UNIVERSITAT JAUME I

DEPARTAMENT D'ESTUDIS ANGLESOS

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE IN THE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXT: A STUDY BASED ON SUGGESTIONS

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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DEPARTAMENTO DE ESTUDIOS INGLESES

EL EFECTO DE LA INSTRUCCIÓN EN EL DESARROLLO DE LA COMPETENCIA PRAGMÁTICA EN EL CONTEXTO DE INGLÉS COMO LENGUA EXTRANJERA: UN ESTUDIO BASADO EN SUGERENCIAS

TESIS DOCTORAL

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To Juan Carlos

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Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Juan Carlos, for his love, his emotional support, his encouraging attitude, his enormous understanding, his endless patience, and for so many things which I cannot express with words.

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CODES USED THROUGHOUT THE STUDY

CG	Control Group
DCT	Discourse Completion Test
EG	Explicit Group
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
FTA	Face-Threatening Act
FonF	Focus on Form
FonFormS	Focus on FormS
HA	Head Act
IG	Implicit Group
ILP	Interlanguage Pragmatics
IRF	Interaction-Response-Feedback
JFL	Japanese as a Foreign Language
JSL	Japanese as a Second Language
MCT	Multiple-Choice Test
NS	Native Speaker
NSs	Native Speakers
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NNSs	Non-Native Speakers
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language

INTRODUCTION

Learning foreign languages is regarded nowadays as an essential component in the curricula at different educational levels. In particular, learning the English language has become necessary given its widespread use throughout the world (House and Kasper, 2000). In fact, since the beginning of the new millennium, English has grown in international importance achieving a status of "great national language" (House, 2002a; 2002b) and, consequently, has being recognised as the world language for information exchange and communication (Cenoz and Jessner, 2000). According to House (2002b: 246), the establishment and international spread of English has been promoted by four main factors, namely:

> the worldwide extension of the British Empire; the political and economic rise of the United States to world power status after the Second World War; the unprecedented developments in information and communication technologies; and the recent economic developments towards globalisation and internationalisation.

Considering the worldwide importance of the use of English as a means of international communication, learning and teaching it is a necessity in our society. However, in order to make learners become communicatively competent in the English language, there was a need for a shift from previous theoretical frameworks, which considered language as a formal system based on grammatical rules, towards a more communicative perspective. This change was possible due to the introduction of pragmatics as a specific area of study within linguistics that favoured a focus on interactional and contextual factors of the target language (TL) (Alcaraz, 1990, 1996).

In this way, different models of communicative competence were developed in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), which included not only grammatical competence but also pragmatic competence as one of its main constituents (Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1995; Alcón, 2000a). This second component, that of pragmatic competence, refers to learners' ability to employ their linguistic resources and sociocultural knowledge in an appropriate way for a given context. Thus, the growing importance and increasing amount of attention paid to examining learners' development of this pragmatic knowledge from an acquisitional perspective has given rise to a new area of

research known as interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). According to LoCastro (2003), ILP is the area within pragmatics that is most relevant to teachers, since a deep knowledge of it may allow them to design course materials and syllabi that are not only grammar-based but which are also built around pragmatics and discourse.

Researchers working on ILP have investigated learners' comprehension and production of different pragmatic features as well as the processes and factors that affect learners' pragmatic development in both second and foreign language settings (Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993a; Cohen, 1996a, 1996b; Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Rose, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2002; Kasper and Rose, 1999, 2002). Findings from this research suggest that learners' pragmatic competence is incomplete despite having a high level of grammatical competency or having spent time in the TL community (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Therefore, it has been argued that the teaching of pragmatics is necessary to develop learners' ability to communicate appropriately in the TL, particularly in the foreign language (FL) context (Kasper, 1997a, 2001a, 2001b; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002). In fact, as stated by Kasper (1996; 2001a; 2001b), in contrast to a second language (SL) setting, where learners have rich exposure to the TL and ample opportunity to use it for real-life purposes, in an FL environment learners lack the chances to face situations involving genuine communication. For these reasons, there is a need for further research that pays attention to the role of instruction on learners' pragmatic competence in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom.

Previous studies dealing with the effects of instruction on the development of pragmatic acquisition have addressed different target aspects, such as discourse markers and strategies (House and Kasper, 1981a), conversational routines (Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay and Thananart, 1997; Tateyama, 2001) or pragmatic fluency (House, 1996). Additionally, various speech acts have also been analysed including compliments (Billmyer, 1990; Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), requests (Safont, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002), apologies (Olshtain and Cohen, 1990), refusals (Morrow, 1995) and complaints (Morrow, 1995; Trosborg, 2003). In this sense, we may claim that a growing body of investigation on the effects of instruction now exists, as is also illustrated

by the recent collection of studies provided by Rose and Kasper (2001) and Martínez-Flor, Usó and Fernández (2003), as well as the compilation of activities specifically designed to teach pragmatic aspects (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Nevertheless, it has been suggested that further research is needed to widen the target features being examined (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Therefore, due to the fact that, to our knowledge, there are no previous studies that have focused on the teachability of suggestions, we will deal with this particular speech act in the present study.

Apart from examining the instructional effects of different pragmatic features, another issue that has also been addressed in interventional studies concerns the investigation of various approaches for use in teaching pragmatics to learners. In general, most of the previous research that has compared explicit versus implicit instruction has found more benefits for the explicit condition (House and Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997). The operationalisation of the explicit type of instruction in these studies consisted of the provision of metapragmatic explanations following the Focus on FormS (FonFormS) paradigm. In contrast, the implicit instruction was characterised by a lack of those metapragmatic discussions or just the provision of input and practice alone, without any kind of explanation. Consequently, operationalising the implicit treatment without incorporating any additional teaching assistance has been regarded as insufficient to demonstrate the effectiveness of this type of instruction (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Indeed, these authors claim for the need to extend the theoretical principles represented in the Focus on Form (FonF) approach to pragmatics, since it has been stated that this paradigm can be directed at other aspects apart from grammar, such as phonology, vocabulary, discourse or pragmatics (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1997; Doughty and Williams, 1998a; Alcón and Codina, 2002; García-Mayo and Alcón, 2002; Alcón, 2004).

Regarding pragmatics, only a few studies have operationalised FonF by employing the implicit techniques of input enhancement (Fukuya and Clark, 2001) and recasts (Fukuya and Zhang, 2002). However, the results from the first study were inconclusive and the second study did not compare different teaching methods. For this reason, in an attempt to shed more light on the effects exerted on the acquisition of pragmatic competence by

different treatments based on well-established instructional paradigms and cognitive processing theories (Kasper and Rose, 2002), our study aims to compare two teaching approaches: explicit and implicit instruction. On the one hand, the explicit instruction condition has received metapragmatic explanations by following the principles established in FonFormS. On the other hand, the implicit type of instruction has been operationalised by adopting a combination of two implicit techniques from the FonF paradigm, namely those of input enhancement and recasts.

Additionally, most of the studies focusing on the role of instruction, which have been mentioned above, have dealt exclusively with learners' production of the specific aspect being examined. In fact, only a few studies have paid attention to instructional effects on learners' awareness or comprehension of a particular pragmatic feature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Fukuya and Clark, 2001) and none has examined both production and awareness aspects with the same group of participants. Similarly, scant research has been conducted on the effects of instruction on learners' confidence regarding their pragmatic competence. To our knowledge, only the studies carried out by Takahashi (2001) and Fukuya and Zhang (2002) have investigated learners' level of confidence about their production of requests. However, no studies have explored learners' confidence when assessing the appropriateness of a given speech act in a specific communicative situation. Taking all these issues into account, we decided to address the three abilities of production, awareness and confidence in our study.

The four abovementioned aspects, namely (1) the need to further examine the effects of instruction in EFL contexts; (2) the focus on other pragmatic learning targets, such as suggestions; (3) the investigation of the effectiveness of different teaching approaches, that is explicit and implicit treatments represented by the FonFormS and FonF paradigms; and (4) the need to deal with different aspects of learners' pragmatic competence, such as production, awareness and confidence, have been the motivation of our study. In particular, we aim to provide insights into the effects of instruction as well as the effectiveness of different treatments on the development of learners' pragmatic competence concerning

their production, awareness and confidence when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the EFL classroom.

Together with our concern regarding the importance of instruction to develop learners' pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom, we have also focused on issues related to research methodology. As raised by Kasper and Rose (2002), only a few interventional studies have employed more than one research method to collect learners' data in the classroom context. The studies carried out by Tateyama et al. (1997) and Tateyama (2001) stand out as exceptions given their use of several instruments, such as an oral role-play, a written questionnaire and a written self-report method. With the aim of contributing to the scarce investigation that has employed more than one method to conduct interventional classroom-based research, we have employed three different types of tests. Moreover, following Bardovi-Harlig's (1999b) suggestions of designing particular data collection instruments depending on the purposes of the study, these three tests were elaborated specifically for this investigation and consist of an oral production test (i.e. phone messages), a written production test (i.e. emails), and a rating assessment test. Additionally, we also collected learners' questionnaires, which were given out three times throughout the study, in an attempt to obtain their personal opinion and attitude towards the tasks and treatments implemented in this study.

Apart from the need to carry out studies that adopt a multi-method approach, previous studies in ILP have also pointed to the influence that the task types have on learners' pragmatic performance (Kasper, 2000). In particular, important differences have been established between oral and written task types, usually when comparing oral role-plays and written discourse completion tests (Beebe and Cummings, 1996; Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001). Therefore, we were also interested in examining the effect that an oral or a written task may have on learners' production of the speech act examined, that is to say, suggestions.

After explaining the motivation underlying this study, we will now go on to deal with its general structure. The present study is divided into five main chapters. The first three chapters provide an overview of the theoretical framework on which our investigation is based, and the remaining two chapters present the empirical study that was carried out.

Chapter 1 deals with the concept of pragmatics as a linguistic area which looks at the use of language in context. Within this field, two particular areas of inquiry are examined given their importance for the present study: speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1976) and politeness theory (Brown and Levinson, 1978, 1987). Moreover, due to the fact that pragmatic competence has been regarded as one of the main constituents in the different models of communicative competence (Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995), the next section is devoted to the description of those models with a focus on the pragmatic component. As previously mentioned, placing this competency within the area of SLA has given rise to the field of ILP (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993a). A detailed review of this field is provided, since this study focuses on examining learners' development of pragmatic competence from an acquisitional perspective. To that end, we take into account the developmental research conducted in this field, which is divided into cross-sectional, longitudinal and pragmatic transfer studies. In the last section of this chapter, we present the speech act we have examined, i.e. suggestions. Apart from providing a definition of this speech act on the grounds of previous research in the area of ILP, a review of studies which have examined the speech act of suggesting is also presented. Towards the end of the chapter, the taxonomies adopted in our study for both the head act (HA) and the downgraders accompanying the HA are explained.

Bearing in mind the importance of learning pragmatics in becoming communicatively competent in the TL, certain conditions are necessary to develop this particular competence in instructional contexts. This is the focus of Chapter 2, which is organised in three main sections. The first section deals with the three conditions needed for the acquisition of pragmatic aspects to take place, namely appropriate input, opportunities for output and provision of feedback (Kasper, 1996). Apart from providing opportunities in which learners may benefit from these three conditions, it is also important to pay attention to the

mechanisms learners have to go through in order to acquire their pragmatic ability. The cognitive processing theory (Kasper, 2001c), which is the focus of the second section in this chapter, explains these mechanisms of change and how learners move from one stage to another from a psycholinguistic perspective. Two main cognitive approaches have been examined within this theory which refer to the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993) and the two-dimensional model of language use and proficiency (Bialystok, 1993). A detailed description of these two proposals is given, since they have also been adopted as the framework that explains learners' development in interventional research on instruction in pragmatics. The last section of the chapter is, then, devoted to the importance of instruction in pragmatics, and contains two subsections dealing with the constructs adopted by Norris and Ortega (2000) in their meta-analysis of instructional effects. On the one hand, we discuss the differences between explicit and implicit types of instruction while, on the other hand, the different paradigms in instruction are reviewed with particular attention being paid to the differences between FonFormS and FonF. Additionally, specific techniques employed in each paradigm are also described, namely those of explicit metapragmatic explanations and the implicit techniques of input enhancement and recasts.

Chapter 3 deals specifically with research on pragmatics conducted in the classroom context. This chapter is also divided into three main sections. The first one reviews the different research methods employed in the field of ILP with a special emphasis on those assessment tasks implemented in classroom-based studies (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Thus, a description is provided of the three main types of data collection instruments, namely eliciting oral discourse data, written production data and ways of self-reporting data. Moreover, existing studies comparing oral and written production data are also reported (Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001; among others). An examination of research carried out in both SL and FL classrooms is the focus of the second section of the chapter. More specifically, this second section addresses the characteristics of both types of contexts and highlights their main differences regarding the opportunities they offer for developing learners' pragmatic competence. Considering the benefits that learners in the two types of classrooms may obtain by receiving instruction on particular pragmatic aspects, we present the different proposals and activities that have been designed to that end

(Rose, 1994a, 1997, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Judd, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003). We then discuss in detail the classroom-based research dealing with the instruction of pragmatics in which two types of studies have been conducted (Kasper, 2001a, 2001b). On the one hand, we present the observational studies, where the focus has been on examining the opportunities offered for pragmatic development in the classroom context. On the other hand, the interventional studies, which have analysed the effects a particular instructional treatment may have on fostering learners' pragmatic ability, are also reported. Finally, in the last section of the chapter, we explain the motivation behind the present study and formulate the research questions and hypotheses that guide it.

The explanation of the methodology followed in our study, which was designed to examine the effects of instruction on suggestions, the effectiveness of two different treatments, and the influence of the tasks on learners' pragmatic production in the EFL classroom, is described in Chapter 4. Specifically, this chapter consists of five sections. The first two sections provide a detailed account of the participants, who were distributed in two experimental groups and a control group, and the instruments of data collection specially designed for this investigation. The target forms of suggestions selected as the pragmatic foci in our study are illustrated in the following section, which also includes a description of the particular instructional treatments, those of explicit and implicit, and the materials (i.e. video and tasks) created for each treatment. The fourth section explains how the study was implemented throughout a 16-week university semester during which the data collection procedures and instructional sessions took place. Finally, the coding procedure and statistical tests employed to analyse the data are explained in the last section of the chapter.

Chapter 5 is devoted to the presentation of the results obtained in this study and the subsequent discussion about the hypotheses that guide our investigation and previous research on the topics being examined.

Finally, we include the general conclusion drawn from this research, where pedagogical implications are highlighted. Moreover, limitations of our investigation are

also outlined and suggestions for further research provided. This conclusion is followed by the list of references and the appendices, which contain all the materials employed to collect the data and implement the instruction throughout the development of this study.

CHAPTER 1

PRAGMATICS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The acquisition of learners' pragmatic competence in order to be communicatively efficient in an SL or an FL has become one of the main concerns in the field of SLA. The purpose of this chapter is to present some of the theoretical background on which research into pragmatics has been based. In the first section, then, we deal with the concept of *pragmatics*, its main characteristics and its underlying areas of study. The next two subsections address two of these areas, namely the speech act theory and the politeness theory, since notions such as directness and indirectness in the speech act we investigated are directly related to politeness. Moreover, these two theories affect the field of ILP. Section 1.2 is specifically devoted to analysing different frameworks of communicative competence, namely those of Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983) and Savignon (1983, 1997), paying special attention to those which have dealt with the pragmatic component as one of its main constituents (Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Alcón, 2000a). The following section consists of an overview of different studies conducted in the field of ILP in both an SL and an FL context. In so doing, we have taken into account the work carried out by some scholars who have compiled the research conducted in this area to date. These reviews include the works carried out by Kasper and Schmidt (1996), Takahashi (1996), Rose (1997), Bardovi-Harlig (1999a) and Kasper and Rose (1999, 2002). In the last section of this first chapter, we will examine the speech act that we have analysed, that is, suggestions, which we will locate within the group of directive or exhortative speech acts. Then, on the grounds of previous research in the area of ILP, we will provide a definition of this speech act and review those studies which have paid attention to it. Finally, bearing in mind all the research examined, we will propose a taxonomy for both the head act and the modification items employed with the speech act of suggestions.

1.1 The concept of pragmatics

In recent years, pragmatics has become a very important branch of linguistics, as the inadequacies of the previous purely formalist and abstract approaches to the study of language became more evident. In this sense, the specific area of research known as *pragmatics* has aroused the interest of a number of scholars over the last three decades. The

origin of this term was coined by the philosopher Charles Morris (1938), who developed a science of signs, that of semiotics, which was divided into three main components, namely syntax, semantics and pragmatics, as shown in Figure 1 below:
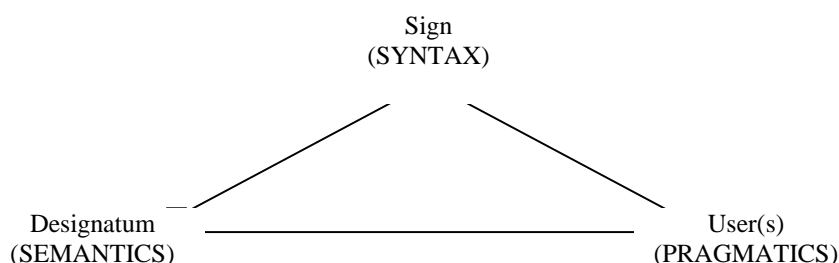
Figure 1. Morris's syntax-semantics-pragmatics trichotomy (Source: adapted from Alcaraz, 1990: 114).

As illustrated in Figure 1, the three branches of semiotics consist of signs, the objects to which signs are applicable, and sign users or interpreters. The first of the three components, that is syntax, refers to those sequences that are grammatically acceptable, since it involves the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the identification of well-formed sentences. Semantics, which is mainly concerned with the meaning of lexical items, addresses the relationships between literal words and entities in the world. Finally, taking into account that neither syntax nor semantics considers the users, Morris (1938) refers to pragmatics as the semiotic relationship between sign and sign users. In fact, as stated by Yule (1996: 4), *pragmatics* deals with the relationships between linguistic forms and the human beings who use those forms.

Although this area originated from semiotics, it was not until the 1970s that the research field of pragmatics, or the study of language in use, came to be regarded as a discipline in its own right. This fact took place on the basis of the work of a series of philosophers of language such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975), who developed what was to become a science of language of enormous relevance. Until that moment, researchers such as Saussure (1959) or Chomsky (1965) had only paid attention to isolated linguistic forms and structures. Both Saussure's concepts of *langue* and *parole* from the paradigm of structuralism and Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar based on the notions of *competence* and *performance* merely accounted for an ideal

grammatical knowledge shared by native speakers (NSs) of a given language. Neither of the two paradigms took into consideration the real use of language in a particular context. In other words, they did not regard the notion of communication.

For this reason, Levinson (1983) argued that the interest in pragmatics appeared as a reaction to Chomsky's use of language as an abstract construct, on the one hand, and as a necessity to bridge the gap between existing linguistic theories of language and accounts of linguistic communication, on the other. By the same token, regarding the fact that Chomsky's (1965) theory of mental faculty was a *competence* theory based on the independence of a grammar from the users and functions of language rather than a *performance* theory, Leech (1983) encouraged a shift of direction within linguistics away from *competence* towards *performance* with the creation of a fresh paradigm. This new paradigm, that is to say pragmatics, paid attention to meaning in use rather than meaning in the abstract, as Chomsky had pointed out. Alcaraz (1990) also adopted the term *paradigm* when referring to pragmatics. This author established this new paradigm with its key features in contrast to the two preceding ones, namely those of structuralism and generativism. According to Alcaraz (1990: 116-117) and Cenoz (1999: 375), the main characteristics that define pragmatics refer to: (1) the use of language as a means of communication; (2) the importance of language use focusing on functions rather than on forms; (3) the study of the processes which occur in communication; (4) the importance of context and authentic language use; (5) the interdisciplinary nature of pragmatics; and (6) the application of linguistic theories based on the concept of communicative competence.

In this sense, a new paradigm with particular characteristics was born and since then different scholars (Stalnaker, 1972; Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch, 1980; Wunderlich, 1980; Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Crystal, 1985; Mey, 1993; Verschueren, 1999; among many others) have provided numerous definitions of this term bearing in mind that the interpretation of words varies according to the specific context in which they are said. According to Stalnaker (1972: 383), pragmatics was defined as "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed". In the same line, in their introduction to *Speech Act Theory and Pragmatics*, Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980) referred to

pragmatics as being "concerned with the conditions according to which speakers and hearers determine the context- and use-dependent utterance meanings". The importance of context dependence was also supported by Wunderlich (1980: 304), as he stated that "pragmatics deals with the interpretation of sentences (or utterances) in a richer context". Levinson (1983: 24) regarded pragmatics as "the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate". In Leech's (1983) words, pragmatics could be defined as the study of the use and meaning of utterances to their situations.

From all the above definitions, we may observe two important characteristics that differentiate pragmatics from any other linguistic disciplines, such as syntax or semantics. On the one hand, particular attention is devoted to *users* of language and, on the other hand, great emphasis is given to the *context* in which these users interact. In this sense, Yule (1996) assumes that pragmatics is primarily concerned with both the study of speaker meaning and contextual meaning. Verschueren (1999) also considers pragmatics as the study of meaning in context, since meaning is not regarded as a static concept but as a dynamic aspect which is negotiated in the process of communication. Context is also a key concept in LoCastro's (2003: 12) definition of pragmatics, this being the discipline that explores "how utterances have meaning in the context of situation". Apart from the previous considerations about pragmatics, and in line with Kasper (1997a), we believe that one of the most elaborate definitions was proposed by David Crystal (1985: 240), who considered pragmatics as:

> The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

This definition has been explained in detail by Kasper and Rose (2002) and also by LoCastro (2003: 29), who considers that pragmatics is characterised by the following distinguishing features:

Meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers.
Context includes both linguistic (co-text) and non-linguistic aspects.
Choices made by the users of language are an important concern.
Constraints in using language in social action (who can say what to whom) are significant.
The effects of choices on coparticipants are analyzed.

We find that these characteristics clearly show all the aspects that are involved in pragmatics. Moreover, apart from users and context, *interaction* also plays a very important role when dealing with pragmatics, since the process of communication does not only focus on the speakers' intentions, but also on the effects those intentions have on the hearers. In fact, Thomas (1995) regards pragmatics as meaning in interaction. According to this author, pragmatics involves three main processes, namely those of the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance, whether physical, social or linguistic, and the meaning potential of an utterance. In the same line, LoCastro (2003) also advocates that pragmatics is related to meaning in interaction instead of forms of analysis that only deal with levels of sentence meaning. As far as we are concerned, we agree with both Thomas's and LoCastro's position, since using language in communication involves not only speaker's performance but also hearer's perception and interpretation of speaker's utterance. Thus, pragmatics depends on the interaction among the users of the language.

Furthermore, Thomas (1995) also focuses on both social and psychological factors in the generation and interpretation of utterances, since both aspects affect communication. However, Thomas (1995) states that the work carried out in the field of pragmatics had only paid attention to one of these factors and thus fails into one of two different approaches, namely the cognitive and social approaches. The cognitive approach is concerned with *utterance meaning* and is mainly interested in the receiver of the message, whereas the social approach concentrates on the study of *speaker meaning*. Sperber and Wilson's (1986) relevance theory, for example, limits pragmatics to whatever can be said in terms of a cognitively defined notion of relevance. Blakemore (1992) also deals with a cognitive approach, since she does not accept the possibility of combining a cognitive and a social approach into one general theory of pragmatics. In contrast, other authors such as Mey (1993: 42) leave out the cognitive approach and focus only on the social one, since for this author "pragmatics is the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are

determined by the context of society". Other studies included within the social approach, in which the focus of attention is firmly on the producer of the message, include Grice's (1975) model of logic and conversation, and Lakoff's (1973), Leech's (1983) and Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) models of politeness theory. The speech act theory has also been criticised as being primarily speaker-oriented, in which the hearer is seen as playing a passive role (Barron, 2003). Taking these considerations into account, Thomas's (1995) position is insightful, as she argues that it is a mistake to adopt an approach to pragmatics which pays attention to cognitive factors to the exclusion of social factors, and vice versa. As previously mentioned, in Thomas's (1995) view, pragmatics cannot be limited to only a speaker-oriented or a hearer-oriented approach rather, both of them should be considered. Thomas (1995) suggests, thus, a social, psychological and cognitive approach to pragmatics. Similarly, LoCastro's (2003) view on pragmatics as social action also takes this perspective. According to this author, pragmatics is related to language in use and, more specifically, as a form of social action. LoCastro (2003: 15) defines pragmatics as "the study of speaker and hearer meaning created in their joint actions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organized activities". This view on social action comes from the action theory developed by Clark (1996), who accounts for both speakers' and addressees' actions of language. In this sense, Clark's theory, in line with Thomas's (1995) view of considering both cognitive and social aspects of pragmatics, pays attention to the integration of these two aspects in explaining language use.

Up to this point, we have dealt extensively with pragmatics as a general discipline by providing different definitions of this term and outlining its main characteristics. We have stated that it pays attention to language use in communication and the speaker's intentions when saying utterances in particular contexts. Thus, concepts such as users, context, interaction, real language use or communication may be applied to pragmatics. Nevertheless, this area of language is not a unitary field rather, it includes different theoretical and methodological approaches which depend on certain aspects of human communication. In this line, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) made a distinction between *general pragmatics* and the areas of *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics*.

General pragmatics

[Grammar]   Pragmalinguistics   Socio-pragmatics [Sociology]

related to   related to
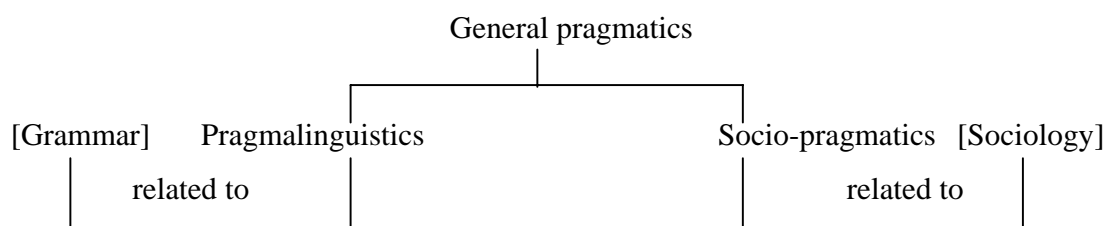
Figure 2. Distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983: 11).

As illustrated in Figure 2 above, Leech (1983: 10-11) regards *general pragmatics* as "the study of linguistic communication in terms of conversational principles", whereas *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics* belong to more specific local conditions of language use. On the one hand, *pragmalinguistics* refers to the grammatical side of pragmatics and addresses the resources for conveying particular communicative acts. Such resources include pragmatic strategies like directness and indirectness, pragmatic routines, and a range of modification devices which can intensify or soften the communicative act. On the other hand, *sociopragmatics* deals with the relationship between linguistic action and social structure, since it refers to the social factors such as status, social distance and degree of imposition that influence what kinds of linguistic acts are performed and how they are performed.

These two sides of pragmatics are particularly relevant in our study, since it has been claimed that although already possessing universal pragmatic knowledge, adult learners need a lot of time to acquire the ability to choose linguistic forms appropriate to particular social categories (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Moreover, these authors argue that the development of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects appear to be especially difficult in FL contexts, which is the particular setting of the present study.

This distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983) has also been addressed by Trosborg (1995), who refers to them as components of the area of sociolinguistics. According to this author (1995), apart from a general area of pragmatics, there is a *pragmatic scope*, which includes the areas of

sociopragmatics, contrastive pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, and ILP. The first one of these, sociopragmatics, entails an analysis of the use of speech acts in relation to social situations. Concerning contrastive pragmatics, this author states that this area has developed into the particular field of cross-cultural pragmatics concerned with contrasting pragmatics across cultural communities. This particular subdiscipline has been examined by authors such as Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) and Wierzbicka (1991). Finally, Trosborg (1995) addresses ILP, which has been defined by Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993b: 3) as "the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context". For the purposes of the present study, we will devote the third section of the present chapter to this area of ILP, since we are dealing with non-native speakers' (NNSs) pragmatic competence in EFL.

In the light of what has been stated above, we may assume that pragmatics is a general area within linguistics that seems to cover a wide range of phenomena, such as deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, conversational structure, relevance theory, speech acts theory or politeness theory. In fact, some researchers (Mey, 1993; Yule, 1996) have regarded this discipline as a *wastebasket*. Of these areas, we are going to focus more particularly on the theory of speech acts, introduced by Austin (1962) and further developed by Searle (1969, 1976), and the theory of politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

1.1.1 *Speech Act Theory*

The first known study on speech acts was conducted by Austin (1962) and later complemented by Searle (1969, 1976), who were working in the area of the philosophy of language. Austin (1962) has been regarded as the father of speech act theory with his famous assumption that people use language not just to say things, but to do things. According to his performative hypothesis, Austin claimed that when people use language, they do more than just make statements, that is, they perform actions. However, Austin (1962) soon discovered that not only performative verbs could perform actions. In fact, Thomas (1995) argues that Austin's assumptions about the direct correlation between

"doing things with words" with the existence of a corresponding performative verb is clearly erroneous, since there are many acts in real language use where it would be impossible, or very unusual, to use a performative verb. Hence, Austin (1962) developed his three-fold classification of utterances into locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. The former refers to the acts *of saying* something, that is, the actual words uttered. The illocutionary acts represent what is done *in saying* something, or in other words, the force or intention behind the words. Finally, the perlocutionary acts imply what is done *by saying* something, that is, the effect of the illocution on the hearer.

Austin's (1962) focus of attention addressed the second type of speech acts by developing a taxonomy of five types of illocutionary acts, which included verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives and expositives. Verdictives involve the giving of a verdict or judgment (i.e. acquit, convict, diagnose). Exercitives refer to the exercising of power, right or influence (i.e. appoint, order, name). Commissives are illocutionary acts that entail the assuming of obligation or the giving of an undertaking (i.e. promise, agree, bet). Behabitives relate to the adopting of an attitude (i.e. apologise, compliment, welcome), and as regards expositives, these speech acts address the clarifying of reasons, arguments and expounding of views (i.e. deny, inform, concede).

On the basis of this taxonomy, Searle (1969) distinguished between propositional content and illocutionary force, which in Austin's (1962) terms referred to locution and illocution. Focusing on the illocutionary point or purpose of the act from the speaker's perspective, Searle (1976) developed a taxonomy of illocutionary acts, grouped according to common functional characteristics, that has been discussed by many researchers. This taxonomy includes five major categories, namely those of representatives, directives, expressives, commissives, and declarations (Searle, 1976: 1-16). Representatives are linguistic acts in which the speaker's purpose in performing the act is to commit himself to the belief that the propositional content of the utterance is true. In Searle's (1976: 3) words, the speaker tries to make the words match the world. Directives refer to acts in which the speaker's purpose is to get the hearer to commit himself to some future course of action. As Searle puts it, directives are attempts to make the world match the words. The acts in which

the speaker commits himself to some future course of action are regarded as commissives. Expressives have the purpose of expressing the speaker's psychological state of mind about, or attitude towards, some prior action or state of affairs. Finally, declarations are acts, which require extralinguistic institutions for their performance.

Although Searle's theory of speech acts has had a tremendous influence on functional aspects of pragmatic theory, it has also received very strong criticism. According to Geis (1995), not only Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) but also many other scholars based their work principally on their intuitions, focusing exclusively on sentences isolated from the context where they might be used. In this sense, one of the most important issues that some researchers have argued against Searle's (1976) suggested typology refers to the fact that the illocutionary force of a concrete speech act cannot take the form of a sentence as Searle considered it. Thus, Trosborg (1995) claims that the sentence is a grammatical unit within the formal system of language, whereas the speech act involves a communicative function. Similarly, Thomas (1995) also criticises Searle's typology on the grounds that it only accounts for formal considerations. In fact, this author states that speech acts cannot be regarded in a way appropriate to grammar as Searle tried to do and suggests that these functional units of communication may be characterised in terms of principles instead of formal rules (see also LoCastro's (2003: 16) view on pragmatics as being governed by principles). In line with Leech (1983), who focuses on meaning and presents a functional perspective of speech acts against a formal viewpoint, Thomas (1995) also refers to functional, psychological and affective factors influencing speech acts. Additionally, as claimed by this author (1995), distinguishing among speech acts in a clear cut category following Searle's rules is not always possible. For this reason, although it may seem that some speech acts are in some sense related to one another, according to Thomas (1995), they are by no means interchangeable if contextual and interactional factors are taken into consideration. The author refers particularly to speech acts that share certain key features, such as for example, *asking*, *requesting*, *ordering*, *commanding* or *suggesting*, all of which involve an attempt by the speaker to make the hearer do something. In this sense, as far as we are concerned, we agree with Thomas's (1995) assumptions that speech acts cannot be classified following formal and arbitrary rules, but instead on the basis of their interactional

meaning and other factors like that of the context where they might be performed. In fact, LoCastro (2003) also claims there is a need to expand the analysis of speech acts in isolation to study them in context, since the comprehension of the pragmatic meaning implied in a speech act must take into consideration not only linguistic forms but all the other factors previously mentioned.

Apart from all these considerations, Wunderlich (1980: 297) has also strongly argued that Searle's typology of five illocutionary acts was not really convincing, since his taxonomy did not account for speech acts like warnings, advice acts, proposals and offers, which share some properties of the representative and the directive type. Thus, Wunderlich proposes four main criteria for speech act classification, which include (1) the use of grammatical markers; (2) the type of propositional content and the illocutionary outcome; (3) their function; and (4) their origin, that is, whether they are primary or natural speech acts, or secondary or institutional speech acts.

Another way of classifying speech acts has been proposed by Yule (1996), who pays attention to their structure. As claimed by this author, there is a relationship between the three structural forms, namely those of declarative, interrogative and imperative, and the three general communicative functions (statement, question, and command or request). This is illustrated in the following example (Yule, 1996: 54):

> Example (1)
>
> a. You wear a seat belt.   (declarative)
> b. Do you wear a seat belt?   (interrogative)
> c. Wear a seat belt!   (imperative)

According to Yule (1996), this distribution entails the distinction between a direct and an indirect speech act, since a direct speech act consists of a direct relationship between a structure and a function, whereas an indirect speech act involves an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. Thus, a direct speech act would relate a declarative structure to a statement, whereas an indirect speech act would refer to the use of the same declarative structure to make a request. Put another way, with an indirect speech act, structure and speech act are not matched (LoCastro, 2003). These two pragmatic strategies,

namely those of an indirect and a direct or routinised pragmatic intent, are claimed by Kasper and Schmidt (1996) to be universally available, since they are connected with the terms *on-record* and *off-record* from the politeness theory.

The issue of universality has been regarded as a controversial aspect on the grounds that it does not account for cultural differences (Barron, 2003). However, empirical research has shown that there are a number of areas that could be regarded as universal. As Barron (2003: 25-26) mentions, these areas refer to the existence of indirect speech acts (mentioned above), pragmatic routines, ability to vary linguistic realisations depending on contextual factors, the importance of contextual variables, the basic speech act categories, external and internal modification, and the range of realisation strategies for speech acts. The existence of these universals is very important in the context of SL learning (Schmidt and Richards, 1980), and particularly in order to facilitate the acquisition of pragmatic competence (Barron, 2003). In fact, the most detailed argument for the universality of speech acts has been supported by the politeness theory put forward by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), which will be addressed in the next subsection.

1.1.2 *Politeness Theory*

In light of the importance of directness and indirectness for a classification of speech acts, we present an overview of the politeness theory, since it affects research carried out in the field of ILP (Trosborg, 1995; Hill, 1997; Matsumura, 2001, 2003; Safont, 2001; Barron, 2003; Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos, 2003; among many others) and learners' choice of specific speech acts. Politeness, as claimed by LoCastro (2003: 274), "has to do with the addressee's expectations that the speaker will engage in situationally appropriate behaviour". In their study of politeness in language, Watts, Ide, and Ehlich (1992) made an important distinction between first-order and second-order politeness. The first type of politeness referred to common sense notions of politeness, such as address terms, whereas the second type of politeness dealt with a theoretical approach within a theory of social behaviour and language usage. This second-order politeness has been addressed by Kasper (1990) as strategic politeness and consists of a pragmatic phenomenon, which involves the

strategic use of language. Within the different pragmatic perspectives to the theory of linguistic politeness there seem to be several views, namely those of the conversational-maxim view (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983), the face-saving view (Brown and Levinson, 1987) and the conversational-contract view (Fraser, 1990).

These three perspectives are revised by Fraser (1990), who starts his review with the historical concept of politeness, termed as the *social-norm view*. According to this author, this approach regards politeness as the group of social rules that a particular society follows. However, we are interested in reviewing the three principal approaches he mentions in the study of politeness from a pragmatic perspective. The first two views are based on Grice's cooperative principle related to verbal interaction, and the four maxims of quantity, quality, relation and manner. Regarding the first view, that is, the *conversational-maxim view*, Lakoff (1973) was the first to try to adopt Grice's assumptions on conversational principles in order to account for politeness. According to this researcher (1973), politeness is a device used to reduce friction in personal interaction. She proposed two rules of pragmatic competence, namely *be clear* and *be polite*, and three sub-maxims: (1) don't impose, (2) give options, and (3) make [the other person] feel good. These three rules are employed depending on speaker's perception of the type of politeness situation he or she is facing. However, Fraser (1990) argues that Lakoff fails to explain how a required level of politeness in a particular situation is to be assessed. The second proponent of this *conversational-maxim view* is Leech (1983), who proposes a politeness principle which has been defined as "other things being equal, minimize the expression of beliefs which are unfavourable to the hearer and at the same time (but less important) maximize the expression of beliefs which are favorable to the hearer" (Fraser, 1990: 225). By means of this principle, Leech tried to explain the role of indirectness in conveying what people mean. He also intended to further differentiate his principles by proposing six maxims related to his politeness principle. These maxims were those of tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement and sympathy. Particularly interesting for our study, which deals with a directive speech act, is the first maxim. The tact maxim is related to minimising costs to the hearer and maximising the hearer's benefit. Thus, this maxim would explain why it is polite to use certain mechanisms to minimise the cost to the hearer.

Although this approach to politeness has been regarded as accurate by different scholars, and has been used to explain the variation of politeness rules in different cultures, it has received strong criticism for having too many maxims and no empirical basis to sustain them (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1990; Thomas, 1995).

We will provide a detailed description of the second view, that is, the *face-saving view*, after describing the third one, since this is particularly relevant for our study. Thus, the *conversational-contract view* (Fraser and Nolen, 1981; Fraser, 1990) differs from the other two approaches as it considers politeness to be an integral part of interaction and, instead of focusing on speech acts, this view pays attention to a discourse-based approach. According to this view, participants in a conversation are supposed to act in a polite manner by following a conversational contract that makes them negotiate the rights and obligations based on their social relationship. However, given the fact that this theory has been difficult to apply in empirical research, we will not focus on it in our present study. Moreover, Thomas (1995) has argued that this view adopts a more sociolinguistic rather than a pragmatic approach.

The previous two views on politeness include the desire to avoid friction in conversation by using tact (Leech, 1983) and the importance of the rights and obligations that the interlocutors bring to an interaction (Fraser, 1990). However, for the purposes of the present study, we will devote our attention to the *face-saving view* (Brown and Levinson, 1987), since it consists of a comprehensive construct that deals with the analysis of speech act realisation and the various factors that can affect it. For this reason, this view has been claimed as one of the most influential politeness theories in the field of ILP.

As its name indicates, this particular view of politeness is based on the notion of *face* (Goffman, 1967). The concept of face has been described by Goffman (1969: 3) as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact", or as Brown and Levinson (1987) put it, *face* consists of a person's feeling of self-worth or self-image. Similar to the *conversational-maxim view*, the term of politeness is also related to the flouting of Grice's (1975)

cooperative principle, consisting of the four maxims of quantity, quality, relation and manner, since the violation of these rules occurs in interactional situations in which participants' main goal has to be the preservation of face. In this sense, politeness is regarded as an activity, which serves to enhance, maintain or protect face. Additionally, face can be positive or negative. Positive face refers to the desire to be liked, approved of, respected and appreciated by others, whereas negative face involves the wish to maintain one's territory unimpeded, that is, the desire not to be imposed on by others.

This concept of face is closely linked to directive speech acts, since as claimed by Brown and Levinson (1987: 60), some speech acts intrinsically threaten face and, thus, are called *face-threatening acts* (FTAs). This assumption is particularly relevant to our study, since we can say that the politeness approach adopted by Brown and Levinson is speech-act based. Therefore, in an interaction participants must engage in some form of face-work, in relation to which they may behave in two ways: either they seek to avoid the FTA or they decide to do the FTA. These two decisions and the different options that can be adopted to reduce any possible offence to the participants involved in the interaction are better illustrated in Figure 3.
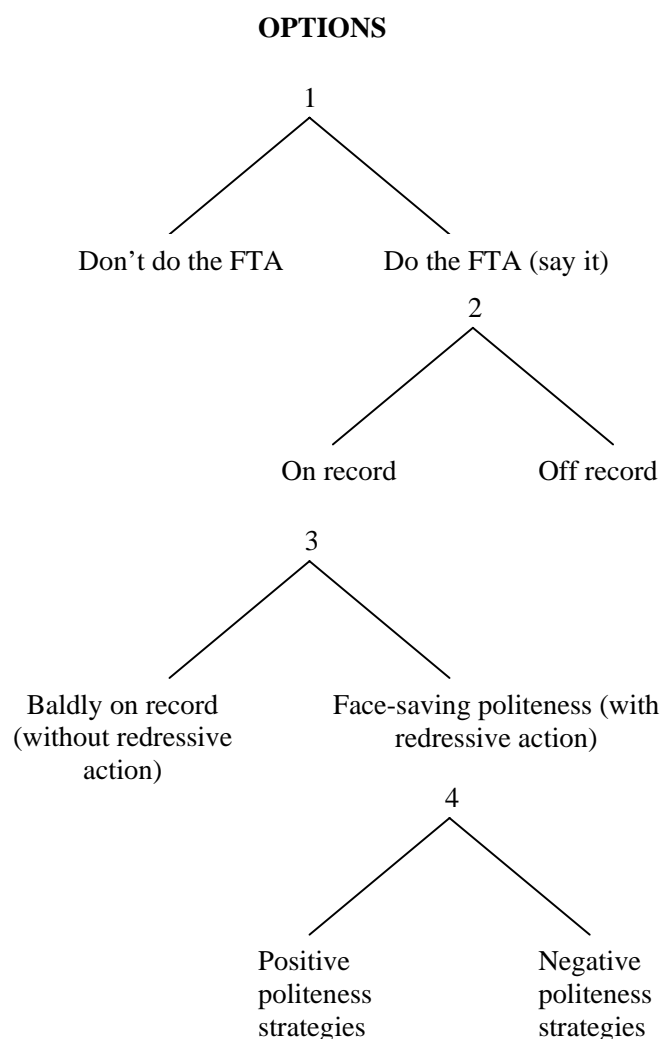
OPTIONS

Figure 3. Possible options for doing FTAs (Source: Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985: 307; Brown and Levinson, 1987: 69).

According to Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), on the basis of Brown and Levinson's (1978) model of politeness, when participants are faced with the performance of a speech act that may threaten the interlocutor's face, they have a series of options to go through, and at each juncture (exemplified from 1 to 4 in Figure 3), the participants make a decision. As we have mentioned, the first option is to decide whether to do the FTA or not. If the participants decide on the first option, that is, to do the FTA, they have to make the second decision, since they can either go *off record*, in which case the participants' communicative

intent may imply more than one intention through hints or indirect suggestions, or they can go *on record* expressing their intentions clearly and unambiguously. At this stage, if participants decide to choose the last option, they have two more choices when performing their FTA *on record* which depend on the use or not of redressive action. Redressive action refers to the effort made by the participants to soften the force of the speech act. Thus, they either make the FTA *baldly*, that is, without any redressive action (use of direct strategies) or they can decide to make use of *face-saving politeness* that includes redressive action strategies. Finally, participants can choose whether to employ positive or negative politeness strategies. In using *positive politeness strategies*, participants appeal to the positive face of their interlocutors by desiring that the others approve of them. These strategies would include the use of in-group identity markers or markers of affection. In contrast to this type of strategies, if participants employ a speech act that poses a threat to their interlocutors' face such as directives, which are investigated in this study, they may employ *negative politeness strategies* that serve to minimise the imposition of the FTA. Examples of this type of negative politeness strategies include the use of conventionally indirect formulae or different means of hedging or mitigation. According to Fraser (1990), mitigation refers to the reduction of certain undesired effects that a FTA may have on the hearer.

As we have seen, given the fact that the participants must adopt certain strategies in order to preserve hearers' face, Brown and Levinson (1987) also propose that the choice of which strategy to use will depend on the speakers' assessment of the size of the FTA, which is constrained by contextual factors. This assessment is based on three variables which determine the seriousness of the FTA. The first variable refers to the social distance between the speaker and the hearer, that is, the degree of familiarity that exists between the interactants. In this sense, as social distance increases, politeness also increases. Regarding the second parameter, that of the relative power of the speaker with respect to the hearer, it is assumed that the more powerful the hearer is, the more polite the speaker will be expected to be. Finally, the ranking of imposition, which addresses the third contextual factor, implies that the greater the imposition on the hearer, the more polite the speaker is required to be. These factors are very important in this study since, as will be discussed in

Chapter 4, the situations used in the treatments and questionnaires are formulated with different levels of power, that is, status is taken into consideration in the different situations.

Bearing in mind the importance of this theory for the study of speech acts, Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999) paid attention to the relationship between indirectness and politeness implied by Brown and Levinson (1987), stating that a higher degree of indirectness shows more politeness. According to these authors, when participants risk loss of face in performing an act such as a request, they must use an indirect strategy in order to be polite. In other words, "the greater the face threat, the greater the need to use linguistic politeness, and the more indirectness is used" (LoCastro, 2003: 123). However, this correlative relation between the two notions, that is, finding that indirectness is regarded as equivalent to being polite, has been seriously questioned. Blum-Kulka (1987) reported that whereas NSs of both English and Hebrew rated conventionally indirect requests as more polite, they judged hints to be the most indirect, but less polite. In her study, Blum-Kulka (1987) also argued for clarity of the message being an essential part of politeness and, therefore, a lack of this pragmatic clarity could explain the lower ratings of politeness for hints. Thus, it may be argued that indirectness is not the same thing as linguistic politeness, although Brown and Levinson's framework regards indirectness as a negative politeness strategy to mitigate an FTA (LoCastro, 2003).

Apart from this criticism, and although Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory has been regarded as one of the most influential linguistic views of politeness, it has also been criticised by a number of researchers from non-Western perspectives.[1] According to Watts (1989) and Wierzbicka (1991), the whole idea of face presented by Brown and Levinson (1987) is biased towards Western culture. In this sense, many researchers from Asian speaking countries (Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1989; Gu, 1990) have argued against Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness framework, since it fails to address formal linguistic forms such as honorifics, which is among the major ways of expressing linguistic

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[1] For a recent overview of aspects related to politeness, see the special issue of *Journal of Pragmatics*, volume 35/10-11 on "About Face" edited by Mey et al. (2003).

politeness in some languages, such as Japanese. Other criticisms involve issues that have not been mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1987), such as finding a FTA which is simultaneously threatening to the face of both speaker and hearer, or finding both positive and negative face in a single utterance. This is supported by Thomas (1995: 176), who states that "a single utterance can be oriented to both positive and negative face simultaneously".

The politeness principle developed by Brown and Levinson (1987), as mentioned above, is particularly important to our study, since the taxonomy employed to analyse the speech act we have examined has been constructed on the basis of this politeness theory, as it distinguishes between *on record* (direct strategies) and *off record* (indirect strategies). Moreover, as they are claimed to be universal, they are closely related to the two pragmatic strategies, namely those of an indirect and a direct or routinised pragmatic intent, which have also been claimed by Kasper and Schmidt (1996) as universally available (see previous subsection on speech act theory).

Nevertheless, as White (1993) states, when dealing with learners of an FL, which is our case, particular care has to be taken, since these learners know the rules of politeness of their own language and culture. Thus, if they attempt to transfer their native conventions to the TL, a pragmalinguistic failure may occur (Thomas, 1983) and they may be misunderstood or even interpreted as being rude. For this reason, as suggested by Thomas (1995: 157), "it is not the linguistic form alone which renders the speech act polite or impolite, but the linguistic form + the context of utterance + the relationship between the speaker and the hearer". We will take all these considerations into account since we are going to deal with a directive speech act, that of suggestion. However, before tackling this speech act, we will devote the next section to the study of pragmatic competence as an integral part of learners' communicative competence.

As has been mentioned earlier in this chapter, there was a shift of emphasis from an almost exclusive concern with formal aspects of language (structural linguistics and transformational generative grammar) in the 1960s to a growing interest in language use in the 1970s and the 1980s. In this sense, instead of viewing the language system in isolation, researchers of various linguistic disciplines, such as sociolinguistics, psychology, discourse analysis and the ethnography of speaking, attempted to relate language to extralinguistic factors and explore the nature of communication. This change of emphasis provided the grounds for the communicative approach to language teaching, which had communicative competence as a key concept. Thus, the construct communicative competence is particularly relevant in the field of SLA, since the main aim in an FL classroom is for learners to become communicatively competent in the TL.

The term known as competence is associated to transformational generative grammar, whose main researcher was Chomsky (1965) and who distinguished between *competence* and *performance*. Competence refers to the linguistic system that an ideal native speaker (NS) of a given language has, whereas performance is related to psychological factors that are involved in the perception and production of speech. Although he coined both terms, Chomsky was only interested in the language system and not in its use. In this sense, he only paid attention to the first term focusing on isolated sentences and the real use of language in context was left aside. In Chomsky's (1965: 3) terms:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily 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, shifts of attention and interests, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

Chomsky's assumptions of a model language spoken by NSs was criticised by many linguists, psychologists, sociolinguists and anthropologists, who argued that he only focused on a theory of grammar without considering the appropriateness of the sociocultural features of an utterance. Therefore, authors such as Campbell and Wales (1970) and Hymes (1971, 1972) reacted against this theory and proposed what has been widely known as communicative competence, that is to say, a broader notion of the term

originated by Chomsky which included not only grammatical aspects but also contextual ones. According to Campbell and Wales (1970: 247), "the most important linguistic ability is to produce or understand utterances not so much grammatical but appropriate to the context in which they are made", and in Hymes's (1972: 277) terms, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless". This author (1972) paid attention to the real speaker-listener in social interaction and proposed a theory of communicative competence consisting of four different aspects of knowledge:

- whether something is formally *possible*;
- whether something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
- whether something is *appropriate* in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
- whether something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails.

Therefore, in Hymes's (1972) theory of communicative competence there was an integration of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence. Moreover, his work clearly exemplified a shift away from the study of language as a system in isolation towards the study of language as communication, since he focused on language in actual performance. In this line, the concept of communicative competence is in many aspects different from Chomsky's model of linguistic competence. As Cenoz (1999) states, one of the basic differences is that linguistic competence is a static concept based on grammatical rules and related to individuals, that is to say, concrete monolingual NSs. In contrast, communicative competence is a social and dynamic concept based on the negotiation of meaning between two or more speakers. Savignon (1983; 1997: 14-15) also proposed five main characteristics of communicative competence stating that it (1) is a dynamic concept; (2) applies to both written and spoken language; (3) is context specific; (4) implies a difference between competence and performance; and (5) is relative. This last feature is also particularly important since, according to Savignon, communicative competence is not absolute but depends on the cooperation of all the participants. The author emphasises the negotiative nature of communication, an aspect that was missing in Chomsky's view of the competence-performance dichotomy. In this sense, similarly to Hymes, Savignon (1997) also deals with the social aspect that underlies competence in communication and in which interaction is a key factor.

The term of communicative competence has also had an important influence in the field of SLA, since it has been the basis for the teaching approach known as communicative language teaching. It is for this reason that different scholars have attempted to define the specific components that make up the construct of communicative competence. Among the different constituents, the pragmatic component is essential in the context of EFL, since it is very important to teach sentences not only in grammatical terms, but also in appropriateness to the situation or context where the utterance is taking place. In this sense, the most representative models analysing the components integrated in the framework of communicative competence belong to the field of SLA.

The first such model was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and further developed by Canale (1983). According to these authors, communicative competence is made up of four main competencies: grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence,[2] which may be illustrated as follows:

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │  Communicative  │
                    │   Competence    │
                    └────────┬────────┘
        ┌──────────┬─────────┼─────────┬──────────┐
  ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐
  │Grammatical│ │Sociolinguistic│ │Strategic│ │Discourse│
  │competence │ │competence │ │competence│ │competence│
  └──────────┘ └──────────┘ └──────────┘ └──────────┘
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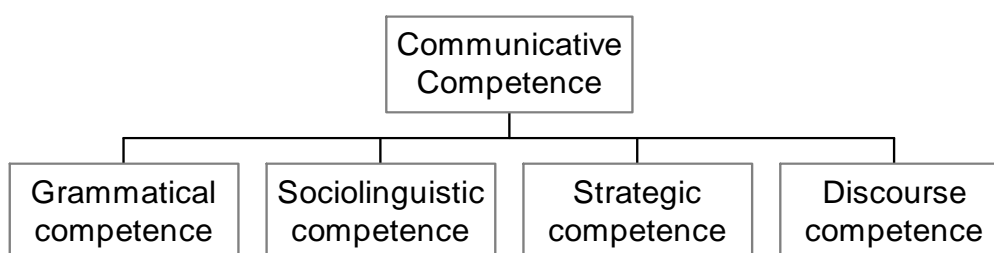
Figure 4. Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) model of communicative competence (Source: Cenoz, 1996: 104).

Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, semantics, phonology, syntax and sentence-grammar. The authors divide sociolinguistic competence into two sets of rules, namely those of rules of use and rules of discourse, which are crucial in interpreting utterances for social meaning. The first of these relate to the appropriateness of utterances with respect to the components of communicative events, whereas the second are regarded in terms of cohesion and coherence. The third component, that of strategic competence, consists of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which may be used to compensate for breakdowns in communication. Three

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[2] This fourth competence was added by Canale in 1983.

years later, Canale (1983) revised the above model of communicative competence and made a basic distinction between *communicative competence*, which refers to the underlying knowledge of the rules of communication, and *actual communication*, which implies the use of this knowledge in real acts of communication. The main change established by Canale (1983) from the original model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) deals with the separation of discourse from sociolinguistic competence. According to this author, the latter would only include the sociocultural rules of use, while discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text (Canale, 1983). In this sense, the unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning.

Savignon (1983, 1997, 2001) also put forward a model of communicative competence represented as an inverted pyramid, as can be seen in Figure 5. According to this author, communicative competence, similar to the previous model outlined above, also includes four types of competencies, namely those of grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competencies.
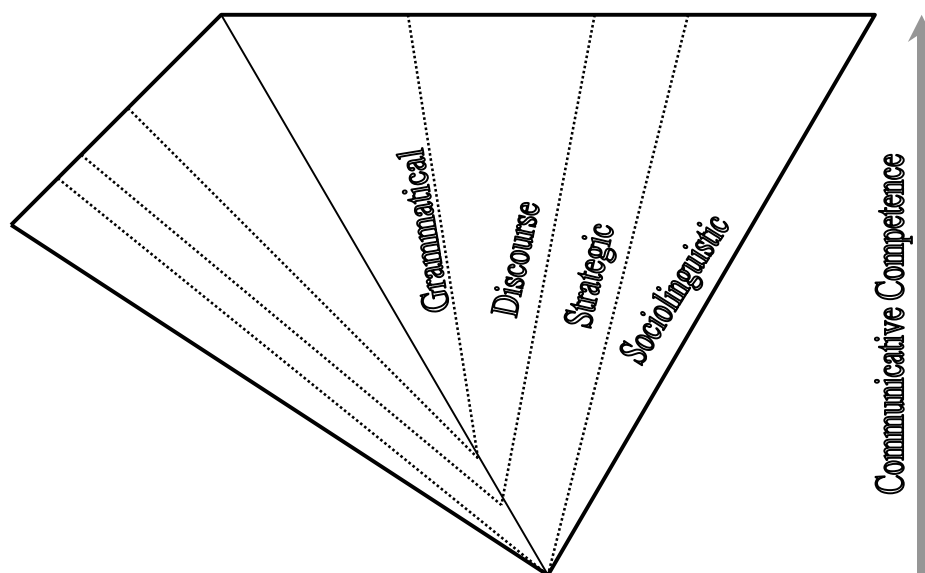
Figure 5. Savignon's (1983; 1997: 49) components of communicative competence.

As can be observed in the figure above, Savignon addresses the same four components of communicative competence previously described in the model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). However, what it is relevant about Savignon's model is her concept of interaction among the four competencies. According to this author, the fact that the each component has a different size allows her to demonstrate that communicative competence is greater than the rest of the components, especially the grammatical one. In fact, she argues that a measure of both sociolinguistic and strategic competencies, without any knowledge of grammatical competence, can contribute to increase someone's communicative competence (i.e. without the use of language, a person can communicate through gestures or facial expressions). Contrary to the previous model by Canale and Swain (1980), which paid no attention to the relationship between the four competencies, Savignon (1983, 1997) suggests that the interrelation among the four components proposed in her inverted pyramid is essential in order to produce an increase in communicative competence. As she stated (2001: 17), "an increase in one component interacts with other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence".

Criticism of the models of communicative competence analysed so far has been made on the basis that they do not take into consideration the importance of the pragmatic component. In fact, Schachter (1990) points out that the framework proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) does not sufficiently distinguish between sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. In fact, this author (1990: 42) asks: "Where does pragmatics fit into the Canale and Swain framework? Is it assumed not to exist?" Consequently, although it may be argued that Canale (1983) considered pragmatics as an area within sociolinguistic competence, similar to Savignon (1983, 1997), Bachman (1990) was the first researcher to explicitly divide language knowledge into organisational and pragmatic competence, as shown in Figure 6.
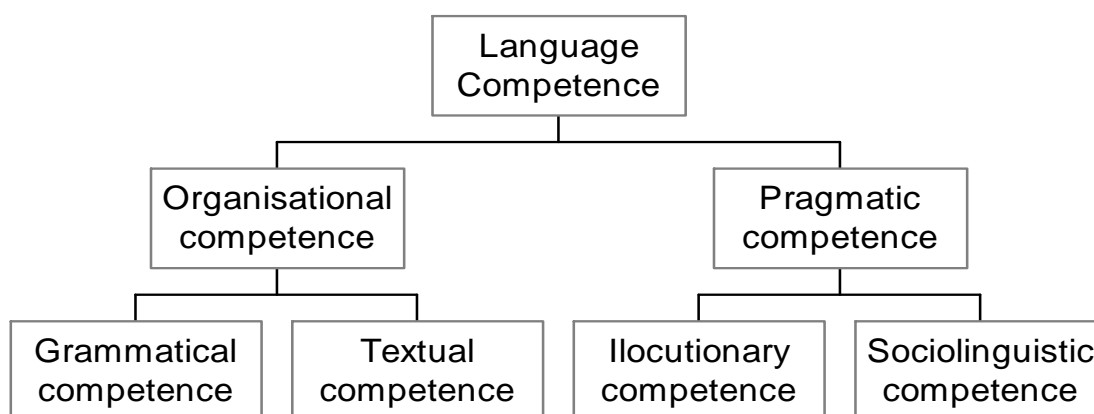
Figure 6. Bachman's (1990: 87) model of communicative competence.

According to Bachman (1990), organisational competence implies the control of the formal structure of language in order to produce or recognise grammatically correct sentences, to understand their propositional content and to order them to form texts. This organisational competence is subdivided into two types of abilities (as shown in Figure 4 above). On the one hand, grammatical competence, similar to that proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Savignon (1983), consists of a number of independent constituents, such as knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, phonology, graphology and syntax. On the other hand, textual competence, which includes knowledge required to join utterances together to form a text, has also been regarded by Canale (1983) and Savignon (1983) as discourse competence. However, Bachman (1990) suggests that this textual competence also involves aspects of conversational analysis.

Bachman's (1990) important contribution, in comparison to the previous models of communicative competence, lies in his second type of competence, that is to say, pragmatic competence. We may assume that the introduction of this competence as a specific area of study has been particularly relevant in the field of SLA, since researchers had already pointed out the need to teach not only grammatical aspects but also pragmatic ones. Consequently, Bachman (1990) considers that, apart from the study of linguistic signals used in communication (organisational competence), pragmatic competence is concerned with two significant aspects of communicative language use: on the one hand, the relationships between these signs and referents and, on the other hand, the language *users*

and the *context* of communication. This notion of pragmatic competence, as Bachman (1990) puts it, is subdivided into two subcomponents, namely those of illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence (see Figure 6 above). The difference between these two subcompetencies can be related to Leech's (1983: 10) and Thomas's (1983: 99) previous division of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (previously explained in the first section of the present chapter). Illocutionary competence refers to the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, whereas sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context. This last competence is similar to the one proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), although we have to point out that for these authors sociolinguistic competence was considered to be one of the three main components, while Bachman includes it within pragmatic competence. To conclude, in line with Bachman (1990), we believe that pragmatic competence enables us not only to use language in order to express a wide range of functions (illocutionary competence similar to pragmalinguistics), but also to perform these language functions in ways that are appropriate to the context in which they are produced (sociolinguistic competence similar to sociopragmatics).

On the basis of Bachman's (1990) model of language competence, integrating the pragmatic component, Barron (2003: 10) offers a working definition of pragmatic competence as "knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realising particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and, finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources". We agree on this definition, since we are also interested in speech acts and thus two aspects are related to this study, namely those of the knowledge of linguistic forms to perform that particular speech act (pragmalinguistic aspects) and the knowledge of the social factors that affect the appropriateness of the linguistic form chosen (sociopragmatic aspects).

Apart from language competence, which is subdivided into organisational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge, Bachman (1990) also considered strategic competence and

psychophysiological mechanisms in her general framework. Strategic competence consists in the ability that relates language competence to both the user's knowledge and the context in which communication takes place, whereas psychophysiological mechanisms include the channel, whether auditory or visual, and the receptive or productive mode in which competence is performed.

The models of communicative competence analysed above, namely those of Canale and Swain (1980), which was further developed by Canale (1983), and Bachman (1990), have been influential in studies concerning the field of SLA, although they have also received some criticism. According to Alcón (2000a), these frameworks specify the different competencies but do not try to establish any relationship among their constituents. As we mentioned before, only Savignon (1983) tried to show the importance of the relationship among the different constituents in order to contribute to the overall increase in communicative competence, although this particular model did not account for the pragmatic component. In this sense, the model proposed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) has been the first one to specify the connection that exists among the components of the concept of communicative competence, with special attention being paid to the pragmatic component. This model is illustrated in Figure 7.
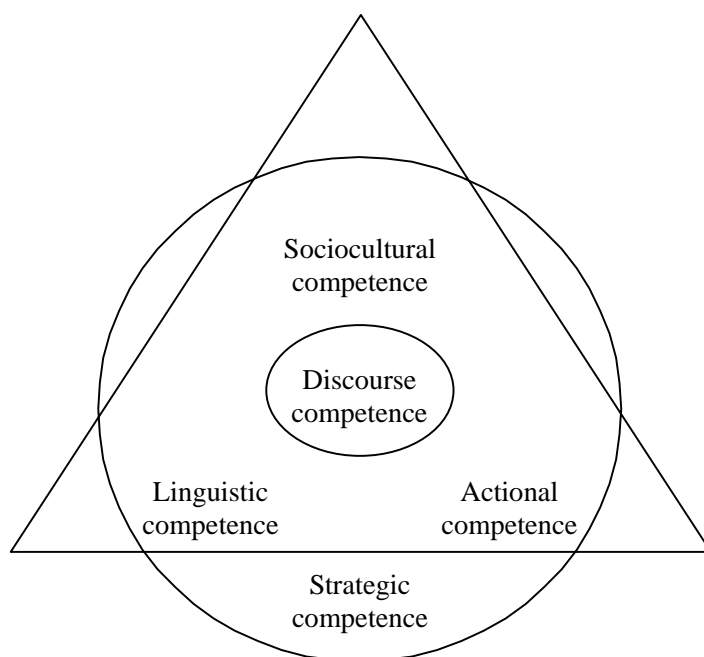
Figure 7. Celce-Murcia et al. (1995: 10) model of communicative competence.

In this model of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) refer to pragmatic competence as *actional competence*, since it involves the understanding of the speakers' communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech act sets. These authors divide the domain of actional competence into two main constituents, *knowledge of language functions* and *knowledge of speech act sets.* They also suggest that their new component of actional competence is closely related to what has been called ILP, a term defined by Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993b), and which is the focus of attention in the next section of this chapter.

The other components integrating their construct are: discourse competence, linguistic competence, sociocultural competence and strategic competence. In analysing them, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) start with the core, that is to say, discourse competence, which concerns the selection and sequencing of sentences to achieve a unified text, whether spoken or written. In contrast to Canale and Swain's (1980), Savignon's (1983, 1997) and Bachman's (1990) grammatical competencies, which only refer to grammatical abilities, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) state that linguistic competence entails the basic elements of communication, such as the sentence patterns, the morphological and lexical types and the phonological and orthographic systems. It is for this reason that Savignon's (2001: 17) adapted model of her inverted pyramid also considers grammatical competence as not only dealing with the statement of rules but also with how to use them in the process of negotiating meaning. The third competence, that is sociocultural competence, refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context of communication in which they are produced. In this sense, this constituent is related to Canale and Swain's (1980), Savignon's (1983) and Bachman's (1990) sociolinguistic competence. In fact, in Savignon's revised model (2001), sociolinguistic competence is also termed sociocultural competence in a similar way to that of Celce-Murcia et al. (1995). Finally, the four components that were mentioned before, namely those of actional, discourse, linguistic and sociocultural competencies, are influenced by the last one, which deals with strategic competence. This last constituent is concerned with the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them. Savignon (1983, 1997) also

granted strategic competence an important role by arguing that this component is present at all levels of proficiency. According to this author (1997: 49), "the inclusion of strategic competence as a component of communicative competence at all levels is important because it demonstrates that regardless of experience and level of proficiency one never knows *all* a language".

As we have mentioned earlier, all the constituents in Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) model are interrelated with one another, although these authors argue that the last part of their model, that is to say strategic competence, could be further extended. This task has been developed by Alcón (2000a) in her proposal for a model of communicative competence. According to this author, the models presented by Canale (1983) and Bachman (1990) show us the different knowledge and abilities required to acquire an SL but neither of the two models tries to specify the way in which the different competencies are interrelated with each other (Alcón, 2000a). The author, in line with the model suggested by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), supports the idea that discourse competence is the core of communicative competence. Thus, on the basis of their framework, Alcón (2000a) proposes the following model which is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Alcón's (2000a: 262) suggested model of communicative competence.

Discourse competence	Linguistic competence
	Textual competence
	Pragmatic competence
Psychomotor skills and competencies	Listening
	Speaking
	Reading
	Writing
Strategic competence	Communication strategies
	Learning strategies

As can be seen in Table 1 above, the framework presented by Alcón includes three subcompetencies that are related to each other. Discourse competence is the central component (as in Celce-Murcia et al.'s model, 1995) and includes the linguistic, textual,

and pragmatic constituents. Linguistic competence refers not only to grammatical knowledge but to all aspects of the linguistic system (similar to Celce-Murcia et al.'s linguistic component). The textual and pragmatic constituents are necessary for the construction and interpretation of discourse and in this sense it is similar to Bachman's (1990) pragmatic competence and Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995) actional competence. As far as the psychomotor skills and competencies are concerned, Alcón (2000a) suggests that discourse competence is influenced by the abilities of listening, speaking, reading and writing, which are interrelated with one another in order to use the language for communication purposes. Finally, Alcón (2000a) presents a third constituent, that of strategic competence, which is subdivided into communication and learning strategies.

We agree with the model presented by Alcón (2000a), since it attempts not only to show all the constituents needed to develop communicative competence in order to acquire an SL or an FL, but also to integrate and relate those components to each other in order to build discourse competence. According to this author, this constituent is the central element to be achieved by language learners in order to become communicatively competent. Given the fact that this is the main aim in the field of SLA (that is, to become communicatively competent in the TL), Cenoz (1999) has suggested that it is necessary to use the language in a way that is appropriate to the context and this is also one of the main purposes underlying the present study. Thus, particular attention is being paid to the component of pragmatic competence because it is an integral part of the models of communicative competence analysed above. Additionally, as we discussed in the first section of the present chapter, the pragmatic scope covers other subdisciplines, such as sociopragmatics, contrastive pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics and ILP (Trosborg, 1995). For the purposes of our analysis, we will devote the next section to this last subdiscipline, since ILP focuses on learners' pragmatic competence in the TL.

1.3 Interlanguage pragmatics

The language system developed by learners on their way to acquiring the TL has been defined as ILP (Trosborg, 1995). Thus, as claimed by Ellis (1985), interlanguage entails

knowledge of language, which is different from both the learners' mother tongue and the TL system they are trying to acquire. The term interlanguage was first introduced by Selinker (1972), although other alternative terms have been employed to refer to the same phenomenon. Nemser (1971), for example, refers to it as *approximative systems* and Corder (1971) calls it *idiosyncratic dialects* and *transitional competence*. These terms reflect two different concepts: the notion of *interlanguage* and the *interlanguage continuum*. According to Ellis (1985: 47), the former deals with "the structured system which the learner constructs at any given stage in his/her development", whereas the second addresses the series of interlocking systems which form what Corder (1967) calls the learner's "built-in syllabus".

The basic assumptions underlying the notion of interlanguage imply that the learner's language is *permeable*, *dynamic*, and *systematic* (Ellis, 1985). The first characteristic, that is to say its permeability, implies that the rules that constitute the learner's knowledge at any particular stage are not fixed, but open to amendment. With regard to the second feature, continual revision of the internal system of rules and adoption of new hypotheses about the TL system mean that the learner's interlanguage is constantly changing. Finally, the learner's selection from his/her store of interlanguage rules is not a haphazard process but is carried out in a systematic and predictable manner based on his/her existing rule system. All these characteristics may be summarised in Koike's (1996: 257) definition of interlanguage as "a system that represents dynamic stages in the learning process and that are subject to continual change and modification".

In this sense, the importance of the interlanguage system in the process of becoming communicatively competent in the TL also entails the acquisition of pragmatic aspects. This issue is supported by Kasper (1982: 110), who refers to interlanguage as "the linguistic knowledge system learners activate when trying to communicate in the target language". According to this author, the interlanguage system involves semantic, syntactic, morphological, phonological and pragmatic rules like any other language. However, in contrast to most other languages, interlanguage is typically developmental and can be permeated by using different learning and communication strategies. As far as we are

concerned, the origin of the field known as ILP, which as claimed by Kasper (1989a, 1998) seeks to describe and explain learners' development and use of pragmatic knowledge, forms the basis of the present study. Moreover, on considering Kasper and Blum-Kulka's (1993b: 3) definition of ILP as "the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language", we can realise that the main focus of ILP has been on linguistic action, or speech acts, and this is also the area being addressed in the present study, that is, learners' enactment of a particular speech act, that of suggestions.

The first studies dealing with this area appeared in North America (Borkin and Reinhart, 1978) and Europe (Hackmann, 1977) although, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, the field of ILP is a relatively young subdiscipline within the area of SLA. As assumed by Kasper (1989a), most of the research done in SLA has centred, on the one hand, on comparing learners' interlanguage speech act realisations with NSs' performance. On the other hand, it has also analysed the production or perception of different speech acts in the same group of learners. This focus on comparing NS with non-native speaker's (NNS) performance in certain pragmatic aspects belongs to cross-cultural pragmatics. One of the first and most influential works in this field involves the research carried out by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), whose main concern was devoted to the analysis of different subjects' production of speech acts from various sociolinguistic environments. Results from this work, as well as other studies conducted in this area, have shown that SL learners' grammatical competence differs from their pragmatic competence, which focuses on their inappropriate speech act realisations. Nevertheless, as argued by Kasper (1982), cross-cultural pragmatics has served as a model for ILP research and, in this way, it has provoked the dominance of comparative studies over acquisition studies in ILP, as well as its separation from SLA.

In fact, as Barron (2003) puts it, lots of definitions of ILP, such as the one presented above by Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993b) or the one proposed by Kasper and Dahl (1991: 215) as "the investigation of non-native speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts", have considered NNSs rather than learners. The author states that this sort of definitions, together with the main interest in analysing the use rather than the development

of pragmatic competence, comes from the field of cross-cultural pragmatics. Thus, it has been argued that in order to bring ILP research more directly to SLA research, it is very important to conduct more acquisition-oriented studies that analyse developmental perspectives of the ILP systems (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2002; Kasper and Rose, 1999, 2002). Within this perspective, ILP should rely more on the psycholinguistic orientation that is characteristic of SLA in contrast to the sociolinguistic basis that ILP studies have predominantly adopted (Kasper, 1992). Bearing in mind this necessity, in the next chapter, we will examine the two main cognitive approaches examined in the field of ILP, namely those of the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993) and the two-dimensional model of language use and proficiency (Bialystok, 1993).

Moreover, the importance of adopting an SLA perspective of the study of ILP has also been based on the research which has shown that even proficient learners of an SL or an FL may fail in their pragmatic appropriateness (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2001). As this author mentions, having a high level of grammatical competence does not necessarily correlate with a high level of pragmatic competence. For this reason, there has been increasing interest in ILP in order to examine the possible factors that affect learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence. According to LoCastro (2003: 253), there are six main areas that influence learners' difficulty in either comprehending or producing pragmatic knowledge, which may result in pragmatic failure. These six main possible causes of pragmatic failure are (1) pragmatic transfer, (2) stages in interlanguage development, (3) lack of adequate exposure to pragmatic norms, (4) inadequate or uninformed teaching, (5) loyalty to first language culture, and (6) motivation. Some of these factors will also be addressed in the present study.

Taking together, all the abovementioned aspects have given rise to a substantial amount of literature on pragmatic performance research, but as previously mentioned, there is still a great need for developmental pragmatics research. As Rose (2000) points out, studying pragmatic development requires two types of research which should be incorporated into ILP. On the one hand, cross-sectional studies involving participants at various stages of development and, on the other hand, longitudinal research, which implies

the study of a given group of subjects over an extended period of time. In order to show the research conducted in this area, we will devote next three subsections to the different perspectives dealing with ILP in both SL and FL environments. Firstly, we present a subsection addressing cross-sectional studies which focuses on the use of speech acts. Secondly, we focus on longitudinal studies which relate to the development of speech acts and, lastly, we pay attention to studies of pragmatic transfer which analyse the positive and negative transfer of pragmatic aspects from the mother tongue to the TL.

1.3.1 *Cross-sectional studies*

This type of studies focuses mainly on speech act use and investigates developmental processes by examining features observed at different stages of development (Rose, 1997). Most of the cross-sectional research conducted to date has paid attention to the effects different levels of proficiency and the length of stay in the TL community have on pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a); and the most common population in all studies has been adults. As suggested by Kasper and Rose (1999, 2002), most of the cross-sectional studies have examined learners' production of speech acts, whereas only a small number of studies have been devoted to analysing the development of pragmatic awareness.

Starting with those studies carried out in SL settings, the research which has focused on comprehension and awareness involves the studies by Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985; Kerekes, 1992; and Koike, 1996. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's (1985) study of appropriateness of request and apology strategies by learners of Hebrew showed that NNSs tended to accept the TL pragmatic norms more as the length of residence in the target community increased. Whereas the length of stay was a decisive factor in this study with respect to the perception of more appropriate forms, the other two studies focused on the effects of proficiency. In Kerekes's (1992) study of assertiveness and supportiveness in troubles talk, the author found that proficiency influenced learners' perceptions of qualifiers (i.e. *I think*, *sort of*), as with increasing proficiency their perceptions became more native-like. Koike (1996) also found a proficiency effect in her study of the perception of Spanish suggestions by English-speaking learners of Spanish.

Concerning the cross-sectional studies that pay attention to learners' production of speech acts in an SL environment, we find on the one hand that learners have access to the same range of realisation strategies as NSs, regardless of their proficiency level (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Kasper and Rose, 1999). This is documented in different studies focusing on requesting (Takahashi and DuFon, 1989; Svanes, 1992; Hassall, 1997, 2001), apologising (Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper and Ross, 1996), and refusals (Robinson, 1992). On the other hand, learners differ from NSs in the way they use linguistic strategies when choosing conventions of form as well as their selecting of conventions of form and means depending on social factors (Kasper and Rose, 1999). In this sense, proficiency effects are found for both the frequency and contextual distribution of realisation strategies (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996). Scarcella (1979) carried out one of the first studies which examined this aspect, and showed that learners' repertoire of pragmatic routines and other linguistic means of speech act realisation expanded as their proficiencies increased. Takahashi and DuFon (1989) also reported that with increasing proficiency, in their study, the Japanese learners of English moved from a preference for more indirect requestive strategies to more direct, target-like conventions. A similar development was found in Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's (1985) study of NNSs of Hebrew, although their subjects' increasingly TL perceptions of directness and positive politeness were associated with their length of residence in the target community rather than their TL proficiency. In another study, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) noted that learners' use of supportive moves in request performance also approximated a target-like distribution with increasing TL proficiency. Finally, in Hassall's (1997, 2001) study of English speakers learning Bahasa Indonesian as an SL, the author found that higher proficiency learners were closer to TL use. Examples of this study include the decline in the use of "want" statements, the preference for elided imperatives to express direct requests or hinting as proficiency increases.

As can be observed, most of these cross-sectional studies have been based on the use of one or various speech act realisations. Apart from this research, there are only a few cross-sectional studies which have paid attention to conversational abilities (Scarcella, 1983) or greetings (Omar, 1991, 1992). Omar's (1991) study of greetings used by sixteen

beginning and sixteen intermediate/advanced NNSs of Kiswahili showed little difference between the two groups, since both failed to conform to the more elaborate Kiswahili greeting routine. In this sense, Omar (1991) found that being immersed in the target culture implied the use of more appropriate greeting routines.

Moving on from studies conducted in SL environments to those set in FL settings, it is important to mention that there are only a few cross-sectional studies dealing with the development of pragmatic competence in the context of EFL.

The studies that have focused on the effects of the learning environment on the development of EFL learners' pragmatic awareness are those conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) and Niezgoda and Röver (2001). Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) compared pragmatic and grammatical awareness in different EFL and English as a second language (ESL) populations, which consisted of both learners and teachers. Their study dealt with different speech acts, namely those of requests, suggestions, apologies and refusals, which appeared at the end of videotaped interactions between two university students, a female and a male. Participants were asked to distinguish between appropriate-inappropriate and correct-incorrect utterances in order to focus on their degree of awareness of errors in grammar and pragmatics. Results from this study indicated that there were clear effects for learning context (ESL/EFL), proficiency and learner versus teacher status. In fact, within the ESL group, learners at a higher level of proficiency showed more pragmatic awareness than learners at a lower level of proficiency. Moreover, both the ESL learners and teachers scored significantly higher on pragmatic appropriateness judgments than the two groups of EFL learners, namely those of students in Hungary and Italian primary school teachers in Hungary. In contrast, the EFL groups, either learners or teachers, rated grammatical errors significantly higher than the ESL learners and teachers. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) pointed out that although awareness increased in both groups, there is a need to carry out more studies focusing on both awareness and production within the same group of participants.

Niezgoda and Röver's (2001) replication of Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study also focused on the effects of the learning environment on the development of grammatical and pragmatic awareness in order to determine whether the former study could be generalised to all SL and FL settings. These authors used the same instruments and procedures as those explained before in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study, but dealt with different learner populations without paying attention to teachers. Participants in this study consisted of 48 ESL and 124 EFL Czech students at university level. Similar to Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), the authors found that their ESL students rated pragmatic errors as being significantly more serious than grammatical errors. However, the Czech EFL students noticed a much higher number of pragmatic and grammatical errors and judged the two types of errors to be more serious than the ESL population did. This finding highlighted the fact that the learning environments in each study were different. The Hungarian EFL students in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study belonged to both Secondary School and University levels receiving only 3-6 hours of English instruction per week, whereas the Czech EFL students in Niezgoda and Röver's (2001) study consisted of a highly selected sample of university students who received 14 to 20 hours of monolingual English instruction per week. Hence, the authors suggest that not all FL settings are equal to develop learners' pragmatic competence.

In comparison to cross-sectional studies focusing on comprehension and awareness of speech acts, studies dealing with learners' production of speech acts are more numerous. The speech acts examined involved those of requests (Trosborg, 1995; Hill, 1997; Rose, 2000; Safont, 2001); apologies (Trosborg, 1987, 1995; Rose, 2000); complaints (Trosborg, 1995); refusals (Takahashi and Beebe, 1987; Houck and Gass, 1996) and compliments (Rose, 2000). The nationalities of the participants in these studies include Japanese (Takahashi and Beebe, 1987; Houck and Gass, 1996; Hill, 1997), Danish (Trosborg, 1987, 1995), Cantonese (Rose, 2000) and Spanish (Safont, 2001).

In Takahashi and Beebe's (1987) study, the authors compared the written refusals of 20 NSs of Japanese, 20 NSs of English and 40 Japanese NNSs of English (20 each in Japan and the United States). The NNS groups were further divided into low and high proficiency

groups. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) pointed out that pragmatic transfer from Japanese to English was found in both contexts (ESL and EFL) and at both proficiency levels, although Japanese ESL learners approximated NS norms better than EFL learners in their productions of refusals. In another study, Hill (1997) also analysed the requests of a total of 60 university-level Japanese learners of English, who represented three levels of proficiency. The author found a heavy reliance on direct requests for the low proficiency group, while the advanced group employed direct requests far less frequently. However, the opposite pattern was found for conventionally indirect requests, which, according to the author, indicated a clear developmental trend for request strategy. Similar to Hill's (1997) research, Trosborg's (1995) role-play study of three groups of Danish learners of English also showed a clear developmental pattern. According to this author, as proficiency increased, there was an approximation of native-like request strategies, which included the use of upgraders, downgraders and supportive moves. The only cross-sectional study dealing with pre-adolescent participants was the one conducted by Rose (2000) and based on the development of requests, apologies and compliment responses in English among three groups of Cantonese-speaking primary school students in Hong Kong. The author found little evidence of situational variation for any of the speech acts, although he suggested a precedence of pragmalinguistics over sociopragmatics in the early stages of pragmatic development in the TL. Given the need to focus on beginner populations, Safont (2001) analysed beginner and intermediate students' acquisition of the speech act of requesting in the instructional setting of the University. The author focused on the effects of level of proficiency, the type of task to be performed, learners' sociolinguistic background (monolinguals versus bilinguals), and the role of instruction and reported the explicit teaching of requests to EFL learners as playing a positive role. In fact, learners at the two levels of proficiency improved their awareness and use of request acts formulae, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

1.3.2 *Longitudinal studies*

Longitudinal studies have one major advantage over cross-sectional studies in that they provide data from different points of time, and this fact makes it possible to construct a

reliable profile of the SLA of individual learners. However, an important disadvantage lies in the difficulty involved in making generalisations based on the profiles of only one or two learners.

Other differences compared to cross-sectional studies refer, on the one hand, to the fact that most longitudinal studies have focused on learners at the early developmental stages of pragmatics and the settings where the data collection took place were usually SL classrooms. On the other hand, longitudinal interlanguage pragmatic research deals with a much wider range of pragmatic aspects than cross-sectional studies, including not only the study of speech acts (Schmidt, 1983; Ellis, 1992, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993a; Kondo, 1997; Ohta, 1997; Barron, 2000, 2003; Achiba, 2003), but also interactional routines (Kanagy and Igarashi, 1997; Kanagy, 1999), discourse markers (Sawyer, 1992), conversational ability (Schmidt and Frota, 1986), implicature comprehension (Bouton, 1992, 1994), politeness (DuFon, 1999, 2000, 2003), communicative and pragmatic competence (Siegal, 1994, 1996; Cohen, 1997), listener responses (Ohta, 1999, 2001a, 2001b) and modality in disagreements (Salsbury and Bardovi-Harlig, 2000a, 2000b).

The three studies conducted by Schmidt (1983), Ellis (1992) and Achiba (2003) took place in an ESL context and involved the interlanguage development of a particular speech act, that is, requesting. Schmidt's (1983) three-year study of Wes, a Japanese adult learner of English, offered some insight on aspects of Wes's acquisition of pragmatics. At the beginning of the study, Wes's use of directives was very limited, the use of requestive markers such as *please* was more frequent, and he associated the verb morpheme *-ing* with requestive force (*sitting* for "let's sit"). By the end of the observation period, some improvements were seen, as he frequently used imperatives, the incorrect utilisation of *-ing* had disappeared, routines were used productively, and his directives were generally much more elaborated. Ellis's (1992) two-year study of the requests of two learners of English (aged 10 and 11) in a classroom setting also dealt with pragmatic development. The directives produced by his subjects were initially characterised by propositional incompleteness, which over time diminished considerably as well as their use of direct requests. In contrast, their use of conventionally indirect requests increased over time.

Achiba's (2003) recent study also involved a beginning learner, that is, Achiba's seven-year-old daughter called Yao. Achiba observed Yao's acquisition of requesting over a period of seventeen months and described how she experienced four different stages of development. Her pragmatic development when requesting became more refined as she went through the different stages, thus achieving the ability to fine-tune the force of requests and even using two hinting strategies. Moreover, Yao was also able to vary the forms and strategies employed for requesting as her linguistic knowledge and sociocultural perceptions increased, as well as drawing on a developmental pattern when requesting depending on sociopragmatic factors.

Focusing on a different speech act, namely that of suggestions and rejections, and also turning from beginning to advanced ESL learners, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993a) carried out a study of the development of suggestions and rejections by NNSs of English in the context of academic advising sessions. Their results revealed an interesting pattern of development which seemed to favour sociopragmatics over pragmalinguistics, since the participants' competence increased over time, although they still did not know how to mitigate their speech act realisations. Another relevant finding from their study relates to the taxonomy employed by the authors to analyse their data, as they focused on the relationship between the speakers' status and the appropriateness of certain realisation strategies to a specific context. This use of congruent speech acts with the expected role of participants in a given situation is regarded as the Maxim of Congruence (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990), which may be defined as "make your contribution congruent with your status" (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993a: 281). In addition, this maxim is described on the grounds of six status-preserving strategies referred to as: (1) appear congruent, use the form of a congruent speech act where possible; (2) mark your contribution linguistically, use mitigators; (3) timing, do not begin with a non-congruent contribution; (4) frequency, avoid frequent noncongruent turns; (5) be brief; and (6) use appropriate content. With regard to this, according to this maxim, the authors state that in the particular academic setting of an advising session, certain speech acts are congruent with the teacher's status, whereas others apply to the student's role. As far as we are

concerned, this taxonomy is particularly important, since it addresses the appropriate speech acts to be used in a classroom setting.

Moving on to the longitudinal studies conducted in FL settings, we may say that most of the studies have been set in Japanese foreign language (JFL) classrooms (Cohen, 1997; Kanagy and Igarashi, 1997; Ohta, 1997, 1999, 2001a, 2001b; Kanagy, 1999). Regarding Cohen's (1997) study, and similar to the method employed in Schmidt and Frota's (1986) investigation of Schmidt's own acquisition of Brazilian Portuguese, the author also kept a diary and developed a study based on his own learning of Japanese during a course lasting a semester. Although he acquired some ability to perform such speech acts as requests, expressions of gratitude and apologies, by the end of the course his pragmatic ability did not reach his expectations. The studies by Kanagy and Igarashi (1997) and Kanagy (1999) took place in a Japanese immersion kindergarten where the authors analysed children's acquisition of pragmatic routines. Results showed that children increased their use of spontaneous utterances after seven weeks of immersion. The studies conducted by Ohta (1997, 1999, 2001a, 2001b) also illustrate the development of different pragmatic aspects, such as affective particles or the productive use of *ne*, and provide evidence for language socialisation as a framework to acquire pragmatics in the FL classroom.

A different TL, German, was addressed in the studies by Barron (2000, 2003), who examined the development of pragmatic competence in a group of Irish students of German during an academic year in the target speech community, thus, analysing the effects of study abroad. Barron's (2000) first study dealt with pragmalinguistic issues relating to requests, that is, internal modification, whereas her most recent study (2003) has analysed not only internal modification but also discourse aspects and learners' pragmatic competence in realisations of requests, offers and refusals of offers. In both of them, results have shown that the period of study abroad had a positive effect on learners' pragmatic development.

1.3.3 *Studies of pragmatic transfer*

According to Kasper (1992: 207), pragmatic transfer can be defined as "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than [the TL] on their comprehension, production and learning of pragmatic information [in the TL]". Thus, we can say that pragmatic transfer refers to the influence from learners' mother tongue and culture on their interlanguage pragmatic knowledge and performance (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993b). Most of the studies dealing with pragmatic transfer have been based on negative rather than on positive transfer, since positive transfer refers to the use of the same pragmatic feature in both learners' mother tongue and the TL. Due to the fact that this process entails no problems, most studies have paid attention to negative transfer. The interlanguage pragmatic studies based on negative transfer have investigated both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic levels. On the one hand, the studies carried out by Cohen and Olshtain (1981), Blum-Kulka (1982), Olshtain (1983), House (1988), García (1989), Olshtain and Cohen (1989), Wolfson (1989), Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990), Robinson (1992), Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) and Takahashi and Beebe (1993) have all addressed sociopragmatic transfer, which refers to transfer in learners' awareness of a particular speech act being appropriate to the context in which it is performed (Takahashi, 1996). On the other hand, studies examining the pragmalinguistic transfer at the level of form-force mapping, that is, the selection of the linguistic realisation from their mother tongue into their interlanguage, have not been so widely documented (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Olshtain, 1983; House and Kasper, 1987; Faerch and Kasper, 1989; Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Bergman and Kasper, 1993; Maeshiba et al., 1996).

Research conducted by Olshtain (1983) and Robinson (1992) suggested that learners with a universalist view on pragmatic norms might tend to transfer more their pragmatic knowledge from their mother tongue to the TL. In Olhstain's (1983) study, both English and Russian students showed transfer from their own language by producing more apologies than NS Hebrew, whereas in the research conducted by Robinson (1992), the Japanese students did not present a transfer of refusal patterns from their mother tongue to the TL, that is English. A similar result was found in Bodman and Eisenstein's (1988)

research of expressions for expressing gratitude in English and other languages, as the subjects did not show transfer of ritualised gratitude in role-play performance in the TL. Other studies of pragmatic transfer carried out by Blum-Kulka (1982), House and Kasper (1987) and Faerch and Kasper (1989), based on the speech act of requesting, examined mother tongue influences in learners' perception and production of form-function mappings in the TL, that is, pragmalinguistic transfer. Results from these studies showed that no transfer occurred if learners found features from their mother tongue as language-specific.

Similar to cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, the role of proficiency has also been regarded in studies of pragmatic transfer. The first study which advanced a positive correlation between proficiency in the TL and pragmatic transfer was carried out by Takahashi and Beebe (1987). The authors predicted that more pragmatic transfer would occur in learners with a higher proficiency. However, their study on refusals by Japanese learners of English at two different proficiency levels did not show what they had predicted. Other studies designed to test this correlation include those by Maeshiba et al., (1996), Rossiter and Kondoh (2001) and Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003). Maeshiba et al. (1996) examined the apology strategies used by Japanese learners of ESL at two proficiency levels, intermediate and advanced. Their results suggested that the lower proficiency learners transferred more apology strategies from Japanese to English than the high-proficiency group, which meant a negative correlation between transfer and proficiency. This negative correlation was also present in the study on requests carried out by Rossiter and Kondoh (2001) with Japanese EFL learners. The authors found that the mid-proficiency learners, rather than the higher proficiency ones, transferred more request forms from their mother tongue. In this way, the results from these two studies did not lend support to Takahashi and Beebe's (1987) hypothesis. A more recent study conducted by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003), which compared data elicited from two groups of Japanese EFL learners' role-play performances and naturally occurring samples of both English and Japanese requests, did not support either a positive or a negative correlation between pragmatic transfer and language proficiency. Among three possible instances of transfer, the authors found that the high proficiency learners employed more frequently the strategy of *delayed requests*, which may have been due to a positive correlation. However, no

examples of negative correlation could be observed since the other two strategies, namely those of positioning the grounders before requests and want-statements as head acts, were used by both groups regardless of their level of proficiency.

All the research mentioned above proves that transfer exists at the pragmatic level (Kasper, 1992). However, as Takahashi (1996) points out, most studies based on pragmatic transfer have followed a *product-oriented* research method, consisting of non-developmental studies which compare interlanguage performance with data from both learners' mother tongue and the TL. Thus, Takashahi (1996: 190) argues for the "need to undertake *process-oriented* studies of pragmatic *transferability* exploring the conditions under which transfer occurs", that is to say, the relationship between pragmatic transfer and development. Thus, Takahashi's (1992, 1993, 1995, 1996) studies, which are based on an EFL context, were specifically designed to investigate pragmatic transferability. In her 1996 study, Takahashi analysed whether Japanese learners' TL proficiency or the degree of imposition involved in the requestive goal influenced their perception of the transferability of request strategies existing in the mother tongue. Results from her study showed no proficiency effects on transferability (with the exception of want-statement requests), since both low and high proficiency learners relied on the request conventions from their mother tongue when performing TL request realisation. In contrast, as regards the degree of imposition, learners were found to be sensitive enough to this aspect in their transferability judgments. However, Takahashi (1996) did not examine whether learners' production of requests could also be affected by the degree of imposition. This issue has, thus, been considered in the study conducted by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003), who also focused on requests by EFL Japanese learners. The authors found clear evidence of an effect of imposition on learners' production of requests, it being stronger for learners with a higher level of language proficiency. The same authors also claimed that the levels of imposition and proficiency were positively correlated in their study.

After having described the concept of pragmatics, with the two main theories addressed in our study, the importance of pragmatic competence as one of the main competencies that learners have to acquire in the TL in order to become communicatively

competent and the field of ILP being closely related to SLA research, in the last subsection of the present chapter we will present the speech act investigated in our study.

1.4 Investigated speech act: suggestions

The particular speech act that was chosen for the present study was that of suggestions. We chose this speech act for both empirical and theoretical reasons. On the one hand, we decided to focus on suggestions on the basis of the results obtained in a previous small-scale study (Martínez-Flor, 2003) which showed that EFL learners in both High School and University settings had problems in identifying and producing appropriate suggestions depending on different situations. Moreover, we also found that learners transferred the linguistic forms for making suggestions from their mother tongue to English. Thus, we observed a lack of variety of linguistic realisations employed in order to express suggestions as well as the non-use of any kind of modification devices when suggesting. Taking into account these findings, together with the results from a needs analysis questionnaire distributed among students from the same discipline as the participants in the present study (see Chapter 4, section 4.1 for a detailed description of the participants in this study), we concluded that developing learners' ability to comprehend and use this particular speech act in the TL would contribute to learners' overall communicative competence. On the other hand, the fact that the existing literature on interlanguage realisations of suggestions is rather scarce in FL contexts and that, to our knowledge, no previous study has analysed the effects of pragmatic instruction on this particular speech act (see Chapter 3 for a review of research on pragmatic instruction) both contributed to our motivation to choose the speech act of suggestions.

The following subsections present the definition and characteristics of suggestions, the studies in the cross-cultural and ILP fields that have addressed this speech act, and the taxonomies adopted in our study in order to provide a basis for the instructional treatment of our study.

1.4.1 *Definition and characteristics*

Suggestions belong to the group of directive speech acts. According to Searle (1976), directives are speech acts in which the speaker's purpose is to get the hearer to commit himself to some future course of action. Put another way, directives are attempts to make the world match the words. Bach and Harnish's (1979) definition of directives also imply that the speaker's attitude and intention when performing an utterance must be taken as a reason for the hearer's action. Moreover, one relevant feature affecting directives in opposition to other speech acts refers to the necessary interaction between the speaker and the hearer in order to have the speech act realised. As Trosborg (1995: 20) points out, "only in the case of directives is the hearer's subsequent act (getting things done) part of the speaker's intention". For this reason, as argued by Alcón and Safont (2001), when dealing with directive speech acts, the interlocutors' presence and response to speakers' intentions is fully required, since the action will only be fulfilled after the hearer's acceptance of the speaker's intentions. In Thomas's (1995) terms, both speaker and hearer are to be taken into account when producing directive speech acts.

Nevertheless, it is not only important to distinguish this particular group of directive speech acts from the other types, such as representatives or commissives, but also to bear in mind that there are different speech acts within the group of directives. With a focus on SL learning, Schmidt and Richards (1980) deal with directives claiming that one of the most important uses of language is trying to get people to do things. According to these authors, the class of directives include speech acts such as requests, commands and suggestions, the main goal of which is to get the hearer to do something, although the force of the attempt can differ from one speech act to another. Taking into account the assumption that there are different kinds of directives, Haverkate (1984) provides a specific definition for exhortative speech acts which also implies that the speaker wants the hearer to do something. This author distinguishes between impositive and non-impositive directives. The former group includes most threatening acts, such as requesting, pleading and ordering, whereas non-impositive directives refer to suggestions and instructions. The main difference between these two groups involves the fact that the benefits obtained by carrying out an impositive

speech act are exclusively for the speaker, whereas the objective of the non-impositive speech acts is to benefit the hearers. This distinction is particularly important in our study, since the speech act we analysed, namely that of suggestions, falls into this second category of non-impositive acts and the action the hearer has to carry out in all of the situations used in the teaching materials and testing instruments will benefit the hearer him/herself (see Chapter 4 for a detailed description of these materials).

This difference between requests and suggestions is particularly important in our study, since given the fact that both speech acts belong to the same category of directives, it is important to make a clear distinction between them. Moreover, as suggested by Thomas (1995), one relevant principle of pragmatics entails the fact that some speech acts may overlap. For this reason, previous literature addressing directives has already distinguished these speech acts on the basis of the benefit of the action (Searle, 1969; Rintell, 1979; Edmonson and House, 1981; Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Trosborg, 1995). As Rintell (1979: 99) states, "in a suggestion, the speaker asks the hearer to take some action which the speaker believes will benefit the hearer, even one that the speaker should desire".

However, although suggestions are made in the best interest of the hearer, this speech act is regarded as a FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987), where the speaker is in some way intruding into the hearer's world by performing an act that concerns what the latter should do. In this sense, suggestions are regarded as an imposition upon the hearer by affronting his/her negative face (Banerjee and Carrell, 1988). According to these authors, if a speaker decides to make a suggestion several factors should be considered, such as the urgency of the suggestion, the degree of embarrassment in the situation, and the social distance and power between the speaker and the hearer (Brown and Levinson, 1987). For this reason, depending on these factors and the extent to which the situation can be more or less threatening, the speaker should try to soften or mitigate this speech act through the use of specific politeness strategies in order to minimise as far as possible the chances of the hearer being offended (see subsection 1.1.2 for an overview of the politeness theory).

After defining suggestions as a directive and FTA and having distinguished them from requests, we finally need to mention that we are going to pay attention to suggestions as a broader speech act that involves the act of advice. This has been done on the grounds that *inclusive-we* suggestions can imply benefits for both speaker and hearer, whereas a piece of advice is in the sole interest of the hearer (Edmonson and House, 1981; Trosborg, 1995). However, for the purposes of the present study, we will only deal with *non-inclusive* suggestions (Koester, 2002: 169), since we are interested in the fact that the hearer's action will benefit him/her. As will be reviewed in the next subsection dealing with all studies that pay attention to this speech act, research shows that the terms of suggestions and advice acts have been interchangeably employed to refer to the same speech act (Searle, 1969; Wardhaugh, 1985; Wierzbicka, 1987; Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993a, 1996; Tsui, 1994; Koike, 1996; Hinkel, 1997; Mandala, 1999; Matsumura, 2001, 2003). In order to exemplify this assumption, we have chosen two studies from the ones mentioned above. On the one hand, the study conducted by Banerjee and Carrell (1988) focused on the speech act of suggestions. However, in order to provide a definition of this speech act, the authors (1988: 318)state that suggestions have been termed by Searle as *advisement*, since Searle (1969: 66-67) makes a distinction between requests and advice. On the other hand, Mandala (1999) focused on the speech act of advice, but quoted two different studies that have dealt with suggestions in order to explain her concepts of advice recipients (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993a) and advice-givers (Banerjee and Carrell, 1998). Moreover, Tsui (1994) has also described *advisives* as that type of directive speech act that advocates a course of action for the benefit of the hearer, arguing that although the acts of *advise*, *suggest* and *recommend* may have been treated as three separate acts in the speech act literature, they are in fact, different labels for the same type of *advisive* speech act.

Bearing in mind all these characteristics that define the speech act of suggestion, we are going to proceed to examine the research that has addressed this speech act, as *suggestion* or *advice*, in order to provide the basis on which our proposed taxonomies are elaborated.

1.4.2 *Studies on suggestions*

Moving on to the studies dealing with the speech act of suggesting, Schmidt, Shimura, Wang and Jeong (1996) claim that in comparison to the speech act of requesting, which has been extensively investigated, suggestions have not received so much attention. In their own words, the authors (1996: 287-288) state that "in analysing commercials as suggestions, we are somewhat hampered by the lack of detailed studies of this speech act […] requests have been investigated extensively, but the speech act of suggestion, a cousin of the request, has been much less studied". Moreover, most of the research that has dealt with this speech act, as well as those studies that have regarded suggestions as advice acts, consists of cross-cultural studies (Rintell, 1979; Boatman, 1987; Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Altman, 1990; Hu and Grove, 1991; Wierzbicka, 1991; Hinkel, 1994, 1997). Although we are concerned with the field of ILP (see section 1.3 for an overview of this field), we think that it is worth describing some of the research conducted in this area of cross-cultural pragmatics, since some of the linguistic realisations adopted in our taxonomy have been taken from these studies.

Rintell's (1979) study focused on Spanish students' communicative competence when employing requests and suggestions in both their native language and ESL. The author chose these two directive speech acts in order to examine deference when the variables of age and sex of the addressee were manipulated in the role-plays. Results showed that suggestions were less deferential than requests and that the factors of age and sex affected the deference of suggestions only in English. Regarding age, Rintell found that it was significant in both languages, although sex was significant only in Spanish. The author concluded that no transfer occurred in the Spanish participants' use of pragmatic rules when employing the two speech acts under examination.

Apart from the previous study, Banerjee and Carrell (1988) were the first researchers to conduct a study specifically designed to focus on suggestions. By employing a discourse completion test (DCT) consisting of 60 situations that elicited a suggestion, these authors compared two groups of subjects, namely those of Chinese and Malay ESL students with

12 NSs of American English. Results from the study were analysed both quantitatively, as far as frequency, directness and type of suggestion employed, and qualitatively, regarding the use of politeness strategies and redressive forms when suggesting. The authors found that NSs made suggestions more frequently than NNSs, and the type of suggestion used depended on the directness of the situation. Particularly interesting in this early study is the fact that these authors already addressed the issue of instruction by posing the question "What should we be teaching in ESL classrooms that will help students when making suggestions?" (1988: 317). Moreover, they proposed several pedagogical implications by suggesting different steps that could be adopted to teach this particular speech act.

Other important cross-cultural studies are those conducted by Hinkel (1994, 1997). Although the author mentions that she focuses on advice, she talks about "forms of suggestions or advice" indistinctively (1994: 77). These studies are particularly relevant to our own, since some of the linguistic forms addressed by this author have been adopted in our taxonomy and some of the situations employed in our teaching materials as well as the testing instruments have also been based on these studies. In fact, the situations created by Hinkel (1994, 1997) are based on authentic conversations between NNSs and their instructors or peers.

Hinkel's (1994) study focused on the differences between how 31 NSs of American English and 203 NNSs judged the appropriateness of advice in different situations. In order to establish these differences, the author employed written role-plays in the format of a multiple-choice test (MCT) consisting of 16 situations that involved two characters, namely those of a social superior, that is a college teacher with a higher status, and a peer acquaintance with the same status as the students who were involved in the research. Regarding her classification of the speech act of advising, the author relied on the theoretical frameworks established by Li and Thompson (1981), Wardhaugh (1985), Brown and Levinson (1987), Lii-Shih (1988) and Wierzbicka (1991), and classified advice acts into either direct, hedged or indirect advice acts. Results indicated that both NSs and NNSs were aware of the social distance involved between them and their interlocutors. Moreover, Hinkel reports that the NSs made a noticeable distinction between the superior and the peer

by employing indirect comments with the instructor and she also found that, in addition, NSs' advice was predominantly hedged with both interlocutors. In another study, Hinkel (1997) focused on the differences between speakers of Chinese and NSs of English when dealing with the appropriateness of advice acts, on the one hand, and the differences between employing two research instruments, namely those of DCTs and MCTs, on the other hand. The Chinese subjects' responses tended to include indirect advice acts when responding to the DCT situations, whereas more direct strategies were preferred for the MCT. According to Hinkel (1997), responses to the MCT indicated what the author had previously hypothesised, since advice acts in Chinese are regarded as acts of solidarity.

After examining these cross-sectional studies, we are now going to deal with the studies from the field of ILP that have considered the speech act of suggestion.

The study conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford in 1990 was the first one to address suggestions from a developmental perspective. This ILP study was also the first of a series of studies, mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, by the same authors to be placed in the academic setting of an advising session (1990, 1993a, 1996). The authors were interested in examining authentic conversations between advisors and students in order to pay attention to the status congruence between both parties, that is to say, whether the linguistic forms employed by the two interlocutors were congruent with their respective status. They defined congruence as "the match of a speaker's status and the appropriateness of speech acts given that status" (1990: 473). This study is particularly relevant, since it addresses the speech act of suggestions as a non-congruent speech act for students according to their status, and at the same time it shows the importance of using status-preserving strategies, especially downgraders (House and Kasper, 1981b), in order to minimise the threat of learners' suggestions. By comparing the linguistic negotiation of status between NSs and NNSs, the authors concluded that they differed in their pragmatic competence, since NNSs, although highly competent linguistically, did not have the ability to employ the status-preserving strategies in accordance with their status.

On the basis of the previous study, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993a) carried out a longitudinal study which examined suggestions and rejections within the same framework of status congruence. The participants consisted of 16 graduate students (6 NSs and 10 NNSs of English) and 7 native English-speaking faculty members. Both groups of subjects were taped in 35 advising sessions over the course of a semester in order to examine the change over time in the students' ability to develop their pragmatic competence. Results from this study showed that NNSs' pragmatic competence improved over time, as was shown by their making better suggestions and achieving a better status balance. However, students did not show a better ability to employ appropriate forms of the speech act of suggesting, which according to the authors could be due to a lack of appropriate input regarding suggestion formulae.

Although Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990, 1993a) did not provide a specific typology regarding the linguistic forms of suggestions, their studies are particularly important, since these authors identified certain congruent speech acts in a specific setting (that of the advising session) and attributed different speech acts for the advisor and the student. Thus, advisors are assumed to perform the acts of *advising*, *recommending* and *requesting information*, whereas speech acts congruent with student status are those of *requesting advice*, *information* and *permission*.

Taking these two studies into consideration, Alcón (2001a) developed a cross-sectional investigation that also examined the speech act of suggesting within the framework of status congruence in an ESL setting. In her study, the author taped 30 sessions involving 15 Spanish students and analysed the suggestions taking into account both frequency and form. Results from this study indicated that, although NNSs received positive input by teachers, students' percentage of direct forms and the absence of mitigators showed their lack of pragmatic competence. In this sense, Alcón (2001a) suggests that being exposed to the language is not enough to develop learners' pragmatic competence and, thus, she points out that pedagogical intervention is necessary in the context of academic advising sessions.

Koike (1994, 1996) also conducted some studies focusing on whether negation can be regarded as a mitigation device when performing suggestions and on the effects of proficiency in a study of pragmatic transfer. Koike's (1994) study about negation in suggestions and requests compared the Spanish and English languages. Results from her study indicated that the use of the negative in English suggestions made them more forceful than in Spanish, since in English the negative is optional. However, the author concluded that neither in suggestions nor in requests was negation used to soften or mitigate the utterance. For the purposes of our study, this research is important because the author proposed commonly used suggestion forms in English (Koike, 1994: 521), some of which have been adopted in our taxonomy of suggestions presented in the following subsection.

In another study, Koike (1996) developed a cross-sectional study focusing on the awareness of suggestions by 114 English learners of Spanish at different levels of proficiency and on pragmatic transfer from their mother tongue to the FL. The data was obtained from responses to a questionnaire that students had to complete after watching a videotape with seven speech acts. Results showed that proficiency was important, since advanced students understood the true intent of the speech acts, whereas the other students failed to comprehend it. There were not proficiency effects at play in pragmatic transfer, since transfer occurred at different levels of proficiency. Koike (1996) concluded that learners of an FL need to be exposed to contextualised language in order to recognise speech acts at both grammatical and pragmatic levels of use.

Finally, the studies conducted by Matsumura (2001, 2003) on the speech act of advice are also situated within the field of ILP. Following Hinkel's (1997) study, Matsumura (2001) carried out a longitudinal study comparing two groups of Japanese learners of English in two different learning environments, namely those of the target speech community (ESL setting) and their home country (EFL context). The research focused on the degree of change that took place over time in the perception of social status in advice acts. The data were collected by means of a MCT, with 12 scenarios and four response choices for each scenario, which was administered four times throughout the academic year. Results from this study indicated that living and studying in an ESL setting

had a positive impact on students' pragmatic development. Japanese ESL students' perceptions of social status in advice acts improved considerably more in comparison to EFL students since, over time, there was an increase in learners' understanding of how NSs perceived advice depending on social status. In view of her results, the author suggests that learners in an EFL context may require some pedagogical intervention to become pragmatically competent.

In another study with a latent longitudinal design, Matsumura (2003) examined learners' pragmatic development on the basis of their approximation to NSs' preferences for advice type depending on different social status. On the one hand, this study paid attention to the role played by learners' proficiency in the TL in their pragmatic development, that is, the cause-effect relationship between TL proficiency and pragmatic development. On the other hand, the author was also interested in analysing whether the amount of exposure, rather than the length of stay, was also an indicator of learners' pragmatic development. Results illustrated that the amount of exposure was potentially of great importance in learners' pragmatic development, in contrast to the level of proficiency. This finding supports previous research (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a) that has demonstrated that students' having a high level of proficiency in the TL does not necessarily correlate with a high level of pragmatic improvement.

As can be seen, research focusing on suggestions is rather scarce, since there are very few studies dealing with this particular speech act. Moreover, none of the studies previously examined takes FL contexts into account with the exception of Koike's (1994, 1996) studies of Spanish as an FL. For this reason, the present study tries to bridge this gap by paying attention to suggestions in EFL instructional contexts.

1.4.3 *Taxonomies adopted in our study*

In order to analyse the speech act we examined, that of suggestions, we are going to pay attention to both the head act itself and the internal modification devices employed to soften the force of suggestions.

Focusing on the head act, we will propose our taxonomy (see Table 2) on the basis of the two theoretical frameworks explained in the first section of the present chapter. On the one hand, speech act theory is particularly relevant in this study, since we address those universal pragmatic strategies of direct and indirect types (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996). On the other hand, these strategies are also related to the terms of *on record* and *off record* proposed in the politeness theory developed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). Apart from these two theories, we have also considered Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1996) maxim of congruence, which involves the appropriateness of specific strategies according to the speakers' status in a given situation. Moreover, we rely on previous research in the cross-cultural and ILP fields (see the studies examined in the previous subsection) in order to adopt the several linguistic realisations employed in those studies. Finally, we have also taken into consideration data concerning NSs' oral and written production in order to choose the target forms addressed in our study.

Table 2. *Taxonomy of suggestion linguistic realisation strategies*[3]

TYPE	STRATEGY	EXAMPLE
DIRECT	Performative verb	I suggest that you … I advise you to … I recommend that you …
	Noun of suggestion	My suggestion would be …
	Imperative	Try using …
	Negative imperative	Don't try to …
CONVENTIONALISED FORMS	Specific formulae (interrogative forms)	Why don't you …? How about …? What about …? Have you thought about …?
	Possibility/probability	You can … You could … You may … You might …
	Should	You should …
	Need	You need to …
	Conditional	If I were you, I would …
INDIRECT	Impersonal	One thing (that you can do) would be … Here's one possibility: … There are a number of options that you … It would be helpful if you … It might be better to … A good idea would be … It would be nice if …
	Hints	I've heard that …

The first type of suggestions involves that of *direct strategies*, in which the speaker clearly states what he/she means. Direct suggestions are performed by means of performative verbs, a noun of suggestion or "illocutionary force indicating device" (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996: 180), imperatives and negative imperatives. Regarding the use of performative verbs, such as "I suggest that you change the date of the exam", several authors (Wardhaugh, 1985; Koike, 1994; Tsui, 1994; Koester, 2002) have argued that this formula is not widely employed in everyday life since it is regarded as very direct, although the data from NSs show that it is sometimes employed for formal situations. Tsui (1994: 125) also considers the use of the noun to be a very direct suggestion, as in the example "My suggestion to you is to get into that". The use of imperatives are also

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[3] The taxonomy is based on the studies by Edmonson and House, 1981; Wardhaugh, 1985; Wierzbicka, 1987; Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Hinkel, 1994, 1997; Koike, 1994, 1996; Tsui, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996; Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Schmidt et al., 1996; Alcón and Safont, 2001 and Koester, 2002.

regarded as the most direct and impolite forms of making a suggestion (Edmonson and House, 1981; Koike, 1994; Hinkel, 1997) since they have the most literal pragmatic force, as in "Try using this computer" or "Don't try to use this program".

The type of *conventionalised forms* used to make suggestions (Banerjee and Carrell, 1988) still allow the hearers to understand the speaker's intentions behind the suggestion, since the illocutionary force indicator appears in the utterance, although this second type of suggestion realisations is not as direct as the first type. Within this group, we find a greater variety of linguistic realisations to be employed, such as the use of specific formulae, expressions of possibility or probability, suggestions performed by means of the verbs *should* and *need*, and the use of the conditional. According to most of the authors (Wardhaugh, 1985; Wierzbicka, 1987; Koike, 1994), the interrogative forms employed by using specific formulae such as "Why don't you phone this person?" or "What about making this choice?" are typical of suggestions. The other types of conventionalised forms follow the structure of declarative utterances (Koike, 1994). Thus, expressions of possibility or probability which imply the use of modal verbs (Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Alcón and Safont, 2001) have been considered as expressing suggestions (e.g. "You might want to leave this for tomorrow"). Other verbs such as *should* (Edmonson and House, 1981; Banerjee and Carrell, 1988; Koike, 1994) or *need* (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996) are also employed when making conventionalised suggestions. The last strategy, that is to say using the conditional, has been defined by Koike (1996: 264) as "an irrealis clause in declarative form", and also serves to express a suggestion as in "If I were you, I would buy a new computer".

The third group of strategies, that is, *indirect suggestions*, refers to those expressions in which the speaker's true intentions are not clearly stated. These indirect forms for suggestions do not show any conventionalised form, that is, there is no indicator of the suggestive force in the utterance, so the hearer has to infer that the speaker is actually making a suggestion. The use of different impersonal forms has been regarded as a way of making indirect suggestions (Hinkel, 1994; Koike, 1994), such as "It would be helpful if you could find his telephone number". In fact, taking into consideration Bardovi-Harlig and

Hartford's (1996: 181) maxim of congruence, "the impersonal statements […] can be used by students in exactly the same form as used by the advisor". Finally, the use of hints is the most indirect type of comment that can be employed in order to make a suggestion. An example of a hint would be "I've heard that the course is really difficult" (Hinkel, 1997: 14), which should be inferred by the hearer as a suggestion not to take the course for his/her own benefit.

Apart from the linguistic realisations examined above which can be employed to make a suggestion, we will also pay attention to those modification devices that serve to soften the suggestion. These elements are particularly relevant in dealing with suggestions since, as we have already mentioned, suggestions, as FTAs, should be softened and mitigated in order to minimise the threat to the hearer's face.

In order to account for the use of modification devices in our study, we have considered the classification proposed by House and Kasper (1981b), since it has been tested in previous research conducted in ILP (Trosborg, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996; Hill, 1997; Barron, 2003). Moreover, House and Kasper's (1981b) study on the use of modality markers was the first to examine the use of these markers to either mitigate (downgraders) or intensify (upgraders) the force of the speech act.[4] The authors conducted a contrastive study between German and English in order to analyse politeness phenomena in both languages. The data was collected via role-play, consisting of informal situations that varied according to two parameters: authority and familiarity (social distance). Results indicated that German students employed more upgraders than the English, and English students employed more downgraders than their German counterparts. In short, German speakers employed more modality markers that intensified the force of their speech. To this respect, the authors suggested that pragmatic aspects of language use should be included in language teaching in order to avoid pragmatic errors like the one presented in their study.

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[4] The same division is made by Trosborg (1995), who includes these two types of modality markers in what she calls *internal modification*, and distinguishes it from *external modification*, which takes other modification devices such as *preparators, disarmers* or *supportive moves* into account.

House and Kasper (1981b) defined *downgraders* as those markers that play down the impact that a speaker's utterance may have on the hearer, whereas *upgraders* refer to those markers that increase the force such impact may have on the addressee. However, for the purposes of the present study, we are going to consider only the first type of markers, that is, downgraders.[5] Additionally, among the eleven downgraders identified by House and Kasper (1981b), namely those of the politeness marker *please*; play-down; consultative device; hedge; understater; downtoner; "minus" committer; forewarn; hesitator; scope-stater; and agent avoider, we have selected only three types of them that are illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3. *Taxonomy of selected downgraders (adapted from House and Kasper, 1981b).*

INTERNAL MODIFICATION	TYPE	EXAMPLE
DOWNGRADERS	Downtoner	just
		possibly
		perhaps
		probably
		maybe
	("minus") Committer	I think
		I guess
		I believe
		I suppose
		in my opinion
		personally
	Forewarn	I'm not sure, but

As can be observed in Table 3 above, we have included the selected downgraders (i.e. downtoner, minus committer and forewarn) under the broad term of internal modification (Trosborg, 1995). According to House and Kasper (1981b), *downtoners* consist of sentence modifiers which are used by the speaker in order to soften the impact his/her utterance is likely to have on the hearer. Examples of this type of modifiers are *just, possibly, perhaps, probably* and *maybe*. By "*minus" committer*, the authors refer to a type of modifier employed by the speaker to lower the degree of his/her commitment to the state of affairs

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[5] Trosborg (1995) also distinguishes two types of *downgraders*, namely those of syntactic and lexical/phrasal downgraders. In this study, we pay attention to the latter.

referred to in the utterance by explicitly showing his/her personal opinion. This type of modifiers is thus showing the speaker's opinion with elements such as *I think, I guess, I believe, I suppose* or *in my opinion*. The third type, that of *forewarn*, expresses a kind of anticipatory device used by the speaker to forewarn the hearer about possible negative reactions to the act he/she is about to employ. This downgrader usually consists of a preliminary metacomment about what the speaker is going to do in order to soften what could be a potential offence. For this reason, a forewarn makes use of the conjunction *but* before stating the actual speech act. In fact, we found a lot of examples of this downgrader in the data from our NSs' production which were usually expressed by the form *I'm not sure, but ….*

In this section, we have presented the taxonomy of suggestion linguistic realisation strategies and a selection of downgraders from the taxonomy of modality markers proposed by House and Kasper (1981b). Since we have selected some target forms from these taxonomies as the instructional pragmatic features addressed in this study, we have included a detailed explanation of them in Chapter 4 (see section 4.3.1). Before considering these issues related to the methodology of our study, we will devote the next chapter to the analysis of the different approaches and paradigms that explain the development of pragmatics in instructional contexts.

CHAPTER 2

DEVELOPING PRAGMATICS IN INSTRUCTIONAL CONTEXTS

The field of ILP, described in the previous chapter, has been regarded as a second-generation hybrid, since it belongs to two different disciplines, namely those of pragmatics and SLA (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993a). Regarding the first discipline, it has been argued that most studies conducted within ILP have been comparative given its closeness to cross-cultural pragmatics (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989). From an SLA perspective, scholars have claimed the need to conduct more studies addressing developmental issues that affect learners' development of pragmatics (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2002; Kasper and Rose, 1999, 2002). Besides, recent research has illustrated that the acquisition of pragmatic aspects requires the same three conditions as any other type of knowledge in the TL, namely those of appropriate input, opportunities for output and provision of feedback (Kasper, 1996). These conditions will be addressed in the first subsection of the present chapter.

In order to establish a more direct link between the fields of ILP research and SLA research, it has been suggested that more acquisitionally oriented studies should be conducted to analyse developmental perspectives of the interlanguage pragmatic systems (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a; Kasper and Rose, 1999). In accounting for this perspective, ILP should rely more on the psycholinguistic orientation characteristic of SLA in contrast to the sociolinguistic basis that ILP studies have predominantly adopted (Kasper, 1992). Bearing in mind this necessity, in the second subsection of this chapter, we will pay attention to the two main cognitive approaches examined in the field of ILP, that is to say, the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993) and the two-dimensional model of language use and proficiency (Bialystok, 1993).

However, learners in an FL context do not have the same exposure and opportunities for practice as learners who are immersed in the SL community. For this reason, it has been argued that instruction in pragmatics is necessary to develop learners' pragmatic competence (Kasper, 1997a, 2001a, 2001b; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). The importance of addressing pragmatics in language instruction will be tackled in the last subsection of this second chapter, where a revision of the different paradigms existing in instruction will be

carried out with a focus on pragmatic aspects. Thus, the two paradigms adopted in our study will be presented, as well as the specific techniques.

2.1 Theoretical conditions for pragmatics learning

One of the main goals of SLA research is to describe and explain the factors that foster learners' ability to communicate effectively in the TL. In order to facilitate and improve the aspects that may assist learners in this process, attention has been paid to the different conditions that affect SLA, namely those of appropriate input, opportunities for output and provision of feedback (Alcón, 2000b, 2001b). In facilitating these conditions, as Ellis (1994) suggests, it is important to consider not only learners' linguistic competence, but also their pragmatic competence. For this reason, Kasper (2001b: 57) claims that providing learners with opportunities to develop their pragmatic ability in the TL would include the following aspects:

> Sustained focused input, both pragmatic and metapragmatic, collaborative practice activities, and metapragmatic reflection appear to provide learners with the input and practice they need for developing most aspects of their pragmatic abilities.

As can be observed, Kasper (2001b) considers the importance of input, practice and reflection as the conditions that are necessary to develop learners' pragmatic competence. In order to analyse these conditions, we will devote the next three subsections to explaining each of them in relation to the acquisition of pragmatic competence. First, we present a subsection addressing the importance of input. Second, we focus on learners' need for output and, finally, we deal with the role of feedback in the process of pragmatics learning.

2.1.1 *Input*

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991: 20), input refers to "the language which the learners hear or read – that is, the language samples to which they are exposed". Apart from this exposure and being able to hear or read the language, Krashen (1985) also points out that input needs to be understood by the learner in order for acquisition to take place. In this sense, the term of *comprehensible input* is one of the key elements of the input hypothesis

developed by this author. This hypothesis also supports the idea that the input the learners receive has to be beyond their current level of competence, that is, at the *i+1* level. Krashen (1985) explains that *i* stands for the learner's current linguistic level, and *i+1* refers to the next stage that the learner is to attain.

VanPatten (2000) also considers the importance of comprehensible input in SLA, although this author distinguishes three kinds of input that have been discussed in the SLA research over the last thirty years. These refer to simplified, modified and enhanced input. In relation to this research, it has been investigated whether different types of input simplifications (Hatch, 1983), modifications (Long, 1983) or alterations in the way input is presented to learners (VanPatten, 1996) result in increased comprehension. However, in spite of these attempts to analyse input from several perspectives, VanPatten (2000) argues that this research has remained external to the learner and questions such as what happens to input during online comprehension are absent from input research. In this sense, VanPatten (1995, 1996) has proposed a model of input processing that pays attention to the kind of form-meaning connections that learners make during comprehension. A key issue within this model is the analysis of intake.

Corder (1967) was the first scholar to use the term *intake*, which refers to the language that is available to and used by the learner to promote acquisition in the TL. Similarly, VanPatten (1996) has also analysed intake as the result of input processing. In contrast, other researchers (Chaudron, 1985; Gass, 1988, 1997) have considered intake as a process consisting of different stages of assimilating information. In fact, Gass (1988) developed a theoretical framework which shows the learner's conversion of ambient speech – that is input – into output. The model proposed by Gass (1988) has been regarded as a detailed description of the different mechanisms that intervene in the process of SLA. This model integrates five main components, namely those of apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integration into learners' interlanguage system, and output. This framework is presented in Figure 8.

Ambient speech
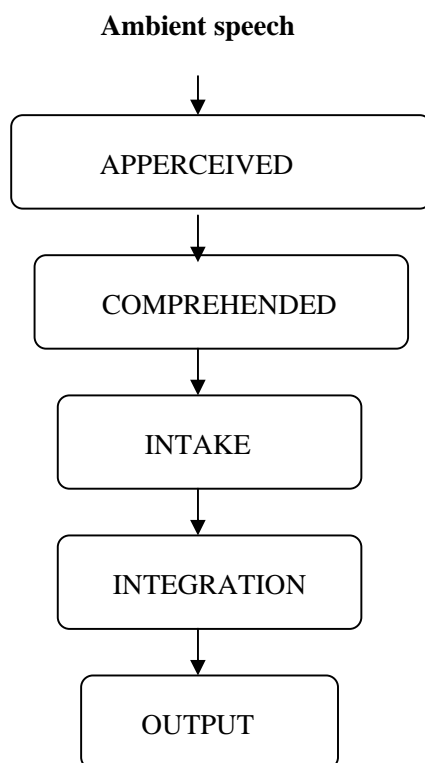
Figure 8. A model of SLA (Source: Gass, 1988: 200; Izumi, 2003: 173).

As can be seen in the model proposed by Gass (1988), the first stage of acquisition deals with the noticing of input, or as she calls it *apperceived input*, and refers to any aspects that are perceived or noticed in the language. This stage is related to the noticing hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001), which supports the idea that conscious noticing is the necessary condition for converting input into intake (this hypothesis will be discussed in section 2.2). However, as Gass (1988) claims, not all noticed input may be comprehended, which is the second level proposed in her framework. She distinguishes between *comprehended input* and comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). According to her, the former is controlled by the learner, whereas the latter is controlled by the person providing input. Moreover, Gass (1988) also claims that not all comprehended input becomes *intake*. Following Chaudron (1985), Gass (1988: 206) defines intake as "a process of mental activity which mediates between target language input and the learner's internalised set of rules". Thus, intake always refers to that comprehended input that is used

for purposes of learning. Regarding the next step, that of *integration*, Gass (1988) states that it is only when the intake is clearly encoded by the learner through different processes, such as hypothesis formation or testing, that it becomes an integrated part of his or her implicit knowledge. Finally, considering the fifth stage in the model, which refers to *output*, Gass (1988) agrees with Swain (1985) that using the language forces the learners to make detailed analyses of the grammar, a factor which is important in moving the learner from comprehended input into intake. For this reason, Gass (1988) considers that language production plays an active role in the acquisition process.

In line with this author, we also believe that apart from noticing and comprehending input, making learners use the language is essential for facilitating learners' acquisition of the TL. This aspect refers to *output*, which is the second theoretical condition for learning and will be addressed in the next subsection. However, before dealing with it, we will examine more specifically the importance of presenting rich and contextually appropriate input (Kasper, 1996, 2001a; Judd, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001) to develop learners' pragmatic ability in the TL. In fact, according to Ellis (1994), the development of pragmatic competence depends on providing learners with sufficient and appropriate input for their cognitive processes to turn input into intake and implicit knowledge.

The context in which a language is learned is essential in terms of both quantity and quality of input to which learners are exposed (Barron, 2003). Learners immersed in the SL community have more opportunities to be in contact with the TL, so exposure to it can facilitate their pragmatic ability. In contrast, learners in an FL context, which is also the setting of the present study, are in a disadvantageous position, since they depend exclusively on the input that arises in the classroom (a further explanation of the differences between these two settings will be addressed in Chapter 3). According to LoCastro (2003), learners are exposed to three types of input in this particular context, namely those of the teacher, the materials, and other learners. We will pay attention to each of them in turn.

Regarding the first source of input, *teacher talk* has been addressed as a type of special register that is modified and adapted to learners' needs. As Trosborg (1995) points

out, this kind of adapted language involves a simplified register, syntactic simplification, reduced length of utterances, and no ungrammatical speech. However, regarding pragmatic aspects, the teachers themselves are considered to be the model that provides learners with the rules of politeness, the appropriate use of formulaic expressions or the importance of employing a variety of linguistic forms depending on social parameters. Learners are, thus, dependent on the teacher for an appropriate model of the TL, although several studies have shown that input offered by teachers is hardly optimal for learning pragmatics in the classroom (Lörscher and Schulze, 1988; Ohta, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996; Nikula, 2002). For instance, in their study on the academic advising session, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) pointed out that the requests teachers made to the students were status-bound, so they could not serve as direct models for learners. Lörscher and Schulze (1988) also analysed teachers' talk in their study and found that their transactional style did not provide learners with either appropriate models of politeness markers or ways of mitigating and intensifying speech acts in English. Similarly, in a longitudinal study conducted in the JFL, Ohta (1994) observed that teachers employed a narrower range and lower frequency of affective particles than would have been used in ordinary conversation. Set in a different FL classroom, Nikula's (2002) recent study examined the way in which the use of modifiers by Finnish teachers in two different classrooms reflected pragmatic awareness. The author found a high use of direct strategies and mentioned the authoritative role of the teachers and their status as NNSs as possible reasons. This fact could have been the reason why they had a narrow repertoire of expressions to modify their talk and were, therefore, too direct.

Bearing in mind the findings from these studies and in line with Bardovi-Harlig (1992, 1996, 2001) and Kasper (1997b), we believe that it would be beneficial to develop training programmes for teachers to make them aware of the importance of their talk and the use of appropriate materials for their learners' pragmatic acquisition. In fact, as claimed by Bardovi-Harlig (1996: 34), "it is important that learners observe native speakers in action". For this reason, apart from teachers' output, we think that bringing authentic materials into the classroom would positively contribute to widen learners' exposure to

pragmatic input. The importance of these instructional materials is, thus, the second source of input learners face in the classroom.

The use of adequate teaching *materials* to develop pragmatic competence is vital, especially in foreign learning environments. However, it has been claimed that most textbooks and other written manuals have been based on NSs' intuitions rather than on empirical studies of pragmatic norms (Boxer, 2003; LoCastro, 2003). Moreover, previous research on the analysis of different sorts of materials has demonstrated an artificial and decontextualised presentation of the different pragmatic aspects examined as well as a lack of natural conversational models representing the real use of language (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds, 1991; Boxer and Pickering, 1995; Meier, 1997; Mandala, 1999; Alcón and Tricker, 1999; Alcón and Safont, 2001; Salazar and Usó, 2001, 2002).

Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991), for instance, analysed closings in twenty ESL coursebooks and observed that the aim of most of them was to introduce new grammatical structures instead of providing realistic conversational input. In fact, the majority of the coursebooks presented abrupt examples of closings which were considered to be pragmatically inappropriate. The lack of natural examples representing the real use of language was also examined in Alcón and Tricker's (1999) study of the discourse marker "well" in two EFL coursebooks and in transcripts from a film. According to these authors, the coursebooks analysed did not pay any attention to the different uses of "well" as an interactive discourse marker signalling insufficiency or mitigating face threats.

Moving on to the presentation of specific speech acts, Boxer and Pickering (1995) focused on the realisation of complaints in seven English language teaching texts. They determined that the examples containing complaints were based on the authors' intuitions, only presenting instances of direct complaints in conversations between friends. The authors argued that no examples of dialogues between interlocutors with relationships involving other social distances were presented in which indirect complaints would have been far more appropriate. In this sense, they also reported a lack of underlying social

strategies in the presentation of the speech act. Similarly, Meier (1997) criticised the presentation of speech acts in EFL materials on a directness/politeness scale and concluded that coursebooks exhibit an arbitrary selection which does not pay attention to contextual factors, and may cause learners' failure and problems of misunderstanding in the TL. This inappropriate treatment of speech acts was also the focus of attention in the study carried out by Salazar and Usó (2001), who examined requests in several coursebooks for students of tourism and found that the speech act under analysis was embedded in exercises focusing on syntactic structures leaving aside the communicative intent of requesting. Moreover, the most common category employed to express the speech act of requesting was the conventionally-indirect strategy of request realisation (Trosborg, 1995), with only a few instances of indirect requests. A similar finding was obtained in Salazar and Usó's (2002) study of suggestions and advice acts, in which no instances of indirect structures were found. Again, the authors reported insufficient attention to communicative competence, since the speech acts were presented and practised in isolation without paying attention to contextual or interactional pragmatic factors.

Also focusing on advice acts, Mandala (1999) compared the presentation of this speech act in forty-one natural interactions and forty textbook dialogues and found a mismatch between both types of data. The author pointed out that textbook dialogues were biased towards the speaker's perspective without showing instances of conflict talk that were commonly found in the natural samples. Safont and Alcón (2001) also focused on the occurrence of requests, suggestions and advice in EFL materials and in an oral corpus containing spontaneous conversations. These authors came to similar conclusions regarding the artificial and inappropriate description of speech acts in the materials analysed, since only the linguistic forms had been taken into account. Providing learners with just a list of forms to express a particular speech act has been considered as inefficient and inappropriate to foster learners' pragmatic competence (Koester, 2002; Crandall and Basturkmen, 2004).

In line with all the previous constraints, Boxer (2003) also claims that it would be only when spontaneous speech is captured in authentic data for language materials that we might begin to teach the underlying strategies of speech behaviour. For this reason, we

believe that there is a need to base materials and teaching practices on natural language data if our aim is to provide the necessary conditions in the classroom to make learners aware of communicatively appropriate patterns. Several researchers have already proposed different alternatives to challenge this artificial presentation of natural conversation in textbooks.

On the one hand, the use of spoken corpora (Alcón and Safont, 2001; Campoy and Safont, 2001; Campoy, 2002; Koester, 2002; Safont and Campoy, 2003) has been regarded as a useful instrument to present authentic speaker input in the classroom. The study conducted by Campoy and Safont (2001) focused on the use of conventionally indirect request strategies in two different oral corpora involving EFL learners and NSs. The authors found that there were differences between the learners' and NSs' oral production as regards the variety of this particular request type of strategy. Similar findings were obtained in a recent study (Safont and Campoy, 2003) in which the researchers also compared EFL learners' production on requests with online transcripts from NSs' both formal and informal dialogues. These results led the authors to acknowledge the benefits of exploiting this pedagogical source of authentic data in the EFL classroom.

On the other hand, another suitable material that presents authentic audiovisual input refers to the use of video, films and TV. In fact, video input has long been used as a language teaching resource and a fairly large number of researchers (Rose, 1997, 2001; Ryan, 1998; Arthur, 1999; Canning-Wilson, 2000; Grant and Starks, 2001; Washburn, 2001) have already praised the use of video sequences in the classroom. Esselborn (1991) and Ryan (1998), for instance, suggest the use of films in the classroom in order to develop learner motivation and activate their cognitive domains. Hart (1992), Henessey (1995), Wyburd (1995) and Canning-Wilson (2000) also point out that the use of audiovisual materials provides a contextualised view of language and helps learners visualise words and meanings. Moreover, visual materials change classroom routines (Swaffar and Vlatten, 1997). Therefore, all these features are of crucial importance when developing pragmatics in the FL classroom, since students should be aware of the relationship between participants when performing specific speech acts and also of the contextual factors affecting their conversational interaction (Thomas, 1995).

One example is the series of studies conducted by Rose (1993, 1994a, 1997, 2001), who argues that "in foreign language contexts, exposure to film is generally the closest that language learners will ever get to witnessing or participating in native speaker interaction" (Rose, 1997: 283). The author compared the occurrence of compliments in forty-six American films with a corpus of compliments (collected by Manes and Wolfson, 1981), and found that, for global categories, such as the distribution of syntactic formulae, the film data closely corresponded to naturally-occurring speech. In a follow-up study, Rose (2001) supported this finding after an analys showing that syntactic formulae, compliment topic and compliment strategy responses were found to be similar in film data and in naturally-occurring speech. In the same way, Grant and Starks (2001) conducted a study comparing closings in twenty-three EFL coursebooks with closings from fifty episodes of the soap opera *Shortland Street*. The authors claim that television conversations imitate natural conversations, provide a wide variety of functional conversational English, imitate natural speech and follow the cultural and linguistic behaviour of both the language and the participants (Grant and Starks, 2001: 49). The potential of TV has also been examined by Washburn (2001), who paid attention to the benefits of presenting scenes from sitcoms as opportunities to observe pragmatic language use. As Washburn (2001: 22) notes, "sitcoms present many models of appropriate pragmatic language use among various characters of differing status, familiarity, gender, and in varied settings, such as at work, at home, in public places, and at formal gatherings". Apart from offering rich, varied and contextualised situations, the author also mentions that this source of input may help teachers not to be the sole suppliers of pragmatic information in the classroom context.

Finally, apart from teachers' talk and presentation through different materials, learners are also exposed to a different source of input, that of their *peers*. According to LoCastro (2003), it is important to take into consideration what learners bring to the classroom, their motivation for learning the TL and their sociocultural backgrounds. Moreover, collaboration and peer interaction also play an important role for the development of learners' pragmatic knowledge (Ohta, 1995, 1997, 2001b; Alcón, 2002). As Kasper (2001c) claims, it has been demonstrated that learners can contribute and help each

other through collaboration. Ohta's (1995, 1997, 2001b) studies, for instance, showed that learners working collaboratively were provided with opportunities to use the TL, Japanese, and that participation in pairs contributed to increase learners' appropriate use and application of pragmatic principles. In a recent study, Alcón (2002) also examined the effects of collaboration by comparing two groups of students distributed into either teacher-students or peer interaction conditions. Results illustrated that pragmatic knowledge emerged from both types of interactions, but the peer interaction condition favoured some of the functions of learners' output, namely those of noticing and hypothesis testing.

Apart from the type of input learners may be exposed to, these authors show that learners' active participation is a powerful force for the acquisition of pragmatics in the classroom setting. Thus, providing learners with opportunities for output is also claimed to be the second necessary condition for acquiring pragmatics.

2.1.2 *Output*

The output hypothesis, which focuses on pushing learners into language production, was developed by Swain (1985, 1993, 1995, 2000a) in order to support the claim that input alone is not enough for language learning. This pushed output refers to the production that is characterised by precision, coherence, and appropriateness, so opportunities to produce it are regarded to be the necessary conditions for a learner to acquire an SL. In fact, Swain (2000a) argues that not only comprehending, but also producing the TL, is what makes learners notice how the language is used in order to express their intended meaning.

Swain (1995) also proposed three functions for output that can be identified in this process. The first function, *the noticing function*, refers particularly to the fact that learners may notice a gap between what they try to say and what they actually can say. This gap makes them notice a linguistic problem and may push them to modify their output. Regarding the second function, that is, *the hypothesis-testing function*, Swain (1995) considers that learners may use their output as a way of trying out new language forms and structures. Finally, *the metalinguistic function* encourages learners to reflect on the forms

being produced, that is, output can serve as a means of reflection on language while they are mainly concerned with getting meaning across.

Research examining the noticing function of output (Pica, Holliday, Lewis and Morgenthaler, 1989; Swain and Lapkin, 1995; Shehadeh, 1999, 2001; Iwashita, 1999, 2001; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara and Fearnow, 1999; Izumi, 2000, 2002; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000) has demonstrated its efficacy as a means of internalising new knowledge or consolidating that which has already been acquired. According to this research, the process that makes learners notice a gap in their interlanguage performance activates mental processes that lead them to modify their output and, thus, contribute to their language learning. As far as the hypothesis-testing and metalinguistic functions are concerned, the studies of collaborative dialogue conducted by Donato (1994), Kowal and Swain (1994) and Swain (1995, 1997, 2000b) have shown that when learners notice a problem in their interlanguage production and they verbalise it, they engage in an activity of testing different hypotheses. By trying these hypotheses and negotiating the different possibilities, they finally reach a correct form. This process is also claimed to contribute to the production of language and to reflecting on it in order to create meaningful utterances that have a positive effect on learning the TL.

Given the fact that producing the TL generates these three different functions that contribute to learners' development of full grammatical competence, we also believe that in order to acquire pragmatic competence, learners need to be provided with opportunities for practice. In fact, LoCastro (2003) mentions that SLA research has confirmed that practising what the learners have been taught facilitates learning and fluency in all areas of language, including pragmatic ability. The author considers that the organisation of the classroom is essential as regards providing these opportunities, and she distinguishes between more teacher-controlled classrooms and group work organisation.

With respect to teacher's control of the classroom, it has been argued that the typical Interaction-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern, in which the teacher initiates the discourse, the students respond and the teacher gives feedback, limits learners' ability to get involved

in productive practices (Kasper, 1997a, 2001a, 2001b). This structure is, thus, completely inefficient to develop learners' pragmatic competence, since the teacher is the controller of the classroom and learners have few opportunities to participate in oral activities. However, teachers may serve as models and providers of sociocultural information if they actively interact with students allowing them to produce appropriate output. An example of this may be observed in Kanagy and Igarashi's (1997) longitudinal study of English-speaking children's comprehension of pragmatic routines in Japanese. According to the researchers, by initiating TL speech, the children created opportunities to produce output, which then triggered additional input from the teacher including negative feedback. Therefore, pragmatic needs were regarded as a significant factor in the language production process, influencing what types of teacher input emerged as output in the earliest stages of language acquisition.

Regarding the second type of classroom organisation, LoCastro (2003) claims that working in groups offers a lot of advantages, since learners are active participants who ask for clarification and confirmation, take risks and use different ways of expressing their own thinking, that is, they can put the three functions of output into practice. In this line, Trosborg (1995) has also pointed out that involving learners in role interactions is a way of increasing their linguistic output. Thus, she supports the use of role plays in the FL classroom as an excellent exercise for enhancing learners' communicative competence with a focus on both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects. In fact, Trosborg (1995: 473) mentions:

> […] when engaging learners in role playing in pairs or in small groups, they are offered the opportunities of experimenting, of repairing their own utterances when negotiating the outcome of the conversation, and they engage in communication practice which is very helpful in promoting procedural knowledge.

As we have mentioned above, working collaboratively allows that learners' output to serve as a source of input for other learners. However, learners' output may be erroneous, so there is a need to receive correct conversational input by another participant in the interaction, which may be either the teacher or a peer. This type of correction refers to feedback, the third theoretical condition that we will now examine.

2.1.3 *Feedback*

It has been claimed that apart from receiving positive evidence, that is, being exposed to comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), and being provided with output opportunities (Swain, 1995), feedback is also necessary if our aim is to combine communication and accuracy. Corrective feedback, the third condition for SLA in general and pragmatics in particular, has also been addressed as negative input (Pica, 1996) and refers to the data learners receive with information about what is not allowed in the TL. By means of this negative evidence, learners may reflect on their own output and incorporate those aspects that have been corrected. As raised by Pica (1994), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Van den Braden (1997) and Alcón (2000b), research has shown that pushing language learners by their interlocutors' feedback can make them produce more sociolinguistically appropriate and accurate (i.e. correct) TL. There are also two ways of providing this feedback to students, that is, it can be done either explicitly, by overtly stating that an error has occurred, or implicitly, by means of different techniques, such as recasts, clarification requests or confirmation checks.

Additionally, an important distinction has been made between *negotiation of meaning*, the main aim of which is to restore and/or maintain mutual understanding in a conversation, and *negotiation of form*, in which one interlocutor tries to push the other towards a more appropriate utterance. Taking into account the former, studies conducted by Gass and Varonis (1985), Varonis and Gass (1985) and Doughty and Pica (1986) have shown that repair occurs when there is some kind of communication breakdown that makes language learners notice a difference between their own production and the intended TL. It is when this breakdown occurs that speakers try to achieve a way of understanding each other through negotiation of meaning. Some of the techniques employed when repairing the communication problem have adopted requests for clarification and requests for confirmation. Paying attention to the second type of negotiation, that is negotiation of form, Lyster (1998a, 1998b) has also identified different techniques, such as recasts or explicit corrections, that perform the function of pushing learners to reprocess their own linguistic

resources in order to repair their errors. In this sense, through negotiation of form techniques, teachers can guide and provide corrective feedback to their students making learners aware of their own output (the role of recasts as a type of implicit negative feedback in the FonF paradigm will be further developed in section 2.3.2.3.1).

Regarding the acquisition of pragmatic competence, research on language socialisation has shown that parents instruct their children in pragmatics by providing them with negative feedback (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996). Thus, corrective feedback plays an important role to develop learners' pragmatic ability in the classroom and it should be provided on both meaning and form. Omar (1992), for instance, found two occurrences where NSs of Kiswahili corrected other NSs regarding choice of forms in conversational openings, and this contributed to their pragmatic learning. However, this is not the common pattern since, as Washburn (2001) notes, explicit feedback on pragmatic language in conversational interaction is usually nonexistent or, if given, rarely direct, especially among adults. This fact makes the task of learning pragmatic language usage in the TL especially difficult for learners, since they are not made aware of their pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic failures. An example of this situation can be illustrated with Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1993a, 1996) studies based on academic advising sessions, in which feedback could only be given on the content and not on form. This limitation, according to the authors, restricted learners' pragmatic development, since they were not exposed to the appropriate forms that would have allowed them to modify their output. Moreover, students in this particular situation were at an additional disadvantage because they could not observe other students who might have served as models performing the same task (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990).

In a recent study also based on the academic advising setting, Alcón (2001a) examined teachers' production of suggestions and the use of mitigators. The author observed that teachers' output could be regarded as positive input for learners. However, learners' output opportunities were not adequately supported by teachers' pertinent feedback, which made the author point out the importance of giving appropriate feedback. In this sense, Alcón (2001a) concluded that only being exposed to the language or having

opportunities for language use are not enough for developing NNSs' pragmatic competence. Dealing with a different speech act, namely that of requesting, Alcón (2001b) and Alcón and Codina (2002) also investigated whether the FL classroom offered learners opportunities to be exposed to requests and to make use of them. In both studies, apart from observing that neither input directed towards the learners nor opportunities to practice the speech act of requesting were provided, the authors also pointed out a lack of appropriate feedback on the part of the teacher. In this sense, Alcón and Codina (2002) suggest that further empirical research is needed to examine the effect of direct and indirect feedback on learners' pragmatic development, and propose the adoption of a FonF approach to teach pragmatic competence in the FL classroom.

To sum up, we have seen that corrective feedback is an important condition that informs learners about their own output. This negative input may cause changes in learners' production leading them to develop their pragmatic competence. In fact, recent interventional studies on pragmatics (Fukuya, Reeve, Gisi and Christianson, 1998; Yoshimi, 2001) have included corrective feedback in the treatment in an attempt to raise students' awareness regarding their output (a detailed description of interventionist studies will be provided in Chapter 3). It is also our belief that incorporating feedback, whether it be explicit or implicit, in the FL classroom is as essential as the other two theoretical conditions, those of input and output, to help learners develop their pragmatic competence.

Apart from providing opportunities in which learners may benefit from these three conditions, it is also important to pay attention to the mechanisms learners have to go through in order to acquire their pragmatic ability. As Kasper and Schmidt (1996) and Bardovi-Harlig (2002) have pointed out, it is necessary to have a theory of pragmatics in SLA that explains these mechanisms of change and how learners move from one stage to another from a psycholinguistic perspective. This is an issue we will refer to in the following section.

2.2 Cognitive approaches for developing pragmatics

In a recent overview of research on learners' development of pragmatic ability, Kasper (2001c) identified four prominent theoretical perspectives that stand out in the applied linguistics literature, namely those of (1) pragmatics and grammar; (2) information processing; (3) sociocultural theory; and (4) language socialisation. It is the second approach, that is, information or cognitive processing theory, which is of interest to us in order to present the theoretical framework for the present study.

2.2.1 *Cognitive processing theory*

The cognitive learning theory explains the different mechanisms learners have to activate in order to process knowledge from one stage to another. Thus, it describes how knowledge is first presented to the learners, how they develop the ability to use this knowledge, and how the new knowledge is finally integrated into their existing cognitive system (Trosborg, 1995). Regarding pragmatic knowledge, Kasper (2001c) also points out that considerations from this theory have been adapted to explain pragmatic development. In fact, we believe that a full understanding of how pragmatic aspects of language are psycholinguistically processed would contribute to the development of appropriate pedagogical interventions that help learners' acquisition of pragmatics. To this end, Kasper and Rose (2002) mention that the two proposals developed by Schmidt (1993) and Bialystok (1993) have already been adopted as the framework that explains learners' development in interventional research on instruction in pragmatics. Given the importance of these cognitive theories in the present study, we examine them in turn.

2.2.1.1 *Noticing hypothesis*

Schmidt's (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1998, 2001) noticing hypothesis pays attention to the role of consciousness in the acquisition of TL knowledge. In contrast to other theorists who consider that learning a language is an unconscious process (Chomsky, 1965, 1986, 1990; Krashen, 1982, 1985), Schmidt claims that learning requires awareness at the level of

noticing, and that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning. In this sense, Schmidt (1993: 26) explains that input features have to be noticed in order for them to be acquired, and he also distinguishes noticing from understanding:

> I use *noticing* to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event, whereas *understanding* implies recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern. […] Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory […] understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into a linguistic system.

More specifically, Schmidt (2001) reconsidered the distinction between these two terms and stated that noticing refers to those phenomena that appear at the surface level, that is, those elements that are only noticed rather than understood, while understanding concerns a deeper level of abstraction that involves learning the rules of the language system. Moreover, drawing on studies from cognitive science and experimental psychology (Fisk and Schneider, 1984; Kihlstrom, 1984; Carlson and Dulany, 1985), Schmidt (1995) also considered that there is no learning without attention, since whatever learning might result from unattended processing is insignificant compared to the results of attended processing. Thus, awareness, noticing and attention are key aspects of his hypothesis.

Regarding pragmatic competence, Schmidt (1993) points out that attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings and pertinent contextual features is required for the learning of pragmatics in an SL. In other words, for learners to acquire pragmatic competence, they need to pay conscious attention to relevant forms, their pragmalinguistic functions and the sociopragmatic constraints these particular forms involve. Evidence of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis in interlanguage pragmatic studies comes from his own learning experience of Portuguese (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) and DuFon's (1999) study on the acquisition of politeness in Indonesian as the SL. In Schmidt and Frota (1986), Schmidt found a high correlation of forms that were frequent in the input he received with the correct usage of them, which indicated that he had effectively noticed them. In DuFon's (1999) study, her subjects kept journals where they wrote their language experiences with Indonesian. An analysis of these journals showed that the learners had also noticed features of address terms and greetings in the TL.

Schmidt's noticing hypothesis has been subjected to a fair amount of criticism. Robinson (2003) offers a review of these arguments against Schmidt's proposal and highlights two theoretical objections. The first criticism refers to Tomlin and Villa's (1994) belief that learning can also be achieved by means of attention without awareness, whereas the second involves Carroll's (1999) assumption that Schmidt does not consider what properties of input trigger noticing and learning. A third criticism is methodological and involves Truscott's (1998) argument that Schmidt's hypothesis presents difficulties as to how to measure awareness with precision.

Despite such criticism, we believe that Schmidt's noticing hypothesis has been one of the first attempts to explain the development of pragmatics and the stages learners may go through in order to acquire this competence. Moreover, for the purposes of our study, this theoretical framework supports the need to implement pedagogical intervention of pragmatics, since according to Schmidt (1993: 36) exposure to input alone is not sufficient for the learning of pragmatics:

> […] simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for second language acquisition of pragmatic and discoursal knowledge because the linguistic realizations of pragmatic functions are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors to be noticed are likely to be defined differently or may be nonsalient for the learner.

For this reason, Schmidt (1993) proposes an explicit type of instruction for the teaching of pragmatics by adopting a consciousness-raising approach. He supports this assumption on the basis of learning the first language, which shows that children learn pragmatics with more than mere exposure to it, since parents and caregivers teach their children the communicative competence and the rules of politeness using a variety of strategies. Apart from the type of explicit instruction that Schmidt supports, his noticing hypothesis has also been adopted in the FonF paradigm, which will be examined in the next section. In fact, the concept of awareness (with regard to language instruction) was advanced by Sharwood Smith (1981), who later modified it to *input enhancement*.[6] This

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[6] A detailed description of this concept is provided in section 2.3.2.3.1

author proposed different techniques that made aspects of the input more salient to direct learners' attention to them without necessarily teaching their rules explicitly. These techniques, such as high intonation in teacher talk or colour enhancement in printed texts, refer to implicit ways of making learners notice the input and, thus, can be adapted to an implicit type of instruction for the teaching of pragmatics.

To sum up, the noticing hypothesis developed by Schmidt (1993, 1995, 2001) constitutes a substantial rationale for examining the effects of instruction in pragmatics, since it simply implies that exposure to input alone is not sufficient for learning pragmatics. According to this author, pragmatic aspects are not salient enough for learners to notice and, therefore, pedagogical intervention can facilitate learners' pragmatic development. Moreover, we have also described how the two types of explicit and implicit instruction are supported by this hypothesis, since the present investigation examines the effect of both types of instruction on learners' acquisition of a particular pragmatic aspect, namely that of suggestions.

2.2.1.2 *Two-dimensional model of language use and proficiency*

The second cognitive theory that provides an explanation for the development of pragmatic competence in the TL by adult learners from a processing perspective was proposed by Bialystok (1993). As the name indicates, Bialystok's model of language learning and use for pragmatics consists of two types of dimensions, which refer to analysis of knowledge and control of processing.

The first dimension of her model, that is, *analysis of knowledge*, is defined by Bialystok (1993: 48) as "the process of making explicit, or analyzing, a learner's implicit knowledge of domain". This process involves, thus, the creation of domains of knowledge with mental representations that can become available for use in comprehension and production. In order to complete this process, the second dimension of her model, *control of processing*, is also needed. This consists of "the process of controlling attention to relevant and appropriate information and integrating those forms in real time" (Bialystok,

1993: 48). In other words, for learners to use language efficiently, they must activate their attention only to relevant information in order to be able to use it under real time pressures.

Bialystok (1993) applies this model of language processing to the development of pragmatic competence while pointing out that the two cognitive processing components must be integrated. On the one hand, it is important to choose those representations of language that correspond to the intended pragmatic functions. On the other hand, it is also necessary to select which attentional strategies should be adopted for an appropriate language use depending on different contexts. According to Bialystok (1993), an analysis of how these two dimensions are interrelated would determine the level of proficiency that is necessary for adult learners to achieve pragmatic competence in the TL. Moreover, this analysis can be divided into three levels of representation, namely those of conceptual, formal and symbolic representation. For pragmatic knowledge, as Bialystok (1993) argues, it is the last type of representation which affects the process adults have to master in order to achieve their pragmatic competence. The reason is that symbolic representation implies that the appropriate selection of the linguistic forms, together with the meanings these forms involve, depends on an assessment of the contextual and social factors.

In order to explain her proposed model in relation to the learning of pragmatics, Bialystok (1993) compares the processes that children go through when acquiring their mother tongue with those of adults learning an SL. The author states that the learning problem for the two populations is different. For children, the primary need is to develop the analysis of knowledge dimension, since acquiring linguistic resources and the ability to use them in different contexts is more important than developing the control strategies required for efficient use of pragmatic knowledge. For adults, this order of learning tasks is reversed and, since the task of forming representations of pragmatic knowledge is already largely accomplished, the main task, then, refers to the development of the control strategies. For this reason, the main cause attributed to adults' pragmatic errors consists of choosing incorrect forms which would not be appropriate to the social and contextual needs of the communicative situation. Bialystok (1993), thus, concludes that for the acquisition of

pragmatic competence, children face a more serious barrier from analysis, while adults are hindered by control.

Particularly relevant for our study, which involves adult learners' development of pragmatic competence, is Bialystok's (1993) explanation of those cognitive mechanisms adult learners have to activate in order to learn and use their pragmatic knowledge in an appropriate manner. Evidence supporting Bialystok's model can be observed in House's (1996) and Hassall's (1997, 2001) studies, which illustrated that an insufficient control of processing limited their learners' appropriate use of the language. In House's (1996) study, her German EFL learners experienced difficulties with responsive moves by showing poorly aligned responses during their interactions. Similarly, Hassall (1997, 2001) reported that his learners of Indonesian had problems to employ internal modifiers in a sequentially appropriate fashion, not because they lacked the necessary pragmatic knowledge, but due to their inabililty to employ it appropriately in real time.

In summary, both analysis and control are important processing components of cognition that provide a framework for understanding how pragmatic competence develops in the first or second language. Concerning the acquisition of pragmatics in the SL, and more specifically in the FL, which is the express focus of this study, Bialystok (1994a) also suggests that language instruction may aid adults in the control of processing given the difficulties they experience with this dimension. In line with her, we also believe that an appropriate type of instruction can contribute to learners' capacity to use the pragmatic knowledge they have already acquired in an appropriate way.

The importance, thus, of instruction in pragmatics, as suggested by both Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis and Bialystok's (1993) two-dimensional model of language use and proficiency, will be examined in the next section within the field of SLA.

2.3 Pragmatics and language instruction

Studies from SLA research have demonstrated over the last 20 years that instruction does make a difference (Long, 1983, 1988, 1991, 1996; Doughty, 1991; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Ortega, 2000). In other words, it has been claimed (and empirical research supports this assumption) that instruction positively affects acquisition when compared with mere exposure to the TL. In fact, in a recent revision of instructed SLA, Doughty (2003: 261) claims that Long (1988) provided evidence for the effectiveness of instruction in the four domains of SLA, namely those of (1) SLA processes, (2) SLA route, (3) SLA rate, and (4) level of ultimate SL attainment. Moreover, apart from demonstrating the benefits of instruction, Doughty (2003) states that another concern has involved investigation into which type of instruction is most facilitative of SLA.

Doughty's (1991) study on relativisation, for instance, paid attention to both aspects. On the one hand, she examined the effects of instruction by implementing a comprehension-based approach to language teaching through the facilitation of input comprehension. On the other hand, she analysed the effectiveness of two different instructional techniques by comparing two experimental groups with a control group. One of the experimental groups received a type of meaning-oriented instruction, which involved the highlighting and capitalisation of target forms, while the other experimental group was provided with a type of rule-oriented instruction, which was exposed to a structural view of language learning governed by the mastery of explicit rules. The treatment for the control group only involved exposure to the marked relative clauses.

Results from a post-test not only showed a positive effect of instruction on relativisation ability for both experimental groups over the control group, but also the effectiveness of the two different instructional techniques. In fact, the author found in general that input enhancement techniques which increased the salience of target forms were as successful as providing explicit metalinguistic explanations on the structures of relative clause, although the first interventional technique was more effective than just provision of rules in comprehension of texts. This finding supports the author's suggestion

that focusing learners' attention on linguistic forms in context is highly effective. Moreover, given the positive results from her study, Doughty (1991) considered the effectiveness of the treatments on the basis that mere exposure to the TL is not enough for acquisition to take place.[7]

Doughty's study, although dating back to 1991, is relevant to our research, since it focused on a particular grammatical aspect, that of relative clauses, and we have tried to examine the same issues, those of effects of instruction and the effectiveness of different types of treatment, while paying attention to a particular aspect of pragmatic competence – the speech act of suggestions.

The previous study is only one example included in Norris and Ortega's (2000) recent review of all the empirical research dealing with the effectiveness of instruction in general and the effectiveness of different types of instruction in particular published between 1980 and 1998. In their statistical meta-analysis, the authors identified 250 relevant studies, although only 77 studies were selected for analysis. The criteria the authors adopted in order to select these studies were based on three constructs. First, drawing on DeKeyser's (1995) definition of explicit instruction, they paid attention to those studies that had compared explicit and implicit approaches to instruction in order to ascertain which of them was more effective. Second, following the tripartite distinction of type of instruction (Long, 1991), they also analysed whether the studies had adopted a FonFormS, a Focus on Meaning, or a FonF instructional paradigm, that is whether the type of attention was directed to meaning, to form-meaning connections, or to forms in isolation. Third, they examined the type of pedagogical intervention employed in each study by relying on Doughty and Williams's (1998c: 258) continuum of degree of obtrusiveness. Table 4 shows the classification of the instructional types found in the studies analysed which followed those constructs.

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[7] Claiming that exposure to input alone is not sufficient to acquire the TL was also supported by the noticing hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (1993) and described in the previous section.

Table 4. Distribution of pedagogical procedures in the type-of-instruction studies (Source: Norris and Ortega, 2000; Doughty, 2003: 268).

Focus on form	*Focus on forms*
Implicit (30% of the instructional types):	
18% of the instructional types:	11% of the instructional types:
form-experimental (anagram)	corrective models
input enhancement	pre-emptive modelling
input flood	traditional implicit
recasts	
other implicit	
Explicit (70% of the instructional types):	
26% of the instructional types:	45% of the instructional types:
compound focus on form	rule-oriented forms-focused
(enhancement + feedback)	garden path
consciousness-raising	input practice
processing instruction	metalinguistic feedback
metalinguistic task essentialness	output practice
(cross-word)	traditional explicit (e.g., rule
rule-oriented focus on form	explanation)

The above table is particularly relevant for our study since, on the one hand, we have adopted an implicit type of instruction with one of our experimental groups by choosing the techniques of input enhancement and recasts within the FonF paradigm. On the other hand, the operationalisation for the explicit group included both metalinguistic feedback and rule explanation which were drawn from the FonFormS paradigm.

Regarding Norris and Ortega's (2000) findings for the first criterion adopted, the authors pointed out an advantage for explicit over implicit types of instruction. As far as the other two criteria are concerned, that is the paradigm of instruction employed and the type of pedagogical procedures used according to the continuum of obtrusiveness of attention to form, the authors found that FonF treatments had slightly larger effect sizes than FonFormS treatments. Combining both constructs, the following pattern in instructional treatment effectiveness was obtained after conducting their analysis:

Explicit focus on form (large effect) > Explicit focus on forms (large effect) > Implicit focus on form (medium effect) > Implicit focus on forms (small effect)

Apart from these main findings, the authors also observed that delayed post-tests showed average effect sizes in favour of instructed groups, although they concluded that various research biases, such as the proper operationalisation of instructional treatments, the duration of the intervention or the measurement techniques employed, limited the overall interpretation of their findings. Despite these limitations, Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis corroborated the fact that SL instruction makes a difference, and found a substantial difference in statistical terms between studies employing a type of interventional treatment and those using simple exposure to the TL.

Focusing specifically on pragmatics, Kasper (2001b) sustains that pragmatic ability can be achieved with success under two circumstances: (1) when there is some universal pragmatic knowledge, such as the ability to express pragmatic intent indirectly, the main categories of communicative acts or the politeness phenomenon, and (2) when both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge can be positively transferred from the first language to the TL. In spite of having the chance to benefit from these two situations, Kasper (2001b) argues that learners may not know how to use what they already know. In fact, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) provides evidence from research conducted on both production and perception of different pragmatic aspects that has shown that learners differ considerably from NSs in their pragmatic competence. In this sense, both authors agree on the fact that instructional intervention may be useful to facilitate learners' acquisition of their pragmatic ability in the TL. Moreover, we believe that in FL settings, instruction should not only be useful but also necessary to provide learners with opportunities for their pragmatic development.

The two subsections that follow are presented with the purpose of going deeper into the different types of instruction that can be employed to foster SLA in general, and pragmatics in particular. Given the importance of the criteria adopted by Norris and Ortega (2000) for their meta-analysis on instructional effects, a detailed description of the

constructs is included in these two subsections. Thus, subsection 2.3.1 pays attention to the distinction between explicit and implicit instruction, whereas subsection 2.3.2 examines the three instructional paradigms in relation to pragmatics.

2.3.1. *Explicit versus implicit instruction*

As mentioned above, apart from research that has examined the effects of instruction to foster SLA (see Norris and Ortega, 2000), an analysis of which type of instruction is the most effective for learning the TL has also been addressed (Doughty, 2003). The distinction between explicit and implicit teaching and their potential effectiveness are, thus, key aspects related to this concern. In order to understand the difference between these two types of instruction, the terms of explicit and implicit learning are described below.

Explicit learning refers to a conscious process in which learners are aware of the new knowledge they are receiving (Schmidt, 1993, 2001; Berry, 1994; Ellis, 1999). Moreover, according to N. Ellis (1994), it also involves the forming and testing of hypotheses in a search for the correct structure. In contrast, implicit learning is defined as a non-conscious process in which learners are not aware of what is being learned, since they only focus attention on the surface features of a complex stimulus domain (Reber, 1989; Winter and Reber, 1994). More specifically, N. Ellis (1994: 1) considers implicit learning as the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which occurs naturally, simply and without conscious operations.

Bearing in mind the differences between these two categories on the basis of learning with or without awareness (Schmidt, 2001; DeKeyser, 2003), there are also two main types of instruction that derive from this distinction. According to Doughty and Williams (1998b), the teacher may choose between two different pedagogical approaches in order to make the process of SLA easier for learners. On the one hand, explicit teaching involves directing learners' attention towards the target forms with the aim of discussing those forms. On the other hand, an implicit pedagogical approach aims to attract learner's attention while avoiding any type of metalinguistic explanation and minimising the

interruption of the communicative situation. Thus, the main difference between both types of instruction refers to the provision or absence of rules. As Doughty (2003: 265) states, explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explained to learners, whereas implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms.

DeKeyser (2003) also provides a detailed description of both types of instruction in order to distinguish them from other concepts employed in the second language literature – those of deductive and inductive learning/teaching. Figure 9 shows the relationship between these dimensions.

	Deductive	Inductive
Explicit	Traditional teaching	Rule discovery
Implicit	Using parameters	Learning L1 from input

Figure 9. The inductive/deductive and implicit/explicit dimensions (Source: DeKeyser, 2003: 314).

As DeKeyser (2003) points out, in line with what has been previously mentioned, explicit teaching always involves working with the rules of the language. This process can be done either deductively, that is through traditional explanation of rules, or inductively, in which learners are taught to find the rules after examining examples from a text. When neither of those situations is given regarding the focus on the rules of the language, the treatment can be regarded as implicit. To provide a description for this term in relation to the dichotomy between inductive/deductive dimensions, DeKeyser (2003) also states that the combination between implicit and inductive is clear in cases where children acquire their mother tongue without being conscious of this process. However, he mentions that the learning in both implicit and deductive ways is not so obvious. The author refers to the notion of *parameter* explained in Universal Grammar to claim that learners may infer a number of characteristics from this parameter without being conscious of what they are learning.

The importance of the explicit/implicit approach for the development of instructional treatments has motivated a number of studies in SLA research that examine this distinction.

Among these studies, DeKeyser (1995) conducted a computerised experiment on American students' acquisition of an artificial language called Implexan, which involved two types of rules: categorical and prototypical. The author compared an implicit treatment condition that involved exposure to thousands of picture/sentence combinations, with an explicit condition that had the same exposure to the combinations together with explicit explanation of the relevant rules. Results showed the effects of teaching the grammar rules, since the explicit group outperformed the implicit one in acquiring the categorical or simple morphosyntactic rules. In this sense, the author confirmed the effects of explicit instruction and questioned Krashen's (1985, 1994) and Reber's (1989, 1993) claims that complex rules were learned better under implicit learning conditions. Focusing also on the assumptions made by Krashen (1985, 1994) and Reber (1989, 1993), Robinson's (1996) study, carried out in a real classroom setting, involved 104 ESL learners' acquisition on learning complex English word order rules. The participants were assigned to four different training conditions: incidental, implicit, rule-search and instructed. The first two conditions involved implicit treatments, whereas the two other conditions were inductive and deductive explicitly oriented. His findings did not confirm what Krashen (1985, 1994) and Reber (1989, 1993) supported, since the implicit group did not perform better than the other learners on complex rules. Moreover, the explicit-deductive group under the instructed condition outperformed the three other conditions in learning simple rules. Similar results were obtained in N. Ellis's (1993) study on the soft mutation of initial consonants in Welsh. After dividing his subjects into three groups, the author found that the structured group under the explicit condition outperformed the other two groups.

The three studies outlined above examined whether grammatical rules are better learnt under explicit or implicit conditions. Moroishi (1999) argued for the need to examine the categories of explicit versus implicit learning with other aspects, such as semantic/pragmatic rules. Thus, his study focused on learning the appropriate use of four types of Japanese conjectural auxiliaries in a particular context. The students were distributed into three groups: an explicit group received metalinguistic explanations on the use of these auxiliaries, an implicit group was exposed to the same auxiliaries that appeared underlined in order to direct learners' attention towards them, and a control group did not

receive any instruction. In order to measure the effects of the treatment that consisted of four instruction sessions, the study included a variety of assessment tasks with the use of a pre-test together with an immediate and delayed post-tests. Results indicated that both groups improved after instruction, but the explicit group outperformed the implicit group in some of the tasks. Moroishi (1999) pointed to the type of forms targeted in the study as an explanation for the superiority of the explicit condition over the implicit one. According to this author, in contrast to the process of acquiring morphosyntactic rules, these learners may have had difficulties in discovering the rules for the appropriate usage of the auxiliaries because they had only paid attention to the surface structure of a sentence.

As has been observed, all these studies show a clear advantage for the explicit over the implicit treatment condition. Similar results have also been obtained in research examining pragmatic aspects of the language. Apart from Moroishi's (1999) study, which already attempted to focus on a different type of target form other than the grammatical one, namely the usage of conjectural auxiliaries in appropriate contexts, Kasper (2001c) reviews those studies that have paid attention to pragmatic instructional interventions.[8] According to this author, these studies have compared explicit versus implicit teaching approaches to particular pragmatic features, such as discourse markers, implicature, pragmatic fluency, interactional norms or different speech acts. As she states, the explicit instruction consisted of the description and explanation of a particular pragmatic feature by making it the object of metapragmatic discussion, whereas the implicit instruction involved the observation of the pragmatic aspect in different contextualised situations and it was then practised. Kasper's (2001c) detailed description of this research focusing on teaching pragmatics reveals that the explicit metapragmatic instruction is more effective than implicit teaching irrespective of other possible intervening factors, such as learners' level of proficiency in the TL or length of instruction. The author concludes that this result is in line with Norris and Ortega's (2000) findings reported above on the clear advantage of the explicit teaching condition over the implicit one.

However, despite the fact that all of these studies have shown explicit forms of

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[8] A detailed revision of the studies comparing different teaching approaches will be examined in Chapter 3, which deals specifically with classroom research on pragmatics.

learning (see Berry, 1994) or explicit types of intervention (see Norris and Ortega, 2000) to have some advantage, there are some research biases that constrain the fact that explicit instruction is the most effective for SLA. Berry (1994: 161), for instance, claims that one of the main problems has been an inconsistent and unskilled use of the terms implicit and explicit. In fact, this author mentions the fact that most studies in SLA have employed these terms without carrying out a previous and real analysis of which learning processes were involved under each particular condition. Moreover, DeKeyser (2003) points out that most of these studies do not follow appropriate methodological requirements that guarantee pure implicit/explicit learning conditions. In the same line, Doughty (2003) also claims that, apart from the use of inaccurate pedagogical procedures, the studies examining the effects of instruction have tended to be highly explicit-oriented. As this author (2003: 290) argues, what the evidence has shown from studies dealing with FonFormS is that explicit instruction involving decontextualised and declarative knowledge leads to an accumulation of metalinguistic knowledge. For this reason, she notes that adopting a FonF approach that makes learners pay attention to the target forms within a type of implicit learning has also been demonstrated as effective in the SLA literature. Thus, this author suggests that more precise and properly operationalised studies should be conducted following this paradigm of instruction.

Following Doughty's (2003) recommendations and given the importance of the relationship between the categories of implicit/explicit and the type of instruction adopted, that is FonF or FonFormS, the present study has operationalised both paradigms.

2.3.2 *Paradigms in pragmatics instruction*

After describing and explaining the differences between explicit and implicit types of teaching, in this section we examine the three major points of view or paradigms represented in the language-teaching field. As mentioned earlier, these paradigms refer to the second construct adopted by Norris and Ortega (2000) in order to conduct their meta-analysis of SLA studies dealing with the effects of instruction. According to Doughty (2003), the three approaches depend on what aspects learners are directed to pay attention

to: any form at all, linguistic forms in isolation, or particular forms during the communication of meaning. This tripartite contrast, originally made by Long (1991), refers to the paradigms of Focus on Meaning, FonFormS and FonF, respectively. Moreover, apart from describing these three paradigms, we will also examine them with a focus on pragmatics. In fact, Kasper and Rose (2002: 259) claim that a variety of theoretical approaches to learning have been well represented in the SLA literature on the acquisition of morphosyntax, but in pragmatics such research is still in rather short supply. In this sense, it is our intention to relate the three approaches to the field of pragmatics.

2.3.2.1 *Focus on Meaning*

Within this approach to language teaching, learning consists of an unconscious process (Schmidt, 1995) that takes place through interaction. Language is, therefore, not treated as an object of study, but as a means of communication where getting meaning across is the main purpose for using the language. This paradigm is related to a kind of *analytic* syllabus (Wilkins, 1976), in which language teaching is organised according to learners' needs and purposes for acquiring the TL.

This particular option in language teaching is typical of those researchers that have adopted a *non-interventionist approach* suggesting that learning a language cannot be affected by means of any type of instruction (Krashen, 1985). Two clear examples that have included a Focus on Meaning approach include Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (1983) and immersion classrooms. However, results from immersion studies of Canadian English-French bilinguals have shown that despite years of contact with the TL and opportunities for interaction, learners still have problems in their productive abilities, such as with the correct use of grammatical gender agreement or with the inclusion of appropriate politeness markers (Harley and Swain, 1984; Swain, 1985).

These findings may also be applied to the learning of pragmatic aspects. Authors supporting this paradigm would claim that learners who are immersed in the SL community or with a high exposure to the TL have enough opportunities to develop their pragmatic

ability. Nevertheless, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) provides evidence on the basis of previous research conducted in this field that, even after long periods of contact and residence in the SL context, learners still experience difficulties in being pragmatically appropriate in the choice of speech acts, semantic formulae, content and form.

It has been claimed that a focus on meaning alone (Long, 1997), that is, adopting a non-interventionist approach, is insufficient to develop learners' full competence: two different interventionist approaches can therefore be adopted in classroom contexts: FonFormS or FonF.

2.3.2.2 *Focus on FormS*

This paradigm has been regarded as the most traditional approach in which learning is a conscious process (Schmidt, 1995) that takes place through the explicit discussion and assimilation of rules. Thus, the TL is acquired through decontextualised explanations and series of drills that enable learners to practice the rules they have been presented. This option is related to what Wilkins (1976) termed the *synthetic* syllabus in which the language is divided into separate parts and consequently taught in different steps.

This focus on specific forms in isolation has resulted in fixed lessons where learners are expected to control and process the different linguistic items with scarce chances of practising them in communicative situations. In other words, classroom activities are based on the analysis of linguistic forms rather than the meanings these forms convey. This approach, as Long (1998) claims, presents several problems that include the absence of a needs analysis to identify what learners' communicative needs are or the fact that the learner's role is passive rather than their being an active user of the language.

Moving on from a focus on grammatical aspects in the TL to the learning of pragmatic features in classroom settings, we find that most of the studies dealing with the effects of pragmatics instruction have followed this paradigm.[9] In fact, as mentioned in the

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[9] See a detailed revision of all these studies in section 3.2.3.2.

first section of the present chapter, the majority of the studies dealing with the instruction of speech acts have just provided learners with lists of useful expressions for those particular speech acts (Crandall and Basturkmen, 2004). Thus, what we imply by adopting a FonFormS approach in the realm of pragmatics involves teaching the pragmatic feature explicitly. This option of language teaching, then, goes parallel with the type of explicit instruction explained in the previous section.

Kasper (1996) proposes some techniques, or as she calls them *pedagogical strategies*, for developing learners' pragmatic ability in the classroom setting. These techniques consist of awareness-raising tasks and activities that involve the practice of the TL pragmatic features. In both types of pedagogical strategies, *metapragmatic discussions* are the key technique that makes learners focus explicitly on the particular aspect under instruction. This technique is similar to the type of metalinguistic explanations and rule presentation that characterises the FonFormS approach. Moreover, the traditional pattern of explicit intervention is also observed here, since the pragmatic feature is presented, described, explained and then discussed in order to establish the relationship between the pragmalinguistic forms that learners can employ and the sociopragmatic factors that may intervene in the choice of a particular form. Studies conducted by Tateyama et al. (1997), Safont (2001), Takashahi (2001) and Tateyama (2001) among many others, have all included this technique.

Safont's (2001) study, for instance, dealt with the effects of instruction to develop learners' ability to produce appropriate request strategies. Although the author employed some excerpts including authentic-language use in order to contextualise the request forms, her treatment followed the typical pattern adopted in this paradigm. On the basis of the previously mentioned suggested stages for teaching pragmatics (Kasper, 1996), Safont (2001) first presented the learners with a list of request linguistic formulations which varied depending on the politeness continuum. In this way, students were exposed to a variety of indirect, conventionally indirect and direct forms for expressing requests in English. After this description, learners were asked to recognise the same forms in some transcripts that involved semi-authentic situations. Then, they participated in some practice activities and,

finally, learners' responses were discussed by employing metapragmatic explanations.

Given some of the constraints pointed out by Long (1998) which characterise this type of approach, and bearing in mind that most of the research on pragmatic instruction has implemented the use of metapragmatic discussions, we are interested in examining whether there are other possible approaches that can be adopted for teaching pragmatic aspects in the FL classroom. Thus, a different paradigm, FonF, has been proposed whose prerequisite for attention to forms involves an engagement in communicative and meaningful situations.

2.3.2.3 *Focus on Form*

The last instructional paradigm can be seen as an intermediate position between the two approaches described above. As Long (1996) mentioned, the options in language teaching may be considered as a pendulum that swings from not paying any attention at all to the language itself to exclusively dealing with it as an object. Thus, Long (1991) proposed the FonF paradigm as an in-between approach that consists of focusing on the linguistic aspect only when it arises as a problem in the process of communication. The underlying assumption implied within this paradigm was also supported by Long and Robinson (1998: 23) who defined it as:

> […] focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production.

This conceptualisation of paying attention to the form only when the problem arises in meaningful interaction has been termed as *reactive* FonF by Doughty and Williams (1998c). These authors claim that adopting a reactive stance may be difficult for a practical implementation, since teachers have to be always ready to notice an error and consequently intervene with an appropriate FonF technique. In contrast, they mention that FonF may also be *proactive*, in which case the teacher chooses *in advance* which form he/she is going to

select for paying attention to.[10] Although the fact of choosing the target form may seem to be typical of structuralist teaching methods that present linguistic forms in isolation, a proactive stance entails the design of pedagogical materials and tasks which are oriented towards meaning. In this sense, the implementation of the proactive approach would only be made when the preselected linguistic aspects arise as problems during the progress of the communicative activities employed.

In relation to the fact of adopting a proactive FonF, in which the linguistic aspect has been selected a priori, an important decision mentioned by Doughty and Williams (1998c) concerns *which* particular form can be appropriate to focus on. Taking into account that the goal of implementing FonF in the classroom is to teach language for communication, the authors claim that other aspects apart from grammar should be considered. Specifically, they refer to Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell's (1997: 147) assumptions about this approach:

> We must note, however, that the notion of "focus on form" has typically been understood as focus primarily on the grammatical regularities of the "linguistic code features" […] of the [TL], whereas the direct approach we have in mind would also include a focus on higher level organizational principles or rules and normative patterns or conventions governing language use beyond the sentence level (e.g., discourse rules, pragmatic awareness, strategic competence) as well as lexical formulaic phrases.

In agreement with these authors, Doughty and Williams (1998c) point out that FonF identifies with the "direct approach" they mention and, thus, suggest that the principles and efficacy of this paradigm might also be applied to the discourse and pragmatic levels. In a recent study by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001), the authors also claim that FonF can be directed at other aspects apart from grammar, such as phonology, vocabulary or discourse (see also the special issue by García-Mayo and Alcón, 2002; Alcón, 2004).

In fact, whether this approach can be adopted for the instruction of pragmatic aspects is currently being questioned (Kasper and Rose, 1999, 2002) and only a few empirical

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[10] A similar distinction between *reactive* and *proactive* focus on form has been made by Ellis (2001) referring to both terms as *incidental* and *planned* focus on form respectively. Nassaji (2000) also mentions that the first way of implementing focus on form is *by process* and the second one is *by design*.

studies conducted by Fukuya and his colleagues have dared to implement it through the use of different FonF techniques (Fukuya et al. 1998; Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002). Kasper and Rose (2002: 259) also consider the application of this approach to the teaching of pragmatics stating that it is not always clear how principles proposed for instruction in grammar might translate to pragmatics, since pragmatics is never only form. For this reason, we need to reconsider the definition of this paradigm provided by Doughty and Williams (1998b: 4):

> […] the fundamental assumption of focus-on-form instruction is that meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across.

This definition is particularly relevant in order to be able to provide an explanation for the adoption of this approach for the teaching of pragmatics. Doughty and Williams (1998b) mention that when a type of FonF instruction can be implemented, both meaning and use should already be evident to the learner. Thus, the teacher is directing learners' attention to a linguistic aspect when they can be prepared to match that particular form with the intended meaning they want to convey and the appropriate way to express it depending on its use. In fact, they claim that the term *meaning* does not only refer to its lexical component but it also involves lexical, semantic and pragmatic meaning. To be more precise, FonF includes *forms, meaning*, and *function* (or *use*), and the degree of effectiveness of this approach will finally depend on learners' capacity to pay attention to these three aspects in the TL. A more recent definition of FonF provided by Doughty (2001: 206) summarises what the author implies by this approach as simultaneous processing of forms, meaning and use in working memory.

Working memory is a key term in Doughty's (2001) definition, since she defines precisely what FonF means from a cognitive perspective. Thus, working memory, practice and long-term memory are considered in Doughty's (2001) model under what she calls cognitive micro-processes, cognitive macro-processes and cognitive resources. These three types of processes are also relevant for the acquisition of pragmatic aspects. Regarding the *cognitive micro-processes*, learners need to notice the gap between what they have said and what it would be appropriate to say in that particular context. By means of specific FonF

techniques, learners can be made to focus their attention on the appropriate target forms and make them fit into their working memories. Then, *cognitive macro-processes* are also necessary, since learners have to process the new input through a lot of practice and opportunities for their output production. The final stage would activate the *cognitive resources* making learners store the new appropriate input in long-term memory and in this way build mental representations of the TL. By following these three types of processes, learners can finally acquire the pragmatic features after having been involved in various stages from the working memories into the long-term memory.

Taking all these aspects into consideration and following Celce-Murcia et al. (1997) and Doughty and Williams's (1998c) suggestions of implementing this paradigm with other features, we have attempted to extend FonF to pragmatics. In fact, Kasper and Rose (2002) suggest that it would be interesting to examine how this approach has been conceptualised in the interventional classroom research on pragmatics.

Although we agree with these authors on the need to examine this paradigm in pragmatics, we disagree with Kasper and Rose's (2002: 263) assumption that the metapragmatic comments generated by students' pragmatic action or observations would seem to be compatible with FonF. Bearing in mind all the differences between the two interventionist paradigms described above, we think that any type of metapragmatic explanation involves the explicitness of the rules that convey a particular form, in this case a pragmatic feature. In this sense, explicit instruction through the explanation of rules belongs to FonFormS. Moreover, Kasper and Rose (2002) also support the fact that having prepared in advance the particular pragmatic feature as the core of the instructional treatment is more characteristic of FonFormS than of FonF, since these pragmatic aspects do not arise from student problems encountered during meaningful language use. As we have seen, this position follows what Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) meant by FonF, that is, the reactive stance of this paradigm. However, as Doughty and Williams (1998c) observed, FonF can also adopt a proactive stance.

Considering the points made by Kasper and Rose (2002) towards the possible application of FonF in pragmatics (i.e. that metapragmatic comments can be employed with FonF, and that preselected forms are not contemplated in this paradigm), we may assume that their position has been limited to the original strict conceptualisation of this approach (Long, 1991; Long and Robinson, 1998). However, Kasper and Rose (2002) have not mentioned that this original meaning proposed by Long (1991) has been stretched and reinterpreted as proactive attention to form (Doughty and Williams, 1998c; Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen, 2001).

It is this second position towards FonF that we adopted in our study. We have operationalised this paradigm following a proactive FonF approach for the teaching of pragmatics, since we preselected some specific realisations for suggestions. Although we focused on particular forms for this speech act, they were not explicitly taught at the beginning of the lesson, which is the main characteristic of adopting a FonFormS approach. In contrast, these forms were only made the focus of attention when they appeared as problems during learners' engagement in communicative activities. In order to make this possible, the elaboration of all the tasks described in Chapter 4 created the context for the use of suggestions and we provided FonF by means of recasts when learners failed to use the selected target forms.

Recasts are one of the techniques employed within this paradigm of language teaching which may implicitly foster learners' acquisition of the TL. Apart from recasts, input enhancement is another technique that may be employed when implementing FonF. Both techniques are described in the next section.

2.3.2.3.1 *Input enhancement and recast as techniques in Focus on Form*

Researchers adopting a FonF paradigm have paid attention to the role of enhancing the input as a way to direct learners' attention to the particular forms of the TL. This type of attention-drawing activity was originally defined by Sharwood Smith (1981) as *consciousness-raising* and implied that focusing deliberately on the formal properties of the

language could alter learners' mental state. In other words, this process of highlighting the input would always result in intake. However, in 1991 Sharwood Smith modified this term to *input enhancement* to indicate that although certain aspects of the input can be altered, teachers cannot directly manipulate learners' attention to those aspects and, thus, no further assumptions about the consequences of that manipulation on learners can be made. Since then, input enhancement is a construct that has been addressed in many studies dealing with FonF instruction. In order to operationalise it, several pedagogical techniques that increase the salience of target items in the input have been employed to make learners notice the gap between their interlanguage and the TL. This expected outcome of noticing to be achieved by implementing the FonF approach was also addressed in Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis, previously explained in section 2.2.1.1.

One of these techniques refers to *typographical enhancement,* which involves changing the input by means of the use of bolding, underlining, italics or capital letters. According to Doughty and Williams (1998c), the purpose of this type of visual input enhancement is to attract learners' attention to form in an implicit and unobtrusive way, since the manipulation only involves making forms perceptually salient without offering any explicit expectation of what should be processed. Research on the implementation of this technique has been reported by Izumi (2002) with varying results.

On the one hand, the studies by Doughty (1988, 1991), Shook (1994), Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson and Doughty (1995) and Williams (1999) demonstrated the positive effects of input enhancement. Jourdenais et al. (1995), for instance, examined the relationship between textual enhancement of target forms and noticing, as well as the effects on subsequent TL production. Findings from their study showed that the enhancement participants not only noticed more target forms but also produced more of these target features in obligatory contexts.

On the other hand, research conducted by Alanen (1995), Robinson (1997) and White (1998) only found limited effects for this technique and the studies by Leow (1997) and Jourdenais (1998) did not find any significant effect at all. Alanen's (1995) study

investigated how rule presentation and visual input enhancement affected the acquisition of the learning target. The author conducted a study with four groups of participants that involved mere exposure, input enhancement, rule presentation, and both rule presentation and input enhancement. Her results suggested that the groups with rules did better than the other two groups and that the input enhancement group did not outperform the mere exposure group, although a qualitative analysis revealed that their use of the target forms was more accurate than that of the mere exposure group. In another study dealing with the perceptual salience of third person singular possessive determiners, White (1998) also obtained partial results for the effectiveness of typographical enhancement. The author suggested that drawing learners' attention towards the target forms was beneficial to speed up the acquisition of the enhanced forms, but this type of implicit technique was not adequate or sufficient in situations that involved contrasts between the first language and the TL.

All the previous studies have examined the effectiveness of input enhancement at the morphosyntactic level. However, research on the implementation of this implicit technique with other aspects of the TL is rather scarce. In fact, this observation was already made by Moroishi (1999), who focused on the appropriate usage of four Japanese conjectural auxiliaries in different contexts. In this study, discussed above, the author implemented the input enhancement technique by underlining these auxiliaries to direct learners' attention to them. Results from the study, however, showed that the use of this technique alone was not as effective as the metalinguistic explanations that the explicit group received.

Apart from this study, which although considering semantic/pragmatic rules of the TL still focused on a linguistic aspect, that of auxiliaries, input enhancement has also been operationalised at the pragmatic level in Fukuya and Clark's (2001) study. The authors conducted a study on ESL students who were randomly assigned to one of three groups depending on the type of instruction they received, that is, a FonFormS group, a FonF group and a control group. The treatment groups were exposed to two different versions of a videotaped drama in which the characters mitigated requests. The version for the FonFormS group included explicit instruction on the sociopragmatic factors that affected

the use of mitigators in requests, whereas the FonF group watched a different version that contained typographical enhancement of the mitigators, since they were highlighted in yellow any time they appeared in the situations. The control group watched a different videotape that was not concerned with requests. Findings from the three groups' performance on both listening comprehension and pragmatic recognition post-tests did not show any significant differences among the three groups in their pragmatic ability. The authors claimed that one possible reason for these results might have been due to their failing to operationalise the input enhancement technique properly, as it was not perceptually salient enough to draw learners' attention to the target features.

Despite these inconclusive results, the authors suggest that the implementation of FonF techniques on pragmatic aspects may be effective if they are operationalised in a way that is salient enough for learners to notice. Moreover, apart from the potential of saliency, the issue of whether employing input enhancement alone is enough to make learners notice the target forms has also been questioned. In fact, Izumi (2002) mentions that some of the SLA studies discussed above, which supported the benefits of visual enhancement (Doughty, 1991; Williams, 1999), employed this technique in combination with other forms of assistance, and this may have been the reason for its effectiveness. Izumi (2002) also compared a group who received output-input treatment with another one that was only exposed to the same input and found that the first group outperformed the second one. Given these results, the author suggests that there is a need for further research that pays attention to a combination of different instructional techniques instead of relying on the use of only one.

Regarding these assumptions and Doughty and Williams's (1998c: 243) claim that combined, rather than individual, FonF techniques are likely to be most useful, we decided to employ a combination of two implicit techniques with one of the treatment groups in our study. The second technique we employed was that of recasts, which we will now go on to explain.

Recasts refer to that kind of negative feedback that informs learners about what is not possible in the TL. According to Doughty and Williams (1998c), recasts have been considered as one of the most implicit and unobtrusive FonF techniques to draw learners' attention to the particular target form, since the use of this feedback does not include any king of explicit marker, such as "You mean" "Use this word" and "You should say" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 47). For this reason, in order to maximise the effectiveness of recasts, it has been suggested that focusing consistently on one or two elements increases the salience of the corrected utterance (Doughty, 2001, 2003).

This negative feedback was operationalised by Doughty and Varela (1998) as what they called *corrective recasts*, which consists of two parts. When an error was made, the teacher first provided negative evidence by repeating the learner's incorrect utterance with an emphasis on the error being made and, secondly, the teacher gave positive evidence by means of recasts that contained the correct target feature. Doughty and Varela (1998) implemented this technique in a content-based science ESL class where teachers provided recasts when learners made errors in simple and conditional past tense constructions. Results of their study indicated that, in contrast to the control group, the students in the implicit group who were recast improved both in their number of attempts to use the target forms as well as in their accuracy. The authors concluded that attention to form without interrupting the content and meaning of the science lesson was effective, although they also mentioned that in order to achieve effectiveness, the treatment must be focused and concentrated.

Apart from this study, which took place in an ongoing classroom context, recasts have been the focus of a number of other recent studies that have shown mixed results as regards their effectiveness (Mackey, 1995; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Long, Inagaki and Ortega, 1998; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Leeman, 2000, 2003; among many others). Lyster and Ranta (1997), for instance, examined the benefits of employing different feedback techniques in eliciting uptake with children from grades 4-6 in French immersion programmes. The authors found that recasts were the least effective technique in student-generated repair among all the techniques employed, such as metalinguistic clues or

clarification requests. By relying on the same data from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, Lyster (1998a) paid attention to recasts in order to identify whether they were declarative, interrogative, sought confirmation of the original utterance or provided additional information. His results were mixed regarding the corrective and approval functions of recasts, which led the author to conclude that recasts may not be appropriately used in terms of corrective feedback.

In contrast to these studies, results from a study which investigated the acquisition of Japanese and the acquisition of topicalisation and adverb placement in Spanish conducted by Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998) showed some short-term benefits for recasts. In the same line, Mackey and Philp (1998) reported an advantage for interactions with recasts versus interactions without recasts, although the authors mentioned that these positive results were only observed with the more advanced learners. The studies conducted by Leeman (2000, 2003), with learners of Spanish as an SL who were involved in communicative interaction, also demonstrated the positive effects of recasts. In her 2003 study, for instance, Leeman distributed the 74 learners into four different conditions, namely those of (1) recasts, (2) negative evidence, (3) enhanced salience of positive evidence, and (4) unenhanced positive evidence (control). The author found that the recast and the enhanced-salience groups performed better than the control group. Thus, the author concluded that recasts were effective when there was a kind of enhanced salience of positive evidence.

In sum, despite some disagreement regarding the potential effectiveness of recasts, Doughty (2001) has also supported the use of this technique from a cognitive perspective. In fact, this author claims that recasts are one of the most promising kinds of intervention, since a focused and systematic use of this technique can easily fit into learners' working memory along with the original utterance to which it is to be compared. Moreover, the use of recasts involves drawing learners' attention not only to the relevant aspects of the input but also to the specific problems of their own output. By means of this feedback, then, learners are provided with the correct or appropriate form that should be employed.

Given the benefits that learners may obtain from receiving this kind of FonF technique and considering that all the previous studies were concerned with morphosyntactical forms, the possibility of adopting recasts for pragmatic aspects has been argued (Kasper and Rose, 2002). In fact, these authors consider that a recast may be implemented when a learner produces a contextually inappropriate pragmatic feature. However, they also distinguish between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failures arguing the feasibility of adopting recasts in both cases. As Kasper and Rose (2002: 261) mention:

> As long as such problems are clearly pragmalinguistic and involve short linguistic items that can be promptly located and unambiguously identified, they may lend themselves well to recast in an instructional setting. But if the problem is sociopragmatic, it may be more difficult to locate in the ongoing interaction.

Considering these assumptions, and in line with Doughty (2003), we believe that for recasts to be effective, the selected target forms should be limited and accessible to the learners' developmental stage. For this reason, and bearing in mind that the implementation of recasts would take place in instructional settings, both the pragmalinguistic target forms and the sociopragmatic variables that are going to be addressed in the treatment could be selected and focused in advance.

As regards the operationalisation of this FonF technique with pragmatic features, Fukuya et al. (1998) already tried to implement a kind of implicit feedback on learners' production of requests by employing an *interaction enhancement* technique (Muranoi, 1996, 2000). This technique consisted of two steps in which the instructor first raised a sign showing a sad face every time a learner made a sociopragmatic error and then repeated the student's inappropriate utterance with a rising intonation. The purpose of this brief focus on form, according to the authors, was to make learners aware of the pragmatic failure without interrupting the content of the interaction. The researchers used this implicit feedback with the FonF treatment group because they were interested in assessing its effectiveness in comparison with the explicit explanations that the FonFormS group received on the sociopragmatic factors that affected the appropriate choice of the requests in the situations. Results did not support this assumption, since learners were not able to generalise the ways

of producing appropriate requests in other different situations that were different from those seen in class. The authors claimed that the brevity of the treatment could have been why inconclusive results were obtained, as the implementation of an implicit technique may take more time to demonstrate its effectiveness.

Apart from this first attempt to operationalise the FonF approach with a type of implicit feedback technique, the only study, to our knowledge, that has focused specifically on recasts in pragmatics is Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) research on requests. The participants in this study consisted of Chinese learners of English taking a communicative course on American culture who were distributed into a treatment and a control group. The topics addressed in this course allowed the researchers to prepare role-plays that made learners employ requests either in higher risk situations or in lower risk situations, depending on the three sociopragmatic factors of power, social distance and imposition. For each combination of situations, the authors selected in advance four appropriate request conventions to be addressed in each role-play. The reason for choosing these eight pragmalinguistic forms was based on the assumption that recasts are effective when the focus is consistent and limited to a few target items. In this sense, when learners in the treatment condition group made an inappropriate and/or inaccurate request, the instructor recast it by repeating learners' utterance with a rising intonation, and providing them with one of the appropriate selected forms for requesting. Results from a DCT employed before and after the treatment showed that learners in the pragmatic recast condition outperformed the control group in their use of the target forms addressed in the study. Although the authors mentioned that the scope of other possible appropriate request forms was not considered, the systematic implementation of recasts on the eight pragmalinguistic conventions of request selected as target forms proved effective.

After revising these two FonF techniques, we have seen that research examining their effectiveness has produced different results. However, two main considerations seem to have appeared as being conclusive in most of the studies: (1) the implementation of the input enhancement technique alone does not seem to be effective, and (2) a successful

operationalisation of recasts has to be focused and concentrated on some specific target items.

Considering these findings, we have employed a combination of both FonF pedagogical procedures in order to operationalise the implicit treatment adopted with one of our experimental groups. Moreover, on the basis of the three necessary conditions for SLA, namely those of input, output and feedback, we decided to select these two techniques in order to provide learners with opportunities to develop the three conditions. On the one hand, input enhancement made it possible to highlight the target forms in the input to make learners notice them. On the other hand, by providing learners with opportunities to produce their output, we also implemented the second technique, that of recasts, as a type of implicit corrective feedback that made learners notice the gaps between their interlanguage and the appropriate forms in the TL.

Finally, given the scarcity of research investigating the viability of incorporating these techniques in studies dealing with the effects of instruction on pragmatic aspects, our study aims to contribute to this line of research by operationalising them in one of our treatments. Before describing the details of the present study, a revision of the research methods and research conducted on pragmatics in classroom settings is examined in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

CLASSROOM RESEARCH ON PRAGMATICS

The classroom is an educational setting where two or more persons meet for a given period of time for the purposes of learning, for example, languages (van Lier, 1988). This formal context presents certain characteristics that affect the development of language learning in general and, more particularly, learners' acquisition of pragmatics. These characteristics, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991), involve the participants' distribution of turn, the topic addressed in the lessons, the task to be performed, the tone created during the instructional sessions and the code employed in the classroom. As we have seen in the previous chapter, and we will further describe in this one, classroom organisation is essential in terms of what kind of input and opportunities for practice are offered for learners to develop their pragmatic competence (LoCastro, 2003). Classroom research, then, refers to that type of investigation actually implemented in real classrooms which studies what is happening in this particular context.

In order to closely examine this setting with a focus on pragmatics, this chapter attempts to describe, firstly, the different research methods employed in ILP with a special emphasis on those assessment tasks employed in classroom-based studies. Moreover, apart from providing a description of the different data collection instruments based on Kasper and Rose's (2002) classification (section 3.1.1), we will also report those studies that have compared oral and written production data (section 3.1.2). Secondly, we will examine the research conducted on pragmatics in the particular context of the classroom. Given the importance of the differences involved in developing pragmatic competence in an SL or an FL classroom, section 3.2.1 will address the characteristics of both types of contexts. A review of some proposals for the teaching of pragmatics in the two settings will then be presented. In section 3.2.3 we will provide an overview of the different studies dealing with the instruction of pragmatics in both SL and FL classrooms. In addition, we will examine the opportunities offered for pragmatic development in the classroom context (i.e. observational studies) and the effects that implementing a particular instructional treatment may have on fostering learners' pragmatic competence (i.e. interventional studies). Finally, in the last section of the chapter, we will present the motivation for the present study and the research questions and hypotheses that guide this study.

3.1 Research methods in pragmatics

3.1.1 *Data collection instruments*

Kasper and Rose (2002) examined the main methodological approaches that have been employed to analyse how TL pragmatics is learnt. The authors divide the research methods used in ILP into three groups, namely those examining spoken discourse, those concerning different types of questionnaires, and those involving oral and written forms of self-report. On the basis of Kasper and Rose's (2002) review, we describe these research methods and point out their main advantages as well as their limitations (see also Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b; Kasper, 2000; for a revision of the different instruments employed in ILP research).

3.1.1.1 *Oral discourse data*

The first type of research methods, which is concerned with the collection of oral speech act data has examined three main sources of information: authentic discourse, elicited conversation (i.e. conversation tasks and sociolinguistic interviews), and role-play. The main feature common to these three methodological options of spoken discourse refers to the collection of oral interactive productions that allows the researcher to examine different aspects of discourse. While the first type, i.e. *authentic discourse*, refers to the collection of authentic speech events in different institutional settings (see Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996 in academic advising sessions; Young and He, 1998 in oral proficiency interviews), the *elicited conversation*, as its name indicates, involves the preparation of conversations that asks participants to talk about a particular topic (i.e. conversation tasks) or to answer the researcher's questions (i.e. sociolinguistic interviews). An example of the use of conversation tasks in a study dealing with the effects of instruction is Billmyer's (1990) study on compliments. Participants in this study were Japanese learners of ESL that maintained conversations with English NSs each week. The author prepared different tasks, such as showing photos of their homes and family members or teaching each other a proverb in their mother tongue, in order to elicit compliments during the conversations.

However, collecting authentic discourse may be especially difficult in FL contexts and arranging individual conversations with learners in the classroom may also be limited due to institutional constraints. Thus, the third type of oral data collection technique, namely *role-play*, has been the most widely employed in ILP research in general and especially in classroom-based studies. This instrument provides learners with a detailed description of a situation they are required to perform (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). Moreover, depending on the extent of the interaction (i.e. amount and variety of production involved), a distinction has been made between closed and open role-plays. In closed role-plays, learners have to respond to the description of a situation that involves specific instructions, and the interlocutors may also have suggestions for their responses. In contrast, learners engaged in open role-plays are only presented with the situation and asked to perform it without any further guidelines. Thus, open role-plays may involve as many turns and discourse phases as interlocutors need in order to maintain their interaction. Furthermore, arranging different roles may allow researchers to observe how the sociopragmatic factors of power, distance and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson, 1987) may influence learners' selection of particular pragmalinguistic forms to express the communicative act involved in the role-play performance.

Bearing in mind all these characteristics, namely those of representing oral production, operating the turn-taking mechanism and the fact that they involve opportunities for interaction/negotiation, role-plays have been regarded as more ethnographic and similar to authentic language use than written production techniques, which are described below (Houck and Gass, 1996). Nevertheless, the use of role-plays to collect learners' oral output also entails certain limitations. As Golato (2003) points out, the roles students may be asked to perform are often fictitious or imagined, and this fact may influence their production when they have to act roles they have never played in real life. In addition, this author also mentions that performing role-plays, in contrast to authentic conversations, does not imply any consequences for the students and, consequently, not only *what* is said but *how* it is said may not reflect real speech. Other aspects that should also be taken into account refer to the number of participants to get involved in this oral

task, since it may not be possible to arrange the appropriate conditions for a large number of pairs to perform the role-plays and the subsequent transcription of the long conversations may be very time-consuming for the researcher.

In spite of these limitations, role-plays have been employed as the main instrument in different classroom-based studies examining the effects of instruction on a variety of pragmatic features, such as discourse markers and strategies (House and Kasper, 1981a), gambits (Wildner-Bassett, 1984, 1986), pragmatic routines (Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001), pragmatic fluency (House, 1996), requests (Safont, 2001), refusals (Morrow, 1995); complaints (Morrow, 1995; Shaw and Trosborg, 2000) and interactionally appropriate responses to questions (Liddicoat and Crozet, 2001). For example, among other assessment instruments, Tateyama (2001) employed role-play tasks to measure JFL learners' pragmatic competence on three functions of the routine formula *sumimasen*. The author resorted to this type of oral technique in order to observe learners' spontaneous ability to employ both their sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge in interaction. In another study, Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) dealt with learners' responses to a particular question which involved different degrees of ritualisation in the two languages examined, French and Australian English. Given the nature of the study, that is, the discoursal rules followed in each community, the authors decided to make use of role-plays as the most representative instrument that could include learners' spoken language. As can be observed from the two studies quoted above, the decision to employ open role-plays was made on the basis of collecting as much natural and spontaneous data as possible, considering that both studies took place in FL classrooms. As previously mentioned, this has in fact been one of the main reasons for resorting to role-plays in these particular settings.

3.1.1.2 *Written questionnaires*

Apart from collecting production data by means of learners' oral performance, written production instruments have also been widely employed in classroom-based studies. These written research methods have been included in the group of questionnaires, which correspond to the second type of data collection instruments described by Kasper

and Rose (2002). According to these authors, there are three types of questionnaires, namely those of the DCT, the MCT, and the scaled-response questionnaire. The difference between the three questionnaires lies in the type of response they elicit. While the first one implies an open response in which learners are asked to write what they think is coherent and appropriate in that particular situation, the other two questionnaires present fixed alternatives from which learners are asked to select the one they consider to be the most appropriate.

Among these three questionnaires, the *DCT* has been one of the most commonly used in ILP research. It involves a written description of a situation followed by a short dialogue with an empty gap that has to be completed by the learner. The context specified in the situation is designed in such a way that the particular pragmatic aspect under study is elicited (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). One of the advantages attributed to this instrument consists of its allowing control over the contextual variables that appear in the situational description and which may affect learners' choice of particular forms when writing their responses. Moreover, the use of DCTs allows the researcher to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time (Houck and Gass, 1996). However, as noted by Kasper and Rose (2002: 90), the fact that they can be administered faster than other data collection instruments does not mean that this is always the easiest instrument to be employed. As these authors argue, it is designing the DCT that is best suited to the goals of the study and the evaluation process that takes time to develop (see also Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b on this point). Apart from taking into account this consideration, this research method has also been criticised for being too artificial, as it presents short written segments rather than real-life extracts (Rose, 1994b) and, as a pen and paper instrument, it has also been claimed to resemble a test-like method (Sasaki, 1998). This is because, despite the responses being thought of as being oral, learners are asked to respond in a written mode what they think they would say in a particular situation, which may not exactly correspond to what they would actually say in the same setting under real circumstances (Golato, 2003).

Although employing a DCT may involve all the previously mentioned limitations, Kasper and Rose (2002: 96) point out that this instrument still indicates which particular forms and strategies learners choose to employ in a given situation. Thus, the authors claim that although not comparable to face-to-face interaction, it can provide pertinent information regarding learners' pragmalinguistic and metapragmatic knowledge on the specific pragmatic feature under study. Besides, given the frequent use of this written production technique in ILP research and the different design formats it may adopt (i.e. inclusion of prompts or rejoinders), several studies have been conducted in order to prove its validity (Rose, 1992; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993b; Johnston, Kasper and Rose, 1998; Billmyer and Varghese, 2000).

Johnston et al. (1998) took into consideration Rose's (1992) findings about the inclusion of rejoinders in one of the production questionnaires employed and carried out a more complex analysis. These authors examined the effects of various types of rejoinders in eliciting the speech acts of requests, apologies and complaints. Results showed effects for both including and excluding the rejoinder and the type of rejoinder employed. Additionally, the influence of rejoinders also varied depending on the speech act realisation strategies and was more evident in apologies than in complaints. A different aspect was examined in Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1993b) study, which paid attention to the effects of including a prompt in the description of one of the two DCTs employed whereas the second DCT only provided the description of the situation. The authors found that the variations in the design of the instrument affected NNSs' responses and helped them in their use of appropriate strategies. Similar findings were obtained in a recent study conducted by Billmyer and Varghese (2000) on eliciting participants' request realisations. They examined the effects of the manipulating situational prompts in one of the DCTs by including more social and contextual information. Although no influence was observed on the request strategy use or amount of internal modification, the fact of enhancing the content of the situation was very effective in obtaining longer responses and more external modification.

Results found in the last two studies examined above have important pedagogical implications for the design of tasks that may facilitate learners' development of pragmatic competence in FL classrooms. As Billmyer and Varghese (2000) claim, the fact of providing participants with a more contextualised description of the different situations helped them to understand the variables involved and, consequently, to produce more elaborate requests. We believe that these considerations may be useful when designing written production questionnaires since, as noted by Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001), these may be the only type of instruments available for implementation in an FL context. In fact, in their classroom-based study designed to measure Cantonese learners' instructional effects on complimenting and responding to compliments in English, the authors resorted to a DCT and two other written instruments. The authors mention that although the use of three written questionnaires implied considerable constraints, the possibility of employing oral data collection methods was not possible given the particular context of instruction. Similarly, Takahashi (2001) also had to make use of the DCT due to the large group of participants involved in her study, which dealt with Japanese EFL learners' ability to make requests before and after several treatment sessions.

Apart from the positive effects that incorporating relevant information related to the context and setting of the DCT situations may have on learners' ability to produce the intended communicative act, new instruments capable of collecting learners' written production data could also be considered. With specific reference to FL classrooms, Kasper (2000: 340) claims that the implementation of new technologies may also bear important pedagogical implications, especially those utilising innovations in computer technology. In fact, several studies focusing on different pragmatic aspects have employed other instruments from the area of new technologies to collect their production data (Kinginger, 2000; Wishnoff, 2000; Belz and Kinginger, 2002). Wishnoff (2000), for instance, employed two types of written data methods to measure instructional effects on learners' use of hedging devices. The author compared the number and type of hedges in both academic written research papers and computer-mediated discussions. Results showed that in both types of writing tasks, students increased their use of these devices, although the type of hedges employed varied in terms of formality. In academic writing, the hedges analysed

were more formal than those found in the computer-mediated discourse.

Focusing on a different pragmatic feature, that of the distinction of the French second-person pronoun (*tu* vs. *vous*), Kinginger's (2000) study involved participants from France and the United States. The data collection procedure took place in the context of telecollaborative learning by using both electronic mail exchange and real-time videoconferencing tasks between the two groups of participants, which led to the creation of a database for her study consisting of 350 email exchanges between pairs of students from the two countries. Similarly, Belz and Kinginger (2002) also analysed data from a telecollaborative learning environment, which consisted of 300 emails for NSs interacting with French students and 390 emails for those interacting with German students. Results showed that learners employed the pronouns of address more frequently over time and their awareness of the use of the forms of solidarity also increased.

So far, we have been dealing with the use of the DCT as a type of open-ended questionnaire that allows the collection of written production data. The second type of questionnaire that may be employed in classroom-based studies refers to the *MCT*. Learners are presented with the description of a situation followed by several alternative responses from which they are asked to select the alternative that best fits that particular situation. Since the options provided are limited, the use of possible specific strategies for the communicative act under study is also controlled.

Several studies have been conducted with the aim of comparing this questionnaire with that of the DCT. Rose (1994b) examined the use of requests by speakers of Japanese and American English in both DCTs and MCTs and found that participants' performance varied according to the instrument employed. In fact, Japanese participants' requests were more direct in the DCT whereas they employed more hints and indirect request realisations in the MCT. In a follow-up study, Rose and Ono (1995) employed the two instruments again in the same situations with Japanese female students and similar findings were obtained. The participants employed more indirect strategies in the MCT than in the DCT. Focusing on a different population and a different speech act, Hinkel (1997) examined the

differences between speakers of Chinese and NSs of English with regard to the appropriateness of advice acts. Results from this study showed that NSs of English employed direct and hedged advice acts when responding to the DCT situations, whereas Chinese subjects used indirect advice acts or nothing. In contrast, Chinese participants preferred more direct strategies when responding to the MCT. According to the author, these findings might be due to the fact that Chinese participants find the MCT, which focuses on awareness, easier than the DCT, which implies production.

Hinkel's (1997) observations are related to the cognitive demands involved in both instruments. On the one hand, the DCT is an open task that requires learners to think and look for the most appropriate strategy they would employ in a particular situation. On the other hand, the MCT is a less demanding task with a closed format that allows the researcher to elicit learners' knowledge on a particular pragmatic aspect without making demands on their production ability. This was taken into consideration in the abovementioned study by Tateyama's (2001) on learners' ability to employ routine formulae in Japanese. The author, apart from drawing on a role-play, was also interested in employing a less demanding cognitive task that still assessed learners' pragmatic competence. Dealing also with the effects of instruction on pragmatics, Fukuya and Clark (2001) designed a pragmatic MCT to measure learners' ability to recognise the appropriate use of mitigators in requests. Bearing in mind the fact that in order to construct an MCT, the situations and possible responses have to rely on previous research, the authors created their instrument on the basis of studies conducted on requests (Hudson, Detmer and Brown, 1995; Hill, 1997; Fukuya et al., 1998). However, given the inconclusive findings of their experiment, the authors warned that this type of instrument may not be the most suitable for the accurate assessment of learners' pragmatic competence.

Taking into account the possible limitations of this questionnaire, either in the accuracy of its construction or in obtaining reliable results, the MCT has not been widely employed in classroom-based studies examining the effects of pragmatic instruction. In fact, the studies that have incorporated this instrument (Lyster, 1994; Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Tateyama, 2001) have not relied exclusively on it (with the exception of Bouton's

[1994] and Kubota's [1995] studies on testing students' comprehension of implicatures), but additional data collection techniques have also been adopted.

Another type of closed test, in contrast to the open-ended format adopted by the DCT, refers to the *scaled-response questionnaire*. This third type of questionnaire involves a detailed description of a situation in which relevant information, such as power or imposition, is presented to the learners. After the contextualised situation has been introduced, a given response to that setting is provided along with a rating scale, which may be divided into five to seven steps, and learners are asked to assess that response by choosing one of the steps on the scale. In this sense, scaled-response items have been employed to examine learners' metapragmatic assessments (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Two different types of assessment data have also been distinguished (Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper, 2000). On the one hand, learners' assessment may be elicited on pragmalinguistic aspects, such as how the linguistic realisations employed in the situations are evaluated in terms of appropriateness and politeness. On the other hand, sociopragmatic aspects may also be addressed by asking learners to assess the contextual factors that can influence the choice of a particular speech act realisation. An example of an assessment questionnaire designed to measure sociopragmatic judgments in terms of social distance and social dominance can be found in Barron's (2003) study on Irish learners' production of offer-refusal exchanges, pragmatic routines and mitigation in German during a study-abroad context.

Although Kasper and Rose (2002) note that the scaled-response technique has not been used as extensively as the other two written questionnaires described above, the authors point out three main goals that this instrument may fulfil. In some studies, such as for example Takahashi's (1995, 1996) research on pragmatic transferability, metapragmatic assessment techniques have been implemented as previous steps towards the creation of the final instrument to be employed in the experiment. In other studies, the use of a scaled-response questionnaire has been developed as the main research method to examine a particular pragmatic aspect. This is the case of Safont (2001), who employed a discourse evaluation test in order to measure specifically both monolingual and bilingual learners'

metapragmatic awareness of requests. The subjects had to evaluate different request act exchanges according to the appropriateness of the request realisation strategy in particular contexts where the requests were employed. Moreover, learners were asked to justify their evaluation when they thought they were appropriate and to provide alternative suggestions in the situations where they had found that the request was inappropriate to the context. Results from this study showed that bilingual learners outperformed their monolingual counterparts in their meta-pragmatic awareness of requests.

Finally, eliciting metapragmatic assessments has been regarded as a way of complementing other data that is normally collected by means of production instruments. In a study examining the use of apologies by two groups of Japanese students of ESL, Maeshiba et al. (1996) employed a scaled-response instrument to complement the main questionnaire used, which was a DCT. The authors were interested in examining whether there was a correlation between learners' production of apologies and their assessment of different contextual factors that affected the appropriate use of this speech act. Results confirmed what the authors had hypothesised, since the transfer from the first language observed from learners' production was positive when the assessments had also been made appropriately. In another study mentioned above, Takahashi (2001) also complemented the DCT instrument designed to elicit learners' requests with a scaled-response questionnaire dealing with their degree of confidence when using a particular request expression. To this end, the author elaborated a 5-point rating scale on which the value 1 meant *not confident at all*, whereas the value 5 corresponded to being *completely confident*. By means of this instrument, apart from examining the effects of instruction on learners' appropriate use of requests, the author also examined whether learners' confidence in formulating these request strategies was influenced by the type of treatment received.

3.1.1.3 *Oral and written self-report methods*

The last types of research methods that can also be employed to examine learners' pragmatic development in the classroom setting consist of various forms of oral and written self-report instruments. According to Kasper and Rose (2002), three main types have been

identified, namely those of interviews, think-aloud protocols, and diaries. These three types of self-report methods are characterised by being totally open-ended and more directed towards analysing participants' behaviour and their decisions on the particular aspects examined.

The *interview* is the first kind of oral self-report method that attempts to obtain information by asking participants about how and why they use a particular language feature in a given task. This type of instrument refers to a specific speech event that is characterised by a question-answer sequence involving two interlocutors: the researcher and the respondent. Thus, the type of procedure arising in interviews is sensitive to participants' responses. Moreover, although different types of interviews are distinguished depending on aspects such as structure, medium or length, a common feature observed in all of them is their interactive nature. Given this fact, important context factors that may influence this interchange should be borne in mind when analysing the data outcome.

As Kasper and Rose (2002) mention, the purposes of incorporating interviews in studies dealing with pragmatics may be: (1) to initiate a particular research issue, (2) to constitute the main data source of the study, or (3) to be employed as part of a multi-method approach that involves the use of other instruments. This last application, that is to say, resorting to interviews for triangulating purposes, has been adopted in several studies from the ILP field. In fact, triangulation of data has been considered important when researchers are interested in examining a particular pragmatic issue from different methodological perspectives. This is the case of DuFon's (1999) study of the acquisition of linguistic politeness in Indonesian by beginning and intermediate learners. The author made use of interviews to obtain useful information (i.e. how politeness was perceived by different members of the community) that could be employed to interpret data collected through other methods. Also adopting a multi-method approach, Tateyama's (2001) classroom-based study mentioned above included a structured interview with learners after they had been involved in role-play tasks. The purpose of these interviews was not only to examine the effect of learners' planning decisions on their role-play performance, but also to find out how learners assessed the treatment received and their suggestions for

alternative ways of teaching pragmatics. The author reported interesting information from learners' responses on these issues, such as their thinking in two languages (i.e. English and Japanese) when planning their role-plays.[11]

While the interview refers to an interactive event that involves two interlocutors, in the second type of oral self-report instrument, the *think-aloud protocol*, learners' individual thoughts are verbalised while being engaged in a particular activity. This type of verbal report provides the researcher with information about the mechanisms learners activate at the precise moment of carrying out the activity. Moreover, in order to obtain reliable information from learners, they must be asked to say only what they are thinking when completing the task rather than trying to explain or describe all the different processes they are going through.

Although there are no classroom-based studies dealing with instructional effects that have adopted this technique, research in the field of ILP has examined the effectiveness of this instrument by analysing how learners report on their use of different speech acts (Robinson, 1992; Cohen and Olshtain, 1993). Focusing on learners' performance on a DCT eliciting refusals, Robinson (1992) employed a combination of both concurrent and retrospective verbal reports. The first type of think-aloud protocol was tape-recorded and took place while carrying out the task, whereas the second verbal report was elicited immediately after learners had completed the task by making them listen to their previous verbalisations. An analysis of these verbal reports showed that learners paid attention to both pragmalinguistic aspects (i.e. which strategies are considered before giving a response) and sociopragmatic aspects (i.e. which factors are taken into account in order to find the most appropriate response) in order to produce their refusals on the DCT.

Finally, in contrast to the two previously described oral instruments, the *diary* is a type of written self-report method that does not follow any specific structure at all and, consequently, is completely participant-directed. In this sense, the diarist decides how and

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[11] Apart from using interviews as a type of an oral self-report method, Tateyama (2001) also asked learners to write self-reports after completing an MCT. Similarly, Takahashi's (2001) learners wrote self-reports on their process of employing request strategies in the DCT administered as the main instrument.

when to report his/her experiences about the particular object of the study. Additionally, as Kasper and Rose (2002) point out, two types of diaries have been distinguished, namely those of the self-study diary and the commissioned diary study. Whereas the former implies that the diarist and the researcher are the same person, the latter involves other participants who are requested by the researcher to keep a diary for later analysis.

The studies from the ILP field that have made use of the self-study type of diary include Cohen's (1997) and LoCastro's (1998) studies on Japanese. The second type of diary, the commissioned diary study, was employed by DuFon's (1999) investigation on the acquisition of politeness in Indonesian cited above. Cohen's (1997) study has been reported in Chapter 1, since the description of his experience as a student of Japanese during a semester-long course is regarded as a longitudinal study. During this semester, the author kept a diary in which he recorded important information about his learning of pragmatics. Findings from his experience revealed that although achieving the goals established in the course, his pragmatic ability to use Japanese in an appropriate way was not reached. The participants in DuFon's (1999) study kept individual diaries that were discussed once a week during group meetings with the researcher. Results illustrated the variety of topics mentioned by each participant as well as the different pragmatic issues that appeared in their journal entries.

After this revision of all the instruments employed to collect data in ILP studies in general and classroom experimental research in particular, we believe that some important pedagogical implications may be derived for their implementation to assess learners' pragmatic competence in SL or FL classrooms. Certain limitations observed, such as the number of participants involved in the study, time constraints or the efficacy of some techniques for specific purposes, may prevent researchers from employing a wide variety of instruments in these contexts. In this line, Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001: 154) note:

> As in much classroom-based research – in pragmatics as well as other areas of second language acquisition – it is often not feasible to measure instructional effects other than though the use of written questionnaires (or other instruments) designed for that purpose.

In fact, the authors claimed that they had also planned to implement a delayed post-test in their study, but its administration was impossible due to institutional constraints. Thus, we believe that two crucial aspects should be taken into account regarding the type and possible use of more than one method to conduct classroom-based research on pragmatics instruction. On the one hand, as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig (1999b) and Kasper and Rose (2002), the researcher should design the most appropriate instrument according to the goals of the study rather than relying on the classic DCT only on the grounds that it is the quickest and easiest method to collect data. On the other hand, it should be advisable – if possible – to adopt a multi-method approach that involved the use of different instruments in order to maximise information and increase the level of objectivity of findings. The two classroom experimental studies conducted by Tateyama et al. (1997) and Tateyama (2001), for instance, resorted to the use of multiple methods from the three groups of techniques described above in order to assess the effects of instruction on pragmatic routines in Japanese. In addition, by employing several instruments, the researcher can also reduce any possible task-effects, an aspect that has been observed in different studies conducted for that purpose, and which we consider in the next section.

3.1.2 *Studies comparing oral and written production data*

As we have seen in the previous section, production data has been collected either in an oral or a written mode. The most common ways to obtain participants' oral production data involve authentic discourse and role-plays, whereas the DCT is the representative technique for obtaining written production data in the studies conducted so far. Since several advantages and limitations – mentioned above – have been attributed to these methods, research has been carried out with the aim of examining whether the differences of employing either instrument influences the results of the study. Moreover, given the extensive use of DCTs in the ILP field, the comparison of data collected by this technique to data elicited in an oral mode has also served to prove whether this written instrument is suitable to accurately show learners' pragmatic knowledge of a particular aspect.

One of the first studies comparing data from a DCT with oral data from an authentic encounter, in this case the academic advising session, was conducted by Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992). The authors contrasted the use of rejections by native and NNSs of English in the two types of production data and differences were observed in both the frequency and the type of rejection strategies employed. Apart from observing a narrower use of semantic formulae and downgraders in the production questionnaire than in the oral conversations, these authentic encounters also revealed longer exchanges containing instances of turn-taking and negotiation strategies. The same type of differences was observed in Beebe and Cummings's (1996) research, which also dealt with authentic production data. By comparing refusals from a written DCT and from telephone conversations between two NSs, the authors observed that the amount of data obtained in the oral responses was not only greater but also more repetitive and elaborated than in the written ones. Moreover, the telephone conversations also provided the participants with opportunities to cooperate and, consequently, negotiate their refusal exchanges. However, the authors also found that although the oral data showed a better representation of authentic talk, the DCT could still be validated, since the content of semantic formulae was similar in the two instruments. This fact was also noted by Margalef-Boada's (1993) study on the same speech act, namely that of refusals, which compared an open role-play and a written DCT. Results showed that the same content and range of semantic formulae for refusals appeared in both types of techniques, although as occurred in Beebe and Cummings's (1996) study, the oral data revealed longer and more complex interventions than the written data due to the interactive nature of the role-play. Similarly, Houck and Gass (1996) found that the data from the videotaped role-play employed in their study also implied longer responses and negotiation segments than the DCT. Finally, in a recent study on compliment responses, Golato (2003) also contrasted naturally occurring talk with a DCT. More specifically, the author compared data from a corpus of 6 hours of telephone and 25 hours of face-to-face conversations with a DCT consisting of seven situations that appeared frequently in the natural data. Results showed important differences between the two types of data, since none of the participants filling out the DCT chose to ignore a compliment in any of the situations and the way in which they claimed to agree with compliments was also different from real discourse.

In contrast to the findings observed in the studies described above, Rintell and Mitchell (1989) found no significant differences in the responses obtained from both a DCT and a closed role-play. The authors compared the use of requests and apologies by ESL learners and English NSs in these two methods, claiming that the language elicited was very similar in both tasks. These results may have been due to the fact that the closed type of role-play did not involve any interaction between two or more participants, since only one turn was allowed. In a comparison of data-gathering methods (i.e. written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes and natural conversations), Yuan (2001) examined the production of compliment and compliment responses and also observed that providing participants with only one turn in the oral and written DCTs did not generate the interaction that is observed in role-plays and natural conversations. Nevertheless, in terms of amount of data, results showed that responses from the oral DCT still included a higher number of features typical of natural speech.

Written and oral DCTs, together with role-plays and natural data, were also included in the studies conducted by Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) and Turnbull (2001), which adopted an approach involving multiple data-collection techniques. Although these studies focused on different speech acts, namely those of expressions of gratitude and refusals to requests respectively, both obtained similar results regarding length and complexity in their comparison of research methods. The authors found that the responses elicited in both types of DCTs were shorter and less elaborated than those found in role-plays and authentic data.

Other studies employing a multi-method framework with a focus on establishing the reliability and validity of the different techniques being employed in ILP research refer to Hudson et al. (1992, 1995). The authors made use of six different instruments when examining ESL learners' and NSs' production of requests, refusals and apologies. These instruments were a multiple-choice DCT, an open DCT, a listening lab production test, a videotaped role-play, a self-assessment test, and a self-assessment test of the videotaped role-play. Results from these studies reported that participants' responses not only varied depending on the instrument employed but also according to the contextual situation they

were presented with. On the basis of this research, Yamashita (1996) and Yoshitake (1997) conducted two contrastive studies dealing with the same speech acts and instruments.[12] The difference between these studies referred to subjects' nationality and the setting where the research was conducted. Whereas Yamashita's (1996) study involved English learners of Japanese as a second language (JSL), Yoshitake's (1997) research was concerned with Japanese students of EFL. Findings from these studies confirmed the results by Hudson et al. (1992, 1995) cited above. On the one hand, regarding the effects of the instrument employed, Yamashita (1996) found that a wider use of linguistic items was obtained in open oral tasks than in written ones. On the other hand, among other results, Yoshitake's (1997) study also indicated that participants' choice of speech act strategies varied depending on the situations, and that the presence of an interlocutor in some of the instruments employed generated longer speech instances and interactive feedback.

In contrast to most of the studies previously described that focused on ESL students with different cultural backgrounds, Yoshitake's (1997) research is also relevant for being conducted in an EFL setting. This fact is important, since as Sasaki (1998) argues, most of the situations described in the instruments designed to elicit participants' responses are not appropriate in an FL context because participants are not familiar with them. Moreover, results from these studies cannot be generalised, since the data have been obtained from different participants. Taking these aspects into consideration, Sasaki (1998) compared a written production questionnaire with role-plays specifically designed for a group of Japanese EFL learners. Results obtained from this comparison were in line with previous research, since responses from the role-plays were longer and showed more variety of strategies than those found in the written questionnaire. Also focusing on an EFL setting, Safont (2001) contrasted learners' production on requests in a DCT with role-play data and found that the oral task revealed longer responses, involving more than one turn, than the written questionnaire. However, in terms of number of request realisation strategies, the author reported that learners produced more appropriate responses in the DCT than in the oral research method. Safont (2001) claimed that these results might have been due to the

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[12] Whereas Yamashita (1996) employed the same six instruments developed by Hudson et al. (1992, 1995), Yoshitake (1997) only analysed four of them: open-discourse completion test, multiple-choice open-discourse completion test, language laboratory production test, and role-play test.

fact that the written task was carried out individually with no time constraints, whereas the oral role-play involved an interlocutor and it was tape-recorded.

After reviewing the previous studies aimed at comparing results from oral and written production data, several significant aspects can be pointed out. Findings from most of the studies showed that, given the interactive nature of role-plays and authentic discourse, participants' responses in these oral tasks were longer and more elaborate than those elicited by the written instrument. Nevertheless, we should bear in mind, as Sasaki (1998) noted, that the majority of these studies were conducted in SL contexts. This fact may imply important considerations when designing and administering different research methods, since the context in which a language is learnt affects the chances learners may have to develop their pragmatic competence (Safont, 2001). For this reason, the opportunities for being exposed to and being able to use the TL are more restricted in an FL context, where these chances are limited to the classroom. Thus, taking into account Safont's (2001) results quoted above, which showed that learners produced more requests in the DCT than in role-play, we believe that production data elicited by DCTs, when created in an accurate way, allows the researcher to examine how learners activate their pragmatic knowledge. Moreover, learners engaged in a written production task are allowed more time to think and reflect about different strategies for a particular situation, in contrast to oral production research, which involves a higher degree of cognitive demands on the learners. In spite of all these observations, a written questionnaire should never be regarded as a substitute for natural data, but in view of the limitations observed in an FL classroom, the instruments that should be created and implemented are those attending to the goals of the particular study and the participants involved in it.

Considering all the assumptions mentioned in this section about the need to include different techniques and the strengths and weaknesses involved in both oral and written types of data collection instruments, we decided to employ a variety of research methods in our study. As will be described in Chapter 4, following Bardovi-Harlig's (1999b) suggestions to design specific instruments that are appropriate to the particular purposes of the study, we elaborated both oral (i.e. phone tasks) and written (i.e. email tasks)

instruments. Additionally, apart from collecting learners' production data, we also made use of a scale-response questionnaire (i.e. rating assessment test) to measure learners' awareness on their evaluation of the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations as well as their confidence when judging these situations. Finally, given the fact that due to institutional constraints no type of self-report data could be collected from learners, we designed a questionnaire and gave it out three times throughout the course to get information about students' opinions on the treatment and their feelings when being involved in the different tasks.

Before going on to a detailed explanation of our study, the following section addresses the research that has been conducted specifically in SL and FL classrooms. After describing the characteristics of each context and the proposals made for teaching pragmatics in the classroom, attention is paid to examining both the opportunities offered for the development of pragmatics in the classroom context (i.e. observational studies) and the effects that particular types of instruction may have on promoting learners' pragmatic competence (i.e. interventional studies).

3.2 Research on pragmatics in instructed second and foreign language classrooms

As mentioned in the previous section, the *context* in which learners are immersed to acquire the TL is vital in terms of exposure to input and opportunities for practice. According to Kasper (1989b), a distinction has been made between *natural contexts*, which refer to those places where learning occurs while being actively engaged in communication, and SL and FL contexts, which are designed specifically for language learning to take place. Kasper (1989b) refers to these two contexts as *non-educational* and *educational contexts*, respectively. Whereas the former is exemplified by dyadic face-to-face interaction, the latter has been traditionally associated to the type of teaching known as frontal, in which the teacher controls the interaction. It is the distinction between these two types of settings, namely those of SL and FL classrooms, as well as the advantages or

disadvantages they display in providing opportunities for developing learners' pragmatic competence that are addressed in the first part of the present section.

3.2.1 *Characteristics of second and foreign language classrooms*

An earlier comparison of SL and FL contexts with a focus on particular aspects of discourse management (i.e. opening, closing and discourse regulation) was carried out by Kasper (1989b). Specifically, the author compared conversations between pairs of NSs of English and German collected in SL settings with conversations between high-intermediate German learners of English and English NSs collected in FL settings. Results showed that learners in FL contexts did not employ appropriate interactive procedures, since no chances for active cooperation and negotiation were provided. The author claimed that these results might have been due to the fact that learners had been exposed to frontal teaching and suggested that in these settings they should be presented with communicative activities in which they could participate actively and adopt initiating roles.

Some of these differences have also been observed regarding opportunities offered for learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in both types of contexts. As Kasper (2001a, 2001b) notes, an SL context offers more advantages than an FL setting for developing learners' pragmatic ability. In an SL context, learners have rich exposure to the TL outside the classroom and a lot of opportunities to use it for real-life purposes. This fact enables them to develop their pragmatic ability, since they may get involved in situations where they are required to interpret utterances in context or interact with different participants in different environments. In contrast, learners in an FL setting lack all these opportunities to be engaged in genuine communication in the TL. Additionally, they do not have a direct observation of NSs that may provide them with the appropriate models to follow. In fact, the only source of input and instances of pragmatic behaviour they may receive comes from the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1997a). For this reason, creating the necessary conditions that allow learners to develop their pragmatic competence in this specific context is essential. However, as Rose (1999) points out, this aspect is also particularly difficult, since FL classrooms involve large classes and limited contact hours

that prevent teachers from organising an appropriate environment to facilitate the development of learners' pragmatic ability.

Apart from all the disadvantages presented by an FL classroom as regards providing opportunities to foster pragmatic development, Rose (1999) also mentions some advantages found in this particular setting. One of them refers to the fact that classes are homogeneous and this situation may be helpful in clarifying conflictive pragmatic features, since it offers the possibility of establishing comparisons between learners' mother tongue and the TL. In addition, most of the teachers in FL classrooms are NNSs and their position as learners towards the achievement of appropriate pragmatic competence in the TL contributes to establish discussions where both languages are compared. Similarly, both teacher and learners not only share the same mother tongue but also the same culture and this fact also facilitates a better understanding of which pragmatic features may be common or different in the two cultural systems.

To sum up, SL classrooms involve a series of characteristics that are not observed in FL classrooms, namely those of authentic TL input, interaction in the TL outside the classroom, exposure to diverse contexts, authentic purposes of TL use, and social consequentiality. The only typical feature of the FL classroom that does not apply to the SL context, however, is the common first language and culture shared between the teacher and learners. However, in spite of all the advantages that an SL context may offer for pragmatic development, it has been claimed that even after a long period of contact with the TL, some pragmatic aspects still continue to be incomplete (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, 2001). In this sense, teaching pragmatic competence in both SL and FL classrooms has been regarded as advisable and necessary. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), the classroom is a place that, by means of instruction, may provide salient input. Moreover, instruction can help learners understand language use and provide them with knowledge of the different choices that may be employed depending on the situation they are involved in and whom they are talking to.

Considering the benefits that learners in both types of classrooms may obtain by receiving instruction on particular pragmatic aspects, several researchers have already proposed different techniques and activities to teach pragmatic competence in these settings (Olshtain and Cohen, 1991; Rose, 1994a, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Judd, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos, 2003). Some of these proposals are outlined in the next subsection.

3.2.2 *Proposals for teaching pragmatics in the classroom*

Olshtain and Cohen (1991) were the first authors to propose a framework with different steps for teaching speech acts. According to these authors, learners first need to be exposed to the most typical realisation strategies of the particular speech act under study. After this presentation, they should be explained the factors that are involved in selecting one specific form rather than another, and finally they should be provided with opportunities to practice the use of the speech act. In order to be able to plan and implement these suggestions, Olshtain and Cohen (1991) elaborated five steps that included the three conditions for learning any aspect of the TL (i.e. input, output and feedback) previously mentioned in Chapter 2.

The first step, *the diagnostic assessment*, was proposed with the aim of determining learners' level of awareness of speech acts in general and, more particularly, the specific speech act under study. By means of acceptability rating tests and oral/written tests, the teacher could establish learners' ability to both comprehend and produce the speech acts. *The model dialog*, the second step, consists of presenting learners with short natural examples of dialogues where they can observe the speech act in use. The purpose of this activity is to make learners guess whether the participants involved in the dialogues know each other and other aspects such as their age or status. In this way, learners become aware of the social and pragmatic factors that may affect speech acts. The third step, *the evaluation of a situation*, is regarded as a technique that reinforces learners' awareness of the factors that affect the choice of an appropriate speech act strategy, since learners are asked to discuss and evaluate different situations. Then, learners are involved in various *role-play activities* that are suitable for practising the use of speech acts. An important

aspect when preparing these activities is to give enough pertinent information regarding the situation and the participants intervening in it. Finally, learners should be provided with both *feedback* and *discussion* to make them realise whether any possible inappropriate expressions have been used during the role-plays. They should also be given the opportunity to express their perceptions and any differences they have noted between their mother tongue and the TL.

By means of a careful planned implementation of these techniques, Olshtain and Cohen (1991) pointed out that learners would have opportunities to interpret different speech acts and react in a more appropriate way when faced with them. In addition, they could also be provided with chances to practise the speech acts in real communicative situations and to discuss the possible factors that affect their use in those conversations. Some of their suggested pedagogical practices involving exposure to pertinent input through the presentation of natural dialogues, opportunities to produce output by performing role-plays, and feedback on their performance have also been addressed by Judd (1999).

As Judd (1999) points out, his proposed model for teaching speech acts has to be adapted to the specific conditions of each classroom. In this sense, it has to be taken into account whether it is an SL or an FL classroom, whether the teacher is an NS or an NNS of the language, the learners' needs to learn the TL and the materials available for use. After considering all these aspects, the author proposes a framework that, like Olhstain and Cohen's (1991) model, also involves five steps. First, a *teacher analysis of the speech act* is suggested in order to relate the content of what is to be taught with learners' actual needs. Second, the development of learners' *cognitive awareness skills* is also important so that learners have exposure to the speech act being taught in order to make them understand the appropriate linguistic realisations that can be employed to express that particular speech act. Third, *receptive/integrative skills* are necessary to make learners recognise the speech pattern within actual language use, that is, as part of a discourse excerpt rather than as isolated forms out of context. Then, learners would be provided with *controlled productive skills* that enable them to put into practice the speech act that has already been recognised

and incorporated into their pragmatic knowledge. Finally, students should engage in *free integrated practice* that makes them produce not only the particular speech act studied, but also other forms of language in a natural conversation. According to Judd (1999), this last step would be considered as the real test of learning, since at this point learners should be able to employ the speech acts appropriately not just in isolation but while engaged in actual communicative interaction.

Apart from these specific frameworks that present a series of steps to be implemented in the classroom, several techniques in the form of specific tasks have also been proposed for the teaching of speech acts. These include the use of transcripts of naturally occurring conversations as awareness-raising activities (Koester, 2002) or what Bardovi-Harlig (1996) has termed *the culture puzzle* and *the classroom guest* also designed to increase pragmatic awareness. In performing *the culture puzzle*, learners are first encouraged to think about how a particular speech act functions in their own language and culture. Then, they are made aware of the differences between the pragmatic rules that distinguish their mother tongue speech community from that of the TL they are learning. *The classroom guest* activity allows the incorporation of natural language samples in the classroom by preparing an interruption to the class. During this interruption, the teacher and the guest hold a conversation that includes the speech act under study and learners' attention is directed towards this conversation. At the same time, the teacher is recording the whole conversation so that learners have the chance to listen to the exchange again. After a discussion about this exchange, two students are to prepare a role-play based on the same situation and, then, the two recorded conversations are compared and discussed. Rose (1994a, 1999) has also suggested techniques for developing consciousness-raising activities, including the use of video (as mentioned in Chapter 2) and the design of what he calls *the pragmatic consciousness-raising* technique. This technique is based on an inductive approach in which learners first collect data in their mother tongue and, after becoming familiarised with the strategies employed for the specific speech act, a comparison with the TL is made.

All these techniques, namely those of using transcripts of authentic conversations, arranging pre-planned conversations, employing video scenes or implementing the pragmatic consciousness-raising technique, are aimed at developing learners' pragmatic awareness about the particular speech act under study. In fact, Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) claim that one of the main goals of instruction in pragmatics is to raise learners' pragmatic consciousness in an attempt to help them become familiar with the different pragmatic features and practices in the TL. The authors present a compilation of teaching activities developed by various authors that can be employed with learners from different proficiency levels and cultural backgrounds. These proposals also involve productive activities apart from tasks dealing with pragmatic awareness. As seen above in the models proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1991) and Judd (1999), it is important to implement not only awareness-raising activities but also tasks that allow opportunities for communicative practice. Among the tasks designed to practice different pragmatic abilities, namely those of role-play, simulation and drama, role-play has been the activity that has been most frequently recommended for use (Rose, 1994a; Trosborg, 1995; Overfield, 1996; Kasper, 1997a; Koester, 2002; among many others).

Role-play tasks have also been proposed by Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos (2003) in their methodological approach for the teaching of politeness. In contrast to all the proposals and techniques addressed to teaching speech acts previously mentioned here, these authors focus on teaching linguistic politeness by following Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory and relating it to the field of genre studies. The framework they present adopts an explicit and direct approach to teaching pragmatic knowledge (Richards, 1990) that is distributed into different steps. First, the concept of politeness is defined to the learners. Then, a descriptive account of both Brown and Levinson's (1987) and Scollon and Scollon's (1995) politeness systems is presented. Once learners have been explicitly told all the necessary concepts, they are given short excerpts from different genres to be analysed and made aware of the fact that the phenomenon of politeness is culture-bound. Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos (2003) also mention that after presenting learners with all these stages typical of an awareness-raising task, role-plays and other communicative activities could

also be prepared in an attempt to provide learners with chances to get involved in interactive situations.

As can be observed from this review of proposals and pedagogical practices suggested by different scholars in the ILP field, all of them have been theoretically constructed and no empirical studies have been designed in order to prove their effectiveness. In fact, in an early study on suggestions conducted by Banerjee and Carrell (1988), the authors already pointed out the importance of teaching learners the appropriate use of this speech act, although they mentioned that no previous study had attempted to put this idea into practice. The authors, thus, proposed different steps that could be taken into account when specifically teaching the speech act of suggesting. First, it is important to make learners understand the differences between suggestions and other directive speech acts, such as requests, with real examples that clearly show who receives the benefits of the action. Then, learners should be taught the different linguistic realisations that may be employed when suggesting, as well as the mitigators that soften the impact of this speech act. Moreover, the factors that affect the linguistic form chosen (i.e. power or social distance), as noted by Banerjee and Carrell (1988), should also be explained since it is important to be aware of not only what is said but also to whom it is said. Finally, the authors pointed out that discussing the differences between learners' own cultural schemata and those of the TL would also contribute to their understanding of when they can appropriately transfer pragmatic knowledge from their mother tongue. More than fifteen years have elapsed since Banerjee and Carrell (1988) initially called attention to examining the effectiveness of teaching the speech act of suggesting without, to our knowledge, any empirical studies having carried out in this direction.

Taking into account all the proposals and techniques offered in this section and bearing in mind that most of them have not been tested in empirical studies, we will now analyse the actual classroom-based research related to pragmatics as a framework with which to examine the effects of instruction on the speech act of suggestions.

3.2.3 *Studies dealing with pragmatics in second and foreign language classrooms*

The importance of the classroom as a context where opportunities for developing pragmatics can take place has been addressed throughout this chapter. In an attempt to describe the research conducted on pragmatic-related aspects in this particular context, Kasper (2001a, 2001b) distinguishes between observational and interventional studies. On the basis of this review, in the next two subsections we examine the studies that belong to each group, as well as the setting (i.e. SL or FL learning classrooms) in which they were carried out.

3.2.3.1 *Observational studies*

Observational studies are often conducted in authentic classrooms that are observed in order to examine whether pragmatic issues are addressed. The main purpose of this type of studies, then, involves the analysis of the processes that take place in the classroom by describing in detail any aspects that may influence the acquisition of pragmatics, such as teacher input, chances for productive practice in collaborative activities or observation of learners' development of pragmatic ability over time. These aspects have been addressed in different types of studies since, as Kasper (2001a, 2001b) points out, observational studies can be either *non-developmental* or *developmental*. Whereas the former focus on language use and pay attention to pragmatic features such as speech acts, discourse markers, classroom discourse organisation or politeness phenomena, the latter deal with the pragmatic development that comes about in the classroom setting by examining issues related to language acquisition and language socialisation.

Focusing first on the *non-developmental observational studies*, we may observe that all these studies, with the exception of Poole's (1992) research on an ESL setting, have taken place in FL classrooms. The target languages addressed were English (Long, Adams, McLean and Castaños, 1976; Kasper, 1985, 1989b; House, 1986; Lörscher, 1986; Lörscher and Schulze, 1988; Poole, 1992; Nikula, 2002), Spanish (Hall, 1995), Japanese (Ohta, 1995, 1997; Lim, 1996) and Chinese (He, 1996).

The first studies conducted by Long et al. (1976), Kasper (1985) and House (1986) examined whether different forms of classroom organisation provided learners with opportunities for both pragmatic input and conversational practice. The authors found that all the activities involving interaction, such as pair work or role-plays, generated more speech acts and discourse markers than the teacher-fronted format. This particular type of classroom organisation (i.e. teacher-fronted), which has already been addressed in section 2.1.1, was also compared to conversational practices outside the classroom in the studies carried out by Lörscher (1986), Lörscher and Schulze (1988) and Kasper (1989b). A common finding in the three studies showed that adopting a teacher-fronted pattern involved a simplification of the discourse structure and a limited range of pragmatic functions that prevented learners from acquiring the ability to communicate appropriately in various situations outside the classroom. Similarly, the teachers' behaviour observed in Ohta's (1994) and Nikula's (2002) research also showed a lower use of affective particles and a higher use of direct strategies, in each study respectively, which did not present learners with appropriate pragmatic input.

Other non-developmental observational studies have adopted various theoretical approaches (i.e. language socialisation theory and sociocognitive theory) in an attempt to examine different participation structures in the classroom, seen as a sociocultural context. On the one hand, research following the first perspective (Poole, 1992; Lim, 1996; He, 1997) confirmed that through opportunities for socialisation with the teacher, learners were implicitly exposed to the social and pragmatic norms of the TL community. On the other hand, adopting a sociocognitive approach, Hall (1995) and Ohta (1995, 1997) examined the role that social interaction might have on learners' development of social, cognitive and linguistic knowledge in the TL. Ohta (1997), for instance, demonstrated that providing learners with opportunities for collaborative interaction allowed them to practise the TL and learn from each other during the productive activities.

The second type of observational studies, namely those of *developmental observational studies*, are all set in the FL classroom, particularly in the JFL classroom

(Ohta, 1994, 1999, 2001a, 2001b; Cohen, 1997; Kanagy and Igarashi, 1997; Kanagy, 1999), with the exception of Ellis's (1992) study on an ESL setting. Given the developmental nature adopted by the observational research, we observe that all of them coincide with some of the longitudinal studies previously described in section 1.3.2. For this reason, we briefly present them here with a focus on the classroom as a setting where pragmatic competence can be developed.

In the first developmental study conducted in an SL classroom, Ellis (1992) examined the ability to make requests by two English beginning learners over a period of two years. The author observed that learners' development of pragmatic ability when requesting improved over time by employing less direct realisation strategies. However, Ellis (1992) concluded that in comparison to adult NSs, the learners' variety of request strategies was more limited, which might have been due to a lack of appropriate input opportunities in the classroom context. In a different type of observational study, that of a self-study diary, Cohen (1997) reported not only his progress in learning Japanese but also what kind of information about Japanese pragmatics was provided in the FL classroom. After the semester in which the author himself took the Japanese course, Cohen mentioned that the classroom organisation allowed him to achieve the goals established in the syllabus but his ability to use the language in a pragmatically appropriate way remained very low.

In contrast to the previous studies, the Japanese kindergarten observed in Kanagy and Igarashi's (1997) study was the appropriate setting where English-speaking children successfully acquired Japanese pragmatic routines after seven weeks of immersion. The same classroom setting was also observed in another study carried out by Kanagy (1999), who paid attention to different daily interactional routines. The author found that through the teacher's intervention and corrective feedback, the children progressively learned to interact in an appropriate way when using these routines. In this sense, the IRF format observed in these settings proved effective in socialising children within the TL community. Some of Ohta's (1994, 1999, 2001a, 2001b) studies in JFL classrooms also showed that not only arranging activities that foster peer interaction but also the teacher's listener responses typical of the follow-up turn in the IRF routine provided opportunities for

pragmatic learning. In her 2001a study, for instance, Ohta observed that 97% of the listener responses found in the IRF exchange were given by the teacher. The continuous use of these responses made learners aware of the importance of active listening in Japanese and through teacher's explicit guidance in the use of listener responses learners were able to progressively use not only alignments but also assessments in response to their peers' contributions.

To sum up, this review of observational classroom-based research on different pragmatic aspects has illustrated that both SL and FL classrooms may offer learners opportunities for pragmatic learning. In particular, most of the studies have shown that arranging productive activities and making learners interact with other peers provide high benefits for the acquisition of pragmatics in contrast to the limitations presented in the teacher-fronted classroom structure. However, as previously mentioned, recent research conducted by Ohta (2001a, 2001b) has also pointed out that this particular type of teaching, i.e. the IRF routine, may also enable learners to develop their discourse-pragmatic ability. On this matter, Kasper and Rose (2002: 217) claim:

> Different classroom arrangements and their implementation in activities, both teacher-fronted and student-centered, have the potential to provide acquisitionally relevant pragmatic input. Evaluating whether and how this potential is brought to fruition requires that pragmatic input be examined in situated classroom activities.

In line with these authors, we believe that taking into account the particular conditions that the classroom context presents, different activities and occasions for practice should be designed and implemented in order to provide learners with enough pragmatic input and opportunities to interact.

3.2.3.2 *Interventional studies*

The second type of classroom-based studies examined by Kasper (2001a, 2001b) refers to *interventional studies*. As the name indicates, this research pays attention to a particular kind of intervention that has been used in the classroom setting to teach learners a specific pragmatic feature of the SL or FL. Thus, in contrast to the observational studies

described in the previous subsection, Kasper and Rose (2002) point out that in interventional research the targeted pragmatic aspect becomes the object of the study and the classroom is seen as a setting in which students may learn as a result of planned pedagogical action directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics. Table 5 shows the pragmatic features examined in the interventional studies conducted to date.

Table 5. The targeted pragmatic features addressed in interventional studies.

Pragmatic feature	Interventional studies
Discourse markers and strategies	House and Kasper (1981a), Yoshimi (2001)
Pragmatic routines	Wildner-Bassett (1984, 1986, 1994), Tateyama et al. (1997), Tateyama (2001)
Pragmatic fluency	House (1996)
Implicatures	Bouton (1994), Kubota (1995)
Sociostylistic variation	Lyster (1994)
Interactional norms	Liddicoat and Crozet (2001)
Hedges in academic writing	Wishnoff (2000)
Sociopragmatics in requesting	Fukuya et al. (1998)
Mitigators in requests	Fukuya (1998), Fukuya and Clark (2001), Safont (2001, 2003)
Politeness/indirectness in requesting	LoCastro (1997), Salazar (2003)
Compliments	Billmyer (1990), Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001)
Requests	Safont and Alcón (2000), Safont (2001), Takahashi (2001) Fukuya and Zhang (2002)
Apologies	Olshtain and Cohen (1990)
Complaints	Morrow (1995), Shaw and Trosborg (2000)
Refusals	Morrow (1995)

Additionally, Kasper and Rose (2002) distinguish three types of interventional studies, namely those of *teachability studies*, *instruction versus exposure studies*, and *studies adopting various teaching approaches*. On the basis of this distinction, we are going

to examine the three groups of interventional research, paying special attention to whether they take place in SL or FL classrooms.

Teachability studies examine whether a particular pragmatic feature is teachable or not in the classroom setting. This type of studies adopts a pre-test/post-test design which involves only one group, and is also characterised by adopting an explicit type of instruction.[13] The TL involved in these studies has been mainly English (Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Morrow, 1995; LoCastro, 1997; Fukuya, 1998; Safont, 2001, 2003; Salazar, 2003), although German (Wildner-Bassett, 1994) and French (Liddicoat and Crozet, 2001) have also been examined.

Only three of these studies were conducted in an SL classroom (Wildner-Bassett, 1994; Morrow, 1995; Fukuya, 1998). Wildner-Bassett (1994) was the first to examine whether pragmatics is teachable to beginners. The participants in her study were English-speaking beginners in their first and second semesters of German who received instruction on pragmatic routines. The treatment was conducted throughout one semester and consisted in a combination of metapragmatic information and a variety of activities in which the appropriate use of the targeted routine strategies was explained to learners. Results showed an increase in both the quantity and the variety of routine use after learners had received instruction. The short duration of Morrow's (1995) treatment on complaints and refusals also proved effective. The author found that after only three and a half hours of instruction, which consisted in a combination of several teaching techniques (i.e. metapragmatic consciousness-raising activities, discussions of the pragmatic norms in learners' mother tongue and the TL, open-ended role-plays and jigsaw dialogue tasks), the ESL learners improved their performance of the speech acts as regards both clarity and politeness. In order to teach downgraders in requests to another group of ESL learners, Fukuya (1998) also employed a combination of different activities, such as the use of film with consciousness-raising tasks, metapragmatic explanations and students' data collection. Findings from this study also indicated that downtoners, disarmers and verb aspects were easier for the students to learn than any other downgraders.

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[13] For an explanation of what explicit instruction involves, see section 2.3.1

The other studies examining the teachability of different pragmatic features took place in FL classrooms, where the only contact learners had with the TL occurred in this particular setting. One of the first interventional studies was conducted by Olshtain and Cohen (1990). The authors carried out a study which focused on the teaching of the speech act of apology to advanced EFL learners. The treatment consisted of a set of three classroom sessions in which information about the strategies for apologies and different modification devices were taught. Results from a post-test illustrated learners' improvement in their choice of strategy realisations, types of downgrading and intensification, as well as their awareness of situational factors. Focusing on a different speech act, namely that of requests, the abovementioned study by Safont (2001) also examined the effects of instruction on 160 female EFL learners throughout one semester. The training sessions consisted of description, explanation, discussion, and practice on requests. Results showed a positive effect of explicit instruction, since the participants' use of requests was more appropriate and efficient after the treatment.

Similarly, Safont's (2003) and Salazar's (2003) studies, which targeted request modification devices and politeness/indirectness issues when requesting respectively, also demonstrated the benefits of instruction in the FL classroom. However, the delayed post-test employed by Salazar (2003) indicated that learners continued to use the type of ability request strategies that were employed before the instruction had taken place. The use of a delayed post-test was also employed in Liddicoat and Crozet's (2001) study on teaching the acquisition of one target interactional practice, namely that of responding to a question about the weekend in French. The treatment consisted of four phases that involved awareness raising, narrative reconstruction, production, and feedback activities. The authors found that after instruction, learners employed both specific language features and content closer to the French pragmatic norms, although the delayed post-test conducted one year later showed that only the content had been retained. Finally, in contrast to the positive effects found in all previous studies, LoCastro's (1997) research did not indicate a positive change in learners' development of their pragmatic competence. The type of explicit intervention implemented by the author about politeness and conventionally polite forms

over a nine-week period did not prove effective for Japanese learners of English, since the data examined after instruction was characterised by the absence of linguistic politeness.

In spite of the findings obtained by LoCastro (1997), the recurrent result observed in all the studies examined above refers to the effectiveness of implementing an instructional treatment in both SL and FL classrooms to develop learners' pragmatic competence. Moreover, an important consideration related to this type of research is the wide range of pragmatic aspects being examined – and issue that has also been observed in the second type of interventional classroom-based research that we examine next.

The second group of interventional studies, namely those of *instruction versus exposure studies*, involve the use of two groups of participants under two different conditions in order to be able to compare whether instruction is more effective for pragmatics learning than no instruction at all. In other words, these studies are designed to prove whether instruction is better than simple exposure. Thus, they attempt to examine Schmidt's (1993, 1995, 2001) noticing hypothesis, explained earlier in Chapter 2, which implies that exposure to the TL alone is not enough for pragmatics learning. Similar to the teachability studies described above, this type of research also follows a pre-test/post-test design and the group under the treatment condition receives an explicit type of instruction. Additionally, English is frequently the TL in these studies (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Safont and Alcón, 2000; Wishnoff, 2000; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002), although Lyster's (1994) study focuses on French and Yoshimi's (2001) research is concerned with Japanese.

Focusing on the studies carried out in an SL classroom, Billmyer's (1990) research into the effects of instruction on compliments and compliment responses was one of the first "instruction versus exposure" studies. The author compared a group of nine female Japanese ESL learners who received six hours of instruction in complimenting with another group that remained as control. Results from her study showed that the instructed group employed not only a greater number of norm-appropriate and spontaneous compliments than the control group but also an extensive repertoire of adjectives. Similar findings were obtained in Wishnoff's (2000) study on the use of hedging devices in both academic and

unplanned writing. After two class sessions, which dealt with the presentation of ways of hedging, pair-work, discussion and other types of activities that heightened learners' metapragmatic awareness, the treatment group significantly increased the use of hedges in comparison with the control group. In contrast to these two studies that examined learners' improvement in terms of the appropriate use of the pragmatic feature under study, Bouton (1994) focused on the effects of instruction on learners' ability to interpret implicature in an ESL classroom. The subjects that participated in this study were 14 international students that received six class sessions of instruction over a period of 6 weeks and a control group that received no explicit instruction directed at the development of their ability to recognise implicatures. Results demonstrated that implicatures were successfully learnt after the treatment, although some types of implicature were more amenable to the instructional approach than others, such as the *Pope Q implicature*, *Indirect Criticism*, and those involving a *Sequence of Events*. In fact, the treatment group showed an improvement comparable to previous immersion students' understanding of implicature after having spent four years living in the TL community – something that was not observed in the control group.

Regarding the classroom-based research aimed at comparing two groups under the conditions of instruction versus exposure in an FL classroom, Lyster (1994), Safont and Alcón (2000) and Yoshimi (2001) made use of explicit explanations as part of their treatments. Dealing with the distinction between the use of French *tu/vous* in different informal and formal contexts, Lyster (1994) employed a type of functional-analytic teaching (Stern, 1992) that lasted twelve hours and emphasised sociolinguistic variation, context factors and speech acts. The participants involved 106 French immersion students who were split up into three experimental classes and two comparison groups. Findings demonstrated that the experimental participants outperformed the control students on both oral and written ability to use *vous* appropriately in formal situations. Similar results were found in Yoshimi's (2001) study into the effects of instruction on Japanese discourse markers in extended tellings. After 24 hours of treatment over an entire semester, which involved an explicit instructional approach with communicative practice and feedback, the author observed that her instructed JFL learners increased the frequency of the interactional

markers considerably in comparison to the control group. In a different study conducted with two groups of university lecturers, Safont and Alcón (2002) also examined whether an explicit pragmatic type of treatment influenced participants' appropriate use of requests. Findings obtained from a DCT administered after the instruction showed no differences in terms of quantity of request strategies employed by the two groups, although a qualitative analysis revealed more variety of request realisations in the use of this speech act by the instructed group.

Considering the same speech act as the learning target, Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) study also examined the effects of instruction with two groups of Chinese EFL students. However, in contrast with the three studies described above, which implemented an explicit treatment approach, the research conducted by these authors was the first interventional study that tried to operationalise the treatment group by employing an implicit technique, namely that of recasts (see section 2.3.2.3.1 for a detailed explanation of this technique). In this way, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) were interested in examining whether pragmalinguistic recasts were effective for teaching pragmatically appropriate and linguistically correct requests, on the one hand, and whether the implementation of systematic recasts proved effective to increase learners' confidence when making the requests, on the other hand. After receiving the treatment, which was implemented on fourteen role-plays carried out during seven 50-minute sessions held on seven consecutive days, results from a written DCT showed that the instructed group which had received recasts outperformed the control group in their use of the target forms addressed in the study. However, both groups gained in confidence in the post-test, which showed that employing recasts did not influence learners' confidence when making requests. The authors claimed that the improvement observed in both groups might have been due to their performance in the role-plays, in which participants may have built up confidence when interacting with the instructor and other peers.

After reviewing all these studies, we have seen that all learners under the treatment condition outperformed those who did not receive any instruction on the particular pragmatic aspect examined in the study. These findings, as Kasper and Rose (2002) note,

provide support for Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis, since making learners notice the specific TL features as a result of instruction promoted learning.

Finally, an increasingly large number of studies have adopted a type of interventional research that examines the effectiveness of *adopting various teaching approaches*. The two typical types of pedagogical intervention that have been employed are those of explicit and implicit instruction, described earlier in section 2.3.1. However, as we will argue when describing these studies, the operationalisation of these constructs has been based on the provision of metapragmatic information through description, explanation or discussion for the explicit group versus relying only on input and practice without metapragmatic discussion for the implicit group. Additionally, some studies have contrasted the different instructional treatments employed with a control group in order to examine whether any of the types of instruction was more effective than no instruction. This fact may seem to be similar to the previous group of interventional studies that compared instruction versus no instruction. However, whereas the group under the exposure-only condition in this type of studies was not arranged to guarantee that it contained the target pragmatic aspects, the treatments included in the research on different teaching approaches were manipulated so that learners had the exposure and opportunities to use the target features.

Similar to the two previous types of interventional studies, most of the research aimed at comparing different treatments has focused on English as the instructional TL (House and Kasper, 1981a; Wildner-Bassett, 1984, 1986; Kubota, 1995; House, 1996; Fukuya et al., 1998; Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Trosborg, 2003). Apart from English, Japanese (Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001) and Spanish (Pearson, 1998, 2001) have also been examined.

The only two studies to have examined different teaching approaches in an SL classroom were carried out by Fukuya et al. (1998) and Fukuya and Clark (2001). Both studies, together with the research conducted by Fukuya and Zhang (2002) cited above, have been described in Chapter 2 since, to our knowledge, they have been the only attempts to operationalise the FonF instructional paradigm at the pragmatic realm by adopting

different implicit techniques. Thus, these two studies involved a control group and two experimental groups that received a type of FonFormS instruction (i.e. use of explicit explanations) versus a type of FonF treatment (i.e. use of an implicit technique). Regarding the teaching goals examined, Fukuya et al. (1998) focused on the effects of instruction on ESL learners' ability to use appropriate requests depending on different sociopragmatic factors, while Fukuya and Clark (2001) paid attention to learners' ability to recognise the appropriate use of mitigators when making requests. Findings from both studies proved to be inconclusive due to several reasons, such as brevity of the treatment in order to prove the effectiveness of the implicit technique, the actual operationalisation of the implicit technique employed or the assessment task implemented in the study. In spite of these limitations, the authors suggested that further research should be conducted in an attempt to provide evidence of the potential of adopting the FonF approach for the teaching of pragmatic features.

The remaining interventional studies that compared two different teaching approaches have been set in the FL classroom. The first of these studies, conducted by House and Kasper (1981a), involved EFL German university students and focused on a variety of discourse markers and strategies. The authors designed two versions of the same communication course, one explicit and the other implicit, which provided learners with relevant input and opportunities for conversational practice. However, learners in the explicit version of the course also received metapragmatic information about the treatment features and participated in discussions related to their performance in the role-plays. Results indicated that learners' pragmatic abilities improved in both approaches, although the explicit group had an advantage over the implicit one. House (1996) also studied the differential effects of explicit and implicit instruction on developing pragmatic fluency, such as the use of gambits, discourse strategies, and speech acts, with a total of 32 advanced learners of English at a German university. Whereas in the explicit version of the course students received metapragmatic information about the sociopragmatic factors that affected the appropriate use of the different pragmatic functions, the implicit version was characterised by the lack of such metapragmatic information. Findings from her study showed that, on the one hand, both groups benefited from instruction in their initiating

behaviour, although the explicit group performed better in employing a high variety of discourse markers and strategies. On the other hand, regarding their production of appropriate responding moves, both groups remained remarkably deficient.

The use of gambits was also examined by Wildner-Bassett (1984, 1986), who compared an eclectic approach with a modified version of suggestopedia to analyse whether EFL learners acquired these pragmatic routines with differential success depending on the instructional approach. The author found that learners' use of routines improved significantly, qualitatively and quantitatively, regardless of the teaching approach. The studies conducted by Tateyama et al. (1997) and Tateyama (2001) also dealt with the teaching of pragmatic routines. In particular, the authors focused on three functions of the routine formula *sumimasen*, namely as an attention getter, an apology, and a thanking expression. Participants in Tateyama et al. (1997) included 14 undergraduate learners of Japanese who were distributed into explicit and implicit treatment groups. Whereas the first of these kinds of treatment included explicit discussions of the different functions that appeared in video segments from a TV programme together with teacher examples and explanations, students in the group working with the second type only saw the video and were asked to pay attention to formulaic expressions. After receiving 50 minutes of instruction, findings from the role-plays and other assessment tasks revealed that the explicitly taught students outperformed the ones who had been instructed implicitly. Contrary to these findings, after implementing the same type of treatment four times over an 8-week period, Tateyama (2001) found no statistically significant differences between the explicit and implicit groups in both the multiple-choice and role-play tasks. The author mentioned, however, that the explicit treatment was more effective than implicit teaching in developing learners' ability to choose the pragmatic routines that required higher formality of the linguistic expressions.

In contrast to the previous studies that examined the effects of instruction on learners' use of a particular pragmatic aspect, Kubota (1995) focused on the ability to understand implicature by replicating Bouton's (1994) research cited above. The study involved Japanese intermediate EFL students who were distributed into three teaching approaches:

(1) an *inductive approach*, where students had to figure out in groups how implicatures work in English; (2) a teacher-directed *deductive approach* including rule explanation; and (3) *zero instruction* in implicature. The post-test administered after the 20-minute treatment showed that students receiving either deductive or inductive instruction had an advantage over the uninstructed group, and also a greater effect for the inductive approach when comparing both treatment groups.

Regarding the comparison of different instructional treatments in the use of speech acts, Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun (2001) also compared the effects of inductive and deductive approaches to the teaching of compliments and compliment responses to university learners of English in Hong Kong as compared to a control group. Although the authors employed the terms *inductive* and *deductive* (DeCoo, 1996), the main difference between both treatments again depended on whether learners were provided with explicit metapragmatic information or not. After receiving instruction during six 30 minute' lessons, the learners participated in various measurement tasks, i.e. a self-assessment questionnaire, a metapragmatic assessment questionnaire and a DCT. Results from the first two measures did not show any differences between the three groups, but the responses from the DCT indicated that learners receiving instruction outperformed those from the control group. In fact, both treatment groups increased their appropriate use of syntactic formulae for compliments, but only a positive effect was found for the deductive group regarding compliment responses. Hence, the authors suggested that both types of treatments proved effective as far as pragmalinguistics is concerned, whereas only the deductive approach involving metapragmatic discussion showed a positive effect on developing learners' sociopragmatic proficiency. Focusing on a different speech act, that of complaints, Trosborg (2003) reports the study conducted by Shaw and Trosborg (2000), which also compared a deductive versus an inductive approach. The study focused on telephoned complaints and involved fifteen students distributed into two different treatment groups that received three short teaching sessions. Whereas one group was assigned to a *deductive approach* characterised by rule presentation and discussion, the other group participated in an *inductive approach* that consisted of different tasks, such as reading dialogues, watching TV comedies or listening to a model containing the target items and repeating the sentences

employed. After comparing the role-plays employed for the pre-test and post-test, the authors reported no major differences between the deductive and inductive groups, although the former type of instruction was slightly more effective than the latter.

In another speech act instructional study, Takahashi (2001) examined the effects of input enhancement on Japanese EFL learners' development of request strategies. The author employed the term *input enhancement* in a much broader sense than the specific type of implicit typographical enhancement operationalised in Fukuya and Clark's (2001) study cited above. In this case, Takahashi (2001) compared four input conditions: (1) *explicit teaching*, which involved metapragmatic explanations of the target forms; (2) *form-comparison*, which made learners compare their utterances with those employed by NSs and establish differences; (3) *form-search*, which implied the comparison of native and non-native utterances in general, but not their own; and (4) *meaning-focused*, which was concerned with reading transcripts of interactions and responding to comprehension questions addressing only the content. The author was interested in ascertaining the effects of each condition on both learners' success at learning requests and their level of confidence. Results from a DCT showed that the explicit group outperformed the other three conditions in their use of the four request strategies addressed in the study. Similarly, the explicit group, together with the meaning-focused group, also considerably increased its confidence in employing the instructed target forms in the post-test. For this reason, in line with the previous research, Takahashi's (2001) results provided further support for the effectiveness of the explicit instruction.

Finally, not all studies aimed at examining the effects of instruction on the learning of particular pragmatic features by comparing different teaching approaches have shown it to be as effective as expected. In fact, Pearson (1998, 2001) found that instruction had little effect on Spanish learners' use of various speech acts, namely expressions of gratitude, apologies and directives (i.e. commands and polite requests). The author compared two treatment groups with a control group during one semester. Whereas one of the treatments involved metapragmatic discussions, the other type of instruction consisted of a combination of video scenes containing the different speech acts and role-play practice.

Findings indicated that the first treatment was effective to make learners produce more intensifiers when apologising, whereas learners involved in the second treatment employed more softeners in their speech act responses. The author concluded that the lack of results for the other aspects of pragmatic competence could be attributed to the limitations of the instructional treatments and learners' low level of proficiency in Spanish. In this sense, learners' grammatical competence was considered to play an important role in their development of pragmatic competence in the TL (see also Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2001, 2003 on this point).

After examining the three groups of interventional studies conducted in both SL and FL classrooms, some general findings may be observed. Regarding the teachability of pragmatic aspects, results have shown that a range of different features such as discourse markers, gambits, pragmatic routines, pragmatic comprehension and a variety of speech acts is indeed teachable. Moreover, the effectiveness of instruction has also been demonstrated in studies in which learners receiving instruction outperformed those who were only exposed to the TL. Finally, concerning the comparison of different teaching approaches, a constant outcome deriving from these studies has proved that explicit instruction was more effective than the implicit type of instruction.

3.3 Motivation for the present study

The present study aims to contribute to the increasing body of research in the field of ILP and more specifically to that dealing with the effects of pragmatic instruction in the EFL context. Our study is based on the following needs:

(1) the need to examine the *teachability* of a particular pragmatic feature, namely the speech act of *suggestions*

(2) the need to implement *different instructional treatments*, that is, explicit versus implicit instruction

(3) the need to focus on learners' *awareness* and *production* of the pragmatic aspect under study

(4) the need to examine learners' degree of *confidence* when assessing the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations

A review of all the interventional studies conducted to date has shown that a variety of pragmatic features have been examined, including discourse markers and strategies (House and Kasper, 1981a), pragmatic routines (Wildner-Bassett, 1984, 1986; Tateyama et al. 1997; Tateyama, 2001), pragmatic fluency (House, 1996), understanding implicatures (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995), as well as different speech acts. Specifically, the speech acts being analysed have involved compliments (Billmyer, 1990; Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), requests (Safont, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002), apologies (Olshtain and Cohen, 1990), refusals (Morrow, 1995) and complaints (Morrow, 1995; Trosborg, 2003). However, there are no interventional studies that have examined the effects of instruction on the speech act of suggestions. This need to widen the learning targets addressed in studies dealing with instructional effects (Kasper and Rose, 2002) is the first motivation for the present study.

A second aspect addressed in our study refers to the need to adopt different types of instruction. In general, most of the research that has analysed the role of instruction to develop learners' pragmatic competence in both SL and FL contexts (see Kasper, 1997a, 2001a, 2001b; Rose and Kasper, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002 for a review) has implemented an explicit instructional approach typical of the *FonFormS* paradigm and has demonstrated the positive effects of teaching explicitly different pragmatic issues (Billmyer, 1990; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Safont, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001). Another group of interventional studies have compared explicit versus implicit instruction and found more benefits for the explicit condition (House and Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al. 1997; among others). However, in line with Trosborg (2003), we believe that most of these studies have just compared either the provision or the lack of metapragmatic explanations in the two treatment groups examined, whereas other studies, as Kasper (2001b: 53) points out, have compared metapragmatic instruction with input and practice-only conditions. For this reason, we believe that providing learners with a type of explicit instruction involving metapragmatic explanations together with opportunities for productive use has always been

regarded as more beneficial than just withdrawing those explanations or giving input and practice alone for the implicit instruction.

It is, then, our belief that operationalising the implicit treatment by only considering a lack of metapragmatic explanation is not enough to demonstrate whether learners could benefit from this condition. In fact, Kasper and Rose (2002: 268) claim that the value of the explicit instruction proved by the previously described interventional studies has been supported "even though they have yet to fully incorporate the theoretical concepts represented in FonF". In fact, only a few studies (Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002) have given an independent status to implicit instruction focusing on a different paradigm, that is, *FonF* (Doughty and Williams, 1998c; Long and Robinson, 1998). Bearing in mind that Fukuya and Clark's (2001) study (which employed the implicit technique of input enhancement) provided inconclusive results, we have operationalised our implicit treatment group by adopting a combination of two implicit techniques from the FonF paradigm, namely input enhancement and recasts. This need to adopt different instructional treatments on pragmatic development by properly operationalising both explicit and implicit conditions on the grounds of cognitive processing theories (Kasper and Rose, 2002) is the second motivation for this study.

The third motivation that inspired our study lies in the need to focus on the effects of instruction on both learners' awareness and production of appropriate speech acts – in this case, suggestions. As we have seen, most of the studies described above have examined the effects of instruction on learners' use of the pragmatic aspect under study and only a few studies have focused specifically on the effects of instruction on learners' awareness of a pragmatic feature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Safont, 2001). Yet, none of them have examined both aspects (i.e. the effects of instruction on production and awareness) with the same group of participants.

Our fourth inspiratioin comes from the need to examine learners' level of confidence. Previous studies dealing with the role of instruction in ILP (Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002) have investigated the post-instructional change in learners' levels of

confidence. However, learners in these studies indicated their levels of confidence about their own linguistic production on DCTs. No studies have explored learners' degree of confidence about their pragmatic awareness. This need, thus, also motivated our study.

To sum up, on the basis of the above four needs, this study aims to provide insights into the effects of instruction on suggestions and the effectiveness of two different types of treatment (i.e. explicit and implicit). These two main claims will be addressed for each of the three aspects examined, that is to say, production, awareness and confidence.

Finally, along with these motivations, another issue will also be tackled in the present study. This question refers to the analysis of possible *task effects* in the two production tasks employed, i.e. oral production (i.e. phone messages) and written production (i.e. email responses).

3.3.1 *Research questions and hypotheses*

3.3.1.1 *Research questions and hypotheses concerning the effects of instruction*

The first three research questions with their related hypotheses are concerned with the effects of instruction on the different issues explored in the present study.

First research question: Does learners' production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction? If so, which instruction (i.e. explicit or implicit) is more effective?

Hypothesis 1: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not, as measured by two tasks (i.e. phone messages and email responses).

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions, as measured by two tasks (i.e. phone messages and email responses).

Second research question: Does learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction? If so, which instruction (i.e. explicit or implicit) is more effective?

Hypothesis 3: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their awareness of appropriate suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their awareness of appropriate suggestions in the post-test.

Third research question: Does learners' level of confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction? If so, which instruction (i.e. explicit or implicit) is more effective?

Hypothesis 5: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions in the post-test.

3.3.1.2 *Research question and hypothesis concerning task effects*

The fourth research question was based on the need to conduct more studies that examine the task effects on two production tasks, namely those of oral versus written production data.

Fourth research question: Does learners' use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions vary depending on the task they are performing, that is, an oral or a written production task (i.e. phone messages versus email responses)?

Based on findings from previous research comparing oral and written production data (see section 3.1.2), the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 7: The production task, that is, an oral (i.e. phone messages) or a written (i.e. email responses) task, will affect learners' pragmatically appropriate use of suggestions.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

In order to answer the research questions presented in the previous chapter, we will first describe the methodology employed in our study. In the first section, we describe the participants that took part in the investigation and the data collection instruments employed to elicit the learners' responses on suggestions are explained in section 4.2. The following section presents the target forms selected as the pragmatic foci in our study, the instructional treatment used to teach the learners those target forms as well as the materials designed to this end. Section 4.4 details the procedure followed throughout the whole study. Finally, section 4.5 provides information about the coding procedure used to categorise learners' production and awareness data, and the statistical analyses chosen from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 11.0) for Windows.

4.1 Participants

The participants in the study were 81 students. Although there were initially 90 participants, the data of nine students were excluded from the analyses due to their absences and the incompleteness of that data. They were enrolled in two different degree courses at Universitat Jaume I in Castellón, namely those of Technical Engineering in Computer Systems (n=49) and Computer Science Engineering (n=32). Both degrees belong to the School of Technology and Experimental Sciences, which, along with the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and the Faculty of Law and Economics, is one of the three faculties that the university has. One particular feature of this university is that English is a compulsory subject in all of its degrees. For this reason, our participants studied English as a compulsory subject, although it is important to mention that they received content-based English instruction as it was directly addressed to computer science students, being thus English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

We divided our students into two experimental groups and a control group that belonged to two degrees related to computer science studies, since we took into consideration the importance of having a control group in order to ascertain instructional effects (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Furthermore, we were careful to select computer science students whose syllabus and background characteristics were similar to our experimental

groups. However, due to institutional constraints, the researcher of the present study could only teach the experimental groups, whereas another instructor from the second/foreign language acquisition field was the instructor of the control group. This second instructor was carefully explained not to teach any of the instructional foci of the experiment throughout the semester during which the study took place. None of the subjects were aware they were taking part in our study, since the treatment was implemented in their current English syllabus. The participants (n=81) constituted three intact classes which consisted of two treatment groups with a specific type of instruction, i.e. explicit and implicit, and the control group, which received no instruction on the use of suggestions. These three groups will be referred to as Explicit Group (EG), Implicit Group (IG), and Control Group (CG) throughout the study.

Bearing in mind the fact that our participants belonged to three different classes, we first distributed a background questionnaire (see Appendix 1), which consisted of two main sections. The first was related to learners' personal information to make sure that our participants shared similar features and to find out whether their principal exposure to the English language had been in the FL classroom. The second section included a level placement test that gave us information about our participants' level of proficiency in English.

Regarding the first section, we asked for information about biographical details, such as age, gender or mother tongue, and other aspects related to our participants' previous contact with the English language or their motivation towards this language. A summary of this information is provided in Table 6.

Table 6. Personal information about the three groups participating in the study.

	Explicit	**Implicit**	**Control**
N	24	25	32
Mean age	21.46	21.16	21.63
Gender			
Female	1	5	6
Male	23	20	26
Mother tongue			
Spanish	15	16	20
Catalan	9	9	12
Mean years studying English	4.81	5.88	6.12
Self-reported proficiency			
Advanced	0	0	0
Upper-intermediate	2	3	5
Intermediate	9	10	17
Lower-intermediate	13	12	10
Beginner	0	0	0
Motivation			
Need in the computer science field	9	8	12
Job opportunities	7	9	9
Means of communication	4	3	4
Travelling abroad	1	3	3
Interest in the English language	3	2	4
English-speaking country visited			
Yes	5	1	7
No	19	24	25
Other foreign languages			
Yes	6	8	9
No	18	17	23
Contact with people by using English			
Yes	4	3	5
No	20	22	27
Exposure to English outside the classroom			
Yes	5	5	6
No	19	20	26

As can be observed in the previous table, the mean age over the three groups was quite similar, since all students' ages ranged between 19 and 25 years old. Concerning gender, it is worth mentioning that there were more males than females in the three groups, which may be related to the more male-oriented nature of the degree course our participants were involved in.[14] They were also asked to specify what their mother tongue was and, as illustrated in Table 6, there were more students whose mother tongue was Spanish than Catalan in the three groups of participants.

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[14] Although it has been claimed that gender may be one of the individual variables that influences participants' use of speech acts (see Kasper and Rose, 2002), we decided not to exclude the data from the female participants, since we were conducting research in intact classes.

Another important aspect was to find out the length our participants had studied English in order to avoid differences between them due to the disparity of their knowledge of the TL. As the table shows, the participants' mean of years studying English was quite similar in the three groups, although the CG seemed to have studied the TL for more time than the other two groups (i.e. 6.12 years in contrast to 4.81 and 5.88 years for the EG and the IG, respectively). With regard to their knowledge of the English language, we were also interested to know our learners' self-reported proficiency in English. We asked them first to report their proficiency in the four different skills before actually reporting their overall proficiency, so we have only presented the general rating. None of the participants reported having either an advanced or a beginner's level of English, which seemed to unify the three groups towards an intermediate level of English. Additionally, we compared how students who rated themselves as having an upper-intermediate or a lower-intermediate level performed in the level placement test (which will be explained later) and the results of this comparison led us to consider them as having an intermediate level of proficiency. For this reason, we decided not to exclude them from the study.

Apart from all these issues, and considering the fact that the participants were taking English as a compulsory subject, we were also interested in knowing their real opinions as regards learning English. As depicted in Table 6 above, learners' interests differed according to various aspects. Most participants found English to be a necessary tool in their field of study, namely computer science, and also an important instrument when looking for job opportunities. Interestingly, several participants also claimed that English was an important language for use as a means of communication and highlighted its usefulness when travelling abroad. Finally, other learners stated that they liked to learn foreign languages and particularly English.

Regarding participants' visits to an English-speaking country, only a few learners from each group said they had ever visited an English-speaking country, although it is important to mention that none of them had stayed for a period longer than two weeks. Similarly, only a few learners reported that they were learning another language apart from

English (most of them were learning French), although they had only studied that language for one or two years at the most.

The last two questions inquired about whether the participants from each of the three groups had any contact with English outside the language classroom. Only a few learners said that they employed the English language to communicate with other people, mainly through the Internet, and most of the students did not have any exposure to English by watching TV, listening to the radio or reading a magazine or newspaper. In fact, and contrarily to our expectations, almost none of the participants said that they used the Internet as an instrument with which they could practise their English, except for the few who had established contact with people from other countries through the Internet.

Taking into consideration all the information mentioned above, which was collected in order to describe our group of participants, it seems that they shared general and homogeneous features. Most important of all was to acknowledge the fact that our students' main contact with the English language had taken place in the FL classroom. This context, thus, as mentioned in the previous chapter, is the only setting where learners may be faced with communicative situations that help them to develop their pragmatic competence.

The background questionnaire (see Appendix 1) also included a level placement test in order to find out our participants' level of proficiency in English. This test was adapted from the intermediate level test employed by the "Departament de Filologia Anglesa i Romànica"[15] and the "Servei de Llengües i Terminologia" at Universitat Jaume I. The test consisted of 50 items covering different grammar points, such as verb tenses, prepositions or personal pronouns, and vocabulary. Participants' performance in this test showed that learners had an intermediate level of proficiency in English, since they achieved a mean of 37.59 out of a total of 50 total responses.[16] Their intermediate level indicates that our subjects were some point between beginners, with a very poor command of the language, and advanced students, with a high and effective command of the language. For our

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[15] Nowadays called the "Departament d'Estudis Anglesos" (Department of English Studies).

[16] More specifically, the mean level of proficiency for each group was 36.27 for the EG, 37.33 for the IG, and 39.16 for the CG.

purposes, our group of participants were proficient enough to get involved in different communicative situations.

4.2 Instruments of data collection

In order to examine our subjects' knowledge of suggestions in terms of both their production of linguistic formulations and their awareness of the appropriate use of this specific speech act in different situations, we distributed several instruments before and after the instructional sessions in order to ascertain instructional effects. Thus, three types of tests were used in this study: (1) oral production tests; (2) written production tests, and (3) rating assessment tests. Moreover, a questionnaire to be administered after treatment was also designed to collect qualitative data from learners' opinions about the tasks done in class.

All the tests created for this study were based on previous research in the field of ILP (Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b; Kasper and Rose, 2002; see section 3.1 for a survey of these studies). Additionally, the construction of the situations was also reviewed and modified taking into consideration the constant checking of sixteen American NSs (September-November 2002). After having them revised by NSs all the instruments employed in this study were previously piloted with students from computer science degrees before the study took place (December 2002).

4.2.1 *Oral production tests*

As previously seen in Chapter 3, Kasper and Rose (2002) distinguished between three main types of instruments to collect data on oral speech act performance: authentic discourse, elicited conversation, and open role-play. The main feature common to these three methodological options of spoken interaction is, as the name indicates, the collection of oral interactive productions that allows the researcher to examine different discourse aspects. However, taking into consideration the purposes of our study and the speech act examined, i.e. suggestions, we were only interested in analysing learners' production of

HAs and downgraders when making the suggestion. If we had made use of a role-play as an instrument to collect their oral production, we would have had to examine not only how to make a suggestion but also the response given by the interlocutor when either accepting or rejecting the suggestion made. In this sense, we should have considered the speech act of suggestion as a set that consists of an adjacency pair (Koester, 2002), but this was not the purpose of the present study.

For these reasons, we took into consideration Bardovi-Harlig's (1999b) assumptions regarding methods of data collection. According to this author, the best research methods in ILPs are the ones that fit the research questions of the particular study. The author suggests that the researcher has to carefully create his/her tasks according to what is already known in the field (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b: 257). Thus, we decided to create a new instrument, which consisted of the collection of telephone messages. In this way, we paid attention to our learners' spontaneous responses to the situations presented when making the telephone call after being allowed one turn. Additionally, this elicitation instrument, in contrast to written DCTs with limited space, enabled learners to employ more than one single utterance to express their suggestions if they needed them.

We designed, then, our oral production tests (see Appendices 2 and 3 for both the pre- and post-test) that have been regarded as phone tasks throughout the study. This production test consisted of four different situations that varied according to two sociopragmatic factors, namely status and social distance (see Table 7). However, although we wanted to pay attention to both variables dealing with politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987), we found, after several stages of piloting these tests, that some realisations for suggestions overlapped between the two sociopragmatic factors, so we decided to focus only on the status. Thus, we focused on two levels of status, that is to say, equal status (i.e. student to student) and higher status (i.e. student to professor). This decision was also made on the basis of previous studies dealing with this speech act that had considered only status as a factor affecting the choice of the linguistic form for suggestion (Hinkel, 1994, 1997; Matsumura, 2001, 2003). Moreover, given the fact that all our participants were University students, we followed the guidelines developed by Hudson et al. (1995) and set all the

situations at the University, as a familiar context to our participants. In this way, the participants had to make suggestions in the role of students, that is, they were asked to be themselves and perform as they thought they would actually do under the same circumstances (Trosborg, 1995). Finally, another important aspect that we also considered was the fact that each situation was made in a way that learners had to make only one suggestion in order to avoid different alternatives for the same situation. Table 7 shows the general characteristics of both the oral pre- and post-tests.

Table 7. Oral production pre- and post-tests.

Sit	Participants	Status	Social distance	Topic	
				Pre-test	Post-test
1	student-professor	higher	- social distance	Restaurant	Inviting a professor
2	student-student	equal	- social distance	Internship	Erasmus scholarship
3	student-professor	higher	+ social distance	Talk for students	Buying books
4	student-student	equal	+ social distance	Change of degree	Subject choice

Note. Sit = Situation

As can be observed in the table above, the pre- and post-test had the same layout, although in order to avoid possible practice effects, the four situations designed for each test were different. We carefully created similar situations with a parallel degree of difficulty and these were reviewed and piloted by NSs. In order to conduct these phone message tasks, the students came individually to the researcher's office. They had to read the four situations and make a telephone call to four different people. In each of the situations, the answering machine was activated and students heard the person they were calling saying that he/she was not at home. Thus, students had to leave a message on the answering machine. All phone calls were tape-recorded and transcribed by the researcher. An example of one of the situations and students' reaction to it is illustrated below.

Example (2)

Situation 4 (*from post-test*)

One of your new classmates on this course is having a problem deciding which subjects to take next year – Industrial Computers or Multimedia – because both of them are offered at the same time. She thinks that Industrial Computers would be better, but she is not sure. You are thinking about what your classmate has told you and you find that Multimedia has some more benefits. Call this classmate and suggest a good reason that makes the subject of Multimedia a better option:

Telephone number: 964-728542

Student's response (*from the EG*)

Hello. I am Vicente. I call because I say one person for your course in next year the Multimedia ... eh ... I think that you can take this subject because it's more interactive and you can use the Flash ... which is a program for ... for the ... presentations. Bye.

Student's response (*from the IG*)

Hello. I'm David and I call to you to suggest the subject of Multimedia ... eh because this subject is very interesting for you and ... and this subject can you to learn ... very important things ... to ... to the computer ... world. Goodbye.

Student's response (*from the CG*)

Hi Laura, this is Jorge. I have been thinking about you told me … eh … and … you must make Multimedia because it is more important than Industrial Computers for your future. Bye bye.

4.2.2 *Written production tests*

Apart from looking at students' oral production, we were also interested in collecting their written output. Thus, we decided to employ more than one production research method in order to be able to account for task effects, since it has been argued that each instrument has its own strengths and weaknesses (see section 3.1.2 for a review of the research on this point). As seen in Chapter 3, Kasper and Rose (2002) also distinguished three main types of questionnaires: the DCT, the MCT and the scale-response questionnaire. For the purposes of our study, we are concerned with the first one as it is related to the collection of written production data.

The DCT has been employed extensively in the ILP field because it allows a wide amount of data to be collected in a relatively short amount of time (Houck and Gass, 1996). However, as Rose (1994b) notes, this instrument has also been criticised for being too artificial by presenting short written segments rather than real-life extracts (see section

3.1.1.2 for a detailed explanation of the advantages and disadvantages of this particular research method). For this reason, and similar to the decisions adopted regarding our oral production test described in the previous subsection, we also decided to create our own written production test. In so doing, we took into account Bardovi-Harlig's (1999b) suggestions regarding the use of the DCT. According to this author, this type of instrument should be tailored to fit each particular research study instead of employing one that has already been used in other ILP studies. Moreover, although it has been claimed that one of the advantages of the DCT is its fast and easy administration, we believe, in line with Bardovi-Harlig (1999b) and Kasper and Rose (2002), that the hard work and difficulty involved in a production questionnaire lie in its design and construction.

Considering all the assumptions from ILP literature on research methods and the fact that the DCT as a pen and paper instrument has been claimed to resemble a test-like method (Sasaki, 1998), we decided to collect participants' written data by using electronic messages. This decision was also made on the basis of previous studies on the acquisition of pragmatic aspects that have employed new technologies to collect learners' output (Kinginger, 2000; Wishnoff, 2000; Belz and Kinginger, 2002). We therefore considered the use of email responses as an authentic and readily available task allowing written data collection. To this end, the process of gathering the data for our study took place in a computer lab rather than the classroom that was normally used, and students had to send real emails to the people they were presented in the situations.

Similar to the oral production tests, the written production tests also consisted of four situations that were created following the same criteria and the same steps mentioned in the previous subsection. These tests have been regarded as email tasks throughout the study (see Appendices 4 and 5 for both the pre- and post-test). Table 8 shows the general characteristics of both the written pre- and post-tests:

Table 8. Written production pre- and post-tests.

				Topic	
Sit	Participants	Status	Social distance	Pre-test	Post-test
1	student-professor	higher	- social distance	End-of-course activity	Next-course activities
2	student-student	equal	- social distance	New computer	Looking for a job
3	student-professor	higher	+ social distance	Subject opinion	Websites workshop
4	student-student	equal	+ social distance	First year subjects	New printer

Note. Sit = Situation

The written pre- and post-tests also had the same layout but the situations designed for each test were different. In order to conduct these email tasks, we brought the students to the computer lab and presented them the four situations as a written production activity forming part of their normal course content. The students had to read each situation and send an email to the email addresses provided. They had to write their own names under the subject in order to know who had sent each email. All the emails were printed for their later analysis. An example of one of the email situations is presented below:

Example (3)

Situation 2 (*from pre-test*)

Your friend is thinking of buying a new computer. She does not know whether to buy a PC or a Macintosh. Send her an e-mail suggesting that she buy the computer that in your opinion is better for her:

To: ibeltran@emp.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (your name)

4.2.3 *Rating assessment tests*

Bearing in mind Cohen's (1996c) and Kasper and Rose's (2002) suggestions of taking a multi-method approach when collecting speech act data, apart from the tasks described above that elicited the production of suggestions, we also examined learners' awareness when judging the appropriateness of this speech act in different situations. In

fact, according to Kasper and Dahl (1991) and Kasper (2000), techniques related to elicit metapragmatic assessments have been employed to complement other data, which have been collected primarily on the basis of production instruments (see section 3.1.1.2). Previous studies in the ILP field, then, have already focused on awareness and metapragmatic awareness aspects (Hudson et al., 1995; Safont, 2001). In this sense, we decided to employ a rating assessment test that complemented our previously described tests. Moreover, at the same time we were also interested in assessing learners' confidence when judging the appropriateness of the suggestions, since little research has been carried out on this particular aspect with the exception of Takahashi (2001) and Fukuya and Zhang (2002).

Following the same characteristics and procedure followed with the construction of our production tasks, the rating assessment test consisted of eight situations set at the University which varied depending on the pragmatic variables of status and social distance (see Appendices 6 and 7 for both the pre- and post-test). However, similar to the two production tests explained before, we only paid attention to the sociopragmatic factor of status. Before presenting the rating assessment test to the students, and following Matsumura's (2001: 675) suggestions, we also decided to emphasise the fact that the students had to imagine they were in an English-speaking country. Then, we gave the students the instructions for the rating assessment test in Spanish, since we believed that a full and clear understanding of what they had to do was essential in order to perform the task properly. Additionally, we also took account of gender and age factors. We told participants to consider that the characters appearing in the situations were the same gender and the same age as them, whereas the professors would be about 40 years old. After receiving the instructions, our participants were presented with the rating assessment test. Table 9 illustrates the general characteristics of both the rating assessment pre- and post-tests:

Table 9. Rating assessment pre and post-tests.

Sit	Participants	Status	Social distance	Topic		App
				Pre-test	Post-test	
1	student-student	equal	- social distance	Difficult subject	Colour screen	Yes
2	student-professor	higher	+ social distance	Programme in the syllabus	Lab reservation	No
3	student-student	equal	+ social distance	New computer	Interlibrary loan	No
4	student-professor	higher	- social distance	New programme installation	Zoom feature	No
5	student-student	equal	+ social distance	Looking for a job	Borrow a book	Yes
6	student-professor	higher	+ social distance	Erasmus talk	Setting up an email account	Yes
7	student-student	equal	- social distance	Information on Internet	Send an email to a professor	No
8	student-professor	higher	- social distance	Websites workshop	Videoconference	Yes

Note. Sit = Situation; App = Appropriateness

As can be observed in Example 4 below, the eight situations presented a dialogue between two interlocutors and the final response by one of them was a suggestion. In each situation, participants had to use a 5-point rating scale (1 = inappropriate; 5 = appropriate) to assess whether the suggestion was appropriate or not depending on the situation, which varied in terms of the status between the participants. Furthermore, on the basis of previous research (Safont, 2001), we also asked students to underline the inappropriate part and provide an alternative suggestion in those cases they found the speech act formulation inappropriate to the context (utterance *a* in the example below), and justify their evaluation in those cases in which they found the suggestion appropriate to the situation (utterance *b* in the example below).

Apart from students' reasons and alternative suggestions, we were also interested in their level of confidence when judging their appropriateness. Thus, we included a second 5-point rating scale (1 = not confident; 5 = confident) and asked students to rate their confidence when judging the appropriateness of each suggestion (Takahashi, 2001). The example of one of the eight situations is illustrated below.

Example (4)

Situation 1 (*from pre-test*)

You are talking to one of your best friends who is studying Computer Science Engineering. Both of you are talking about your plans for next semester.

Friend:	*I am thinking of taking Computer Architecture next semester.*	
You:	*I have heard that this subject is very difficult and you are also doing the internship, aren't you?*	
Friend:	*Yes, I'm starting my internship next month.*	
⇒ *You:*	*That's a lot of work. Why don't you wait until next year for that subject?*	

Totalmente inapropiada   *Totalmente apropiada*

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   *Seguro/a*

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____

4.2.4 *Questionnaire after treatment*

Finally, we decided to include another instrument on the basis of previous research in the field of ILP that has adopted the use of additional research methods, such as oral and written self-report instruments (Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001; Barron, 2003). However, due to institutional constraints, this sort of self-report data could not be gathered from our participants. Thus, we elaborated a questionnaire in order to get more personal information about learners' opinion and feelings towards the course.

This questionnaire was distributed among both experimental groups and consisted of four questions that were presented to the students in Spanish (see Appendix 8). The questions addressed issues related to what the students had already learnt in the class, whether they liked the activities and how they felt when doing them (i.e. motivated, nervous, bored or interested). By administering this questionnaire our aim was to examine students' awareness or recognition of what they were learning during the treatment

sessions, as well as their pragmatic development throughout the process of instruction. Thus, it was distributed three times during the whole semester in which the study took place. Students were encouraged to answer them using their mother tongue, since our purpose was not to evaluate their ability to write in English, but to find out the progress they were making and their opinion about the sessions.

Apart from this questionnaire, and following Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) use of a similar instrument, students in the IG also completed an additional final questionnaire before receiving a short instructional session on suggestions (see Appendix 9). The purpose of this final questionnaire was to ascertain whether students in the implicit condition had realised that the teacher was recasting during the role-plays and whether they had tried to think about the rules for making suggestions.

4.3 Instructional treatment and materials

The main aim of the present study was to design two specific types of treatment in order to test whether instruction had any effect on learners' performance of the speech act under examination. In order to explain how this design was carried out, we first present the selected target forms for suggestions addressed in our study (subsection 4.3.1) and the description of the treatments adopted with each of the two experimental groups (subsection 4.3.2). Then, a detailed account of materials employed during the instructional period is also provided (subsection 4.3.3).

4.3.1 *Target forms for suggestions*

The first decision before the treatment took place consisted in selecting the target forms for suggestions that would be set as the pragmatic foci of our study. Thus, we chose some particular forms for both HA and downgraders from the taxonomies explained in Chapter 1 (section 1.4.3). Additionally, the selected target forms were also the most frequently employed by the NSs in both the videotaped situations (see section 4.3.3.1 for an explanation on them) and the tests designed for our study. These particular forms were

chosen on the basis of previous research supporting the fact that specific selected items are more effective in instruction (see section 2.3). Moreover, in contrast to the EG, to which we could present the two taxonomies described in Chapter 1, we needed to select only a few forms to be able to present them systematically to the IG. In fact, previous studies including an implicit treatment condition have also selected specific forms for use in the treatment sessions (Fukuya and Clark, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya and Zhang, 2002). Bearing in mind these assumptions, we decided to choose twelve target forms for the HA and seven target forms for the downgraders – all of which are illustrated in Table 10:

Table 10. Target forms for suggestions selected in our study.

Combination 1	Combination 2
STATUS **(equal)**	**STATUS** **(higher)**
- Why don't you …? - Have you tried …? - You can **just** … - You might want to … - **Perhaps** you should … - **I think** you need …	- I would **probably** suggest that … - **Personally**, I would recommend that … - **Maybe** you could … - It would be helpful if you … - **I think** it might be better to … - **I'm not sure, but I think** a good idea would be …

As can be observed in Table 10 above, the twelve target forms selected for suggestions were distributed into two different combinations depending on one sociopragmatic factor, that of status (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Hinkel, 1994, 1997; Matsumura, 2001, 2003). Apart from the twelve target forms for the HA of suggestions, we also regarded seven target forms of downgraders (House and Kasper, 1981b) that appear in bold type in Table 10.

On the one hand, Combination 1 shows the six target forms for suggestions regarded as appropriate in situations between participants with equal status (i.e. student to student).

The selected realisations belong to the type of conventionalised forms explained in detail in Chapter 1. Moreover, they have also been taken into consideration following NSs' oral and written data. On the other hand, Combination 2 presents the target forms employed in situations with participants of higher status (i.e. student to professor). The forms selected in this combination belong to the three types classified in our taxonomy: direct, conventionalised and indirect forms. Although it has been argued that the use of performative verbs is not widely employed in everyday conversation (Wardhaugh, 1985; Koester, 2002), according to both Rintell (1979) and Banerjee and Carrell (1988), the forms employed to express suggestions are likely to be expressed more directly than requests are, since they imply a benefit for the hearer. In this sense, the data collected from both the NSs and the conversations that appeared in the videotaped situations showed that these two types of performative verbs, together with the use of downgraders, could be employed in situations that required a level of formality. This assumption was also made on the basis of the setting in which the situations took place, as they always involved an academic context with interactions between students and their peers or instructors (Hinkel, 1994, 1997). Furthermore, the use of the verb tense *would* also increased the politeness inferred in all the forms selected in this combination. Finally, the three impersonal linguistic forms selected in this combination have been claimed to be the most appropriate for situations involving a higher status level (Koike, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996; Schmidt et al., 1996).

It is also important to mention that the use of downgraders was employed in target forms from both combinations 1 and 2, since it has been demonstrated that the use of these modification devices is highly recommended when making suggestions in all sorts of situations (Hinkel, 1994).

4.3.2 *Instructional treatments*

After presenting the target forms that constitute the instructional foci of our study, we will pay attention to the two different instructional treatments designed for each of our experimental groups, which are illustrated in Table 11:

Table 11. Instructional treatments adopted in our study.

Focus on FormS	Focus on Form
Explicit Group	**Implicit Group**
Sequential method:	Parallel method:
Video presentation	Video presentation
From awareness-raising tasks ↓ To production tasks	Input enhancement + Recasts

On the one hand, we followed a FonFormS paradigm for the EG focusing particularly on the selected target forms employed to make appropriate suggestions in the present study. The instructional treatment for this experimental group adopted a sequential method consisting in the presentation of videotaped situations that involved NSs interacting in different computer-related situations, the video scripts from these situations, and a sequence of activities from awareness-raising tasks to production tasks (see section 2.3.2.2 for more details on this type of instruction). On the other hand, the treatment for the IG followed a FonF paradigm which consisted of a parallel method with the combination of two implicit techniques, i.e. input enhancement through the video presentation and recasts during the role-play practice. This systematic combination of both techniques was used following the assumption that the use of just one technique might not be enough to make the implicit condition effective in enabling this group of learners to acquire the pragmatic aspect under instruction (see section 2.3.2.3 for more information on this type of treatment).

A detailed explanation of the materials employed in each of the two instructional treatments is provided in the next subsection.

4.3.3 *Materials*

4.3.3.1 *Video*

The first material employed during our treatment sessions was the use of videotaped situations. As we mentioned in Chapter 2 (section 2.1.1), input has been ascertained as one of the three necessary conditions, along with output and feedback, to foster learners' pragmatic competence in the TL. However, it has also been acknowledged that learners, especially in an FL setting, are limited to the sole exposure of the teacher and the materials employed in the classroom, usually written materials such as textbooks or language manuals. These two main sources of input have been regarded as artificial by not providing learners with enough pertinent input (Kasper, 1997; LoCastro, 2003). For this reason, different alternatives to present pragmatic input have been suggested, such as the use of spoken corpora (Alcón and Safont, 2001; Campoy and Safont, 2001; Koester, 2002; among many others) or the use of video, TV and films (Rose, 1993, 1994a, 1997, 2001; Grant and Starks, 2001; Washburn, 2001; among others).

Taking into consideration these assumptions and the need to bring real and authentic material into settings where exposure to pragmatic input is very limited, such as the FL classroom, we decided to employ videotaped situations to introduce the pragmatic foci of our study in the classroom. Moreover, the benefits of using media in language teaching have also been supported given the fact that visual materials serve to motivate and raise students' interest as well as to introduce changes in classroom routines (Swaffar and Vlatten, 1997).

On that account, we videotaped real situations between pairs of American NSs in different situations that were closely related to the field of computer science.[17] The situations were carefully selected as being carried out between student-student and student-professor, and they could already know each other or be meeting for the first time. In this sense, the variables of power and social distance (Brown and Levinson, 1987) were taken

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[17] The NSs were presented with situations that involved the use of suggestions and asked to enact them.

into consideration. The situations also took place in different academic settings such as a computer lab, a professor's office, a TV lounge in the residence hall, a dorm in the residence hall and a cybercafe. Thus, the conversations varied depending on two sociopragmatic factors, namely status and social distance, although the topic was similar in all situations, that is, computer-related topics.

A total of twenty-six situations were videotaped, although only seven of them were selected for the present study bearing in mind the number of sessions we had during the course. The criteria we adopted in order to choose these situations were clarity and length of the situations. Those that presented a lot of background noise were discarded and we decided not to take the longest ones in order to prevent our students from getting lost when watching them. For these reasons, the final situations lasted between 1.15 minutes and 4.05 minutes. The use of these videotaped situations was implemented along with the instructional treatments. The two versions that were elaborated for each experimental group are explained in the next two subsections.

4.3.3.1.1 *Video version for the Explicit Group*

The first version designed for the EG (see Appendix 10) presented the videotaped situations as the pragmatic input to be addressed in each of the sessions. Thus, the use of the video served to accompany the explicit instruction of both pragmalinguistic aspects, that is, the linguistic forms employed in the situations to make suggestions, and sociopragmatic aspects, which referred to the relationship between the participants in the scenes as factors that affect the choice of the linguistic forms. The participants in this experimental group watched these situations without anything written on the screen and they also worked with the video scripts from the same situations without any words highlighted in bold.

4.3.3.1.2 *Video version for the Implicit Group*

The second version of the videotaped situations was for the IG. This version, although having the same situations as the version described above, was altered by including captions that addressed both the linguistic forms for making suggestions (pragmalinguistic aspects) and the sociopragmatic factors involved in each situation (sociopragmatic aspects) (see Appendix 11 for details of these sociopragmatic features). We decided to include captions as a substitute for the metapragmatic discussions designed for the treatment with the EG. The captions were regarded as an input enhancement technique, since the IG did not receive any comments or explanations on the video scenes. Moreover, it has been acknowledged that the use of these elements improves learners' comprehension in the TL (Chung, 1999; Markham, 1999). According to Chung (1999), captions are similar to subtitles in that they are a transcription of the spoken text. However, there is an important difference between them, since subtitles refer to on-screen test in the native language combined with the TL soundtrack, whereas captions involve on-screen text in the TL combined with the TL soundtrack (Markham, 1999). Taking into account these assumptions, and the fact that the use of small subtitles in a previous study did not work as expected (Fukuya and Clark, 2001), we decided to incorporate captions that occupied the whole screen. On the one hand, we designed captions that appeared at the beginning of each situation presenting the sociopragmatic aspects involved in that situation. On the other hand, we also created captions that included the pragmalinguistic forms employed for suggestions in each situation and, thus, these captions appeared on the screen every time a suggestion was made during the conversations. All captions were highlighted in bold and lasted several seconds, which was long enough for learners to read them. Furthermore, the same information that appeared in the captions was also highlighted in bold in the video scripts provided for the IG (see Appendix 12). The reason for employing the input enhancement technique in both types of materials (i.e. videotaped situations and video scripts), i.e. highlighting the information in bold, was to maximise its effect with this experimental group. An example of one excerpt from the first situation containing the target forms in bold is presented below.

Example (5)

Tajala:	Hi Christina
Christina:	Hi Tajala. How are you doing?
Tajala:	Good. What's up? What are you up to?
Christina:	I can't find the ... I can't find any information on Multimedia programs.
Tajala:	Multimedia? What do you need that for?
Christina:	I'll just, ... this project that I'm doing.
Tajala:	So, what site are you right know?
Christina:	I'm in the University … uh ... library.
Tajala:	OK. **Have you tried** ... uh... the ERIC database?
Christina:	Uh... I've never heard of it.
Tajala:	Uh, um. OK, well, **why don't you** go into the title? It's a pretty good database. It tells you ... where ...

4.3.3.2 *Tasks*

All the tasks[18] employed in our study were integrated into the normal activities organised in the syllabus of our computer-science students, since the researcher was also the teacher of both experimental groups. The tasks designed for our instructional treatment were adapted from tasks developed in Barraja-Rohan and Pritchard's (1997) book entitled *Beyond Talk, a course in communication and conversation for intermediate adult learners of English*. This book seemed appropriate to us in the sense that it focused on communicative aspects in the teaching of EFL. The authors (1997: 4) describe the aims of the book as:

> [...] to expose students to real life language, to make students aware of how conversation is organised and what rules govern conversation, to refine students' listening skills by drawing their attention to intonation, sentence stress and other prosodic features, to help students understand the speaker's intention, to recognise the social implications of using language (formal versus informal and the use of politeness), to acquaint students with the sociocultural norms linked to English and by the same token students acquire a cultural awareness of their first language as well as of other languages spoken in the classroom, and ultimately, to give students strategies and resources to deal with and participate in everyday conversation and use conversational English in a meaningful way.

Moreover, we took the decision to adapt the tasks from this book, since it has already been employed in other studies focusing on pragmatic instruction (Safont, 2001; Alcón, 2002). Apart from the use of this book, we also considered previous research dealing with the speech act we are examining (Hinkel, 1994, 1997). This author created the situations in

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[18] The two terms *tasks* and *activities* are employed interchangeably throughout this study.

her questionnaires from examples of authentic recorded data between NNSs and their peers and instructors. Thus, in all situations students had to make suggestions which only varied depending on the status the addressee had over the speaker. For this reason, some of the situations employed in these studies were also adapted to develop the situations of our role-plays.

Regarding the construction of the role-plays in the present study, we followed what has been termed as *role enactment* by Trosborg (1987, 1995). According to this author (1987: 153), role enactment involves performing a role that is part of one's normal life or personality. This means that the role-plays have to be specifically created for the participants by containing situations and characters that are familiar to them. In line with Trosborg (1987, 1995), we also believe that the integration of role-enactments in the FL classroom will facilitate learners' process of acquiring the TL. For this reason, all our tasks, including the role-plays, were tailor-made in order to make students feel identified in the situations.

The next two subsections present the tasks employed with the two instructional groups. Although the tasks that involved opportunities for practice were the same for both groups, they were presented in different stages and with different levels of involvement. Additionally, the tasks were piloted with two reduced groups of computer science students before the treatment took place (December 2002) under the supervision of a senior researcher. Results from that pilot study allowed us to modify some aspects that the participants found hard to understand or that did not elicit the speech act under study.

4.3.3.2.1 *Tasks employed with the Explicit Group*

The instructional treatment we developed for the students belonging to the EG followed a sequential method that took into consideration Kasper's (1996) suggested stages for teaching pragmatic items explicitly in the classroom (see Appendix 13 for the whole collection of tasks employed with the EG). Thus, first we introduced awareness- raising tasks that focused on sociopragmatic aspects implied in the situations students have watched in the video. Learners' awareness was raised through questions such as *What is*

happening? Where are the participants? What is their relationship? or *What is the topic of the conversation?* Next we provide some examples of this sort of tasks:

Example (6)
   1. Where do you think the participants are?

     ☐ *In a professor's office*
     ☐ *At home*
     ☐ *In a restaurant*
     ☐ *In a computer lab*

   2. What is the relationship between the participants?

     ☐ *Stranger-stranger*
     ☐ *Doctor-patient*
     ☐ *Friend-friend*
     ☐ *Professor-student*

Apart from these tasks based on the situations presented in the video, learners' attention was also directed to the pragmalinguistic aspects involved when making suggestions. To this end, learners were provided with the written video scripts of the videotaped situations, and the task questions directed them to different linguistic forms employed to make suggestions. Examples of these questions are:

Example (7)
   1. What is Christina saying in lines 4-5?

     ☐ *She wants to give Tajala some information.*
     ☐ *She thinks that Tajala is a good friend.*
     ☐ *She has a problem looking for some information.*
     ☐ *She thinks that Tajala needs some help.*

   2. What is Tajala doing in lines 10 and 12?

     ☐ *She tells Christina about the new library.*
     ☐ *She asks Christina to help her.*
     ☐ *She suggests a place where Christina can find some information.*
     ☐ *She tells Christina about some new books.*

Along with these tasks, learners were provided with metapragmatic explanations on the use of suggestions as well as their grammatically correct forms when required. After two sessions consisting of this sort of tasks, learners received explicit instruction on suggestions by presenting them with the table that included the target forms selected for our study. First, we explained the HA and, after a multiple-choice task on these forms, we emphasised the importance of employing downgraders when making a suggestion. Then, several tasks involving students' written production on suggestions were introduced as semi-practice activities. The following is an example of this type of task:

Example (8)

Read the following situations and write what you would say in those situations:

Situation 1:

A.	*You have to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (Encarta '99) for the subject "Multimedia". You have to explain its components and identify both hardware components and software sources. You don't know too much about this topic, so you decide to ask a good friend for help.*
B.	*Your friend has to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (Encarta '99) for the subject of "Multimedia". Your friend asks you for help. You know some places where to look for this information:*

> - *library database (textbooks, videos)*
> - *Internet (through different web browsers)*
> - *computer bookshop (brochures or catalogues)*

Finally, students were given more opportunities to practise by using role-play tasks in the last instructional session.

4.3.3.2.2 *Tasks employed with the Implicit Group*

The method employed with the IG followed a parallel method, since we implemented two different FonF techniques in all tasks from the beginning of the treatment (see Appendix 14 for the whole collection of tasks employed with the IG). Thus, this group always had three main types of tasks in each session. The first task was designed as a listening comprehension activity that focused on the content of the videotaped situation

students had watched, which included the input enhancement on both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects. The following example illustrates the sort of questions asked in this task:

Example (9)

1. Christina is looking for information about::

☐ *A summer job*

☐ *A movie to see this weekend*

☐ *A project for the University*

2. Which web browser does Tajala tell Christina to look into?

☐ *Yahoo*

☐ *Google*

☐ *Netscape*

In order to do the second task, which consisted of a reading comprehension activity, students were given the written video scripts of the videotaped situations. The questions posed for the students in this task were based on the content of the conversation, but in order to answer them students had to read the suggestions that were also highlighted in bold through the input enhancement technique. Below is an example of these questions:

Example (10)

1. What kind of information is Christina looking for?

_____ _____

2. Where does Tajala tell Christina to look for it?

_____ _____

Finally, the third task included role-plays that provided students with opportunities to use suggestions. With this task, we included the second implicit technique that allowed us to recast both inappropriate and inaccurate suggestions made by the students. The following example shows a model of role-play:

Example (11)

ROLE-PLAY A

A. *You have to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (Encarta '99) for the subject "Multimedia". You have to explain its components identifying both hardware components and software sources. You don't know too much about this topic, so you decide to ask a good friend for help.*
B. *Your friend has to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (Encarta '99) for the subject "Multimedia". Your friend asks you for help. You know some places where to look for this information:* - *library database (textbooks, videos)* - *Internet (through different web browsers)* - *computer bookshop (brochures or catalogues)* - *other!!!*

We considered it relevant to include role-plays from the first session in order to have more chances of giving recasts. Moreover, we also organised the role-plays in such a way that all students had the opportunity to perform both equal and higher status role-plays in front of the class.

Given the importance of recasts, we will explain how we provided them by following the framework developed by Fukuya and Zhang (2002). According to these authors, pragmalinguistic recasts are regarded as the caretaker's (i.e. a teacher, a NS) reformulation of either (1) an utterance that is pragmatically inappropriate by changing the HA (and adding some hedges), or (2) an utterance that is pragmatically appropriate but grammatically incorrect by changing the linguistic part of the HA. We therefore provided recasts taking into account both pragmatic appropriateness and linguistic accuracy. As can be observed in Table 12, we considered four possible types of recasts.

Table 12. A framework of pragmalinguistic recasts (Source: adapted from Fukuya and Zhang, 2002).

Type I:	An appropriate pragmatic usage + a correct linguistic form → ignore it (no recast)
Type II:	An appropriate pragmatic usage + an incorrect linguistic form → recast only the linguistic form
Type III:	An inappropriate pragmatic usage + a correct linguistic form → recast it by using one of the target forms for suggestions
Type IV:	An inappropriate pragmatic usage + an incorrect linguistic form → recast it by using one of the target forms for suggestions

We did not recast (type I) learners' suggestions when they were both pragmatically appropriate and linguistically correct in the two combinations (with equal and higher status). When a learner employed an appropriate suggestion but the linguistic realisation employed was not correct, we only recast the linguistic form (Type II). An example of Type II is a case in which a learner uses an appropriate target form with a grammatically incorrect form, such as **It was helpful if you ...* in a Combination 2. In this case, although it was used in an appropriate context, the recast is provided only to its linguistic form, which would be *It would be helpful if you ...*

In contrast to Type II, which focuses on the linguistic forms, Types III and IV are concerned with pragmatic appropriateness. In this sense, any inappropriate suggestion, whether linguistically correct or not, had to be recast. Thus, in these two types, we provided our learners with a recast by employing one of the twelve target forms, depending on the situation the suggestion took place in: one of the forms from Combination 1 should be employed in situations with equal status, whereas a target form from Combination 2 should be used when recasting in situations with higher status. In Type III, the learner used a pragmatically inappropriate suggestion, although grammatically correct. An example would be to employ an imperative form with a higher status person as in *Call a computer technician*. In this sort of situations, although the utterance is linguistically correct, we provided a recast by employing one of the target forms in Combination 2, such as *I think it might be better to call a computer technician.* Finally, we always recast in Type IV because

the suggestion given by the student was both pragmatically inappropriate and linguistically incorrect.

In order to implement the previous framework of pragmalinguistic recasts in our study, we decided to adopt several decisions to be consistent and maximise the effectiveness of implementing focused recasts.

The first decision involved the exact knowledge of the forms selected in each Combination. Thus, in Combination 1 situations, if the students used any forms (or similar forms) from Combination 2, we recast this form by using one of the six forms written in Combination 1. Moreover, if the students employed a form that was not written in Combination 1 (i.e. an imperative), we also recast it by using one of the six forms written in Combination 1. Similarly, in Combination 2 situations, if the students used any forms (or similar forms) from Combination 1 (i.e. *you might want to*), we recast this form by using one of the six forms written in Combination 2. Additionally, if the students used a form that was not written in Combination 2 (*I wish you taught us …*), we also recast it by using one of the six forms written in Combination 2.

Regarding the second decision, we considered the twelve target forms as formulaic speech, that is, they had to be recast in exactly the same syntactic order as they were presented. In this sense, in Combination 2 situations, although both *I would probably suggest that …* and *Probably, I would suggest that …* could be possible and equally appropriate, we should always consistently use the former utterance as presented in Combination 2. However, we were flexible in accepting students' utterances. In cases in which students employed the second utterance, we decided not to recast it because it was appropriate in that Combination 2. This could also happen with three other forms in which the lexical device can be moved to another place in the sentence: *Perhaps you should …, Maybe you could …, Personally, I would recommend that …*

The third decision was related to downgraders. Thus, when a student skipped a downgrader in an appropriate situation, we added the downgrader when recasting. For

example, if one of the students said *You need,* we recast this form by using *I think you need
…*. We only made an exception with the form *you can*, since this form appeared frequently
in the videotaped situations without the downgrader *just*.

Our fourth decision concerned the way in which we used recasts. In order to employ a
focused recast systematically, we always followed the same steps – as can be seen in the
following example which illustrates a situation with a higher status person:

Example (12)

A learner: "… you must buy a PC"
The teacher: "You must ↗ You said? ↗ I think it might be better to buy a PC. OK.↗"

First, we repeated only the conventional part (*You must*) of an inappropriate
suggestion, not the whole utterance, with a rising tone. Then, we added *You said?* also with
a rising tone. With this focused recast, we intended to indicate to learners an implicit
contrast between inappropriate and appropriate pragmalinguistic forms of suggestions.
After stating this expression, we employed an appropriate target form selected from those
in Combination 2 (*I think it might be better to …*). Finally, we added *OK* with a rising tone.
It is believed that the combination of *You said?* and *OK*, both of which may send implicit
messages to learners, would seem to achieve this purpose (Fukuya and Zhang, 2002).

The fifth decision we adopted concerned the control of the number of recasts
employed with our students, since we tried to equalise the number of the target forms when
providing recasts. For this reason, we created a sheet with the table containing the twelve
target forms and marked each form when we employed it in a recast. In this way, a different
target form was used in each recast (see Appendices 16 and 17 for the tables containing
recasts in both types of Combinations).

Finally, we needed to create opportunities for learners to participate in both kinds of
situations in which the target forms from Combinations 1 and 2 could be employed. Thus,
the role-plays we designed involved the two kinds of situations. During the role-plays
between participants of equal status, students performed them with other students and we

provided recasts when needed. The role-plays with a higher status instructor were always performed with the teacher (the researcher of the present study), and so we also provided recasts when needed.

These six decisions were essential in order to maximise the effects of recasts. Moreover, we also took into consideration the fact that we had to provide the recast immediately after every inappropriate HA without waiting until the learner had finished the whole suggestion. If this short interruption made the learner stop, after providing the recast, we told the learner to go on with the conversation. In conversations in which more than one inappropriate HA was used, we recast all of them following all the previous considerations. Every role-play was tape-recorded and later transcribed to facilitate its analysis (see Appendix 18 for the transcripts of all the role-plays employed in both equal and higher status situations).

In these two previous sections we have provided a detailed description of the instruments of data collection employed in our study and the materials designed to implement the instructional treatments with our two experimental groups. The next section describes how all these instruments and materials were implemented throughout the whole semester.

4.4 Data collection procedures and instructional sessions

The study took place during the second semester of the academic year 2002-2003 in which the learners were studying *Anglès per a la Informàtica* (English for computer science). The tasks prepared for both groups were organised into three treatment blocks because of periods of national Bank holidays in the middle of the term. As can be seen in Table 13, which shows the general outline of the study design, the present study started the second week of February, 2003 and, finished the last week of May, 2003.

Table 13. Study design[19]

	Explicit Group	Implicit Group
Week 1 (2nd week Feb 2003)	Introduction to the course and background questionnaire + level placement test	Introduction to the course and background questionnaire + level placement test
Week 2	Pre-test: phone situations in the teacher's office, email situations in the computer lab and awareness test	Pre-test: phone situations in the teacher's office, email situations in the computer lab and awareness test
Week 3	*Bank holiday*	*Bank holiday*
Week 4	First session: Situations 1 & 2 – Multimedia Awareness-raising activities dealing with sociopragmatic aspects (equal status)	First session: Situations 1 & 2 – Multimedia Listening and reading activities + Role-play activities (equal status)
Week 5	Second session: Situations 3 & 4 – Computer situations Awareness-raising activities dealing with sociopragmatic aspects (higher status) First questionnaire after treatment	Second session: Situations 3 & 4 – Computer situations Listening and reading activities + Role-play activities (higher status) First questionnaire after treatment
Week 6	Lesson from their syllabus: Faces of Internet	Lesson from their syllabus: Faces of Internet
Week 7	*Bank holiday*	*Bank holiday*
Week 8	Third session: Situations 1, 2, 3 & 4 – Revision Explicit instruction on *suggestions* Awareness-raising activities dealing with pragmalinguistic aspects Explicit instruction on *downgraders* Simple written production activity to employ the pragmalinguistic strategies taught	Third session: Situations 1, 2, 3 & 4 – Revision Reinforcement of situations (input enhancement) Role-play activities (both equal and higher status)
Week 9	Fourth session: Situation 5 – Buying a computer Awareness-raising activities dealing with both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects Written production activity Second questionnaire after treatment	Fourth session: Situation 5 – Buying a computer Listening and reading activities + Role-play activities (equal and higher status) Second questionnaire after treatment
Week 10	*Bank holiday*	*Bank holiday*
Week 11	*Bank holiday*	*Bank holiday*
Week 12	*Bank holiday*	Lesson from their syllabus: What is next?
Week 13	Fifth session: Situation 6 – PowerPoint presentation Awareness-raising activities dealing with both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects Written production activity	Fifth session: Situation 6 – PowerPoint presentation Listening and reading activities + Role-play activities (equal and higher status)
Week 14	Fifth session: Situation 7 – Cybercafe Role-play activities (equal and higher status) Third questionnaire after treatment	Fifth session: Situation 7 – Cybercafe Role-play activities (equal and higher status) Third questionnaire after treatment
Week 15	Post-test: phone situations in the teacher's office, email situations in the computer lab and awareness test	Post-test: phone situations in the teacher's office, email situations in the computer lab and awareness test
Week 16 (last week May 2003)	Lesson from their syllabus: Web quest	Lesson from their syllabus: Web quest Final questionnaire Short explanation of *suggestions*

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[19] The data collection procedure took place during weeks 2 & 15, whereas the three blocks of instructional sessions took place during weeks 4 & 5, 8 & 9, and 13 & 14.

In Week 1, the teacher gave a presentation of the subject and handed out the syllabus to both groups. She also distributed the background questionnaire in order to obtain personal information from the participants and the level placement test to ascertain their level of proficiency in English (see Appendix 1). After that, she explained to the learners that their level of oral and written English would also be checked the following week. Thus, by signing a sheet containing a timetable, students made an appointment to go to the teacher's office to perform the phone tasks the following week. Similarly, the teacher of the CG also distributed this questionnaire in Week 1.

The pre-test took place in Week 2. The participants carried out the tests in the following order. First, students performed the phone message tasks individually in the teacher's office (see Appendix 2). We provided each student with half an hour to read the situations and make the phone calls. They were also provided with explanations of the situations if necessary, since we believed that a total understanding of the situations was important in order to carry out the tasks. Then, students completed the other two tasks as part of their normal class. For this two-hour session, the researcher had booked the computer lab, so the students spent the first hour with the email task (see Appendix 4) and the second hour was devoted to completing the rating assessment test (see Appendix 6). We decided to follow this order to avoid the possible effects of students reading the situations from the rating assessment test on their production. The students were also allowed more time if they needed it. The CG also carried out the pre-test the same week.

After one week without sessions due to Bank holidays, the first block of instructional treatment took place in Weeks 4 and 5. The tasks employed during Week 4 were integrated into participants' syllabus related to computer science. The topic dealt with Multimedia applications, so the two videotaped situations of the first session also dealt with Multimedia issues (see Appendices 10 and 12 – situations 1 and 2 for their video scripts). Participants in both groups first watched the two situations between two students of equal status (each group with the specific version of the video situations as explained in subsection 4.3.3.1), and then each group carried out the specific tasks designed for them (explained above in subsection 4.3.3.2). The role-plays performed by the participants of the IG involved two

situations between students with equal status. Two pairs of students performed the two different role-plays at the front of the classroom. The researcher was next to them taking notes and providing recasts when an inappropriate or inaccurate form was employed (see explanation of the framework of pragmalinguistic recasts adopted in this study explained above in subsection 4.3.3.2.2). The role-plays were tape-recorded and later transcribed for its analysis (see Appendix 18).

The same procedure was followed in Week 5 during which situations 3 and 4 were presented to both groups of participants (see Appendices 10 and 12 – situations 3 and 4 for their video scripts). These videotaped situations involved characters with a different status: a student and a professor. Sociopragmatic factors were explicitly taught to the EG, whereas the role-plays that students had to prepare in the IG were performed with the teacher. In this sense, students did not have to imagine one of their partners as being the teacher, but the teacher herself performed the "higher status" participant with individual students. Finally, students were asked to complete the questionnaire handed out after the first instructional sessions (see Appendix 8).

After two weeks without instruction, since Week 6 dealt with a text from their normal computer science course and Week 7 was again a Bank holiday, we implemented our second block of instructional treatment in Weeks 8 and 9. The third session (Week 8) was regarded as a revision of the four previous videotaped situations. After watching the four situations again, the EG was presented with a table (see Appendix 13 – third session tasks) that provided a definition of the speech act of suggestions and summarised the suggestions employed by all participants in the four videotaped situations. Then, learners were shown the table containing the twelve selected target forms and were also provided with metapragmatic explanations on their use. They were also asked to do an awareness-raising activity dealing with pragmalinguistic aspects. After checking this activity, students were again given the table containing the twelve target forms, but this time the seven selected downgraders were highlighted in bold type. They also received explicit instruction on the use of downgraders in order to soften the force of the suggestion. Finally, the first production activity was done. This consisted of a simple written activity with the four

situations (including both equal and higher status) that the IG had already worked on for their role-plays in the first and second sessions. Students from the EG were asked to write individually what they would say in those four situations employing the linguistic forms and downgraders they had previously been taught. Regarding the IG, they also watched the four videotaped situations again with the use of input enhancement and were given four role-plays which included situations adapted from Hinkel (1997). Then, four different pairs of students performed the role-plays in front of the class (equal status) and three more students performed the role-plays with the teacher (higher status). Recasts using the selected target forms for suggestions were employed during these role-plays.

The fourth session was conducted in Week 9. A new situation related to the topic of "buying a computer" was presented to both groups. This situation included two participants of equal status who did not know each other. Students had to first watch the situation and then perform the tasks. The EG received activities that dealt with both sociopragmatic factors as well as pragmalinguistic aspects by asking them to find the forms employed to make suggestions in the video scripts. Finally, students had to work on two production activities by writing the dialogue. In order to help them, the teacher brought authentic computer brochures to the class. They were encouraged to use those brochures to help them recommend and suggest the best computer. At this time, students did not have to perform the role-plays in front of the class, although some of their dialogues were read aloud and attention was paid to the pragmalinguistic forms employed. The teacher explicitly corrected both the inappropriate and incorrect forms of the suggestions employed by the students depending on the situation they had employed those forms. In this way, the teacher systematically focused on both appropriateness and grammar with both groups (either explicitly with the EG or by recasting with the IG). Students from the IG also watched the videotaped situation and worked on listening and reading activities focusing on the content of the situation. These activities were done aloud with the whole class participating in them. After finishing them, we distributed two role-plays (one being equal status and the second being higher status) with the same topic: one of the partners or the teacher wanted to buy a new computer. Again, with the help of the computer brochures, the students had to suggest the best computer. Four pairs of students performed their role-plays in front of the class

(equal status) and six students performed the role-play with the teacher (higher status). Recasts were systematically employed throughout the ten role-plays. Finally, students were asked to answer the second questionnaire.

After an interval of three weeks' Bank holiday, the third block of instructional treatment was conducted in Weeks 13 and 14. The fifth session included a new situation related to the topic of "a presentation using PowerPoint". This situation included two participants of equal status who were good friends. Students had to first watch the situation (see Appendix 10 – situation 6 for its video script) and then perform the tasks. The EG received activities that were similar to those presented in the fourth session. At the end, students also had to work on two production activities by writing the dialogue. Again, the teacher brought authentic material (i.e. research articles) for students to use when preparing the dialogues. Some of their dialogues were read aloud in class and attention was paid to the pragmalinguistic forms employed, but they did not have to perform the role-plays in front of the class. The same procedure as the one followed in the fourth session was conducted with students from the IG. They first watched the situation and worked on listening and reading activities. After finishing them, students had to prepare two role-plays (one being equal status and the second being higher status) related to a PowerPoint presentation. Four pairs of students performed their role-plays in front of the class (equal status) and four other students performed the role-play with the teacher (higher status). Recasts were systematically employed during the eight role-plays.

The last session was conducted in Week 14. During this sixth session, students in both groups watched a videotaped situation (situation 7), which took place in a cybercafe. This situation was related to one of the final texts students had in their syllabi. We prepared a first activity (see Appendices 13 and 14 – Fifth session – activity A), in which students had to watch the situation without sound and write the conversation following the ideas provided in the activity. However, because this was the last session and we were more interested in students' oral performance, we decided not to conduct this activity and to present both groups with four role-plays to work on during the two hour-session (see Appendices 13 and 14 – Fifth session – activity B for the four role-plays). This time,

students in the EG also prepared the role-plays and performed them in front of the class. Comments on their use of pragmalinguistic forms were explicitly discussed by the teacher and the rest of the class. Students in the IG also performed the four role-plays (two involved equal status participants and the other two were higher status). Transcripts from the recasts employed with the students (5 with equal status and 4 with higher status) are provided in Appendix 18. Finally, students were asked to answer the third and final questionnaire concerning the whole course. During all these sessions, students from the CG did not work on anything related to suggestions.

Immediately after this final instructional session, that is, on Week 15, we conducted the post-test following the same steps that we did with the pre-test. First, students came individually to the teacher's office to perform the phone message tasks (Appendix 3). Then, students did the email tasks in the computer lab (Appendix 5) and, finally, they also completed the rating assessment test (Appendix 7). The CG also took all tests from the post-test during this week.

In Week 16, both groups performed a final activity in the computer lab related to a Web quest. Additionally, we also handed out the final questionnaire for the IG (Appendix 9) and, after all students had finished this diary, the teacher explained the appropriate and accurate use of suggestions to them by presenting the table with the twelve selected target forms. The teacher noted down students' reactions and comments towards this short explanation in order to determine whether their condition had been maintained implicit throughout the whole course.

All the sessions were tape-recorded and transcribed for later analysis. In order to maximise accuracy, the transcriptions from the role-plays with the IG that contained recasts were written the day following the recording.

4.5 Coding and analysis of the data

4.5.1 *Coding procedure*

In this section of the present chapter, we will describe the coding procedure followed in order to analyse both the production and awareness data collected on suggestions. Given the fact that the procedure adopted was different depending on the type of data examined, we will start by explaining the different steps considered in the production of both the phone messages and email tasks and later focus on the analysis of the awareness data (subsection 4.5.1.2).

4.5.1.1 *Production data*

We categorised the suggestions produced by the learners, considering the number and type of linguistic forms employed when suggesting before and after the instructional treatment. A total of 1296 responses formed our production data (81 students x 2 times x 2 tests x 4 situations). In order to classify these data (see Appendix 21 for a sample of students' production data), we adopted the taxonomies for both HA and downgraders presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.4.3), which were created on the basis of previous research on the speech act under study. Although we classified all the linguistic forms that appeared in our data, for the purposes of the present study we paid specific attention to those target forms that were addressed during the instructional sessions with both experimental groups. The analysis of these forms will allow us to ascertain the effects of instruction.

In order to codify these target forms, we decided to follow an analytical assessment by assigning scores to both the suggestion itself (the HA) and the downgrader employed with it. This scoring system had to be consistent with the treatment adopted in this study. For this reason, we focused mainly on pragmatic appropriateness and, secondly, on linguistic accuracy, since both aspects were addressed either explicitly through explanations or implicitly when recasting (see section 4.3.3.2.2 for the explanation of the framework of pragmalinguistic recasts). Moreover, following Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) previous coding system, linguistic accuracy was only scored when the pragmalinguistic

expressions had been employed in appropriate contexts. In other words, pragmatic appropriateness was a necessary condition for linguistic accuracy. The scoring system adopted for the HA (both appropriateness and grammar[20]) and the downgraders is illustrated in Tables 14 and 15:

Table 14. Scoring for appropriateness level.

Appropriateness level	Score
Inappropriate HA	0
Appropriate HA	1
Appropriate HA + appropriate target downgrader	1.5

Table 15. Scoring for grammatical level.

Grammatical level	Score
Incorrect pragmalinguistic form	0
Correct pragmalinguistic form	1
Correct pragmalinguistic form + correct connecting part	1.5

As can be observed in Tables 14 and 15 above, we followed a three-grading system which ranges from 0 to 1.5 points for both the appropriateness level and the grammatical level.

As far as appropriateness is concerned, it is important to point out that only the twelve target forms selected as the pragmatic foci of our study on pragmatic instruction were assigned a score. We were aware of the fact that students could have employed other linguistic forms appropriate for particular situations, for instance, *If I were you, I would …* in Combination 1. However, we only rewarded the 12 target forms because we were consistent with our choice of selecting specific target forms for our instruction, thus, examining the effects of pragmatic instruction instead of learners' use of linguistic forms to express suggestions. The other linguistic forms appearing in our proposed taxonomy for

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[20] The appropriateness level shows the scores for pragmatic appropriateness and the grammatical level presents the scores for linguistic accuracy.

HAs were also categorised but these received no score, since they were regarded as non-target forms. Moreover, in order to receive a score, the particular target forms had to be employed appropriately in the Combination they had been classified in, depending on the status (i.e. six target forms in Combination 1 for equal status situations and six target forms in Combination 2 for higher status situations). The following example shows how we assigned the scores for pragmatic appropriateness:

Example (13)

Examples	Explanation for Score
• *You can buy this printer*	→ will get 0 points used in Combination 2 because the HA is a target form in Combination 1
• *You should buy this printer*	→ will get 1 point used in Combination 1 because the HA is one of the selected target forms in this Combination
• *Perhaps you should buy this printer*	→ will get 1.5 points in Combination 1 because both the HA and the downgrader are the selected target forms
• *If I were you, I would buy this printer*	→ will not get any score because it is a non-target form, although we will categorise it

Regarding linguistic accuracy, and as previously mentioned, we only assigned scores for the grammatical level when the particular linguistic form was one of the target forms and had already received a score for pragmatic appropriateness. If this was the case, we could also assign three types of scores as shown in the following example:

Example (14)

Examples	Explanation for Score
• *It was helpful if you go to this bookshop*	→ will get 0 points because the pragmalinguistic form is incorrect
• *It would be helpful if you going to this bookshop*	→ will get 1 point because the pragmalinguistic form is correct, but the connecting part is incorrect
• *It would be helpful if you go to this bookshop*	→ will get 1.5 points because both the pragmalinguistic form and its connecting part are correct

Finally, and as can be observed in Table 14 above, we always assigned a score of 0.5 points to the downgrader when employed with an appropriate target form for suggestions. Considering a balance between HAs and downgraders, we decided not to assign one point

because a downgrader is a peripheral modification device to a HA. Besides, in order to receive the score, the downgrader had to be one of the seven corresponding target forms selected for our instructional treatments. The following example also illustrates all the possible cases in which we could find a downgrader and when we scored it:

Example (15)

Examples	Explanation for Score
• *Perhaps you should buy this printer*	→ used in Combination 1: this downgrader will get 0.5 points because it is used with an appropriate HA
• *I think you could go to this bookshop*	→ used in Combination 2: the downgrader will get 0.5 points because it is a target downgrader used with an appropriate HA, although this downgrader was not taught with that HA
• *Perhaps you can go to this bookshop*	→ used in Combination 2: the downgrader will not get 0.5 points because although it is a target downgrader, the HA is not appropriate in this Combination
• *I believe you could go to this bookshop*	→ used in Combination 2: the downgrader will not get 0.5 points because although the HA is appropriate in this Combination, the downgrader is not one of the seven target downgraders

Bearing in mind the foregoing considerations regarding the categorisation and scoring of our production data, we started the coding process. In order to make this whole process as consistent and reliable as possible, another colleague from the SLA research field was chosen as a second rater. This researcher received training on the identification of the HAs and downgraders by being explained the taxonomies previously mentioned and the scoring for both pragmatic appropriateness and linguistic accuracy.

First, we started a period of training that lasted several sessions in which we coded independently different sets of responses choosing at random up to 100 responses, which represented 7.7% of the total production data. During this training phase, we added new linguistic forms to our original taxonomy for HAs and we made some coding agreements related to the identification and categorisation of the HAs (see Appendix 19 for the collection of the 19 coding agreements created).

The first group of the 19 different coding agreements (see Appendix 19 - from 1 to 6) included some specific details to be considered when identifying certain strategies for suggestions, in particular the difference between *impersonals* and *hints*. Another important aspect referred to the fact that some of the learners' responses included more than one suggestion.[21] In these cases, we identified those responses as including "multiple suggestions" and, among these, we distinguished between *parallel*, *repetition* and *suggestion within a suggestion* (see coding agreement 7 for a definition of them).

The second set of coding agreements was related to the categorisation of some HAs (see Appendix 19 – from 8 to 12). An important agreement was the inclusion of a fourth type of HAs that paid attention to other possible forms that appeared in the data examined. Thus, we called this new type "other forms" and it incorporated the strategies of *inclusive-we*, *obligation*, and the fact that some learners did not make *any suggestion* in their responses (see coding agreement 8 for an explanation on this last option). Apart from this new group of possible forms, we also decided to include what we called "an alternative category" in which learners made a different suggestion from what was asked for in a test item (see coding agreement 9 for an explanation). This extra category was not treated as part of the taxonomy because learners' responses to be put into this category were the products of learners' violating the test instruction (see also coding agreement 10 for an explanation on this issue).

Finally, we included other necessary coding agreements (see Appendix 19 – from 13 to 19) when identifying and categorising the HAs. Some of these issues were related to the importance of distinguishing between an HA and a preparator (see coding agreement 13) or the importance of paying attention to the particle "so" (see coding agreement 19).

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[21] Rose and Kg Kwai-fun (2001: 162) also mentioned that this is an important aspect to bear in mind when coding production data and, especially, speech acts.

As a result of the training phase and all the agreement sessions, a new taxonomy of linguistic categories was created. Although the new categories were based on the original taxonomy, this updated version included new forms identified in learners' production data during the training period. This is illustrated in Table 16.

Table 16. Categories for suggestions (HAs) after the training process.

TYPE	STRATEGY	LINGUISTIC FORMS
DIRECT	(1) Performative verb	**(A) I (would) suggest that you …**
		(B) I (would) advise you to …
		(C) I (would) recommend that you …
		(D) I (would) recommend you to …
		(E) I (would) recommend you + noun
		(F) I would like to suggest (advice, recommend) …
	(2) My + a noun of suggestion + be-verb	(A) My suggestion (to you) would be / is …
		(B) My advice (to you) would be / is …
		(C) My recommendation (to you) would be / is …
	(3) Imperative	Try using …; Take my advice; Send your CV;
	(4) Negative imperative	Don't try to …
CONVENTIONALISED FORMS	(5) Specific formulae (interrogative forms)	**(A) Why don't you …?**
		(B) Have you tried …?
		(C) Have you thought of …?
		(D) How about …?
		(E) What about …?
	(6) Possibility/ probability	**(A) You can** …
		(B) You could …
		(C) You might want to…
		(D) You might …
		(E) You may …
		(F) You may want to …
	(7) Should	**(A) You should** …
		(B) You ought to ...
	(8) Need	**(A) You need …**
		(B) What you need (to do) is …
	(9) Conditional	(A) If I were you, I would …
		(B) If I were in your position, I wouldn't …
INDIRECT	(10) Impersonal	**(A) It would be helpful if you…**
		(B) It might be better to …
		(C) A good idea would be …
		(D) It would be a good idea to …
		(E) A subject + would be a good idea.
		(F) It would be nice if you…
		(G) One possibility would be …
		(H) One thing (you can do) would be to ...
		(I) There are a number of options that you…
	(11) Hints	
OTHER FORMS	(12) Inclusive WE	(A) We can …
		(B) We could …
		(C) Shall we ...?
		(D) Let's ...
		(E) We'd better (not) …
	(13) Obligation	(A) You must …
		(B) You have to …
	(14) Not making any suggestions at all	

An invisible category (this is marked as "al")

(al) Suggesting something other than the one asked in the test item (An alternative suggestion)	

As can be observed in Table 16 above, this new taxonomy presents the four types of categories, 14 strategies and various linguistic forms that include the target forms in bold. In addition, the "invisible category" explained earlier is attached to the main taxonomy. Apart from these linguistic realisations for the HA, we also focused on the downgraders selected from House and Kasper's (1981b) classification and the new ones found in the data analysed. Table 17 below presents these downgraders, in which the seven target forms are also highlighted in bold type:

Table 17. Categories for the downgraders after the training process.

	TYPE	EXAMPLES
DOWNGRADERS	(1) Downtoner	**(A) just**
		(B) maybe
		(C) perhaps
		(D) probably
		(E) possibly
		(F) rather
	(2) ("minus") Committer	**(A) I think**
		(B) personally
		(C) I believe
		(D) I guess
		(E) I suppose
		(F) In my opinion
	(3) Forewarn	**(A) I'm not sure, but**

Taking into consideration all the steps mentioned above, namely (1) the different stages in the coding procedure, (2) the elaboration of a new table of coding categories, and (3) the list of coding agreements, we selected a total of 260 responses, which represented 20% of the rest of the production data, in order to establish the interrater reliability.

Firstly, the two researchers individually rated 130 responses (10%) from the phone production data by identifying, categorising and scoring the HAs and downgraders analysed. The interrater reliability obtained was 97.69% for HAs and 100% for downgraders. After having established the interrater reliability, we resolved disagreement and came up with the total agreement of categories. Secondly, another 130 responses (10%) were selected from the email production data in order to establish the second session of

interrater reliability. The same procedure as the one described above was followed and an interrater reliability of 100% was achieved for both HAs and downgraders. Finally, the researcher coded the rest of the production data (80%) to obtain a final list of categories that is included in Appendix 20.

4.5.1.2 *Awareness data*

Concerning the analysis of the awareness data, we examined our participants' performance in the rating assessment test by examining their judgment when rating the appropriateness of the suggestions employed in the different situations on a 5-point rating scale (1 = inappropriate; 5 = appropriate). The tests were created in such a way as to offer four appropriate situations (situations 1, 3, 4 and 8) and four inappropriate situations (situations 2, 5, 6 and 7) (see Appendices 6 and 7 for both the pre- and post-tests). Therefore, the rating we expected to be accurate in the appropriate situations was 5 and the accurate rating in the inappropriate situations was 1. These values were confirmed after piloting the tests with NSs, so we relied on their agreement towards the scores we had predicted to be accurate.[22] For analysis purposes, every time a learner chose the correct answer, a 5 was given. In contrast, the value 1 was marked if learners chose an incorrect answer. By making this decision, we obtained a new scale on which a score of 5 was always the highest and, thus, the best value. In this way, we could compare each subject's performance in both the pre-test and the post-test to ascertain whether there had been an improvement.

Moreover, we also asked learners to justify the choice of the rating selected in each situation. To this end, on the one hand, we considered their identification of the inappropriate part and the number of appropriate expressions given when judging the suggestions as inappropriate and, on the other hand, the number of reasons connected to sociopragmatic factors provided when assessing the suggestions as appropriate. By means of these questions, we were able to obtain additional information related to both learners'

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[22] Rose and Kg Kwai-fun (2001: 157-158) also relied on NSs' "correct" responses as a way to analyse their data on a metapragmatic assessment questionnaire. We also believe that, since the instructional videos employed in our study were based on American NSs' interactions, piloting the tests with them would be an appropriate means of comparison.

pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness. Finally, apart from their awareness of appropriate or inappropriate suggestions, we also paid attention to our subjects' level of confidence when judging the appropriateness of the different situations. Their confidence was also measured on a 5-point rating scale (1 = not confident; 5 = confident).

4.5.2 *Statistical analyses*

The application of statistical procedures in this study was done on the basis of regular interviews with an expert in the field of statistics belonging to the psychology department of Universitat Jaume I. Following the advice of this expert in statistics, we started by examining normality tests in order to find out whether our data from the different tests employed were normal. To that end, we applied a Kolmorov-Smirnov one-sample test, since this test is designed to measure whether a particular distribution differs significantly from a normal distribution. Results from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov z in all the analyses showed a probability of .000, which indicates that our distribution differed significantly from normal. In other words, we could not assume normality because there were significant differences between the normal curve and our data. Therefore, we decided to resort to non-parametric tests in order to conduct the statistical analyses of our study.

Concerning the first research question of our study, which referred to the effects of instruction on participants' pragmatically appropriate production of suggestions, we had two main hypotheses. The first hypothesis focused on whether there was an improvement from the pre-test to the post-test because of instructional effects. In order to account for statistically significant differences, we chose a Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks test, as we compared the performance of each group (i.e. EG, IG and CG) in relation to two different moments, that is, before and after the instructional period. Apart from ascertaining whether there has been an improvement because of instruction, our second hypothesis centred on the effectiveness of the treatments employed (i.e. explicit and implicit) in developing learners' ability to produce more appropriate suggestions. We first made use of a Kruskal Wallis test for K independent samples because we compared our three groups on one independent measure, that is, their pragmatically appropriate production of suggestions.

Moreover, parallel to a T-test for independent measures, we also carried out specific analysis of the differences between the effects of the two treatment conditions on learners' use of suggestions by resorting to a Mann-Whitney Rank-Sum test.

Similar statistical procedures were employed in testing our second and third research questions, since they also dealt with the effects of instruction and the effectiveness of the two different treatments employed. In particular, the second research question examined learners' pragmatic awareness when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations, whereas the third research question concerned learners' level of confidence when assessing the appropriateness of those suggestions.

Finally, in our last research question, we were interested in contrasting our participants' use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in both the oral and written production tests, that is, the phone and email tasks. To address this matter, we compared the performance of each of the three groups in two different moments as regards their behaviour in the distinct task types (i.e. oral and written). We employed a Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks test in order to discern whether the differences were significant or not.

All the data obtained as a result of applying these non-parametric statistical procedures were coded and processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 11.0) for Windows. An alpha level of $p<0.05$ was chosen as the significant level, since it has been considered the standard for the applied linguistics field (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). The results obtained from the application of these statistical analyses are presented and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, we present the results of our study and a discussion of their implications on the four research questions and corresponding hypotheses stated in Chapter 3. Thus, the first three sections (5.1, 5.2, 5.3) address the results related to the research questions and hypotheses dealing with the effects of instruction and include subsections focusing on each of the three aspects examined (i.e. production, awareness and confidence). Following that, section 5.4 shows the findings derived from the research question and subsequent hypothesis dealing with task effects.

5.1 Results and Discussion concerning the effects of instruction on production

The first research question referred to both the effects of instruction on learners' pragmatic production of suggestions taught during the treatments (*does learners' production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction?*) and the effectiveness of these two types of treatment (*which instruction [i.e. explicit or implicit] is more effective?*).

Before examining each of the two hypotheses related with these aspects, it is important to point out, as mentioned in the previous chapter (section 4.5.1.1), that we categorised all the HAs and downgraders from the production data following the taxonomies that were presented in Chapter 1 and later modified after the coding process. During this process, we analysed the data taking into consideration whether they were the selected target forms addressed in the present study (see section 4.3.1) or other forms included in the taxonomies. In this way, Tables 18 and 19 present, on the one hand, the frequency and percentage of the target forms and, on the other hand, the non-target forms that include the rest of the categorised realisations for both suggestions (the HAs) and downgraders, respectively.

Table 18. Frequency and percentage of the suggestions (HAs) categorised as the target and non-target forms used by the three groups in both the pre-test and post-test[23]

	Explicit (n=24)				Implicit (n=25)				Control (n=32)			
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
HAs in target forms	14	7.3	119	62.0	19	9.5	111	55.5	46	18.0	23	9.0
HAs in non-target forms	178	92.7	73	38.0	181	90.5	89	44.5	210	82.0	233	91.0
TOTAL	192	100.0	192	100.0	200	100.0	200	100.0	256	100.0	256	100.0

Note. n = number of forms

Table 19. Frequency and percentage of the downgraders categorised as the corresponding target and non-target forms used by the three groups in both the pre-test and post-test[24]

	Explicit (n=24)				Implicit (n=25)				Control (n=32)			
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Downgraders as target forms	69	94.5	95	97.0	70	91.0	85	89.5	92	91.1	72	79.1
Other downgraders	4	5.5	3	3.0	7	9.0	10	10.5	9	8.9	19	20.9
TOTAL	73	100.0	98	100.0	77	100.0	95	100.0	101	100.0	91	100.0

Note. n = number of forms

As can be observed in Table 18 above, the percentage of HAs included in the target forms employed to make suggestions was higher for the two treatment groups in the post-test than for the CG, that is, both the EG and the IG used more target forms after having received instruction (62% and 55.5%, respectively). In contrast, the CG only employed 9% of the HAs that had been selected as the target forms in our study.

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[23] The total number of suggestions provided for each group in the Total section is the result of calculating the number of subjects x 8 situations in each moment (pre-test and post-test).

[24] The total number of downgraders refers to the number of suggestions that each group actually made (EG=192 suggestions; IG=200 suggestions; CG=256 suggestions) in the pre-test and post-test.

Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that all the HAs included in this set of target forms were employed to make suggestions independently of whether they were appropriate or not.

Regarding the downgraders employed as target and non-target forms, Table 19 above also shows the frequency and percentage of these peripheral modification devices used to accompany the main HA. The percentages also indicate that both the EG and the IG employed a higher number of downgraders addressed as the target form during the treatment in the post-test (97% and 89.5%, respectively), while the percentage for the CG was 79.1%.

After having classified all the data into target and non-target forms, we will only pay attention to the target forms in order to examine the effects of the treatment conducted to develop learners' appropriate production of suggestions.[25]

5.1.1 *Hypothesis 1*

The first hypothesis suggested that both the explicit and implicit treatment groups would improve their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions over the control group. In order to ascertain instructional effects, we have taken into account the scoring system (see section 4.5.1.1) that we followed to assign scores to the target forms of our study, that is, to both HAs and downgraders. Thus, learners' use of suggestions in the two production tasks (i.e. phone and email) was compared in both the pre-test and the post-test to assess whether the instruction had proved effective. Additionally, we have examined whether learners' pragmatically appropriate suggestions were also linguistically accurate, since this grammatical level was also addressed during the treatment. Finally, we have also focused on the effects of instruction on learners' particular use of the downgraders selected as target forms (see section 4.3.1), since these peripheral modification devices could be employed in some of the suggestions produced by the learners.

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[25] In what follows, then, we use suggestions to refer to the twelve selected target forms that were the object of our study (see section 4.3.1).

To start this analysis, we compared the overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the three groups in the pre-test and the post-test, as illustrated in Figure 10 below.
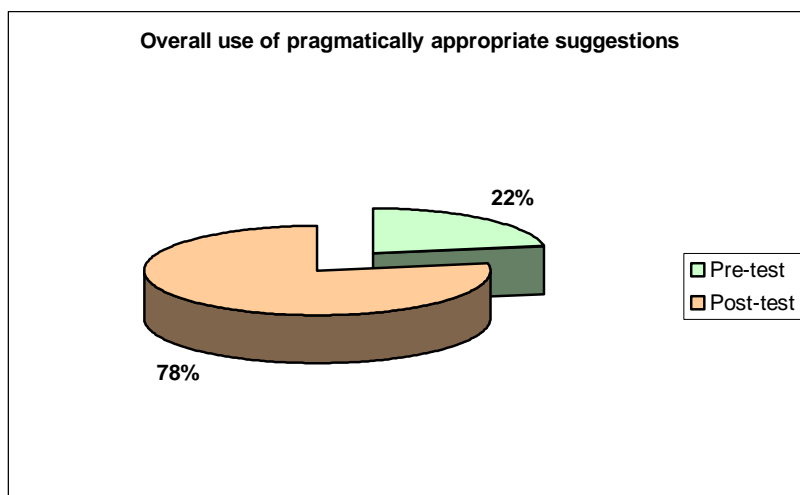
Figure 10. Overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

As can be seen, the high percentage obtained in the post-test (78%) indicates an overall increase in the usage of appropriate suggestions, if compared with the results of the the pre-test (22%). In order to see whether these differences are statistically significant, we applied a Wilcoxon test that compared learners' use of suggestions related to two different moments, that is, before and after instruction took place. The results from applying this test are displayed in Table 20.

Table 20. Differences as regards the overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and the post-test[26]

Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	81	42.28	1.13	1.00	.000*
Post-test		15.92	3.99	4.50	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

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[26] The median will be presented throughout the results section, since it is regarded as the most appropriate measure of central tendency when the data are not distributed normally, as is the case in our study.

The median scores illustrate that there was an evident increase from the pre-test to the post-test (1.00 and 4.50, respectively), and the difference is statistically significant (p<0.01). However, these results also include the CG, which received no instruction on suggestions. Therefore, in order to ascertain whether there was an improvement as a result of the instruction received by the experimental groups, we compared each group's performance in the pre-test and the post-test. These comparisons are depicted in the following three figures.
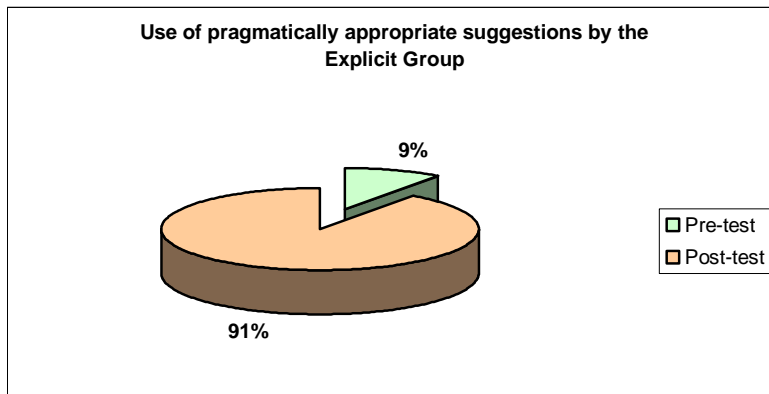
Figure 11. Use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the Explicit Group in the pre-test and post-test
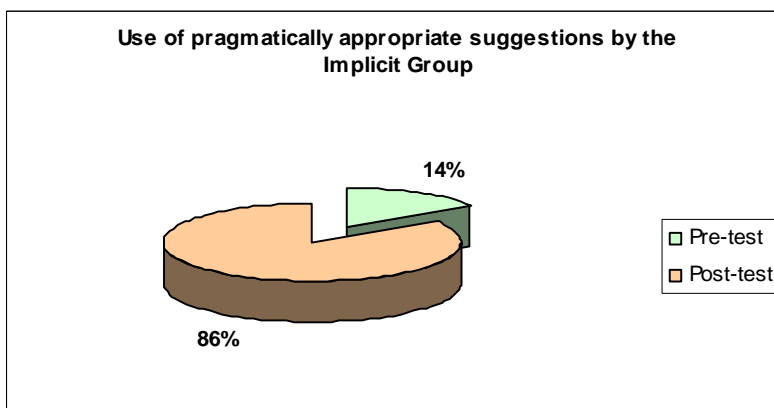
Figure 12. Use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the Implicit Group in the pre-test and post-test
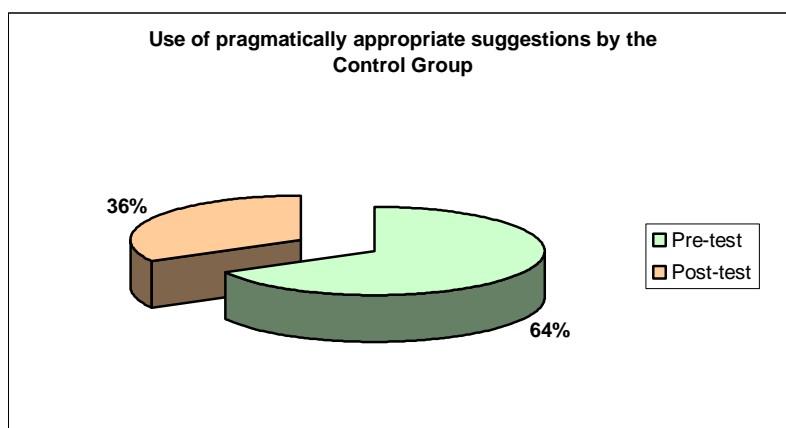
Figure 13. Use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the Control Group in the pre-test and post-test

As can be seen in Figures 11 and 12 above, the two instructional groups employed a higher number of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the post-test, which is illustrated by a high percentage for both the EG and the IG (91% and 86%, respectively). In contrast, the opposite trend was found for learners from the CG (see Figure 13), whose use of the target forms decreased from the pre-test (64%) to the post-test (36%). In order to examine whether the differences presented in the above three figures are statistically significant, we resorted to a Wilcoxon test. Applying this statistical procedure (see Table 21 below) enabled us to assess the significance of the scores by contrasting the values of the test before instruction with those of the test after instruction within each of the three groups.

Table 21. Differences as regards the use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within the three groups

Group	Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Explicit	Pre-test	24	12.50	0.62	0.00	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	6.52	6.50	
Implicit	Pre-test	25	12.50	0.88	1.00	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	5.48	5.50	
Control	Pre-test	32	10.13	1.70	1.25	.005*
	Post-test		11.81	0.94	0.00	

 * Sig. at $p < 0.01$ level

The results reported in Table 21 show that there are statistically significant differences (p<0.01) between the two moments compared, that is, between the pre-test and the post-test, in the three groups. However, a closer examination of the median scores shows that whereas both the EG and the IG significantly increased their use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions after instruction (from .00 to 6.50 for the EG, and from 1.00 to 5.50 for the IG, respectively), the CG significantly decreased their use of target forms from the pre-test to the post-test (from 1.25 to 0.00), as was displayed graphically in Figure 13.

In light of these outcomes, we may claim that our first hypothesis has been confirmed, since the two instructional groups significantly improved their production of appropriate suggestions from the pre-test to the post-test, while these results were not observed for the CG. The following are some examples illustrating learners' use of suggestions from the three groups in a situation from both the pre-test (Example 16) and the post-test (Example 17).

Example (16)

<u>*Pre-test:*</u>

Situation 1 (*from email*) [27]

Your professor is thinking of doing an outdoor activity at the end of the course, and she asks the class for ideas. Can you think of any activity you would like your professor to do? Send your professor an email with a good suggestion:

Student's response (from the EG)

An idea to outdoor activity is going to ibm company in Valencia (spain). <u>We can</u> learn like a big company works and it can be very important to ours education. Good bye

Student's response (from the IG)

Hello Alicia!
I think that, <u>we can</u> go to a company of computers, for example to visit IBM.
There, we'd can see some important things.
Bye bye.

Student's response (from the CG)

Dear Ana:
<u>You could</u> organise visit a computer company as an outdoor activity.

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[27] Students' responses have been transcribed as originally written by students.

Example (17)

<u>***Post-test***</u>***:***

Situation 1 (from email)

Your professor is interested in knowing students' opinions about activities that they would like to have implemented in the syllabus for the next course. Can you think of any activity you would like your professor to include in this subject the next course? Send your professor an email with a good suggestion:

Student's response (from the EG)

Dear Alicia:
I believe that <u>it would be helpful if you</u> teach students of computer science how to write a Curriculum Vitae in english, because there are many companies that consider that language is very important. There are also some companies that make job interviews in english to their candidates.
I hope be helpful.

Student's response (from the IG)

Dear Alicia,
I am Eva, I am writing you because of the recommendation that you ask to us about new activities to the next year. <u>I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be</u> to do outdoor activities, like see a film in an English cinema, have a lunch with Erasmus people or something similar. I hope that my suggestion could be useful to you.
Eva

Student's response (from the CG)

Hello Ana,
For the next course in English, <u>you can</u> do more activities. For example, <u>you can</u> do theater show in English. I think that theater show can be very funny and <u>we can</u> learn more English.

The first two responses written by students from the EG and the IG in Example 16 show that learners made the suggestions employing non-target forms in the pre-test, whereas the student from the CG employed an appropriate target form (i.e. *you could*) in that situation. As displayed graphically in Figure 13 above, learners from the CG decreased the use of their target forms from the pre-test to the post-test. In fact, a qualitative analysis of their production data (see Appendix 21 for a sample of the whole set of production data) reveals that learners from this group frequently employed the target forms *You should* followed by *You can* and *You could* in an appropriate way, whereas this use was reduced in the post-test. This may be the cause of their overall decrease, which as previously mentioned was statistically significant (see Table 21 above). In contrast, learners from the EG and the IG treatment conditions not only significantly increased their overall production of suggestions in the post-test but also employed a variety of the different target forms

addressed during the treatment. This can be observed in Example 17, in which their responses include two appropriate target forms (i.e. *It would be helpful if you* and *I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be*) that were not found in learners' production data from the CG. Instead, learners from this group relied on forms such as *you can* (see Example 17) or other non-target forms which were not appropriate in this situation. In this way, we may assume that the instruction was also effective in providing learners with a greater variety of appropriate forms to be used when making suggestions.

Our findings, thus, seem to prove the effectiveness of instruction, since both treatment groups significantly improved their use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the post-test as compared to the pre-test (see Table 21 above). This result is in line with previous research that has also focused on the effects of instruction on the production of a particular speech act (Billmyer, 1990; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Morrow, 1995; Safont, 2001). Therefore, we may claim that our study widens the learning targets by focusing on suggestions as a pragmatic learning feature that might be teachable in the classroom setting, and specifically in the FL classroom. In fact, Kasper and Rose (2002) pointed out that all teachability studies, which have been reported in section 3.2.3.2, have demonstrated the effectiveness of implementing a particular instructional treatment. A common characteristic of these studies concerned the adoption of an explicit type of instruction. Our results therefore corroborate the findings obtained in these studies as regards teaching the specific speech act explicitly, and they also provide support for an implicit type of instruction.

Apart from confirming the effectiveness of instruction on learners' pragmatically appropriate use of suggestions, we also paid attention to linguistic accuracy when implementing the treatments (see section 4.3.3.2). For this reason, and as previously stated, we were also interested in analysing to what extent learners not only produced appropriate suggestions but also whether they used grammatically correct suggestions after receiving instruction. To that end, a similar procedure to the one described above was employed (see also the scoring system for the grammatical level explained in section 4.5.1.1). The overall use of both pragmatically appropriate and linguistically accurate suggestions for the three groups in the post-test was as follows: the EG achieved 90%, the IG achieved 85%, and the

percentage for the CG was 33%. These findings show that for the two instructional groups, only a difference of 1% was obtained between their use of just pragmatically appropriate suggestions and their use of both appropriate and correct suggestions (see Figures 11 and 12 above, which illustrate that the EG and IG had reached 91% and 86% for just pragmatic appropriateness, respectively). This fact seems to indicate that almost all learners' suggestions were not only pragmatically appropriate but also grammatically correct after receiving instruction. Regarding the difference observed between the two levels of appropriateness and accuracy for the CG, we found a difference of 3% (see Figure 13 above, which shows the 36% obtained for the use of just pragmatically appropriate suggestions) – a figure that is slightly higher than the one found for the instructional groups.

Having obtained those percentages for learners' use of suggestions at both the pragmatic and linguistic levels, we assumed that there would also be significant differences between the pre-test and the post-test as far as the linguistic level is concerned. For this reason, in order to examine the significance of the scores for linguistic accuracy in the two different moments, these values were also analysed employing a Wilcoxon test, the results of which are shown in Table 22 below.

Table 22. Differences as regards the use of both pragmatically appropriate and linguistically accurate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within the three groups

Group	Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Explicit	Pre-test	24	12.50	0.81	0.00	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	7.29	8.00	
Implicit	Pre-test	25	12.50	1.10	1.50	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	6.26	6.00	
Control	Pre-test	32	7.63	2.05	1.50	.003*
	Post-test		11.79	1.02	0.00	

 * Sig. at $p < 0.01$ level

As illustrated in the previous table, the median scores for both the EG and the IG indicate that learners' linguistically accurate use of suggestions improved from the pre-test to the post-test with a level of statistical significance ($p<0.01$). In this sense, the instruction also proved effective at the grammatical level, since the median scores for the CG (from 1.50 to 0.00) illustrate that their use of linguistically correct suggestions decreased in the post-test.

These results find support in the study conducted by Fukuya and Zhang (2002), who compared both the appropriate and correct production of requests by learners in a treatment and a control group. The treatment group in this study was operationalised by employing pragmalinguistic recasts when learners employed inappropriate and grammatically inaccurate requests. Findings showed the positive effects of the treatment on the use of linguistically correct target forms for requests. In this line, our two experimental groups also benefited from the instruction, since their use of both appropriate and linguistically accurate suggestions improved significantly in the post-test (see Table 22 above). In particular, the explicit treatment condition group in our study was explicitly taught the correct use of the selected target forms and the connecting part of those structures. For instance, they were explained that the target form *Have you tried ...?* is a question form that uses the present perfect and, therefore, "tried" is the past participle, which can be followed by a noun, a noun phrase or the –ing form of the verb. The implicit treatment condition group was also taught the correct use of the target forms by giving learners pragmalinguistic recasts when the forms, although pragmatically appropriate, were grammatically incorrect (see section 4.3.3.2.2 for the explanation of the framework of pragmalinguistic recasts).

According to Fukuya and Zhang (2002), pragmalinguistic recasts differ from those employed in morphology, syntax and lexis in a number of different aspects. On the one hand, and as the name indicates, pragmalinguistic recasts do not focus on only one particular morpheme, word or structure but on both the pragmatic appropriateness and grammatical correctness of learners' expressions. On the other hand, this type of pragmalinguistic recasts does not have obligatory contexts such as the ones employed in

morphology and syntax. Moreover, morphological and lexical recasts are brief in form (i.e. only one linguistic form is being recast), whereas pragmalinguistic recasts are longer and, consequently, may break off learners' on-going interactions. In fact, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) mention three different cases in which the utilisation of recasts may affect the flow of communication: (1) when the learner notices the recast, repeats it and continues after a brief pause; (2) when the learner does not repeat the recast, but pauses for a moment and then continues with the interaction; and (3) when the learner ignores the recast and continues without a pause. In our study, we observed the last two types, which are illustrated in the following two examples from the transcripts of the role-plays that included the implementation of the recasts with the IG (see Appendix 18).

Example (18)

Recast 12 (role-play – equal status)

L1: … uh … what laptop do you recommend me?
L2: I recommend you have buying a Power Book G4 … it has eight hundred megahertz
T: I recommend you have buying ↗ You said? ↗ you might want to buy a Power Book laptop. OK?↗
L2: …uh … OK … and it have five hundred twelve megas of memory … this computer is faster … and it have better result …

Example (19)

Recast 4 (role-play – higher status)

L: Well, there are other options. Another option may be bring the laptop to the computer science department or to a computer shop for help, but …
T: Another option may be bring ↗ You said? ↗ Maybe you could bring the laptop to the computer science department. OK?↗
L: yes but I don't recommend the last. They earn a lot of money.

As can be observed in Example 18, the student pauses after the recast has been made and then goes on with the interaction. Although this pause may be regarded as a short interruption of learners' intervention, we believe, in line with Fukuya and Zhang (2002), that the implementation of this FonF technique is appropriate, since the brief intervention is made with the purpose of drawing his attention to a more appropriate and accurate target form while the learner is engaged in meaning. In contrast, the learner in Example 19 does not pause at all after receiving the recast and continues his intervention, expressing what he wanted to say before the short interruption was made.

Thus, as we have just explained, attention was also paid to grammatical correctness during both treatments and it seems that the two types of instruction were also effective in developing learners' linguistic accuracy in comparison to the control group. Furthermore, it is important to point out that learners' rate of grammatical accuracy after receiving recasts in Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) study was high when their use of the selected conventions for requests that were employed in just a pragmatically appropriate way (53.9%) are compared with the same request conventions that were used in both a pragmatically appropriate and a linguistically correct manner (41.56%). The authors found a difference of 12.34% when contrasting them and claimed that learners may have acquired the request conventions as formulaic expressions, that is to say, as a fixed pattern without thinking about the syntactic rules underlying their correct use.

In our study, the two instructional groups' achievement of linguistic accuracy was even higher, since the difference between the target forms that were pragmatically appropriate and those that were both appropriate and linguistically correct was only 1% in both EG and IG. This seems to indicate that learners were not only able to produce pragmatically appropriate suggestions in different situations, but almost all the target forms employed when suggesting were also grammatically correct. These findings, thus, illustrate that learners' interlanguage had moved closer towards the appropriate and correct use of suggestions in the interlanguage pragmatic system of the TL (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a). In fact, it was seen that learners from the EG progressively acquired the target forms being taught as they received a type of sequential treatment that made them first reflect on the appropriate and correct use of suggestions and finally produce them in different situations (see section 4.3.2 for the explanation of this type of instruction). Regarding our IG, and as shown in the transcripts from the role-plays in which the recasts were implemented (see Appendix 18), learners' development of pragmatic competence when making appropriate and accurate suggestions is also observed, since their acquisition of the target forms for suggestions was progressive throughout the course in which the instruction was implemented. Consequently, the use of recasts by the teacher was reduced towards the end of the instructional period, which seems to indicate that they employed more appropriate and correct suggestions in the later role-plays as a result of the instruction.

Finally, after verifying the fact that the effects of instruction on learners' use of suggestions were found to be statistically significant (at both the appropriateness and grammatical levels), we also paid specific attention to learners' use of downgraders, which learners might or might not employ when making suggestions (see the score assigned to downgraders as part of the appropriateness level in section 4.5.1.1).

As shown in Figure 14 below, a high contrast appears between learners' use of downgraders in the pre-test (16%) and their use in the post-test (84%). In order to ascertain the level of significance of these differences, we resorted to a Wilcoxon test, the results of which are displayed in Table 23.
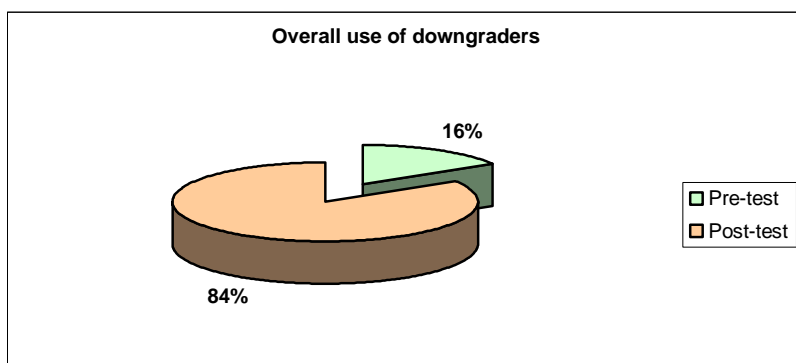
Figure 14. Overall use of downgraders in the pre-test and post-test

Table 23. Differences as regards the overall use of downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test

Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	81	31.14	0.17	0.00	.000*
Post-test		12.69	1.00	1.00	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

The differences observed by the median scores illustrated in Table 23 indicate that there was an increase in learners' use of downgraders from the pre-test to the post-test, this increase being statistically significant (p<0.01). Nevertheless, these results include the overall use of downgraders by the three groups of participants, so in order to assess the

effects of instruction, we compared each group's performance in the pre-test and the post-test. The findings from applying a Wilcoxon test to these scores are presented in the following table:

Table 24. Differences as regards the use of downgraders in the pre-test and post-test within the three groups

Group	Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Explicit	Pre-test	24	11.50	0.04	0.00	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	1.56	1.50	
Implicit	Pre-test	25	10.50	0.14	0.00	.000*
	Post-test		0.00	1.46	1.50	
Control	Pre-test	32	6.67	0.28	0.00	.412
	Post-test		8.13	0.29	0.00	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

As can be seen in Table 24 above, the differences observed between the pre-test and the post-test within the two instructional groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) were statistically significant (p<0.01), whereas no significant difference was found for the CG. These findings, thus, demonstrate that instruction was also effective to increase learners' use of downgraders.

These results are in line with previous research that has examined the effects of explicit instruction on the appropriate production of downgraders when requesting (Fukuya, 1998; Safont, 2001, 2003). Fukuya (1998) employed different activities, such as the use of film with consciousness-raising tasks and the explanation of sociolinguistic factors in order to teach both internally and externally modified downgraders in requests. Findings from this study showed the effectiveness of explicit instruction on some particular downgraders, which were found to be more teachable than others, such as downtoners, disarmers and verb aspects. Safont's (2001, 2003) research set in the FL classroom also examined the effects of explicitly teaching learners the use of peripheral modification devices when requesting. After being involved in the presentation, explanation and discussion of different

realisations to make requests, her participants significantly increased not only their use of appropriate requests but also the peripheral modification devices accompanying those requests. Results from our study corroborate these findings by the fact that the explicit instruction implemented with our EG was also effective in teaching several downgraders to be employed when making suggestions.

In addition to this, the type of implicit instruction implemented in our study was also effective. This result appears to contradict the findings obtained in Fukuya and Clark (2001) in relation to the teaching of mitigators in requests. These authors employed an implicit teaching technique, that of input enhancement, but failed to obtain the expected significant results. The authors argued that the use of this technique may have not been perceptually salient enough to draw learners' attention towards the downgraders and, consequently, they did not acquire the pragmalinguistic forms for mitigators. It is also important to mention the fact that the type of instruction carried out in this study was through a videotape watched by learners. In other words, there was no contact between teacher and learner, which may indicate that employing only a technological type of intervention (i.e. including captions through the input enhancement technique in the videotape) was not enough for the participants to learn the target forms that were the object of instruction. In contrast, in our study, the operationalisation of the IG involved two different implicit techniques, namely input enhancement and recasts, since it has been argued that the combination of different instructional techniques is more effective than relying on the use of just one (Doughty and Williams, 1998c; Izumi, 2002). In effect, the systematic combination of the two techniques seems to have been effective for learners to acquire the appropriate use of downgraders when making suggestions.

To sum up, the outcomes from our first hypothesis seem to indicate that instruction does make a difference (Norris and Ortega, 2000). More specifically, we focused on the teaching of the selected target forms for suggestions addressed in the present study and significant findings were found when comparing the results obtained by the treatment groups with a control group that received no instruction. As we have discussed in this section, the two experimental groups improved not only their production of pragmatically

appropriate suggestions but also their grammatically accurate use, as well as that of the downgraders accompanying them. Thus, in line with Kasper (1997a, 2001a, 2001b) and Bardovi-Harlig (2001), our study illustrates that instruction is effective in developing learners' pragmatic competence in the context of the FL classroom, where learners' chance to be in contact with the TL takes place.

5.1.2 *Hypothesis 2*

This hypothesis concerned the effectiveness of the two types of treatment employed in our study (i.e. explicit and implicit) and predicted that both of them would be equally effective to improve learners' production of appropriate suggestions (see section 4.3.2 for an explanation of the two treatments). In order to assess the effectiveness of both types of instruction, we follow the same procedure as with our first hypothesis by paying attention first to the pragmatically appropriate use of suggestions. Then, we compare learners' use of suggestions at the grammatical level, and finally we also deal with the use of downgraders in each type of treatment.

We decided to start by comparing the three groups' performance on their production of suggestions in both the pre-test and the post-test independently (see Figure 15). In this way, we could observe which group had produced more pragmatically appropriate suggestions in each moment.
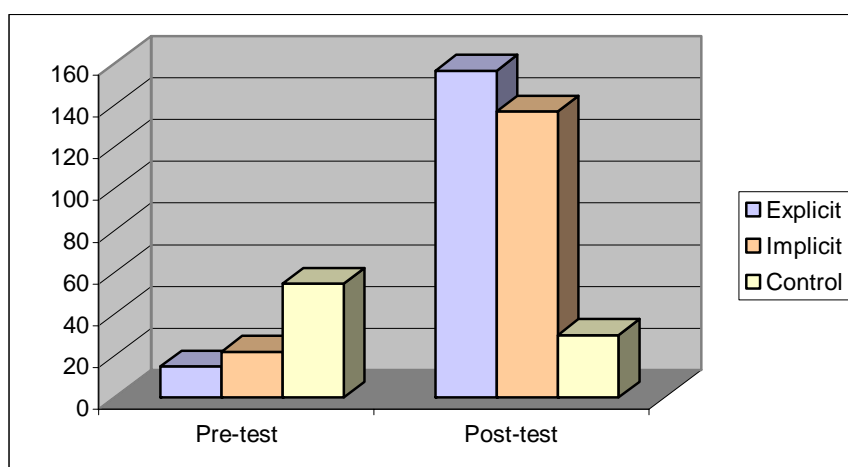
Figure 15. Overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

As depicted in Figure 15, it seems that learners from the CG employed more appropriate suggestions in comparison to both the EG and the IG in the pre-test. In contrast, these two groups outperformed the CG in the post-test. In order to find out whether these differences between groups were statistically significant, we made use of a Kruskal-Wallis test that compared the three groups on one independent sample, that is, on their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions. The results obtained by applying this test are displayed in Table 25 below.

Table 25. Differences between the Explicit, Implicit and Control groups as regards the use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	32.23	1.13	1.00	.012**
	Implicit	25	38.36			
	Control	32	49.64			
Post-test	Explicit	24	59.65	3.99	4.50	.000*
	Implicit	25	52.02			
	Control	32	18.41			

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

** Sig. at p<0.05 level

As can be seen in the previous table, there were statistical differences between the three groups both in the pre-test (p<0.05) and the post-test (p<0.01). Although we did not expect to find differences in the pre-test, it can be seen that it was the CG which achieved a higher rank in the pre-test. This fact may have been the reason for finding a significant difference between groups in this particular moment. Regarding their performance in the post-test, the CG presented a considerably lower rank in comparison to the other two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit), which again could have been the cause of those statistically significant differences. In other words, we expected these differences to be attributed to the CG rather than to the instructional groups' performance in the two different moments.

Thus, in order to further examine these differences with the aim of assessing whether the two instructional groups (i.e. the EG and the IG) performed similarly, not only before the study took place but also after the treatment had been implemented, we applied a Mann-Whitney test (see Table 26). Employing this statistical procedure enabled us to establish the differences between two groups in relation to a particular measure – in this case their ability to produce pragmatically appropriate suggestions.

Table 26. Differences between the Explicit and the Implicit groups as regards the use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	22.81	0.75	0.00	.247
	Implicit	25	27.10			
Post-test	Explicit	24	28.35	5.99	6.00	.106
	Implicit	25	21.78			

Results shown by the rank in Table 26 reveal that the IG employed more pragmatically appropriate suggestions than the EG in the pre-test, whereas the opposite trend was found in the post-test, since the EG used more suggestions in comparison to the IG (see also Figure 15 above). However, the level of significance obtained from applying the Mann-Whitney test illustrates that these differences are not statistically significant.

Additionally, we also used the Mann-Whitney test to compare each of the instructional groups with the CG in order to determine whether the significant outcomes reported in Table 25 above were due to the performance of the learners from the CG. The results from this statistical procedure are presented in Table 27.

Table 27. Comparison of the Explicit and the Implicit groups with the Control group as regards the use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	21.92	1.24	1.00	.006*
	Control	32	33.44			
	Implicit	25	24.26	1.34	1.00	.049**
	Control	32	32.70			
Post-test	Explicit	24	43.79	3.33	2.00	.000*
	Control	32	17.03			
	Implicit	25	43.24	2.93	2.00	.000*
	Control	32	17.88			

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

** Sig. at p<0.05 level

As shown in the table above, the CG performed better than both the EG and the IG in the pre-test with a level of significance of p<0.01 and p<0.05, respectively. In contrast, the rank in the post-test illustrates that the EG and the IG outperformed the CG with a statistically significant difference (p<0.01). These results corroborate that the differences obtained in the pre-test were caused by the performance of the CG, which decreased significantly in the post-test.

In light of the results reported in Table 26 above and having confirmed that the differences in the pre-test were due to the CG (see Table 27), we may assume that our second hypothesis, which predicted the effectiveness of the two instructional groups, has been supported. In addition, and similar to our first hypothesis, we were also interested here in examining not only whether the two types of instruction (i.e. explicit and implicit) had proved to be effective at the appropriateness level, but also whether they were effective at the grammatical level (see section 4.5.1.1). To that end, we also applied a Kruskal-Wallis test (see Table 28) in order to establish the differences between the three groups regarding their use of both pragmatically appropriate and linguistically accurate suggestions.

Table 28. Differences between the Explicit, Implicit and Control groups as regards the use of both pragmatically appropriate and linguistically accurate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	32.56	1.39	1.50	.014**
	Implicit	25	38.24			
	Control	32	49.48			
Post-test	Explicit	24	59.54	4.49	4.50	.000*
	Implicit	25	52.40			
	Control	32	18.19			

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

** Sig. at p<0.05 level

According to results displayed in Table 28 above, there were also statistically significant differences between the three groups in both the pre-test (p<0.05) and the post-test (p<0.01). Since similar findings were also observed at the appropriateness level (see Table 25 above), we decided to conduct a Mann-Whitney test by comparing pairs of two groups in each moment, that is to say, before and after instruction. Results from this statistical procedure showed no significant differences between the EG and the IG in either the pre-test or the post-test (p<0.05). In contrast, results from the same statistical test illustrated that there were significant differences between the EG and the CG in each moment (p<0.01), the performance of the EG being statistically superior to that of the CG in the post-test. The same pattern was found for the comparison between the IG and the CG in the two moments. Whereas the CG performed better than the IG in the pre-test (p<0.05), the IG significantly outperformed the CG in the post-test (p<0.01).

Therefore, since no significant differences were found in the post-test for our two instructional groups, we may assume that both types of treatment also proved effective to the extent that learners produced not only appropriate but also grammatically accurate suggestions. The following example illustrates the suggestions made by students from both the explicit and the implicit treatment groups.

Example (20)

Situation 3 (*from phone: post-test*)

You have started working on a project with a newly arrived professor in the department. One day, she tells you that she would like to buy several specialised books related to the content of the project. At that moment you can't remember any specialised bookshop on computer science material, but when you arrive home, it occurs to you that there is one bookshop where one finds a section of computer books. You call the professor and suggest that she go to this particular bookshop:

<u>Student's response from Explicit Group:</u>

Hello ... Good morning ... That's Thomas … eh ... I'm calling you because you said me some bookshops where going some books for the new project ... eh then I think that a a would idea would be to visit a bookshop here in Castellón that is called Argot ... I think it it is a good bookshop where you could find a ... a lot of books about computer science and some specialised books … so <u>it would be helpful if you go</u> there and look for the books … If you have any problems … please call me … Bye bye.

<u>Student's response from Implicit Group:</u>

Hello … I'm Ferran … eh … I call … because I know that you are looking for some books ... eh ... on computing. ... eh... there is a bookshop here in the university but ... it's quite small … So … I usually go to another one which is in Colon street because it has ... eh ... a lot of variety in computing books. … so … <u>it would be helpful if you go</u> there to find the books you are looking for ... eh ... Goodbye.

As can be observed in Example 20, both learners from the two different types of instruction made use of one of the selected target forms (i.e. *it would be helpful if you*) in order to make their suggestion to a person of a higher status. In this way, the target form employed was pragmatically appropriate in this particular situation and, additionally, it was grammatically correct, since both the linguistic form itself and the connecting part (i.e. bare infinitive: *go*) were accurately used.

Finally, we also paid attention to whether both types of treatments (i.e. explicit and implicit) were equally effective in improving learners' use of downgraders. The comparison between the three groups regarding their overall use of downgraders in both the pre-test and the post-test is displayed in Figure 16.
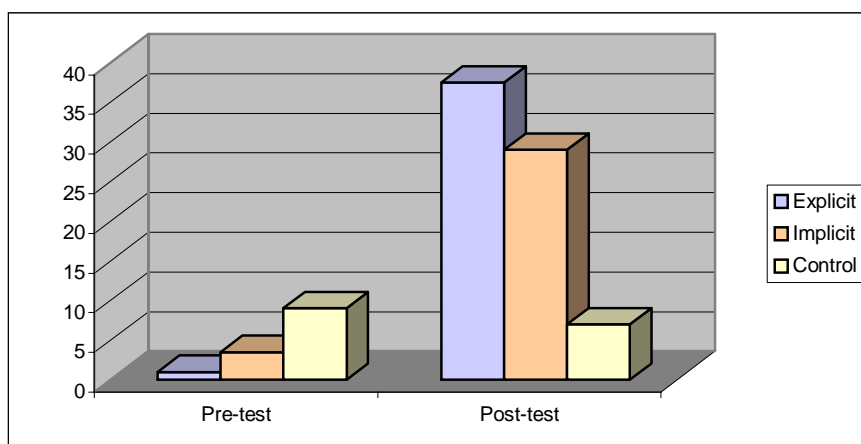
Figure 16. Overall use of downgraders by the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

Concerning the comparison of the three groups in the pre-test, it seems that the CG produced more downgraders, followed by the IG and finally the EG. The opposite trend may be observed in the post-test, in which both the EG and the IG outperformed the CG. We applied a Kruskal-Wallis test (see Table 29 below) to find out the level of significance involved in the comparison between the three groups.

Table 29. Differences between the Explicit, Implicit and Control groups as regards the use of downgraders in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	34.63	0.17	0.00	.082
	Implicit	25	42.00			
	Control	32	45.00			
Post-test	Explicit	24	55.19	1.00	1.00	.000*
	Implicit	25	51.96			
	Control	32	21.80			

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

The results from Table 29 reveal that there were no statistical differences between the three groups in the pre-test, whereas the level of significance (p<0.01) in the post-test accounts for differences between the three groups in their use of downgraders. As we were interested in ascertaining whether this significant difference concerned the two treatment

groups (i.e. the EG and the IG), we made use of a Mann-Whitney test to compare learners'
production of downgraders between both groups. The results from applying this test are
presented in Table 30 below.

*Table 30. Differences between the Explicit and the Implicit groups as regards the use of downgraders in the pre-
test and post-test*

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	22.54	0.09	0.00	.079
	Implicit	25	27.36			
Post-test	Explicit	24	25.88	1.51	1.50	.668
	Implicit	25	24.16			

According to results shown in the previous table, the differences between the two
treatment groups are not statistically significant in either the pre-test or the post-test
($p < 0.05$). Thus, it seems that the significant differences observed in the post-test in Table
29 above were caused by the performance of the CG. In fact, results from a Mann-Whitney
test comparing the production of downgraders between the EG and the CG, on the one
hand, and the EG and the IG, on the other hand, revealed that both treatment groups
significantly outperformed the CG in their use of downgraders with a level of significance
of $p < 0.01$. Taking these outcomes into consideration, we may claim that our second
hypothesis has been further supported in that both treatments were equally effective not
only at developing learners' ability to produce both pragmatically appropriate and
linguistically accurate suggestions, but also to employ the downgraders used to mitigate
those suggestions.

These findings seem to demonstrate the efficacy of the two different teaching
approaches adopted in the present study, which differs from previous research that has
compared explicit with implicit instruction and found that explicit treatment outperformed
that considered to be implicit (House and Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al.,
1997; Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001; Takahashi, 2001). However, it is important to point
out that the conceptualisation of the implicit condition in these studies was based on either

excluding metapragmatic explanations or just providing additional examples together with practice activities. Studies employing the first type of implicit treatment were those conducted by House and Kasper (1981a) and House (1996), in which implicit instruction was characterised by the lack of metapragmatic information. Other researchers operationalised the implicit teaching condition by exposing learners to film segments and additional examples (Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), making them read transcripts of role-plays between NSs and then answer some comprehension questions (Takahashi, 2001) or making them simply watch video clips (Tateyama et al., 1997). In our opinion, having provided learners with simple exposure to pragmatic examples in the implicit groups without any additional information, such as the metapragmatic discussions given to the explicit condition, may have been the reason for obtaining no significant results for this type of instruction.

In fact, there are only a few studies, to our knowledge, that have compared different teaching approaches by operationalising pragmatic implicit instruction with the use of particular techniques from the FonF paradigm. The abovementioned study carried out by Fukuya and Clark (2001) implemented the input enhancement technique. However, the authors obtained inconclusive results that may have been due to their failing to provide learners with the necessary pragmalinguistic saliency of the target forms. In contrast, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) found positive results for the implementation of a different implicit technique, that of recasts, although these authors did not compare its effectiveness with a different teaching approach but only its effectiveness with a control group that received no instruction. For this reason, we decided to operationalise our implicit treatment group by adopting a combination of these two implicit techniques: input enhancement and recasts. Thus, the systematic implementation of this combination seems to have played a positive role for the implicit group by allowing them to develop their appropriate use of suggestions. Several aspects could have contributed to its effectiveness.

First, as we mentioned in section 2.1, we provided learners with the three theoretical conditions necessary for language acquisition (i.e. input, output and feedback). In this way, learners were presented with appropriate input through the use of the videotaped situations

that contained suggestions between participants with different status-relationships. Opportunities for learners' output were also arranged by making them enact role-plays during all the instructional sessions and these role-plays also facilitated the provision of feedback on learners' inappropriate and inaccurate use of suggestions when necessary.

Secondly, the application of the two techniques by making input pragmatically salient through the input enhancement technique and giving a focused recast (i.e. implicit feedback) on learners' output seemed to help learners notice the target forms that are the object of instruction. Therefore, it seems that the combination of both implicit techniques made learners draw their attention to those target forms. The role of conscious attention and the issue of noticing supports Schmidt's (1993, 1995, 1998, 2001) noticing hypothesis, which implies that learners have to be provided with opportunities to pay attention to the target features in order for learning to take place. In other words, the noticing hypothesis states that exposure to input alone is not sufficient for pragmatic learning. In this sense, adopting a particular type of instruction may help learners notice those target features and, consequently, foster their acquisition. In fact, an analysis of the final questionnaire that learners from the IG were asked to complete (see Appendix 9), indicated that, similar to the participants receiving pragmalinguistic recasts in Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) study, all our learners also noticed the teacher's use of the structure "… ↗ You said? ↗ … OK?↗". Most of the learners claimed that teachers' use of this resource during the role-plays was employed to correct something they were saying inappropriately or incorrectly in a particular situation. Others also stated that the teacher employed this technique to present them with different expressions to be used in the role-plays.

The second question, which asked learners to describe whether they had tried to learn how to make suggestions during the role-plays, was answered in different ways. Some learners stated that they were aware of their frequent use of "you can" towards the end of the semester, and began to employ other forms that they had been learning. Other learners claimed that the use of their vocabulary depended on the situation they had to perform, whereas others wrote that they used a greater variety of modal verbs and connectors (i.e. downgraders) at the end of the semester. Learners' answers seemed to demonstrate that the

type of implicit instruction implemented with them was effective, probably due to the length of the treatment, since they claimed that they started to realise the target forms after having been exposed to them and having participated in all the role-plays. For these reasons, employing the two techniques systematically throughout the whole term seemed to be effective.

The importance of making learners pay attention to the object of instruction has also been considered in the two-dimensional model proposed by Bialystok (1993). According to this author, for adult learners to employ pragmatically appropriate forms, they need to control their attention to those forms and the meanings they involve on the basis of contextual and social factors. In this way, having directed our learners' attention to the target forms for suggestions in contextualised situations may have contributed to their progressive appropriate choice of them. However, it may be argued that the selected target forms in our study were very limited and, for this reason, students' process of acquiring them was rather simple. Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001), for instance, concluded that the formulaic nature of the pragmatic speech act examined in their study, namely that of compliments, made it an easy learning target for both deductive and inductive types of instruction. Similarly, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) also claimed that the request conventions addressed in their study consisted of formulaic structures that could have been easy for learners to acquire. Nevertheless, it is important to mention that although we had to select a certain number of target forms, since it has been regarded as a requisite for the effectiveness of implicit instruction (Doughty and Williams, 1998c; Doughty, 2001, 2003), learners in our IG were taught not only these pragmalinguistic forms in isolation, but also the connections among such forms, situations, function (i.e. to suggest), and the sociopragmatic variables affecting their use, such as status and familiarity. In other words, the principles that define FonF (Doughty and Williams, 1998c), namely those of meaning, function and use when making suggestions in different situations, were implemented with the implicit treatment condition.

Finally, apart from all these considerations concerning the possible explanations for the effectiveness of the implicit instruction implemented in our study, we would also like to

point out learners' opinions about the two types of instruction. In order to have this information, we examined the questionnaires collected after each of the three instructional blocks throughout the semester (see Appendix 8). These questionnaires asked learners to report what they had learnt during the lessons, whether they had liked the activities employed in the class, whether they found the activities useful to communicate in English, and how they felt when doing them.

As far as the first question is concerned, most of the learners in the EG indicated in the first questionnaire that they had learnt a lot of vocabulary and some grammar, whereas their responses in the last questionnaire included "preparar conversaciones y emplear frases adecuadas para hacer sugerencias en cada situación" (prepare conversations and use appropriate expressions to make suggestions in each situation), "hablar en situaciones normales con compañeros y profesores" (speak in everyday situations with classmates and professors), or "comunicarme en inglés en varias situaciones" (communicate in English in different situations). Their answers run parallel with the kind of instruction they received, since the sequential method implemented with this group involved progressively raising the amount of attention given to suggestions throughout the course. In contrast, learners from the IG already stated in the first questionnaire that they were learning "a hablar en inglés con más soltura" (to speak in English more fluently), "a escuchar, entender y practicar conversaciones en inglés" (to listen to, understand and practise conversations in English), and "desenvolverse en diferentes situaciones" (manage to communicate in different situations). It can be observed that their responses were also consistent with the treatment they were given, since they were asked to perform role-plays from the first lesson of the course. However, an important distinction between both groups involved the fact that learners from the EG mentioned they were employing suggestions in different situations, whereas learners' responses from the IG were more general, and only mentioned that they were communicating in different situations, but they never stated they were making suggestions. This is an important aspect related to this type of instruction because their condition of implicit learning remained as such.

Concerning the second question, that is to say, whether they liked the activities employed in the class, the EG learners' opinion towards the activities increased towards the end of the course, whereas the IG learners showed their positive opinion from the first set of activities at the beginning of the course. In fact, they stated that they liked to perform role-plays, although these activities sometimes made them feel nervous. Learners from the IG also claimed that they found the activities useful to communicate in English from the first set of activities. In contrast, learners from the EG stated that the first set of activities did not involve any active participation on their part, so some of them suggested that they would have liked to participate more actively in class and to have opportunities to use the language. Their opinion concerning this question changed considerably in the last questionnaire, since they claimed that they liked the fact that the teacher had incorporated role-plays in the lessons.

The last question dealt with how they felt when doing the activities, and they were asked to tick one of the four adjectives provided (i.e. motivated, nervous, bored or interested). Some differences could also be observed between learners' feelings from the two groups. In the first questionnaire, most of the learners from the EG indicated that they were interested, although some of them also claimed that they were bored. These attitudes changed towards the end of the course, and we could see that in the final questionnaire, learners were more motivated and also felt nervous. An opposite pattern was obtained with the learners from the IG, as most of them claimed to be nervous at the beginning of the course, which may have been due to the fact that they were asked to perform the role-plays in front of the class. However, their opinion at the end of the term was very positive about having participated very actively during all the lessons, and most of them were interested by the activities implemented in the lessons.

From learners' responses in these questionnaires it seems that their performance and their opinion towards all the activities implemented in the two treatments were different at the beginning of the semester. Nevertheless, towards the end of the course, a similar trend was observed in both groups after having received their corresponding type of instruction. In this sense, it appears that both types of treatment influenced learners' performance and

attitude towards the lessons, and overall they liked the activities. Moreover, another factor that may have contributed to the effectiveness of both types of instruction seems to be related to the conditions of the setting in which the study took place. In fact, it may be claimed that they were under no pressure as regards time when doing the activities and the instruction took place in a relaxed atmosphere where learners' motivation and affective factors favoured their cognitive learning to occur (Arnold, 1999, 2001).

At this stage, we have seen that our two first hypotheses dealing with the effects of instruction and the effectiveness of different types of treatment on learners' production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions have been confirmed. In our second research question, we will pay attention to whether similar effectiveness is observed in developing learners' ability to recognise the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations.

5.2 Results and Discussion concerning the effects of instruction on awareness

The second research question in the present study paid attention to learners' ability to recognise the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations. Thus, on the one hand, it was concerned with the role that instruction played on learners' development of this ability (*does learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction?*) and, on the other hand, with the effectiveness that two different types of instruction would have on it (*which instruction [i.e. explicit or implicit] is more effective?*). Since this research question involved two hypotheses dealing with each of these aspects, we will examine each of them in turn.

5.2.1 *Hypothesis 3*

The third hypothesis assumed that both experimental groups receiving instruction would improve their awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions compared to the control group. In order to test instructional effects, we considered the rating values that learners assigned to each situation on a scale that ranged from 1 to 5, 1 being the lowest and 5 the highest (see section 4.5.1.2). Thus, learners' judgment in the rating assessment tests was compared in both the pre-test and the post-test to ascertain whether the instructional

treatment had been effective. In addition to this, we also analysed learners' justifications when selecting a particular score for each situation before and after the instruction took place. Specifically, learners had to underline the part of the suggestion that they considered inappropriate in a particular situation and write an alternative expression, whereas in those situations where the suggestion had been evaluated as appropriate, they were asked to provide the reasons that justified their assessment.

By means of a Wilcoxon test, we were able to assess whether instruction influenced learners' overall awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by contrasting their performance in the pre-test and the post-test. As can be seen in Table 31, the difference between the median scores in the two different moments was statistically significant (p<0.01), thus indicating an improvement in learners' awareness after the study took place.

Table 31. Overall awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and the post-test

Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	81	46.72	3.56	3.63	.000*
Post-test		24.70	3.93	4.00	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

However, since these results also referred to the CG, which did not receive any instruction on suggestions, we decided to establish the differences between the two moments within each group independently. The findings obtained from this comparison are displayed graphically in Figure 17, which shows the median values for the 5-point rating scale (from 0 to 5).
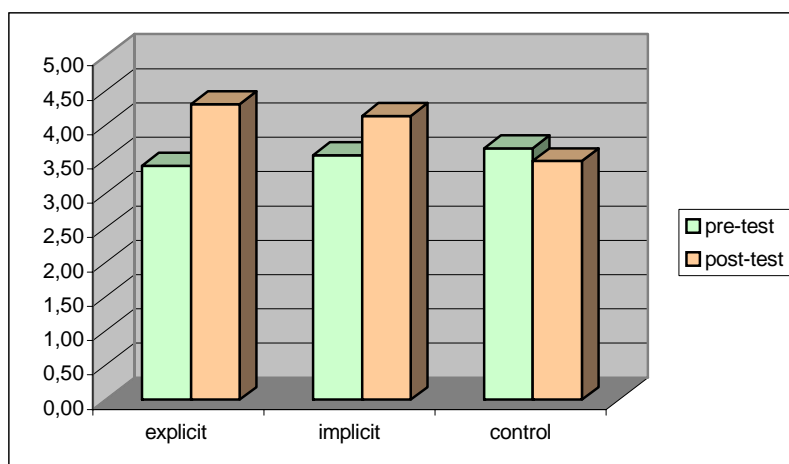
Figure 17. Awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within each of the three groups

As shown in Figure 17, learners from both the explicit and the implicit treatment conditions seemed to improve their awareness in the post-test over the pre-test by rating the suggestions accurately in terms of appropriateness depending on different situations. Nevertheless, a decrease in the awareness of the CG can be observed, since their ratings for appropriateness in the pre-test appeared to be slightly higher than in the post-test. In an attempt to ascertain whether the differences observed within each of the three groups were statistically significant, we used a Wilcoxon test (see Table 32 below) that allowed us to compare the rates of each group in the two different moments.

Table 32. Differences as regards the awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within the three groups

Group	Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Explicit	Pre-test	24	12.20	3.41	3.50	.000*
	Post-test		7.50	4.31	4.38	
Implicit	Pre-test	25	14.05	3.57	3.63	.000*
	Post-test		7.50	4.14	4.25	
Control	Pre-test	32	13.00	3.66	3.75	.006*
	Post-test		15.64	3.48	3.50	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

These results reveal a significant difference in learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions when comparing the performance of each group in both the pre-test and the post-test ($p<0.01$). However, in line with the results illustrated in Figure 17 above, the median scores for the CG indicate that their recognition of appropriate suggestions decreased significantly in the post-test. In contrast, the significance of the median scores for both the EG and the IG points to an increase in their awareness after having received instruction on suggestions. Bearing in mind these results, it seems that our Hypothesis 3 has been supported, as instruction proved effective in developing the ability to recognise pragmatically appropriate suggestions.

As stated above, apart from examining learners' scores on the rating scale for pragmatic appropriateness, we were also interested in observing learners' alternative expressions and justifications when assessing the suggestions in the different situations. To that end, we analysed the data from each group in both the pre-test and the post-test qualitatively in an attempt to ascertain whether instruction had been effective in developing both learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions and their metapragmatic awareness when justifying their choices.[28] On the one hand, we focused on learners' identification of the inappropriate part of the suggestion in a particular situation and the alternative expressions provided for that situation (Example 21). On the other hand, we also counted the number of reasons provided when the suggestion was appropriate, and how many of those reasons were related to sociopragmatic factors (Example 22).

Example (21)

<u>Post-test</u>:

Situation 2

You are going to attend a summer course about the use of Internet programming languages, such as HTML, PHP and XHTML. The first day of the class you're the first person to arrive. You start talking to the professor whom you met for the first time today. At one point the professor asks you:

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[28] Although we are aware of the fact that the implicit and control groups did not receive any metapragmatic explanations as the explicit group had had, we were interested in examining which terms they employed when justifying their choices.

	Professor:	*Are you interested in Internet programming languages?*
	You:	*Yes, I am. In fact, I'm thinking about majoring in Computer Science.*
	Professor:	*Great. So, if you are student here, you must know all the classes at the University. I would like to ask the class for suggestions about making a practical presentation at the end of the course, but I don't know where we could do it. Do you think we could book another lab here at the University?*
⇒	*You:*	*Oh, that's easy! Just book the auditorium.*

Student's alternative expression (from the IG)

"I think that the auditorium is free. Maybe you could book it"

Example (22)[29]

<u>Post-test</u>:

Situation 6

You are working as an assistant in the departmental office. A new professor arrives and asks you about setting up the email account:

	Professor:	*Excuse me, I am new at the University and I don't know how to set up my email account. Could you explain to me how to do it?*
⇒	*You:*	*I am not sure about it, but I think a good idea would be to call the HELP desk at the computer centre.*

Student's reason (from the EG)

This is appropriate because the professor is a higher status than me.

In Example 21 above (i.e. a situation involving a higher status relationship), the learner in the IG rated that suggestion as inappropriate. He was therefore asked to underline the part that he considered to be inappropriate (i.e. *just book* …), which was done accurately, and provide an alternative expression that would be regarded as appropriate in that particular situation (i.e. *maybe you could …*). In Example 22, which also involved a higher status relationship between the participants, the learner in the EG rated it as appropriate and, thus, gave a reason justifying his choice based on the sociopragmatic factor involved in the situation (i.e. *the professor is a higher status than me*).

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[29] It is important to mention that although learners were told to answer in the language they felt more confident, most of them wrote their reasons in English.

Figure 18 illustrates learners' performance from the explicit treatment condition when involved in the evaluation of suggestions in both the pre-test and post-test.
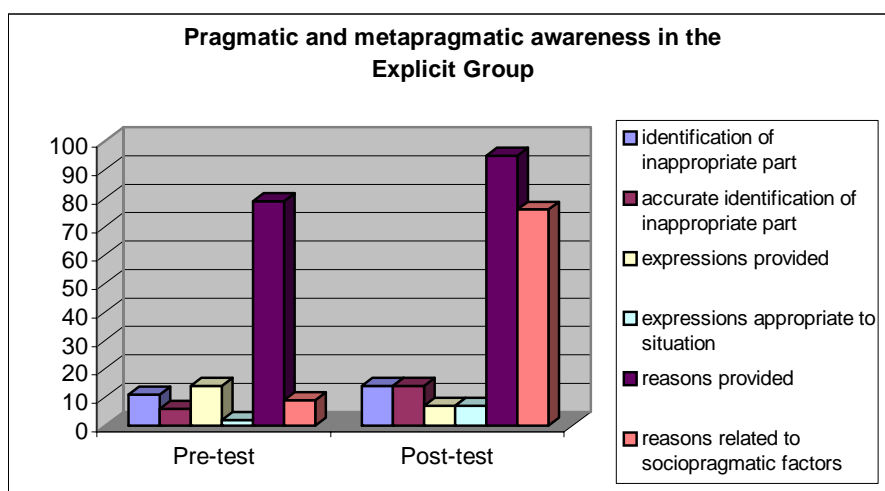
Figure 18. Pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness in the Explicit Group before and after receiving instruction

As can be observed, learners seemed to perform better after having received instruction on suggestions. Regarding the first item, it appears that when learners identified the inappropriate part of the suggestions in the post-test, it was always done accurately. Similarly, in all those situations where an alternative expression was provided, although with a lower score than in the pre-test, it was always made in an appropriate way for that particular situation. Finally, learners provided more reasons when rating the suggestion as appropriate in the post-test than in the pre-test and, additionally, most of those reasons were related to sociopragmatic factors (see the last column in Figure 18 above). This fact is important, since we were interested in examining how they justified their choices in an attempt to know whether instruction had influenced learners' pragmatic awareness positively (see again Example 22 above).

A similar improvement in the different items examined was also observed in learners from the implicit treatment condition, which is illustrated in Figure 19.
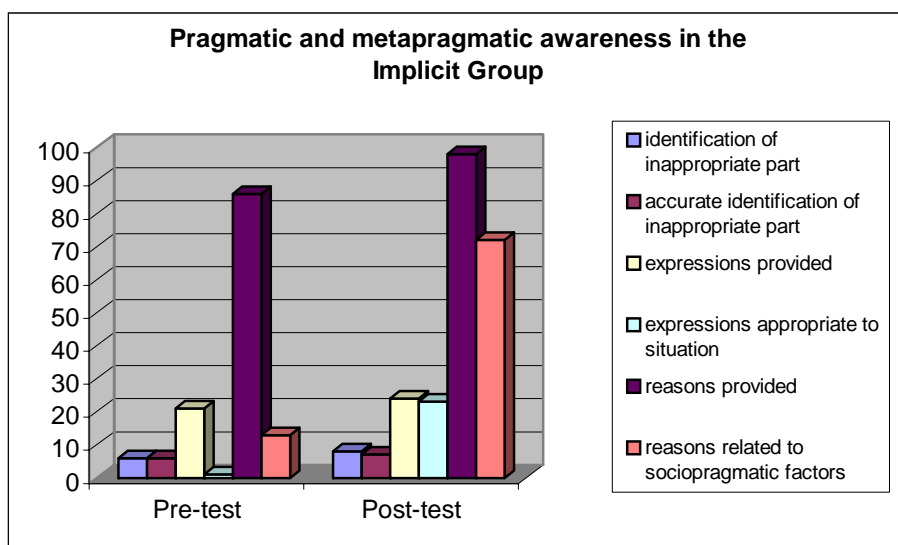
Figure 19. Pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness in the Implicit Group before and after receiving instruction

A closer look at the previous figure indicates that learners from the IG improved slightly in the identification of the inappropriate part of the suggestion. However, the alternative expressions provided when the suggestion was inappropriate and the number of reasons in general, as well as those related to sociopragmatic factors in particular, seemed to have improved considerably in the post-test.

In contrast to the behaviour of the two instructional groups, learners' performance from the CG did not show a similar development, as shown in Figure 20 below:
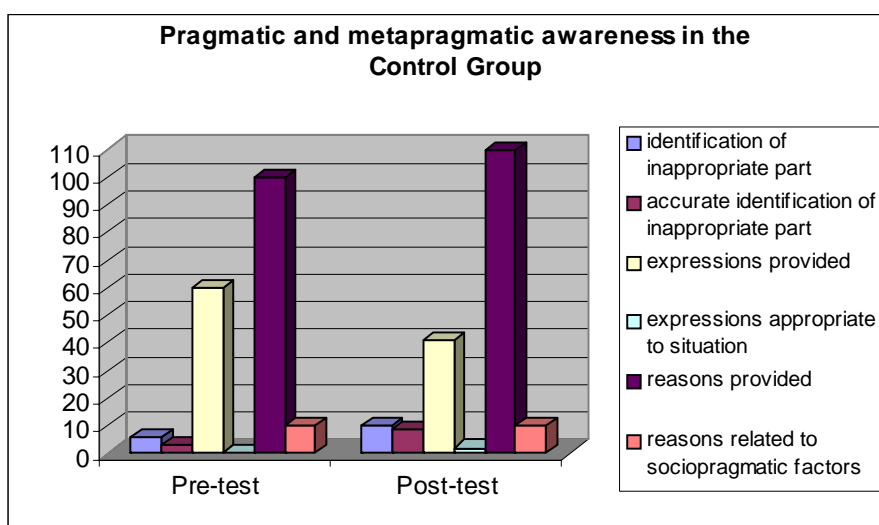
Figure 20. Pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness in the Control Group before and after receiving instruction

According to Figure 20, it seems that the CG improved in identifying the inappropriate part of the suggestion in the post-test. Nevertheless, learners in this group provided less alternative expressions in the post-test and almost none of them were appropriate to the situation. Concerning the number of reasons given in situations that had been rated as appropriate, learners from the CG also provided more reasons in the post-test. However, the number of those reasons related to sociopragmatic factors was very low and remained the same as in the pre-test. This seems to indicate that those students that had already performed appropriately in the pre-test, that is, who already had a certain level of pragmatic awareness at the beginning of the study, performed similarly in the post-test. The rest of the students, nevertheless, did not seem to have improved, since they did not participate in any of the instructional treatments. Therefore, no overall variation could be appreciated in the two different moments as far as their pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness are concerned. In fact, the following examples extracted from both the pre-test (Example 23) and the post-test (Example 24) illustrate that most of the reasons provided by these learners were based on the content of the suggestion rather than on sociopragmatic factors (i.e. relationship of the participants).

Example (23)

Pre-test:

Situation 1

You are talking to one of your best friends who is studying Computer Science Engineering. Both of you are talking about your plans for the next semester.

	Friend:	*I am thinking of taking Computer Architecture next semester.*
	You:	*I have heard that this subject is very difficult and you are also doing the internship, aren't you?*
	Friend:	*Yes, I'm starting my internship next month.*
⇒	*You:*	*That's a lot of work. Why don't you wait until next year for that subject?*

Student's response (from the CG)

That's a lot of work. I think is appropriated take it next year.

Example (24)

Post-test:

Situation 1

You see your best friend working on a laptop in the library at the University.

	You:	*Hey, what's up?*
	Friend:	*Not much. I've been working on this paper all day.*
	You:	*You look tired!*
	Friend:	*Yeah, I'm quite tired and my eyes have been aching since this morning.*
⇒	*You:*	*Well, no wonder! Look how dim your screen is. Why don't you brighten it?*

Student's response (from the CG)

Because is a right solution to the problem

Our findings seem to indicate that the instruction implemented in our study was effective not only to develop learners' pragmatically appropriate production of suggestions (see results of Hypothesis 1) but also their awareness of this particular speech act in different situations. These findings are in line with previous research that has proved the efficacy of instruction to develop learners' ability to comprehend different pragmatic aspects (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995). After a period of instruction, the experimental learners in both Bouton's (1994) and Kubota's (1995) studies significantly improved their capacity to interpret implicature appropriately when compared to the control group. Similarly, our two instructional groups also significantly outperformed the control group in their awareness of appropriate suggestions (see Table 32 above).

Moreover, our results also seem to support Safont's (2001) study on requests in which, although being mainly designed to address the effects of instruction on learners' production of this particular speech act, the author also examined whether training EFL learners in the use of requests would influence their metapragmatic awareness. Results from this study were statistically significant in learners' identification of appropriate and inappropriate request forms. In this way, our findings from the qualitative analysis previously described also seem to confirm the positive effect of instruction on learners' pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness. In fact, our learners' justifications for the suggestions that were assessed as appropriate in the pre-test, that is before the treatment was implemented, were focused on the content of the situation rather than on the pragmatic issues implied when making suggestions. This outcome seems to corroborate previous

research on pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei, 1998), since learners in EFL contexts appear to be more aware of grammatical errors or the propositional meaning of the situations than of the pragmatic aspects underlying the appropriateness of a particular speech act.

To sum up the results from Hypothesis 3, we may argue for the positive improvement of learners' awareness of pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions after the instructional period. Nevertheless, given the fact that there are only a few studies which have examined the effects of instruction on learners' awareness of different pragmatic features, further research should be conducted in order to shed more light on the effectiveness of teaching this ability in the classroom context and, particularly, in the FL classroom.

5.2.2 *Hypothesis 4*

This hypothesis also dealt with learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions, but it adopted a different perspective by comparing the two types of instruction employed in our study (i.e. explicit and implicit) in an attempt to discern which one was more effective (see section 4.3.2 for an explanation of the two types of instruction). Specifically, our Hypothesis 4 suggested that there would be no significant differences between both treatments in fostering learners' development of this ability to recognise appropriate suggestions. In order to account for this fact, we examined the scores rated by the learners from each treatment condition on the appropriateness rating scale. Figure 21 presents the comparison of the three groups in both the pre-test and the post-test.
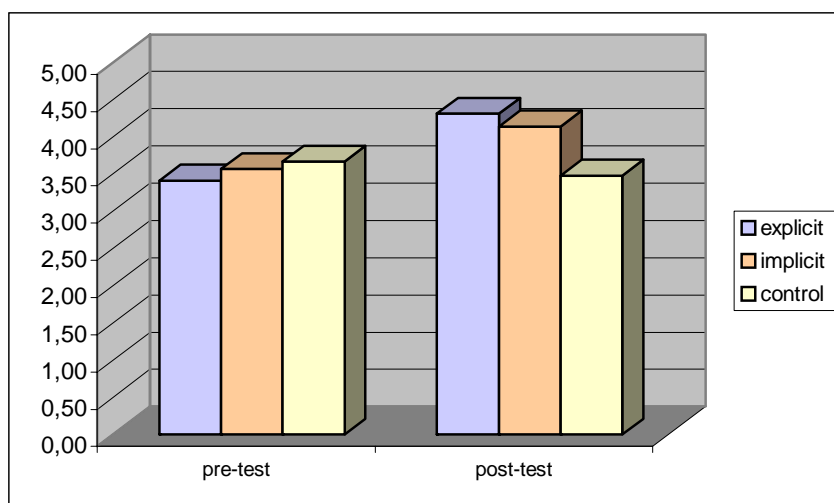
Figure 21. Awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions by the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

The results illustrated in Figure 21 above seem to indicate that learners from the three groups performed quite similarly in the pre-test as far as their awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions is concerned. On a closer look, it appears that the CG slightly outperformed both the EG and the IG at that moment, whereas the comparison of the three groups in the post-test reveals the opposite pattern. In fact, the CG achieved a lower level of awareness than the two instructional groups, which performed quite similarly at the end of the study. By resorting to a Kruskal-Wallis statistical procedure, we were able to ascertain whether this level of difference concerning the awareness between the three groups was significant or not. The results obtained from applying this test are displayed in Table 33.

Table 33. Differences between the Explicit, Implicit and Control groups as regards the awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	33.00	3.56	3.63	.113
	Implicit	25	42.20			
	Control	32	46.06			
Post-test	Explicit	24	56.77	3.93	4.00	.000*
	Implicit	25	49.06			
	Control	32	22.88			

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

As can be seen in Table 33, the differences between the three groups in the pre-test are not statistically significant, which indicates that their awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions before the instructional period took place was at the same level. However, a statistical level of significance (p<0.01) between the three groups is found in the post-test. By comparing the rank between them, it can be observed that the CG attained the lowest rank, which may have been why statistically significant differences were obtained. For this reason, in order to examine more accurately whether this difference is related to the performance of the two instructional groups, we made use of a Mann-Whitney test that would compare the ability to recognise pragmatically appropriate suggestions between these two particular groups. The differences between these two groups are presented in Table 34.

Table 34. Differences between the Explicit and the Implicit groups as regards their awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	22.40	3.49	3.50	.209
	Implicit	25	27.50			
Post-test	Explicit	24	27.44	4.22	4.38	.239
	Implicit	25	22.66			

Results from the Mann-Whitney test illustrated in the previous table show that there are no statistically significant differences between both instructional groups either in the pre-test or the post-test. However, it is interesting to look at the ranks between learners' behaviour in each moment, since they reveal which performed better. Thus, the IG achieved a higher rank than the EG in the pre-test, whereas learners from the explicit treatment condition obtained a higher rank in the post-test although, as previously mentioned, with a non-significant difference. The same statistical procedure was also applied to compare the differences between the EG and the CG, on the one hand, and the IG and the CG, on the other hand. Findings from this analysis showed that there were significant differences on the recognition of appropriate suggestions between these two pairs of groups in the

post-test (p<0.01). Specifically, both the EG and the IG significantly outperformed the CG after the study took place.

Drawing on these outcomes, we may claim that our Hypothesis 4 has been confirmed, as no statistically significant differences were found between the two instructional groups' awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions. This hypothesis is, thus, in line with Hypothesis 2, which examined the efficacy of both types of instruction on developing learners' ability to produce appropriate suggestions, and was also supported by the findings. However, the results obtained in our Hypothesis 4, which demonstrate the efficacy of the two treatments to develop learners' ability to recognise the appropriateness of suggestions, seem to differ from previous research that has also compared the effect of different teaching approaches on the comprehension of a particular pragmatic feature (Kubota, 1995; Fukuya and Clark, 2001).

As mentioned earlier, Fukuya and Clark (2001) compared the effectiveness of two types of instruction (i.e. FonFormS vs. FonF) on improving learners' ability to recognise the appropriate use of mitigators and failed to obtain significant differences. Some explanations for these results were attributed to the lack of making the mitigators pragmalinguistically salient for learners to notice and also the brevity of the treatment (i.e. only a 48-minute video). The short duration of the instruction implemented by Kubota (1995), that is to say, one 20-minute treatment in a two-hour class that also included the administration of the pre- and post-tests, may have also influenced the findings obtained in this study. In fact, the author reported that the inductive (i.e. implicit) type of instruction outperformed the deductive (i.e. explicit) condition in teaching EFL learners' comprehension of conversational implicature. Nevertheless, results from a delayed post-test administered one month after the treatment proved the non-effectiveness of either of the two types of instruction to maintain learners' long-term retention of their pragmatic knowledge.

In contrast to the abovementioned studies, the implementation of our two instructional approaches (i.e. explicit and implicit) was carried out throughout a whole

semester, in which learners had ample exposure to suggestions through the use of semi-authentic videotaped situations as well as opportunities to practise the instructional target feature. For this reason, we believe that the length of the instruction in which different activities were implemented for both groups may have contributed to the effectiveness of the two treatments. However, we also need to mention that due to institutional constraints, no delayed post-test could be administered, so we cannot assure whether this effectiveness would have been retained several months after the instruction was implemented. This issue, thus, evidences the need to explore the long-term effects of the two types of instruction adopted in the present study (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Apart from this quantitative analysis that illustrated no significant differences between the two groups' performance as far as their awareness of suggestions is concerned, we also carried out a qualitative analysis of the data obtained from both treatment groups when evaluating the suggestions in the different situations from the rating assessment post-test. In this way, we could discern whether the efficacy of both types of instruction could also be supported by learners' responses in each situation. As previously explained, if learners rated a suggestion as inappropriate, they were asked to formulate an expression that they considered to be appropriate for that situation. If the suggestion was regarded as inappropriate, then learners had to write down the reasons supporting their choice. Figure 22 presents learners' performance from both treatment conditions regarding their pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness.
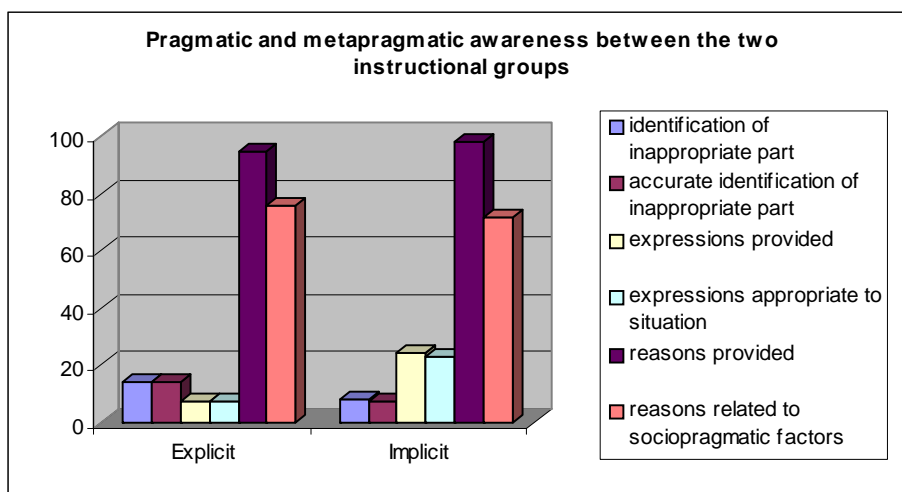
Figure 22. Pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness between the Explicit and the Implicit groups in the post-test

As shown in Figure 22, when learners were asked to identify the inappropriate part of a suggestion rated as inappropriate, learners from the EG seemed to accurately identify those parts in a higher number of suggestions than learners from the IG. In contrast, it appears that learners from the implicit treatment condition provided more alternative expressions for those inappropriate suggestions than learners from the explicit condition. Concerning the last two items, which referred to the reasons provided by learners when justifying a suggestion that was rated as appropriate, learners from the IG seemed to perform slightly better than their counterparts. However, the number of those reasons whose justification was based on sociopragmatic factors that affected the appropriateness of the suggestion was somewhat higher in learners from the EG. Taking this comparison into account, it seems that no striking differences could be observed between learners' pragmatic and metapragmatic competence in the two groups. In order to demonstrate this fact, Example 25 illustrates learners' responses from the two treatment groups in a situation that involves an equal relationship between its participants.

Example (25)

<u>**Post-test**</u>:

Situation 7

You see one of your best friends in the library:

	You:	*Hey, what's up?*
	Friend:	*Not much. I've been looking for one of my new professors all day, but I haven't been able to find this professor.*
	You:	*Did the professor have office hours today?*
	Friend:	*That's the problem, there aren't any office hours posted on the door.*
⇒	*You:*	*Personally, I would recommend that you send this professor an email to make an appointment.*

Student's response (from the EG)

"Why don't you send him an email to make an appointment"

Student's response (from the IG)

"You can send him an email" or "You might want to send him an email"

In this situation, the learners from both the EG and the IG rated the suggestion as inappropriate and underlined the first part as being inappropriate (i.e. *personally, I would recommend …*). Then, they had to write down an alternative expression that would be more appropriate for that particular situation. As can be observed, learners from both groups employed the target forms addressed during the treatment and, moreover, they were employed appropriately in this situation. In addition to this, it is worth mentioning that although they were not asked to provide the reasons for their choice when the rating was appropriate, they also justified their responses. The learner from the EG mentioned that the suggestion was "*inappropriated because you are of the same status, so it is better something like …*", whereas the learner from the IG justified her response by saying "*I would recommend you is a formal phrase, it is not used in an informal conversation. The connector "personally" is formal too. It would be better to say …*", and she gave two different possibilities that have been reported above.

As can be concluded from these comments, and as previously mentioned when reporting the findings from Hypothesis 3, learners from the IG did not receive any metapragmatic explanations as the EG did. However, while learners from the EG justified their responses by employing the metapragmatic terms taught such as *equal status, higher status, participants' relationship* or *downgraders*, learners from the IG still justified their

choices by employing expressions such as *formal/informal, colloquial vocabulary, it is too serious, you can talk with a friend more friendly, this expression is very rude* or *connectors*, when referring to the downgraders, as reported in Example 25.

In sum, a closer examination of learners' data from a qualitative perspective has contributed to proving the efficacy of both types of instruction. On the one hand, it has been observed that learners from both groups were able to give alternative expressions employing the appropriate target forms adopted during the treatment while, on the other hand, they also justified their responses on the basis of politeness issues taught in class.

After examining our second research question with its subsequent two hypotheses, we will deal next with the effects of instruction in general, and the effectiveness of two types of treatment in particular, on learners' level of confidence when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations.

5.3 Results and Discussion concerning the effects of instruction on confidence

As far as our third research question is concerned (*does learners' level of confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions improve after explicit/implicit instruction? If so, which instruction [i.e. explicit or implicit] is more effective?*), we again addressed two different aspects. First, we examined the effects of instruction on learners' level of confidence when assessing the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations and, secondly, we also paid attention to the effectiveness of two treatment conditions to develop this ability. The two hypotheses posed to explore these two aspects are explained in the following subsections.

5.3.1 *Hypothesis 5*

The fifth hypothesis of the present study concerned the fact that the two instructional groups would improve their confidence in assessing the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions as compared to the control group. In an attempt to examine the effects of instruction on this issue, we took into account learners' confidence rates on the 5-point

rating scale that accompanied the appropriateness scale in the rating assessment tests (see section 4.5.1.2). The level of confidence reported by learners in the three groups was contrasted in the pre-test and the post-test in order to compare their performance before and after the instruction was implemented. Table 35 below shows the results obtained after applying a Wilcoxon test in order to determine whether there were any significant differences in two different moments (i.e. pre-test and post-test) as far as learners' overall level of confidence when judging the appropriateness of suggestions is concerned.

Table 35. Overall confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and the post-test

Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	81	41.62	3.88	4.00	.000*
Post-test		30.31	4.15	4.13	

* Sig. at $p < 0.01$ level

As illustrated in Table 35 above, the median scores indicate an increase from the pre-test to the post-test, this being statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). However, it is important to point out that this analysis included the two groups that received instruction, namely the EG and the IG, and also the CG, which received no instruction on suggestions. Thus, we decided to make use of the same statistical procedure to compare each of the three groups in both moments. The comparison between the three groups is displayed graphically in Figure 23.
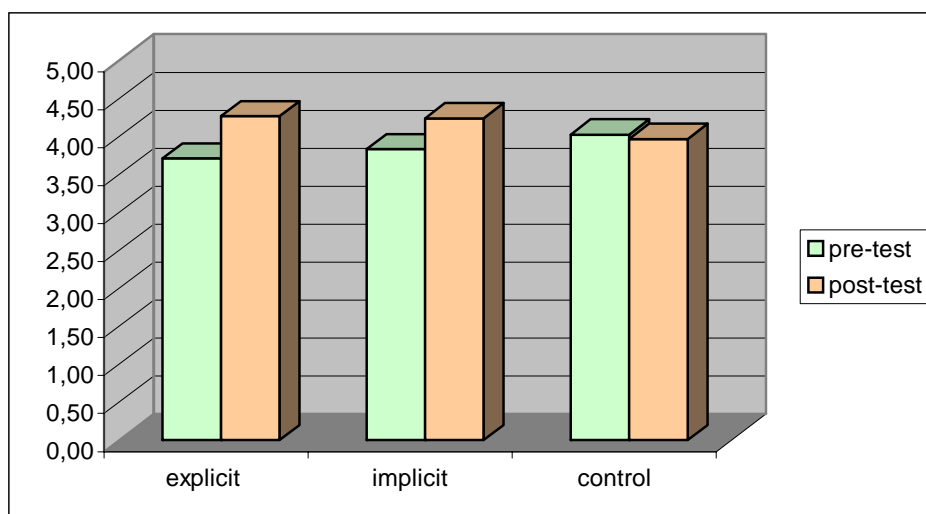
Figure 23. Confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within each of the three groups

As depicted in Figure 23, it appears that learners from the three groups performed quite similarly in the pre-test and the post-test. However, a closer examination of the scores in the figure above seems to illustrate that both the EG and the IG improved their performance in the post-test, whereas learners from the CG seemed to slightly decrease their level of confidence. In order to determine the significance of those apparently small differences we used a Wilcoxon test. The results obtained from applying this statistical procedure are displayed in Table 36 below.

Table 36. Differences as regards the confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test within the three groups

Group	Time	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Explicit	Pre-test	24	12.88	3.72	3.75	.000*
	Post-test		6.17	4.27	4.19	
Implicit	Pre-test	25	14.94	3.84	3.88	.004*
	Post-test		8.00	4.24	4.25	
Control	Pre-test	32	13.12	4.03	4.13	.655
	Post-test		14.82	3.97	4.13	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

The differences observed within each group in relation to their performance in the two moments compared, that is, before and after the study took place, indicate a level of significance of $p<0.01$ for both the EG and the IG. Moreover, when looking at the median scores, it can be seen that learners from both treatment conditions improved their confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions after receiving instruction. In contrast, no statistically significant differences were reported for the CG regarding their performance in the pre-test and the post-test.

Considering these findings, it seems that our Hypothesis 5 is supported, as the two instructional groups significantly improved their level of confidence when evaluating the appropriateness of suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, whereas no improvement was observed in the CG. These results support the findings obtained in the study conducted by Takahashi (2001), which demonstrated that the group receiving explicit metapragmatic explanations significantly increased their confidence in formulating their requests in the post-test over the pre-test. However, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) did not find any effects for the implicit treatment based on pragmalinguistic recasts adopted in their study, since both the experimental and the control group improved their level of confidence about their production ability when requesting in the post-test. To this respect, it is important to point out that similar to Takahashi's (2001) explicit treatment condition, our explicit group also received metapragmatic explanations on the appropriate use of suggestions, whereas our implicit group was operationalised by employing not only pragmalinguistic recasts (the same technique employed by Fukuya and Zhang [2002]), but also input enhancement. Thus, we believe that employing a combination of both techniques, as previously discussed in Hypotheses 1 and 3, may have aided the effects of instruction with the implicit group.

To sum up, it appears that results concerning Hypothesis 5 have illustrated that learners' confidence when assessing the appropriateness of suggestions improved significantly after receiving either explicit or implicit instruction. However, given the fact that previous research on learners' confidence when producing or recognising a particular pragmatic feature is rather scarce, future studies are needed in order to provide more insights into the effects of instruction on developing this ability in the FL setting.

5.3.2 *Hypothesis 6*

The sixth hypothesis, which also addressed learners' confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations, was formulated with the aim of examining the effectiveness of the two treatment conditions (i.e. explicit and implicit) in this particular aspect. Our Hypothesis 6 stated that no significant differences would be observed in learners' performance in the two treatment conditions as far as their confidence rates are concerned. In testing this hypothesis, we also took into account the rates learners from each type of treatment had obtained in the 5-point rating scale for confidence. We started this analysis by comparing the three groups' level of confidence in both the pre-test and the post-test, as depicted in Figure 24 below.
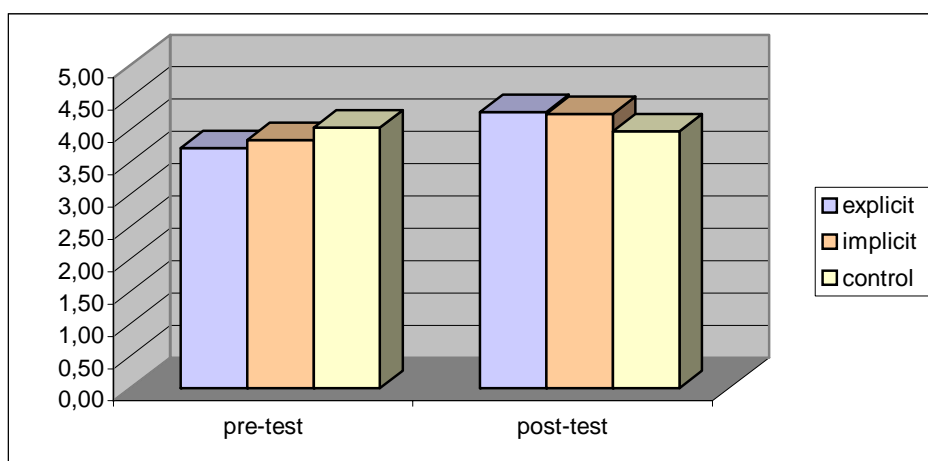
Figure 24. Confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions by the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

According to Figure 24, it seems that learners' performance was quite similar in the pre-test. In fact, the three groups achieved almost the same confidence level, although the CG attained the highest level. In contrast, the confidence rates in the post-test show that learners from both instructional groups (i.e. EG and IG) seemed to obtain nearly the same confidence level, and at the same time outperformed learners from the CG. Considering the apparent similarities found between the three groups in the two moments, we decided to conduct a statistical analysis that would allow us to determine whether the differences

between their confidence levels when judging the appropriateness of suggestions were significant.

The results from applying a Kruskal-Wallis test, which are presented in Table 37, show that there were no statistically significant differences between the three groups' levels of confidence in either the pre-test or the post-test at the probability level of $p<0.05$.

Table 37. Differences between the Explicit, Implicit and Control groups as regards the confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	35.46	3.88	4.00	.266
	Implicit	25	40.30			
	Control	32	45.70			
Post-test	Explicit	24	45.75	4.15	4.13	.067*
	Implicit	25	46.02			
	Control	32	33.52			

* Sig. at $p<0.1$ level

These findings, thus, indicate that the three groups had a similar level of confidence before the study took place and also after the instruction had been implemented. However, we find it relevant to mention that the differences observed in the post-test are marginally significant at the level of $p<0.1$. For this reason, we compared the differences between the three groups in pairs in an attempt to test the effectiveness of the two types of instruction, on the one hand, and to ascertain whether the control group could have performed similarly without having received any instruction, on the other hand. To that end, we started with the comparison of the two instructional groups by resorting to a Mann-Whitney test, the results of which are displayed in Table 38.

Table 38. Differences between the Explicit and the Implicit groups as regards the confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	23.60	3.78	3.88	.502
	Implicit	25	26.34			
Post-test	Explicit	24	25.19	4.25	4.25	.928
	Implicit	25	24.82			

As shown in Table 38, there were no significant differences between both explicit and implicit types of treatment as regards their confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in either the pre-test or the post-test. A closer examination of the ranks achieved by each group indicates that the IG performed better than the EG in the pre-test, whereas the EG achieved a higher level of confidence in the post-test in comparison to the IG. However, as reported above, these differences were not statistically significant, which seems to provide support for our Hypothesis 6.

These findings seem to partially corroborate the results obtained in Takahashi's (2001) study, since the author found that only two of the four treatment conditions increased their level of confidence when formulating requests in the post-test. Although the teaching approaches adopted in this study differed from our own study, it seems interesting to analyse her results, since this is the only study, to our knowledge, that has investigated the effect of different types of instruction on learners' confidence when producing a speech act. Takahashi (2001) compared four groups, namely those of explicit teaching, form-comparison, form-search and meaning-focused, and found that the explicit teaching and meaning-focused conditions significantly improved their confidence in the post-test. The author suggested that the possible explanations for each group's performance may have depended on the type of tasks they were asked to perform. Thus, the learners in the explicit teaching condition may have felt more confident because they received explicit explanations on the appropriate use of the requests, whereas learners from the meaning-focused group believed that they had learnt to produce different, although still appropriate, discourse structures when requesting. In contrast, learners from the other two treatment

conditions (i.e. form-search and meaning-focused) did not seem to have improved their confidence when requesting. The author argued that, due to the activities learners were involved in which forced them to analyse NSs' use of requests, they may have felt that their performance in the post-test was still not comparable to NSs' performance.

Results from our study also seem to demonstrate the effectiveness of not only the explicit treatment, which is similar to Takahashi's (2001) explicit teaching condition, but also the implicit type of instruction, which was operationalised by employing input enhancement and recasts. Given the fact that Takahashi (2001) did not employ this teaching approach, we cannot exactly compare the results obtained from our implicit condition with any of the other three treatments employed in her study. Moreover, it is important to mention that there are other differences between the two studies that make it difficult to compare all the findings obtained. Firstly, the focus of both studies and the speech act examined were different, since Takahashi (2001) dealt with learners' confidence about their production ability when requesting, whereas our study paid attention to learners' confidence about their awareness of appropriate suggestions. We believe that our learners' participation in an identification task, in which they were asked to assess different situations, could have been easier than expressing their confidence when formulating the particular speech act in a written production task. It is our belief that a production task involves a more demanding cognitive process than an awareness task. Secondly, learners' nationality was different (i.e. Japanese in Takahashi's [2001] study and Spanish in our study), a fact that may have also affected learners' performance in each study. Thirdly, the context of instruction in which the treatments were implemented could have also influenced the results, since Takahashi's (2001) study took place in an ESL setting, whereas our study was set in an EFL classroom.

For all these reasons, and given the fact that focusing on learners' degree of confidence when involved in either a production or a comprehension task has not been widely explored, we believe that further research should be conducted to examine this particular issue. In other words, there is a need for more studies that shed light on the effectiveness of other teaching approaches to develop learners' confidence about their

ability to produce or assess other pragmatic features in different contextual learning contexts (i.e. ESL vs. EFL).

Finally, although we have obtained significant results for both instructional groups, and given the findings obtained in Table 37 above, we were also interested in making a closer analysis of learners' performance in the CG. Thus, we made use of the Mann-Whitney test to compare each of the instructional groups with the CG in order to discern whether there were differences between them, particularly at the end of the study. The results obtained from the application of this statistical procedure are presented in Table 39.

Table 39. *Differences between the Implicit and the Control groups as regards the confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test*

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Implicit	25	26.96	3.94	4.00	.411
	Control	32	30.59			
Post-test	Implicit	25	34.20	4.09	4.13	.036*
	Control	32	24.94			

* Sig. at p<0.05 level

These results reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between the implicit and control groups in the pre-test, whereas a level of significance of p<0.05 was obtained in the post-test. By examining the rank of both groups after the study took place, it can be observed that the IG achieved a higher rank. This finding, thus, indicates that learners' level of confidence from the IG was significantly higher than that achieved by the CG at the end of the study.

In contrast, the differences observed between the explicit and control groups in either the pre-test and post-test were not statistically significant at the probability level of p<0.05, as illustrated in Table 40.

Table 40. Differences between the Explicit and the Control groups as regards the confidence level when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in the pre-test and post-test

Time	Group	df	Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Pre-test	Explicit	24	24.35	3.89	4.00	.098*
	Control	32	31.61			
Post-test	Explicit	24	33.06	4.10	4.13	.068*
	Control	32	25.08			

* Sig. at p<0.1 level

According to the results depicted in the previous table, the differences between the EG and the CG would only be regarded as significant at the marginal level of p<0.1 in both the pre-test and the post-test. Thus, it could be claimed that learners receiving explicit instruction and learners from the CG, who did not participate in any instructional treatment, achieved a similar level of confidence when judging the appropriateness of suggestions. However, an analysis of the ranks between both groups in each moment indicates that the CG outperformed the EG in the pre-test, whereas the EG achieved a higher level of confidence in comparison to the CG in the post-test (with a more significant level of probability – almost p<0.05 (.068) – than in the pre-test). Additionally, it seems worth mentioning that the qualitative analysis conducted in Hypothesis 3 revealed differences in the way learners from each group justified their choices for the appropriateness of the suggestions.

On the one hand, it seemed that learners from the EG understood the task they were performing when assessing appropriateness, since they provided reasons related to the sociopragmatic factors involved in each situation (i.e. relationship between the participants). Thus, the level of confidence could be related to their actual understanding of what appropriateness meant. On the other hand, learners from the CG based their reasons on the content implied in the suggestion rather than on politeness issues that may affect the appropriateness of those suggestions. This fact, then, might explain their high confidence rates in the post-test, since they thought that the suggestions made in each situation

presented good ideas and solutions for that particular situation and, consequently, felt confident in their rating.

In light of these results and the possible explanations attributed to them, future research might examine learners' confidence by incorporating a self-report method in the research design (see section 3.1.1.3 for an explanation of both oral and written self-report methods). By analysing learners' data obtained through this research method, it may be possible to ascertain which aspects (i.e. grammar, content, sociopragmatic variables) they are paying attention to when rating their confidence about their assessment or production of a particular pragmatic feature.

5.4 Results and Discussion concerning task effects

The three previous research questions, with their subsequent hypotheses, were all related to the effects of instruction on three different aspects, namely those of production, awareness and confidence. Our fourth research question adopts a different perspective, since it attempts to compare the two production tasks employed in the present study (i.e. phone and email tasks) in order to ascertain whether there are task effects on learners' use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions.

5.4.1 *Hypothesis 7*

In order to examine the issue of task effects, and based on findings from previous research on this aspect (see section 3.1.2), we formulated Hypothesis 7 of this study, which predicted that the production task learners were engaged in would influence their use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions. Thus, we analysed the effect of the oral production task (i.e. phone) and the written production task (i.e. email) in learners' use of suggestions. To that end, we used the scoring system for the appropriateness level adopted in our study to assign scores to the suggestions selected as target forms (see section 4.5.1.1). In addition, we also examined whether there was a task influence on learners' production of downgraders.

As can be seen in Figure 25 below, it seems that learners made almost the same use of appropriate suggestions in the phone task (44%) as in the email task (56%), their use being slightly higher in the latter, that is, in the written production task.
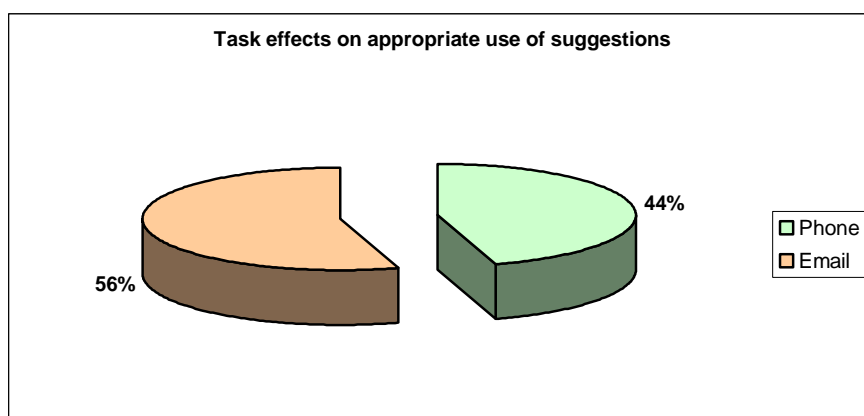
Figure 25. Overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in phone and email tasks

In order to examine whether this difference is statistically significant, we applied a Wilcoxon test that compared learners' performance in two different but related measures (i.e. phone and email tasks). The results from applying this test are displayed in Table 41 below.

Table 41. Differences as regards the overall use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the phone and email tasks

Task	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Phone	81	35.40	2.27	2.50	.005*
Email		26.09	2.85	3.00	

* Sig. at p<0.01 level

Results from the Wilcoxon test reveal that the difference observed between learners' use of suggestions in the phone task and the email task is statistically significant (p<0.01). Moreover, by comparing the median scores in both production tasks, we observe that learners employed more suggestions in the email than in the phone task, which coincides

with the percentages observed in Figure 25 above. We may therefore claim that the production task learners are engaged in exerts an influence on their use of suggestions.

This difference may have been due to several reasons. First of all, it is important to point out that the situations employed in each task were different in order to avoid possible practice effects. First, learners were presented with the oral situations, since they involved aspects such as spontaneity and having a limited amount of time to reflect on their wording, and later in the same week they were presented with the written production task. In this way, we intended to prevent them from being influenced by repeating the same situations. Although the importance of maintaining the same sociopragmatic variables as well as gender and age of the participants involved in each task was taken into account, some situations could have been more facilitative for students when eliciting the suggestion to be made. This fact, therefore, could have been a source of possible differences between the two tasks.

A second issue that may have also contributed to obtaining significant differences between learners' use of suggestions in both production tasks might involve the nature of the task itself. We believe that the oral task, which involved making telephone calls in the teacher's office, might have influenced learners' performance, since they were not engaged in a face-to-face conversation with an interlocutor. Thus, aspects concerning interaction and the possibility of negotiating communicative breakdowns were absent from this oral task. In addition to this, the fact they were being tape-recorded could have also exerted certain pressure on learners when making their suggestions. In contrast, the written task, which consisted in making learners send emails involving the use of suggestions to different addressees, could have been regarded as a normal activity that takes place frequently. In fact, this task was part of our learners' daily routine as they were computer science students. Moreover, the task involved no time constraints and it was conducted in a computer lab, which probably made learners feel more relaxed than in a typical classroom setting or in an unfamiliar context.

In addition to examining task effects on learners' production of suggestions, we also paid attention to whether similar differences, regarding the influence of the task to be performed, were observed in the production of downgraders. The comparison between the overall use of downgraders found in both production tasks is illustrated in Figure 26.
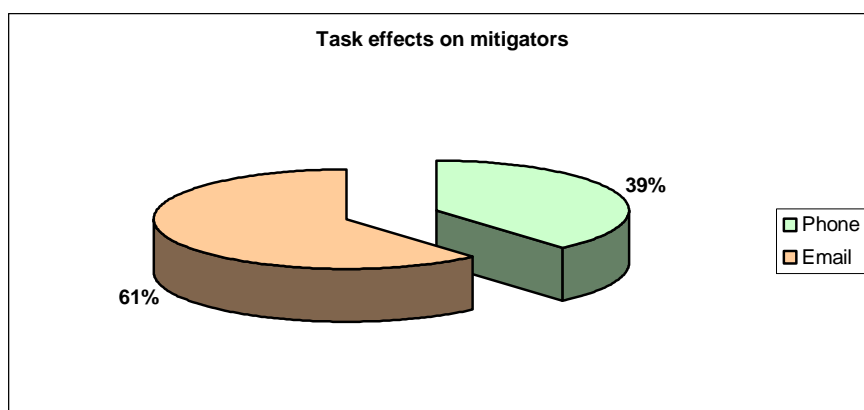
Figure 26. Overall use of downgraders in the phone and email tasks

As shown in the previous figure, a higher use of downgraders was employed in the email task (61%) than in the phone task (39%). We applied a Wilcoxon statistical procedure in order to determine whether the difference displayed in Figure 26 was significant. According to the results presented in Table 42, the median scores in both tasks are similar, although a closer look at the mean indicates that the scores for the email task are higher than those for the phone task, this difference being statistically significant ($p<0.01$).

Table 42. Differences as regards the overall use of downgraders in the phone and email tasks

Task	df	Mean Rank	Mean	Median	Sig.
Phone	81	26.17	0.45	0.50	.005*
Email		18.89	0.71	0.50	

* Sig. at $p<0.01$ level

These outcomes, in line with the previous ones related to the use of suggestions, indicate that learners' production of downgraders was also significantly higher in the email task. We may therefore claim that our hypothesis related to task effects has been confirmed,

since statistically significant differences were found between the two tasks employed. In other words, the task learners were engaged in seems to have influenced their use of appropriate suggestions and downgraders, this use being higher in the email task.

These results support previous research that highlighted significant task effects when comparing the oral and written production of different speech acts (Margalef-Boada, 1993; Beebe and Cummings, 1996; Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998). Findings from these studies illustrated that the oral tasks involved a greater amount of data than the written production tasks. Results from our study, in contrast, have shown that a higher number of appropriate suggestions and downgraders were found in the written production task, in line with Safont (2001). Possible explanations for these outcomes may be related to the fact that the instruments used to collect data were different, as we employed phone messages and email tasks instead of the methods employed in those studies (i.e. natural conversations or role-plays and written DCTs). Thus, the fact that learners were tape-recorded when leaving the oral message after hearing an answering machine may have exerted some pressure on them. Moreover, as previously mentioned, they were not engaged in a conversation in which they could interact with an interlocutor and, consequently, produce a wider amount of data. In fact, the oral task our learners participated in allowed them only one turn, which may have seemed to resemble more closely a type of closed role-play (Rintell and Mitchell, 1989) than an open role-play, which involves more than one turn. For these reasons, learners' performance in this type of oral task may have differed from the participants' behaviour in the above-quoted studies. The following is an example illustrating our learners' responses in one situation from the oral production task.

Example (26)

Phone:

Situation 1 (from post-test)

One of the professors you know from the Business Administration Department asks you to help him to organise a summer course on the use of PowerPoint. As part of the course, he would like to invite a professor from your Computer Science Department for a practical presentation of this programme. When you arrive home, the names of some professors from your department who could participate in this course suddenly occur to you. Call the professor in charge of the course and suggest a good professor for this PowerPoint presentation:

Telephone number: 964-729867

Student's response (from the EG)

Hello ... I'm Manolo ... I call for suggest you ... eh ... one professor for the summer course of PowerPoint … I think a good idea would be ... eh ... to call Oscar Belmonte … because he is a good professor in the department of computer science ...

Student's response (from the IG)

Hello ... This is María del Mar ... I heard that you need to know the name of a professor who might help you in organising a course on PowerPoint … eh … I have thought about Gloria because she uses PowerPoint a lot in her classes … so it would be helpful if you contact her and ask her … Bye.

As can be seen from the above example, learners were presented with the situation and asked to call the professor in order to make a suggestion. After they heard the answering machine, they were provided with one turn to make the suggestion, since we were interested in analysing learners' ability to produce this particular speech act spontaneously. However, the fact that they did not hold a conversation with their interlocutor may have prevented them from producing longer responses and, consequently, a higher number of appropriate suggestions.

In fact, Safont's (2001) study, which also reported statistically significant differences between the oral (i.e. open role-play) and written (i.e. DCT) tasks employed in her study, illustrated that participants' responses in the role-play were longer than in the DCT due to the fact that the oral task implied more than one turn. Besides, the author also found that a wider amount of request linguistic strategies, as well as the peripheral modification devices accompanying them, was found in the written task than in the oral activity. In this sense, our results are in line with Safont's (2001) study, in that our learners also produced a higher number of appropriate suggestions and downgraders in the written production task than in the oral one.

Another possible explanation for obtaining more appropriate responses in the written task refers to the fact that, like having employed a different oral production task (i.e. phone messages), our written task was also elaborated specifically for the present study (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b; Kasper and Rose, 2002). Thus, instead of employing a written DCT, we made use of emails, which seemed to overcome the shortcomings attributed to the typical DCT, namely those of being too artificial (Rose, 1994b) or its resembling a test-like

method (Sasaki, 1998). In this way, collecting learners' written production data through emails may have contributed to our results, since the task was carried out individually with no time constraints and it appears that learners had more time to think about the different strategies that could be employed to make their suggstions in a particular situation.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that learners' responses in the email tasks were long and elaborated – a finding that was observed in the oral production tasks rather than in the written DCTs employed in previous studies (Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001). The following examples illustrate learners' responses in a situation from the written production task employed in our study.

Example (27)

Email:

Situation 3 (from post-test)

While organising a workshop on the creation of websites for students of non-computer science degrees to be offered during the next academic year, the Director of the Computer Science Department is interested in students' ideas about it. In particular, he would like to know your opinion about the materials that could be employed. Send the director an email suggesting a good book on designing websites that could be employed during this workshop:

To: madrid@fil.uji.es

Student's response (from the EG)

Dear Mr.Director:
In order to the course about the creation of websites I have been thinking some ideas. It would be helpful if you use a program called "dream weber". It is very easy to learn, and the participants will not have problems. Maybe you could buy a book that I used in some subjects last year. It is called "Web design for sillies". It describes in a general way the web design, without computer technical words. Besides contains a cd in which you could find a little program to designe a web, and many different examples about this.
Yours fairfully.

Student's response (from the IG)

Dear director
I would recommend that you use programs and handbooks to explain the students how make a website. There are more programs such as Front Page, Dreamweaver, Composer... I think it might be better to use Front Page because is the most easy. www.handbooks.com is the best page on internet about handbooks,it has good material.
I hope that this information is good for you.
Yours sincerely

As can be observed in Example 27, learners' responses were not written down with a single sentence, as has been found in studies employing a DCT (Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001). Instead, the answers were contextualised and followed a discourse-based structure in which further information and various details regarding the situation were provided. In this sense, we may state that employing an email task to collect learners' written production data seems to be a research method with a potential that deserves future research. In line with Kasper (2000), we believe that the implementation of new technologies in research on ILP may bear important pedagogical implications. On the one hand, it allows the researcher to collect a huge amount of data in a short period of time. On the other hand, production data can be obtained from different countries, and this fact may provide learners with a motive to keep in contact with speakers of the English language throughout the world. This is particularly relevant in the FL classroom where learners' access to the TL is limited. For these reasons, the use of this production task could provide us with an instrument that would serve both as a research method as well as an activity designed to foster learners' pragmatic acquisition in the EFL classroom.

In this chapter, we have shown and discussed the results obtained in relation to the four research questions and subsequent hypotheses that guided our study. The final section that follows contains a summary of the main findings as well as some concluding remarks. Important pedagogical implications will also be highlighted and some of the limitations attributed to the present study will also be mentioned. Finally, we will suggest some of the possible directions for future research into the relevance of developing pragmatic competence in the classroom context.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was to provide more insights into the effects of instruction on the acquisition of pragmatic competence in the classroom setting, and specifically in the EFL classroom. This setting, in contrast to SL contexts, has been regarded as an impoverished environment where learners' exposure to the TL is limited to this specific context. Thus, our study was motivated not only by the need to focus on learners' grammatical knowledge in the FL classroom but also on their pragmatic competence. In particular, we examined the effects of instruction on learners' pragmatic development of a specific speech act, that of suggestions, with the goal of expanding the range of learning targets addressed in pragmatic interventional studies (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Apart from dealing with instructional effects, we also took into account the need to investigate various types of instruction in order to ascertain their effectiveness (Kasper and Rose, 2002). In this way, we analysed two different treatments (i.e. explicit and implicit) that were operationalised on the basis of the principles underlying the paradigms of FonFormS and FonF (Long, 1991, 1996, 1998; Doughty and Williams, 1998a, 1998c; Long and Robinson, 1998; Doughty, 2001). The aim of comparing both teaching approaches was to determine whether the two treatments were equally effective in developing learners' pragmatic competence regarding their production, awareness and confidence when judging the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations. Additionally, we were also concerned with issues related to research methodology and, bearing in mind findings from studies that observed task effects between oral and written production tasks (Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001), we compared our learners' performance when making suggestions in two different tasks: an oral production task (i.e. phone messages) and a written production task (i.e. email).

Drawing on previous research on the positive role of instruction on the development of pragmatic competence, the proper operationalisation of different teaching approaches and studies on task effects, the hypotheses that guided our study were the following:

Hypothesis 1: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not, as measured by two tasks (i.e. phone messages and email responses).

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions, as measured by two tasks (i.e. phone messages and email responses).

Hypothesis 3: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their awareness of appropriate suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their awareness of appropriate suggestions in the post-test.

Hypothesis 5: Both explicit and implicit groups will significantly improve their confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions in the post-test over the pre-test, but a control will not.

Hypothesis 6: There will be no significant difference between two groups (i.e. explicit and implicit) in their confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions in the post-test.

Hypothesis 7: The production task, that is, an oral (i.e. phone messages) or a written (i.e. email responses) task, will affect learners' pragmatically appropriate use of suggestions.

In order to ascertain the instructional effects on learners' production of suggestions as stated in our Hypothesis 1, we compared their pragmatically appropriate use of this speech

act in both the pre-test and the post-test. Results showed that learners receiving either explicit or implicit instruction significantly increased their use of suggestions after the study, whereas learners from the control group decreased their appropriate production of this speech act. Moreover, a qualitative analysis of their production data revealed that the two instructional groups employed different target forms that had been addressed during the instruction – a fact that was not observed for learners in the control group. Thus, our first hypothesis was confirmed by our findings and it also supported previous research that focused on the effects of instruction of a particular speech act (Billmyer, 1990; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Morrow, 1995; Safont, 2001).

On examining our Hypothesis 2, which predicted the effectiveness of the two teaching approaches (i.e. explicit and implicit) in developing learners' ability to produce suggestions, we contrasted learners' performance from each treatment condition before and after the study took place. Our results revealed that there were no significant differences between learners' use of suggestions either in the pre-test or the post-test. These findings indicated that both treatments were equally effective in the development of learners' production of pragmatically appropriate suggestions, which means that our second hypothesis was supported. Our findings, however, differed from previous research that reported differences between the explicit and implicit teaching approaches and found that the explicit type of treatment outperformed the implicit one (House and Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Takahashi, 2001). These results might have been due to the fact that the operationalisation of the implicit condition in these studies was based on either excluding metapragmatic explanations or merely providing additional examples together with practice activities. Consequently, learners from this treatment condition were at a disadvantage when compared with those submitted to the explicit type of instruction, who received extensive metapragmatic information. In contrast, we employed a systematic combination of two implicit techniques, namely input enhancement and recasts, with our implicit type of instruction and this may have contributed to its effectiveness.

In order to test Hypothesis 3, which suggested that the learners receiving instruction would improve their awareness of pragmatically appropriate suggestions over the control

group, we contrasted learners' rating values on the rating assessment test which was distributed before and after the instructional sessions took place. We found that our third hypothesis was confirmed, since the treatment groups significantly increased their ability to recognise appropriate suggestions as compared to a control group. These findings were in line with previous research that demonstrated the efficacy of instruction to develop learners' ability to comprehend different pragmatic aspects (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Safont, 2001). Additionally, we also carried out a qualitative analysis on the basis of learners' justifications for selecting a particular score in each situation. Specifically, we paid attention to learners' identification of the inappropriate part of the suggestion in a given situation, the alternative expressions provided for that situation, and the number of reasons presented when the suggestion was appropriate. This analysis revealed that learners who received instruction had a higher pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness than those from the control group.

Hypothesis 4 dealt with the effectiveness of the two types of instruction employed in our study (i.e. explicit and implicit) in developing learners' awareness of appropriate suggestions. In order to ascertain the differences between the two groups, we compared the scores rated by the learners from each treatment condition on the appropriateness rating scale. Results revealed that our fourth hypothesis was confirmed, as there were no significant differences between the two instructional groups in fostering learners' ability to recognise the appropriateness of suggestions in different situations. Thus, on examination after the study took place both the explicit and the implicit types of instruction proved to be effective. Nevertheless, previous studies that compared the efficacy of different teaching approaches to developing the comprehension of a particular pragmatic feature obtained inconclusive results (Kubota, 1995; Fukuya and Clark, 2001). A possible reason that may have influenced the findings from these studies could be related to the short duration of the instruction implemented. In fact, the treatment of the first study consisted of only a 48-minute video and the instruction in the second study included just one 20-minute session in a two-hour class. In contrast, the implementation of our two instructional approaches was carried out over a 16-week semester, in which opportunities for input exposure and

communicative practice were provided. Therefore, the length of the instruction might have influenced our findings and led to the effectiveness of both types of instruction.

The positive effects of instruction on learners' confidence when judging the pragmatic appropriateness of suggestions were predicted in our Hypothesis 5. In testing this hypothesis, we compared learners' confidence rates on a 5-point scale that accompanied the appropriateness scale of the rating assessment tests in the pre-test and the post-test. Findings showed that the two instructional groups significantly improved their level of confidence when evaluating the appropriateness of suggestions on the post-test over the pre-test, whereas no improvement was observed in the control group. Thus, our fifth hypothesis was confirmed and these results supported the findings obtained by Takahashi (2001), which demonstrated that the treatment group that received metapragmatic explanations significantly increased their confidence. However, the implicit treatment employed in Fukuya and Zhang's (2002) study did not show the expected results. Therefore, since research conducted on the issue of confidence is scarce, there is a need to explore it in more interventional studies.

On focusing on our Hypothesis 6, we suggested that no significant differences would be observed between the two treatment conditions (i.e. explicit and implicit) as regards their level of confidence when assessing the appropriateness of suggestions is concerned. In order to test this hypothesis, we contrasted learners' confidence rates after receiving each type of instruction. Results for this hypothesis showed that there were no significant differences between the explicit and implicit types of treatment regarding their confidence when judging the suggestions. Our sixth hypothesis was therefore confirmed and partially corroborated Takahashi's (2001) study, which examined learners' confidence about their production ability when requesting. Takahashi (2001) compared four different teaching approaches and demonstrated the effectiveness of only the explicit condition. In contrast, and considering the above quoted findings, our study showed the effectiveness of both treatments. Nevertheless, an exact comparison was not possible due to the fact that Takahashi (2001) did not employ an implicit condition similar to ours. For this reason, it

should be interesting to examine the effectiveness of these (and other) types of instruction on learners' confidence about their pragmatic ability.

Hypothesis 7 of the present study adopted a different perspective by focusing on aspects related to research methodology. This hypothesis predicted the influence of the production task to be performed on learners' use of pragmatically appropriate suggestions. In testing this hypothesis we compared learners' use of suggestions in the oral production task (i.e. phone messages) with their use in the written production task (i.e. emails). We found statistically significant differences between learners' performance in the phone task and the email task, which indicates that the production task in which learners are engaged influences their use of suggestions. Drawing on these results, we may claim that Hypothesis 7 in our study was supported, which further confirmed previous studies ascertaining task effects (Houck and Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998). Moreover, our findings were also in line with Safont's (2001) study in that a higher number of appropriate suggestions were found in the written production task than in the oral task. A possible explanation for our findings may have been related to the written instrument we employed, that of emails, which seemed to be more authentic and elicited longer and more contextualised responses than the typical DCT used in other ILP studies.

To sum up, our research has shown the benefits of instruction on the development of learners' pragmatic competence in suggestions in the EFL classroom. We may therefore claim that the present study contributes to previous research that has suggested that instruction does make a difference (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Doughty, 2003) and specifically, to that research that has examined the teachability of different pragmatic features (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Additionally, it has widened the range of pragmatic learning targets addressed in interventional studies by focusing on the speech act of suggesting which, to our knowledge, has not been addressed in any previous study examining instructional effects. Moreover, our investigation has also demonstrated the effectiveness of the two different treatments, i.e. explicit and implicit, which were operationalised on the basis of the FonFormS and FonF paradigms (Doughty and Williams, 1998a, 1998c; Long and Robinson, 1998). In this sense, we may state that an implicit

teaching condition may be effective in developing learners' pragmatic ability when properly implemented. Thus, in our study, both the metapragmatic explanations employed with our explicit condition and the systematic combination of the implicit techniques of input enhancement and recasts used with our implicit condition proved to be equally effective in developing various aspects of learners' pragmatic competence, such as their production, awareness and confidence when assessing the appropriateness of suggestions. Finally, this study has also supported previous research which revealed the influence of the task type on learners' performance (Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper, 2000). In particular, we found that a higher number of appropriate suggestions were elicited by the written production task (i.e. email) than the oral production task (i.e. phone messages), which made us suggest the use of emails as an effective instrument to collect learners' production data.

In light of these findings, some pedagogical implications may be proposed. First, the role of instruction on the development of pragmatic competence is a beneficial aspect to be implemented in the FL classroom. Our research has shown that integrating specific instructional treatments may foster our learners' pragmatic ability in the TL. This issue is particularly relevant in FL contexts for two main reasons. On the one hand, great emphasis has been devoted to the instruction of linguistic competence rather than teaching pragmatic aspects. This fact has consequently led to pragmatics remaining a marginal component of the TL instruction, as demonstrated by its placement in textbooks and course materials (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Boxer and Pickering, 1995; Meier, 1997; Mandala, 1999; Alcón and Tricker, 1999; Alcón and Safont, 2001). In fact, we find it inappropriate to address pragmatics as a part of the language system to be treated after the lexical and grammatical competencies have been fully formed. For this reason, our study has presented the elaboration and design of lessons which were tailor-made for computer science students in an attempt to integrate pragmatics in a University course. Thus, our study has been set in the University context, but we believe that pragmatic aspects should be taught at earlier educational levels, namely primary and secondary education, where the syllabi adopted still follow a sequence of grammatical structures rather than language functions.

On the other hand, learners in an FL setting have very few opportunities to be exposed to authentic input or to interact with speakers of the TL outside the classroom (Tateyama et al., 1997). Taking these constraints into consideration, through instruction learners may be provided with the three necessary conditions for pragmatics learning, namely input, output and feedback (Kasper, 1996, 2001a, 2001b), an issue that has been considered in the present study. Therefore, relevant input might be brought into the classroom by means of videotaping authentic conversations, using scenes from various films or recording television sitcoms (Grant and Starks, 2001; Rose, 2001; Washburn, 2001; Koester, 2002). In this way, different activities could be prepared on the basis of this material with the aim of raising learners' pragmatic awareness about pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of the TL. Indeed, the issue of developing learners' pragmatic awareness has been claimed as one of the main goals of instruction in pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003), since it is related to the concept of noticing (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1995, 2001). Apart from awareness, it is also important to develop activities that elicit learners' production, as this is concerned with the second condition for language learning, namely output. Consequently, opportunities for communicative practice are also required to develop pragmatic ability in the FL classroom. In our investigation, we made use of role-plays, since they have been widely employed in previous studies (Trosborg, 1995, 2003; Safont, 2001), although other productive activities like those of simulation or drama may also be employed (Kasper, 1997a). In addition to relevant input and opportunities for output, the third condition for language learning, i.e. feedback, might also be considered in promoting FL learners' pragmatic competence. By implementing either explicit or implicit feedback, learners may also be made aware of their pragmatic failures and, thus, be provided with opportunities to notice the appropriate pragmatic aspects of the TL.

A second pedagogical implication is related to the specific techniques and teaching approaches that can be adopted to focus on pragmatic features in the FL setting. The present study has demonstrated how two different types of instruction (i.e. explicit and implicit) were operationalised and implemented to promote learners' pragmatic competence in the classroom context. Focusing specifically on the implicit teaching method, it seems

that the combination of the two implicit FonF techniques, those of input enhancement and recasts, employed to operationalise this treatment proved to be effective. However, a well-developed knowledge of other FonF techniques, such as input flood or negative feedback (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Doughty, 2003) could provide teachers with a variety of resources to help them prepare different classroom practices, exercises and tasks. Similarly, a thorough knowledge of the principles underlying particular approaches to instruction, not only the ones employed in the present study but also others such as deductive and inductive treatments (Decoo, 1996; DeKeyser, 2003), is also advisable and desirable on the part of FL teachers. Additionally, another possibility would be the combination of two different teaching approaches, since as Trosborg (2003) mentions, some learners might need to receive explicit metapragmatic information, whereas others may benefit more from simple consciousness-raising activities via exposure to the TL. Taking these considerations into account, it seems that the effectiveness of a particular treatment, or a combination of different methods, may depend on learners' individual cognitive and strategic learning styles (Cohen, 2003). Therefore, this is an issue which should be further researched.

A final pedagogical implication derived from our findings concerns the use of the tasks employed to collect learners' pragmatic data in the FL classroom. Drawing on previous studies related to research methodology (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999b; Kasper, 2000; Kasper and Rose, 2002), we specifically elaborated three different types of tests for the present study, namely a rating assessment test, an oral production test and a written production test. In so doing, we took into account our learners' field of studies (i.e. computer science), the setting where they were studying (i.e. University) as well as the people among whom they may interact (i.e. other classmates and professors). Bearing these aspects in mind, we created the contextualised settings that appeared in the tests in an attempt to make learners feel identified with those situations. Thus, although the tests designed for this study were employed in order to collect learners' pragmatic data regarding their production, awareness and confidence when assessing suggestions in different situations, they also have an important pedagogical value. In fact, they could be implemented in different ways with the aim of guiding learners in their process of acquiring pragmatic knowledge in the FL classroom.

On the one hand, the rating assessment test included different situations in the form of short contextualised conversations in which two people were interacting: the learner and his/her interlocutor. This sort of instrument could have been integrated in the course materials as a type of awareness task in which learners might be asked questions affecting the appropriateness of suggestions in each situation. On the other hand, the two production tests could also be employed as oral and written tasks, respectively, by making learners reflect on their own production. The oral production test we designed consisted of different situations in which learners had to make a telephone call and then suggest a particular aspect. After being tape-recorded, learners might listen to their own phone messages and discuss the appropriateness of their pragmatic use on the basis of politeness issues, such as the relationship between the participants, their status and the degree of imposition involved in the situation, as well as other contextual factors. Similarly, the written production test created for this study, that is to say email, also involved a number of situations in which learners had to send an email with a particular suggestion. After the task had been completed, the teacher could bring learners' written emails to the class and make them work in pairs to compare the different pragmalinguistic forms employed when suggesting in each situation on the basis of sociopragmatic aspects affecting the appropriate use of those suggestions. Specifically, we find that the use of this particular method has great potential in the FL classroom, since the teacher may organise activities and projects in which learners can interact with students from all over the world in a very real way (Kasper, 2000). Hence, integrating this task, as well as others offered by the Internet such as on-line discussions, telecollaboration or group journals, as part of the current curricula could provide learners with opportunities to practise pragmatic aspects of the TL in authentic situations. Bearing in mind these issues, the extent to which the implementation of these tasks with a focus on their practical implications in eliciting learners' metapragmatic awareness and pragmatic ability for appropriate language use should be addressed in future studies.

Other aspects that also deserve to be explored in future investigations are outlined below together with the limitations attributed to the present study. One of the first

limitations that might be considered when interpreting the findings from our study is related to the selection of twelve particular target forms for suggestions. In fact, these forms represent only a small part of the overall range of possibilities when suggesting. However, our choosing a certain number of target forms was justified taking into consideration the principles underlying FonF (Doughty and Williams, 1998b, 1998c; Doughty, 2001). By adopting two implicit techniques from this paradigm with our implicit treatment condition, the selection of some particular forms was a requisite in order to maximise the effectiveness of the implicit type of instruction, which should be consistent and based on those pragmalinguistic forms. Moreover, it is important to mention that the focus of the instruction relied not on these forms in isolation but on the connections among such forms, the different situations, the function (i.e. to suggest), and the sociopragmatic variables affecting their use, such as status and familiarity. Bearing in mind these assumptions, it should be interesting to analyse whether the selection of other target forms would lead us to obtain similar results. In addition, we have dealt with the particular speech act of suggestions, but the teachability of other speech acts and pragmatic features could also be examined by employing the same type of implicit instruction as the one implemented in this study.

A second limitation that makes us view our results with caution about making generalisations refers to the particular population of learners involved in this study. In our research, participants belonged to three intact classes and consisted of male and female computer science university students with an intermediate level of proficiency in English. Thus, the student individual variables may have influenced our findings. Gender, for instance, has been claimed to affect learners' specific use of speech acts (Rose and Ng Kwai-fun, 2001). For this reason, we wonder whether research with either just male or female participants would provide us with different results. Similarly, age and proficiency should have also been taken into account, which means that we do not know how younger, older, beginner or advanced learners would have performed in a similar way after receiving the instruction. Consequently, there is a need for further research that examines the influence of these and other individual variables such as motivation or social and

psychological distance (Kasper and Rose, 2002) on the teachability of pragmatic competence.

Apart from our particular group of participants, a third limitation concerns the fact that, due to institutional constraints, the teacher of both treatment groups and the teacher of the control group were not the same person. Thus, although the teacher of the control group was specifically explained not to deal with any aspect related to pragmatic issues, her personality as well as her teaching style may have had an effect on learners' participation and motivation towards the activities implemented in the classroom. It would be interesting to examine whether any differences between the two teachers' styles could have affected our findings. Additionally, this issue related to the influence that a particular teacher's style may have on learners' pragmatic performance should also be investigated in future pragmatic interventional studies.

A fourth limitation our study is subjected to involves the short-term effects of the instructional treatments. The post-tests that ascertained the effects of instruction in our study were distributed the week after the last session had been implemented. We would have liked to make use of a delayed post-test in order to determine whether learners' gains in their pragmatic behaviour had been retained some time after the instructional period took place, but this was not possible due to institutional constraints. In this sense, we agree with Kasper and Rose (2002) in that further research should be carried out into the analysis of the long-term effects of instruction by adopting the use of a delayed post-test as part of the research design features.

A further limitation has to do with the fact that none of the instruments designed to collect our learners' pragmatic production elicited interactional data. Although it was not our purpose to analyse an interlocutor's possible reaction to learners' suggestions by either accepting or rejecting the suggestion being made, we find that it should be interesting to explore this kind of data in future investigations. In fact, by means of employing other research methods, such as the role-play, that involve the contribution of at least two participants, the speech act of suggestions could be examined in future studies as an

adjacency pair (Edmonson and House, 1981; Koester, 2002; LoCastro, 2003). Moreover, it would also be advisable to incorporate other types of instruments that elicit learners' self-report data, such as introspective interviews. By employing this sort of methods, the researcher may examine learners' pragmatic development by paying attention to their planning and thought processes when assessing or producing a particular pragmatic feature (Tateyama, 2001).

Finally, another limitation concerns the fact that our study followed American NSs' pragmatic norms, since this was the only English language community where we had the opportunity to record the conversations included in the videotaped situations used during our instructional sessions. However, we believe that limiting learners to a specific set of NSs' norms is not appropriate considering the fact that we live in a multilingual and plurilingual society where the use of the English language as a means of communication has grown internationally (House and Kasper, 2000; Cenoz, 2003). One consequence of this reality has been the increasing number of interactions between NNSs that employ English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in order to be able to communicate with different interlocutors in a wide variety of contexts – a fact that has given rise to a greater tolerance of NNS behaviour. For this reason, it would be very interesting to design future investigations that focus on the effects of instruction on pragmatics taking as a point of departure this framework of ELF, the main goal of which would be to raise learners' sensitivity to others' communicative needs. Nevertheless, as House (2002b) has recently claimed, although a high frequency of ELF interactions take place, only a few studies have already examined the discoursal and pragmatic characteristics underlying them. Consequently, more research is needed first on the analysis of the spoken discourse occurring in those interactions in order to obtain a corpus that may serve as input to prepare specific courses designed to improve learners' pragmatic competence in ELF (House, 2002a). On the basis of this corpus and following the proposals suggested by House (2003) for developing pragmatic competence and fluency in ELF, it should be interesting to explore how to teach pragmatics in real FL classrooms.

In conclusion, and despite the above limitations, the present study has contributed to the growing body of research investigating the effects of instruction on pragmatics and has widened the range of learning target features by focusing on the speech act of suggestions. Moreover, it has also shed some more light on the effectiveness of different teaching approaches in developing learners' pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom. Finally, we have also offered a number of fresh insights into research methodology by elaborating and employing different data collection instruments. Thus, the results obtained in this study, although tentative, may expand the scope of enquiry in the field of interlanguage pragmatics as well as open several lines of investigation to be examined in future research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Background Questionnaire

PERSONAL INFORMATION

∗Nombre:_____

∗ Edad: _____

∗ Sexo: Hombre ☐ Mujer ☐

∗ Lengua materna: Castellano ☐ Valenciano ☐
- Si es otra diferente, indica cuál: _____

∗ ¿Cuántos años has estudiado inglés? _____

∗ ¿Cuántos años estudiaste inglés en los siguientes centros de educación?

- Colegio: _____
- Instituto: _____
- Universidad: _____

∗ ¿Has estudiado inglés en otros centros (academias, EOI, etc.)?
- Si es así, indica dónde: _____
- ¿Durante cuántos años? _____
∗ ¿Qué libros de inglés has utilizado para aprender este idioma? _____
_____

∗ Especifica **con toda sinceridad** el nivel de inglés que crees que tienes en las siguientes habilidades:

1) Escuchar	2) Hablar
a. Nivel alto b. Nivel alto-intermedio c. Nivel intermedio d. Nivel bajo-intermedio e. Nivel bajo	a. Nivel alto b. Nivel alto-intermedio c. Nivel intermedio d. Nivel bajo-intermedio e. Nivel bajo
3) Leer	4) Escribir
a. Nivel alto b. Nivel alto-intermedio c. Nivel intermedio d. Nivel bajo-intermedio e. Nivel bajo	a. Nivel alto b. Nivel alto-intermedio c. Nivel intermedio d. Nivel bajo-intermedio e. Nivel bajo

∗ En general, ¿cuál crees que es tu nivel de inglés?

    a. Nivel alto
    b. Nivel alto-intermedio
    c. Nivel intermedio
    d. Nivel bajo-intermedio
    e. Nivel bajo

∗ ¿Cuál es tu principal interés por aprender inglés?
_____

∗ ¿Has visitado alguna vez algún país donde se hable inglés como idioma oficial?
- Si es así, indica qué país: _____
- ¿Cuánto tiempo estuviste allí? _____

∗ ¿Has estudiado otros idiomas extranjeros?
- Si es así, indica cuales: _____
- ¿Durante cuánto tiempo? _____

∗ ¿Mantienes contacto con alguna persona que hable inglés?
- Si es así, indica con quién (de qué país): _____
_____
- ¿Con qué frecuencia estás en contacto con esta persona? _____

∗ ¿Ves la TV, escuchas la radio o lees alguna revista o periódico en inglés?
- Si es así, indica que medio de comunicación empleas: _____
_____
- ¿Con qué frecuencia?_____

LEVEL TEST

Choose the best answer in the following sentences. Mark your answer clearly.

1) He _____ to Italy every year.
   a. is going   b. goes   c. go   d. gone

2) Pepa and Lola are sisters. Juan is _____ brother.
   a. his   b. her   c. them   d. their

3) It's a small town in the south _____ England.
   a. -   b. from   c. to   d. of

4) She usually _____ to bed about 12.
   a. does go   b. is going   c. goes   d. go

5) Mark always spills _____ milk.
   a. much   b. many   c. lots   d. a lot of

6) She _____ a black dress today.
   a. wears   b. wearing   c. are wearing   d. is wearing

7) You have a terrible cold. You _____ go to the doctor.
   a. are   b. should   c. will   d. need

8) Venice is a beautiful city, but it's very _____ .
   a. interesting   b. dirty   c. nice   d. wonderful

9) Where do you go _____?
   a. at the moment   b. after class today   c. at weekends   d. tonight

10) What is the _____ river in the world?
   a. longest   b. longer c. most long   d. more long

11) I'm _____ in the news.
   a. exciting   b. interesting   c. interested   d. interest

12) She doesn't like _____ television.
   a. looking   b. watch c. watching   d. see

13) Do you go _____ school by bus?
   a. at   b. to   c. on   d. in

14) This car always breaks down. If I _____ you, I would buy a new one.
   a. will   b. are   c. were   d. am

15) I come to England _____.
a. for to learn   b. to learning   c. to learn   d. for learn

16) I _____ the film we saw at the cinema last night.
a. doesn't like   b. haven't liked   c. didn't like   d. hasn't liked

17) Where are Peter and Jane? I want to talk to _____.
a. them   b. their   c. they   d. theirs

18) _____, I think a journey to Italy is the best idea.
a. Secondly   b. Personally   c. I don't know   d. Never

19) Is India bigger _____ Russia?
a. than   b. as   c. that   d. of

20) Mr Smith woke up in the middle of the night. He could hear _____ in his garden.
a. anybody   b. everywhere   c. someone   d. anything

21) I'd like to buy a new car, but I don't have _____ money.
a. too   b. many   c. very   d. enough

22) My partner really wants _____ the new Woody Allen movie.
a. to see   b. seeing   c. see   d. sees

23) You _____ think about looking for a job. You can't stay at home all day.
a. have   b. could   c. are   d. ought

24) Very _____ people can jump as high as his brother.
a. less   b. few   c. little   d. a little

25) Couldn't you go a little faster? I'm _____ a hurry.
a. on   b. in   c. at   d. of

26) Has Anna got a car?
a. No, she hasn't got b. No, she hasn't c. No, she haven't   d. No, she not

27) She's a doctor. _____ brother's a teacher.
a. Her   b. His   c. She's   d. She

28) What _____ you do last weekend?
a. are   b. do   c. were   d. did

29) John is _____ of dogs.
a. like   b. afraid   c. cold   d. funny

30) I'd like _____ your house.
a. to visit   b. visiting   c. a visit d. visit

31) These computers _____ sold by my neighbour.
a. are   b. will   c. have   d. is

32) There isn't _____ bread in the house.
a. a   b. nothing   c. any   d. some

33) Your uncle and _____ wife live here.
a. your   b. his   c. him   d. her

34) Paco _____ play tennis.
a. don't   b. can't   c. not can   d. doesn't can

35) _____ you should buy more ice-cream in case Mary's friends also come to the party.
a. Nowadays   b. And   c. Perhaps   d. Nevertheless

36) Listen! I _____ to you.
   a. am talk   b. do talk   c. talk   d. am talking

37) _____ people over there are English.
   a. These   b. Those   c. That   d. This

38) How long _____?
   a. did he studied   b. did he study   c. he studied   d. studied he

39) Peter is moving from his flat next weekend. I think it _____ be a good idea to help him.
   a. have   b. would   c. needs   d. is

40) Last Friday we _____ to a great party.
   a. go   b. went   c. goes   d. gone

41) I usually wear skirts, but today I _____ trousers.
   a. wears   b. wear   c. wearing   d. am wearing

42) What time _____?
   a. the lesson does start?   b. starts the lesson?
   c. does the lesson start?   d. do the lesson starts?

43) _____ you could try to open this door by using a screwdriver.
   a. But   b. Maybe   c. However   d. Besides

44) They're _____.
   a. girls beautifuls   b. girls beautiful
   c. beautifuls girls   d. beautiful girls

45) Tom and I _____ English.
   a. we are   b. are   c. am   d. is

46) It _____ be better to start a new course. This one is very difficult
   a. does   b. was   c. want   d. might

47) a. He don't speaks Spanish
    b. He doesn't speaks Spanish
    c. He not speak Spanish.
    d. He doesn't speak Spanish.

48) I'm not _____ about going out tonight. I'll call you later to tell you.
   a. afraid   b. happy   c. sure   d. upset

49) It's half past ten! I'm _____.
   a. hot   b. late   c. soon   d. wrong

50) I think John _____ translate this document.
   a. have to   b. will have   c. has   d. will have to

APPENDIX 2. Oral production test: phone pre-test

☎ **You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Make a telephone call in English after reading them.**

Situation 1:

You are helping Professor Marzal in the organisation of the "International Conference on Internet and Language". Today, you were talking to him about arranging a formal dinner with the main "guests" (important people invited to give a talk during the conference) on Friday night. When you arrive home, it occurs to you that there are several possible restaurants where this special dinner could be organised. Call your professor and suggest a good restaurant for this formal dinner:

Telephone number: 964-729867

Situation 2:

One of your best friends is interested in doing an "internship" (the practical training you do in a company when you are studying) at a particular computer company (IBM). He signed for this company at the end of last semester to make sure that he could have this choice, but now he has received a letter from the University informing him that he cannot do his internship at this company because there are not enough posts for all students. You call your friend and suggest that he go to talk to the professor:

Telephone number: 964-729624

Situation 3:

You have received a grant ("a sum of money given by an organisation for a particular purpose") to work on one of the new projects from the Computer Science Department. In the first meeting with the Director of this project, she explains to you that she would like to organise a talk for all Computer Science students about the purpose and relevance of the project. She asks you to prepare a poster announcing the talk for next Friday afternoon. When you arrive home, it occurs to you that most students from other courses have oral exams on that day. You call the professor and suggest that she change the day of the talk:

Telephone number: 964-729605

Situation 4:

One of your new classmates in this course has told you that she is thinking about changing to another degree (from Technical Engineering in Computer Systems to Computer Science Engineering) that she thinks will be more interesting. You think about what this classmate has told you and, when you arrive home, you realise that Technical Engineering in Computer Systems has some more benefits. Call this classmate and suggest a good reason for not changing from Technical Engineering in Computer Systems to Computer Science Engineering:

Telephone number: 964-728542

APPENDIX 3. Oral production test: phone post-test

☎ You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Make a telephone call in English after reading them.

Situation 1:

One of the professors you know from the Business Administration Department asks you to help him to organise a summer course on the use of PowerPoint. As part of the course, he would like to invite a professor from your Computer Science Department for a practical presentation of this programme. When you arrive home, the names of some professors from your department could participate in this course suddenly occur to you. Call the professor in charge of the course and suggest a good professor for this PowerPoint presentation:

Telephone number: 964-729867

Situation 2:

One of your best friends is interested in applying for an Erasmus scholarship for next year, but he is not sure about which University to go. On your way home, you meet another classmate who spent last semester at the University of Holland. He tells you that he enjoyed his stay at this University because the technical courses were very good and all the professors were very supportive. Based on what you have heard from this classmate, you call your friend and suggest that he go to this University:

Telephone number: 964-729624

Situation 3:

You have started working on a project with a newly arrived professor in the department. One day, she tells you that she would like to buy several specialised books related to the content of the project. At that moment you can't remember any specialised bookshop on computer science material, but when you arrive home, it occurs to you that there is one bookshop where one finds a section of computer books. You call the professor and suggest that she go to this particular bookshop:

Telephone number: 964-729605

Situation 4:

One of your new classmates in this course is having a problem deciding which subject to take next year – Industrial Computers or Multimedia – because both of them are offered at the same time. She thinks that Industrial Computers would be better, but she is not sure. You are thinking about what your classmate has told you and you find out that Multimedia has some more benefits. Call this classmate and suggest a good reason that makes the subject of Multimedia a better option:

Telephone number: 964-728542

APPENDIX 4. Written production test: email pre-test

✍ **You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Write and send an email in English to these people.**

Situation 1:

Your professor is thinking of doing an outdoor activity at the end of the course, and she asks the class for ideas. Can you think of any activity you would like your professor to do? Send your professor an email with a good suggestion:

To: aflor@fil.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 2:

Your friend is thinking of buying a new computer. She does not know whether to buy a PC or a Macintosh. Send her an email suggesting that she buy the computer that in your opinion is better for her:

To: ibeltran@emp.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 3:

The Director of the Computer Science Department is interested in knowing students' opinion about the subject of Electronics. He would like to know how you think the teaching of this subject could be improved for next year. Send the director an email suggesting a good idea about how this particular subject could be taught more effectively to computer science students:

To: madrid@fil.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 4:

Your brother has a friend (younger than you) who wants to study computer science, just like you. He would like to know which subjects to take the first year and something about their content. Send him an email and suggest that he take a particular subject that you found very interesting last year:

To: lasuperbestia@yahoo.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

APPENDIX 5. Written production test: email post-test

✍ **You are going to read four different situations. Imagine that you are in those situations. Write and send an email in English to these people.**

Situation 1:

Your professor is interested in knowing students' opinions about activities that they would like to have implemented in the syllabus for next course. Can you think of any activity you would like your professor to include in this subject next course? Send your professor an email with a good suggestion:

To: aflor@fil.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 2:

Your friend is thinking of looking for a job this summer. She does not know whether to send the CV to different companies or go personally to each one. Send her an email suggesting the best option:

To: ibeltran@emp.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 3:

While organising a workshop on the creation of websites for students of non-computer science degrees to be offered the next academic year, the Director of the Computer Science Department is interested in students' ideas about it. In particular, he would like to know your opinion about the materials that could be employed. Send the director an email suggesting a good book on designing websites that could be employed during this workshop:

To: madrid@fil.uji.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

Situation 4:

Your brother has a friend (younger than you) who wants to buy a new colour printer. Since he knows that you are studying a Computer Science degree and you understand about computers and printers, he would like to know which printers are best in terms of both quality and price. Send him an email and suggest that he buy a particular printer that you find cheap and of good quality:

To: lasuperbestia@yahoo.es

Subject: IS14- _____ (*your name*)

APPENDIX 6. Rating assessment test: pre-test

Name: _____ Group: _____

Vas a leer 8 situaciones diferentes en las que estás hablando con otro estudiante o profesor. Piensa que ambos son del mismo sexo que tú, y respecto a la edad, considera que el estudiante tiene la misma edad que tú y el profesor tiene aproximadamente 40 años. Tienes que leer detenidamente la última contestación marcada con una flecha en cada situación y decidir los siguientes aspectos:

¿Crees que la última contestación utilizada en cada situación es apropiada o inapropiada en ese contexto? Juzga el grado de adecuación de cada contestación siguiendo una escala desde 1 (totalmente inapropiada) a 5 (totalmente apropiada). Dependiendo de tu elección tienes dos opciones:

a) *Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada) en una determinada contestación, subraya la parte de esa contestación que te hace pensar que es inapropiada y escribe otra expresión que creas que sería más apropiada para dicha situación.*

b) *Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada) en una determinada contestación, indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada.*

Además, cuando juzgues la adecuación de cada contestación, juzga también tu grado de seguridad al dar tu respuesta en una escala desde 1 (no seguro/a) a 5 (seguro/a).

Situation 1

You are talking to one of your best friends who is studying Computer Science Engineering. Both of you are talking about your plans for the next semester.

	Friend:	I am thinking of taking Computer Architecture next semester.
	You:	I have heard that this subject is very difficult and you are also doing the internship, aren't you?
	Friend:	Yes, I'm starting my internship next month.
⇒	You:	That's a lot of work. Why don't you wait until next year for that subject?

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 2

The first day of the class, your new professor says to the whole class:

	Professor:	Excuse me, as far as the syllabus is organised, I've decided to give you a choice as a class, since we have time either to do Java or Visual Basic, but not both. I'm happy teaching you either one. What do you think?
⇒	You:	No question. Go with Java!

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 3

You are talking to one of your new classmates during one of your classes at the computer lab. Your classmate wants to buy a new computer.

	Classmate:	I need a new computer and I am thinking of buying an IBM.
⇒	You:	I would probably suggest that you buy a "clone" instead of an IBM.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 4

During a second meeting, one of your professors, with whom you are working as an assistant on a research project, tells you:

	Professor:	I had a question and was going to send you an email, but I'll ask you right here. I know you're very fond of programming languages and I would like to ask you your opinion about setting up Visual C or C/ C++ for the next stage in our project. Which do you think would be more suitable?
⇒	You:	That's easy! Everybody knows that Visual C is better.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 5

You are talking to one of your new classmates during a class break. Your classmate is looking for a job:

	Classmate:	You know… I need a job, but I've got all this studying to do, too.
⇒	You:	Yeah, I hear you … if you want, you can just look at the classifieds in the newspaper. I have a friend who found a great part-time job that way.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 6

You meet one of your newly arrived professors in the line at the snack bar. This professor is in charge of the Erasmus interchange programme of your department during this new course.

	Professor:	Excuse me, are you in Statistics? I think I saw you yesterday in my class.
	You:	Yes, I am attending Statistics.
	Professor:	You know, I am new here and I am in charge of the Erasmus interchange programme. I would like to organise a talk to provide students with the information about the Erasmus scholarships. I am asking some students from different courses to check when they have some free time to attend the talk. When do you think it would be better in your class?
⇒	You:	I am not sure about the other students, but I think a good idea would be to organise it on Friday morning.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 7

You meet your best friend in one of the computer labs at the University.

	You:	Hey, what's up?
	Friend:	Not much. I'm looking for some information for a paper, but I can't find anything.
⇒	You:	Personally, I would recommend that you look into Google.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____

_____

_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 8

You go to see one of your favourite professors during office hours.

	You:	(knock on the door)
	Professor:	Come in.
	You:	Are you busy now?
	Professor:	No, no. Please come in … have a seat. Thanks for stopping by. How are your classes going on?
	You:	Fine, thanks. Actually, since the final exams are approaching, I would like to discuss some of my ideas for the course project. I was thinking of designing a website about the most well-known computer companies in the country.
	Professor:	Well, it sounds very interesting. In fact, I was also thinking about organising a workshop on website design. When do you think it would be a good time for students to attend it?
⇒	You:	Well, since students are now so busy preparing for exams, I think it might be better to schedule it after the exam period.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____

_____

_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX 7. Rating assessment test: post-test

Name: _____ Group: _____

Vas a leer 8 situaciones diferentes en las que estás hablando con otro estudiante o profesor. Piensa que ambos son del mismo sexo que tú, y respecto a la edad, considera que el estudiante tiene la misma edad que tú y el profesor tiene aproximadamente 40 años. Tienes que leer detenidamente la última contestación marcada con una flecha en cada situación y decidir los siguientes aspectos:

¿Crees que la última contestación utilizada en cada situación es apropiada o inapropiada en ese contexto? Juzga el grado de adecuación de cada contestación siguiendo una escala desde 1 (totalmente inapropiada) a 5 (totalmente apropiada). Dependiendo de tu elección tienes dos opciones:

a) *Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada) en una determinada contestación, subraya la parte de esa contestación que te hace pensar que es inapropiada y escribe otra expresión que creas que sería más apropiada para dicha situación.*

b) *Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada) en una determinada contestación, indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada.*

Además, cuando juzgues la adecuación de cada contestación, juzga también tu grado de seguridad al dar tu respuesta en una escala desde 1 (no seguro/a) a 5 (seguro/a).

Situation 1

You see your best friend working on a laptop in the library at the University.

	You:	Hey, what's up?
	Friend:	Not much. I've been working on this paper all day.
	You:	You look tired!
	Friend:	Yeah, I'm quite tired and my eyes have been aching since this morning.
⇒	You:	Well, no wonder! Look how dim your screen is. Why don't you brighten it?

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 2

You are going to attend a summer course about the use of Internet programming languages, such as HTML, PHP and XHTML. The first day of class you're the first person to arrive. You start talking to the professor, whom you met for the first time today. At one point the professor asks you:

	Professor:	Are you interested in Internet programming languages?
	You:	Yes, I am. In fact, I'm thinking about majoring in Computer Science.
	Professor:	Great. So, if you are student here, you must know all the classes at the University. I would like to ask the class for suggestions about making a practical presentation at the end of the course, but I don't know where we could do it. Do you think we could book another lab here at the University?
⇒	You:	Oh, that's easy! Just book the auditorium.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 3
In a big class, you start talking to one of your new classmates. Your classmate is very interested in reading some recently updated books on the application of new technologies in the field of education. At one point, your classmate tells you:

	Classmate:	I was at the library yesterday, but they only have old books.
	You:	What are you looking for?
	Classmate:	I need some things on technology in education, and I can't find one single book in the whole place!
⟹	You:	I would probably suggest that you try the interlibrary loan programme.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 4
You meet one of your professors while making some photocopies for your class:

	Professor:	Good morning. How is everything going?
	You:	Fine, thank you.
	Professor:	Do you have to make some copies? I can let you go first, because I have a lot of them to do.
	You:	Oh, thank you. I only have to make two copies.
	Professor:	By the way, I was making photocopies of these graphs for our next class, but they're not coming out very well. What do you think? Is there a way to make them clearer?
⟹	You:	I'll show you! All you have to do is use the zoom feature.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 5

You see a new classmate before one of your classes. This classmate approaches you and asks you:

	Classmate:	Excuse me, aren't you in Statistics?
	You:	Yeah, I thought I recognised you.
	Classmate:	You know… I can't find the textbook for this course at the bookshop. What do you think I should do? We have an assignment for tomorrow, don't we?
⟹	You:	Yeah, here … if you want, you can just take my book and copy the pages for tomorrow. After that, you can bring it by my room tonight

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 6

You are working as an assistant in the departmental office. A new professor arrives and asks you about setting up the email account:

	Professor:	Excuse me, I am new at the University and I don't know how to set up my email account. Could you explain to me how to do it?
⟹	You:	I am not sure about it, but I think a good idea would be to call the HELP desk at the computer centre.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a

1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 7
You see one of your best friends in the library:

	You:	Hey, what's up?
	Friend:	Not much. I've been looking for one of my new professors all day, but I haven't been able to find this professor.
	You:	Did the professor have office hours today?
	Friend:	That's the problem – there aren't any office hours posted on the door.
⇒	You:	Personally, I would recommend that you send this professor an email to make an appointment.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 8
You meet one of your favourite professors at the Computer Science Department office. The professor tells you that the department is organising a videoconference with the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). This morning, the Director of the MIT called your professor.

	Professor:	I've been talking to the Director of the MIT this morning and we are thinking about two possible topics for the videoconference: either discussing new Anti-virus protection programmes or developing a new system of Net meetings among students from different countries. We would like to ask students their opinion about which topic would be better for this first videoconference. What do you think?
⇒	You:	Well, I think it might be better to deal with developing a new system of Net meetings.

Totalmente inapropiada   Totalmente apropiada
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

No seguro/a   Seguro/a
1☐   2☐   3☐   4☐   5☐

a) Si marcas 1 o 2 (inapropiada), subraya la parte que crees que es inapropiada y escribe una expresión que en tu opinión sería más apropiada en esta situación:

_____
_____
_____

b) Si marcas 3 (neutra), 4 o 5 (apropiada), indica por qué crees que es neutra o apropiada:

_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX 8. Questionnaire after treatment

Name: _____ Group: _____

Vas a leer varias preguntas sobre este curso. Puedes contestar en el idioma que desees. Es muy importante que contestes a todas ellas con <u>completa sinceridad</u> expresando tu opinión:

1. ¿Qué has aprendido en las clases de prácticas hasta ahora?

2. ¿Te gustan las actividades que se están empleando en esta clase?

3. ¿Encuentras estas actividades útiles para poder comunicarte en inglés?
   Si no es así, ¿cómo mejorarías las clases?

4. ¿Cómo te sientes cuando estás haciendo las actividades?

   ☐ Motivado/a
   ☐ Nervioso/a
   ☐ Aburrido/a
   ☐ Interesado/a

APPENDIX 9. Final questionnaire for the Implicit Group

Name: _____ Group: _____

Contesta a las siguientes preguntas con <u>completa sinceridad</u> expresando tu opinión:

1. ¿Te diste cuenta durante las clases de prácticas que la profesora algunas veces dijo: " ... You said ↗ ... OK ↗" durante los role-plays? Justifica tu respuesta: ¿por qué crees que lo hizo?

    ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

2. ¿Trataste de encontrar las reglas para hacer sugerencias en inglés durante los role-plays? Justifica tu respuesta: describe lo que averiguaste / aprendiste.

    ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

APPENDIX 10. Video scripts for the Explicit Group

SITUATION 1

1.	Tajala:	Hi Christina
2.	Christina:	Hi Tajala. How are you doing?
3.	Tajala:	Good. What's up? What are you up to?
4.	Christina:	I can't find the ... I can't find any information on Multimedia
5.		programmes.
6.	Tajala:	Multimedia? What do you need that for?
7.	Christina:	I'll just, ... this project that I'm doing.
8.	Tajala:	So, what site are you right know?
9.	Christina:	I'm in the University ... uh ... library.
10.	Tajala:	OK. Have you tried ... uh... the ERIC database?
11.	Christina:	Uh... I've never heard of it.
12.	Tajala:	Uh, um. OK, well, why don't you go into the title? It's a
13.		pretty good database. It tells you ... where ...
14.	Christina:	[where to go?]
15.	Tajala:	The little index? Browse index by title
16.	Christina:	Uh, OK.
17.	Tajala:	Yeah
18.	Christina:	I should write this down.
19.	Tajala:	It's really helpful.
20.	Christina:	OK, let me get my pen.
21.	Tajala:	Have a piece of paper!
22.	Christina:	OK... Thank you.
23.	Tajala:	You're welcome.
24.	Christina:	Mm … OK, so you go into title ...
25.	Tajala:	and then, database, OK ... and then, just go down ... to
26.		the middle ... and it's right there ... the educational
27.		resources permission ... Yeah
28.	Christina:	ERIC, OK!
29.	Tajala:	and then just click on the ERIC ... [Christina clicking on that
30.		site] yeah ... that!
31.	Tajala:	So, this is the database ... then you can just ...
32.	Christina:	Oh /guau/
33.	Tajala:	you know, Multimedia, wherever type of word you're
34.		looking for ...
35.	Christina:	Oh. That was very helpful!
36.	Tajala:	And then, another thing you might wanna try is Google?
37.		Have you tried that? The search agent?
38.	Christina:	Oh. I never tried it.
39.	Tajala:	So ...
40.	Christina:	Is this right here?
41.	Tajala:	Yeah. So, just type Google dot com and then you can
42.		just type something really general ... Multimedia!
43.	Christina:	OK! [clicking]
44.	Tajala:	So, yeah, I guess you want different resources, may I give
45.		you out some ...
46.	Christina:	Eh ... [writing down] Google
47.	Tajala:	dot com
48.	Christina:	dot com. OK! ... Oh. That's helpful.
49.	Tajala:	Yeah ... So, ...
50.	Christina:	Eh ... what time is it?
51.	Tajala:	Uh ... I think it's eight. Eight fifteen. Have you had
52.		breakfast yet?
53.	Christina:	I haven't.
54.	Tajala:	Do you want some coffee or something?
55.	Christina:	That sounds great ... and I'll be back. Thank so much. That
56.		was so helpful.
57.	Tajala:	No problem. Anytime.
58.	Christina:	OK. Let's go and get some coffee!

SITUATION 2

1.	Anthony:	Excuse me. Hi, I'm Tony.
2.	Vanessa:	Hi. I'm Vanessa.
3.	Anthony:	I was wondering if you help ... I have kind of ...
4.	Vanessa:	Sure
5.	Anthony:	... a problem looking for this ... Multimedia. Could you help me ...
6.	Vanessa:	Sure
7.	Anthony:	... for a second?
8.	Vanessa:	Sure
9.	Anthony:	Right. I appreciate.
10.	Vanessa:	No problem.
11.	Anthony:	Oh ...
12.	Vanessa:	OK. So, what's the problem? You basically, I think you need
13.		to proper open one this first.
14.	Anthony:	Yeah. I know that and I've already gone to the UH website and
15.		I know how this goes ... library ... this ERIC database
16.	Vanessa:	OK. Yeah, you just go right here in the library base ...
17.	Anthony:	Right
18.	Vanessa:	... and you click on that one, ... and then ... uh... let's see ...
19.		where the ... where is the UH?
20.	Anthony:	this one!
21.	Vanessa:	Yeah, Manoa library
22.	Anthony:	That's ours
23.	Vanessa:	Yeah ... and then we go to databases and ...
24.	Anthony:	Right. That's what the teacher said. Right
25.	Vanessa:	indexes, but then ... you go to title and you probably need a topic ...
26.	Anthony:	Oh, yeah
27.	Vanessa:	... because title is easier and then you can find ERIC by the
28.		name because your topic is really hard to find a section ... so you just
29.		press ERIC ... and you just click on that too ...
30.	Vanessa:	So, what are you working on?
31.	Anthony:	Ah ... I'm doing this research project for my television media class ...
32.	Vanessa:	That's cool
33.	Anthony:	... and I'm looking for ... research ... programme ...
34.	Vanessa:	Cool! ... All right, so, here we are and I think you just type
35.		in Multimedia programmes ... whatever is you're looking for ...
36.		[Anthony typing]
37.	Vanessa:	Oh ... you forgot ... the T
38.	Anthony:	... uh... just type ...
39.	Vanessa:	[laughing] uh ... you forgot the M
40.		[Vanessa typing]
41.	Vanessa:	... and then ... it's keyword because then it gives you more options you
42.		can find and you just press search ... Oh! Exact phrase. If it doesn't
43.		give you exactly, it says you can say exact phrase, but you can
44.		also just go by the words
45.	Anthony:	No, no
46.	Vanessa:	exact phrase gives you a lot less results, but if you have trouble finding
47.		what you want
48.	Anthony:	Let's see it gives sixty-seven
49.	Vanessa:	So that's ... I mean, that's quite a lot ... So,
50.	Anthony:	… university certificates
51.	Anthony:	You know, I need sort of publication and I need the most recent staff
52.	Vanessa:	OK, so you can go here ... earliest ...
53.	Anthony:	Right
54.	Vanessa:	... you can go from ... so you want to ... Well, that's nineteen two
55.		thousand
56.	Anthony:	two thousand one 'cos that's that's where …
57.	Vanessa:	OK
58.	Anthony:	a class?
59.	Vanessa:	OK. So, you can search again.
60.	Anthony:	OK! So, we're narrowing down ...Yeah, that's really interesting. I just
61.		had lot of trouble researching on Internet. It's really nice to have
62.		someone here to help me out.
63.	Vanessa:	Oh. No problem. No problem
64.	Anthony:	… I really appreciate that.
65.	Vanessa:	I used this a lot for my artistic class. They have a database here which
66.		is really good.

67.	Anthony:	Uh
68.	Vanessa:	Oh. Let's see … so, uh. This you've got one… just one answer. It's
69.		that what you want? Children with red syndrome
70.	Anthony:	Uh. No.
71.	Vanessa:	That seems kind of specific. So …
72.	Anthony:	Let's wider the range year.
73.	Vanessa:	OK. Ninety-five! Nineteen ninety-five
74.	Anthony:	ninety-seven, ninety-seven
75.	Vanessa:	ninety-seven?
76.	Anthony:	We can't go that far back it is this class … this topic is … more …
77.		current issues
78.	Vanessa:	Yeah!
79.	Anthony:	OK, so we have fifteen there …Right
80.	Vanessa:	So, you have basically … I think it's just a matter of trying ERIC
81.		and if you're finding … this gives you exactly what you want, I will try
82.		to go is as supposed to keywords, you can go under … uh… title
83.		or author, if you have something specific you're looking for …
84.		and any of the words. I think that will give you more options …
85.		So, yeah…
86.	Anthony:	Great. Are there any other sites I can …?
87.	Vanessa:	Yeah
88.	Anthony:	… do you know about?
89.	Vanessa:	You know, if you wanna go outside the school sites, I use Google a
90.		lot. There's Google and Yahoo. Do you know about those?
91.	Anthony:	Yeah. Right. OK. Yeah.
92.	Vanessa:	This is Google and you can do … the … this will give you a lot more
93.		options. I think the other one will give you things that you have
94.		here at school, but this gives you just, you probably get a thousand
95.		something, you probably get over a thousand. Let's see … Yeah, we
96.		got a million … six hundred thousand answers [laughing] See … this
97.		is something you might wanna be more specific …
98.	Anthony:	Yeah
99.	Vanessa:	… if you have something specific in mind … and not only, we'll give
100.		you the web, but if, but if, you're looking for a specific image, there is
101.		an image section, a group section, directory …
102.	Anthony:	[Uh]
103.	Vanessa:	…and then, something else is Yahoo, is a really good one.
104.	Anthony:	Oh, actually, Yahoo uses Google.
105.	Vanessa:	Really?
106.	Anthony:	Yeah
107.	Vanessa:	All right, well, then just use Google. Uh … so, yeah, you might
108.		wanna be more specific 'cos I think a million might …uh…
109.		take you a while
110.	Anthony:	OK
111.	Vanessa:	Oh, and you know, what else might be interesting to you? When I
112.		was in Keller Hall, I saw there's a conference going on about
113.		Multimedia programmes…
114.	Anthony:	Oh, really?
115.	Vanessa:	Yeah, you should go and check the notes on board for the dates …
116.	Anthony:	OK. I think I should go for that
117.	Vanessa:	… I just saw it today.
118.	Anthony:	Thanks a lot
119.	Vanessa:	Yeah. No problem.
120.	Anthony:	Were you … are you … free to go?
121.	Vanessa:	[laughing] Sure!
122.	Anthony:	You seem … so nice
123.	Vanessa:	No, no … yeah … I mean … Actually, it's interesting. I'm in a computer
124.		class for Fotoshop and the teacher, and he was saying we should go,
125.		it's extra credit, … so perhaps I should go if you wanna. It's actually
126.		kind of … so yeah … Maybe I'll see you there.
127.	Anthony:	OK
128.	Vanessa:	OK
129.	Anthony:	I'll see you there. Thanks for your time.
130.	Vanessa:	No problem, …
131.	Anthony:	I appreciate it
132.	Vanessa:	… no problem

SITUATION 3

1.	Martha:	Hi
2.	Sarah:	Hi. How are you today?
3.	Martha:	Fine, thank you Sarah.
4.	Sarah:	That's good.
5.	Martha:	How're you doing?
6.	Sarah:	OK. OK.
7.	Martha:	Very good.
8.	Sarah:	We were talking about … uh… Multimedia programmes to use for the
9.		presentation …
10.	Martha:	Yes
11.	Sarah:	… and uh… I think a good idea would be to do that because it
12.		would help the students to learn faster
13.	Martha:	Good, that's what I said
14.	Sarah:	… and I think PowerPoint would probably be a …
15.	Martha:	PowerPoint?
16.	Sarah:	Yeah, what do you think about that?
17.	Martha:	Uh, yeah, I actually would like you to learn wherever you think is
18.		gonna be useful for you to learn, so …
19.	Sarah:	OK
20.	Martha:	I don't know … what kind of things would you uh… want me to
21.		present to you or what kind of things would you like me to teach you?
22.		And …
23.	Sarah:	I think the main thing would be how to set up uh… the Multimedia
24.		parts of PowerPoint. The way the screens can move in and out …
25.	Martha:	OK!
26.	Sarah:	… when changing frames, there's different ways the screens come in…
27.	Martha:	Uh
28.	Sarah:	… to to the monitor
29.	Martha:	Uh
30.	Sarah:	… ahm… and I think that's helpful because it's not only … ahm… is
31.		eye-catching … it causes the the student to focus a little bit more on
32.		change and so that their attention is better then …
33.	Martha:	OK. What about the content? What would you like me to use for
34.		content? What do you think it would be a good thing to present?
35.	Sarah:	Ahm … lots of colour, of course, I think colour is good. You mean the
36.		types … eh … of titles and the subject matter?
37.	Martha:	both
38.	Sarah:	… is that what you …? … OK. OK. Ahm let's see: subject matter
39.		uh… how it relates to the student to be a little more
40.	Martha:	It has to relate to the unit we've seen.
41.	Sarah:	To the unit!
42.	Martha:	So, what would you like me to include? or …
43.	Sarah:	Can you can you scan pictures in?
44.	Martha:	Yeah
45.	Sarah:	… and then use it that way?
46.	Martha:	Yeah. we can do that!
47.	Sarah:	That would be good.
48.	Martha:	Well, what else do you think I should …?
49.	Sarah:	… and then, uh…mm Well, for [laughing] for me personally uh…
50.		it would be helpful if you have … the explanation of the of the
51.		paintings … one side of the of the screen could could be the
52.		explanation in Spanish and then the other side could be in English,
53.		so then …
54.	Martha:	Uh
55.	Sarah:	… so they can see the comparison …
56.	Martha:	OK, yeah
57.	Sarah:	… because some students in the class are better at understanding
58.		and reading and translating than others and so, the point is for them to
59.		understand the meaning of the picture first than being able to translate
60.		in Spanish …
61.	Martha:	OK
62.	Sarah:	… so, it would be helpful to have both there
63.	Martha:	OK. And do you want me to get the meaning from somewhere or …
64.		you get my interpretation … your guys' interpretation because …
65.	Sarah:	Uh
66.	Martha:	nothing written about art …
67.	Sarah:	I think your interpretation would be helpful for us because you

68.		have much more of the background and culture, and maybe that
69.		would help them place the picture in a certain historical context…
70.	Martha:	OK. I'll do that
71.	Sarah:	So, I think that would be helpful
72.	Martha:	Actually, do you think it would help if the students look for the maybe
73.		find the author's idea on the Internet maybe?
74.	Sarah:	That would be a great idea because then, they can learn about the
75.		background of the of the author or the painter or art. Something like
76.		that in addition to the the piece of work …
77.	Martha:	OK. What do you think I should teach then, so you can go and look for
78.		that information?
79.	Sarah:	Uh
80.	Martha:	… something new or …
81.	Sarah:	I don't think so 'cos I think the class is pretty versed in … in using the
82.		Internet and the different search agents that are available but I do, but
83.		we will be doing it in Spanish though, …
84.	Martha:	Yeah
85.	Sarah:	… correct? Yeah so, that will be, it's it's interesting to look at different
86.		websites unless you … know some that you could give us to …
87.		where you find … have found that there's more information that
88.		would be helpful too.
89.	Martha:	OK. We can do that.
90.	Sarah:	and … either bookmark ahead of time to save time because it's really
91.		not on the function of finding the site … it's more on …
92.	Martha:	on reading while listening
93.	Sarah:	Yeah, it's more the content than than the finding … so maybe
94.		bookmark a couple of sites that you know about …
95.	Martha:	OK, because last chapter we have things about people, so let's see
96.		things about, you know, Rigoberta or Che, this, this is more abstract.
97.		Yes, art is a good suggestion.
98.	Sarah:	Yes, I think it would be it would be, of course, it's a favour of mine,
99.		so…
100.	Martha:	Ah. You like art
101.	Sarah:	Yes, yes.
102.	Martha:	OK. Any else … anything else that that you would like me to do?
103.	Sarah:	Uh … let's see … anything that can be pulled in from a Multimedia
104.		stand point … uh… video eh, audio, maybe different songs might
105.		be nice … uh… I don't know … I'm not that versed in
106.		technology, so I'm not sure whether or not … uh I know …
107.		maybe there will be a site that would have songs as well …
108.		Spanish songs … from the same period of the art so that you could
109.		put into more of the historical context, the type of music that was
110.		probably in society at the time that the painter was making his work, I
111.		mean, sometimes there is an influence there, at the in the Broads
112.		period and things like that in the European history sometimes there is
113.		an influence … so
114.	Martha:	Uh, Uh So, you think, we can have a group working on, maybe
115.		searching for the art, another group working on the music, another
116.		group working on the background … on the artist …
117.	Sarah:	on the artist, artist. Right
118.	Martha:	… and then getting all together
119.	Sarah:	… from from the same historical period, maybe from uh… some
120.		some of the works we've been looking at from the colonial period, and
121.		so… and some from from the period of discovery in in when all the
122.		explorers were going around and finding around all these new lands to
123.		conquer uh… that might be something that would be interesting
124.	Martha:	OK. Sounds good, sounds like a very good idea.
125.	Sarah:	that would be fine
126.	Martha:	Excellent. Thank you very much.
127.	Sarah:	You're welcome. Thank you.
128.	Martha:	[laughing]

SITUATION 4

1.		[sound of someone knocking on the door]
2.	Jamie:	Come in!
3.		[door opens]
4.	Jamie:	Oh … hello!
5.	Christine:	Hi sir. I'm such in trouble
6.	Jamie:	Have a seat, have a seat!
7.	Christine:	I'm looking for Professor Williams.
8.	Jamie:	Oh … Uh Yeah … This this is his office. I'm sharing his office with
9.		him just temporarily. I'm a visiting scholar. I just got here yesterday
10.		uh… his his desk is over there, he's out for five minutes. He should
11.		be back. You you can just stay there. Excuse me …
12.	Christine:	Oh, OK. OK. I don't want to disturbe you. Sorry.
13.	Jamie:	No, no. I've got to work on this. This is this is a big paper,
14.		I got to get it out by tomorrow, so just need to save it and … Oh, oh,
15.		oh … Oh, my goodness! What … uh… what what happened to it?
16.	Christine:	Oh dear! Something wrong? Sorry, sorry …
17.	Jamie:	Do you do you do you know anything about computers?
18.	Christine:	A little bit, I'm I'm sorry I'm not … computer major or anything like that
19.	Jamie:	Shit! What's wrong with this? I'm clicking is not … Is
20.		there … is there some place on campus I can go to get this take care?
21.	Christine:	Let's see. The best place to go would probably be Keller Hall. Do
22.		you know where Keller Hall is?
23.	Jamie:	Ah … No, is it is it near by here?
24.	Christine:	It is … It is relatively close… if you simply walk out of this building and
25.		head to the Hamilton Library and … actually …
26.	Jamie:	OK. I know where is …
27.	Christine:	Oh, do you know where it is? OK. Great.
28.	Jamie:	Oh … if that doesn't work, is there some place else?
29.	Christine:	Actually there there is, I would recommend that, if if you have the time, it
30.		might be better to call …
31.	Jamie:	I don't have the time …
32.	Christine:	[laughing] Oh, you don't …
33.	Jamie:	… this this thing has to get out, I can't figure out …
34.	Christine:	OK. Perhaps calling CompUSA or maybe OfficeDepo, they
35.		probably …
36.	Jamie:	Are those here right in Honolulu?
37.	Christine:	Yes, yes indeed. And ah …maybe calling the information number four
38.		/ou ou/ one or perhaps looking for … I'm sorry I don't
39.		have those numbers.
40.	Jamie:	No, no thanks
41.	Christine:	Uh
42.	Jamie:	… I have I have to have this worked out. … Thanks a lot.
43.	Christine:	Oh, no problem.

SITUATION 5

		[a girl watching TV and another girl arrives at the TV lounge]
1.	Laura:	Hey, documentary?
2.	Kristen:	Hey, sure
3.	Laura:	I'm Laura.
4.	Kristen:	Hi, I'm Kristen.
5.	Larura:	You're new here?
6.	Kristen:	Yes, I've just moved here. So, I'm gonna turn this off.
7.	Laura:	OK.
8.	Kristen:	Oh… I was in the dorms.
9.	Laura:	Oh, I'm sorry.
10.	Kristen:	Yeah [laughing]
11.	Laura:	It's horrible!
12.	Kristen:	Yeah [laughing] So, I've just moved here, but uh... my computer
13.		broke down, so … this is … I have all that staff here …
14.	Laura:	/Guau/
15.	Kristen:	… and I just don't know how to do because I don't have much

16.		money …
17.	Laura:	Uh
18.	Kristen:	… and you know, I want a really good computer …
19.	Laura:	Right
20.	Kristen:	… you know, I want, everyone has DVD players … and ..
21.	Laura:	Yeah, but you don't need that …
22.	Kristen:	Oh, you don't think I need a DVD player.
23.	Laura:	Uh… I don't think you need a DVD player .. uh… Have
24.		you looked at …?
25.	Kristen:	Look … all of my … [showing brochures]
26.	Laura:	I don't know if … this is of help … uh … Have you tried
27.		looking around the different signs … in the dorm here?
28.	Kristen:	Oh … Are there signs selling computers?
29.	Laura:	I know a few people are selling them, but I don't know how
30.		good they are … The problem is …
31.	Kristen:	How much do you think they are?
32.	Laura:	Oh, I don't even know, but probably they're leaving next semester …
33.	Kristen:	Uh
34.	Laura:	… So , you might wanna try giving them a call!
35.	Kristen:	Uh
36.	Laura:	And you say, well, this is my deal. What can I do?
37.	Kristen:	Uh
38.	Laura:	… and I don't …
39.	Kristen:	Do you have a computer?
40.	Laura:	I have, but a really nice one. I'm a I'm a PC … fanatic, so …
41.	Kristen:	So, you think ...it's easy ...
42.	Laura:	So, I'm not I'm not gonna be objective about Macs. I can't stand them,
43.		uhm, but you might wanna try to talk to someone who is more
44.		objective than I am… I … I start using a Mac when I was at
45.		Elementary School …
46.	Kristen:	Uh
47.	Laura:	… and
48.	Kristen:	Macs seem to be more expensive than PCs.
49.	Laura:	Macs are more expensive. They're they're easier to use but I found
50.		trouble getting them related with other computers
51.	Kristen:	Uh
52.	Laura:	… so it depends on what you wanna do!
53.	Kristen:	Uh
54.	Laura:	but I can't I can't be objective I … I can't stand Macs …
55.	Kristen:	Uh
56.	Laura:	…So, yeah! There's … have you have you met around this guy
57.		called Bryan?
58.	Kristen:	No, no I don't know Bryan.
59.	Laura:	Right! Oh, I don't know his number …I'll find what is his number … Oh
60.		… You might wanna try talking to him …
61.	Kristen:	Uh
62.	Laura:	He's a Mac fanatic, so he's more objective …
63.	Kristen:	Uh
64.	Laura:	First, he used PCs, and now he uses Macs
65.	Kristen:	Oh OK
66.	Laura:	I'll give you his number later.
67.	Kristen:	Uh
68.	Laura:	seven three … something something seven three … something
69.		something … uh… Yeah. From whatever .. The good things about
70.		Macs is that they can be set up very easily,
71.	Kristen:	Uh
72.	Laura:	… but they're not … they're useful ... if you wanna use everyday …
73.		eh … you have to use special software from those programmes
74.	Kristen:	Uh
75.	Laura:	… and things like that …
76.	Kristen:	Uh
77.	Laura:	but … Eventually! Uh… I gave you a website yet?
78.	Kristen:	Nooo
79.	Laura:	No, it's another option. It's a great website.
80.	Kristen:	Do they have a lot of information?
81.	Laura:	They've a lot of information, but they are also biased towards PCs
82.	Kristen:	PCs! Uh
83.	Laura:	Uh and I think there's a Mac website, uh… I just … the word and
84.		something … and type …
85.	Kristen:	Uh

86.	Laura:	the Mac …
87.	Kristen:	Uh
88.	Laura:	they they are for Mac obviously, …
89.	Kristen:	Uh
90.	Laura:	but they simply sell Macs
91.	Kristen:	Do you know any computer stores in this area?
92.	Laura:	Yeah … There's CompUSA which is … do you know where Ala
93.		Moana is?
94.	Kristen:	Uh
95.	Laura:	Ala… in Moana!
96.	Kristen:	Yeah. I've just moved here. I'm just new to the building.
97.	Laura:	Oh. New… to the build… Got! OK! I was just thinking, you move here
98.		you want to buy a computer, /uah/. You might wanna try going to
99.		CompUSA. The problem is that they're gonna try give you a sales
100.		pitch ...
101.	Kristen:	Uh
102.	Laura:	and just going there with a mentality that they're gonna give you
103.		a sales pitch…
104.	Kristen:	Uh
105.	Laura:	and some people like going Radio Shack. I don't like Radio Shack.
106.	Kristen:	Uh
107.	Laura:	Sorry, I'm very fanatic as you can tell.
108.	Kristen:	Uh
109.	Laura:	… but Radio Shack seems to me more that sell for the commission
110.	Kristen:	Uh
111.	Laura:	so, they're going to try and sell you something
112.	Kristen:	Uh
113.	Laura:	CompUSA, they give not biased information
114.	Kristen:	Uh
115.	Laura:	I think and … get some … say what other people say
116.	Kristen:	Uh
117.	Laura:	They seem to me more into day, you know, they're not gonna try to
118.		sell you something around the back. They are going to try to sell it
119.		to you.
120.	Kristen:	OK
121.	Laura:	But what did you use before?
122.	Kristen:	Ah … I usually used a … a PC
123.	Laura:	Uh
124.	Kristen:	… but recently Mac has come out with this really … uh… powerful
125.	Laura:	deepform
126.	Kristen:	deepform powerful titanium
127.	Laura:	Right
128.	Kristen:	so, uh… that looks really good, but it looks really expensive
129.	Laura:	Uh
130.	Kristen:	about two thousand dollars …
131.	Laura:	What … do you think you need two thousand dollars in a computer
132.		then? I mean, nothing personal!
133.	Kristen:	[smiling]
134.	Laura:	That's a lot of money for a computer!
135.	Kristen:	That's a lot of money for a computer, and since I'm a student, I don't
136.		have too much money,
137.	Laura:	Right
138.	Kristen:	… so I was thinking maybe something about a thousand dollars
139.	Laura:	Or even less
140.	Kristen:	Uh
141.	Laura:	Or … what are you gonna gonna use it just for word processing
142.		and processing data.
143.	Kristen:	Basically word processing, but uh..., I wanted the laptop
144.	Laura:	Uh
145.	Kristen:	because I move around, go to country to country all the time
146.	Laura:	Right
147.	Kristen:	so a desktop is not really practical for me. So, I need a laptop, and
148.		I need it cheap, and I need it for the Internet and word processing.
149.	Laura:	You might wanna go … and I give this is my vast opinion
150.	Kristen:	Uh
151.	Laura:	You might wanna go to a PC then if
152.	Kristen:	Uh
153.	Laura:	… you wanna go to country to country
154.	Kristen:	Uh
155.	Laura:	Macs … from what I understand … are not really good at

156.		other networks …
157.	Kristen:	Uh
158.	Laura:	so if you were in another situation in other University … or whatever …
159.	Kristen:	Uh OK. Well, I'll go down to that store you suggested …
160.	Laura:	Yeah, CompUSA over there … and uh… are you here at the
161.		computer lab a lot or …
162.	Kristen:	Yes
163.	Laura:	TV lounge? … where where we are ?
164.	Kristen:	Yes
165.	Laura:	All right. I'll give … I'll try to find you the list and Bryan's number
166.	Kristen:	OK. That sounds good
167.	Laura:	He knows a lot about computers
168.	Kristen:	All right. Thanks a lot. I appreciate it.
169.	Laura:	No problem. Well, actually, I'm around off. This is my study break…
170.	Kristen:	Oh. OK
171.	Laura:	So, I'll see you later.
172.	Kristen:	I'll see you around. Nice to meet you … Bye
173.	Laura:	… and good luck.
174.	Kristen:	Thanks.

SITUATION 6

		[knocking on the door]
1.	Taka:	Hey
2.	David:	Hey, how is going on?
3.	Taka:	Hey David. How is it going?
4.	David:	Pretty good, and you?
5.	Taka:	Good. I'm just working on my … this … uh… computer with … the
6.		… PowerPoint.
7.	David:	What are you doing?
8.	Taka:	Actually, I have a presentation for tomorrow.
9.	David:	You're using PowerPoint?
10.	Taka:	Yes, it's actually … we don't have to do it, but, you know, I just
11.		installed it, this is my first time to use it, so …
12.	David:	Uh… it's a six hundred, uh …
13.	Taka:	Yes, yes it is I have to do a presentation by myself.
14.	David:	Really? …
15.	Taka:	Yeah
16.	David:	So, we're partners. Is Professor Roberts doing it different?
17.	Taka:	No, it's actually that people making groups, but I was the last one, so I
18.		couldn't make it one myself …
19.	David:	Uh… Want to! [laughing] You want to be an outsider [it's a joke]
20.	Taka:	That's all right.
21.	David:	That's good! … So … is this your first time on PowerPoint?
22.	Taka:	Yeah! Do you know how to make this form and everything look better
23.		than this?
24.	David:	Well, I have a little bit experience with it, and …
25.	Taka:	Yeah
26.	David:	… so you don't like the areal form, you wanna change it.
27.	Taka:	Oh yeah it's just … yeah … change it.
28.	David:	Well, the first thing you need to do is highlight … uh… … like
29.		whatever you wanna change …
30.	Taka:	[Taka highlighting] All right. Focus on form there
31.	David:	now I think up here … you see the subject on triangle?
32.	Taka:	Yeah!
33.	David:	Yeah. OK. You click that and it gives you some choices …uh…
34.		Are you looking for like … uh… like a professional … see like this …
35.		can make sense if you can back up, for example, that sort of .. uh…
36.		play for working one. I don't know if you want that …
37.	Taka:	Oh … I don't wanna do this. I don't wanna do this
38.		…Yes … it's too
39.	David:	Something more professional … or?
40.	Taka:	Yeah
41.	David:	OK…Well… You you need first to rehighlight it
42.	Taka:	Oh … OK
43.	David:	Oh… Take a look … One of the ones I use is uh… is called Georgia.

44.	Taka:	Georgia, right?
45.	David:	Uh… which is kind of … some of professional some interesting …
46.		I don't know … how does that look?
47.	Taka:	Yeah, it looks much better. It looks much better than that one and
48.		yeah, this other …
49.	David:	Yeah … you might wanna … uh… change the … form … of this
50.		one too
51.	Taka:	Oh, yeah, sure … Ah … you said Georgia?
52.	David:	Georgia, right
53.	Taka:	Georg … Georgia right.
54.	David:	Here you go! Now, this is personal preference …
55.	Taka:	Right
56.	David:	… but something you might consider is … I like the title to stand out
57.	Taka:	Right
58.	David:	… and separate, maybe … like right now, when it appears your
59.		name is as largest as the title, so so you might wanna make this a
60.		smaller file …
61.	Taka:	Oh, Yeah
62.	David:	You dont't have to, but it's something that I like to do because that way
63.		the title stands out …
64.	Taka:	Right
65.	David:	… so maybe you can make this one larger and this one smaller
66.	Taka:	Oh yeah. That sounds good too.
67.	David:	And the size of the found is right there, so you can try a couple of
68.		different … well, it might be too small! … Here you go! What'd you
69.		think?
70.	Taka:	uh…
71.	David:	Is it too small?
72.	Taka:	uh… twenty-four
73.	David:	Yeah … You might even wanna make this larger too!
74.	Taka:	Oh yeah … I make it a little bit larger then …
75.		[At the same time both of them: Ohhhhh…]
76.	Taka:	What's going on?
77.	David:	Yeah. You should uh… undo … the undo if you ever make a
78.		mistake.
79.	Taka:	Oh, OK, right, yeah
80.	David:	OK
81.	Taka:	Yeah …
82.	David:	All right uh… one other thing that I might suggest is …
83.	Taka:	Right
84.	David:	… the design! Uh… You can … are you aware that you can create
85.		some different backgrounds?
86.	Taka:	No, no … I don't know anything about this.
87.	David:	This is really cool
88.	Taka:	Right
89.	David:	It's kind of a new feature, if you click on format and … then …
90.		slight design …
91.	Taka:	Right
92.	David:	… over here you get some different
93.	Taka:	Uh
94.	David:	backgrounds that you can add …
95.	Taka:	Right
96.	David:	… and pretty new … like if you wanna a professional or not, but …
97.		you wanna try of couple of …
98.	Taka:	OK … this one … Ah
99.	David:	What do you think?
100.	Taka:	I don't know. It's not too professional
101.	David:	Yeah, it's … well… to me it's quite hard to read
102.	Taka:	Yeah, yeah … that's not very good
103.	David:	I mean, it's kind of interesting, but maybe not for six hundred
104.	Taka:	No, no…OK… change this one … Ah…
105.	David:	What do you think?
106.	Taka:	So … is this … like … letter would be this yellow colour and this
107.		one white
108.	David:	Right. well, another thing you can do too, is … if you like the
109.		background design, you can actually change the colours of the …
110.	Taka:	Right
111.	David:	… of the file, so for the of the typing, so there's, you know, you want
112.		to decide the the design of the background, you know, you have
113.		some more other options

114.	Taka:	Oh. OK, OK … and choosing this one … Ahm Actually, I like this one.
115.	David:	Yeah. That's kind of nice.
116.	Taka:	Yeah
117.	David:	I like that one
118.	Taka:	Right, right, right
119.	David:	OK.
120.	Taka:	Yeah, I go with this.
121.	David:	Yeah? Do you like that one?
122.	Taka:	Yeah.
123.	David:	OK. Well, I will let you going and … That's a slight design ...
124.	Taka:	Right
125.	David:	… and if you decide that later that you wanna perhaps change the
126.		colour or like the file, you write click, and I think that you go
127.		background and then you can take a look, you know, you can
128.		change the background colours …
129.	Taka:	Oh.OK
130.	David:	and so forth … so, …
131.	Taka:	Right, right
132.	David:	that's something you might wanna try too. … OK
133.	Taka:	Well, I'll do that.
134.	David:	Sounds good?
135.	Taka:	Yes, thanks very much.
136.	David:	All right, sure. Listen, I let you go back to work and you've got a lot to
137.		do. … Good luck with your presentation.
138.	Taka:	Thanks very much.
139.	David:	And, uh…, I'll I'll catch you some other time. Give me a call when
140.		you get free out.
141.	Taka:	Maybe weekend.
142.	David:	Yeah. Sure!
143.	Taka:	Right.
144.	David:	Sounds good?
145.	Taka:	Yeah
146.	David:	Well, I'll see you.
147.	Taka:	Right. Thanks for your help.
148.	David:	Yeah
149.	Taka:	Thanks.

SITUATION 7

You are going to watch a situation which takes place in a Cybercafe.
There are two participants in this situation who are looking for information on the Internet.
Work in pairs and write the conversation between these two people.
Then, you will have to perform the role-play in front of the class.

APPENDIX 11. Video captions for the Implicit Group

SITUATION 1 THIS SITUATION INVOLVES TWO PARTICIPANTS WHO ARE **FRIENDS** AND ARE AT A COMPUTER LAB
SITUATION 2 THIS SITUATION INVOLVES **TWO STUDENTS** WHO ARE AT A COMPUTER LAB
SITUATION 3 THIS SITUATION INVOLVES TWO PARTICIPANTS: **A STUDENT AND HER PROFESSOR**. IT TAKES PLACES AT THE PROFESSOR´S OFFICE
SITUATION 4 THIS SITUATION INVOLVES TWO PARTICIPANTS: **A STUDENT AND A NEW VISITING SCHOLAR.** IT HAPPENS IN AN OFFICE AT THE UNIVERSITY
SITUATION 5 THIS SITUATION INVOLVES **TWO STUDENTS** WHO MEET FOR THE FIRST TIME AT A TV LOUNGE AT THE DORMS
SITUATION 6 THIS SITUATION TAKES PLACE AT A DORM: BOTH PARTICIPANTS ARE GOOD **FRIENDS**
SITUATION 7 THIS SITUATION TAKES PLACE AT A CYBERCAFE: JOHN AND ANNA ARE **FRIENDS** WHO MEET HERE FREQUENTLY

APPENDIX 12. Video scripts for the Implicit Group

SITUATION 1

| | | This situation involves two participants who are **friends** and are at a computer lab |

1.	Tajala:	Hi Christina
2.	Christina:	Hi Tajala. How are you doing?
3.	Tajala:	Good. What's up? What are you up to?
4.	Christina:	I can't find the ... I can't find any information on Multimedia
5.		programmes.
6.	Tajala:	Multimedia? What do you need that for?
7.	Christina:	I'll just, ... this project that I'm doing.
8.	Tajala:	So, what site are you right know?
9.	Christina:	I'm in the University ... uh ... library.
10.	Tajala:	OK. **Have you tried** ... uh... the ERIC database?
11.	Christina:	Uh... I've never heard of it.
12.	Tajala:	Uh, um. OK, well, **why don't you** go into the title? It's a
13.		pretty good database. It tells you ... where ...
14.	Christina:	[where to go?]
15.	Tajala:	The little index? Browse index by title
16.	Christina:	Uh, OK.
17.	Tajala:	Yeah
18.	Christina:	I should write this down.
19.	Tajala:	It's really helpful.
20.	Christina:	OK, let me get my pen.
21.	Tajala:	Have a piece of paper!
22.	Christina:	OK... Thank you.
23.	Tajala:	You're welcome.
24.	Christina:	Mm … OK, so you go into title ...
25.	Tajala:	and then, database, OK ... and then, just go down ... to
28.		the middle ... and it's right there ... the educational
29.		resources permission ... Yeah
28.	Christina:	ERIC, OK!
29.	Tajala:	and then just click on the ERIC ... [Christina clicking on that
30.		site] yeah ... that!
31.	Tajala:	So, this is the database ... then **you can just** ...
32.	Christina:	Oh /guau/
33.	Tajala:	you know, Multimedia, wherever type of word you're
34.		looking for ...
35.	Christina:	Oh. That was very helpful!
36.	Tajala:	And then, another thing **you might wanna** try is Google?
37.		**Have you tried** that? The search agent?
38.	Christina:	Oh. I never tried it.
39.	Tajala:	So ...
40.	Christina:	Is this right here?
41.	Tajala:	Yeah. So, just type Google dot com and then **you can**
42.		**just** type something really general ... Multimedia!
43.	Christina:	OK! [clicking]
44.	Tajala:	So, yeah, I guess you want different resources, may I give
45.		you out some ...
46.	Christina:	Eh ... [writing down] Google
47.	Tajala:	dot com
48.	Christina:	dot com. OK! ... Oh. That's helpful.
49.	Tajala:	Yeah ... So, ...
50.	Christina:	Eh ... what time is it?
51.	Tajala:	Uh ... I think it's eight. Eight fifteen. Have you had
52.		breakfast yet?
53.	Christina:	I haven't.
54.	Tajala:	Do you want some coffee or something?
55.	Christina:	That sounds great ... and I'll be back. Thank so much. That
56.		was so helpful.
57.	Tajala:	No problem. Anytime.
58.	Christina:	OK. Let's go and get some coffee!

SITUATION 2

This situation involves two **students** who are at a computer lab

1.	Anthony:	Excuse me. Hi, I'm Tony.
2.	Vanessa:	Hi. I'm Vanessa.
3.	Anthony:	I was wondering if you help ... I have kind of ...
4.	Vanessa:	Sure
5.	Anthony:	... a problem looking for this ... Multimedia. Could you help me ...
6.	Vanessa:	Sure
7.	Anthony:	... for a second?
8.	Vanessa:	Sure
9.	Anthony:	Right. I appreciate.
10.	Vanessa:	No problem.
11.	Anthony:	Oh ...
12.	Vanessa:	OK. So, what's the problem? You basically, **I think you need**
13.		to proper open one this first.
14.	Anthony:	Yeah. I know that and I've already gone to the UH website and
15.		I know how this goes ... library ... this ERIC database
16.	Vanessa:	OK. Yeah, you just go right here in the library base ...
17.	Anthony:	Right
18.	Vanessa:	... and you click on that one, ... and then ... uh... let's see ...
19.		where the ... where is the UH?
20.	Anthony:	this one!
21.	Vanessa:	Yeah, Manoa library
22.	Anthony:	That's ours
23.	Vanessa:	Yeah ... and then we go to databases and ...
24.	Anthony:	Right. That's what the teacher said. Right
25.	Vanessa:	indexes, but then ... you go to title and **you** probably **need** a topic ...
26.	Anthony:	Oh, yeah
27.	Vanessa:	... because title is easier and then **you can** find ERIC by the
28.		name because your topic is really hard to find a section ... so you just
29.		press ERIC ... and you just click on that too ...
30.	Vanessa:	So, what are you working on?
31.	Anthony:	Ah ... I'm doing this research project for my television media class ...
32.	Vanessa:	That's cool
33.	Anthony:	... and I'm looking for ... research ... programme ...
34.	Vanessa:	Cool! ... All right, so, here we are and I think you just type
35.		in Multimedia programmes ... whatever is you're looking for ...
36.		[Anthony typing]
37.	Vanessa:	Oh ... you forgot ... the T
38.	Anthony:	... uh... just type ...
39.	Vanessa:	[laughing] uh ... you forgot the M
40.		[Vanessa typing]
41.	Vanessa:	... and then ... it's keyword because then it gives you more options you
42.		can find and you just press search ... Oh! Exact phrase. If it doesn't
43.		give you exactly, it says **you can** say exact phrase, but **you can**
44.		also **just** go by the words
45.	Anthony:	No, no
46.	Vanessa:	exact phrase gives you a lot less results, but if you have trouble finding
47.		what you want
48.	Anthony:	Let's see it gives sixty-seven
49.	Vanessa:	So that's ... I mean, that's quite a lot ... So,
50.	Anthony:	… university certificates
51.	Anthony:	You know, I need sort of publication and I need the most recent staff
52.	Vanessa:	OK, so **you can** go here ... earliest ...
53.	Anthony:	Right
54.	Vanessa:	... **you can** go from ... so you want to ... Well, that's nineteen two
55.		thousand
56.	Anthony:	two thousand one 'cos that's that's where …
57.	Vanessa:	OK
58.	Anthony:	a class?
59.	Vanessa:	OK. So, **you can** search again.
60.	Anthony:	OK! So, we're narrowing down ...Yeah, that's really interesting. I just
61.		had lot of trouble researching on Internet. It's really nice to have
62.		someone here to help me out.
63.	Vanessa:	Oh. No problem. No problem
64.	Anthony:	… I really appreciate that.

65.	Vanessa:	I used this a lot for my artistic class. They have a database here which
66.		is really good.
67.	Anthony:	Uh
68.	Vanessa:	Oh. Let's see … so, uh. This you've got one… just one answer. It's
69.		that what you want? Children with red syndrome
70.	Anthony:	Uh. No.
71.	Vanessa:	That seems kind of specific. So …
72.	Anthony:	Let's wider the range year.
73.	Vanessa:	OK. Ninety-five! Nineteen ninety-five
74.	Anthony:	ninety-seven, ninety-seven
75.	Vanessa:	ninety-seven?
76.	Anthony:	We can't go that far back it is this class … this topic is … more …
77.		current issues
78.	Vanessa:	Yeah!
79.	Anthony:	OK, so we have fifteen there …Right
80.	Vanessa:	So, you have basically … I think it's just a matter of trying ERIC
81.		and if you're finding … this gives you exactly what you want, I will try
82.		to go is as supposed to keywords, **you can** go under … uh… title
83.		or author, if you have something specific you're looking for …
84.		and any of the words. I think that will give you more options …
85.		So, yeah…
86.	Anthony:	Great. Are there any other sites I can …?
87.	Vanessa:	Yeah
88.	Anthony:	… do you know about?
89.	Vanessa:	You know, if you wanna go outside the school sites, I use Google a
90.		lot. There's Google and Yahoo. Do you know about those?
91.	Anthony:	Yeah. Right. OK. Yeah.
92.	Vanessa:	This is Google and **you can** do … the … this will give you a lot more
93.		options. I think the other one will give you things that you have
94.		here at school, but this gives you just, you probably get a thousand
95.		something, you probably get over a thousand. Let's see … Yeah, we
96.		got a million … six hundred thousand answers [laughing] See … this
97.		is something **you might wanna** be more specific …
98.	Anthony:	Yeah
99.	Vanessa:	… if you have something specific in mind … and not only, we'll give
100.		you the web, but if, but if, you're looking for a specific image, there is
101.		an image section, a group section, directory …
102.	Anthony:	[Uh]
103.	Vanessa:	…and then, something else is Yahoo, is a really good one.
104.	Anthony:	Oh, actually, Yahoo uses Google.
105.	Vanessa:	Really?
106.	Anthony:	Yeah
107.	Vanessa:	All right, well, then just use Google. Uh … so, yeah, **you might**
108.		**wanna** be more specific 'cos I think a million might …uh…
109.		take you a while
110.	Anthony:	OK
111.	Vanessa:	Oh, and you know, what else might be interesting to you? When I
112.		was in Keller Hall, I saw there's a conference going on about
113.		Multimedia programmes…
114.	Anthony:	Oh, really?
115.	Vanessa:	Yeah, **you should** go and check the notes on board for the dates …
116.	Anthony:	OK. I think I should go for that
117.	Vanessa:	… I just saw it today.
118.	Anthony:	Thanks a lot
119.	Vanessa:	Yeah. No problem.
120.	Anthony:	Were you … are you … free to go?
121.	Vanessa:	[laughing] Sure!
122.	Anthony:	You seem … so nice
123.	Vanessa:	No, no … yeah … I mean … Actually, it's interesting. I'm in a computer
124.		class for Fotoshop and the teacher, and he was saying we should go,
125.		it's extra credit, … so perhaps I should go if you wanna. It's actually
126.		kind of … so yeah … Maybe I'll see you there.
127.	Anthony:	OK
128.	Vanessa:	OK
129.	Anthony:	I'll see you there. Thanks for your time.
130.	Vanessa:	No problem, …
131.	Anthony:	I appreciate it
132.	Vanessa:	… no problem

SITUATION 3

This situation involves two participants: **a student and her professor**. It takes place at the professor's office

1.	Martha:	Hi
2.	Sarah:	Hi. How are you today?
3.	Martha:	Fine, thank you Sarah.
4.	Sarah:	That's good.
5.	Martha:	How're you doing?
6.	Sarah:	OK. OK.
7.	Martha:	Very good.
8.	Sarah:	We were talking about … uh… Multimedia programmes to use for the
9.		presentation …
10.	Martha:	Yes
11.	Sarah:	… and uh… **I think a good idea would be** to do that because it
12.		would help the students to learn faster
13.	Martha:	Good, that's what I said
14.	Sarah:	… and I think PowerPoint **would probably** be a …
15.	Martha:	PowerPoint?
16.	Sarah:	Yeah, what do you think about that?
17.	Martha:	Uh, yeah, I actually would like you to learn wherever you think is
18.		gonna be useful for you to learn, so …
19.	Sarah:	OK
20.	Martha:	I don't know … what kind of things would you uh… want me to
21.		present to you or what kind of things would you like me to teach you?
22.		And …
23.	Sarah:	I think the main thing would be how to set up uh… the Multimedia
24.		parts of PowerPoint. The way the screens can move in and out …
25.	Martha:	OK!
26.	Sarah:	… when changing frames, there's different ways the screens come in…
27.	Martha:	Uh
28.	Sarah:	… to to the monitor
29.	Martha:	Uh
30.	Sarah:	… ahm… and I think that's helpful because it's not only … ahm… is
31.		eye-catching … it causes the the student to focus a little bit more on
32.		change and so that their attention is better then …
33.	Martha:	OK. What about the content? What would you like me to use for
34.		content? What do you think it would be a good thing to present?
35.	Sarah:	Ahm … lots of colour, of course, I think colour is good. You mean the
36.		types … eh … of titles and the subject matter?
37.	Martha:	both
38.	Sarah:	… is that what you …? … OK. OK. Ahm let's see: subject matter
39.		uh… how it relates to the student to be a little more
40.	Martha:	It has to relate to the unit we've seen.
41.	Sarah:	To the unit!
42.	Martha:	So, what would you like me to include? or …
43.	Sarah:	Can you can you scan pictures in?
44.	Martha:	Yeah
45.	Sarah:	… and then use it that way?
46.	Martha:	Yeah. we can do that!
47.	Sarah:	That would be good.
48.	Martha:	Well, what else do you think I should …?
49.	Sarah:	… and then, uh…mm Well, for [laughing] for me **personally** uh…
50.		**it would be helpful if you** have … the explanation of the of the
51.		paintings … one side of the of the screen could could be the
52.		explanation in Spanish and then the other side could be in English,
53.		so then …
54.	Martha:	Uh
55.	Sarah:	… so they can see the comparison …
56.	Martha:	OK, yeah
57.	Sarah:	… because some students in the class are better at understanding
58.		and reading and translating than others and so, the point is for them to
59.		understand the meaning of the picture first than being able to translate
60.		in Spanish …
61.	Martha:	OK
62.	Sarah:	… so, **it would be helpful** to have both there
63.	Martha:	OK. And do you want me to get the meaning from somewhere or …
64.		you get my interpretation … your guys' interpretation because …
65.	Sarah:	Uh

66.	Martha:	nothing written about art …
67.	Sarah:	**I think** your interpretation **would be helpful** for us because you
68.		have much more of the background and culture, and **maybe** that
69.		would help them place the picture in a certain historical context…
70.	Martha:	OK. I'll do that
71.	Sarah:	So, **I think** that **would be helpful**
72.	Martha:	Actually, do you think it would help if the students look for the maybe
73.		find the author's idea on the Internet maybe?
74.	Sarah:	That would be a great idea because then, they can learn about the
75.		background of the of the author or the painter or art. Something like
76.		that in addition to the the piece of work …
77.	Martha:	OK. What do you think I should teach then, so you can go and look for
78.		that information?
79.	Sarah:	Uh
80.	Martha:	… something new or …
81.	Sarah:	I don't think so 'cos I think the class is pretty versed in … in using the
82.		Internet and the different search agents that are available but I do, but
83.		we will be doing it in Spanish though, …
84.	Martha:	Yeah
85.	Sarah:	… correct? Yeah so, that will be, it's it's interesting to look at different
86.		websites unless you … know some that **you could** give us to …
87.		where you find … have found that there's more information that
88.		**would be helpful** too.
89.	Martha:	OK. We can do that.
90.	Sarah:	and … either bookmark ahead of time to save time because it's really
91.		not on the function of finding the site … it's more on …
92.	Martha:	on reading while listening
93.	Sarah:	Yeah, it's more the content than than the finding … so maybe
94.		bookmark a couple of sites that you know about …
95.	Martha:	OK, because last chapter we have things about people, so let's see
96.		things about, you know, Rigoberta or Che, this, this is more abstract.
97.		Yes, art is a good suggestion.
98.	Sarah:	Yes, **I think it would be it would be**, of course, it's a favour of mine,
99.		so…
100.	Martha:	Ah. You like art
101.	Sarah:	Yes, yes.
102.	Martha:	OK. Any else … anything else that that you would like me to do?
103.	Sarah:	Uh … let's see … anything that can be pulled in from a Multimedia
104.		stand point … uh… video eh, audio, **maybe** different songs **might**
105.		**be** nice … uh… I don't know … I'm not that versed in
106.		technology, so I'm not sure whether or not … uh I know …
107.		**maybe** there will be a site that would have songs as well …
108.		Spanish songs … from the same period of the art so that you could
109.		put into more of the historical context, the type of music that was
110.		probably in society at the time that the painter was making his work, I
111.		mean, sometimes there is an influence there, at the in the Broads
112.		period and things like that in the European history sometimes there is
113.		an influence … so
114.	Martha:	Uh, Uh So, you think, we can have a group working on, maybe
115.		searching for the art, another group working on the music, another
116.		group working on the background … on the artist …
117.	Sarah:	on the artist, artist. Right
118.	Martha:	… and then getting all together
119.	Sarah:	… from from the same historical period, maybe from uh… some
120.		some of the works we've been looking at from the colonial period, and
121.		so… and some from from the period of discovery in in when all the
122.		explorers were going around and finding around all these new lands to
123.		conquer uh… that might be something that would be interesting
124.	Martha:	OK. Sounds good, sounds like a very good idea.
125.	Sarah:	that would be fine
126.	Martha:	Excellent. Thank you very much.
127.	Sarah:	You're welcome. Thank you.
128.	Martha:	[laughing]

SITUATION 4

This situation involves two participants: **a student and a new visiting scholar**. It happens in an office at the University

1.		[sound of someone knocking on the door]
2.	Jamie:	Come in!
3.		[door opens]
4.	Jamie:	Oh … hello!
5.	Christine:	Hi sir. I'm such in trouble
6.	Jamie:	Have a seat, have a seat!
7.	Christine:	I'm looking for Professor Williams.
8.	Jamie:	Oh … Uh Yeah … This this is his office. I'm sharing his office with
9.		him just temporarily. I'm a visiting scholar. I just got here yesterday
10.		uh… his his desk is over there, he's out for five minutes. He should
11.		be back. You you can just stay there. Excuse me …
12.	Christine:	Oh, OK. OK. I don't want to disturbe you. Sorry.
13.	Jamie:	No, no. I've got to work on this. This is this is a big paper,
14.		I got to get it out by tomorrow, so just need to save it and … Oh, oh,
15.		oh … Oh, my goodness! What … uh… what what happened to it?
16.	Christine:	Oh dear! Something wrong? Sorry, sorry …
17.	Jamie:	Do you do you do you know anything about computers?
18.	Christine:	A little bit, I'm I'm sorry I'm not … computer major or anything like that
19.	Jamie:	Shit! What's wrong with this? I'm clicking is not … Is
20.		there … is there some place on campus I can go to get this take care?
21.	Christine:	Let's see. The best place to go **would probably** be Keller Hall. Do
22.		you know where Keller Hall is?
23.	Jamie:	Ah … No, is it is it near by here?
24.	Christine:	It is … It is relatively close… if you simply walk out of this building and
25.		head to the Hamilton Library and … actually …
26.	Jamie:	OK. I know where is …
27.	Christine:	Oh, do you know where it is? OK. Great.
28.	Jamie:	Oh … if that doesn't work, is there some place else?
29.	Christine:	Actually there there is, **I would recommend that**, if if you have the time, **it**
30.		**might be better to** call …
31.	Jamie:	I don't have the time …
32.	Christine:	[laughing] Oh, you don't …
33.	Jamie:	… this this thing has to get out, I can't figure out …
34.	Christine:	OK. **Perhaps** calling CompUSA or **maybe** OfficeDepo, they
35.		**probably** …
36.	Jamie:	Are those here right in Honolulu?
37.	Christine:	Yes, yes indeed. And ah …**maybe** calling the information number four
38.		/ou ou/ one or **perhaps** looking for … I'm sorry I don't
39.		have those numbers.
40.	Jamie:	No, no thanks
41.	Christine:	Uh
42.	Jamie:	… I have I have to have this worked out. … Thanks a lot.
43.	Christine:	Oh, no problem.

SITUATION 5

This situation involves two **students** who meet for the first time at a TV lounge at the dorms.

		[a girl watching TV and another girl arrives at the TV lounge]
1.	Laura:	Hey, documentary?
2.	Kristen:	Hey, sure
3.	Laura:	I'm Laura.
4.	Kristen:	Hi, I'm Kristen.
5.	Larura:	You're new here?
6.	Kristen:	Yes, I've just moved here. So, I'm gonna turn this off.
7.	Laura:	OK.
8.	Kristen:	Oh… I was in the dorms.
9.	Laura:	Oh, I'm sorry.
10.	Kristen:	Yeah [laughing]
11.	Laura:	It's horrible!
12.	Kristen:	Yeah [laughing] So, I've just moved here, but uh... my computer
13.		broke down, so … this is … I have all that staff here …

14.	Laura:	/Guau/
15.	Kristen:	… and I just don't know how to do because I don't have much
16.		money …
17.	Laura:	Uh
18.	Kristen:	… and you know, I want a really good computer …
19.	Laura:	Right
20.	Kristen:	… you know, I want, everyone has DVD players … and ..
21.	Laura:	Yeah, but you don't need that …
22.	Kristen:	Oh, you don't think I need a DVD player.
23.	Laura:	Uh… I don't think **you need** a DVD player .. uh… **Have**
24.		**you** looked at …?
25.	Kristen:	Look … all of my … [showing brochures]
26.	Laura:	I don't know if … this is of help … uh … **Have you tried**
27.		looking around the different signs … in the dorm here?
28.	Kristen:	Oh … Are there signs selling computers?
29.	Laura:	I know a few people are selling them, but I don't know how
30.		good they are … The problem is …
31.	Kristen:	How much do you think they are?
32.	Laura:	Oh, I don't even know, but probably they're leaving next semester …
33.	Kristen:	Uh
34.	Laura:	… So , **you might wanna** try giving them a call!
35.	Kristen:	Uh
36.	Laura:	And you say, well, this is my deal. What can I do?
37.	Kristen:	Uh
38.	Laura:	… and I don't …
39.	Kristen:	Do you have a computer?
40.	Laura:	I have, but a really nice one. I'm a I'm a PC … fanatic, so …
41.	Kristen:	So, you think ...it's easy ...
42.	Laura:	So, I'm not I'm not gonna be objective about Macs. I can't stand them,
43.		uhm, but **you might wanna** try to talk to someone who is more
44.		objective than I am… I … I start using a Mac when I was at
45.		Elementary School …
46.	Kristen:	Uh
47.	Laura:	… and
48.	Kristen:	Macs seem to be more expensive than PCs.
49.	Laura:	Macs are more expensive. They're they're easier to use but I found
50.		trouble getting them related with other computers
51.	Kristen:	Uh
52.	Laura:	… so it depends on what you wanna do!
53.	Kristen:	Uh
54.	Laura:	but I can't I can't be objective I … I can't stand Macs …
55.	Kristen:	Uh
56.	Laura:	…So, yeah! There's … **have you have you** met around this guy
57.		called Bryan?
58.	Kristen:	No, no I don't know Bryan.
59.	Laura:	Right! Oh, I don't know his number …I'll find what is his number … Oh
60.		… **You might wanna** try talking to him …
61.	Kristen:	Uh
62.	Laura:	He's a Mac fanatic, so he's more objective …
63.	Kristen:	Uh
64.	Laura:	First, he used PCs, and now he uses Macs
65.	Kristen:	Oh OK
66.	Laura:	I'll give you his number later.
67.	Kristen:	Uh
68.	Laura:	seven three … something something seven three … something
69.		something … uh… Yeah. From whatever .. The good things about
70.		Macs is that they can be set up very easily,
71.	Kristen:	Uh
72.	Laura:	… but they're not … they're useful ... if you wanna use everyday …
73.		eh … you have to use special software from those programmes
74.	Kristen:	Uh
75.	Laura:	… and things like that …
76.	Kristen:	Uh
77.	Laura:	but … Eventually! Uh… I gave you a website yet?
78.	Kristen:	Nooo
79.	Laura:	No, it's another option. It's a great website.
80.	Kristen:	Do they have a lot of information?
81.	Laura:	They've a lot of information, but they are also biased towards PCs
82.	Kristen:	PCs! Uh
83.	Laura:	Uh and I think there's a Mac website, uh… I just … the word and

84.		something … and type …
85.	Kristen:	Uh
86.	Laura:	the Mac …
87.	Kristen:	Uh
88.	Laura:	they they are for Mac obviously, …
89.	Kristen:	Uh
90.	Laura:	but they simply sell Macs
91.	Kristen:	Do you know any computer stores in this area?
92.	Laura:	Yeah … There's CompUSA which is … do you know where Ala
93.		Moana is?
94.	Kristen:	Uh
95.	Laura:	Ala… in Moana!
96.	Kristen:	Yeah. I've just moved here. I'm just new to the building.
97.	Laura:	Oh. New… to the build… Got! OK! I was just thinking, you move here
98.		you want to buy a computer, /uah/. **You might wanna** try going to
99.		CompUSA. The problem is that they're gonna try give you a sales
100.		pitch ...
101.	Kristen:	Uh
102.	Laura:	and just going there with a mentality that they're gonna give you
103.		a sales pitch…
104.	Kristen:	Uh
105.	Laura:	and some people like going Radio Shack. I don't like Radio Shack.
106.	Kristen:	Uh
107.	Laura:	Sorry, I'm very fanatic as you can tell.
108.	Kristen:	Uh
109.	Laura:	… but Radio Shack seems to me more that sell for the commission
110.	Kristen:	Uh
111.	Laura:	so, they're going to try and sell you something
112.	Kristen:	Uh
113.	Laura:	CompUSA, they give not biased information
114.	Kristen:	Uh
115.	Laura:	I think and … get some … say what other people say
116.	Kristen:	Uh
117.	Laura:	They seem to me more into day, you know, they're not gonna try to
118.		sell you something around the back. They are going to try to sell it
119.		to you.
120.	Kristen:	OK
121.	Laura:	But what did you use before?
122.	Kristen:	Ah … I usually used a … a PC
123.	Laura:	Uh
124.	Kristen:	… but recently Mac has come out with this really … uh… powerful
125.	Laura:	deepform
126.	Kristen:	deepform powerful titanium
127.	Laura:	Right
128.	Kristen:	so, uh… that looks really good, but it looks really expensive
129.	Laura:	Uh
130.	Kristen:	about two thousand dollars …
131.	Laura:	What … do you think you need two thousand dollars in a computer
132.		then? I mean, nothing personal!
133.	Kristen:	[smiling]
134.	Laura:	That's a lot of money for a computer!
135.	Kristen:	That's a lot of money for a computer, and since I'm a student, I don't
136.		have too much money,
137.	Laura:	Right
138.	Kristen:	… so I was thinking maybe something about a thousand dollars
139.	Laura:	Or even less
140.	Kristen:	Uh
141.	Laura:	Or … what are you gonna gonna use it just for word processing
142.		and processing data.
143.	Kristen:	Basically word processing, but uh..., I wanted the laptop
144.	Laura:	Uh
145.	Kristen:	because I move around, go to country to country all the time
146.	Laura:	Right
147.	Kristen:	so a desktop is not really practical for me. So, I need a laptop, and
148.		I need it cheap, and I need it for the Internet and word processing.
149.	Laura:	**You might wanna** go … and I give this is my vast opinion
150.	Kristen:	Uh
151.	Laura:	**You might wanna** go to a PC then if
152.	Kristen:	Uh
153.	Laura:	… you wanna go to country to country

154.	Kristen:	Uh
155.	Laura:	Macs … from what I understand … are not really good at
156.		other networks …
157.	Kristen:	Uh
158.	Laura:	so if you were in another situation in other University … or whatever …
159.	Kristen:	Uh OK. Well, I'll go down to that store you suggested …
160.	Laura:	Yeah, CompUSA over there … and uh… are you here at the
161.		computer lab a lot or …
162.	Kristen:	Yes
163.	Laura:	TV lounge? … where where we are ?
164.	Kristen:	Yes
165.	Laura:	All right. I'll give … I'll try to find you the list and Bryan's number
166.	Kristen:	OK. That sounds good
167.	Laura:	He knows a lot about computers
168.	Kristen:	All right. Thanks a lot. I appreciate it.
169.	Laura:	No problem. Well, actually, I'm around off. This is my study break…
170.	Kristen:	Oh. OK
171.	Laura:	So, I'll see you later.
172.	Kristen:	I'll see you around. Nice to meet you … Bye
173.	Laura:	… and good luck.
174.	Kristen:	Thanks.

SITUATION 6

	This situation takes place at a dorm: both participants are good **friends**

		[knocking on the door]
1.	Taka:	Hey
2.	David:	Hey, how is going on?
3.	Taka:	Hey David. How is it going?
4.	David:	Pretty good, and you?
5.	Taka:	Good. I'm just working on my … this … uh… computer with … the
6.		… PowerPoint.
7.	David:	What are you doing?
8.	Taka:	Actually, I have a presentation for tomorrow.
9.	David:	You're using PowerPoint?
10.	Taka:	Yes, it's actually … we don't have to do it, but, you know, I just
11.		installed it, this is my first time to use it, so …
12.	David:	Uh… it's a six hundred, uh …
13.	Taka:	Yes, yes it is I have to do a presentation by myself.
14.	David:	Really? …
15.	Taka:	Yeah
16.	David:	So, we're partners. Is Professor Roberts doing it different?
17.	Taka:	No, it's actually that people making groups, but I was the last one, so I
18.		couldn't make it one myself …
19.	David:	Uh… Want to! [laughing] You want to be an outsider [it's a joke]
20.	Taka:	That's all right.
21.	David:	That's good! … So … is this your first time on PowerPoint?
22.	Taka:	Yeah! Do you know how to make this form and everything look better
23.		than this?
24.	David:	Well, I have a little bit experience with it, and …
25.	Taka:	Yeah
26.	David:	… so you don't like the areal form, you wanna change it.
27.	Taka:	Oh yeah it's just … yeah … change it.
28.	David:	Well, the first thing **you need** to do is highlight … uh… … like
29.		whatever you wanna change …
30.	Taka:	[Taka highlighting] All right. Focus on form there
31.	David:	now I think up here … you see the subject on triangle?
32.	Taka:	Yeah!
33.	David:	Yeah. OK. You click that and it gives you some choices …uh…
34.		Are you looking for like … uh… like a professional … see like this …
35.		can make sense if you can back up, for example, that sort of .. uh…
36.		play for working one. I don't know if you want that …
37.	Taka:	Oh … I don't wanna do this. I don't wanna do this
38.		…Yes … it's too
39.	David:	Something more professional … or?
40.	Taka:	Yeah

41.	David:	OK…Well… You **you need** first to rehighlight it
42.	Taka:	Oh … OK
43.	David:	Oh… Take a look … One of the ones I use is uh… is called Georgia.
44.	Taka:	Georgia, right?
45.	David:	Uh… which is kind of … some of professional some interesting …
46.		I don't know … how does that look?
47.	Taka:	Yeah, it looks much better. It looks much better than that one and
48.		yeah, this other …
49.	David:	Yeah … **you might wanna** … uh… change the … form … of this
50.		one too
51.	Taka:	Oh, yeah, sure … Ah … you said Georgia?
52.	David:	Georgia, right
53.	Taka:	Georg … Georgia right.
54.	David:	Here you go! Now, this is personal preference …
55.	Taka:	Right
56.	David:	… but something you might consider is … I like the title to stand out
57.	Taka:	Right
58.	David:	… and separate, maybe … like right now, when it appears your
59.		name is as largest as the title, so so **you might wanna** make this a
60.		smaller file …
61.	Taka:	Oh, Yeah
62.	David:	You dont't have to, but it's something that I like to do because that way
63.		the title stands out …
64.	Taka:	Right
65.	David:	… so maybe you can make this one larger and this one smaller
66.	Taka:	Oh yeah. That sounds good too.
67.	David:	And the size of the found is right there, so **you can** try a couple of
68.		different … well, it might be too small! … Here you go! What'd you
69.		think?
70.	Taka:	uh…
71.	David:	Is it too small?
72.	Taka:	uh… twenty-four
73.	David:	Yeah … **You might** even **wanna** make this larger too!
74.	Taka:	Oh yeah … I make it a little bit larger then …
75.		[At the same time both of them: Ohhhhh…]
76.	Taka:	What's going on?
77.	David:	Yeah. **You should** uh… undo … the undo if you ever make a
78.		mistake.
79.	Taka:	Oh, OK, right, yeah
80.	David:	OK
81.	Taka:	Yeah …
82.	David:	All right uh… one other thing that I might suggest is …
83.	Taka:	Right
84.	David:	… the design! Uh… **You can** … are you aware that you can create
85.		some different backgrounds?
86.	Taka:	No, no … I don't know anything about this.
87.	David:	This is really cool
88.	Taka:	Right
89.	David:	It's kind of a new feature, if you click on format and … then …
90.		slight design …
91.	Taka:	Right
92.	David:	… over here you get some different
93.	Taka:	Uh
94.	David:	backgrounds that **you can** add …
95.	Taka:	Right
96.	David:	… and pretty new … like if you wanna a professional or not, but …
97.		you wanna try of couple of …
98.	Taka:	OK … this one … Ah
99.	David:	What do you think?
100.	Taka:	I don't know. It's not too professional
101.	David:	Yeah, it's … well… to me it's quite hard to read
102.	Taka:	Yeah, yeah … that's not very good
103.	David:	I mean, it's kind of interesting, but maybe not for six hundred
104.	Taka:	No, no…OK… change this one … Ah…
105.	David:	What do you think?
106.	Taka:	So … is this … like … letter would be this yellow colour and this
107.		one white
108.	David:	Right. well, another thing **you can** do too, is … if you like the
109.		background design, **you can** actually change the colours of the …
110.	Taka:	Right

111.	David:	… of the file, so for the of the typing, so there's, you know, you want
112.		to decide the the design of the background, you know, you have
113.		some more other options
114.	Taka:	Oh. OK, OK … and choosing this one … Ahm Actually, I like this one.
115.	David:	Yeah. That's kind of nice.
116.	Taka:	Yeah
117.	David:	I like that one
118.	Taka:	Right, right, right
119.	David:	OK.
120.	Taka:	Yeah, I go with this.
121.	David:	Yeah? Do you like that one?
122.	Taka:	Yeah.
123.	David:	OK. Well, I will let you going and … That's a slight design ...
124.	Taka:	Right
125.	David:	… and if you decide that later that you wanna **perhaps** change the
126.		colour or like the file, you write click, and **I think** that you go
127.		background and then **you can** take a look, you know, **you can**
128.		change the background colours …
129.	Taka:	Oh.OK
130.	David:	and so forth … so, …
131.	Taka:	Right, right
132.	David:	that's something **you might wanna** try too. … OK
133.	Taka:	Well, I'll do that.
134.	David:	Sounds good?
135.	Taka:	Yes, thanks very much.
136.	David:	All right, sure. Listen, I let you go back to work and you've got a lot to
137.		do. … Good luck with your presentation.
138.	Taka:	Thanks very much.
139.	David:	And, uh…, I'll I'll catch you some other time. Give me a call when
140.		you get free out.
141.	Taka:	Maybe weekend.
142.	David:	Yeah. Sure!
143.	Taka:	Right.
144.	David:	Sounds good?
145.	Taka:	Yeah
146.	David:	Well, I'll see you.
147.	Taka:	Right. Thanks for your help.
148.	David:	Yeah
149.	Taka:	Thanks.

SITUATION 7

You are going to watch a situation which takes place in a Cybercafe.
There are two participants in this situation who are looking for information on the Internet.
Work in pairs and write the conversation between these two people.
Then, you will have to perform the role-play in front of the class.

APPENDIX 13. Tasks for Explicit Group

First session: Situations 1 & 2 – Multimedia

ACTIVITY A – Situation 1

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. Where do you think the participants are?

   ☐ At the post office
   ☐ At a computer lab
   ☐ In a professor's office
   ☐ At home

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

   ☐ Friend-friend
   ☐ Boss-employee
   ☐ Professor-student
   ☐ Stranger-stranger

3. What is the status between the participants?

   ☐ Tajala has a higher status than Christina
   ☐ Christina has a higher status than Tajala
   ☐ Both have an equal status
   ☐ One participant has a lower status

4. What is the topic of this conversation?

   ☐ Talking about the weather
   ☐ Looking for some information
   ☐ Photocopying some materials
   ☐ Talking about professors

5. Why are the participants having this conversation?

   ☐ Because Christina needs some help
   ☐ Because Tajala wants to invite Christina to a party
   ☐ Because Christina wants to speak seriously with Tajala
   ☐ Because Tajala needs to make a telephone call

ACTIVITY B – Situation 2

Now, you are going to watch another situation between two more people. After watching it, decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. Where do you think the participants are?

   ☐ In a professor's office

   ☐ At home

   ☐ In a restaurant

   ☐ At a computer lab

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

   ☐ Stranger-stranger

   ☐ Doctor-patient

   ☐ Friend-friend

   ☐ Professor-student

3. What is the status between the participants?

   ☐ Both have an equal status

   ☐ Vanessa has a higher status than Anthony

   ☐ Anthony has a higher status than Vanessa

   ☐ One participant has a lower status

4. What is the topic of this conversation?

   ☐ Asking for some class notes

   ☐ Talking about next weekend

   ☐ Talking about the weather

   ☐ Looking for some information

5. Why are the participants having this conversation?

   ☐ Because Anthony wants to interview Vanessa

   ☐ Because Anthony wants to help Vanessa with an exam

   ☐ Because Anthony needs some help

   ☐ Because Vanessa needs to copy some references

ACTIVITY C – Situations 1 & 2

You have seen two different situations. In pairs, try to remember those situations and answer the following questions:

1. Where do the situations take place?

_____
_____

2. What is the relationship between the participants in both situations?

_____
_____

3. What is the status between the participants in both situations?

_____
_____

4. What is the topic of the conversation in both situations?

_____
_____

5. Why are the participants in each situation having the conversation?

_____
_____
_____

6. What do Tajala and Vanessa have in common in both situations? What are they trying to do?

_____
_____
_____

7. How do the conversations end in each situation?

_____
_____
_____

ACTIVITY D – Situation 1

Now read the transcript from the first conversation and decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. What is Christina saying in lines 4-5?

□ She wants to give Tajala some information.

□ She thinks that Tajala is a good friend.

□ She has a problem looking for some information.

□ She thinks that Tajala needs some help.

2. What is Tajala doing in lines 10 and 12?

□ She tells Christina about the new library.

□ She asks Christina to help her.

□ She suggests a place where Christina can find some information.

□ She tells Christina about some new books.

3. What is Christina saying in lines 19, 35, 48 and 55-56?

□ She doesn't want to help Tajala.

□ She wants Tajala to invite her.

□ She tells Tajala that she has some important information.

□ She thanks Tajala for her help.

4. What is Tajala doing in lines 36 and 37?

□ She helps Christina looking for more information.

□ She asks Christina to help her with Internet.

□ She tells Christina that she knows a lot about Google.

□ She wants Christina to find some information for her looking into Google.

5. What is Christina saying in line 58?

□ She says goodbye to Tajala.

□ She asks Tajala to bring her a coffee.

□ She agrees to go with Tajala and leave together.

□ She wants Tajala follow to keep on helping her.

ACTIVITY E – Situation 2

Now read the transcript from the second conversation and decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. What is Anthony saying in lines 3 and 5?

       ☐ He invites Vanessa to look for something on Internet.

       ☐ He has some trouble with Internet.

       ☐ He thinks that Vanessa wants to talk to him.

       ☐ He asks Vanessa to find a book for him.

2. What is Vanessa doing in lines 12, 25, 27, 59, 92, 107 and 115?

       ☐ She informs Anthony about new databases in the library.

       ☐ She suggests different places where Anthony can look for Multimedia information.

       ☐ She tells Anthony that he is making a very important project.

       ☐ She invites Anthony to go to a talk.

3. What is Anthony saying in lines 31 and 33?

       ☐ He explains why he needs information about Multimedia.

       ☐ He asks Vanessa how to use Internet.

       ☐ He tells Vanessa that he is very busy with his television media class.

       ☐ He asks Vanessa about a course on Multimedia.

4. What is Vanessa saying to Anthony in line 115?

       ☐ She asks Anthony about a conference next Tuesday.

       ☐ She wants to visit Anthony next week during the conference.

       ☐ She tells Anthony to check for a conference in Keller.

       ☐ She wants that Anthony explains to her something about a conference.

5. What is Anthony saying in line 129?

       ☐ He tells Vanessa that he has to work.

       ☐ He thanks Vanessa for her help.

       ☐ He tells that he will see Vanessa later.

       ☐ He wants Vanessa to go back to work.

Second session: Situations 3 & 4 – Computer situations

ACTIVITY A – Situation 3

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. Where do you think the participants are?

   ☐ At the post office
   ☐ At a computer lab
   ☐ In a professor's office
   ☐ At home

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

   ☐ Friend-friend
   ☐ Student-student
   ☐ Professor-student
   ☐ Boss-employee

3. What is the status between the participants?

   ☐ Martha has a higher status than Sarah
   ☐ Sarah has a higher status than Martha
   ☐ Both have an equal status
   ☐ One participant has a lower status

4. What is the topic of this conversation?

   ☐ Asking doubts about next exam
   ☐ Talking about a presentation in class
   ☐ Asking about last class
   ☐ Talking about the new library

5. Why are the participants having this conversation?

   ☐ Because Sarah needs to borrow some books
   ☐ Because Martha has asked to talk to Sarah
   ☐ Because Martha wants to organise an excursion for the class
   ☐ Because Sarah wants to give some new ideas to implement in class

ACTIVITY B – Situation 4

Now, you are going to watch another situation between two more people. After watching it, decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. Where do you think the participants are?

   ☐ In a restaurant

   ☐ In a professor's office

   ☐ At home

   ☐ At a computer lab

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

   ☐ Doctor-patient

   ☐ Boss-employee

   ☐ Friend-friend

   ☐ Professor-student

3. What is the status between the participants?

   ☐ Both have an equal status

   ☐ Christine has a higher status than Jamie

   ☐ One participant has a lower status

   ☐ Jamie has a higher status than Christine

4. What is the topic of this conversation?

   ☐ Talking about a new computer subject

   ☐ Helping with a computer problem

   ☐ Asking about a project deadline

   ☐ Asking for some help with an exam

5. Why are the participants having this conversation?

   ☐ Because Christine needs to revise a project

   ☐ Because Christine wants to talk about a new subject

   ☐ Because Jamie needs help with his computer

   ☐ Because Jamie needs to talk to a professor

ACTIVITY C – Situations 3 & 4

You have seen two different situations. In pairs, try to remember those situations and answer the following questions:

1. Where do the situations take place?

_____
_____

2. What is the relationship between the participants in both situations?

_____
_____

3. What is the status between the participants in both situations?

_____
_____

4. What is the topic of the conversation in both situations?

_____
_____

5. Why are the participants in each situation having the conversations?

_____
_____

6. What do Sarah and Christine have in common in both situations? What are they trying to do in each situation?

_____
_____

7. How do the conversations end in each situation?

_____
_____
_____

ACTIVITY D – Situation 3

Now read the transcript from the first conversation and decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. What is Sarah saying in lines 8-14?

  ☐ She wants to ask Martha some information about Multimedia programmes.
  ☐ She thinks that Martha can help the students to learn faster.
  ☐ She thinks that using Multimedia programmes in class is good.
  ☐ She thinks that PowerPoint is necessary nowadays.

2. What is Martha doing in lines 17-18 and 20-21?

  ☐ She wants ideas to implement and present in class.
  ☐ She asks Sarah to help her in a presentation.
  ☐ She suggests that she would like to present something using PowerPoint.
  ☐ She tells Sarah that she wants to teach more things in class.

3. What is Sarah saying in lines 49-52?

  ☐ She would like to have all the explanations in Spanish on one side of the screen.
  ☐ She thinks that it would be of help to have the screen divided into English and Spanish
  ☐ She tells Martha to present the computer screen using only English
  ☐ She asks Martha to present the explanations in both English and Spanish.

4. What is Sarah trying to explain in lines 103-113?

  ☐ She thinks that including songs in the presentation is very important.
  ☐ She asks Martha to think of Spanish songs from the same period.
  ☐ She tells Martha that using video and audio Multimedia applications is necessary.
  ☐ She thinks that using different songs would be a good idea.

5. What is Martha saying in lines 124 and 126?

  ☐ She thinks that Sarah has a good knowledge of Multimedia.
  ☐ She agrees with Sarah about everything.
  ☐ She finds Sarah's ideas very good.
  ☐ She wants Sarah to help her when implementing her ideas in class.

ACTIVITY E – Situation 4

Now read the transcript from the second conversation and decide which is the correct answer for each question:

1. What is Christine saying in lines 5 and 7?

      ☐ She has a problem with a professor.

      ☐ She wants to speak with this new professor at his office.

      ☐ She is having problems in finding a professor.

      ☐ She has some problems with Professor Williams' class notes.

2. What is explaining Jamie in lines 8-11?

      ☐ He informs Christine that she can't stay there.

      ☐ He explains to Christine that the professor will come back in ten minutes.

      ☐ He tells Christine that she must wait for the professor there.

      ☐ He tells Christine that he is new at the University.

3. What is Jamie doing in lines 13-15?

      ☐ He explains to Christine that he has something important to do on his computer.

      ☐ He tells Christine that he has a long paper to finish for next week.

      ☐ He asks Christine to save a paper for him.

      ☐ He explains to Christine that he is working on several important papers.

4. What is Christine saying to Jamie in lines 21, 29-30, 34-35 and 37-38?

      ☐ She explains to Jamie different nice computing places on campus.

      ☐ She tells Jamie all places where to buy a good computer.

      ☐ She is trying to help Jamie with his computer problem.

      ☐ She suggests that Jamie go to the best computer shops.

5. What is Jamie doing in line 42?

      ☐ He agrees with Christine's suggestions

      ☐ He thanks Christine for her help.

      ☐ He tells Christine that he will follow her advice.

      ☐ He wants to finish the paper tomorrow.

Third session: Situations 1, 2, 3 & 4 - Revision

SUGGESTIONS

A **suggestion** is an utterance that the speaker intends the hearer to perceive as a directive to do something that will be to the *hearer's benefit.* Therefore, the *speaker is doing the hearer a favour,* because it is not obvious to both the speaker and the hearer that the hearer will do the act without the suggestion being made.
As you have just seen in the previous conversations, one of the participants in each situation has tried to help the other participant by suggesting that he/she did something.

Suggestions employed by Tajala

- "Have you tried the ERIC database?"
- "Why don't you go into the title?"
- "Another thing you might wanna try is Google"

Suggestions employed by Vanessa

- "I think you need to proper open one this first"
- "You can search again"
- "This is something you might wanna be more specific"
- "You should go and check the notes on board for the dates"

Suggestions employed by Sarah

- "I think a good idea would be to do that"
- "It would be helpful if you …"
- "You could give us more information that would be helpful"

Suggestions employed by Christine

- "The best place to go would probably be Keller Hall"
- "I would recommend that if you have the time ..."
- "It might be better to call ..."
- "Perhaps calling CompUSA or maybe OfficeDepo, they probably ..."

They could have used other forms to make the suggestions. However, the appropriate choice of each linguistic form will depend on the situation and the relationship between the participants.

SUGGESTIONS

STATUS (equal)	STATUS (higher)
- Why don't you …? - Have you tried …? - You can just … - You might want to … - Perhaps you should … - I think you need …	- I would probably suggest that … - Personally, I would recommend that … - Maybe you could … - It would be helpful if you … - I think it might be better to … - I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be …

ACTIVITY A

Taking into account the explanation on the use of different linguistic forms to make a suggestion, decide which suggestion would be more appropriate for the following situations:

1. Situation 1: Browsing the Web
   You see one of your new classmates working in the library very late in the evening. This classmate is browsing the Web in order to find new information about *Digital Electronics*. Your new classmate looks very tired. What would you say to this classmate?

   ☐ I would probably suggest that you go home and have a rest.

   ☐ I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be that you go home and have a rest.

   ☐ Perhaps you should go home and have a rest.

2. Situation 2: Book about Internet2
   You and one of your professors meet in a computer bookshop. Your professor is considering buying an expensive book about *Internet2* – a project about Internet applications for academic research, distance learning and education. However, you think that another computer shop may sell the book at a lower price. What would you say to your professor?

   ☐ Have you tried checking the price of this book in another computer shop?

   ☐ I think it might be better to check the price of this book in another computer shop.

   ☐ I think you need to check the price of this book in another computer shop.

3. Situation 3: Internet relay chat
   Your best friend would like to contact people from other countries in order to know other customs and be able to practise the English language. You think that using IRC (*Internet relay chat*) is a very good and fast way of meeting people from all over the world. What would you say to your friend?

   ☐ Why don't you try using Internet relay chat?

   ☐ Personally, I would recommend that you try using Internet relay chat.

   ☐ It would be helpful if you try using Internet relay chat.

4. Situation 4: Taking part in a newsgroup
   One of your new professors tells the first day of the class that she is very keen on using Internet for all the activities in the class. She would like to have a more interesting, creative and interactive class. She asks students for ideas about different activities that could be done in this way. You have always wanted to take part in a *newsgroup*. So, what would you say to your professor?

   ☐ You can just organise an activity to take part in a newsgroup.

   ☐ Have you thought about organising an activity to take part in a newsgroup?

   ☐ Maybe you could organise an activity to take part in a newsgroup.

DOWNGRADERS EMPLOYED WITH SUGGESTIONS

STATUS (equal)	STATUS (higher)
- Why don't you …? - Have you tried …? - You can **just** … - You might want to … - **Perhaps** you should … - **I think** you need …	- I would **probably** suggest that … - **Personally**, I would recommend that … - **Maybe** you could … - It would be helpful if you … - **I think** it might be better to … - **I'm not sure, but I think** a good idea would be …

ACTIVITY B

Read the following situations and write what you would say in those situations:

Situation 1:

A.   You have to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (*Encarta '99)* for the subject of "Multimedia". You have to explain its components and identify both hardware components and software sources. You don't know too much about this topic, so you decide to ask a good friend for help.

B.   Your friend has to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (*Encarta '99)* for the subject of "Multimedia". Your friend asks you for help. You know some places where to look for this information:

-   library database (textbooks, videos)
-   Internet (through different web browsers)
-   computer bookshop (brochures or catalogues)

Situation 2:

A.   You want to adapt your PC for a multimedia application, since for a final project, you would like to design a programme integrating animated images, sound and motion pictures. However, you do not know how to deal with the hardware components of your computer. You have heard that one of your new classmates is very fond of multimedia technology, so one day, you decide to ask this classmate for help.

B.   You are new in the class. One of your classmates wants to adapt the PC for a multimedia application. This classmate asks you for help. You know several things that are necessary in order to set up a multimedia system:

-   use of multimedia upgrade kits
-   necessary hardware components (processor, peripherals)
-   software sources

Situation 3:

A. You are working with one of your professors on a new project in the Computer Science Department. Your professor would like to know your ideas about upgrading the PC from the project into a Multimedia system. The PC is very old with only 4 megabytes of RAM; the monitor is still black and white; and it doesn't have either a CD-ROM drive or stereo speakers. Moreover, the system software is not the suitable for a Multimedia system. Apart from this, your professor would also like to set up an electronic encyclopedia. Provide your professor with ideas about the necessary components to upgrade a Multimedia system and also the benefits of having an electronic encyclopedia:

- Necessity of a new PC
- Hardware components
- Software sources
- Names of possible electronic encyclopedias to be set up

B. You are the professor. You would like to know one of your student's ideas (because this student is working with you in a project) about the configuration of a Multimedia system in the PC of the project and also about electronic encyclopedias.

Situation 4:

A. You see one of your new professors working on her laptop at the University computer lab. You have heard that there are not enough offices for all professors, so she does not have a desktop to work on. The only free seat in the computer lab is next to her, so you decide to go and sit there. You start looking at some websites at Internet, but at one point, you realise that your professor has had a problem with her laptop. She asks you for help. You give her some ideas:

- Call one of the computer technicians
- Bring the laptop to some place on-campus (computer science department)
- Bring the laptop to a computer shop

B. You are a new professor at this University. You don't have either an office or a desktop, so you have to use your own laptop. You are working at the computer lab when you have a problem. You ask for help to one of your students who is sitting next to you.

Fourth session: Situation 5 – Buying a computer

ACTIVITY A (listening)

You have watched a situation between two people. Answer the following questions in pairs:

1. Where does the situation take place?

_____

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

_____
_____

3. What is the status between the participants?

_____
_____

4. What is the topic of the conversation?

_____
_____

5. Why are the participants in this situation having the conversation?

_____
_____

6. What is Laura trying to do?

_____
_____

ACTIVITY B (reading)

After reading the transcript from the situation you have seen, answer the following questions in pairs. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. Which computer does Kristen want to buy?

_____
_____

2. How many suggestions does Laura make to Kristen?

_____
_____

3. Which different linguistic forms has Laura employed to make suggestions to Kristen?

_____
_____

4. Has Laura used any downgraders when making the suggestions?

_____
_____

ACTIVITY C (role-plays)

You have to recommend a computer!!! In pairs, write the following dialogues:

Situation 1:

A. You want to buy a new computer because yours is very old. You have heard that one of your new classmates bought one last week. You think that this classmate will have some information about different types of computers and prices, so you decide to ask this classmate.

B. You are new in the class. You bought a new computer last week and now you have a lot of information about different models and prices (see brochures). One of your classmates also wants to buy a new one. This classmate asks you for help. You suggest different options:
- PC vs. Macintosh
- Laptop vs. desktop
- Normal screen vs. flat screen
- Hardware and software

Situation 2:

A. One of your new English professors does not have a computer because it broke down when the professor was moving to this city last week. Your professor's computer was very old, so she does not want to repair it, but to buy a new one. Your professor knows that you are studying computer science, so she asks you for suggestions. You suggest different options:
- PC vs. Macintosh
- Laptop vs. desktop
- Normal screen vs. flat screen
- Hardware and software

B. You are a new professor at this University. Your computer broke down last week and you want to buy a new one. You ask for help to one of your computer science students.

Fifth session: Situation 6 – PowerPoint presentation

ACTIVITY A (listening)

You have watched a situation between two people. Answer the following questions in pairs:

1. Where does the situation take place?

_____

2. What is the relationship between the participants?

_____
_____

3. What is the status between the participants?

_____
_____

4. What is the topic of the conversation?

_____
_____

5. Why are the participants having the conversation?

_____
_____

6. What is David trying to do?

_____
_____

ACTIVITY B (reading)

After reading the transcript from the situation you have seen, answer the following questions in pairs. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. What does Taka have to do?

_____
_____

2. How many suggestions does David make to Taka?

_____
_____

3. Which different linguistic forms has David employed to make suggestions to Taka?

_____
_____

4. Has David used any downgraders when making the suggestions?

_____
_____

ACTIVITY C (role-plays)

In pairs, write the following dialogues:

Situation 1:

A. You have to present your final project about "*the topic of your RA*" next week in front of the class. You don't want to read it. You would like to make a PowerPoint presentation, but you don't how to use this software. You decide to ask for help to one of your best friends.

B. Your friend wants to make a presentation next week in class using PowerPoint. Your friend does not know how to use it. Your friend asks you for help. You know some good tips when using PowerPoint:

- Titles (type of letter, letter size, etc.)
- Use of different templates (different screens)
- Movement of these screens in the monitor
- Insert graphics, pictures, website links, etc…

Situation 2:

A. Your English professor asks you to help her with a PowerPoint presentation. She has to present an important research article in a conference about new technologies next week. She knows that you are very fond of using PowerPoint and other programmes, so she asks you for suggestions. You suggest different options:

- Titles (type of letter, letter size, etc.)
- Use of different templates (different screens)
- Movement of these screens in the monitor
- Insert graphics, pictures, website links, etc…

B. You have to present a very important research article in a conference about new technologies next week. You ask one of your students to help you with a PowerPoint presentation.

Sixth session: Situation 7 – Cybercafe

ACTIVITY A

You are going to watch a situation which takes place in a cybercafe.
You have to write this conversation with your classmate taking into account the following aspects:

- the participants are close friends (John and Anna)
- they meet here quite frequently
- Anna is browsing the Web because she is looking for information about …
  (choose the topic)
- Anna does not find the information
- John helps Anna to search the information by having a look at …
  (choose different ways in which John helps Anna)

John:
Anna:
John:
Anna:

…

ACTIVITY B: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A.	You are with one of your friends having a drink in a Cafeteria. You are talking about the last exams you have had. Your friend tells you that he doesn't know whether he has passed the exam on *Computing Structure and Technology.* Suggest that he go to the University to check it out.
B.	You are with one of your friends having a drink in a Cafeteria. You are talking about the last exams you have had. You tell your friend that you are worried because you don't know if you have passed an exam on *Computing Structure and Technology.* Your friend tells you to do something.

ROLE-PLAY B

A.	You see one of your new professors along the corridor. She seems to be very tired carrying a lot of books. Suggest that she call one of the personnel staff at the porter's office.
B.	You are a new professor at this University. You are carrying a lot of books from the library to your new office. You are very tired because the books are very heavy. You see one of your new students.

ROLE-PLAY C

A.	You meet one of your new classmates at the bus stop. You are talking about the new subject of *Networks I.* Your classmate tells you that she can't go to the class on Tuesdays and she would like to change to the practice group on Wednesday. Suggest that she talk to the professor to change the practice group.
B.	You are with one of your new classmates at the bus stop. You are talking about the subject of *Networks I.* You tell this classmate that you can't go to the class on Tuesdays and that you would like to change to the practice group on Wednesday. Your classmate tells you to do something.

ROLE-PLAY D

A.	You are talking to one of your professors after the class has finished. She just remembers that she has forgotten to tell the rest of the class that the next session will take place at the computer lab. Suggest that she post a sign outside the class.
B.	You are talking to one of your students after the class. You tell him that you have forgotten to tell the rest of the class that the next session will take place at the computer lab. Your student tells you to do something.

APPENDIX 14. Tasks for Implicit Group

First session: Situations 1 & 2 – Multimedia

ACTIVITY A: Listening comprehension

– Situation 1

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each of the following questions:

1. Christina is looking for information about:

☐ A summer job

☐ A movie to see this weekend

☐ A project for the University

2. Which web browser does Tajala tell Christina to look into?

☐ Yahoo

☐ Google

☐ Netscape

3. Christina finds the information:

☐ Very helpful

☐ Very interesting

☐ Very updated

– Situation 2

Now you are going to watch another situation between two more people. After watching it, decide which is the correct answer:

1. Which class does Anthony have to do his paper for?

☐ Multimedia class

☐ Programming languages class

☐ Television media class

2. Which web browser does Vanessa first mention to Anthony?

☐ Yahoo

☐ Google

☐ Netscape

3. What kind of activity/event is going to take place in Keller Hall?

☐ A lecture

☐ A talk

☐ A conference

ACTIVITY B: Reading comprehension

– Situation 1

Now read the transcript from the first conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. What kind of information is Christina looking for?

_____ _____
_____ _____

2. Where does Tajala tell Christina to look for it?

_____ _____
_____ _____

3. What does Tajala offer Christina to do at the end of the conversation?

_____ _____
_____ _____

– Situation 2

Now read the transcript from the second conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. What kind of database is ERIC?

_____ _____
_____ _____

2. What kind of information does Anthony need? What year would he like to have the information about?

_____ _____
_____ _____

3. In which web browsers does Vanessa tell Anthony to look for information? What information does Anthony know about them?

_____ _____
_____ _____

ACTIVITY C: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A. You have to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (*Encarta '99)* for the subject of "Multimedia". You have to explain its components and identify both hardware components and software sources. You don't know too much about this topic, so you decide to ask a good friend for help.

B. Your friend has to write an assignment about a particular multimedia system (*Encarta '99)* for the subject of "Multimedia". Your friend asks you for help. You know some places where to look for this information:

- library database (textbooks, videos)
- Internet (through different web browsers)
- computer bookshop (brochures or catalogues)
- other!!!

ROLE-PLAY B

A. You want to adapt your PC for a multimedia application, since for a final project, you would like to design a programme integrating animated images, sound and motion pictures. However, you do not know how to deal with the hardware components of your computer. You have heard that one of your new classmates is very fond of multimedia technology, so one day, you decide to ask this classmate for help.

B. You are new in the class. One of your classmates wants to adapt the PC for a multimedia application. This classmate asks you for help. You know several things that are necessary in order to set up a multimedia system:

- use of multimedia upgrade kits
- necessary hardware components (processor, peripherals)
- software sources
- other!!!

Second session: Situations 3 & 4 – Computer situations

ACTIVITY A: Listening comprehension

– Situation 3

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each of the following questions:

1. Sarah is giving some ideas for:

☐ A final project

☐ A presentation in class

☐ A new class using Multimedia the next term

2. Which programme does Sarah tell Martha to use in class?

☐ QuickTime

☐ Cinemania

☐ PowerPoint

3. What would Sarah like to use from a Multimedia stand point?

☐ Songs

☐ Animated images

☐ Graphics

– Situation 4

Now you are going to watch another situation between two more people. After watching it, decide which is the correct answer:

1. Who is Christine looking for?:

☐ Another classmate

☐ A professor

☐ A computer technician

2. Where is Keller Hall (a computer building)?

☐ It is far away: in Honolulu

☐ It is close: behind the building

☐ It is near: next to Hamilton Library

3. Which computer shop does Christine mention apart from OfficeDepo?

☐ RadioShack

☐ CompUSA

☐ Computer electronics

ACTIVITY B: Reading comprehension

– Situation 3

Now read the transcript from the first conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. What kind of things would Sarah like to set up using the Multimedia parts of PowerPoint?

_____ _____

_____ _____

2. What would Sarah like to do with the explanation of the paintings using PowerPoint?

_____ _____

_____ _____

3. What does Martha think about Sarah's ideas?

_____ _____

_____ _____

– Situation 4

Now read the transcript from the second conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. What happens to Jamie's computer?

_____ _____

_____ _____

2. Is Christine versed in computer science? How do you know that?

_____ _____

_____ _____

3. Which different places does Christine tell Jamie to go to solve his computer problem?

_____ _____

_____ _____

ACTIVITY C: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A.   You are working with one of your professors in a new project in the Computer Science Department. Your professor would like to know your ideas about upgrading the PC from the project into a Multimedia system. The PC is very old with only 4 megabytes of RAM; the monitor is still black and white and it doesn't have either a CD-ROM drive or stereo speakers. Moreover, the system software is not the suitable for a Multimedia system. Apart from this, your professor would also like to set up an electronic encyclopedia. Provide your professor with ideas about the necessary components to upgrade a Multimedia system and also the benefits of having an electronic encyclopedia:

- Necessity of a new PC
- Hardware components
- Software sources
- Names of possible electronic encyclopedias to be set up

B.   You are a professor. You would like to know one of your student's ideas (because this student is working with you in a project) about the configuration of a Multimedia system in the PC of the project and also about electronic encyclopedias.

ROLE-PLAY B

A.   You see one of your new professors working on her laptop at the University computer lab. You have heard that there are not enough offices for all professors, so she does not have a desktop to work on. The only free seat in the computer lab is next to her, so you decide to go and sit there. You start looking at some websites at Internet, but at one point, you realise that your professor has had a problem with her laptop. She asks you for help. You give her some ideas:

- Call one of the computer technicians
- Bring the laptop to some place on-campus (computer science department)
- Bring the laptop to a computer shop
- Other!!!

B.   You are a new professor at this University. You don't have either an office or a desktop, so you have to use your own laptop. You are working at the computer lab when you have a problem. You ask for help to one of your students who is sitting next to you.

Third session: Situations 1, 2, 3 & 4 – Revision

ACTIVITY A: Role-plays

Prepare the following situations in pairs:

Situation 1:
A.   You see one of your new classmates working in the library very late in the evening. This classmate is browsing the Web in order to find new information about *Digital Electronics*. Your new classmate looks very tired. What would you say to this classmate?
B.   You are in the library working for the subject of *Digital Electronics*. You have to finish an important paper for tomorrow. You have spent all day browsing the Web, so now you feel very tired. One of your classmates approaches you.

Situation 2:
A.   You and one of your professors meet in a computer bookshop. Your professor is considering buying an expensive book about *Internet2* – a project about Internet applications for academic research, distance learning and education. However, you think that another computer shop may sell the book at a lower price. What would you say to your professor?
B.   You are in a computer bookshop. You find a very interesting book about *Internet2*. Then, you meet one of your students there.

Situation 3:
A.   Your best friend would like to contact people from other countries in order to know other traditions and be able to practise the English language. You think that using IRC (*Internet relay chat*) is a very good and fast way of meeting people from all over the world. What would you say to your friend?
B.   You would like to contact people from other countries and communicate with them by using English. You tell this idea to your friend.

Situation 4:
A.   One of your new professors tells the first day of the class that she is very keen on using Internet for all the activities in the class. She would like to have a more interesting, creative and interactive class. She asks the students for ideas about different activities that could be done in this way. You have always wanted to take part in a *newsgroup*. So, what would you say to your professor?
B.   You are a new professor at this University. You are very fond of using Internet in all your classes, so you would like to know your students' opinion about possible activities to be done in class. One of your students has an idea.

Fourth session: Situation 5 – Buying a computer

ACTIVITY A: Listening comprehension

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each of the following questions:

1. Laura can't stand:

- ☐ computers
- ☐ PCs
- ☐ Macs

2. Laura tries to give Kristen a telephone number from:

- ☐ a guy who knows about Macs
- ☐ a computer technician
- ☐ a friend who likes computers

3. Which computer shop does Laura mention apart from CompUSA?

- ☐ RadioShack
- ☐ Computer Electronics
- ☐ OfficeDepo

4. Kristen is going to use the computer for:

- ☐ graphics design and Internet
- ☐ multimedia systems development
- ☐ Internet and word processing

ACTIVITY B: Reading comprehension

Now read the transcript from this conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. Who does Laura tell Kristen to talk with? Why?

_____ _____
_____ _____

2. Laura knows a great website, but what kind of information does this website have?

_____ _____
_____ _____

3. Which computer store* does Laura prefer: CompUSA or Radio Shack? Why?

_____ _____
_____ _____

4. Why does Kristen want a laptop?

_____ _____
_____ _____

5. What does Kristen decide to do in the end?

_____ _____
_____ _____

* computer store (American): computer shop

ACTIVITY B: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A. You want to buy a new computer because yours is very old. You have heard that one of your new classmates bought one last week. You think that this classmate will have some information about different types of computers and prices, so you decide to ask this classmate.

B. You are new in the class. You bought a new computer last week and now you have a lot of information about different models and prices (see brochures). One of your classmates also wants to buy a new one. This classmate asks you for help. You suggest different options:

- PC vs. Macintosh
- Laptop vs. desktop
- Normal screen vs. flat screen
- Hardware and software

ROLE-PLAY B

A. One of your new English professors does not have a computer because it broke down when the professor was moving to this city last week. Your professor's computer was very old, so she does not want to repair it, but buy a new one. Your professor knows that you are studying computer science, so she asks you for suggestions. You suggest different options:

- PC vs. Macintosh
- Laptop vs. desktop
- Normal screen vs. flat screen
- Hardware and software

B. You are a new professor at this University. Your computer broke down last week and you want to buy a new one. You ask for help to one of your computer science students.

Fifth session: Situation 6 – PowerPoint presentation

ACTIVITY A: Listening comprehension

You have seen a conversation between two people. Decide which is the correct answer for each of the following questions:

1. Which adjective would define Taka's preference about his title?

☐ funny
☐ outstanding
☐ professional

2. What type of letter does David tell Taka to use?

☐ Arial
☐ Georgia
☐ Lucida

3.What is the first thing David tells Taka to change from the background design?

☐ the colours
☐ the letter size
☐ the titles

4. When does Taka tell David that they can meet?

☐ next week
☐ tomorrow
☐ at the weekend

ACTIVITY B: Reading comprehension

Now read the transcript from this conversation and answer the following questions. Specify the lines where you have found the information:

1. For which class does Taka have to make the presentation (professor's name)?

_____ _____
_____ _____

2. Which is the first thing David tells Taka to do?

_____ _____
_____ _____

3. What does David tell to do with the title and Taka's name on the screen?

_____ _____
_____ _____

4. Where does David tell Taka to click on in order to create different backgrounds?

_____ _____
_____ _____

5. What is the last thing David tells Taka to do?

_____ _____
_____ _____

ACTIVITY C: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A. You have to present your final project about "*the topic of your RA*" next week in front of the class. You don't want to read it. You would like to make a PowerPoint presentation, but you don't how to use this program. You decide to ask one of your best friends for help.

B. Your friend wants to make a presentation next week in class using PowerPoint. Your friend does not know how to use it. Your friend asks you for help. You know some good tips when using PowerPoint:
- Titles (type of letter, letter size, etc.)
- Use of different templates (different screens)
- Movement of these screens in the monitor
- Insert graphics, pictures, website links, etc…

ROLE-PLAY B

A. Your English professor asks you to help her with a PowerPoint presentation. She has to present an important research article in a conference about new technologies next week. She knows that you are very fond of using PowerPoint and other programs, so she asks you for suggestions. You suggest different options:
- Titles (type of letter, letter size, etc.)
- Use of different templates (different screens)
- Movement of these screens in the monitor
- Insert graphics, pictures, website links, etc…

B. You have to present a very important research article in a conference about new technologies next week. You ask one of your students to help you with a PowerPoint presentation.

Sixth session: Situations 7 – Cybercafe

ACTIVITY A

You are going to watch a situation which takes place in a cybercafe.
You have to write this conversation with your classmate taking into account the following aspects:

- the participants are close friends (John and Anna)
- they meet here quite frequently
- Anna is browsing the Web because she is looking for information about …
  (choose the topic)
- Anna does not find the information
- John helps Anna to search the information by having a look at …
  (choose different ways in which John helps Anna)

John:
Anna:
John:
Anna:

…

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ACTIVITY B: Role-plays

ROLE-PLAY A

A.	You are with one of your friends having a drink in a Cafeteria. You are talking about the last exams you have had. Your friend tells you that he doesn't know whether he has passed the exam on *Computing Structure and Technology*. Suggest that he go to the University to check it out.
B.	You are with one of your friends having a drink in a Cafeteria. You are talking about the last exams you have had. You tell your friend that you are worried because you don't know if you have passed an exam on *Computing Structure and Technology.* Your friend tells you to do something.

ROLE-PLAY B

A.	You see one of your new professors along the corridor. She seems to be very tired carrying a lot of books. Suggest that she call one of the personnel staff at the porter's office.
B.	You are a new professor at this University. You are carrying a lot of books from the library to your new office. You are very tired because the books are very heavy. You see one of your new students.

ROLE-PLAY C

A.	You meet one of your new classmates at the bus stop. You are talking about the new subject of *Networks I*. Your classmate tells you that she can't go to the class on Tuesdays and she would like to change to the practice group on Wednesday. Suggest that she talk to the professor to change the practice group.
B.	You are with one of your new classmates at the bus stop. You are talking about the subject of *Networks I*. You tell this classmate that you can't go to the class on Tuesdays and that you would like to change to the practice group on Wednesday. Your classmate tells you to do something.

ROLE-PLAY D

A.	You are talking to one of your professors after the class has finished. She just remembers that she has forgotten to tell the rest of the class that the next session will take place at the computer lab. Suggest that she post a sign outside the class.
B.	You are talking to one of your students after the class. You tell him that you have forgotten to tell the rest of the class that the next session will take place at the computer lab. Your student tells you to do something.

</div>

APPENDIX 15. Transcription Conventions

The researcher has adapted the following simplified model from van Lier's (1988) and Allwright and Bailey's (1991) proposals of transcription conventions for classroom discourse. She has only employed those symbols relevant to this study. Thus, the conventions that can be found in the transcripts from the role-plays containing recasts are the following:

T	teacher/researcher
L1, L2, etc,	identified learner
LLL	whole class
[ ]	use for commentary of any kind (researcher's notes to better understand the transcripts)
[=]	use to introduce a gloss, or translation, of speech
/ /	use for phonemic transcription instead of standard orthography
( )	use for uncertain transcription
…..	use dots to indicate pauses in participants' speech
-	use hyphen in text to indicate an incomplete word
'uh'	use this expression for hesitation fillers
bold	use bold for emphasis
?	rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	strong emphasis with falling intonation
e:r, the:::	one or more colons indicate lengthening of the preceding sound

APPENDIX 16. Recasts with the Implicit Group for equal status role-plays

EQUAL STATUS

	1st pair of students	2nd pair of students	3rd pair of students	4th pair of students	5th pair of students	6th pair of students	7th pair of students	8th pair of students	9th pair of students	10th pair of students	11th pair of students	12th pair of students	13th pair of students	14th pair of students	15th pair of students	16th pair of students	17th pair of students	18th pair of students	19th pair of students
STATUS (equal)																			
- Why don't you …?	X					X			X			X				X			
- Have you tried …?					X		X					X	X				X		
- You can just …		X		X				X		X								X	
- You might want to …			X				X	X		X									X
- Perhaps you should …		X	X							X		X	X		X				
- I think you need …		X		X				X	X					X			X		

APPENDIX 17. Recasts with the Implicit Group for higher status role-plays

HIGHER STATUS

	1st student	2nd student	3rd student	4th student	5th student	6th student	7th student	8th student	9th student	10th student	11th student	12th student	13th student	14th student	15th student	16th student	17th student	18th student	19th student
STATUS (higher)																			
- I would probably suggest that ….			X	X		X	X		X	X			X	X					
- Personally, I would recommend that …	X		X	X			X		X			X			X	X			
- Maybe you could	X	X			X					X		X			X	X			
- It would be helpful if you…	X			X	X					X		X			X				X
- I think it might be better to…		X			X					X	X		X	X					X
- I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be…			X		X		X		X	X			X		X				X

APPENDIX 18. Transcripts of the role-plays containing recasts with the Implicit Group

First session

RECAST 1

1st pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

T: Conversation A. OK!
L1:   Hey, how are you doing?
L2:   Hello Juan ... uh ... I'm working in a project and I have no much idea. Can you help me?
L1:   Yes! … uh … You have some information in … in Internet. **You can** search in Google database … that is one of the best search agents.
L2:   Yes … uh … but I don't have Internet at home and … I have to work in this project this weekend … uh …
L1:   Oh … **Why don't you trying** the UJI library? …
T: Why don't you trying?↗ You said? ↗ **Why don't you try** the library? OK? ↗
L1:   … uh …in the UJI library there are textbooks and videos … a database … for computer books.
L2:   Oh … yes … this is a good idea. Do you know anything more?
T: [saying silence to the rest of the class]
L1:   uh … no … I think this is all … uh …
L2:   uh …
L1:   OK … uh …
L2:   uh …
T: OK ... this is good, but how do you finish the conversation? What does Christina say in the conversation? How does Tajala finish the conversation in the video?
L1:   Do you want a beer?
T: No, no beer. She offers to have a coffee.
LLL: [students laughing]
T: Regarding Tajala's information, what does Christina says? … What is Christina's answer during the whole conversation? … The information is very ...
L2:   helpful …
T: helpful! OK. Thank you. The information is very helpful. It is very helpful. Good. Vale. It is important to see how we begin a conversation, how the conversation goes on and how we finish a conversation. OK? OK! Very good.

RECAST 2

2nd pair of students – role-play B (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello. I have a problem. I want a ... I want … adapt mi PC …bueno … with Multimedia application.
L2:   Vale! I can help you.
L1:   I don't know the hardware components to use in my computer.
L2:   OK. **You need** a Pentium MMX or a PowerPC … and … a large memory…
T: You need↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need** a Pentium or a PowerPC. OK? ↗
L1:   I have a good computer … Do you think I need … uh … other peripherals?
L2:   Yes. … uh … **You have to have** … uh … a large hard disk and high sound … uh … capabilities … Do you have?
T: You have to have ↗ You said? ↗ **You can just** buy a large hard disk? OK? ↗
L2:   OK.
T: [saying silence to the rest of the clas] Follow!
L1:   Yes, I have. Do I need any software?
L2:   What do you have: a Microsoft PC or an Apple?
L1:   I have an Apple. It's a good computer.
L2:   OK. Then **you will need have** QuickTime … for sound, animation and video.
T: You will need have ↗ You said? ↗ **Perhaps you should** have QuickTime. OK?↗
L1:   Thank you for your help.
L2:   OK! Bye.
L1:   Bye.
T: Very good. OK. Stop.

Second session

RECAST 3

1st student – role-play A (higher status)

L: male student

T: Hello David. Good afternoon.
L: Good afternoon.
T: I wanted to talk to you because I have this PC and it is quite old. I would like to set up a Multimedia system … uh … what do you think? Do you have any idea …?
L: I think your PC is very bad [class laughing] and very old, so **you must** to change it.
T: You must to change it↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** change it. OK? ↗
L: OK
T: OK. And … yes, the first thing … if I want to change the PC … uh … What is your opinion about the hardware components? Are they good or are they bad as well?
L: uh… I think they are bad … the RAM is quite bad, so … uh … **You can** increase your RAM.
T: You can ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if** you increase more RAM. OK?↗
L: Oh … OK.
T: And … how many megabytes?
L: Two thousand fifty-six and five hundred and twelve. I don't know.
T: OK. From four to two hundred fifty. Well, a big change. OK, we have said changing the PC, changing the hardware components and what more?
L: uh … **you have to** put some … an encyclopedia?
T: You have to ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that** you set up an encyclopedia. OK? ↗
L: OK. Yes.
T: That's a good idea. What kind of encyclopedia?
L: Encarta or The Compton's Encyclopedia.
T: OK. Is that a good encyclopedia?
L: I think yes … this is … uh … the best for it.
T: The best for us. OK. So then a good change from the PC and all the elements. Very good. Yes, these are very good ideas. Thank you very much.

RECAST 4

2nd student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: [Imagine that we are in the computer lab. I'm working on my laptop …]
T: Oh my goodness! I have a problem with my laptop. My laptop is not working. It has happened something to it. Excuse me, Peter? Do you have any idea? Do you know something I could do with my laptop?
L: Uh… let me see. Oh you have a big problem here. OK, OK. **You should** call one of the computer technicians. They are more better than me in computer science and can give you a better help.
T: You should ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better** to call a computer technician. OK?↗
L: Yes.
T: Good. This is one possibility, but if I go to the Computer Science department and there are no computer technicians there. What could I do?
L: Well, there are other options. **Another option may be bring** the laptop to the computer science department or to a computer shop for help, but …
T: Another option may be bring ↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** bring the laptop to the computer science department. OK?↗
L: yes but I don't recommend the last. They earn a lot of money.
T: They earn a lot of money?
L: Yes.
T: So, this is not a good idea.
L: No.
T: So, what would be a good idea to do? Is this the last one?
L: Yes
T: And do you know anything more about any computer shop where I can bring it here in Castellón or in Valencia … where could I bring my laptop?
L: Media Markt or … APP.
T: APP is a good one … or Media Markt?
L: Yes.
T: Do you think if there are important computer technicians there that could help me with my laptop?
L: Yes, and they are very cheaper.

T: … and they are cheap. OK. I could take that into consideration. OK. Thank you very much for your help Sergio. Thank you.
L: Bye.

Third session

RECAST 5

3rd pair of students – situation 1 (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello. How are you?
L2:   I am fine. Thanks.
L1:   uh … Can I help you?
L2:   Yes, please. I need information about Digital Electronics … but I am very tired and … I have to finish an important paper for tomorrow.
L1:   OK. Let me think … uh … **you can** find … uh … it on the Google and …then you **must to write** the words that you want.
T: You must to write ↗ You said? ↗ **you might want to write** the words that you want. OK?↗
L2:   And … do you know any book about digital electronics?
T: [saying silence to the rest of the class]
L1:   uh …yes … **you should** go to the second floor … across the corridor and … the the second help
T: You should ↗ You said? ↗ **Perhaps you should** go to the second floor. OK? ↗
L1:   OK.
L2:   Thank you.
L1:   Bye.
L2:   Bye
LLL: [students laughing]

RECAST 6

4th pair of students – situation 1 (equal status)

L1: female student
L2: female student

L1:   Hello Mary. What are you doing?
L2:   uh … I've got a paper to do for tomorrow. I've been browsing the web all evening but I haven't found anything.
L1:   … uh … about what?
L2:   about this new subject … uh … digital electronics … but I don't know much about it …
L1:   really? … uh … I know about a site … uh …called /'dʌbljʊ 'dʌbljʊ 'dʌbljʊ/ [the student is saying the website address: www] dot digital online dot com/ [=www.digitalonline.com] … well there is a forum where you pose a question and leave it your email address and then they send all the information you are looking for
L2:   could you tell me this please?
L1:   OK please let me have a seat [the student pretends to be at the library in front of the computer]
L2:   what?
L1:   let me have a seat?
L2:   uh … OK
L1:   this is the site … and **you need click** on …this link on the top … digital forum
T: You need click ↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need** to click on the top. OK?↗
L2:   and now … where do I click on to look for my question?
L1:   OK. **You have to** click here and you will see where to ask your question.
T: You have to ↗ You said? ↗ **You can just** click there. OK?↗
L1:   Oh. OK.
L2:   That's all
L1:   Yes. That's all
L2:   I don't have to leave my email address?
L1:   Oh yes really … your email address before you leave your message … this is important.
L2:   Oh. Thank you so much. You've been of … of so much help.
L1:   You are welcome.

RECAST 7

5th pair of students – situation 3 (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:	Hello
L2:	Hello
L1:	uh … how are you doing? Can I help you?
L2:	Fine thanks. I would like to contact people from other countries for to learn speak English.
L1:	uh … OK. **I recommend** you using IRC … Internet Relay Chat … because in this way you can talk with English people
T:	I recommend ↗ You said? ↗ **have you tried** Internet relay chat. OK?↗ … Go on, Pedro.
L2:	I think is … is very interesting but I don't know how to use this programme
L1:	uh … is very easy … you search an English channel on Internet and access to a chat forum
L2:	Thank you for help me
L1:	Good bye
L2:	Good bye
T:	Very good!

RECAST 8

6th pair of students – situation 3 (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: female student

L1:	Hello. How are you?
L2:	Fine. Thank you.
L1:	I am … I am interesting in contact with other people from other countries, but I don't know where it is … you … do you know some ideas?
L2:	Yes. **I recommend** that you look the IRC [=Internet Relay Chat]
T:	I recommend ↗ You said? ↗ **why don't you look** IRC. OK?↗
L1:	what is IRC?
L2:	you don't know this one?
L1:	No, I never use this before.
L2:	this is a chat programme … it is very easy … with this programme you can enter in different sites where you can meet with other people from other countries …
L1:	is this a programme … uh … which is good to practise your English?
L2:	yes this is a very good programme … you meet a lot of English people
L1:	OK … I see … Thank you
L2:	Bye
L1:	Bye
T:	Very good!

RECAST 9

3rd student – situation 2 (higher status)

L: male student

L:	Hello. What are you doing?
T:	Hello … uh … I'm here looking for a book related to Internet 2
L:	uh … this is very interesting … I used this book in some subjects …like … Networks etc
T:	OK … so … you find it interesting
L:	OK … and …I … and I recommend it … for your … for your … **I recommend you use** it for your … for your classroom
T:	I recommend you use ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that** you use it. OK?↗
L:	OK
T:	Good. So, do you think I have to buy it?
L:	Yes
T:	So, this is a good idea.
L:	Yes, but there is a little problem … that here the book is very expensive … **I think that you can go** to another place
T:	I think that you can ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to go to another place. OK?↗
L:	… uh …
T:	go on, Jorge!

L:	yes, but …
T:	which place?
L:	… uh …
T:	another computer shop?
L:	another computer shop and …uh … there there are some people that can you … that can help you … and is … is more cheaper than here … and the close is … the bookshop is close … so you can …but other thing …
T:	Yes!
L:	other thing … the best thing … is … you can go this website … and **you can buy it** online
T:	You can buy it ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that** you buy it online. OK?↗
L:	OK.
T:	Which website?
L:	it's … uh … /'dʌbljʊ 'dʌbljʊ 'dʌbljʊ/ [the student is saying the website address: www] com … uh …
T:	dot
L:	eso … dot … dot worker dot com
T:	OK. Very good
LLL:	[students laughing very loud]
T:	OK. This is a very good idea. I will try this one.
L:	yes
T:	Thank you very much for your help … OK?
L:	OK.
T:	Very good Jorge!

RECAST 10

4th student – situation 2 (higher status)

L: male student

T:	[So, we are in a computer bookshop and I am looking for a book about Internet 2, and there, I meet you]
T:	Good afternoon, David
L:	Hello Alicia … what are you doing here?
T:	… I am looking for this book … this is about Internet 2… I am very interested in this one
L:	OK This book is very expensive here
T:	really?
L:	uh … I remember that in Babel … another bookshop **you can** find cheaper than here
T:	You can ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that** you buy it in Babel. OK?↗
L:	OK.
T:	This is a very good idea … thank you … uh … but if Babel is close …
L:	OK … well …. but you … bueno … you can also find information about Internet 2 in the net …there are a lot information and … articles that **you can** search in the web
T:	you can ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** search information on the Internet. OK?↗
L:	… and **you can** too take part in public discussions or asks in forums …
T:	you can ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that you** take part in public discussions. OK?↗
L:	because you can see that is not necessary … is not necessary buy the book … because there is information about the book here
T:	OK. So you think that I can find information about the book in other places. Very good. Do you know anything else?
L:	… uh …
T:	well … this is a lot of information … perfect! … very good …

RECAST 11

5th student – situation 4 (higher status)

L: male student

T:	[This is the first day of the class and …]
T:	You know … I would like to use different things in the class … different activities dealing with Internet in the class … things that are interesting …so what would you like to do?
L:	… uh … **I think you can** use an IRC chat programme … a newsgroup …to talk … with your classmate because we don't have any chance to go to England
T:	I think you can ↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** use newsgroup. OK?↗
L:	yes …
T:	OK Do you have any more ideas?
L:	uh … yes … **we can** make more practise sending emails because this is a good form to applicate English in commonly situations
T:	we can ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** include sending emails in the classroom. OK?↗

L: … and … and finally **we can do** videoconferences practise too …eh … and practise oral English with another person…
T: we can ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better to** do videoconferences and practise English using Internet. OK?↗
L: yes
T: so … very good … newsgroup … what more ideas? … uh … chat, sending emails and …
L: and videoconferences …
T: and videoconferences … OK … thank you very much for all your ideas …

Fourth session

RECAST 12

7th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hi how are you?
L2:   Fine thanks and you?
L1:   Fine … I want to talk with you
L2:   What happens?
L1:   I want to buy a new computer because mine is very old.
L2:   Oh … I have the perfect computer for you … it is a Mac … I bought one the last week
L1:   What are you thinking about?
L2:   I think in a laptop because you can take to a lot of different places … so it presents a lot of advantages for you
L1:   … uh … what laptop do you recommend me?
L2:   **I recommend you have buying** a Power Book G4 … it has eight hundred megahertz
T: I recommend you have buying ↗ You said? ↗ **you might want to buy** a Power Book laptop. OK?↗
L2:   …uh … OK … and it have five hundred twelve megas of memory … this computer is faster … and it have better result …
L1:   And … the screen?
L2:   **I suggest you to buy** a flat screen … is better than a normal screen
T: I suggest you to buy ↗ You said? ↗ **have you tried** a flat screen. OK?↗
L1:   … uh … it sounds very good … and how about the software?
L2:   this computer has lot of software … for example floppies, images creative and have a word processor
L1:   I think that I will buy one. Thanks a lot. Bye.
L2:   Bye.
T: OK very good.

RECAST 13

8th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hi
L2:   Hello
L1:   I want to buy a new computer because mine is very old
L2:   I bought one last week
L1:   PC or Macintosh?
L2:   … uh … PC … I prefer PCs because is very cheap and is more compatible with other applications than Macs
L1:   OK. What do you think about laptops or desktops?
L2:   do you usually travel?
L1:   no … it is for my house
L2:   then **you must** buy a desktop … is more powerful and cheaper than … than laptops
T: You must buy ↗ You said? ↗ **you can just** buy a desktop. OK?↗ … Go on, Vicente
L1:   and the screen? What do you think?
L2:   if you have … a big a big desk you would … **you would** buy a normal screener … is very cheaper
T: you would buy ↗ You said? ↗ **you might want to** buy a normal screen. OK?↗
L1:   and hardware and software? What do you recommend?
L2:   **I recommended** a one gigahertz processor …
T: I recommended ↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need** a gigahertz processor. OK?↗
L2:   … yes … OK … and one hundred and twenty-eight megabytes of RAM memory and the software the best is Windows XP … is the best.

L1:   OK. Thank you very much.
L2:   You're welcome
T: Very good

RECAST 14

9th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello
L2:   Hello
L1:   Hello
LLL: [rest of students laughing]
L2:   Hello. I've been thinking about buying a new computer
L1:   Oh yes … can I help you?
L2:   Yes … I have listened that you have bought a new computer processor
L1:   Yes I bought a new computer last week
L2:   Oh yes? … and where did you look for information?
L1:   I found information in Internet … this is the best thing … so **I suggest you to** search different sites
T: I suggest you to search ↗ You said? ↗ **why don't you** search different sites. OK?↗
L2:   and … what kind of computer did you buy?
L1:   I bought a PC
L2:   Why? Do you have any bias towards Macs?
L1:   No … I bought a PC because is cheaper and usually than Macs, so **I recommend** you a PC
T: I recommend you ↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need** a PC. OK?↗
L2:   your computer is a laptop or a desktop?
L1:   is a desktop because is … I don't need a laptop … further- … furthermore the desktops are cheaper than the laptops
L2:   … uh … what about your screen? Is it normal or flat?
L1:   is a normal screen because with the same money I have a bigger monitor
L2:   uh … and what is your software?
L1:   don't worry! I can lend you some programmes, games, operative system … and more things
L2:   OK thanks
L1:   Not at all
L2:   Bye
L1:   Bye
T: OK very good

RECAST 15

10th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: female student

L1:   Hello. I've I've heard about you in class. I'm John
L2:   Hello. I'm Margaret
L1:   … uh … OK … I will ask you about computers cos I heard that you bought one last week
L2:   Yes that's right
L1:   OK my computer is very old and I need a new computer … can you suggest me someone?
L2:   OK … uh …in first place you must know if you want to buy a PC or a Mac …
L1:   I don't know
L2:   uh … in my opinion **a PC is better than a Mac** …
T: A PC is better than a Mac ↗ You said? ↗ **you might want to** buy a PC. OK?↗
L2:   … firstly because is cheaper … uh …
L1:   … uh …[laughing] … yes … is … is a good reason because I don't have too much money
L2:   OK … and more- moreover PCs are more compatible with all the software
L1:   OK
L2:   and of course if you'll use the computer to your home **it could be a good idea** that you buy a desktop cos-
T: It could be a good idea ↗ You said? ↗ **perhaps you should** buy a desktop. OK?↗
L2:   yes … OK … desktop … cos is … this is more powerful and has a biggest screen …
L1:   OK … I will ask you about the screen … cos I don't know a normal screen or a flat screen
L2:   OK … **the flat screen is better** but is more expensive …
T: the flat screen is better ↗ You said? ↗ **you can just** buy a flat screen. OK?↗
L2:   yes … uh … OK …the flat screen … but is expensive … and you tell me that you don't have a lot of money
L1:   yes … OK … so the computer can be a desktop with normal screen

L2:   yes … this is my opinion
L1:   OK … so thank you very much … nice to meet you
L2:   [laughing] not at all … bye
T: OK … very good

RECAST 16

6th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: female student

T: Good afternoon.
L: Hi.
T: You know … uh … I wanted to talk to you because … because last week my computer broke down, so I would like to buy a new one, but I don't know which one is better … uh … what do you think?
L: uh … here I have seen about a HP Pentium …
T: OK
L: and here you can see [student shows a computer brochure to the teacher] this is a desktop PC and I think **you have to buy** this computer because is a good computer.
T: You have to buy ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to buy this PC. OK?↗
L: yes
T: OK. So, do you think PCs are better than Macs?
L: Yes! … because … there are more software for the PCs than for a Mac
T: OK … so, more applications that can be set up in the computer. OK very good … and then … this is a desktop … but what do you think about laptops?
L: they are more expensive … and well if you want to … to move … uh …for one country to another country … then you … **you must** buy a laptop but …
T: You must ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that** you buy a laptop. OK?↗
L: … uh … yes ... but if you want the computer for stay in your house is … is cheaper and powerful …. desktop
T: OK … I see the difference between laptops and desktops … if I buy this desktop which is quite nice … yes I like it … what about the screen? … uh … would it be better to buy a flat or a normal screen?
L: a normal screen because … is more expensive a … a flat screen and …and …
T: OK. And the size of the monitor? How many inches do you think the screen should have?
L: uh …. Seventeen is good
T: is good! This is a good size.
L: yes
T: OK. I will have a look at this leaflet and I will follow your suggestions. Thank you very much Susan..
L: OK.
T: Perfect! Very good!

RECAST 17

7th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: female student

T: Good afternoon
L: Good afternoon
T: OK … I wanted to talk to you because my computer is very old and I would like to change it
L: … uh …
T: so … I would like to buy a new one
L: OK
T: … but I'm not sure about which one … so what kind of computer would you tell me to buy?
L: … uh … have you thought about what brand to buy Mac or PC?
T: I have no idea … which one do you think is better?
L: … uh … **I would recommend that you buy** a Mac …because it is … more reli- … uh … reli- … reliable
T: I would recommend that you buy ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that you** buy a Mac. OK?↗
L: … yes … a Mac is more reliable … and it has more tools … but a PC is cheaper!
T: OK … so::: I don't have a lot of money so I think a PC would be suitable for me … but what do you think … a PC or a Mac?
L: … uh … Mac …
T: OK … so even if I spend more money … Mac is going to have better results than a PC
L: yes …
T: OK … and what kind of Mac?
L: uh … do you know Imac?
T: no … I have never heard of this
L: OK … it's a desktop …
T: OK

L: seventeen inches
T: OK
L: widescreen display … and the screen is mo- mobile … to all your size
T: yes!
L: and have a CD recorder … and more important … uh … have a DVD recorder
T: OK … so yes this is important …
L: uh … and have a … good processor … uh … eighty hundred megahertz … uh … eighty gigabytes …
T: yes
L: … and two hundred megas of RAM
T: OK … so very powerful
L: … yes … is the ultim think in Macs
T: OK … do you know if there is the same model in laptops?
L: uh …
T: [saying the rest of the class to keep silent]
L: … uh … **I suggest you** a desktop …
T: I suggest ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that** you buy a desktop. OK?↗
L: yes …
T: why?
L: eh … because laptops may fall down … and break easily … the repairing is quite expensive …
T: OK … so you think that it might be better to buy a desktop!
L: yes
T: OK … so … I will take this brochure [the student has a computer brochure] and I will think about this … thank you so much Susana
L: You're welcome
T: very good!

RECAST 18

8th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: Good afternoon
L: … uh … hello
T: Hello .. good afternoon … I would like to ask you … Tim … because I want to buy a new computer …
L: … uh …
T: so … I would like to ask you your opinion about computers …
L: yes … of course
T: OK
L: you can …. /buil/ … digo … buy a comp- a computer … uh … a personal computer … but **I can recommend you** … uh … a Macintosh because … is … is true … this is true… is true … that is more expen- expensive but is better
T: I can recommend you ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to buy a Macintosh. OK?↗
L: yes ... is better
T: OK … a desktop or a laptop?
L: … uh …laptop because is more is more … have less weight
T: OK!
L: … can you move with the with the laptop … uh … anywhere
T: OK … so with the laptop is easier to move around …
L: yes
T: OK … but the laptop is going to be more expensive than the desktop!
L: yes but … uh … but … this computer is the best for your necessities
T: OK … so the laptop is better
L: yes
T: OK … and what kind of software and hardware?
L: uh … about the sof- … the sof- about the hardware you have a powerful processor … uh … at seven hundred megahertz … and::: and high speed … speed of hard drive … of hard disk
T: OK
L: … around the:::… uh … around the … twenty gigabytes …
T: OK … very good
L: … uh … and about the memory … I can remem- … eh … that have one hundred twenty twenty-eight … or one of … two hundred fifty-six megabytes of RAM
T: OK … this is good … do you know more information you would like to tell me?
L: … yes … all the software of the desktops is … is compatible with the laptops …
T: … uh … yes
L: … uh … you have a laptop …uh … with professional tools! … uh … if you … if you like the games … you can … bueno … is compatible with … with the … the new games … the new DVD games … because have a … a::: … bueno … powerful… powerful … graphical device … sixteen megabytes…
T: OK … very interesting … so this would be very complete, powerful and very fast!
L: yes …

T: OK … so thank you very much … you have been very helpful … thank you
L: OK

RECAST 19

9th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: Good afternoon Enrique
L: Good afternoon
T: How are you?
L: bien thanks
LLL: [rest of the class laughing]
T: OK … you know last week my computer broke down so I would like to buy a new one but I'm not sure about which one so … what is your opinion about this?
L: … uh …uh … [student laughing]
LLL: [rest of students laughing]
T: [saying to keep silent] … so what is your opinion about computers Peter?
L: … uh …**I suggest to would you** buy a PC because is more easy than a Mac!
T: I suggest to would you ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that you** buy a PC. OK?↗
L: yes … a PC … and is more … is more cheaper
T: OK … so it is cheaper than the Mac?
L: yes
T: OK … but then … there are different types of PCs … what type of PC would you recommend?
L: … uh … from my point of view … **I recommend you** a laptop … because is better than a desktop and you can move
T: I recommend you ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that** you buy a laptop OK?↗
L: OK
T: But I think laptops are more expensive than desktops!
L: … yes … but the commodity is worth …
T: OK … so the laptop … the screen is flat … is this …
L: yes the flat is good … because this is better for your eyes …
T: OK … and what about the::: hardware or::: software? … what kind of different applications …
L: … uh … el mio … uh …
T: mine!
L: … yes … my my computer … she has a a RAM … two hundred and fify-six …
T: two hundred and fifty-six … OK!
L: … and … twenty megabytes …
T: OK … so you think this is enough?
L: yes …
T: OK … this is enough for a good PC
L: yes …
T: and what about the price? are there different prices?
L: uh::: … no [laughing] no … todos valen lo mismo … are very very expensive … all
T: OK … all of them are very expensive …
L: yes
T: OK … thank you very much for your suggestions … bye
L: bye

RECAST 20

10th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: Hello Samuel Good afternoon
L: Good afternoon
T: I would like to talk to you because I have a problem with my computer … my computer is very old … it has only four megabytes … so it is very very slow … so I would like to buy a new one but I don't know which one … so what do you think?
L: … uh … yes … personality … I think **you can just buy** a PC …because is powerful and cheaper than a Mac
T: you can just buy ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better to** buy a PC. OK?↗
L: yes
T: and then … OK … a PC is cheaper … so this is a good point … but I have to travel a lot so::: do you think it might be better to buy a laptop or a desktop?
L: uh … **if I was you, I would I would to buy** a a desktop … because in the future it's easy expand it than a a laptop

T: If I was you, I would to buy ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to buy a desktop. OK?↗

L: yes

T: OK … and what about the screen … OK … if I buy a desktop … OK … because a desktop and a PC is cheaper than a Mac … then … would I buy a better screen … a bigger one? …

L: uh::: … a normal screen … uh … I think that a flat screen is too expensive so **you can just buy** a normal screen

T: you can just buy ↗ You said? ↗ **maybe you could** buy a normal screen. OK?↗

L: yes

T: … and which size?

L: … uh … seventeen

T: seventeen! This would be a good size!

L: yes

T: OK … and what about the hardware and software?

L: uh … **I think that you can buy** a a DVD run drive and a … a CD rewrite …

T: I think that you can buy ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** buy a DVD run drive. OK?↗

L: yes … yes …

T: OK … Go on Samuel … more ideas?

L: yes … uh … and **you should have** a Norton antivirus … because it's essential with PCs

T: you should have ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that you** have an antivirus. OK?↗

L: … yes … and bueno … the Windows XP … DVD programme and another important programmes

T: OK … a lot of information … very very helpful … thank you so much Samuel!

L: thank you

T: perfect! Very very good!

RECAST 21

11th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: female student

T: Good afternoon Mary

L: Good afternoon

T: I wanted to talk to you because I don't have any computer … so I just moved here and I would like to buy a new one … so what kind of computer could I buy?

L: uh … I think I have seen about HP Pavilion … eh you can see here [student shows the computer brochure she has] the scene of a desktop PC … I think this is a good computer … **you can buy** this computer … because … well I love PCs more than Macintosh … because I have never used Macintosh

T: you can buy ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be to** buy a PC. OK?↗

L: yes … a PC

T: OK … so a PC … and then … is this a desktop?

L: yes

T: do you think a desktop would be more helpful than a laptop?

L: uh … **I think that is better** a desktop than a laptop because desktop are more wonderful uh …powerful than laptops

T: I think that is better ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better to** buy a desktop. OK?↗

L: … uh … yes OK

T: OK … very good … and what about the screen … if I buy a desktop might it be better to buy the monitor a normal screen the standard or the flat one?

L: a normal screen because is cheaper

T: is cheaper!

L: yes

T: and the size? … uh … which size? a normal screen a bigger screen?

L: a bigger screen

T: a bigger screen … how many inches?

L: inches?

T: yes … the size … how many inches? Fifteen? Seventeen?

L: seventeen

T: seventeen might be better

L: yes

T: OK … thank you very much for your help Mary

RECAST 22

11th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hey Tim
L2:   What's up boy?
L1:   Look … I'm in a hurry I need some help
L2:   What do you want?
L1:   I want to make a PowerPoint presentation, but I don't have any shit idea about using this programme
L2:   I'm not an expert on PowerPoint but I can give you some tips to do a good presentation. What are you going to do?
L1:   I have to make a presentation of the topic of my RA [=Research Article] next week in front of all the class.
L2:   And why you don't … and **why don't you read it**?
L1:   because I am ashamed of doing it?
L2:   Well … uh … what do you wan-… well … don't worry … what do you want me to explain to you exactly?
L1:   all the necessary to make a presentation in conditions
L2:   I think it is very important to choose a correct size and type of letter in the title because the people would understand better
L1:   OK … wait … I'm writing this … tell me more tips
L2:   also **you can just use** different templates in your presentation, that is to say, you can put different screens and move these screens in the monitor … in the monitor
L1:   OK … one … wait one minute … I have one question … can I insert some graphs and pictures? I think this is interesting to include them in a presentation
L2:   Yes, **you can** do all these things and more like insert website links and etcetera … I have a very good book on PowerPoint. I can pass you if you want
L1:   Oh … you are the master … yes lend me the book
L2:   OK see you tomorrow
L1:   Bye see you tomorrow
T: OK … very good

RECAST 23

12th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: female student

L1:   Hello Marta
L2:   Hello
L1:   I have a problem I want to present my final project about my research article with with PowerPoint but I don't know how use it!
L2:   The PowerPoint programme use templates to show your work. In these templates you can use text, photos and website links.
L1:   OK very interesant … and you … can you explain me how represent the templates?
L2:   In first place, **you could** put the title of the article and a short introduction.
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **why don't you** put the title. OK?↗
L1:   yes … OK … this is clear … I don't know … uh … I don't know … what make in the next template … I have I have other ideas … bueno …you have … have you got other ideas to make in the next template?
L2:   in the next template **you could** put some photos and text explaining what appears in these photos
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **have you tried** putting some photos. OK?↗
L2:   OK … and the conclusion will go to the last template
L1:   OK… and what type of letter?
L2:   there are different letters. **You could** use Times New Roman or Arial for your presentation
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **perhaps you should** use Times New Roman. OK?↗
L2:   OK.
L1:   OK … I think this will be a good presentation. Thank you very much Marta.
L2:   Bye
L1:   Bye
T: OK … very good!

RECAST 24

13th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello John I need your help
L2:   OK
L1:   I need to do a presentation with PowerPoint but I don't know useful … to use
L2:   Can you lend me your work?
L1:   yes? Of course
LLL: [rest of the class laughing because of his tone of voice]
L1:   take my work … I … I would like to have a background of colours in my … in my work
L2:   … uh … no problem…let's go … **I think you need** a good title in your presentation …
L1:   OK
L2:   from my point of view **you should** highlight the title and use a bigger letter size because is the first you see in your
          presentation
T: from my point of view you should ↗ You said? ↗ **perhaps you should** highlight the title. OK?↗
L2:   OK
L1:   OK
LLL: [rest of the class laughing]
L2:   when you start the PowerPoint **you can choose** the different templates
L1:   what template do you like?
L2:   I like the template that use text, sound and photography
L1:   in my work there are text and photo and I would like to put all things in the presen- presentation … how combining
          the templates?
L2:   … **you could use** movement and one template can come from the left and the next one can come down
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **have you tried** using movement. OK?↗
L2:   yes
T: Go on Roberto
L1:   … uh …can I put all that I want?
L2:   yes … this is the good of Microsoft and it is easy to use
L1:   OK … let's go to do it
L2:   OK
T: Very good

RECAST 25

14th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello Jorge How are you?
L2:   Fine thanks and you?
L1:   I'm fine but I need your help
L2:   OK tell me
L1:   uh … I have an article and I would like to do a PowerPoint presentation but I don't know to use it
L2:   Don't worry I use PowerPoint very well
L1:   Can you tell me some good tips?
L2:   yes … the first tip … **you can just write** a big title in the centre … of the first page
L1:   … uh … OK and what type of letter can I use?
L2:   uh … **you can use** Comics or Arial … both are good
L1:   … uh … OK I would like to do some screens … is this a good idea?
L2:   yes … **If I were you I will do** a screen with the title … and other screens with the different parts of your article
T: If I were you I will do↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need …** to include a screen with the title OK?↗
L2:   yes …
L1:   … uh … and finally I … I would like to have some graphics and pictures that are very interesting in the article
L2:   it is easy … **you can just put** a graphic under the text … and use the Wingdings … is easy
L1:   OK … this is good … I see you … thanks for your help
L2:   bye
T: OK … very good!

RECAST 26

12th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T:	Hello Eric
L:	Hello
T:	Good afternoon
L:	Good afternoon
T:	I would like to ask you some questions about PowerPoint because I would like to use this technology, this application for a presentation … I have this article [the teacher shows the student the different pages of her article] with different parts …
L:	uh … [student is nodding]
T:	different figures … it is not very long … but I would like to make a presentation more interactive using PowerPoint but I don't know how to use it
L:	OK
T:	How could I start?
L:	…uh … may I …? [looking at the teachers' article in order to have a look at it]
T:	yes … of course
L:	this article … I think is … is quite complicated …
T:	OK
L:	and … the graphics … uh … I think that … uh … the title o sea … uh … o sea …
LLL:	[students laughing]
T:	[addressing to the rest of the students] if someone else starts laughing during the role-play he will leave out the class for the rest of the session …OK … follow please
L:	… the title must be the size of the screen … o sea … the title have … represents the first … o sea … the first impression of … the people …
T:	OK … so is the first thing to appear
L:	yes … and … is … is a serious article … uh …
T:	OK … so I would like to start with the title and my name …
L:	yes
T:	so the title … uh … what type of letter and size could it be?
L:	… uh …I think that Times New Roman is a good font … for a serious article …
T:	OK … this is important because I want it to be attractive but very informative because the article is serious … so I want it to be informative … so the first thing the title and my name … everything with Times New Roman?
L:	yes … because this is basically the only font of the articles … or the … or the texts … other forms are similar to Times New Roman
T:	OK very good … and then what about the size … the title bigger than my name?
L:	yes … o sea … the title … o sea … must be … the title is bigger than the name
T:	OK … and then … I would like to include some text but also the graphic … so could I have everything on the same template or different ones?
L:	yes … but in the screen … the screen must be divided …uh … in one part **you can put** the graphic and in the other … the text explaining the graphic
T:	You can put ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that** you put the graphic and the text in one template. OK?↗
L:	… and for a serious article **you could** use only two different types of templates … because … two types are enough for this
T:	You could ↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** use only two templates. OK?↗
L:	OK
T:	and what about including some links to websites giving more information …
L:	if that have references to a different websites or other articles … yes … only … **you should**… on the last screen … o sea … for the rest of the people is good…
T:	You should ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** put the references on the last screen. OK?↗
L:	OK … yes …
T:	OK … very good … anything more … well … you have been very helpful
L:	… uh … no …
T:	OK … enough … very good … thank you very much Eric

RECAST 27

13th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T:	Good afternoon Sergio
L:	Good afternoon
T:	I would like to make a presentation of this article A distributed hierarchical video on demand system [teacher shows the article to the student] but I wouldn't like to come here and say abstract, introduction and everything … I

would like to use the computer and I have heard that PowerPoint makes presentations very interactive using pictures, graphics … because I have a graphic here … so the first thing … what do you think about the title … presenting it with PowerPoint?

L: you would use a type of letter … **I suggest you** to use Lucida

T: I suggest you to use ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that** you use Lucida. OK?↗

L: yes …

T: OK … which size?

L: a little size because the text is very large

T: OK … very good … and what about my name? would it be in the same template with the title? … my name! … I would like that in the same screen … uh … to appear the title and my name

L: … uh …

T: so … would it be possible to have both of them in the same screen …

L: yes

T: OK … and my name …with the same size …

L: no … more small

T: OK … smaller … and what type of letter

L: sixteen

T: OK … sixteen … good … what about the other templates introducing the text …

L: you can use a lot of pages but I … **I recommend** to use around seven pages because is it more easy to overlap

T: I recommend to use ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think that a good idea would be** to use around seven pages. OK?↗

L: … uh …

T: … OK … this is introducing the text … and what about this graphic here … I have a very nice figure here … you see [teacher showing the graphic from her article to the student] … could I include this with the PowerPoint?

L: yes … **you can put** this picture here … or put in the background of the screen …

T: You can put ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better to** put this picture here. OK?↗

L: OK

T: and what more tips about using PowerPoint?

L: another possibilities of PowerPoint is the insertion of graphics, tables, sounds and website links … it may be help you to make a presentation more fine

T: OK … so this would be helpful … OK … thank you very much

RECAST 28

14th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: Good afternoon Roberto

L: Good afternoon

T: I would like to make a presentation about this article [teacher showing the article to the student] using PowerPoint but I don't know how to start … so could you help me?

L: yes

T: OK … could you tell me something about the title or the type of letter?

L: uh … the title … for the title I would use a … type of letter called Impact because … is very highlight … uh … the letter size … title would be bigger … uh … because this is another way … to make the … the attention

T: OK to catch the attention …very good … and what about my name? what about putting my name under the title?

L: … uh … **you can put** your name … uh … the colour has to be different of the other … other parts of the section

T: You can put ↗ You said? ↗ **I think it might be better to** put the name in a different way. OK?↗

L: OK

T: … then … there are different figures that I would like to include as well … would it be possible to include text and figures?

L: … uh … yes … **you can use** graphic and pictures … to help people understand to article … article …

T: You can use ↗ You said? ↗ **I would probably suggest that** you use graphics and pictures. OK?↗

L: yes …

T: and what about including some website links? … uh … is it possible at the end of the presentation?

L: I don't know because … uh … I can't read … the article …[student is looking at the article, and there is one website but it can't be read because the copy is very dark]

T: uh … yes … well … here there is an email address … so … would it be possible with the PowerPoint to include this link … to the email address?

L: yes

T: OK this would be possible

L: yes …

T: OK … so thank you very much for your help Robert

L: OK

RECAST 29

15th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: female student

T:	Good afternoon
L:	Good afternoon
T:	Well … you know Anna … I have a problem because I have this article [showing the article to the student] and I would like to make a presentation using PowerPoint, but the thing is that I don't know anything about PowerPoint so I have some questions … OK … the first thing … I don't know but I would like to include the title and my name but what different possibilities …
L:	OK … I would suggest that you … like the::: title is short … **you could** write it in a less size letter … like forty … and put the name in the same frame … but use it a smaller size
T:	You could write ↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** write it in italic letter. OK?↗
L:	… and put the name with italics for example …
T:	italics! … very good … in order to catch the attention … what about my name? would it be in the same template?
L:	yes … in my opinion yes … because in the same frame you have all the presentation
T:	OK … very good … and then …I have different sections [teacher is showing the student the article]… this is everything about the text … the introduction… and then I have here a photograph …
L:	yes …
T:	and I don't know if it is possible to include the photograph … or::: is a bad idea!
L:	No … is a good idea … **you can** use different templates … to show the photograph …
T:	You can use ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to use different templates. OK?↗
L:	… and because this article has different parts …
T:	… uh …[nodding]
L:	… uh … I can give you some interesting … well … to interconnect text and images …
T:	yes
L:	or separate them … put first the text and then the images or the photos overlap in the templates
T:	OK …and … yes this is very interesting … there are more photographs here … so … very good … and the thing is that … this is the mec … the manufacturing engineering centre … so the mec is a very important organization … and I don't know because … I would like to know more information about this for my audience …
L:	OK
T:	so … is possible … to have
L:	yes … **you can**::: put at the end of the presentation
T:	You can ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** put at the end of the presentation …. OK?↗
L:	… uh … put the URL or something like that …
T:	yes … OK …so a link to the website of this organization
L:	yes
T:	OK … very interesting … do you have any more ideas?
L:	no …is in my opinion … no … but in my opinion I think that the background is very important …
T:	uh … [nodding]
L:	to give personality and style to the presentation
T:	yes
L:	and **I recommend you** to use a serious background because this centre …the mec has an international reputation … and is very important … to …
T:	I recommend you ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that you** use a serious background. OK?↗
L:	yes
T:	OK … thank you very much for your help … very good!

Sixth session

RECAST 30

15th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:	what about the exam?
L2:	uh … I'm not sure, but I think quite bad
L1:	do you think you will pass calculus?
L2:	yes … I've been studying for a month and I have been very busy. What about you?
L1:	well, I think I will pass all the exams … but computer technology was very difficult
L2:	it's it's true … I have been going to class the whole year and I don't have any idea … I copied from George but I think he has neither studied very much cos he is lazier than me

L1:   **why don't you go** to the university to check it up? I think you will pass you would have passed the exam.
L2:   … uh … I don't know if the professor noticed that I copy and I don't want to see him
L1:   … so **you should** check the mark out at Internet
T: you should ↗ You said? ↗ **Perhaps you should** check out the mark on Internet. OK?↗
L2:   OK that's a good idea … hey look at what a nice blonder … I'm going to ask her her phone
LLL: [rest of the class laughing and shouting]
L1:   go go …
T: OK … very good!

RECAST 31

16th pair of students – role-play C (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello
L2:   Hello
L1:   I have a problem with a subject … I have start to work in a computer shop and I can't go to the practice group on Thursday … what kind of solution would be to my problem?
L2:   I think that the Wednesday group is not full and I think that if you go to talk with the professor **you can just try** to change to the other group
L1:   … uh … exist another possibility … uh …are … is possible that I don't … I can't talk with the professor
L2:   … uh …. Do you know iglu, the internet service of the university?
L1:   yes I know it … would … would it be possible to change the laboratory group in this site?
L2:   yes … uh … when you log in this site … in personal preference … **you could click** in … at link subject group and then you select subject and the group you want to change
T: you could click? ↗ You said? ↗ **Why don't you** click the link of subject group. OK?↗
L2:   … yes
L1:   thanks … you've been very helpful
T: very good!

RECAST 32

17th pair of students – role-play C (equal status)

L1: female student
L2: female student

L1:   Hello Susan
L2:   Hello Mary. What about your classes?
L1:   Well I have a big problem
L2:   What's the matter?
L1:   I have a new subject of Networks 1 … when I sign in this subject I chose on Tuesday but now I can't go so I would like to change to the practice group on Wednesday … can I … what can I do?
L2:   uh … well **you could** ask your professor to change the practice group
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **I think you need** to ask the professor to change the practice group. OK?↗
L1:   this is imp- impossible because he is awful
L2:   OK then **you could** look for a classmate of the Wednesday practice group that can go to the Tuesday group and then change the practice group
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **have you tried** asking a classmate of the Wednesday practice group. OK?↗
L1:   this is a good idea thank you very much
L2:   not at all
L1:   uh … this is my bag
L2:   sorry … bye
L1:   bye
T: very good!

RECAST 33

18th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: female student

L1:   Hello
L2:   Hello how are you?

L1:   fine thanks … you look glad … have you finished your exams?
L2:   yes … I did my last exam on computing structure and technology last week
L1:   uh … well have you passed it?
L2:   … uh … that is the problem … I still don't know
L1:   … uh … well **have you tried to go** to the university …
L2:   … uh … [nodding]
L1:   to check it out?
L2:   it's a good idea but I don't have car and nowadays I'm working so I don't have time to go
L1:   well … we are in a cybercafe, **perhaps you should try** to find the exam results on Internet … but is probably that there isn't any information about it
L2:   uh … what can I do in that case?
L1:   uh … in that case **you would send** an email to teacher and ask for … explaining that you can't go to check it out
T: you would send ↗ You said? ↗ **you can just** send an email to the teacher. OK?↗
L2:   uh …well and she could write back to me and tell me the results … yes?
L1:   yes…
L2:   OK … good thanks … bye
L1:   bye

RECAST 34

19th pair of students – role-play A (equal status)

L1: male student
L2: male student

L1:   Hello
L2:   Hello
L1:   What a pity!
L2:   I'm worried because I don't know if I pass the exam on computing structure and technology
L1:   **you could** go to the university to check it out
T: you could go ↗ You said? ↗ **you might want to** go to the university to check it out. OK?↗
L1:   yes … OK
L2:   have you go to the university to check out?
L1:   yes … I went yesterday
L2:   Oh my God …
L1:   don't worry … **perhaps you should** go tomorrow and tell the teacher that you couldn't go because your mother was ill
L2:   it's a good idea but I don't tell lies
L1:   so … **you can** send to her an email and to meet another her with with she
L2:   OK … I send it now
T: very good!

RECAST 35

16th student – role-play B (higher status)

L: male student

T: [The situation is that … OK … this is the situation … I'm here … I'm carrying a lot of things and I need some help … OK?] … Hello
L: Hello
T: I have a problem … because I have all these things and I have to go to class now … uh … I don't know because I can't carry all these things … do you know something that would it be possible to do?
L: … uh … OK … uh … **you can** go and speak to a personnel staff and they can … give you something to move the books … or tape recorders
T: you can ↗ You said? ↗ **Personally, I would recommend that you** go to talk with the personnel staff. OK?↗
L: yes
T: Good … yes this is a good idea … but last week I went to the porter's office several times and there was nobody there so if I go there and there are no people there … what could I do then?
L: … eh … **you could** telephone …a … you … the telephone number at the university and you could … uh … explain your case …
T: you could ↗ You said? ↗ **Maybe you could** telephone someone. OK?↗
L: yes
T: OK … but whom could I telephone? … uh … the personnel … here at the university as well …?
L: yes … all they are twenty hours … they are here … personnel qualificated
T: good … OK … but what is this telephone number? … if I don't find the telephone number? … I don't know … do you know anyone who could help me in this moment?

L: uh … in this moment I don't have class …so
T: uh … so … would you be able to help me?
L: yes … I could … uh … to do … to help you
T: OK … that's a good idea because I need to carry all these things … and then I will let you go to class … OK? … thank you very much for your help
L: not at all …

RECAST 36

17th student – role-play D (higher status)

L: female student

T: [OK … I have finished the class and one of the students approaches to me to ask me something]
L: Excuse me … can I ask you something?
T: Yes of course I have finished the class so I have time now
L: I have a question about … uh … the paper we have to do for the next Friday so::: … maybe you could help me
T: Yes … I can answer to all your questions and give you explanations about the different parts … but I was thinking that I have forgotten to tell you … and your classmates … to tell the class that next class won't be here … in this classroom … but at the computer lab! … so I don't know what to do because everybody has gone so:::
L: uh … there is a possibility … **maybe you could** send an email to each of your students …
T: uh … OK … so an email … yes … that would be a good idea but … if for example … uh … some of my students have problems receiving my emails so::: is there another possibility?
L: … **It would be helpful if you** tell this in the class …
T: uh … OK in the class? … do you know if tomorrow all or most of the students would come to class?
L: … uh … I don't know
T: … uh … is because if I leave a note … I would like to know for sure that most of the students have come and see the note!
L: … uh … well… if some of them don't come … I could always tell them
T: uh … that would be also good
L: or … **maybe you could** also contact the student in charge of the class to communicate that to the rest of the class …
T: yes … this is also good … OK … thank you very much because I will try the different options … but also … if you could tell them that next class will be at the computer lab would be also great … OK?
L: yes
T: OK … thank you very much

RECAST 37

18th student – role-play D (higher status)

L: female student

T: Hello Elena
L: Hello
T: Do you have any questions? … I have finished the class
L: no …
T: OK … I have to give you some::: … uh … some things from the theory class … uh … this is the introduction … uh … the different parts … and … now that I was looking for this information … uh … I have remembered that … uh … I forgot to tell your classmates that next week there would be an important class at the computer lab … because I want to check your writings … so::: you will send some emails … but I don't know how to contact now all of them …
L: … uh … the professor … the information … about the information … maybe is at the porter's office … maybe they can explain you how to do it
T: OK … this would be a possibility … yes … but if this doesn't work … how … would it be another option in case I go there and there is nobody there?
L: well … **personally, I would recommend that you** hand a poster outside the class … then all people could see before the next class
T: OK … outside the class?
L: yes
T: so you think that all your classmates would see this note this week …
L: yes
T: OK … telling them that next class would be at the computer lab!
L: yes
T: OK … and do you have any more ideas?
L: yes … another idea is that … **maybe you could** advise the class delegate about the problem and … he will say it at the students … in spare time

T: OK … I could contact the delegate! … who is the delegate?
L: … uh … Ivan
T: Ivan! … OK … I could contact Ivan … and he can tell the rest of the class … uh … this information … OK … so thank you very much … you've been very helpful
L: not at all

RECAST 38

19th student – role-play D (higher status)

L: male student

T: [the situation … OK … could you read role-play D? … OK … so I'm here … class has finished … and you come to ask me something]
L: Hello
T: hello Robert
L: I have a problem … could you help me?
T: yes of course
L: I forgot … when I will do the oral exam … could you tell me?
T: yes … I will check my notes and I tell you… I don't know if it is next Monday or Tuesday but I … will check it [teacher checking her notes] … uh … it is on Monday … and you know … the thing is that I forgot to tell the rest of your classmates … the rest of the class … that … uh … next week … the class will be at the computer lab … so::: I don't know what to do!
L: … uh **you can** hang a poster outside the class … or::: …
T: you can ↗ You said? ↗ **It would be helpful if you** hang a poster outside the class. OK?↗
L: yes … or **I will suggest** that … uh … that you send a email to all students
T: I will suggest ↗ You said? ↗ **It might be better to** send an email to all students. OK?↗
L: OK
T: OK … but apart from that … I mean … if I send the email and the students don't receive the email … do you think that the students will notice the poster outside the class? … or would it be better to hang it here … on this noteboard?
L: … uh … what?
LLL: [students laughing]
T: yes … I mean …hanging the poster outside the class … or here inside? [teacher signalling the noteboard inside the class]
L: outside the class
T: OK … outside … and do you think the students would notice the poster?
L: yes …
T: OK … if this doesn't work … would you mind telling the students that next class will take place at the computer lab?
L: … yes … but … oh dear …
LLL: [rest of the students laughing]
L: **you can** also talk … talk to the class delegate and he will tell them …
T: you can ↗ You said? ↗ **I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be** to talk with the class delegate. OK?↗
L: yes
T: OK …this is in fact a very good idea … I will contact him and::: … he could tell the rest of the class that next class will be at the computer lab … OK … do you have any more ideas?
L: no
T: OK … thank you very much Robert … you've been very helpful

APPENDIX 19. Coding agreements for the analysis of the production data

Section 1: IDENTIFICATION OF HEAD ACTS (HAs)[30]

Coding agreement 1

• The strategy of <u>Imperative (3)</u> is considered when: a) it starts a sentence with a verb; b) it is within quotation marks; c) it is a main clause; and d) it follows the pattern: you + a verb (You buy…)

Example 1:
Study hard!

Example 2:
This is my suggestion: "Buy a HP printer"

Example 3:
If you have enough money, buy a Mac.

Example 4:
You buy a HP printer. This is the best.

Coding agreement 2

• The strategy of <u>Conditional (9)</u> is considered when there is a formulaic expression:

Example 1:
If I were you, I would … (9Ain)
If I were in your position, I wouldn't … (9Bin)

• However, if there are other suggestions beginning with *If*, but they take a different linguistic form from our list of categories, this is not a Conditional:

Example 2:
If you want to study computer science, I'll suggest … (1Jin)

Coding agreement 3

• The strategy of <u>Impersonals (10)</u> is considered when a speaker states a preferable condition (option, idea, possibility) to recommend something through certain linguistic forms whose main clause does not mention who does it.
• So, the strategy of Impersonal (10) is considered when:

    a)   It + (often) a modal + *be*-verb + and adjective + (sometimes) a noun + to-infinitive or if-clause.
           Note: SL learners often use *That* instead of *It* and therefore, this may be considered as this case. *That is good to …*

           Examples:
           It would be helpful if you … (10Aap)
           It would be good if … (10Nin)
           It might be better to … (10Bap)
           It might be good to … (10Oin)
           It would be a good idea to … (10Din)
           It would be nice if you … (10Fin)
           It could be good to … (10Jin)

    b)   (sometimes) an adjective + a subject + a modal + be-verb

           Examples:
           A good idea would be … (10Cap)
           A subject + would be a good idea (10Ein)

    c) There is (are) …

           Example:
           There are number of options that you … (10Iin)

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[30] The abbreviations "ap" and "in" employed in this list of coding agreements stand for "appropriate" and "inappropriate".

d)   *This is a good possibility / option* (10Kin)

e)   One + a noun + (often) a modal + be-verb

   Examples:
   One possibility would be … (10Gin)
   One thing (you can do) would be to … (10Hin)

f)   Comparative-forms (better) and Comparative-forms (best)

   Examples:
   A subject + is better (than …) (10Pin)
   A subject + is a better option (than …) (10Qin)
   A subject + would be better (than …) (10Rin)
   A subject + would be a better option (than …) (10Sin)
   A better + a subject + be-verb (10Tin)
   The best + noun (10Uin)

Note: when the situations contain "good", these would be categorised as Hints (11) except for:

   A good idea would be … (10Cap)
   It would be a good idea to … (10Din)
   A subject + would be a good idea … (10Ein)

These are Impersonals because they contain "good" and specific linguistic forms.

Coding agreement 4
• The strategy of <u>Hints (11)</u> is considered when a speaker describes something to recommend or not to recommend it.
• So, the strategy of Hints (11) is considered when the situations contain "good" without any specific linguistic form.

Example:
I think that German Fabregat is a good professor.

• When there is something that it is apparently uncategorisable, it would be considered as a Hint.

Coding agreement 5
• The same linguistic forms will be classified into the same category whether they are affirmative or negative. However, these negative forms will not get any score because they are not the target forms (with the exception of *Why don't you…?*). These forms will be marked with (neg)

Examples:
We can… "12Ain"   *We can't…*   "12Ain(neg)"
Let's…   "12Din"   *Let's not…*   "12Din(neg)"
You may want to   "6Fin"   *You may not want to…*   "6Fin(neg)"

Coding agreement 6
• The negative questions (*Can't we…?; Shouldn't you…?*) will be regarded as X (see coding agreement 12)

Examples:
*We can…*12A   *Can't we….?*   12X
You should 7A   *Shouldn't you..?*)   7X

Coding agreement 7
• "<u>Multiple suggestions</u>" will occur when two or three different HAs are found in one test item:

There are three types:
-   *Parallel suggestions*: more than one suggestion items expressed with different forms (this is marked as "p")
-   *Repetition*: the same suggestion item expressed with different linguistic forms (this is marked as "r")
-   *Suggestion within a suggestion*: there is a bigger or main (what a test item asked) suggestion (usually a hint) and a smaller suggestion (usually a pragmalinguistic form) – (this is marked as "ss")
In situations of multiple suggestions, the first one will be taken as HA. Some exceptions will be accepted when there are good reasons for not choosing the first ones.

Example 1 (parallel suggestions):
I suggest that maybe you could go to Babel bookshop
You should also try Agora bookshop

Example 2 (repetition):
I think you need to buy a HP printer
Why don't you buy this one?

Example 3 (a suggestion within a suggestion):
I have heard that the University of Holland is very good (bigger suggestion: hint)
Perhaps you should get more information (smaller suggestion: use of a pragmalinguistic form)

Section 2: CATEGORISATION

Coding agreement 8

• When a student fails to give any suggestion, this situation will be categorised as Category (14). In case of 14in, we will not pay attention to anything more, like downgraders or grounders.

Coding agreement 9

• Students are supposed to suggest what the test item asks. However, when a student fails to give the suggestion that was asked in the test item, the actual suggestion he/she is giving will be classified in one of the categories from our list. This situation will be marked as "alternative" (in an invisible category) since the students have provided an alternative suggestion. In this case, only this "alternative" suggestion will be considered. No other possible suggestions will be considered in this situation.

Example 1 (alternative suggestion to the one asked in the test item):
(suggest sending a CV or going personally to a company)
Why don't you visit one of those websites? (this suggestion used in Combination 1 will get 1 point; besides, this suggestion will be marked as alternative because the student is in fact not suggesting what the test item asked)

Coding agreement 10

• The categories must be mutually exclusive: every single HA and downgrader must not be put into two categories.

Example 1:
Why don't you visit one of those websites? (the use of this suggestion in a situation that asked to suggest sending the CV or going personally to the company will get 1 point because it is used in Combination 1 and will be classified in Category 5A – only in one category. However, this suggestion will be marked as "alternative" in an invisible category, because the student has given a different suggestion from the one that was asked in the test item)

Coding agreement 11

• The first things that must be judged concerning HAs are:
        a) Is this p, r, ss? (i.e. multiple suggestions)
        b) Is this a failure to suggest what the test item asked? (i.e. an alternative). In this case, a HA and a downgrader will be categorised.
        c) Is this (14) Not making any suggestions at all? If this is not (14), then, this must be something else. (14) will be regarded as the first monitor. Only those responses that can pass this first monitor will be put into another category.

Coding agreement 12

• A new linguistic form that participants employ in a particular situation will be added in the list of existing categories under the group of strategy (this new form should get a number and X).

Example 1:
My recommendation could be … (this form would be classified under Category 2, but it will have an X because it is not the same as the forms that already appear in our list: so 2X)

Section 3: OTHER ASPECTS TO BE CONSIDERED

Coding agreement 13
• Distinguish a HA from a preparator:
Something abstract is mentioned in preparators.
If something specific about the suggestion is found, then it is a HA.

Example 1:
I'm writing you to suggest you a good idea (preparator-abstract)
I would recommend that you prepare more oral activities (HA-specific)

Example 2:
I would recommend you one activity for the next year (preparator-abstract)
You could organise conversations (HA-specific)

Coding agreement 14
• Pay attention to ungrammatical forms. These forms will also be added in the list of categories, but they are signalled with the symbol *

Example 1:
*It could to have more relation with the cotidian life (10AAin)

Coding agreement 15
• A HA will be regarded as a pragmalinguistic expression if it appears embedded in a subordinate clause.

Example 1:
… come up with a couple of printers that you might want to buy for your needs …

Coding agreement 16
• In case of finding a "seeming" HA that is embedded in a clause which contains a preparator, this situation will be discussed at the same time that "multiple suggestions" are also discussed.

Example 1
I call you to tell you that if I were you, I would call Carlos Perez

Example 2
I'm writing this email to recommend you to go personally to the companies

Coding agreement 17
• Spelling mistakes of HAs and downgraders will not be considered.

Example 1:
Personelly I would recommend that you …

Coding agreement 18
• A lack of commas or question marks in HAs and downgraders will not be considered.

Example 1:
If I were you I would get a … (lack of comma)

Coding agreement 19
• When "So" is found, it will be considered, since it is often the case that the part after "So" can be considered as a HA.

Example 1:
So, why don't you buy this one?

• In the case of having both a "repetition" and the particle "so", the HA the part coming after this particle "so" will be considered.

• In the case of having a situation of "ss" and the particle "so", it will be considered as the main HA the big suggestion, not the small suggestion.

APPENDIX 20. Final list of categories for suggestions

TYPE	STRATEGY	LINGUISTIC FORMS
DIRECT	(1) Performative verb	**(A) I (would) suggest that you …**
		(B) I (would) advise you to …
		(C) I (would) recommend that you …
		(D) I (would) recommend you to …
		(E) I (would) recommend you + noun
		(F) I would like to suggest (advice, recommend) …
		(G) I would recommend you + that-clause
		(H) *I suggest you to study …
		(I) I would suggest you + V-ing …
		(J) If you want to …, I'll suggest + noun
		(K) I wanted to recommend you…
		(L) I recommend + noun
		(M) I can suggest to you + that-clause (S+V)
		(N) I suggest that (S+V)
		(O) I would recommend that we …
		(P) I (would) suggest you + a noun
		(Q) I can recommend you + a noun
		(R) I suggest + a noun
		(S) I (would) suggest to you to …
		(T) I (would) suggest you + that-clause
		(U) *I suggest to V
	(2) My + a noun of suggestion + be-verb	(A) My suggestion (to you) would be / is …
		(B) My advice (to you) would be / is …
		(C) My recommendation (to you) would be / is …
		(D) My idea is that you could …
		(E) My opinion about …
		(F) Another suggestion is about …
		(G) My idea is to …
		(H) My opinion is …
	(3) Imperative	Try using …; Take my advice; Send your CV;
	(4) Negative imperative	Don't try to …
CONVENTIONALISED FORMS	(5) Specific formulae (interrogative forms)	**(A) Why don't you …?**
		(B) Have you tried …?
		(C) Have you thought of …?
		(D) How about …?
		(E) What about …?
	(6) Possibility/ probability	**(A) You can** …
		(B) You could …
		(C) You might want to…
		(D) You might …
		(E) You may …
		(F) You may want to …
		(G) They can …
	(7) Should	**(A) You should** …
		(B) You ought to …
		(C) You had better …
		(D) They should …

	(8) Need	**(A) You need …**
		(B) What you need (to do) is …
	(9) Conditional	(A) If I were you, I would …
		(B) If I were in your position, I wouldn't …
INDIRECT	(10) Impersonal	**(A) It would be helpful if you…**
		(B) It might be better to …
		(C) A good idea would be …
		(D) It would be a good idea to …
		(E) A subject + would be a good idea.
		(F) It would be nice if you…
		(G) One possibility would be …
		(H) One thing (you can do) would be to ...
		(I) There are a number of options that you…
		(J) It could be good to …
		(K) This is a good possibility/option …
		(L) It should be nice …
		(M) It would be a good place to …
		(N) It would be good if …
		(O) It might be good to …
		(P) A subject + is better (than …)
		(Q) A subject + is a better option (than …)
		(R) A subject + would be better (than …)
		(S) A subject + would be a better option (than …)
		(T) A better + a subject + *be*-verb
		(U) The best + noun
		(V) It is better to …
		(W) *That is good to …
		(Y) A subject + that might be better …
		(Z) It would be helpful to …
		(AA) *It could to have …
		(AB) (it) will be better if …
		(AC) It is better that you …
		(AD) The first (second, third) idea is …"
		(AE) The solution would be …
		(AF) It is a nice idea
		(AG) A great idea … would be …
		(AH) It can be a good idea …
		(AI) It would be great to …
		(AJ) A good reason is …
		(AK) subject + could do it better
		(AL) A noun + be + the best option
		(AM) subject + will be more …
		(AN) A subject + is more (than …)
		(AO) *It is to be recommended …
		(AP) subject + will be a good idea
		(AQ) * a good idea be …
		(AR) a subject + must be more …
		(AS) A noun + be + the best idea
		(AT) a subject + should be more …
		(AU) a subject + is/are cheaper than …
		(AV) the subject + that clause (that I enjoyed the most) …
		(AW) subject + would be the ideal …
		(AY) one idea is …

		(AZ) it is a good manner to …
		(BA) a good + a noun + would be …
		(BB) The better we can do is …
		(BC) It could be a good idea/choice/activity to …
		(BD) It could be + a noun
		(BE) subject + would be helpful for + noun
		(BF) It is better that …
		(BG) a good … could be …
		(BH) the most + subject + is …
		(BI) subject + will be better …
		(BJ) subject + be + the most …
		(BK) subject + is the best
		(BL) subject + could be
		(BM) it would be a good suggestion + V-ing
		(BN) it would be better you + V
		(BO) It might be better if …
		(BP) It will be a good idea …
		(BQ) *the better … will be …
		(BR) It would be better to …
		(BS) subject + would be a good option
		(BT) it can be interesting …
		(BU) it must be interesting …
		(BV) subject + would be a great idea
		(BW) other option would be …
		(BY) it would be a good activity …
		(BZ) subject + has/have more + a noun (than) …
		(CA) subject + would be helpful
		(CB) other good idea is …
	(11) Hints	
OTHERS	(12) Inclusive WE	(A) We can …
		(B) We could …
		(C) Shall we …?
		(D) Let's ...
		(E) We'd better (not) …
		(F) We should …
		(G) We need …
		(H) We will …
		(I) We would …
		(J) We might …
		(K) We must …
		(L) Why don't we change …?
	(13) Obligation	(A) You must …
		(B) You have to …
		(C) You must not … (prohibition)
	(14) Not making any suggestions at all	

An invisible category (We will mark as "al")

(al) Suggesting something other than the one asked in the test item (An alternative suggestion)	

Note: The symbol * is used for those ungrammatical expressions found in the data (see Appendix 19 – coding agreement 14)

APPENDIX 21. Sample of students' production data in the two tasks

Students' phone production data: pre-test

Explicit Group

Student 1 – male

- *Situation 1*:
I am Mauro … eh … I think that we … going … going to to restaurant … this restaurant is … this restaurant is restaurant Paco ... goodbye.

- *Situation 2*:
I am Mauro … eh …you don't work in this company … eh … you … eh … going to to talk with the professor ... bye.

- *Situation 3*:
I am Mauro … eh … we can't … eh … rea … realise … the … the talk … eh … we can change the talk for … eh … other day …. other day.

- *Situation 4*:
I am Mauro … I think that you don't change … eh … to … ah ... to degree … eh … our degree is very … eh … very very important in Castellón … eh … we find the degree … no … much works.

Student 10 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello … I'm I'm Xavi ... eh … I I have think about the dinner and the restaurant … and I think we can we can organise the dinner in the Asador 7 de julio ... you think about this and call me to confirm the … the the meeting ... OK … goodbye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello ... I'm Xavi ... I I have … eh … eh … I know that your … your internship to IBM has gone down and I would like to …if you know something that I can do for you … call me and we can talk or … something that you need …I would suggest to you that go to talk to the professor and … uh… try to get another possibilities … eh … I'm very sorry about that … bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello. I'm Xavi Felip, the alum who have the grant. I only call you to to tell you that most of the of the students have oral exams the Friday afternoon… and you should to change the the day of the of the talk … to tell the students about the new project … eh … Goodbye and …

- *Situation 4*:
Hello I'm Xavi … I I call you to … because I think it's not a good idea to change to the Computer Science Engineering because if you finish the Technical Engineering … eh … you will have a … a degree … and then you can change to the Computer Science engineering and get another degree and you will have two degrees … it's all about … it's more than I want tell to you … goodbye.

Student 22 – male

- *Situation 1*:
… eh …Hello Professor Marzal … eh … I'm George … eh … I think about … eh I… we can … we could … eh … I mean … we could … make a dinner… eh … in the … in the restaurant Foster Hollywood … eh … goodbye thank you.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello I am George … eh … I have heard about … about …IBM and I think … eh … you should talk with your professor about … eh … this problem … goodbye.

- *Situation 3*:
… eh … hello I am George … eh … I have heard that the most students … eh …have an oral exam on the conference day … eh … and I think … eh … that you should change the day … the conference … the conference's day … eh … because more more people not assisted … eh … goodbye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello I'm George … I have heard … eh … that … do you want … eh …change this course? … I think about … eh … you shouldn't change this course because … eh … I think that …eh … you … you know good … eh … the hardware and … and software ... goodbye.

Implicit Group

Student 2 – female

- *Situation 1*:
Hi … this is María del Mar … I'm phoning you because I have found different restaurants for the International Conference … well … for the dinner … uh … you can meet at the Jaume I hotel … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi ... I've heard about your problem with the internship … I think you better go and talk to the professor … bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hi … this is María del Mar … I have found out that my students have oral exams the same day that you want to give the talk … so I would like to know if you can change the day of the talk.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi … It's me … what about changing to another degree? ... eh … I think if you stay in Computer Systems is a better degree because is shorter and I think that it is easier than the larger one … bye.

Student 8 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello ... I am I am Joaquin and … I call you for the for the dinner with the with the guests … no? … I suggest you … eh … Mc Donald's because it's very cheap and the food is very … is very good … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello I'm Joaquin and … and I inform you that you can you can't do the internship at IBM … you can ... eh … talk with with the professor of the of the internship and … for you go to do internship another day or other … in another company … goodbye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello I'm Joaquin and … I have heard that the most students can't can't go to the talk because have oral exams ... eh … on that day … I su … su … suggest you that change the talk to another day ... bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello I'm Joaquin and I call you I call you for the change of degree ... I think that Technical Engineering in Computer Systems is … is better because the degree … lasts three years and the Computer Science Engineering lasts five years and Technical Engineering in Computer Systems is is … is easier than the other degree.

Student 13 – male

- *Situation 1*:
eh … Professor Marzal … I'm Ferran … I have been thinking on a restaurant … eh … and I think that Asador 7 de Julio is a good restaurant for our guests.

- *Situation 2*:
I see … I have seen … eh … you … eh … aren't in the company … eh … they they set you before … eh … you must … eh … talk to the teacher and he will explain you … eh … what is the problem … and what can you …

- *Situation 3*:
I have been … eh … talking with other students … and they have … bueno … and they said me they … eh … have Friday afternoon oral exams … I have thought … eh … you could change the day on the overall … eh … the the meeting? … the talk no?

- *Situation 4*:
eh … I've been thinking … eh … what you said me about changing of your career and I think … eh … that's the second course and you must wait … eh … finishing this career … and then you can start the other one and you have … eh …

Control Group

Student 3 – female

- *Situation 1*:
Hello … eh … I'm Elena … I call because … because … I'm thinking about possible restaurants … and … you could organise that dinner in the Rialto or Orange … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello Maria ... I'm Elena … eh … I know what happened with your internship and … and … you should talk with your teacher … tell me something … bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello professor ... I'm Elena and … and … I remembered that on Friday … other courses will have oral exams and … and … I have thinking that we should change the day of the talk … eh … call me when you arrive … bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello ... I'm Elena … eh … When we spoke this morning … you told me that you will change to Engineering in Computer Systems … eh … but I … I want to tell you that if you don't change the career … eh … you will have more possibilities in the future … bye.

Student 13 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hi professor Marzal ... I'm Miguel … I think that I have find the best restaurant … eh … it's big … with a lot of light and they do a very good dinner and … and … the best thing is that isn't expensive … eh … what do you think?

- *Situation 2*:
Hey Pedro … I'm Miguel … I have thought that you must to go to talk to the professor and … and explain your situation … eh … tell him that this internship is very important of you and … and that you have a lot of ilusion and you will worked a lot of hard.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Sir Director … eh …I call because I … I must to tell you that we must to change the day of the project because … because the students have some exams … eh … for this reason they will not interested in the project.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello ... I'm Miguel … I call because you … you … mustn't to change your degree … you must to be hard … eh … you must to think that when you finish this degree in five or six or seven or more years … eh … you have a good work and you will not make anything in all day and … and … you will have a lot of money.

Student 18 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello professor ... I'm Enrique … I think that you should go to Davincy because there they have great pizzas.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello ... I'm Enrique … I call you because you should go to talk to the professor and … and you should explain your situation.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello professor ... I'm Enrique … I think that you should change the day of the talk because … because most students and I have oral exams on that day.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello … I'm Enrique … eh … I think that you shouldn't change from Computer Science Engineering to Technical Engineering in Computer Systems because when you … when you finished to study you … you will be most intelligent.

Students' phone production data: post-test

Explicit Group

Student 4 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello ... I'm Christian ... I'm calling for you for explain that ... eh ... I know a professor from my department that is good for your exposition because PowerPoint ... is a tool more extended in computer science … so … I think a good idea would be to call Oscar Belmonte … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello ... I'm Christian ... I'm calling for you because this evening I talked with a great friend … he recommended that if you would study in in another country … it's ... eh ... the university of Holland is a ... one of the most important university of ... in computer science ... eh ... so you can go there if you want ... bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello ... I'm Christian … I'm calling you for explain that a good idea would be to go to Media Markt because there are more ... more materials for your for your project ... bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello ... I'm Christian … I'm calling you for recommended the subject of Multimedia next year because in Multimedia you can use the images and you can integrate some animations ... bye.

Student 7 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello ... I'm Manolo ... I call for suggest you ... eh ... one professor for the summer course of PowerPoint … and ... I think a good idea would be ... eh ... to call Oscar Belmonte … because he is a good professor in the department of computer science ...

- *Situation 2*:
Hello ... I'm Manolo ... How are you? ... eh ... I call you for ... eh ... the project of Erasmus ... eh ... I know a ... classmate that go to Holland university ... and he says that the professors were very good ... and it's a good university … so you should go there ... if you want his telephone number … eh … I will contact you for ...

- *Situation 3*:
Hello ... I'm Manolo ... I call you for recommend you a good bookshop ... eh... I buy some books in Argot ... eh ... it's in the center of Castellón … so it would be helpful if you go.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello ... I'm Manolo ... I call you for ... the subjects that you take ... next year ... eh .. I think that Multimedia is a better option because is more easy and more entertaining ... goodbye.

Student 15 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello … Mr. Smith ... I'm Víctor ... eh ... for the summer course ... eh ... on PowerPoint ... I would recommend that you call Oscar Belmonte ... is the the Multimedia professor … he knows a lot of PowerPoint and Flash ... he can ... he can help you about the course ... bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello David ... one moment I met Peter in the street and he told me that he was the last ... the last semester at the University of Holland and I wanted to recommend you this university … because is a very good university ... if you would like to go there with the Erasmus … there is the best of the universities … OK? Byebye … see you.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Miss. Jane … I'm Víctor ... eh ... do you remember the project? I know ... a a good bookshop … there is in Valencia in Colon street ... If I were you … I would go to this bookshop because in my opinion is the best … the name is ABC … OK? byebye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello Irene … I'm Víctor … I know ... I know that you are in a problem in select Industrial computers or Multimedia … I recommend you that you take Multimedia because it's a funny subject … you have a project and the teoric classes are very very easy ... OK? … see you.

Implicit Group

Student 3 – female

- *Situation 1*:
Hi ... I'm Amanda and I want to talk you about the summer course on the use of PowerPoint ... and I want to tell that I have thought about your ... you told me about a professor from my department of Computer Science ... and I have think about Gloria Martínez … that's all … thanks.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi ... I'm Amanda and I ... you have told me about ... eh ... that you want to go with an Erasmus scholarship next year ... and I ... I meet a friend that told me that university of Holland was very good because the technical courses were very good and all the professors were very supportive ... so I think that you can go to this university ... bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hi … I'm Amanda ... and I want to tell you that maybe you could go to the bookshop Placido Gomez because ... there you have books about all the themes that you want and ... that's all ... bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi … I'm Amanda ... and I want to talk you about your ... what you have think that you don't know what to ... to course ... what course to take next year… Industrial Computers or Multimedia ... and I think that it's it's easy to ... to take Multimedia cos it's more easy to ... to pass the exam and if you want credits ... so I think you need to take Multimedia … OK? … bye.

Student 7 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello ... I'm Dani ... I telephone you for recommended a teacher for PowerPoint … eh ... I'm not sure … but ... I recommend ... a good idea would be Oscar Belmonte from University Jaume I … it's all ... goodbye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello … I'm Dani … are you interested in an Erasmus scholarship? I recommended to go at university of Holland because the professors were supportive ... goodbye … that's all.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello ... I'm Dani ... I call you for recommended one library ... I would recommend Babel library because it's specialised ... shop on ... on on science ... on computer science material … goodbye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello ... I'm Dani ... perhaps you should choose Multimedia because it has more benefits for the future ... see you soon … bye.

Student 11 – female

- *Situation 1*:
eh ... hello … I am María Angeles Gómez … about eh ... the professor … eh … I think that German Fabregat is a good professor ... who he knows the PowerPoint program … this professor is my friend … so maybe you could speak him and he help ... help you … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello … I am María Angeles Gómez … eh ... about Erasmus scholarship ... eh this morning I meet Pepe … he go last semester at the university of Holland … he said that he enjoyed his stay at this University because the technical courses were very good and the professors were were suppositive … so ... why don't you think about this University? … OK … call me.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello … I am María Angeles Gómez ... this morning … eh ... don't remember a good uh ... bookshop … but now I remember a good bookshop ... it's Babel … in this bookshop … eh ... there are a section on books of computer science … eh ... if you ... if you like it go ... we can go together.

- *Situation 4*:
eh ... about subject ... eh ... the ... Industrial Computer is interesting … but it's very difficult and bored … I think that you need to have Multimedia because ... eh ... I have classnotes and I can help you.

Control Group

Student 9 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello … I'm Mario ... I call you about the professor … I don't know what professor suggest … because I don't go many times to class … eh … but Andres Marzal is one of the best that I meet ... bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi I'm Mario …the last day I meet a new classmate ... don't think more … eh … the University of Holland is the best option … and … and after studying … you can have a less of relax in one of the many coffeeshops … bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello professor … eh... I have looking for a specialised bookshop in Castellón … eh … but I think that you can buy the books in Internet … bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello … I'm Mario … I call you because I'm sure Multimedia is the best course because … because it's one of the most important sections in the computer science … bye.

Student 18 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello professor … I'm Enrique … I call because I think that Manuel Garcia is a good professor for the PowerPoint presentation because … because he always works with this program … eh … this professor has an academy where he teachs PowerPoint … bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello Pepe … I'm Enrique … I have heard from a classmate that the university of Holland is good … eh … at this University … the technical courses were very good and all the professors were supportive … eh … I think that you should go to this university because … because you will enjoy yourself … bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Ana … I'm Enrique … when I arrived home I remembered a good bookshop where there are a lot of books of computer science … eh … this bookshop is situated in Green Ave and … and its name is Computer Science Books … I hope that you go there …bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello Pepita … I'm Enrique … I think that you should make the subject of Multimedia because it is good and you learn more than Industrial Computers … eh … the next year I'm going to make Multimedia and then I study with you … bye.

Student 24 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hi … I'm Antonio … eh … It has occurred to me that Marzal could be a good professor for the PowerPoint presentation … eh … because … because of her big experience in this application … eh … tell me what you think please.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi … I'm Antonio … I've just heard that … that the university of Holland is a great university to go on Erasmus … eh … I've heard that the technical courses are very good and the professors are supportive.

- *Situation 3*:
Hi … I'm Antonio … eh … now I remember a bookshop specialised in Computer Science … where surely you can find information about our project … eh … it's name is "Librería especializada en ordenadores" … and is situated behind the UJI's campus … eh … I hope this information have helped you.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi … I'm Antonio … I call you to tell you that I think Multimedia is better than Industrial Computers because of Multimedia has more content of software than Industrial Computers … eh … and so … eh … is more easy … think about it.

Students' email production data: pre-test

Explicit Group

Student 9 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Dear professor,
I want to say you, I think that a good idea could to be a travel to Londres, because is the good reason to go out and look other country, so could to learn English and could to see the town. Bye.

- *Situation 2*:
Dear beltran,
I want to say about your next computer, I think that the best computer is a Macintosh, that it´s more expensive than a PC, and a PC is more compatible than a macintosh, so, I think that you must buy PC.
Bye, friend.

- *Situation 3*:
Dear Director,
I would like that a good idea could to be more interesant that is now, it could to have more relation wiht the cotidian life, and the teacher could to explain so good.
Bye, Mr director.

- *Situation 4*:
Dear brother´s friend,
I only say you, don´t get a Programacion´s subject, it´s very difficult, if you go to get it, you must study a few in the summer about it, if you decide to study in summer, read about C, C is a language of programming, and you must get the three basics subject: mathematics, phisyc and information technology, if you have got any doubt, you get in touch with me.
Bye, I see you in university.

Student 19 – male

- *Situation 1*:
A good idea to outdoor activity is going to ibm company in Valencia(spain).We can learn like a big company works and it can be very important to ours education.Good bye

- *Situation 2*:
Hello, I´m Diego. I want to tell you one thing,if you is thinking of building a new computer,you need know that the pc are more compatible than the Macintosh and you don´t install some many programs. Good bye and see you later

- *Situation 3*:
Director, you need know that my opinion about the subject of electronic has a big problem,it is very fast(the way to do it) and the next year this agenda must be more short.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi, I´m the big brother of Juan.
Juan told me that you want to study computer science as me.To study my degree is good idea, specially if you choose programming introduction.
Bye-bye

Student 20 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello ! I think it would be a good suggest going to the beach.

- *Situation 2*:
Good afternoon!, about buying computer theme, I think it would be better you buy a PC, because it's more actually than a Macintosh, and the running is more easy.

- *Situation 3*:
good afternoon!, I think that it would be a good idea to delet some aspects of Electronics, from which for example the colours of the chips of transistors for clasifying them and call them other form more easy.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello!, I'm your friend Sandra's brother.If you want to study computer science, I'll suggest the subject of basic informatic for the first year for free configuration style, I think that subject is very interesting. Regards Alex. Bye.

Implicit Group

Student 4 – female

- *Situation 1*:
Hello! I´m Irene. I think we can make a trip at the end of the course. England is a good place to go because we can practice all that we learned in class and it is less expensive than other countries.Bye!

- *Situation 2*:
Hello! Do you know what computer buy??? I send you this mail to say my opinion about this situation. Macintosh is better if you need work with drawing programs but you don´t need this for this reason I suggest you buy a PC.If you want more information send me a mail. Bye!!

- *Situation 3*:
Hello!! I´m Irene I have a new ideas to improve this subject. In my opinon we need more time in practics because we never can finish the activities. I think you must do exercises because these are important to understand the theory. You can recommend some books to study.Bye!!!

- *Situation 4*:
Hey!! My brother told me that you want study computer science I write you to say my opinon about the subjecs that you can take this first year. I suggest you take subjects as basic iformatic because it subject is a good introducion to this degree. The most important subject in the first year is programation it is necesary in other subjects and you will need make programs during all degree. If have any question send me a mail. Bye!!!!

Student 16 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello, I'm Sergio
I have been a idea, I've thought that we could travel to London for a week. that would be funny.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello I'm Sergio:
I think you should buy a pc because is easier for using and you will have less problems.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello my name is Sergio and my opinion about Electronics is:
it's the subject most dificult of the degree and very bored. And I'd change the way of teach, because his classes are very, very bored.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello I'm Sergio
I would choose the subject "Microinformatica" because it's very interesting and is very easy to pass and if you pass the subject you'll have five credits.

Student 17 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello!
I think that, we can go to a company of computers, for example to visit IBM.
There, we'd can to see some important things.
Bye, see you

- *Situation 2*:
Hello!
How are you?I'm fine. You don't know whether to buy a PC or a Macintosh, I think that you have to buy a PC, because there are a lot of components for only PC. But a Macintosh are a good computer.
Bye.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Sir.
Because I don't have that subject,I can't suggest anything, but I think that it have much hours at week, it would have less hours, because we have got a lot of hours in day.
Bye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi!
You would take a very important subject which is Informatica Basica. This subject is the most easiest in this degree,and it's very interesting for your future. If you know that it's more dificult, I can help you.
Bye

Control Group

Student 5 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello Ana,
I wrote you because I think we could go to a computer industry and see how they build computers.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi, dear friend:
I think you should buy a PC and install on it Windows, because there are a few games for Mac, and they're horrible.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello director,
I wrote you to suggest that the Introduction to Computers subject should be more practic and should teach the students how to build a PC.

- *Situation 4*:
Last year I did Programming Metodology and I enjoyed learning how to make my own programs, so I think you should take this subject.

Student 13 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hi professor! I have been to thinking about one outdoor activity at the end of the course and I think that is a good idea: I have thought that all professors can do a party, a great party and they will buy a lot of things for the students.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi my friend! I want to tell one thing about your buy of a new PC. I think that is very important that your new computer is PC because the PC is more compatible with the actual computers than the Macintosh.

- *Situation 3*:
Personnally, I think that "Introduction to computers" isn't a very difficult subject, but this reason isn't valid for you do the exams very difficult. And you teach this subject very fast and we, the students, can't understand all the concepts.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello friend! I suggest you two subjects. The first subject is "Historia de Europa" because is very easy and it isn't necessary that you go to the class and the second subject is "Robotica" that is more difficult but this subject will teach you very important things.

Student 22 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Greetings :
I would like to suggest you a football match between teachers and students. The loser team could invite the winners to lunch.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi friend,
I think you should buy a PC because Macintosh is less common here and you will have problems in finding devices that may break down.

- *Situation 3*:
Director,
Personally, I think the problem is not in the subject. You should try to change the teachers involved in the subject.

- *Situation 4*:
Dear friend,
The subject that I enjoyed the most with was Programming in C, because is the most related subject with computers.

Students' email production data: post-test

Explicit Group

Student 6 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello Alicia:
I believe that it would be helpful if you teach students of computer science how to write a Curriculum Vitae in english, because there are many companies that consider that language is very important. There are also some companies that make job interviews in english to their candidates.
Hope be helpful.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi Inma!
I think you need to visit some companies and give them your CV, because like this they can know you. Moreover, if possible, try to write a presentation letter, and put both documents in an envelop, and give it with your name to the company.
Hope help you!

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Mr. Madrid:
In reference to our conversation last morning, about some ideas on any program for the workshop on creating websites, I think that a good idea would be the use of Netscape Composer or Mozilla Composer.
I used both programs when I started to learn how to make webpages, and I consider tha tthey are very easy to use, and is not required a high level to the owners. In addition, these programs are for beginners.
There is also another additional benefit, these programs are free, and is very easy to find them in the Internet.
I hope to helpful to you.
Best wishes.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi superbestia!
How are you boy?
My brother says that you want to buy a color printer. Are you sure?
OK. The cheapest color printers are the ink-jet. There are a lot of companies that sells this kind of printers, but I think the best option is to buy an HP. Do you know HP? That is Hewlett-Packard. HP's printers are very, very good, and are not very expensive, and the quality is also very good, so you might want to buy one of these. I believe that there are laser-color printers yet, but don't buy it, because are very expensive.
Well, boy, if you want, call me before buying, when you have seen any printer or any prospectus.
Bye!

Student 10 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Dear professor:
I have been thinking about the question you explained to us in class and personally I would recommend as new class activity the learning of english songs, if the songs are enough fashionable and slow, it may be very interesting and exiting, but the most important thing is that it would be very helpfull because of the actual vocabulary employed in that songs.
Sincersly, Xavier Felip León

- *Situation 2*:
Hi! Ana:
I'm writing this email to recommend you to go personally to the companies because if you go and they see what kind of people are you, you will win a lot of points to be contracted, but if you can't go personally to all of the companies, why don't you go the the most interesting personally and send the CV to the others?.
Sincersly yours, Xavi

- *Situation 3*:
Mr. Director:
I am an student from ITIS, and I think that it would be helpful if the workshop employes the Front Page HTML editor combined with FLASH MX, then, the textbooks to be used should be the handbook of Front Page and the handbook of FLASH MX, both programms are very easy to use and have a lot of possibilities that can be combined with excellent results.
Yours faithfully Xavier Felip León

- *Situation 4*:
Hello Charles:
My brother has commented that you're looking for a good printer, I think that perhaps you should buy a Canon BJC 2100 because I think that it is the better color printer at the moment in both quality and price, it is worth only in 120   only and has good quality and enough velocity to be at home.
See you, Xavi

Student 12 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Dear Alicia,
About the syllabus for the next year I think a good idea would be to organize a meeting with erasmus students where we could talk with them in english. Realizing this activity we could inprove our oral english and we could see if we are really able to talk with english people.
See you soon,
Alvaro

- *Situation 2*:
Hi Ernesto !!!
Peter has told me that you are thinking of looking for a job this summer. Perhaps you should send an email with your CV attached to different companies better than going personally to ech one (It's too work!!!). If you don't know how to do that, send me an email and I will help you.
See you tomorrow in class,
Alvaro

- *Situation 3*:
Dear Director,
I am Alvaro, one the students of your class. I would probably suggest that you use a very good program called "Front Page". Perhaps, with this program your students could create websites easily. I am not sure, but I think a good idea would be to do a booklet of the program. With bouth (the booklet and the program) I think your students will have no problem with the creation of websites.
Your Sincerily,
Alvaro

- *Situation 4*:
Hi Ramon!!
My brother has told me that you are going to buy a new printer but you have no idea about printers. If I were you I would buy a Laser printer. This technology is the best to print images with a lot of quality. Laser printers are more expensive than the others but there are some laser printers with very good prize in MediaMarkt. You can just go there and ask for an easy laser printer. I'm sure they will help you.
See you,
Alvaro

Implicit Group

Student 5 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello Alice,
I'm Javier de la Cueva and I have a suggestion for a new activitie for the next course. Maybe you could bring a radio and all the class could sing your favorites songs, and you could correct our vocabulary and pronunciation at the same time, your classes will be more exciting.
Javier

- *Situation 2*:
Hello oscar:
I'm Javier, respect your job I was thinking that you should send your CV to all companies, while more CV do you send you will have more oportunities of work, but you can go to visit some companies too, you can do that you want but it is better you do all that you can.
Javier

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Mr Johns:
I,m Javier and I write you about the material for your class, I was searching a good book and finally I found "FrontPage for stupids". Personally I would recommend that you use this book because this book is about FrontPage, a good program for the creation of websites, is very easy to use and very cheap. If you have any question send me an email.
see you, Javier

- *Situation 4*:
Dear superbestia:
I´m Javier, I knew that you need a new colour printer, I suppose that you want a colour printer cheaper and powerfull, I think the better brand is HP, it have good machines and her price is cheaper, her cartridges are very cheaper too, and you have more printers to chose, I always buy this brand. If you have any question or you want to came with me, call me, I go with you.
Good bye superbestia, Javier

Student 12 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hello, i think that if you are implementing the syllabus for next course you could put one activitie where we can see films and do analysis or comments of the diferents parts.
Bye
Borja

- *Situation 2*:
Hello, you are looking for a job, no? Ok, why don't you send the CV to Some companies but I think you need go personally to the companies that you think are more importants or more interesting for you because they can think you are more interested in work in they companie that if you send the CV.
Bye

- *Situation 3*:
Hello, about the workshop for next course I think it would be helpful if you use easy programs like DreamWeaver or similars and you could give the students some basic material about the code to make websites so then the students can understand the internal form of the web. Other courses that I see have the same structure or similar.
Bye
Borja

- *Situation 4*:
Hello, how are you? About the printers. There are printers like Lexmark that are really cheap but in the time are more expensives because for example the price of two cartridges are similar to the printer. Perhaps you should buy the brands Epson or HP (the printer is more expensive that the others but the cartridges are more cheaper).
Bye
Borja

Student 21 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Dear professor:
I write you this mail in response to the question you exposed about activities that could be implemented in the syllabus for next course. Personally I would recommend you as a new class activity make chats with foreign students to force us speak English to understand owerselfs. This chats could be with real people or on Internet with the help of the professor. I wish it could be possible.
Faithfully, Víctor Sorolla

- *Situation 2*:
Hi! Sara:
About the question of the CV that you made the other day perhaps you should go personally to the companies because the appearance is very important and demonstrates your interest in the job, but to have more chance in order to get a new job maybe you can send your CV by email to companies that request a job, I think that is impossible that you go to all companies personally.
Bye and good luck!.

- *Situation 3*:
Respected Director:
I am Juan García Miralles, student of I.T.I.S.. In first place I would recommend you the "Front Page" as a HTML editor due to it is easy to use, easier than "Dreamweaver" because works like Microsoft Office, moreover this program is very famous and you could find a lot of books, guides and free on-line manuals (typing in Google "front page manual"). If you would know the results of the program you could see my webpage made completely with Front Page, the URL is: http://www.collamec.tk . I hope that it had be useful.
Yours faithfully Víctor Sorolla

- *Situation 4*:
Hello Pablo:
My brother had told me that you are searching for a new printer, I think that Hewlet Packard (HP) is a good printer due to its durability (I have one since 1994 and works perfectly) moreover the colour quality results are very professional near to photographic quality. Although it is a good printer it's a little expensive and perhaps you would like to buy a cheaper printer like Epson that is as good as HP, and the cartridges of Epson brand are cheaper than the other but they do not last too much, however the last election depends of you and your preferences.
Write back if you have any question more, bye!.

Control Group

Student 1 – female

- *Situation 1*:
Hello Mrs. Fernandez,
In my opinion, we could see a english film, because more students are interested in cinema. I think that some activities aren't interested for the students like oral presentation in class. Some students prefer that the oral presentation are doing in the teacher's office. The other activities are good.

- *Situation 2*:
Hello Pili!
If you want to have job soon, you must go personally to the personal interview. Have a good luck!!

- *Situation 3*:
Hello, Mr. Jones,
I have read some books about design websites and I think that the best information are in the web. You can see this webpage: www.html.programacion.com . It's more interested, it have a "foro" and you can ask to other persons your questions.

- *Situation 4*:
Hello!
I'm the sister of Peter and the told me that you want to buy a new printer. In my opinion the best printers are HP, so if you want a printer forever, you must buy a HP.
See you!!

Student 11 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hi Ana. I thought about a new activity to do during the next year for the subject. We could go out to cinema in order to see original version movies, with or without subtitles, to improve listening and comprehension.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi Ricky!
I think the best choice you can do is to apply for a job related to your carrer, that's important because you will do the job better, and you will be able to know what war you doing.

- *Situation 3*:
Hi Mr. X,
I write you about the website design course. The best software to make webpages is a combination of Dreamweaver from Macromedia and Photoshop from Adobe. That is the software I use for my websites and I know a lot about them. You can look good books at amazon.com because I don't use any book (I learned all by myself).

- *Situation 4*:
Hi Senpai! How are you?
I'm glad you asked me about printers because I want to sell mine and buy a new one. If you're not interested, I suggest you an Epson or a HP.

Student 21 – male

- *Situation 1*:
Hi Ana,
I'm Víctor of your english class. I send you this mail about the syllabus for next course. It would be a good idea to see an english film, in my opinion it's a good way to learn english because to listen real conversations helps to improve pronunciation.

- *Situation 2*:
Hi Laura,
I'm Víctor, yesterday browsing the internet i read some good articles that recomend to send as many CV as you can because companies prefer see your CV before interview you. So if you go first to the company you want to work for, they will want you to send your CV anyway.

- *Situation 3*:
Hello Mr. Perez,
I send you this mail to suggest two books about websites design. I found helpful these two books: Diseño de paginas web, Webs en PHP. The first one it's related to the style of a website and the second explains PHP step by step, I think it is a good idea to inlude PHP in the website. Goodbye.

- *Situation 4*:
Hi Joan,
I'm Laura's brother, I'have been asking for the features of some printers in a few computer shops, and I can tell you some helpful suggestions. There are two common companies that make printers, HP and Epson. Printers of both companies are cheap but the HP ink is very expensive. So I suggest you to buy an Epson printer because it will be cheaper in the future.

NORMATIVA ACADÉMICA DE LA UNIVERSITAT JAUME I PARA TESIS DOCTORALES ESCRITAS EN UNA LENGUA DISTINTA A LAS OFICIALES

EL EFECTO DE LA INSTRUCCIÓN EN EL DESARROLLO DE LA COMPETENCIA PRAGMÁTICA EN EL CONTEXTO DE INGLÉS COMO LENGUA EXTRANJERA: UN ESTUDIO BASADO EN SUGERENCIAS

1. Justificación y objetivos de la investigación

Aprender un idioma extranjero, especialmente la lengua inglesa, parece ser hoy en día algo esencial en todos los programas de estudios. De hecho, "hablar inglés" se ha convertido en una necesidad: se trata del "gran idioma nacional" (House y Kasper, 2000; House, 2002a, 2002b) para el intercambio de información y comunicación (Cenoz y Jessner, 2000). Teniendo en cuenta la importancia actual del uso del inglés como medio de comunicación internacional, enseñar y aprender este idioma se considera como una necesidad en nuestra sociedad. Sin embargo, desarrollar la competencia necesaria de los estudiantes para comunicarse en inglés, necesitaba un cambio en los antiguos paradigmas teóricos, —aquellos que consideraban la lengua como un sistema formal basado en una serie de reglas gramaticales—, hacia una perspectiva mucho más comunicativa. Este cambio fue posible gracias a la los estudios de pragmática y a su introducción como área específica dentro de la lingüística, ya que propició un nuevo enfoque hacia aspectos interactivos y contextuales de la lengua meta (Alcaraz, 1990, 1996).

Desde entonces, se han ido desarrollando diferentes modelos de competencia comunicativa, que incluyen no sólo la competencia gramatical sino también la competencia pragmática (Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei y Thurrell, 1995; Alcón, 2000). Este último componente —la competencia pragmática— se refiere a la habilidad que el aprendiz de una lengua tiene para poder emplear los recursos lingüísticos y el conocimiento sociocultural del que dispone de forma apropiada en un contexto determinado. La importancia y creciente atención que se le está prestando al análisis de la adquisición y el desarrollo de este conocimiento pragmático por parte de los estudiantes ha dado lugar a una nueva área de investigación conocida como la pragmática del interlenguaje. Según LoCastro (2003), la pragmática del interlenguaje es el área más relevante para los profesores dentro del campo de la pragmática, puesto que un buen conocimiento de ésta les permitiría diseñar materiales y programas educativos basados no solamente en la gramática, sino también en aspectos pragmáticos y discursivos.

Diferentes investigadores dentro de esta disciplina han analizado la comprensión y producción por parte de los estudiantes de varios aspectos pragmáticos, así como los procesos y factores que afectan su desarrollo pragmático, tanto en contextos de aprendizaje de segundas lenguas como de lenguas extranjeras (Kasper y Dahl, 1991; Kasper y Blum-Kulka, 1993; Cohen, 1996; Kasper y Schmidt, 1996; Rose, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a, 2002; Kasper y Rose, 1999, 2002). Los resultados de esta investigación sugieren que la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes puede ser insuficiente a pesar de tener un alto nivel de competencia gramatical o haber pasado un tiempo en la comunidad de la lengua meta (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Por tanto, la enseñanza de la pragmática se considera un componente necesario para desarrollar la capacidad de los estudiantes a la hora de comunicarse de forma apropiada en la lengua meta, especialmente cuando se trata de lenguas extranjeras (Kasper, 1997a, 2001a, 2001b; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper y Rose, 2002). De hecho, tal y como apunta Kasper (1996; 2001a; 2001b), en comparación con un contexto de aprendizaje de segundas lenguas —donde los estudiantes tienen un mayor contacto con la lengua meta y una amplia oportunidad para poder utilizarla de forma normal—, en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras los estudiantes no disponen de la misma oportunidad para poder interactuar en situaciones de auténtica comunicación. Por esta razón, se necesita más investigación sobre el papel de la instrucción formal en el desarrollo de la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera.

Hay un buen número de estudios sobre los efectos de la instrucción en esta materia. Algunos de ellos se han basado en aspectos específcos, como estrategias y marcadores discursivos (House y Kasper, 1981a), elementos conversacionales (Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay y Thananart, 1997; Tateyama, 2001), fluidez en pragmática (House, 1996), y varios actos de habla, como los cumplidos (Billmyer, 1990; Rose y Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), las peticiones (Safont, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya y Zhang, 2002), las disculpas (Olshtain y Cohen, 1990), los rechazos (Morrow, 1995) y las quejas (Morrow, 1995; Trosborg, 2003). Se han editado también volúmenes que incluyen diversos estudios al respecto e intentan reflejar el estado actual en el campo, como el de Rose y Kasper (2001) y Martínez-Flor, Usó y Fernández (2003). Y hay cada vez una mayor propuesta de actividades diseñadas esencialmente para enseñar aspectos pragmáticos (como la colección de

actividades de Bardovi-Harlig y Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Sin embargo, se ha apuntado la gran necesidad que hay de realizar más estudios que abarquen otros aspectos pragmáticos (Kasper y Rose, 2002). La enseñanza del uso de las sugerencias parece ser uno de ellos, ya que prácticamente no existe investigación al respecto. Y es este, precisamente, el acto de habla en el que nos centramos en el presente estudio.

Con respecto a los varios modelos de instrucción empleados para desarrollar la competencia pragmática, la investigación realizada parece dejar de manifiesto que hay más ventajas si dicha instrucción es explícita y los resultados que obtienen los estudiantes son más fructíferos (House y Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997). Este tipo de instrucción explícita consiste en la provisión de explicaciones metapragmáticas que siguen el paradigma de "atención a las formas" (*Focus on FormS*). Por el contrario, una instrucción implícita se caracteriza o bien por la ausencia de esas explicaciones metapragmáticas o simplemente por la provisión de *input* y ejercicios aislados sin ningún tipo de explicación, lo que resulta insuficiente y mucho menos eficaz (Kasper y Rose, 2002). Por este motivo, queda patente la necesidad de extender a la enseñanza de la pragmática los principios teóricos que se representan en el paradigma de "atención a la forma" (*Focus on Form*), como sugieren Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei y Thurrell (1997), Doughty y Williams (1998a, 1998c), Alcón y Codina (2002), García-Mayo y Alcón (2002) y Alcón (2004).

Con la intención de arrojar más luz sobre la eficacia de diferentes tratamientos y enfoques para la enseñanza de la pragmática, basados en sólidos paradigmas de instrucción y teorías cognitivas de procesamiento (Kasper y Rose, 2002), nuestro estudio pretende comparar dos tipos de instrucción: la explícita y la implícita. Por un lado, la condición de instrucción explícita ha recibido explicaciones metapragmáticas al seguir los principios del paradigma de "atención a las formas". Por otro lado, hemos operacionalizado el tipo de instrucción implícita adoptando la combinación de dos técnicas implícitas del paradigma de "atención a la forma": el realce del *input* y la reformulación.

Además, también cabe destacar que la mayoría de los estudios anteriormente mencionados que se han centrado en el papel de la instrucción en la pragmática, han examinado exclusivamente dicho efecto sobre la producción que los estudiantes hacen de un aspecto pragmático concreto. Lamentablemente, muy pocos estudios se han centrado en los efectos de la instrucción sobre la consciencia y comprensión de un rasgo pragmático en particular (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Fukuya y Clark, 2001), y ninguno ha tratado los dos aspectos a la vez, es decir, la producción y la comprensión, con el mismo grupo de participantes. También es escasa la investigación sobre el efecto de la instrucción en el grado de seguridad que tienen los estudiantes sobre su competencia pragmática (Takahashi, 2001; Fukuya y Zhang, 2002) y nunca se ha explorado la seguridad de los estudiantes al evaluar si un acto de habla específico estaba expresado de forma apropiada en una determinada situación. Teniendo en cuenta todos estos aspectos, las tres habilidades de producción. Teniendo en cuenta todos estos aspectos y carencias en las investigaciones previas, en este estudio se han integrado las tres habilidades de producción, consciencia pragmática y grado de seguridad.

Recapitulando, este estudio viene motivado por los cuatro aspectos a los que se ha aludido, es decir, (1) la necesidad de examinar el efecto de la instrucción en contextos de aprendizaje de inglés como lengua extranjera; (2) la enseñanza de otros aspectos pragmáticos que no se hayan analizado anteriormente, como las sugerencias; (3) la investigación de la eficacia de diferentes métodos de instrucción, es decir, los tratamientos explícito e implícito representados por los paradigmas de "atención a las formas" y "atención a la forma"; y (4) la necesidad de tratar con diferentes aspectos de la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes, tales como la producción, la consciencia y la seguridad. Específicamente, pretendemos analizar tanto el efecto de la instrucción como la eficacia de diferentes tratamientos en el desarrollo de la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes con respecto a su producción, comprensión y seguridad al juzgar el uso apropiado de sugerencias en la clase inglés como lengua extranjera. Estos aspectos nos han llevado a formular las seis primeras hipótesis de nuestro estudio:

Hipótesis 1: Los grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita mejorarán significativamente la producción de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas en el post-test sobre el pre-test, a diferencia del grupo control.

Hipótesis 2: No habrá diferencia significativa entre los dos grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita al medir la producción de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas.

Hipótesis 3: Los grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita mejorarán significativamente la consciencia de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas en el post-test sobre el pre-test, a diferencia del grupo control.

Hipótesis 4: No habrá diferencia significativa entre los dos grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita al medir la consciencia de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas.

Hipótesis 5: Los grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita mejorarán significativamente su grado de seguridad al evaluar las sugerencias que sean pragmáticamente apropiadas en el post-test sobre el pre-test, a diferencia del grupo control.

Hipótesis 6: No habrá diferencia significativa entre los dos grupos que reciben tanto instrucción explícita como implícita al medir su grado de seguridad que tienen al evaluar las sugerencias que sean pragmáticamente apropiadas.

Junto con nuestro interés por examinar la importancia de la instrucción para desarrollar la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes en la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera, nos hemos centrado también en aspectos relacionados con la metodología adoptada en la investigación. Tal y como Kasper y Rose (2002) han mencionado, solamente algunos estudios interesados en el efecto de la instrucción han empleado más de un instrumento para recoger los datos de los estudiantes en el contexto del aula. Los estudios

realizados por Tateyama *et al.* (1997) y Tateyama (2001) parecen ser una excepción debido al uso de varios instrumentos como un *role-play*, un cuestionario escrito o un instrumento de *auto-informe* (*self-report*). Con la finalidad de contribuir a estos estudios, hemos diseñado tres tipos diferentes de instrumentos para la recogida de datos: una tarea de producción oral, en la que los estudiantes debían dejar mensajes telefónicos, una tarea de producción escrita, en la que tenían que enviar emails, y una tarea de evaluación. Adicionalmente, también recogimos cuestionarios que los estudiantes completaron tres veces durante todo el estudio con el objetivo de obtener su opinión personal y actitud hacia las tareas y métodos de enseñanza empleados durante la instrucción.

Aparte de la necesidad de diseñar investigaciones que incluyan varios instrumentos de recogida de datos, anteriores estudios en el campo de la pragmática de la interlengua han apuntado la influencia que el tipo de tarea tiene sobre el comportamiento pragmático de los estudiantes (Kasper, 2000). En concreto, se han encontrado importantes diferencias entre las tareas de producción oral y las tareas de producción escrita (Beebe y Cummings, 1996; Houck y Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998; Safont, 2001). De este modo, también nos interesamos por examinar el efecto de la tarea oral y escrita en la producción de sugerencias por parte de nuestros estudiantes, lo que motivó la elaboración de nuestra séptima hipótesis:

Hipótesis 7: La tarea de producción, es decir, si es oral (mensajes telefónicos) o escrita (emails) afectará al uso pragmáticamente apropiado de sugerencias por parte de los estudiantes.

2. Planteamiento y metodología utilizada

Los participantes del estudio eran estudiantes de Ingeniería Técnica en Informática de Sistemas e Ingeniería Informática de la Universidad Jaume I. La investigación se realizó en tres clases diferentes, obteniendo así dos grupos experimentales que recibieron un tipo de instrucción concreta sobre el uso apropiado de las sugerencias, y un grupo control que no recibió ningún tipo de instrucción sobre este acto de habla. En concreto, un grupo de 24 estudiantes recibió un tipo de instrucción explícita, llamándose por tanto "el grupo

explícito", un grupo de 25 estudiantes recibió instrucción implícita, siendo por tanto "el grupo implícito", y finalmente, "el grupo control" lo formaron 32 estudiantes. Antes de comenzar el estudio, distribuimos un cuestionario para obtener más información personal sobre ellos y también realizaron una prueba de nivel con la que supimos que su nivel era intermedio (Apéndice 1).

Este estudio siguió con un diseño basado en *pre-test* y *post-test*. Se realizaron tres tipos de pruebas que se distribuyeron dos semanas antes de comenzar el estudio (*pre-test*) y una semana después de que el estudio hubo finalizado (*post-test*). Dichos tests consistían en una tarea de producción oral basada en dejar mensajes telefónicos (Apéndices 2 y 3); una tarea de producción escrita basada en enviar emails (Apéndices 4 y 5); y una tarea de evaluación (Apéndices 6 y 7). También se distribuyó un cuestionario (Apéndice 8) después de cada sesión para analizar la opinión y actitud que tenían los estudiantes hacia las tareas empleadas durante los dos tipos de instrucción.

Estos dos tipos de instrucción se implementaron durante todo un semestre académico que duró 16 semanas. El aspecto pragmático que se enseñó fue el acto de habla de las sugerencias, y en concreto, seleccionamos un total de doce formas pragmalingüísticas como objeto de instrucción. Por una parte, el grupo explícito recibió un tipo de instrucción basada en el paradigma de "atención a las formas." El tratamiento empleado con este grupo fue secuenciado y consistió en diversos componentes: 1) la enseñanza explícita de las formas seleccionadas para hacer sugerencias; 2) la presentación de situaciones auténticas grabadas en vídeo donde hablantes americanos interactuaban en varias situaciones relacionadas con la informática (Apéndice 10); y 3) una serie de actividades para activar tanto la consciencia pragmática de los estudiantes como sus oportunidades para practicar (Apéndice 13). Todas estas actividades se vieron complementadas con el uso de explicaciones metapragmáticas por parte de la profesora. Por otra parte, el tipo de instrucción que recibió el grupo implícito se basó en el paradigma de "atención a las forma." El tratamiento específico para este grupo consistió en la combinación de dos técnicas implícitas (el realce del *input* y la reformulación) que fueron implementadas como parte de los componentes que integraron el tratamiento para este grupo: 1) la presentación de las mismas situaciones grabadas en vídeo

que fueron presentadas al grupo explícito, pero en esta versión las formas seleccionadas como objeto de estudio aparecían resaltadas en negrita para poder implementar la técnica del realce del *input* (Apéndice 11); y 2) una serie de actividades, entre ellas el uso de *role-plays*, para así poder implementar la segunda técnica implícita basada en la reformulación del uso inapropiado o incorrecto de las sugerencias por parte de los estudiantes (Apéndice 14). El grupo control, por el contrario, no recibió ningún tipo de instrucción relacionada con el uso apropiado de las sugerencias.

Para el análisis de los resultados se utilizó el paquete estadístico SPSS y se consideró como estadísticamente significativo un valor de $p < 0.05$. Para analizar las hipótesis 1, 3 y 5 (que hacen referencia a los efectos de la instrucción en el uso, consciencia y grado de seguridad de los estudiantes al juzgar si las sugerencias eran más o menos apropiadas en las varias situaciones), comparamos el comportamiento de los estudiantes en el *pre-test* y en el *post-test*. Después de categorizar y codificar los datos de los estudiantes, utilizamos la prueba Wilcoxon para comprobar si las diferencias encontradas en ambos momentos eran estadísticamente significativas. Aparte de corroborar si había habido una mejora en la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes en los tres aspectos mencionados como resultado de la instrucción, las hipótesis 2, 4 y 6 hacen referencia a la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción implementados en el estudio (explícita e implícita). Para poder comparar si el efecto de ambos tipos de instrucción en cada uno de los aspectos analizados era estadísticamente significativo, empleamos la prueba U de Mann-Whitney. Finalmente, la hipótesis 7 se centra en la influencia de la tarea a realizar por los estudiantes, es decir, si es oral o escrita, y si esto puede afectar el uso apropiado de las sugerencias. Para comprobar si las diferencias entre el uso de las sugerencias en una tarea u otra por parte de los estudiantes eran estadísticamente significativas, empleamos la prueba Wilcoxon.

3. Aportaciones originales

Por lo que se refiere a la hipótesis 1 del estudio, que trataba los efectos de la instrucción sobre la producción de sugerencias por parte de los estudiantes, comparamos el uso apropiado que estos hicieron de este acto de habla antes y después de recibir

instrucción. Los resultados demostraron que los estudiantes que recibieron tanto un tipo de instrucción explícita como implícita mejoraron significativamente la producción de sugerencias después del tratamiento, mientras que los estudiantes del grupo control disminuyeron el uso apropiado de este acto de habla. Además, un análisis cualitativo de estos datos reveló que los dos grupos que recibieron instrucción emplearon las formas seleccionadas durante el tratamiento, hecho que no se observó en la producción de los estudiantes del grupo control. Así pues, esta primera hipótesis se vio confirmada y a la vez también corroboró estudios anteriores centrados en los efectos de la instrucción de un acto de habla en concreto (Billmyer, 1990; Olshtain y Cohen, 1990; Morrow, 1995; Safont, 2001).

Al examinar la hipótesis 2, que predecía la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción (explícita e implícita) para fomentar la habilidad de los estudiantes al producir sugerencias, comparamos el comportamiento de estos en cada tipo de tratamiento antes y después de la implementación del estudio. Los resultados indicaron que no hubo diferencias significativas en los dos métodos de enseñanza, ni antes ni después de la instrucción. Estos resultados demostraron que ambos tipos de instrucción fueron igualmente efectivos para el desarrollo de la producción de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas, lo que confirma nuestra segunda hipótesis. Sin embargo, dichos resultados difieren de investigaciones anteriores que mostraban diferencias entre la enseñanza explícita e implícita y mejores resultados en la instrucción explícita (House y Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Takahashi, 2001). Los resultados de estos estudios podrían haber sido debido a la operacionalización del tipo de instrucción implícita, puesto que se basaba en excluir todo tipo de explicaciones metapragmáticas o simplemente en proporcionar más ejemplos junto con actividades prácticas. De este modo, los estudiantes que recibían este tipo de instrucción estaban en desventaja con los del tipo de instrucción explícita, ya que estos recibían una amplia información metapragmática. A diferencia de estos estudios, nuestro estudio empleó con el tipo de instrucción implícita una combinación sistemática de dos técnicas implícitas (realce del *input* y reformulación), lo que pudo haber contribuido a su eficacia.

Respecto a la hipótesis 3, que sugería el hecho de que los estudiantes que recibieran instrucción mejorarían su comprensión y consciencia pragmática de las sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas en contraste con el grupo control, comparamos los valores que los estudiantes habían marcado en la tarea de evaluación antes y después de la implementación del tratamiento. Esta tercera hipótesis quedó confirmada, puesto que los dos grupos que recibieron instrucción mejoraron significativamente su habilidad a la hora de reconocer las sugerencias apropiadas al compararlos con el grupo control. Estos resultados corroboran estudios anteriores que habían demostrado la eficacia de la instrucción para desarrollar la habilidad de comprender diferentes aspectos pragmáticos (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Safont, 2001). Además, también realizamos un análisis cualitativo basado en la justificación que los estudiantes dieron para seleccionar un determinado valor en cada situación. Específicamente, prestamos atención a la identificación de la parte inapropiada de una sugerencia en una situación concreta, las expresiones alternativas que dieron para cada una de estas situaciones y el número de razones que presentaron cuando la sugerencia era apropiada. Este análisis reveló una mayor consciencia pragmática y metapragmática por parte de los estudiantes que habían recibido instrucción, a diferencia de los estudiantes del grupo control.

La hipótesis 4 se centraba en la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción (explícita e implícita) para desarrollar la consciencia pragmática de los estudiantes al reconocer sugerencias apropiadas. Para comprobar la eficacia de los dos grupos, comparamos los valores marcados en la escala del 1 al 5 de la tarea de evaluación realizada por los estudiantes de cada grupo. Los resultados revelaron que nuestra cuarta hipótesis quedaba también confirmada, al no encontrar diferencias significativas entre los dos grupos que recibieron un tipo concreto de instrucción. Es decir, tanto la instrucción explícita como la implícita resultaron ser efectivas después de haber implementado el estudio. Sin embargo, estudios anteriores obtuvieron resultados poco concluyentes en esta cuestión (Kubota, 1995; Fukuya y Clark, 2001). Una posible explicación para estos resultados puede ser la corta duración del tratamiento implementado en dichos estudios. La implementación de nuestros dos tipos de instrucción, por el contrario, tuvo una duración amplia: se realizó durante un semestre de 16 semanas, donde se propiciaron oportunidades de exposición a

input auténtico y de práctica comunicativa. Así pues, la duración de la instrucción pudo haber influenciado nuestro estudio resultando en la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción.

El efecto positivo de la instrucción en la seguridad de los estudiantes al evaluar el grado de adecuación de las sugerencias se predijo en la hipótesis 5. Para comprobar esta hipótesis, comparamos los valores marcados por los estudiantes en la escala del 1 al 5 que acompañaba a la escala de apropiado-inapropiado en la tarea de evaluación antes y después de la instrucción. Los resultados mostraron que los dos grupos que recibieron instrucción mejoraron significativamente su grado de seguridad al evaluar el nivel de adecuación de las sugerencias, mientras que dicha mejora no se observó en el grupo control. Así pues, nuestra quinta hipótesis quedó confirmada, lo que corrobora el estudio de Takahashi (2001), donde las explicaciones metapragmáticas también aumentaron significativamente el grado de seguridad de los estudiantes. Sin embargo, el tipo de tratamiento implícito empleado en el estudio de Fukuya y Zhang (2002) no mostró los resultados que se esperaban. Por tanto, dada la poca investigación que se ha llevado a cabo sobre este aspecto concreto del grado de seguridad de los estudiantes, existe una clara necesidad de seguir explorándolo en estudios futuros.

Al centrarnos en la hipótesis 6, sugerimos que no se observarían diferencias significativas entre los dos tipos de instrucción (explícita e implícita) respecto a su grado de seguridad al evaluar un uso apropiado de las sugerencias. Para comprobarlo, contrastamos los valores marcados por los estudiantes en cada tipo de tratamiento. Los resultados de esta hipótesis mostraron que no existían diferencias significativas entre los dos tipos de instrucción en relación a su grado de seguridad al evaluar las sugerencias. De este modo, nuestra sexta hipótesis quedó también ratificada y corroboró de manera parcial el estudio de Takahashi (2001), que examinaba la seguridad de los estudiantes sobre su producción de peticiones. Takahashi (2001) comparó cuatro tipos de tratamiento diferentes y demostró solamente la eficacia de la instrucción explícita. Sin embargo, nuestro estudio ha mostrado la eficacia de los dos tipos de instrucción. Puesto que Takahashi (2001) no empleó un tipo de instrucción implícita similar a la nuestra, la comparación exacta no se ha podido realizar. Por este motivo, sería interesante examinar la eficacia de estos y otros tipos de instrucción

para desarrollar el grado de seguridad de los estudiantes con respecto a su habilidad pragmática.

La hipótesis 7 de este estudio adoptó una perspectiva diferente al centrarse en aspectos relacionados con la metodología empleada en la investigación. Esta hipótesis predijo la influencia que la tarea de producción supondría en el uso de sugerencias pragmáticamente apropiadas por parte de los estudiantes. Para comprobar esta hipótesis, comparamos el uso de las sugerencias en la tarea de producción oral (mensajes telefónicos) con el uso de éstas en la tarea de producción escrita (emails). Encontramos diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre el comportamiento de los estudiantes en la tarea de mensajes telefónicos y en la tarea de los emails, lo que indica que la tarea de producción en la que los estudiantes participaron influyó el uso que hicieron de las sugerencias. Teniendo en cuenta estos resultados, podemos apuntar que la séptima hipótesis se vio confirmada, coincidiendo con estudios anteriores que también encontraron los efectos que derivaban de la tarea a realizar (Houck y Gass, 1996; Sasaki, 1998). Además, nuestros resultados también apoyan el estudio de Safont (2001), ya que se encontró más cantidad de sugerencias apropiadas en la tarea de producción escrita que en la oral. Una posible explicación para nuestros resultados puede deberse al hecho de que la tarea de producción escrita que empleamos, es decir, los emails, pudo haber resultado más auténtica y elicitar respuestas más largas y mejor contextualizadas que el típico test para completar el discurso usado en otros estudios dentro del campo de la pragmática de la interlengua.

4. Conclusiones obtenidas y futuras líneas de investigación

Nuestro estudio ha demostrado los beneficios de la instrucción en el desarrollo de la competencia pragmática por parte de estudiantes en el contexto de aprendizaje de inglés como lengua extranjera y en el caso concreto de las sugerencias. Así pues, se puede afirmar que el presente estudio apoya anteriores investigaciones que han apuntado el hecho de que la instrucción es efectiva (Norris y Ortega, 2000; Doughty, 2003), y específicamente, a la investigación que ha examinado en concreto la enseñanza de elementos pragmáticos (Kasper y Rose, 2002). Además, nuestro estudio ha tratado el acto de habla de la

sugerencia, que no se había analizado anteriormente en ningún estudio de estas características. Nuestro estudio también ha demostrado la eficacia de dos tipos de tratamiento diferentes, el explícito y el implícito, que se operacionalizaron siguiendo los paradigmas de "atención a las formas" y "atención a la forma" (Doughty y Williams, 1998c; Long y Robinson, 1998). De este modo, se puede decir que un tipo de instrucción implícita puede ser eficaz para desarrollar la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes cuando se implementa de forma adecuada y bien fundamentada. Concretamente, en nuestro estudio, tanto el uso de explicaciones metapragmáticas con el grupo explícito como la combinación sistemática de dos técnicas implícitas (realce del *input* y reformulación) con el grupo implícito fueron igualmente efectivas para desarrollar varios aspectos de la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes, como son su producción, su consciencia pragmática y su grado de seguridad al evaluar un uso apropiado de las sugerencias. Finalmente, también ha contribuido a estudios anteriores que mostraron la influencia del tipo de tarea en el comportamiento de los estudiantes (Kasper y Dahl, 1991; Kasper, 2000). Concretamente, comprobamos que la tarea de producción escrita empleada en nuestro estudio (emails) produjo un mayor número de sugerencias apropiadas que la tarea de producción oral (mensajes telefónicos), un hecho que nos hizo reconocer la eficacia del uso de los emails para recoger la producción pragmática de los estudiantes.

Teniendo en cuenta nuestros resultados, se pueden proponer varias líneas de investigación, que a su vez se desprenden de las limitaciones a las que nuestro estudio está sujeto. Una de las primeras limitaciones que se pueden considerar al interpretar nuestros resultados está relacionada con el hecho de que nuestro estudio se ha basado únicamente en la enseñanza de doce formas pragmalingüísticas para expresar sugerencias. De hecho, estas formas representan sólo una pequeña parte del abanico total de posibilidades que pueden emplearse para hacer sugerencias. Sin embargo, el haber escogido un número concreto de formas quedó justificado al tener en cuenta los principios del paradigma de "atención a la forma" (Doughty y Williams, 1998c; Doughty, 2001, 2003). Al tomar dos técnicas implícitas de este paradigma con nuestro grupo implícito, la selección de unas determinadas formas fue uno de los requisitos para poder maximizar la eficacia del tipo de instrucción implícita, que debía ser consistente y basada exclusivamente en las formas

pragmalingüísticas seleccionadas. Además, es importante mencionar que la instrucción no se basó únicamente en la enseñanza de estas formas de manera aislada, sino que se enseñó la conexión entre dichas formas y las diferentes situaciones, la función de sugerir algo y los factores sociopragmáticos que afectaban su uso apropiado, como el *status* (prestigio) y grado de familiaridad. Teniendo en cuenta estas consideraciones, sería interesante analizar si con la selección de otras formas diferentes también obtendríamos resultados similares. También es importante mencionar que en este estudio nos hemos centrado específicamente en el acto de habla de las sugerencias, pero se podría examinar la enseñanza de otros actos de habla, así como de otros aspectos pragmáticos, empleando el mismo tipo de instrucción implícita que se ha utilizado en el presente estudio.

Una segunda limitación concierne al grupo concreto de estudiantes que ha participado en este estudio. Los participantes, tanto hombres como mujeres, pertenecían a tres clases diferentes de estudiantes universitarios de informática con un nivel intermedio de inglés. De este modo, las variables individuales de cada estudiante han podido influir en nuestros resultados. La variable de sexo, por ejemplo, se ha considerado una de las que afecta el uso específico de los actos de habla por parte de los estudiantes (Rose y Ng Kwai-fun, 2001). Por esta razón, nos preguntamos si la investigación con tan solo hombres o mujeres nos hubiera dado resultados diferentes. De igual manera, la edad y el nivel de lengua también deberían tomarse en consideración, ya que no sabemos cómo estudiantes más jóvenes, más mayores, de nivel inicial o nivel avanzado habrían actuado después de haber recibido la instrucción. Así pues, se necesitan más investigaciones que examinen la influencia de éstas y otras variables individuales como la motivación o la distancia social y psicológica (Kasper y Rose, 2002) que pueden afectar a la enseñanza de la competencia pragmática.

Aparte de nuestro grupo de participantes, una tercera limitación se refiere al hecho de que, debido a restricciones institucionales, la profesora de los dos grupos experimentales no era la misma del grupo control. Por tanto, aunque a la profesora del grupo control se le explicó detalladamente que no tratara ningún aspecto relacionado con cuestiones de tipo pragmático, su propia personalidad, al igual que su estilo de enseñanza, pudo haber tenido un efecto en la participación y motivación de los estudiantes hacia las actividades

realizadas en el aula. Sería interesante examinar si las diferencias entre los estilos de enseñanza de cada profesora pudo haber afectado a nuestros resultados. De igual manera, este tema concreto relacionado con el estilo particular de enseñanza de un profesor se debería investigar en estudios futuros relacionados con el efecto de la instrucción.

Una cuarta limitación a la que está sujeto nuestro estudio se debe a que el efecto de los tratamientos empleados sólo se ha examinado a corto plazo. Los tests administrados después de la instrucción (*post-tests*) para corroborar los efectos de ésta, se distribuyeron justo la semana después de la última sesión. Nos hubiera gustado poder emplear una prueba retrasada (*delayed post-test*) para poder determinar si las ganancias de los estudiantes en su competencia pragmática permanecían tiempo después de haber finalizado el período de instrucción, pero esto no fue posible, debido nuevamente a restricciones institucionales. Por este motivo, estamos de acuerdo con Kasper y Rose (2002) en el hecho de que futuros estudios deberían analizar el efecto de la instrucción a largo plazo por medio del uso de pruebas retrasadas que formaran parte del diseño de estos estudios.

Otra limitación se refiere a que ninguno de los instrumentos que elaboramos para recoger la producción pragmática de nuestros estudiantes produjo información de tipo interaccional. Aunque hemos de mencionar que nuestro propósito no era analizar la posible reacción de un interlocutor al aceptar o rechazar las sugerencias hechas por los estudiantes, creemos que sería muy interesante examinar esta información en futuros estudios. De hecho, al emplear otros métodos de investigación, como el *role-play*, que implica la contribución de al menos dos participantes, el acto de habla de las sugerencias podría examinarse como parte de una pareja contigua (*adjacency pair*) (Edmonson y House, 1981; Koester, 2002; LoCastro, 2003). Además, sería también recomendable incorporar otro tipo de instrumentos que recojan información sobre los estudiantes, como auto-informes (*self-reports*), entrevistas introspectivas, auto-evaluaciones, etc. El hecho de emplear este tipo de instrumentos permitirían al investigador examinar el desarrollo pragmático de los estudiantes al prestar atención a los planes y procesos mentales que estos hacen cuando evalúan o usan un determinado aspecto pragmático (Tateyama, 2001).

Finalmente, otra limitación está relacionada con el hecho de que nuestro estudio sigue las normas pragmáticas de hablantes nativos de EEUU, puesto que ésta fue la única comunidad de habla inglesa donde tuvimos la oportunidad de grabar las conversaciones que incluimos como parte del material empleado en nuestra instrucción. Sin embargo, creemos que limitar a los estudiantes a las determinadas normas de un grupo concreto de hablantes nativos no es apropiado si consideramos el hecho de que vivimos en una sociedad multilingüe y plurilingüe donde el uso del inglés como medio de comunicación ha crecido internacionalmente (House y Kasper, 2000; Cenoz, 2003). Una de las consecuencias de este fenómeno ha sido el aumento de interacciones entre hablantes no nativos que usan la lengua inglesa como *lengua franca* para poder comunicarse con diferentes interlocutores en una gran variedad de contextos, un hecho que ha provocado mayor tolerancia al comportamiento de hablantes no nativos. Por esta razón, sería interesante tomar como punto de referencia esta perspectiva de usar la lengua inglesa como *lengua franca,* para examinar el efecto de la instrucción en pragmática. Sin embargo, como House (2002b) menciona, sólo unos pocos estudios han examinado las características discursivas y pragmáticas que definen las interacciones que se han dado en esta perspectiva. Por consiguiente, se necesita más investigación que permita obtener un corpus que sirva como *input* para la elaboración de cursos específicos cuyo objetivo sea la mejora de la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes en el inglés como *lengua franca* (House, 2002a). Tomando como base dicho corpus y siguiendo las propuestas que House (2003) sugiere para el desarrollo de la competencia y fluidez pragmática en el inglés como *lengua franca*, sería interesante explorar cómo enseñar la pragmática en el aula de lenguas extranjeras.

Para concluir, y a pesar de las limitaciones que hemos mencionado, el presente estudio ha contribuido al creciente número de investigaciones que examinan el efecto de la instrucción en pragmática y, al mismo tiempo, ha ampliado los aspectos pragmáticos que se han enseñado, ya que se ha centrado en el acto de habla de las sugerencias. Además, ha arrojado más luz sobre la eficacia de diferentes métodos de enseñanza para desarrollar la competencia pragmática de los estudiantes en el aula de inglés como lengua extranjera. Finalmente, también se han ofrecido aportaciones de tipo metodológico al haber elaborado y empleado nuevos instrumentos de recogida de datos. De este modo, nuestros resultados,

aunque tentativos, pueden ayudar a ampliar la investigación realizada en el campo de la pragmática de la interlengua y, a la vez, potenciar futuras líneas de investigación.