-3   Computer and the Internet

The importance of computer and internet reveals in all sides of life. Learning also can be affected by them. Robertson and Acklam (2000:28) speak about the rising interesting in computer and internet in learning languages and about the programs that teach and test vocabulary, grammar, writing, and especially pronunciation.

Harmer (2007:187) states: "In fact, the software offers a more interesting option where we can mix text and visuals with audio/video tracks so that pictures can dissolve or fly onto and off the screen, and music, speech and film can be integrated into the presentation. Harmer (2007) encourages teachers to use computer and internet inside

the classroom as he sees that they offer a more interesting option for teaching. He supports the idea of mixing texts and visuals with audio/video tracks. However, he warns teachers not to overuse this technology that till may not be effective.

3-7-4   Word Games

Word games are an interesting option for learning languages. They help in improving the learners' lexical and semantic competence specially. They are prescribed by many specialists in language teaching because it has a great effect on learners' involvement in the learning process and therefore on their level of achievement. "There is a clear evidence of an application of these games to pedagogy in keeping with current theory of second language acquisition." (Ojeda, 2004:25)

Ojeda (2004) sees that these word games help in enhancing communicative competence and in problem solving tasks. He reveals also that they involve learners and lead to learner-centered leaning process. In addition to that, they motivate learners by "creating a sense of community within the classroom". (Ojeda, ibid).

3-8 The Role of Implicit Learning in Enhancing Learner's Linguistic Competence

Williams (2009) speaks about the studies that show that it is possible to learn linguistically relevant regularities through implicit learning; "This type of learning is successful in the areas of lexical segmentation, phonological and orthographic structure, phrase structure and grammatical form-meaning connections. It may also support the rapid absorption of word order patterns…" Williams (2009:339). This means that implicit learning can enhance learner's linguistic competence with all its different competencies; phonological, syntactic and semantic competencies

Stefller(2001:168-169) agrees with Williams in his view concerning the importance of implicit learning; Steffler (2001) asserts the importance of implicit learning in spelling development that strongly depends on phonological competence.

Existing theories of spelling development have addressed three types of information people use when spelling : orthographic ,phonological ,and morphological. […] Due to the complexity of written language, it is not probable that spelling development is determined by explicit learning alone.

Piciorek (2012) notes that various aspects of language are involving implicit learning including word segmentation, orthography, phonetics, argument structure and syntax .She means that implicit learning influences many aspects of language so that different learner's linguistic competencies can be enhanced. Rebeschuta (2013:302) hints: " A review o f literature on implicit language learning shows that adult learners are able to acquire form-mappings and L2 syntax implicitly." .However ,she states that more empirical researches should be conducted to prove the specific role of implicit learning in language acquisition; "Considerably empirical research is necessary before the precise role of implicit learning in L2 acquisition can be full specified". ((Rebushat, 2013:302)

3-9-   Implicit Learning and Explicit Learning Power

Researchers and linguists do not agree on précising whether implicit learning is more powerful than implicit learning or explicit learning is the strongest.

3-9-1- Implicit Learning is More Powerful

Some researchers and linguists see that implicit learning is more powerful than explicit learning. They argue their bias to implicit learning by mentioning the different characteristics that belong to it and are not found in explicit learning. Mathews et al. (1989) support the idea that implicit learning is more powerful than explicit learning because implicit learning is becoming an alternate model of learning. They see that its power comes from being automatic and non-conscious.

3-9-2- Explicit Learning is More Powerful

In contrast to the first opinion, there are some researchers and linguists who see that explicit learning is more powerful than implicit learning. Some of them see that

there is no concrete evidence on the power of implicit learning. Cook(2009) asserts that explicit learning is more powerful. She expresses her point of view saying: "Where such comparisons were available, the experiments reported so far in this section unanimously suggested that explicit learning is more effective than implicit learning."(Cook,2009:22) She sees that "success is not guaranteed" in second language acquisition, " at least when exposure is limited" (Cook,2009 :23).

3-9-3- Both Implicit and Explicit Learning are Powerful

Other group of researchers and linguists see that both implicit and explicit learning are powerful and none can deny the role of each of them. According to Ellis et al(2009:194); "The linguistic competence of a language learner characterized as comprising both implicit and explicit knowledge. They see that both implicit and explicit learning are necessary in enhancing learner's linguistic competence but they say that each of them is more powerful in a specific skill; "… implicit knowledge was seem to be more strongly related to the oral skills and explicit knowledge to the written skills."

Another point of view, that is of Short, et al(2012), says that there is no difference in performance of implicit learning and explicit learning participant learners. They have declared, after conducting an experiment, that the results have shown that the performance of implicitly and explicitly trained groups have not differed.

"Successful language learning in a classroom depends on a judicious blend of subconscious language acquisition (through listening and reading for example) and the kind of study activities we have looked at here." Harmer (1998:25). By these words, Harmer is describing implicit learning as "subconscious language acquisition" Harmer (1998:25). He insists on the power of implicit learning for a "successful language learning in classroom" (1998:25) and he demands blending it with the ordinary way of teaching that is based on explicit learning.

Not very far from Short, et al opinion, Hellmuth(2014) supports the idea of the necessity of both implicit and explicit learning in for successful second language learning. He overtly declares: "Both explicit and implicit processes play a role in the acquisition of language skills in L2. Explicit and implicit learning are dynamically and interactionally involved in language learning." (Hellmuth.2014:03). However, he does

not deny the superiority of explicit learning in the case of adult second language learners. He states:

> But implicit learning should be the default method of adult language learning, because adult learners mostly miss the opportunities of acquiring the language competence in communication with their partners as do children.
> (Hellmuth. 2014:03)

From that it can be deduced that Hellmuth (2014) is convinced that implicit learning is not effective for adult learners. That is clearly controversial to what has been reported from Rebushat (2013) that states the efficiency of implicit learning to adult learners. As it has been mentioned before, the researchers and linguists' opinions concerning whether implicit learning is more powerful than explicit learning or the contrary differ from one to another. The most fair opinion is the one that states that both implicit and explicit learning are powerful and none of them can stand alone. Each of them complements the other.

3-10- Explicit and Implicit Instruction in the EFL Classroom

Classroom instruction is a topic that most of researchers and linguists focus on because of its sensitivity in the learning process. Yu Fang Liao treats the topic depending on what other researchers say about it.

> Assissted performance, in both explicit and implicit instructions in the EFL context, provides learners with adequate input and apportunities to practice. With explicit instruction, the teacher provides suggestions and explanations to the class, whereas implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules." (Yu-FangLiao, 2014:11).

After expressing his view concerning explicit and implicit instructions, he quotes: "Normally, explicit instruction includes describing, explaining, and discussing a target form, and making comparisons between L1 and L2 data (Salemi, Raibee & Ketabi, 2012) cited in (Yu Fang Liao, 2014:11-12). Then, he refers to Dole (2000) to

explain implicit learning instructions "On the other hand, Dole (2000) defined implicit instruction by explaining teacher's role in an implicit instruction classroom." (Yu-Fang Liao, 2014:12). Next, Yu-Fang Liao (2014) reports Hulstjin (2005) perception of implicit learning instruction; " In addition to Dole's definition on implicit instruction, Hulstjin (2005) said that implicit instruction happens when rules are presented, but not discussed, and learners are not asked to attend to rules during L2 tasks." (Yu-Fang Liao, 2014:12). After all that, he ends to the fact that " implicit instruction has drawn less attention than explicit instruction" (Yu-Fang Liao,2014:12)

"The term 'instruction' implies an attempt to intervene in interlanguage development". (Ellis, et al 2009:16). They characterized language instruction in terms of 'direct' and 'indirect' interventions. Indirect intervention creates an atmosphere where learners learn how to communicate in the second language; Ellis, et al (2009) put implicit instructions and explicit instructions under direct intervention. Implicit instruction seeks to enable learners to infer rules without awareness. In other words, it aims to provide learners with examples of the target rule or pattern without they are intending to learn it. Explicit instruction involves an awareness of the target feature to be learned during the learning process. Thus, learners are expected to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. This can be reached deductively, i.e. by describing the grammatical rule to be learned or inductively; providing learners with examples from which they can discover the rule for themselves.

Conclusion

It seems that a large scale of research tendency in implicit second language learning tries to answer the question whether implicit or explicit learning lead to better acquisition, as has been reported before from Mathews et al(1989), Ellis et al (2009) , Short et al (2012) , and Cook (2009). However, this research focuses on the importance of implicit learning in enhancing EFL learner's linguistic competence and making EFL development searchers more aware of its importance without denying the importance of explicit learning in explaining rules and regularities. It tries to prove the role of implicit learning to support successful second language learning. Nevertheless, it does not claim that implicit learning is sufficient or can stand alone without explicit learning. Implicit learning is a very powerful tool in second language learning in combination with explicit learning.

CHAPTER THREE: QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF IMPLICIT LEARNING IN ENHANCING EFL LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

CHAPTER THREE

Quasi-Experimental Study on the Impact of Implicit Learning on   Enhancing EFL Learners' Linguistic Competence

Introduction

The main purpose of almost all EFL teachers, who teach beginners specially, is enhancing learners' linguistic competence. To do so, many techniques, methods, and mechanisms are suggested by researchers and applied linguists. The current study proposes implicit learning as a successful way to reach EFL teachers' main purpose. To prove the importance of implicit learning in enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence, the researcher conducts an experiment with pupils from Brothers Menacer Middle School in Tolga, city of Biskra. In this experiment, we manipulate the independent variable, implicit learning, to prove its causal relationship with the dependent variable, EFL learners' linguistic competence. The present chapter demonstrates the details of this quasi-experimental study; all what concerns the pretest, the treatment and the posttest.

1- Rationale

The experimental research is a powerful research. The true experimental research designs are the referent for observing the effects of a particular sample that represents a population through the manipulation of one variable or more. However, the random assignment of the participants to be exposed to the experiment is not an easy task. It takes more effort and time. Another cause that makes the random assignment of the groups difficult is the administrative interventions. Yount states in this topic: A common problem in educational research is the unwillingness of educational administrators to allow the random selection of students out of classes for experimental samples.(Yount 2006: 08 quoted in Meddour 2014: 144)

Thus, the quasi-experimental research is the alternative since it is based on pre assigned groups. Quasi experimental studies may be more feasible or appropriate. (More 2008 quoted in Meddour 2014:143). In spite of the difference between true experimental research and quasi-experimental research in randomization, there are still

many common features between them that lead to the main objective which is finding out the causal relationship between variables. The results come after the treatment or manipulation that might be undertaken similarly in both a true experimental research and a quasi experimental research.

The current study which looks for a causal relationship the independent variable, implicit learning, and the dependent variable, EFL learners' linguistic competence opts for a quasi-experiment because of the reasons mentioned before.

2- Aim of the Experiment

The current study investigates the impact of implicit learning on enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence. Hence, the researcher conducts the quasi-experiment to explore the causal relationship between the two variables. To do so, she undertakes a pre-test treatment posttest research design. The quasi-experiment is conducted with two groups; the control group and the experimental group. The control group is exposed to explicit learning while the experimental group is exposed to both explicit and implicit learning. Before this treatment, the two groups are subjected to the same pre-test and to the same posttest after the treatment. The comparison between the results of the tests show whether the implementation of implicit learning makes the difference.

3- Participants

Since the research is based on a quasi-experimental design, the participants are administratively grouped. The researcher has decided to conduct the experiment with 2nd year middle school pupils because they are beginners and at the same time have a pre existing knowledge from the previous year. In brothers Menacer Middle School in Tolga there are three groups of second year in the school year 2016/2017. The researcher has randomly chosen two of these groups; one to be considered as the experimental group and the other as the control group. The whole number of second year pupils in this school is 86 pupils. The two groups who take part in the quasi- experiment consist of 56 pupils. The control group consists of 27 pupils while there are 29 pupils in the experimental group. Three pupils from the control group are excluded and eight pupils are excluded from the experimental group. The exclusion of those pupils is because of

different reasons. Some pupils has been absent during the pre-test and some has been absent during the posttest. The rest of excluded pupils have not attended the treatment sessions. In short, the analyzed scores are of 24 pupils from the control group and 21 pupils from the experimental group. In the control group there 10 male pupils and 14 female pupils while in the experimental group there are 11 male pupils and 10 female pupils.

4- Testing Materials and Procedures

4-1- Pre-test Administration

The experimental group has been exposed to a pre-test after having a look on the simple past tense, the topic of the treatment, with their teacher as it is designed in their syllabus. The researcher has tested and evaluated the participants' linguistic competence in the simple past tense focusing on the semantic competence, the syntactic competence, the lexical competence and the phonological competence. The pre-test form takes the same formula the participants are used to undertake in their ordinary tests and exams. They take about 50 minutes to answer the questions. The control group conducts the same pre-test undertaken by the experimental group in the same day. The pre-test was based on a text reading, the biography of Ibn Sina. It is based on four linguistic competences and each competence is noted out of 4. The following table shows how the test is designed:

Semantic Competence	- Choosing a suitable title to the text. - Answering with true or false. - Answering two questions from the text.
Syntactic Competence	- Reordering words to get coherent sentences.
Phonological competence	- Classifying verbs according to the pronunciation of their final 'ed'.
Lexical competence	Filling in the gaps with the appropriate terms.

Table 3.1: The Assessment Rubric of the Pre-test.

4-**2- Treatment**

To conduct the treatment, the researcher was constrained with administrative rules. The choice of the topic to be taught and the period of the treatment is restricted to the yearly planning distribution. The teacher chooses the simple past tense as the topic to be dealt with in the treatment that lasts for two weeks. In this concern, Pierrehumbert (nd,14) states: "… acquiring a large variety of regular past tense verb forms permits the child to project the principles of regular past tense formation , overpowering the high token frequency of some irregular verbs".

4-2-1- A Treatment for Both Experimental Group and Control Group

Both groups are exposed to the same treatment that is normally designed in their syllabus. The participants are subjected to the treatment for two successive weeks. They have two sessions, of one hour for each, per week. Thus, the treatment is undertaken in four sessions.

4-2-1-1- Session One

The first session is devoted to a listening lesson. The pupils listen to the biography of 'Marie Curry'. The main objective intended from this lesson is to make pupils learn new vocabulary, then to notice how verbs are put in the simple past tense in the three forms; affirmative, negative and interrogative. The third aim from this lesson is to learn how final 'ed' of regular verbs is pronounced. The researcher teacher reads the text for the first time while learners listen to her. The teacher then gives learners a written script of the text from which she excludes some words, mainly verbs, and asks subjects to listen again to the text carefully and fill in the gaps and she immediately reads the text. Harmer (2007:317) states about this task: 'This exercise makes them look at the audioscript with great care'. The participants listen to the text for the third time to check their answers. Finally, the teacher with all the class fill in the missing words and explain some new terms.

4-2-1-2   Session Two

The second session is planned for reading. The pupils read the biography of Britney Spears which is found in their school book. Before reading the text, as a warm up, the teacher asks the participants mention names of some celebrities then asks them whether they know the biographies of some of them. The pupils read the text silently and then the teacher explains the reading comprehension questions accompanied with the text and asks them to answer these questions in a pair work. After the time assigned for the task is over, the teacher allows learners to answer the questions and write the answers on the board. Finally, the teacher asks the participants to deduce the rule followed to form the past simple tense. The main objective from this lesson is to enhance learners' lexical competence and semantic competence as well as to reinforce their syntactic competence.

4-2-1-3- Session Three

The third session is devoted for writing. The researcher asks pupils to mention what they know about Mary Curry whom they have seen before in the listening session. Then, the teacher writes on the white board a very short paragraph about her, after listening to the participants' answers. This biography paragraph includes her name, her date of birth, her date of death and her main achievements. After that, the teacher writes on the white board the names of three scientists; Yuri Gagarin, El Idrissi and James Watt with their dates of birth, dates of death and main achievements. The teacher asks pupils to write three short paragraphs about the biographies of the mentioned scientists starting from the given information and following the example of Mary Curry. Harmer (2007:329) insists on the importance of writing in the classroom as he states:' … we need to help such students to build the writing habit so that they recognize writing as being a normal part of classroom practice and they come to writing tasks with as much enthusiasm as they do other activities'. One of the main designed objectives from this lesson is to improve learners, orthographic competence besides the syntactic and semantic competence. As Onhu (1994: 28) states: 'Grammar must be based on semantic concepts and must help a learner to acquire a practical mastery of language for the natural communicative use of language.'

4-2-1-4- Session Four

The last session is a practical session. It is designed for the phonological and syntactic competence. For phonological competence, the pupils are asked to classify the verbs according to the pronunciation of their final 'ed'. The syntactic competence activities are varied. Pupils are asked to reorder words to get coherent sentences. They are also asked to put certain sentences in the negative and interrogative forms. These tasks are available in the pupils' school book. Finally, the teacher supplies each learner with a copy that contains the most frequently used irregular verbs and asks them to write some examples using the given irregular verbs. The main purpose of this session is to consolidate what have been learnt by the participants about the simple past tense and practice that acquired knowledge.

4-2-2- The Experimental Group Special Treatment

Besides the previous mentioned treatment that is shared with the control group, the experimental group receives a special treatment based on implicit learning tools. This treatment does not require extra time, it happens meanwhile the ordinary lesson goes on. It is based on intensive listening and reading.

4-2-2-1- Materials

The researcher has chosen some materials that cope with the topic to be learnt, the simple past tense. She has prepared a collection of videos of short stories oriented to children where the language used is simple and the pronunciation of the storyteller is clear. The videos serve the learning process of the intended topic since they are based on the simple past tense. The teacher has also downloaded from youtube some songs in which the dominant tense is the simple past tense such as Paradise for Coldplay. These songs' lyrics are simple and clear for beginners. In addition to that, the researcher has printed some biographies of famous people as a resourse for intensive reading.

4-2-2-2- Procedures

The procedures undertaken to expose learners to implicit learning tools accessible and they do not take time from the ordinary lesson. Furthermore, they do not hinder the continuity of the learning process. While participants do their work, write the lesson or do certain tasks, the teacher makes them listen to a song. They may even watch the video when they are not writing their lesson or doing exercises. Harmer writes in this concern: 'R Walker(2006) sees songs as good ways of practicing pronunciation…'. When pupils have few minutes left before the end of the session, the teacher shows the participants videos of the short stories that are addressed for children; in the form of cartoon films. Harmer (2007:321) states that: "T Karpinski (2003) uses films to stimulate students' vocabulary learning". When the participants are busy, the teacher makes them listen to the short stories without watching the videos. In addition to that, the teacher involves learners in sticking the printed biographies of Barack Obama, Martin Luther King and Mark Zuckerburg on the walls of the classroom in order to make pupils even parts of them whenever they have an occasion to do that. The list of irregular verbs is also stuck on the walls of the classroom. Following these procedures has shown the teacher that learners are getting more involved in the learning process feeling that they are in a more enjoyable, less threatening atmosphere of learning.

4-3- Posttest Administration

Both groups; the control group and the experimental group are exposed to the same posttest after being subjected to the treatment that lasts for two weeks. The treatment focuses on the simple past tense, as mentioned before. Consequently, the posttest investigates their linguistic competence development after the treatment. It emphasizes the semantic competence, syntactic competence, phonological competence and lexical competence. Each competence is noted from 0 to 4. These scoring procedures are applied on the posttest and the pre-test as well. The whole test is scored out of 16. The text that the posttest is based on is the biography of Charles Dickens. Participants take about 50 minutes to answer the questions. The following table shows how the posttest is designed:

Semantic Competence	- Answering with true or false.
	- Answering two' wh' questions from the text.
Syntactic Competence	- Reordering words to get coherent sentences.
	- Putting sentences in the negative form.
Phonological Competence	- Classifying verbs according to the pronunciation of their final 'ed'.
Lexical Competence	- Filling in the gaps with the appropriate terms.
	-

Table 3.2:   The Assessment Rubrics of the Posttest.

5- The Analysis of the Scores

The analysis of the scores is based on the comparison between the pre-test and the posttest and between the control group and the experimental group.

5-1- The Results of Semantic Competence

After being exposed to the ordinary treatment which is based on explicit learning, the control group shows a moderate progress in the semantic competence. The mean of scores of the pre-test is 1.35 while the mean of scores of the posttest is 1.79 with a mean difference of 0.44. The experimental group results show a significant progress, after being subjected to a special treatment based on implicit learning, with a mean difference of 0.85. The pre-test mean of scores is 1.19 whereas the mean of scores of the posttest is 2.04. From these results, one can notice that the achievement of the control group is better than that of the experimental group in the pre-test with a mean of scores (1.35 Vs.1.19). The scores of the participants of both groups in the pre-test and posttest are shown in tables 3.3 and 3.4 successively.

5-1-1- The Control Group Results in Semantics

Pupils' names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
OS	02.5	03	+0.5
BN	01.5	02.5	+01
TK	02	02	00
DD	02	02	00
HO	02.5	01	-1.5
DH	0.5	01	+0.5
DY	02	02	00
SM	01.5	03	+1.5
AB	01	0.5	-0.5
GH	01	02.5	+1.5
QK	0.5	00	-0.5
KA	01.5	03	+1.5
MA	01.5	01	-0.5
MS	02	03	+01
MA	0.5	01	+0.5
MD	0.5	00	-0.5
NY	01	01	00
NZ	01	03	+02
NF	01.5	03	+1.5
AR	01.5	0.5	-01
BW	01.5	02	+0.5
AH	01.5	01.5	00
GA	01.5	02.5	+01
KH	02	02	00
Sum of scores	32.5	43	+10.5
Mean of scores	1.35	1.79	0.44

Table 3.3 : The Results of the Control Group in Semantics.

5-1-2- The Experimental Group Results in Semantics

Pupils Names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
AF	02	03	+01
BF	01	00	-01
BR	01	02.5	+01.5
BH	01	02	+01
BA	00	00	00
BT	01	01.5	+0.5
B AY	01	03	+02
BB	00	01	+01
TO	01.5	02	+0.5
DF	02.5	04	+01.5
KY	01	03	+02
KI	01	01.5	+0.5
DK	02	02	00
QY	01	02	+01
LA	01.5	01.5	00
MA	01.5	02.5	+01
NF	01	02	+01
NL	01	01.5	+0.5
HZ	01.5	03	+01.5
AA	00.5	02	+01.5
LK	02	03	+01
Sum of scores	25	43	+18
Mean of scores	1.19	2.04	0.85

Table 3.4: The results of the Experimental Group in Semantics.

5-2- The Results of Syntactic Competence

The results of the study show that the experimental group syntactic competence has been relatively progressed in comparison with the results of the control group. That can be interpreted from the mean difference (0.41 vs. 0.52). The mean of the pre-test of the experimental group is 0.76 and the mean of the posttest is 1.28. The results of the control group are as follows; the mean of the pre-test is 0.54 and the mean of the posttest is 0.95.The results are shown in tables 3.5 and 3.6.

5-2-1- The Control Group Results in Syntax

Pupils' names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
OS	0.5	01	+0.5
BN	0.5	01	+0.5
TK	00	01	+01
DD	00	00	00
HO	00	0.5	+0.5
DH	00	01	+01
DY	00	01	+01
SM	00	01	+01
AB	0.5	0.5	00
GH	0.5	1.5	+01
QK	0.5	01	+0.5
KA	02	00	-02
MA	00	1.5	+1.5
MS	01	1.5	+0.5
MA	00	01	+01
MD	02	00	-02
NY	00	01	+01
NZ	00	01	+01
NF	03	02	-01
AR	00	01	+01
BW	0.5	01	+0.5
AH	0.5	01	+0.5
GA	0.5	00	-0.5
KH	03	2.5	-0.5
Sum of scores	13	23	+10
Mean of scores	0.54	0.95	0.41

Table 3.5 : The Results of the Control Group in Syntax.

5-2-2- The Experimental Group Results in Syntax

Pupils Names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
AF	0.5	1.5	+01
BF	0.5	1.5	+01
BR	01	03	+02
BH	00	01	+01
BA	00	00	00
BT	01	1.5	+0.5
B AY	02	1.5	-0.5
BB	02	01	-01
TO	02	0.5	-1.5
DF	01	03	+02
KY	0.5	2.5	+1.5
KI	01	00	-01
DK	01	00	-01
QY	00	1.5	+1.5
LA	01	1.5	+1.5
MA	0.5	1.5	+01
NF	00	01	+01
NL	00	01	+01
HZ	00	1.5	+1.5
AA	00	01	+01
LK	02	01	-01
TOTAL	16	27	+11
MEAN	0.76	1.28	0.52

Table 3.6 : The Results of the Experimental Group in Syntax.

5-3- The Results of Phonology

The results of the experimental group show a significant progress in the phonological competence with a mean difference of 0.85 moving from a mean of scores of 0.85 in the pre-test to a mean of scores of 1.71 in the posttest. The control group results also show a noticeable progress in the phonological competence with a mean difference of 0.66. The mean of scores of the pre-test is 0.95 whereas the mean of the scores of the posttest is 1.62. Table 3.7 and table 3.8 show the results in details.

5-3-1- The Control Group Results in Phonology

Pupils' names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
OS	01	02	+01
BN	01	01	00
TK	01	02	+01
DD	00	04	+04
HO	00	02	+02
DH	00	01	+01
DY	01	01	00
SM	00	00	00
AB	02	01	-01
GH	01	01	00
QK	01	01	00
KA	01	01	00
MA	01	01	00
MS	01	01	00
MA	01	00	-01
MD	01	01	00
NY	01	00	-01
NZ	01	03	+02
NF	01	03	+02
AR	01	02	+01
BW	01	03	+02
AH	02	02	00
GA	02	04	+02
KH	01	02	+01
Sum of scores	23	39	+16
Mean of scores	0.95	1.62	0.66

Table 3.7 : The Results of the Control Group in Phonology.

5-3-2 The Experimental Group Results in Phonology

Pupils Names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
AF	01	03	+02
BF	01	01	00
BR	02	02	00
BH	01	03	+02
BA	01	01	00
BT	01	02	+01
B AY	00	01	+01
BB	00	01	+01
TO	01	02	+01
DF	01	04	+03
KY	01	02	+01
KI	01	02	+01
DK	00	03	+03
QY	01	01	00
LA	01	02	+01
MA	01	00	-01
NF	01	02	+01
NL	01	01	00
HZ	01	02	+01
AA	00	01	+01
LK	01	01	00
TOTAL	18	36	+18
MEAN	0.85	1.71	0.85

Table 3.8 : The Results of the experimental Group in Phonology.

5-4- The Results of Lexis

After being exposed to the treatment, the results show a moderate improvement in the lexical competence of both groups; the experimental group and the control group. While the mean difference of the experimental group is 0.28, the mean difference of the control group is 0.20. That denotes that the special treatment that the experimental group has been exposed has not led to a significant better achievement. Table 3.9 and table 3.10 show more details about the results of the lexical competence.

5-4-1- The Control Group Results in Lexis

Pupils' names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
OS	00	0.5	+0.5
BN	01	01.5	+0.5
TK	01.5	0.5	-01
DD	0.5	0.5	00
HO	00	01	+01
DH	0.5	00	-0.5
DY	0.5	02	+1.5
SM	0.5	01	+0.5
AB	0.5	00	-0.5
GH	0.5	01.5	+01
QK	1.5	01.5	00
KA	1.5	0.5	+01
MA	01	01	00
MS	01	01	00
MA	00	01	+01
MD	00	00	00
NY	0.5	01	+0.5
NZ	0.5	00	-0.5
NF	0.5	01	+0.5
AR	01	01	00
BW	00	01	+01
AH	0.5	0.5	00
GA	0.5	1.5	+01
KH	01	0.5	-0.5
Sum of scores	15	20	+05
Mean of scores	0.62	0.83	0.20

Table 3.9 : The Results of the Control Group in Lexis.

5-4-2-   The Experimental Group Results in Lexis

Pupils Names	Pretest Results	Posttest Results	The Difference
AF	03	04	+01
BF	0.5	01	+0.5
BR	0.5	1.5	+01
BH	01	0.5	-0.5
BA	0.5	00	-0.5
BT	0.5	01	+0.5
B AY	01	01	00
BB	0.5	00	-0.5
TO	00	02	+02
DF	0.5	03	+2.5
KY	01	1.5	+0.5
KI	01	1.5	+01
DK	0.5	01	+0.5
QY	01	00	-01
LA	01	0.5	-0.5
MA	02	00	-02
NF	0.5	01	+0.5
NL	01	01	00
HZ	00	00	00
AA	01	02	+01
LK	1.5	02	+0.5
Sum of scores	18.5	24.5	+04
Mean of scores	0.88	1.16	0.28

Table 3.10 : The Results of the Experimental Group in Lexis.

5-5- The Results of the Whole Tests

From the results of the tests, one can easily notice that both groups; the experimental group and the control group have almost the same level of linguistic competence before being subjected to the treatment. That is clearly apparent in the results of the pre-test and posttest. Both groups have the same mean difference (3.6) in the pre-test result and the same standard deviation (1.42). However, in the posttest the results are not the same. The experimental group level shows a significant progress with a mean difference of (6.2) and a standard deviation (2.78) whereas the control group has realized a relatively moderate progress with a mean difference of (5.2) and a standard deviation of (1.90). The results are exposed clearly in tables 3.11 and 3.12.

5-5-1-   The Whole Results of the Tests of the Control Group

Pupils' names	Pre-test scores	Pre-test difference	Posttest scores	Posttest difference
OS	4	+0.4	6.5	+1.3
BN	4	+0.4	6	+0.8
TK	4.5	+0.9	5.5	+0.3
DD	2.5	-1.1	6.5	+1.3
HO	2.5	-1.1	4.5	-0.7
DH	1	-2.6	3	-2.2
DY	3.5	-0.1	6	+0.8
SA	2	-1.6	5	-0.2
AB	4	+0.4	2	-3.2
GH	2.5	-1.1	6.5	+1.3
QK	3	-0.6	3.5	-1.7
KA	6	+2.4	4.5	-0.7
MA	3.5	-0.1	4.5	-0.7
MS	5	+1.4	6.5	+1.3
M AB	1.5	-2.1	3	-2.2
MD	3.5	-0.1	1	-4.2
NY	2.5	-1.1	3	-2.2
NZ	2.5	-1.1	7	+1.8
NF	6	+2.4	9	+3.8
AR	3.5	-0.1	4.5	-0.7
BW	3	-0.6	7	+1.8
AH	4.5	+0.9	5	-0.2
GA	4.5	+0.9	8	+2.8
KH	7	+3.4	7	+1.8
Sum of scores	86.5		125	
Mean	3.6		5.2	
Variance	2.02		3.64	
Standard deviation	1.42		1.90	

Table 3.11 : The Control Group Results of the Whole Tests.

5-5-2- The Results of the Whole Tests of the Experimental Group

Pupils names	Pre-test scores	Pre-test difference	Posttest scores	Posttest difference
AF	6.5	+2.9	11.5	+5.3
BF	3	-0.6	3.5	-2.7
BR	4.5	+0.9	9	+2.8
BH	3	-0.6	6.5	+0.3
BA	1.5	-2.1	1	-5.2
BT	3.5	-0.1	6	-0.2
BAY	4	+0.4	6.5	+0.3
BB	2.5	-1.1	3	-3.2
TO	4.5	+0.9	6.5	+0.3
DF	5	+1.4	14	+7.8
KY	3.5	-0.1	9	+2.8
KI	4	+0.4	5	-1.2
DK	3.5	-0.1	6	-0.2
OY	3.5	-0.1	4.5	-1.7
LA	4	+0.4	5.5	-0.7
MA	5	+1.4	4	-2.2
NF	2.5	-1.1	6	-0.2
NL	3	-0.6	4.5	-1.7
HZ	2.5	-1.1	6.5	+0.3
AAY	1	-2.6	6	-0.2
LK	7	+3.4	7	+0.8
Sum of scores	77.5		131.5	
Mean	3.6		6.2	
Variance	2.04		7.75	
Standard Deviation	1.42		2.78	

Table 3.12 : The Experimental Group Results of the Whole Tests.

Mean calculation($\overline{\text{X}}$)

$$\overline{\text{X}} = \frac{\sum x}{N}$$

Variance calculation （V)

$$V = \frac{\sum(x - \overline{x})^2}{N}$$

Standard deviation calculation (SD)

$$SD = \sqrt{\text{variance}}$$
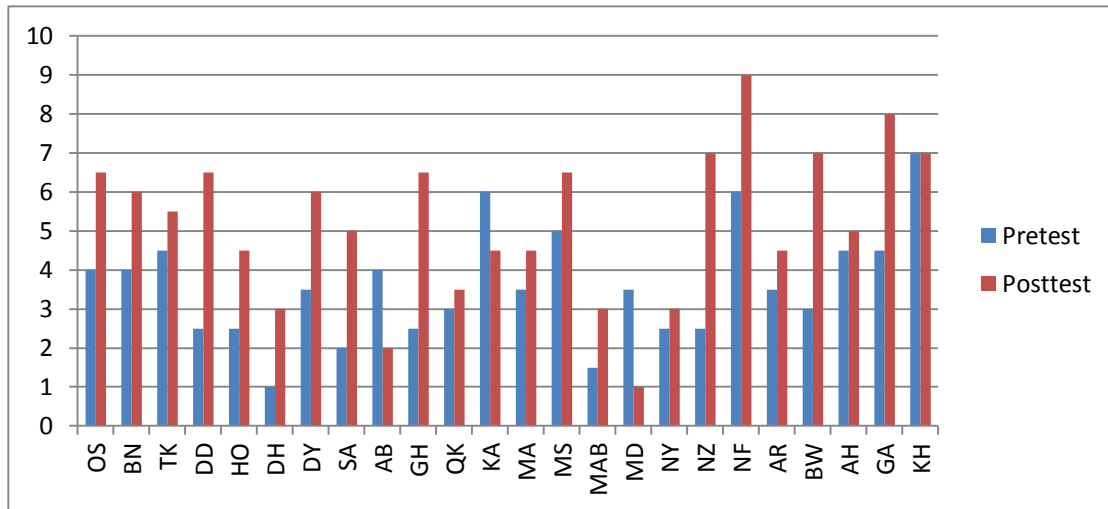
Graph 3.1 : Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Control Group.
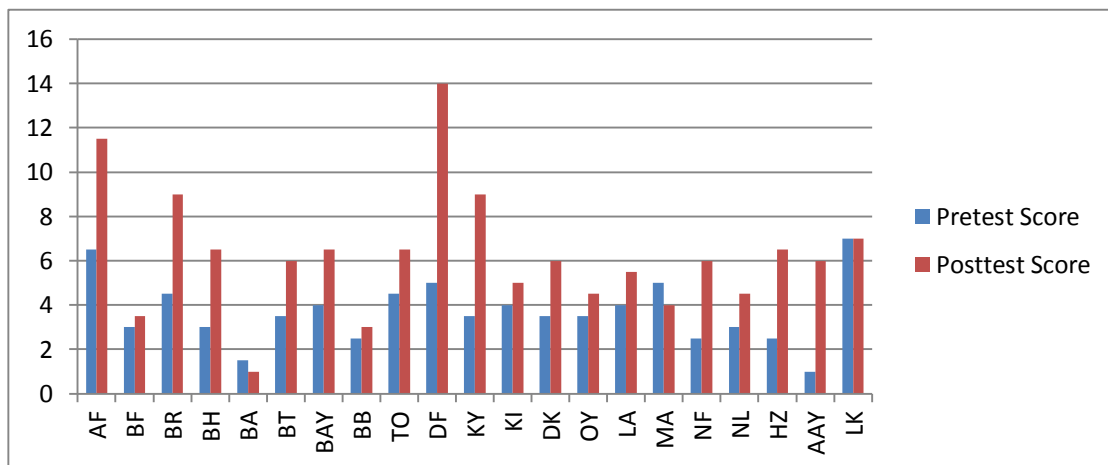
Graph 3.2 : Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Experimental Group.

From graph 3.1 and graph 3.2, one can notice that the experimental group achieves better than the control group in the posttest. The best score in the experimental group is 14 while in the control group the best mark is 09. As in the control group there are 03 participants who achieve in the pre-test better the in the posttest, in the experimental group there is just one participant whose mark of the pre-test is better than that of the posttest. The participants who have made a significant improvement in the posttest with a difference in score of (+4) and above are 06 in the experimental group and 04 in the control group. All these remarks support the claim that the experimental

group has achieved better than the control group in the posttest thanks to the treatment that the participants were exposed to.

	Test means
■ Pretest	3,6
■ Posttest	5,2
■ Difference	1,4
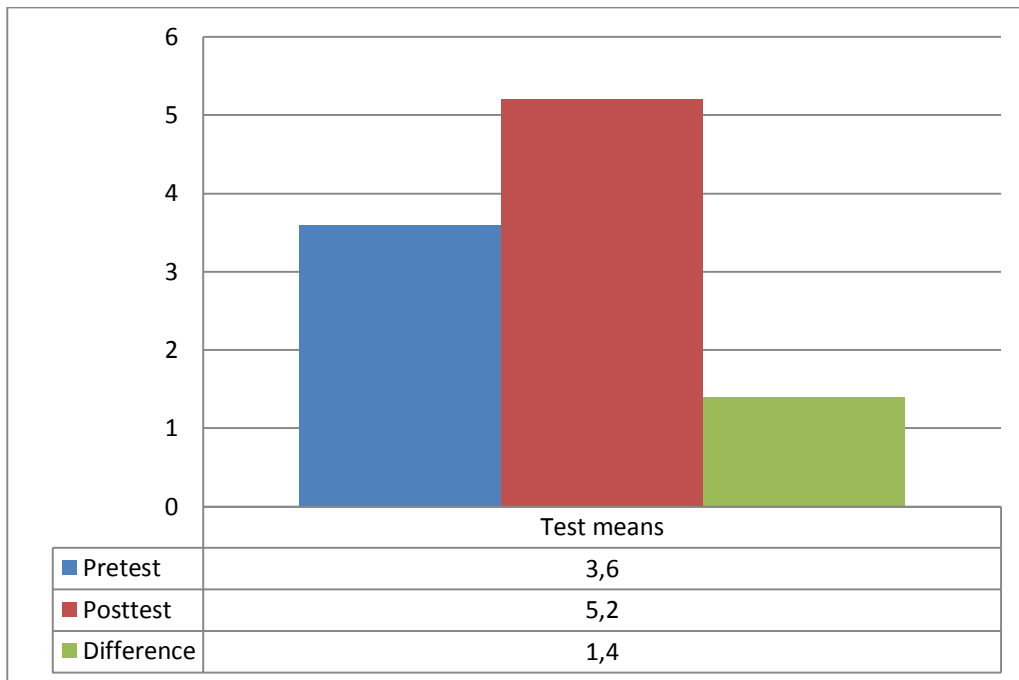
Graph 3.3: The Pretest and Posttest Means of the Control Group.

	Test means
■ Pretest	3,6
■ Posttest	6,2
■ Difference	2,4
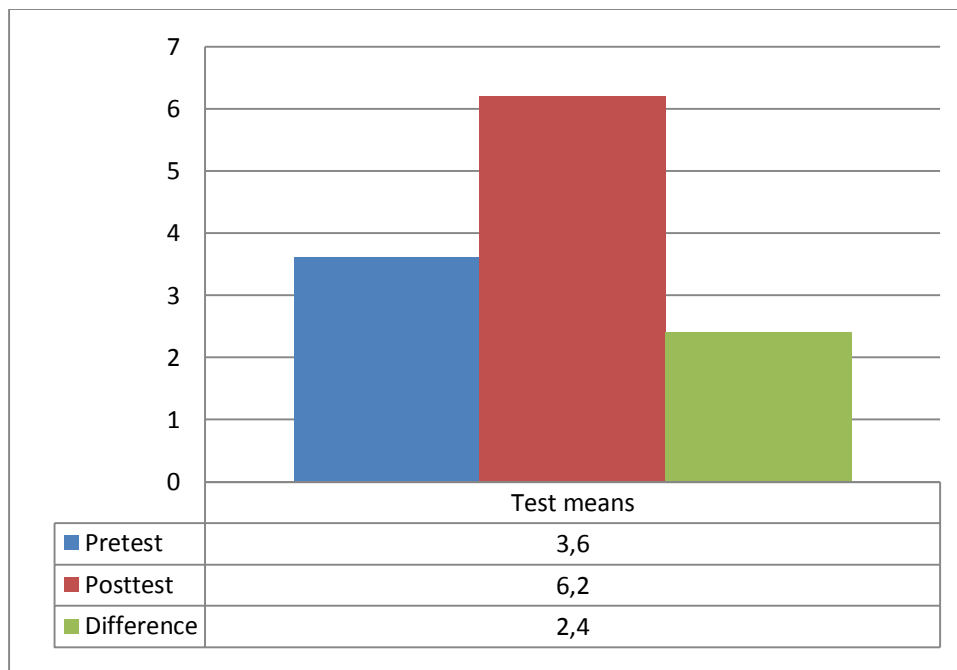
Graph 3.4: The Pretest and Posttest Means of the Experimental Group.

Graph 3.3 and graph 3.4 show the means difference of scores of the experimental group (2.4) and of the control group (1.4). Both groups have realized the

same mean of score in the pre-test (3.6). While the experimental group has recorded a significant progress in the posttest with a mean of scores of (6.2), the control group has reached (5.2) as a mean of scores.

5-6- Frequency Distribution of the Pre-test and Posttest Scores

5-6-1- Frequency Distribution of the Control Group

Pre-test	
Score 'X_{pre}'	Frequency 'F'
1	1
1.5	1
2	1
2.5	5
3	2
3.5	4
4	3
4.5	3
5	1
6	2
7	1
Sum of 'F'	24

Table 3.13: Pre-test: Frequency Distribution of the Control Group Scores

Posttest	
Score 'X_{post}'	Frequency 'F'
1	1
2	1
3	3
3.5	3
4.5	4
5	2
5.5	1
6	2
6.5	4
7	3
8	1
9	1
Sum of 'F'	24

Table 3.14: Posttest: Frequency Distribution of the Control Group Scores.

Table 3.13 and table 3.14 display the frequency distribution of scores of the control group. This frequency distribution of score values can be the basis for descriptive statistics such as the mode, the range and the highest and the lowest score values. The pre-test scores can report the following;

- The mode in the pre-test is 2.5.
- The range in the pre-test is 6.
- The score values in the pre-test range from 1 to 7.

The posttest scores provide us with the following measures:

- The mode in the posttest is 4.5 and 6.5.
- The range in the posttest is 8.
- The score values in the posttest range from 1 to

5-6-2- Frequency Distribution of the Experimental Group

Pre-test	
Score 'X$_{pre}$'	Frequency 'F'
1	1
1.5	1
2.5	3
3	3
3.5	4
4	3
4.5	2
5	2
6.5	1
7	1
Sum of 'F'	21

Posttest	
Score 'X$_{post}$'	Frequency 'F'
1	1
3	1
3.5	1
4	1
4.5	2
5	1
5.5	1
6	4
6.5	4
7	1
9	2
11.5	1
14	1
Sum of 'F'	21

Table 3.16: Posttest: Frequency Distribution of the Experimental Group.

Table 3.15: Posttest: Frequency Distribution of the Experimental Group

Concerning the pre-test, the frequency distribution of the experimental group scores values denotes the following:

- The mode is 3.5.
- The range is 6.
- The scores values range from 1 to 7.

The posttest scores demonstrate the coming results:

- The mode is the two values 6 and 6.5.
- The range is 13.
- The scores values range from 1 to 14.

6- T-Test Value Calculation

In the current study, the followed test is the t-test because it is considered to be the most appropriate test to compare between two groups. The researcher has chosen this test in order to show whether there are statistically significant differences between the pre-test and the posttest and between the control group and the experimental group as well.

To investigate the impact of implicit learning on enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence, the researcher uses the paired sample procedures to compare between the scores of the pre-test and posttest of the experimental group and the control group. The purpose from this method of statistics is to see whether the treatment based on both implicit and explicit learning has a stronger impact on the learners' linguistic competence than the treatment based on explicit learning only.

The t value is calculated as following:

$$t = \frac{\overline{x}post - \overline{x}pre}{Standard\ Error\ of\ Mean(SEM)}$$

To calculate the Standard Error of the Mean , the following formula is followed:

$$SEM = \frac{\frac{SDpre}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{SDpost}{\sqrt{N}}}{2}$$

6-1- The T- Value of the Control Group

Considering the following values:

$\overline{\text{x}}$pre-test = 3.6

$\overline{\text{x}}$posttest = 5.2

SDpre-test = 1.42

SDposttest = 1.90

N = 24

Therefore, SEM $= \dfrac{\dfrac{1.42}{\sqrt{24}}+\dfrac{1.90}{\sqrt{24}}}{2}$

$= \dfrac{0.29+0.39}{2}$

SEM = 0.34

The standard error of the difference in means is 0.34. Hence, the t value is:

$$t = \dfrac{\overline{\text{x}}\text{post}-\overline{\text{x}}\text{pre}}{\text{SEM}} = \dfrac{5.2-3.6}{0.34} = \dfrac{1.6}{0.34} = 4.7$$

6-2- The T Value of the Experimental Group

Considering the following values;

xpre-test = 3.6

$\overline{\text{x}}$posttest = 6.2

SDpre-test = 1.42

SDposttest = 2.78

N = 21

The standard error of the difference in means is:

$$\text{SEM} = \dfrac{\dfrac{1.42}{\sqrt{21}}+\dfrac{2.78}{\sqrt{21}}}{2}$$

$= \dfrac{0.31+0.60}{2}$

SEM = 0.45

Therefore, the t-value is:

$$t = \frac{\overline{x}post - \overline{x}pre}{SEM} = \frac{6.2 - 3.6}{0.45} = \frac{2.6}{0.45} = 5.7$$

The t-value of the experimental group 5.7 indicates the significant impact of implicit learning on EFL learners' linguistic competence in relation to the explicit learning. Hence, the null hypothesis which claims that implicit learning has no impact on EFL learners' linguistic competence.

7 –The Critical Value

The critical values of t distribution are calculated according to the probabilities of alpha values and the degree of freedom. The alpha value (α) 0.05 for one tailed (directional) hypothesis indicates that there is only 5٪ of chance of error can be tolerated, i.e. 95٪ of the results are approved. The degree of freedom (df) is the second value that is required in determining the critical value.

df = N-1

In the current study, the experimental group degree of freedom is:

df = 21-1 = 20

Whereas, the control group degree of freedom is:

df = 24—1 = 23

According to the distribution critical values table, the critical value of the experimental group that corresponds df= 20 is 1.7247. Therefore, $t_{observed}$ 5.7 > $t_{critical}$ 1.7247. While the critical value of the control group that corresponds df= 23 is 1.7139. Hence, $t_{observed}$4.7>$t_{critical}$ 1.7139.

The null hypothesis (H0) claims that there is no significant improvement in the experimental group participants' linguistic competence after being exposed to the treatment that is based on implicit learning. However, the t-value of the experimental group, with an alpha value α = 0.05, proves the opposite i.e. it rejects the null hypothesis while accepts and confirms the alternative hypothesis which asserts that implicit

learning has a noticeable impact on the EFL learners' linguistic competence and that is clearly apparent in the results of the quasi-experiment.

While the means of scores of the pre-test of both groups is similar (3.6), the mean of scores of the experimental group is greater than that of the control group (6.2 Vs. 5.2). The standard deviation of the pre-test of both groups is 1.42 whereas the experimental group is greater than the standard deviation of the control group in the posttest (2.78Vs.1.90) . In the current study, there is a very weak probability that the results come by chance. The researcher claims that if the treatment takes a longer period of time with a population that lives better circumstances, the results will be better than those have occurred in the current study.

Conclusion

The current research has been conducted in order to show that there is a significant impact of implicit learning in enhancing and reinforcing EFL learners' linguistic competence. The noticeable progress of the linguistic competence of the experimental group participants in the posttest scores has proved the efficiency of implicit learning. With an alpha value ($\alpha=0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) which claims that implicit learning has no impact in enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence has been rejected. Hence, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) which asserts the importance of implicit learning in enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence has been logically accepted and confirmed with a 95 percent of certainty.

General Conclusion

Teaching English as a foreign language has faced and still facing different issues. Many researchers and linguists have studied, diagnosed and analyzed the status for decades but still there are various weaknesses in teaching English and teaching language in general. Teaching English in the Algerian school requires an immediate step for looking for remedies to the problems that hinder the running of the learning process. Teachers should be involved in the search for solutions to the current issues. As a teacher of English, the researcher has started to investigate one of the solutions that she thinks is worth considering as a pedagogical remedy. Implicit learning is that solution which may help in improving English teaching and language teaching in general.

To prove the importance of implicit learning in EFL teaching; the researcher has conducted a literature review and a quasi-experiment. The literature review focuses on implicit learning as an independent variable and linguistic competence as a dependent variable. The first chapter of the research presents a general overview on linguistic competence as one of the pillar components of communicative competence in addition to the main competences that constitute the linguistic competence. The second chapter highlights implicit learning from different angles; to define it, show its importance and mention some of tools used in it. The last chapter is devoted to the practical part. It is based on a quasi-experiment that proves, by its statistic results, the validity of the alternative hypothesis of the research which asserts that implicit learning has an impact on enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence. Meanwhile, the study refuses the null hypothesis which claims that implicit learning has no effect on enhancing EFL learners' linguistic competence.

From this study, the researcher wants to attract the attention of everyone who is interested in EFL teaching development to the importance of implicit learning. Implicit learning has a strong impact on EFL learners' improvement and it is appreciated by them. It provides learners with a more motivating and less threatening atmosphere of learning. In addition to that, it does not require much time and effort. It can go hand in hand with explicit learning and none of them hinders the other. After this research, the researcher has come with some recommendations that she hopes to be taken into consideration.

Implications and Recommendations

This study has been conducted by the researcher hoping that it can be an addition in EFL teaching field. After an important review of literature and undertaking a quasi-experiment with a sample of Algerian EFL learners, the researcher has ended to some results which can be interpreted in a form of implications and recommendations. These recommendations are oriented towards EFL teachers, course-book writers, syllabus designers and applied linguists. They have been summarized in the following points:

1- Exposing learners to authentic materials more and adjusting teaching materials help EFL learners to improve their linguistic competence and communicative competence as well.

2- Training EFL learners to listen more to authentic records helps them to pronounce better.

3- Training EFL learners to read intensively helps in enhancing their language skills.

4- Providing an atmosphere of learning which is rich in authentic materials such as; songs, short stories and films leads to a better involvement of EFL learners in the teaching-learning process.

5- Making EFL learners enjoy learning eliminates various behavioral and pedagogical problems.

6- Including implicit learning tools in the syllabus and in the course-book helps EFL learners to achieve better.

7- Encouraging EFL learners for more exposure to the target language outside the classroom helps unconsciously in enhancing their linguistic and communicative competence

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THE READING / TAPESCRIPT

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. was the most important leader of the American civil rights movement. He helped unite a nation with his powerful speeches and use of non-violent protests. His 1963 "I Have a Dream" speech is one of the greatest in human history. King's efforts to end racial discrimination earned him the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964.

King was born in 1929 in Atlanta. His father was a reverend and so King had a religious upbringing. He graduated from college with a degree and a Ph.D. in religious studies. King went to India to visit Gandhi's family. He was inspired by Mohandas Gandhi's success with non-violent resistance and saw it as a "potent weapon" in America's struggle for civil rights.

King was instrumental in achieving many successes in ending segregation laws. He led the Montgomery Bus Boycott which ended racial segregation on public buses in Montgomery. He realized that non-violent protest would attract extensive media coverage of the struggle for racial equality. His campaigns soon elevated the Civil Rights Movement to be the most important issue in American politics.

King helped organize the famous March for Jobs and Freedom on Washington in 1963, where he spoke to the nation appealing for racial harmony. His non-violent protests met with success as Congress passed civil rights laws (1964) and voting rights laws (1965). King's friendship with President John F. Kennedy also helped his cause. King was assassinated on April 4, 1968. Stevie Wonder pays tribute to King with his song "Happy Birthday".

Appendix 1: A text has been stuck on the wall of the classroom.

Barack Obama is the 44th President of the United States of America. He is also the winner of the 2009 Nobel Peace Prize. He made history in 2008 when he won the U.S. presidential election. He is the first African American to be President. Obama's charisma, intelligence, and powerful speeches have made him extremely popular with many Americans. He has been very successful with his message for change.

Obama was born in Hawaii in 1961 to a black Kenyan father and white American mother. His parents divorced and his mother married an Indonesian man. Barack's family moved to Indonesia in 1967. He attended schools in Jakarta until he was ten years old, when he returned to Hawaii. Obama majored in political science and international relations at Columbia University in New York.

After four years in New York, Obama moved to Chicago. There, he worked as the director of a community project from 1985 to 1988. He entered Harvard Law School and became the first black president of the Harvard Law Review. Obama taught law at the University of Chicago Law School for twelve years. He became an Illinois Senator in 1996.

In 2004, Obama was elected as a U.S. Senator. He supported legislation on conservation, energy, immigration and honest leadership. Obama is currently battling with serious issues with the economy. He beat Mitt Romney to win a second term in office, despite a poor economy and high unemployment

Appendix 2: A text has been stuck on the wall of the classroom.

Mark Elliot Zuckerberg was born on May the 14th, 1984. He is the

creator of the social media site Facebook. He was a star student at

school, winning prizes in astronomy, maths and physics. He also

excelled in Classical studies. He studied Psychology and Computer

Science at Harvard University, which is where he created Facebook.

His invention led to his becoming Time magazinH¶V 3HUVRQ 2I 7KH <HDU

for 2010.

Zuckerberg excelled in everything he did in his youth. He was captain

of the school fencing team, spoke many languages and was a highly

skilled computer programmer. While other kids played computer

games, he designed them. He created his first network while in high

VFKRRO WR FRQQHFW DOO RI WKH FRPSXWHUV LQ KLV IDWKHU¶V
GHQWDO VXUJHU\.

He also built a media player which attracted the interest of Microsoft

and AOL.

Zuckerberg started at Harvard in September 2002. In his first year, he

created Facemash, a Facebook predecessor, that let students select

WKH FROOHJH¶V EHVW ORRNLQJ SHRSOH IURP D VHOHFWLRQ RI
SKRWRV. +H

launched Facebook from his Harvard room in February 2004. It was

the start of a rollercoaster ride that would connect half a billion people

ZRUOGZLGH DQG PDNH KLP WKH ZRUOG¶V \RXQJHVW ELOOLRQDLUH.

Mark Zuckerberg is now one of the most influential people on the

planet. He has dined with the president of the USA and regularly

attends global economic summits and technology forums. He stated:

"The thing I really care about is the mission, making the world open."

In 2010, Zuckerberg signed a promise called the "Giving Pledge", in

which he promised to donate at least half of his life wealth to charity.

Appendix 3: A text has been stuck on the wall of the classroom.