Impact of English Interaction upon Chinese EFL Teachers' Pragmatic Competence
in a Study-Abroad Context

by

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Abstract

This study is a longitudinal investigation in the effectiveness of interactive exposure on the acquisition of English requests in a study-abroad setting. Nineteen Chinese teachers, who taught English as a foreign language in China, attended a short-term teacher-training program in Canada and had access to opportunities for authentic interaction with native English speakers. Another 19 Chinese EFL teachers who had never been to an English speaking country served as the comparison group. Twenty English native speakers were also recruited to provide native norms for the pragmatics assessment measures. Three research questions were addressed in this study. First, I examined what kind of interactive exposure was accessible to the study abroad teachers, and investigated what types of interactive activities might contribute to pragmatics learning. Second, I examined whether study-abroad teachers demonstrated approximation to native speaker norms with regard to requesting through two tests: a written discourse completion task (WDCT) and an appropriateness judgment task (AJT). Finally, I explored whether the study-abroad experience had increased teachers' confidence in teaching English pragmatics.

The data analysis of the study-abroad teachers' logs showed that they were engaged in a much wider variety of English interactive activities than the at-home teachers. They also demonstrated a more significant growth in pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness in certain situations, but failed to acquire a full

range of the native-like forms. Compared with native English speakers, the

Chinese teachers used similar external modifiers, but less variety in request

formulae and internal modification. They did not appear to realize that some

strategies and formulae are context-based and scenario-specific. However, their

confidence in teaching pragmatics was enhanced.

The findings show that social interaction, cultural values, pragmatic transfer,

social role, and living arrangement are factors affecting L2 pragmatic acquisition

in a study-abroad context. The results also reveal that it is difficult for adult L2

learners to develop native-like pragmatic competence in a naturalistic setting, due

to a lack of sufficient target language exposure, corrective feedback, and explicit

pragmatic instruction.

Preface

This thesis is an original work by Jun Deng. The research project, of which

this thesis is a part, received research ethics approval from the University of

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abbreviations

AH	At-Home
CCSARP	Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project
CEFR	The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CEM	Chinese English Major
DCT	Discourse Completion Task
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
f	Frequency
ILP	Interlanguage Pragmatics
IQ	Interview Question
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
L2 WTC	Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language
LCP	Language Contact Profile
AJT	Appropriateness Judgment Task
M	Mean
MET	Multimedia Elicitation Task
n	Number
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
ODCT	Oral Discourse Completion Task
RQ	Research Question
SA	Study Abroad
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SD	Standard deviation
EFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
WDCT	Written Discourse Completion Task
WTC	Willingness to Communicate

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the background and purpose of the dissertation study. It provides a brief overview of the role of English, English education in China, the importance of pragmatic competence, contexts of pragmatic acquisition, and the pragmatic competence of current Chinese EFL teachers.

1.1 English as a World Language

English is the language of the world (Crystal, 2003, 2008). Crystal (2008) stated that in 2008 alone, it was used by an estimated two billion people as a first or second language for a wide range of functions, including international safety, travel, advertising, education, etc. That is to say, at least one third of the world's population are English speakers, and the number is growing.

Kachru (1985) proposed three concentric circles of English based on the historical context, status, and functions of the language in different regions: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle consists of the native English-speaking countries, such as Canada. The Outer Circle includes the countries where English has the status of official language or second language such as India, whereas the Expanding Circle comprises countries where

English is learned as a foreign language as in China.

As for   English teaching, the Inner Circle Englishes have been assumed to

be the most appropriate model for teaching English as a foreign language.

Graddol (2006) noted that English native speakers have been regarded as "the

authoritative standard" (p. 83), while EFL speakers are expected to "attain

acceptance by the target community" (p. 83) and to "respect the superior authority

of native speakers" (p. 83), regardless of the fact that it is impossible and

unrealistic for them to achieve native-like proficiency given limited opportunities

to use English for authentic communication (McKay, 2003).   In McKay's (2009)

opinion,   English is an international language for social interactions not only

between native English speakers and non-native speakers (i.e., L2/L1 context),

but also between people who speak English as a second language (i.e., L2/L2

context). This fact leads to a questioning of what target variety is most appropriate

in international contexts. Many educators (e.g., Jenkins, 1997; McKay, 2003) have

suggested that L2 learners should aspire to become fluent bilingual speakers of

English, who might speak with an accent but have good communication

strategies.

1.2 English in China

In China, Tian (2010) has observed that being able to speak English has been the key to better employment, promotion, and overseas opportunities. The language is also   being used by people for travel, business, work, further studies, and emigration to English-speaking countries and other countries.

Although non-Inner Circle pedagogical norms are being promoted in many international contexts, it appears to be the case in China that Inner Circle varieties of English are still viewed as the standard. Native speaker models remain popular because they have historical authority, codification, and power in media, publication and education areas (Kirkpatrick, 2006). First, China English has not been well-codified and accepted internationally (Tian, 2010). Also, currently few accepted alternatives can replace native speaker varieties as the pedagogical norm in China (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006). Therefore, inner-circle varieties of English are viewed as the standard. Empirical studies also have shown   that a native speaker model (e.g., American English) is the preferred choice over other varieties in China (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; He & Zhang, 2010; Li, 2006, 2007). He and Zhang (2010) surveyed 795 students and 189 teachers at four universities in China using questionnaires,   matched-guise techniques, and focused interviews,

and found   that Standard Englishes were preferred over China English by

Chinese learners of English.

On the other hand, many Chinese people are unable to use English as an

effective tool for international communication due to a lack of opportunities to

use English for authentic purposes. To deal with this problem, Chinese authorities

have instituted a range of initiatives, such as curricular innovations, the hiring of

ex-patriot English teachers, and the provision of funding for study abroad

experiences in Inner Circle countries.

In the following section, information about English education in China

provides background on the need for innovation to improve the English language

proficiency of the general Chinese population.

1.3 English Education in China

As Tian (2010) has observed, English is a major course starting in elementary

school through secondary education to graduate level studies. During the last

century, English teaching primarily focused on reading, vocabulary, and grammar,

rather than speaking and listening. The development of communication skills was

ignored; as a result, after a long period of study, people found themselves unable

to use their knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary in real world

communicative situations.

The Ministry of Education determined to reform the College English curriculum in the early 2000s for several reasons (Jiang, 2010). Firstly, the quality of College English education was poor, as the students were still unable to use English properly after a ten-year language learning. Secondly, students were expected to acquire a high level of English proficiency due to its vital role in internationalization; not only teachers but also students needed to improve their English proficiency for the new trend of bilingual education, exchange programs, and international research programs. Finally, priority needed to be given to listening and speaking for their future life and career.

The change in English teaching and learning objectives is reflected in the *College English Curriculum Requirements* issued officially in 2007:

> The objective (of English education instruction) is to develop students'
> ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening
> and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as
> social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively, and at
> the same time their ability to study independently and improve their

general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social

development and international exchanges.

(Department of Higher Education, 2007, p. 23)

Thus, according to the new national English curriculum issued by the Ministry of

Education, English pedagogical instruction should aim to develop learners' oral

communicative competence for intercultural exchanges.

1.4 What Does Communicative Competence Entail ?

To put it simply, communicative competence refers to a person's knowledge of "when to speak, when not," and "what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972, p. 277). Pragmatics, as a major component of communicative competence, is the study of "how-to-say-what-to-whom-when" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 68). Later, Cohen (2010) maintained that, from the speaker's perspective, one should know "how to say what we want to say with the proper politeness, directness, and formality", "what not to say at all", "what to communicate non-verbally", "the potential consequences" and the native norms for speech acts (p. 4).

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) refers to the study of L2 learners' use and acquistion of pragmatic ability (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). Acquisitional pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999), or L2 pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013), is "the study of how learners come to know how-to-say-what-to-whom-when" (pp. 68-69).   To illustrate, in the case of making   a request (Cohen et. al, 2005), L2 learners need to know not only the appropriate linguistic forms for a request, but also cultural norms regarding the making of a request in a given situation, and obtain the knowledge of when a particular request is suitable, to whom, and how

it should be made.

However, as Thomas (1983) observed, L2 learners are prone to commit pragmatic errors because of their insufficient knowledge of native norms in L2. She subdivided the failures into two types: *pragmalinguistic failure* and *sociopragmatic failure*. Pragmalinguistic failure concerns the use of linguistic conventions that fail to match the speaker's intention. For example, a non-native teacher may use an overly polite request formula "Can you be less noisy", rather than "Be quiet!" for directive purposes. On the other hand, sociopragmatic failure refers to the inappropriate language use caused by the application of the speaker's native cultural norms and pragmatic principles for communication in L2, which do not conform to the conventions in the target language. If a woman says: "you are so handsome" to a man whom she meets for the first time, although acceptable in L1 in the same context,　this may cause embarrassment to the interlocutor in the L2.

Pragmatic errors (typically referred to as *violations*) may have a very negative impact on the L2 learners' communication with native speakers (Halenko & Jones, 2011). They may be attributed to negative personalities (e.g., being rude, bossy, or arrogant), rather than to speakers' inadequate knowledge of the target language

(Yates & Wigglesworth, 2005) or their lack of awareness of cultural differences

(De Castro, 2005). Even worse, L2 learners who are pragmatically incompetent

are likely to have difficulty establishing good relationship with native speakers,

and be denied academic and professional opportunities (Tanaka, 1997). Therefore,

L2 learners should learn to conform to the native norms in their speech behaviors

in a L2 environment.

1.5 Contexts for Pragmatics Learning

Generally speaking, there are two contexts for L2 learners to learn pragmatics:

classroom instruction and intercultural contact in a naturalistic setting. Rose's

(2005) meta-analysis of the pragmatic pedagogy studies reveals that the effect of

instruction has been well investigated and documented. Bardovi-Harlig and

Mahan-Taylor (2003) claimed that the teaching of pragmatics is necessary for L2

learners since even L2 learners with a high level of grammatical proficiency may

have insufficient pragmatic competence, and their pragmatic errors are often

interpreted as social and personal mistakes rather than linguistic differences. So

they suggested that successful pragmatic instruction should aim to raise learners'

pragmatic awareness about a range of   pragmatic devices in the target language,

and thus enable them to make informed choices for their own communication

purposes.

Study-abroad is a typical natural setting for L2 learning. It refers to an experience in which learners attend language classes in a country where the target language is spoken (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). On the one hand, it potentially provides a context where learners are exposed to appropriate pragmatic behavior by native speakers of the target language (Cohen, Paige, Shively, Emert, & Hoff, 2005). On the other hand, it is difficult for most uninstructed learners to acquire L2 pragmatics by themselves through contact with English speakers due to the lack of specific input and interpretation (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003).

Recent research in pragmatics has begun to explore the impact of variables (language proficiency, length of stay, etc.) on L2 pragmatic development in a study -abroad environment (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). However,   the study abroad environment is complex, and further studies are needed to disentangle the complexities.

1.6 Pragmatic Competence of Chinese EFL Teachers

In China, the vast majority of English teachers are native Chinese speakers who have learned English through schooling in China. Most Chinese English teachers have been educated as English majors, who are expected to achieve a

high level of English proficiency, knowledge about the language, and knowledge

in a specific area, such as English literature, English education, and translation,

after four years' study for a bachelor's degree, and another two and half years for a

master's degree. Although it is a rigorous program of study that develops high

levels of linguistic proficiency as measured by standardized tests, such as the Test

for English Majors Band 8 (TEM-8), level of intercultural sensitivity and

pragmatic awareness of graduates from these programs lag far behind their

grammatical and lexical knowledge because of a lack of intercultural contact

(Jackson, 2010). Empirical evidence of this comes from a study by Liu (2004)

who examined the interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of university English

teachers in Mainland China. Liu found that the teachers were able to acquire

formulaic expressions for making apologies and requests in English, but lacked

the awareness of what was appropriate to say in specific real-world situations.

Furthermore, he found that Chinese EFL teacher education programs do not

include a focus on the teaching of pragmatics. He also noted that there is little

support for pragmatics instruction in curriculum and pedagogical materials.

Owing to their lack of knowledge of L2 social and cultural norms, Chinese

teachers and students are likely to use English in a way that differs markedly from

that of native speakers of English. For example, they may not adhere to the

cultural script that underlies the requesting behavior of Anglophone speakers in

which one avoids imposing on the autonomy of others (Wierzbicka, 2006).

Recently, many Chinese schools and universities have adopted the practice of

sending their English teachers to attend short-term study-abroad EFL programs

for professional development in English-speaking countries, such as Canada, the

U.K. and the U.S.A. In the research literature, English teachers' L2 pragmatics in

study-abroad is a relatively new topic. Marx and Moss (2011) conducted a brief

review of   the research on teacher education and study abroad, which revealed

that the existing studies are mainly concerned the sojourners' reflections on

cultural learning experiences and their intercultural development (such as cultural

awareness and sensitivity) in a foreign cultural context. Few studies have directed

their attention to   the impact of exposure to L2 upon their development in L2

pragmatics and pragmatics teaching.

1.7 Purpose of the Study

This study sets out to find out whether Chinese EFL teachers who studied

abroad for a short period are able to engage in authentic interactions that would

potentially affect their development of pragmatic competence in non-instructional

settings. First, it investigates what types of social interaction are available to

participants throughout their sojourn, and which types of social interaction

contribute to pragmatic development. A second purpose is to find out whether

there is any evidence of development in pragmatic awareness of what is

appropriate when making requests and in pragmatic production of request

strategies and formulas. Finally, the study   examines what changes occur in

teachers' confidence in teaching pragmatics.

1.8 Significance of the Study

To date, little attention was paid to the effect of naturalistic exposure on the

development of requesting by Chinese EFL teachers in a study abroad context.

As such, the findings derived from the study may   provide important

implications for intercultural pragmatics, natural pragmatic acquisition, and

pragmatic instruction in an EFL setting and study abroad programming.

1.9 Outline of the Dissertation

Chapter I introduces the background and purpose of the study. Chapter II

reviews the literature concerning second language pragmatics. It introduces the

concepts and assumptions for interlanguage pragmatics, speech acts, and requests.

It also briefly reviews developmental studies on pragmatic competence in two

contexts: study-abroad context and classroom setting. The chapter ends with a

statement of the research questions. Chapter III presents the research design and

major methods applied in measuring participants' pragmatic competence, social

interaction in a L2 setting, and competence in pragmatics pedagogy. It first

discusses sampling, next the development of the measuring tools particularly

designed for this study, then data collection procedures, and finally, analysis

methods for the data. Chapter IV reports the participants' responses to a

willingness-to-communicate-in-L2 (L2 WTC) questionnaire, an appropriateness

judgment task (AJT), a written discourse completion task (WDCT), logs,

self-reported confidence in pragmatics teaching, and interviews. The major

findings of the study are summarized the end. Chapter V provides answers to the

three research questions, reports the implications and limitations of the study, and

concludes with suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature pertinent to the key concepts of pragmatics, pragmatic acquisition in study abroad pragmatic instruction, and in particular, the speech act of requesting. The first part introduces the basic concepts in this area. The second part deals with the factors affecting pragmatics learning. The third part focuses on L2 pragmatics in a naturalistic setting. The fourth part reviews the literature that relates to the speech act of requesting in English and in Mandarin. Then a rationale for conducting the present study is provided and the research questions are formulated.

2.1 Concepts of Pragmatics

2.1.1 Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence is generally considered to be a component of *communicative competence* (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Barron, 2003). It was first introduced by Hymes (1972), who proposed that native speakers should be not only linguistically accurate, but also socially appropriate across various sociocultural contexts. Canale and Swain (1980) elaborated Hymes' understanding of communicative competence into three categories:

grammatical competence (mastery of morphology, lexis, syntax, semantics,

phonology); *sociolinguistic competence* (mastery of appropriate language use in

different sociolinguistic contexts); and *strategic competence* (mastery of

communication strategies). However, Canale and Swain's framework did not

distinguish between sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence

(Schachter, 1990). The issue was addressed by Bachman (1990), whose

framework of *communicative language ability* consists of two parts:

organizational competence and *pragmatic competence*. Organizational

competence includes both linguistic and discourse competence from the Swain

and Canale model. *Pragmatic competence* is subdivided into *illocutionary*

competence, the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable

language functions and *sociolinguistic competence,* the knowledge of

sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a

given context.

2.1.2 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is broadly defined as the study of language use in social context.

Kasper and Schmidt (1996) identified the following common features of

pragmatics in different languages. First, a language possesses different *speech*

*act*s. Second, there are *indirect expressions* to convey pragmatic intent. Third,

there are *routine formulae* to express pragmatic intent (Kasper, 1994). Lastly, the

pragmatic use of language is constrained by *contextual factors,* which include: (a)

social distance between the interlocuters; (b) *social power;* and (c) *imposition*

(Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Crystal's (1997) definition of pragmatics is often-cited in the literature. It

refers to 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"(p. 301). It implies that learners have acquired a range of

linguistic forms and strategies to choose from according to the contextual factors

in an social communication. The focus is on language use but not language

acquisition.

Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) distinguished two essential concepts in

pragmatics: *pragmalinguistics* and s*ociopragmatics*. *Pragmalinguistics* concerns

the study of pragmatic strategies (such as directness and indirectness), routines,

and modification devices that are used to realize particular speech acts; whereas

sociopragmatics focuses on the use of linguistic realization strategies of a

particular speech act in a certain sociocultural context. A speaker's knowledge of

conventional expressions, for example, is part of his/her pragmalinguistic

competence, and knowledge of what social contexts in which they occur is part of

sociopragmatic competence.

2.1.3 Interlanguage pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is an area of second language research which

studies "nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a

second language" (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p.3). As the study of language

use, ILP examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce a speech act

in the L2; as the study of *acquisition*, it refers to the changing and developing of

an L2 speaker's ability to understand and perform pragmatic behavior in the L2

(Kasper & Rose, 2002). The current investigation focuses on the acquisitional

aspect of pragmatics, that is, *L2 pragmatics* (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013).

2.1.4 L2 Pragmatics

According to Anderson (1983), learning is a process that involves moving

from knowing *what* (i.e., declarative knowledge) to knowing *how* (i.e., procedural

knowledge) through repeated practice. To account for the learning of L2

pragmatics, Faerch and Kasper (1984) borrowed the concepts of *declarative* and

procedural knowledge and posited two kinds of pragmatic knowledge: *pragmatic declarative knowledge* and *pragmatic procedural knowledge*. According to the authors, *pragmatic declarative knowledge* refers to "the taxonomic and static knowledge of rules of language (s)" (p. 215), which is not related to specific communicative goals or to language use in real time. *Pragmatic procedural knowledge*, on the other hand, refers to "process-oriented, dynamic procedures of combining and selecting pragmatic rules to achieve specific communicative goals in real time" (p. 215). They categorized pragmatic declarative knowledge into six components, namely, linguistic knowledge (such as conversational formulas and modifiers), speech act knowledge (knowledge of contextual conditions), discourse knowledge (opening, closing, sequencing, and supporting moves), socio-cultural knowledge (such as social values and norms), context knowledge (role relationship), and knowledge of the world. They also defined pragmatic procedural knowledge as pragmatic skills for goal-formulation and context-analysis at the initial stage, verbal planning at the second phase, and monitoring execution at the last stage. To be specific, firstly, the speaker conducts a context analysis to establish a communicative goal, and then makes a selection of direct/indirect realization, a selection of external and/or internal modification

for down-toning/upgrading speech acts, and a selection of syntactic means for

expressing the illocutionary force.

2.2 Factors Affecting L2 Pragmatics

2.2.1 Factors affecting second language acquisition

Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers (e.g., Ortega, 2009) have

identified the concepts of *language transfer, input, output, noticing, interaction,*

feedback, and learning environment as essential for L2 acquisition.

Language transfer is one of the determining factors of language learning. Lado

(1957) pointed out that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and

the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the

foreign language and culture"(p. 2). SLA researchers have distinguished between

two types of transfer: negative and positive. In second language acquisition,

interference from the L1 may result in correct (positive transfer) or incorrect

utterances (negative transfer) in the L2 (Gass & Selinker, 2008). In other words,

positive transfer facilitates L2 learning, whereas negative transfer hinders it.

Input is a necessary condition for language acquisition. Krashen (1981)

formulated the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis that L2 acquisition occurs when

input is understandable and just a little beyond the learner's current level of

competence. Most SLA researchers, however, now agree that input is not sufficient to ensure native-like proficiency. For example, Swain (1985, 1995) found that French immersion learners were more likely to develop native-like comprehension skills than grammatical accuracy in their oral production. She argued that learners need to be *pushed* to produce accurate and appropriate utterances in order to develop higher levels of grammatical competence. Pushed output enables learners to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey meaning, to modify utterances, or to try out new syntactic and morphological forms.

Long (1996) postulated that for learners to fully understand meaning of L2 input, it should be modified through the negotiation of meaning that occurs during interaction. Long identified three essential aspects in an interaction activity: input (i.e., language offered by native speakers); output (i.e., language spoken by the language learners); and feedback (i.e., reaction offered by the interlocutor, peer or teacher).

Corrective feedback is another important ingredient of L2 learning. Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished six types of teacher responses to student errors: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and

repetition. They also pointed out that some types of feedback were more likely to lead to student self-correction. Gass and Selinker (2008) suggested that feedback plays a vital role in language acquisition, as it not only facilitates learners' production and comprehension, but also enables learners to attend to certain aspects of their speech and notice the gap between their speech and that of an interlocutor, or a deficiency in their utterance.

Another key factor for SLA is *noticing.* Schmidt (1990, 1993) argued that learners only learn when they consciously attend to the target language. He further distinguished two types: noticing (i.e., registering formal features in the input) and noticing-the-gap (i.e., identifying how the input differs from the output). According to Schmidt, noticing is crucial in the process of language learning because it explains how language is taken in, processed, and utilized by learners. He also stresses that noticing is required in all aspects of language, namely, lexicon, phonology, grammatical form, and pragmatics.

All the factors discussed so far are dependent on the L2 learning environments (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). Ellis (2008) distinguished two types of contexts: a natural or naturalistic setting and an instructional setting. In the former, learners acquire the L2 through authentic social interaction inside and/or outside the classroom; in the

latter, learning takes place in the classroom where input and output opportunities are limited and instructional activities are often artificial because students share the same L1. Study-abroad offers learners a natural L2 setting. Although these variables are related to the acquisition of grammatical and lexical knowledge, it is assumed that they are also applicable to pragmatics acquisition.

2.2.2 Factors affecting L2 pragmatics

1) Pragmatic transfer

Pragmatic transfer refers to "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (Kasper, 1992, p. 207). As Ely and Gleason (1995) observed, transfer occurs because adult L2 learners have developed their cultural values and pragmatic competence in their L1. Furthermore, they may lack sufficient knowledge of the linguistic and cultural norms of the L2, and thus make generalizations of the norms and conventions from L1 to L2.

By analogy with grammatical transfer, two types of pragmatic transfer have been identified: positive and negative (Kasper, 1992). The former refers to the transfer of pragmatics norms/forms/strategies that match the L2 and therefore are appropriate; and the latter refers to the transfer of pragmatic norms/forms/strategies that are

unacceptable in the L2. *Pragmalinguistic transfer* refers to learners' transporting

of certain pragmatic strategies/forms from L1 to L2, whereas *sociopragmatic*

transfer concerns learners' references to their L1 perceptions of social context

when deciding whether and when to perform a particular illocutionary act. Ortega

(2009) speculated that sociopragmatic transfer should be given more attention

over pragmalinguistic transfer, because negative sociopragmatic transfer is likely

to bring about negative emotions and lead to more damaging results in

intercultural communication.

2) Social interaction

Pragmatics is the study of language use in social interaction (Crystal, 1997).

McKay (2009) also views pragmatics from an interactional perspective and

proposes three central tenants of pragmatics: appropriate language use,

negotiation of meaning, and interpretation of meaning in context. Thus, *social*

interaction plays a central role for L2 pragmatics acquisition. It involves the other

two basic conditions (*input* from native speakers and L2 learners' *output*) for

language learning to take place. Kasper and Rose (2002) maintained that

interactions between learners and native speakers in informal conversations are

particularly facilitative in pragmatic learning, such as conversations with close

friends (Shea, 1994; Siegal, 1994) or with host family at the dinner table (Schachter, 1996). They further divided social interaction into two categories: oral interaction in a narrow sense, and all sorts of spoken, written, and mixed forms of communication in a wide sense. In the current investigation, the focus is on oral interaction, since one major goal of current English education curriculum in China is improving English speaking (Department of Higher Education, 2007).

3) Pragmatic noticing

Schmidt (1993) claimed that *noticing* the gap between the pragmatic input in the target language and learners' own pragmatic output is essential for acquisition of L2 pragmatics, as learners need to consciously attend to "linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features" (p. 35). Bialystok (1993) provided another reason for the importance of noticing for adult L2 learners. She stated that unlike children, adults have already acquired L1 pragmatics and they must relearn appropriate form-function relations in the L2. Therefore, explicit teaching of pragmatic information is vital for adults' L2 pragmatic development.

4) Pragmatic feedback

Corrective feedback is another essential condition for pragmatics learning.

Without correct feedback, learners may think that their inappropriate language use

in L2 is acceptable by native speakers (DuFon, 1999). In a state-of-the-art article,

Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2012) reviewed empirical research on the role of oral

corrective feedback in a classroom setting for different language targets: grammar,

vocabulary, and pronunciation as well as pragmatics. Their review of the recent

studies on pragmatic feedback draws the conclusion that in a classroom setting,

corrective feedback is more effective than no feedback, and different types of

corrective feedback (implicit and explicit) can contribute differently to pragmatic

development. There are, however, few studies investigating the feedback to

learners from native speaker interlocutors in a L2 setting.

2.3 L2 Pragmatics in a Study-Abroad Context

L2 pragmatic acquisition in a study-abroad context is a new and promising

area of research (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). An L2 community is widely believed to

provide a better environment for pragmatic acquisition than an EFL classroom

setting, since the language input is closely related to social and cultural features of

context, and thus "richer" in quality and quantity than that in the classroom

(Kasper & Schmidt, 1996, p. 159). A number of studies have looked into the

effect of exposure, or language contact on L2 learners' pragmatic acquisition and

provided evidence that a second language setting is facilitating for pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic acquisition, The following studies are briefly summarized below: Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998), Matsumura (2001, 2003), Barron (2003), Schauer (2009), Xu, Case and Wang (2009), Bella (2011), Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011), Ren (2012), Khorshidi (2013), and Yang (2014).

Blum-Kulka and her colleagues (1989) conducted a study to examine L2 learners' awareness of politeness and appropriateness in their target language. The study participants consisted of ESL students from five different native language backgrounds: Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, and Korean. They found evidence of development in participants' awareness of appropriate pragmatic norms in the L2, and identified motivation and language exposure in the L2 context as the major contributing factors to pragmatics acquisition.

Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study demonstrated that a second language context was associated with greater pragmatic awareness. They compared Hungarian EFL learners' pragmatic and grammatical awareness of pragmatic violations with those of ESL learners in the U.S. The findings indicated that ESL learners were better able to recognize pragmatic errors than the EFL

learners.

Studies by Matsumura (2001, 2003) also have shown that individual

difference in degree of exposure in the target community plays an important role

in learners' speech act development. Matsumura (2001) examined the impact of

exposure during one year of residence in Canada on the speech act of offering

advice. The researcher found that the development of pragmatic competence of 97

Japanese exchange students surpassed that of 102 peers in Japan who did not go

abroad. In a subsequent study, Matsumura (2003) investigated the development of

137 Japanese ESL learners' pragmatic competence relating to the same speech act.

The research procedure included pre-tests, treatment, and post-tests. The data

were collected before the learners left for their sojourn in the target environment,

one month after their arrival, and then four months later. The learners' responses

to the test of pragmatic competence in the form of a multiple-choice questionnaire

were compared with those of native-speaker controls. A self-report questionnaire

about their degree of exposure to the L2 in their daily life and their TOEFL scores

was also administered. The statistical analysis of the data showed that exposure

had greater potential than level of language proficiency to affect pragmatic

development.

Barron (2003) investigated how Irish students developed their pragmatic ability in requests and offer-refusal exchanges during their stay in Germany. The participants completed discourse completion and metapragmatic assessment questionnaires three times during their sojourn. Following the last session, they also conducted role-plays with retrospective interviews. The learners appeared to be influenced by sociopragmatic transfer from L1. Later they became aware of the different pragmatic norms as result of critical incidents they experienced. Overtime, their use of pragmatic routines became more target-like. Barron's study highlights the importance of critical incidents in pragmatic acquisition in a naturalistic setting.

Schauer (2009) investigated the pragmalinguistic development (request strategies, internal and external modifiers) in a study abroad context. She used the same procedure as Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) in her investigation with German study abroad students in the U.K. The study involved nine study-abroad students, a native English speaker group, and a native German speaker group. The researcher developed a multimedia elicitation task with reference to social distance (higher/equal) and imposition (high/low). Her findings showed that study abroad students stopped using the request strategy of imperative at the end of their

stay in the UK, but continued to use hedged performatives   in high imposition

scenarios throughout their sojourn due to *negative L1 pragmatic transfer*. The

learners also acquired some external modifiers and became able to use a greater

variety of lexical modifiers. Schauer's (2009) study also acknowledged individual

differences in study abroad students' pragmatic gains.

Xu, Case, and Wang (2009) conducted a study to examine the effect of length

of residence and L2 proficiency on L2 pragmatics. They recruited 126

international students in the U.S. and borrowed Bordovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's

(1998) questionnaire to measure their pragmatic and grammatical competence.

The findings showed that both language proficiency and length and residence

were positively related to L2 pragmatic competence. Specifically, advanced

participants who had been in US for a longer time were more aware of pragmatic

violations than those who had stayed there for a shorter time.

Bella (2011) examined the use of politeness strategies and mitigation devices

for invitation refusals by two different groups of advanced learners of Greek: one

group with longer residence but fewer communication opportunities, and the other

group with shorter residence but frequent social interactions with native Greek

speakers. The results showed that intensity of interaction is a more reliable

measure than length of stay for L2 exposure. The study also highlights the

essential role interaction plays in L2 pragmatic acquisition.

Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011) also investigated intensity of interaction in

a natural setting among 122 learners and 49 native speakers of American English.

Knowledge of conventional expressions was evaluated using an aural recognition

task and an oral production task. Intensity of interaction outside class was

self-reported weekly. The authors' findings indicated that interaction has a

significant effect on L2 learners' formulaic production. They also argued that

"interactive communication that require responses" should be distinguished from

"non-interactive sources of input" (p. 376), and called on researchers to focus on

different interactive activities (e.g., telephoning, chatting with other English

speakers) for pragmatic learning opportunities.

Ren (2012) conducted a longitudinal study on the effect of study abroad on

the development of 20 Chinese learners' ability to produce refusals in English

using a multimedia elicitation task . The researcher recruited a Chinese

international graduate student group in the U.K. and an at-home graduate student

group, and administered the multimedia elicitation task three times during one

academic year. The findings show that both the study-abroad and at-home

students demonstrated development in the appropriateness of their refusals in English , but the study-abroad group's refusal choices were also influenced by their experience living in the U.K.

In another empirical study, Khorshidi (2013) compared two groups of Iranian students' development in request and apology, one was enrolled in a three-month program, while the other in a six-month program in India (i.e., an Outer Circle country). The author found that learners living and studying longer in the target language context outperformed their counterparts in pragmatic proficiency, and concluded that longer study-abroad program leads to more pragmatic gains.

In the most recent case study examining L2 pragmatic development of four Chinese international students who had been studying over three months in different master programs in a U.K. university, Yang (2014) found evidence of pragmalinguistic development in English routines. As for sociopragmatic knowledge, the learners felt uncomfortable addressing their teacher by given name in the U.K., though they knew using the first name is socially appropriate. They also noticed that British people were polite when speaking to any interlocutors. The researcher identified several facilitating factors for L2 pragmatics in a study abroad context: noticing of L2 pragmatic factors and L1

pragmatic transfer in addition to positive attitude and strong motivation towards

L2 language and culture.

However, it should be noted that a study abroad context does not necessarily

mean a high level of oral interaction in L2 with native speakers. Ranta and

Meckelborg (2013) conducted a study on the amount and types of interaction with

native English speakers by 17 Chinese international graduate students in a natural

setting over six months. The analysis of their language use over a six-month

period revealed that the students spent much less time in interactive use than

receptive use of English. They also found some participants had a consistently

low rate of oral interaction. Ranta and Meckelborg speculated that a low level of

willingness to communicate (WTC) might be one of the causes.

The concept of WTC originally referred to individuals' tendencies to engage

in verbal communication in the L1 and was considered "a personality-based,

trait-like predisposition which is relatively consistent across a variety of

communication contexts and types of receivers" (McCroskey & Baer, 1985, p. 6).

The construct has since been applied in a L2 context as *L2 WTC,* which refers to

learners' "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific

person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998, p.

547) . WTC in the L2 is not trait-like, as in the L1. It is dynamic and situational,

and can be affected by the frequency and quality of L2 contact (Clément, Baker &

MacIntyre, 2003). To date, there are only a few studies examining the relationship

between *L2 WTC* and *interaction*. Cao and Philp (2006) examined the link

between Chinese EFL learners' self-reported *L2 WTC* and observed engagement in

interaction in an instructional setting. Their findings indicated that situational

factors (such as whole class, small group, and dyadic interaction) were major

factors influencing learners' participation in interaction in a classroom setting.

However, the role of WTC on L2 speakers' engagement in social interaction in a

study-abroad context has not been investigated in previous studies.

It also should be noted that a study-abroad context does not guarantee

pragmatic gains in all speech acts. Schauer (2010) reviewed studies examining the

effect of study- abroad on pragmatic development in a variety of speech acts. Her

survey of the literature reveals that L2 learners' speech act performance in refusals,

suggestions (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Barron, 2003), and advice

(e.g., Matsumura, 2003) may improve in a short period of sojourn. Nevertheless,

this is not necessarily the case with the speech act of requesting. As Schauer

observed, some studies show that L2 learners do not acquire native norms for

requests. They may continue to use non-native like linguistic forms (e.g., Barron, 2003) and strategies due to L1 transfer (e.g., Schauer, 2009). Alcón-Soler (2002) also examined 15 Spanish students' development of the speech act of requesting in English in a second language context. Thirty advising sessions were audio-taped and transcribed for analysis. The results also showed that the participants failed to acquire a full range of request strategies and appropriate linguistic forms.

Given the fact that a sojourn abroad does not necessarily lead to desired pragmatic learning outcomes, some researchers have advocated providing the learners with pre-departure training in pragmatics and pragmatic intervention in the study-abroad context. Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan (2006) have developed a framework called 6Rs to enhance pragmatic competence and intercultural competence in a study-abroad context: researching, reflecting, receiving, reasoning, rehearsing, and revising. At the first and second stages, learners are guided to collect natural utterances of a certain speech act in their mother tongue (researching) and reflect on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues (reflecting); at the middle stages, they receive explicit instruction on the pragmalinguistic forms in the target language (receiving) and develop pragmatic awareness of the social norms that inform native speakers' speech behavior

through observations and analyses (reasoning). At the final two stages, they are

provided with opportunities to apply pragmatic knowledge in practice by

participating in controlled and free production activities (rehearsing) and to

receive feedback from the instructor (revising). This model is theoretically

grounded in Schmidt's (1993) Noticing Hypothesis (Shively, 2010).

Cohen and Shively (2007) investigated the effect of an instructional

intervention upon apology and request performance of 44 students who studied

abroad for one semester in French and Spanish-speaking countries. They received

a two-hour orientation about speech acts, read guidebooks, and wrote journals.

The results showed that the experimental group made significant improvement in

pragmatic awareness over time compared with a control group.

To tackle the limitations of a natural and uninstructed setting for learning of

pragmatics, Shiverly (2010) adopted Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan's (2006) 6Rs

model and developed a comprehensive framework of pragmatic instruction for

study-abroad learners, which consists of three phases: predeparture, in-country

and post-study-abroad. The goals of the first phase are to pique students' curiosity

about pragmatics, build confidence through learning about interactional norms in

the target language and computer-mediated-communication with native speakers

(e.g., online chat, emails, key pals), and raise awareness by collecting, analyzing

and interpreting pragmatic norms in the L1 and L2. The instructional objectives

during the in-country phase are to engage learners in social interactions, to

encourage them to collect pragmatics data, to assist them in analyzing pragmatic

norms and communication patterns in the host community, and to provide

feedback on their pragmatic production and comprehension. In the post-study

abroad phase, learners are encouraged to use online communication tools (e.g.,

blogs, chat rooms, net-working sites, virtual worlds) to maintain ties in the host

country and to seek out L2 interaction in online communities.

Halenko and Jones (2011) also evaluated the impact of explicit intervention

on the pragmatic development of requests over a 12-week period among 26

Chinese learners who were studying and using English for academic purpose in

the UK. An experiment group received 6-hour explicit instruction on

pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of spoken requests, while a control

group received no instruction. The study employed a pre-, immediate, and delayed

post test design and used discourse completion tasks to collect data. A

semi-structured oral interview was also performed to explore the learners'

perception of the benefits of the treatment. The study results demonstrated that the

L2 environment presented good opportunities for pragmatic development and that

the explicit instruction had an impact. However, the impact was not sustained

because the learners still needed more input to hear request forms and more

opportunities to practice them in a L2 context.

Recently, Alcón-Soler (2014) conducted a longitudinal study exploring to

what extent pragmatic instruction during a study-abroad period and length of

study-abroad affect learners' ability to mitigate e-mail requests over an academic

year. She recruited 60 upper-intermediate level Spanish learners of English from

five international language schools in the U.K., and divided them into two groups:

an explicit instruction group and a control group. She found that pragmatic

instruction was effective, and postulated that learners are able to reconstruct the

explicit knowledge to make informed decisions about when and how to use

mitigators in an email request. She also pointed out that there is evidence of

pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfer from the L1. In her study,

quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Interestingly, her quantitative

analysis indicate length of stay as a factor influencing learners' pragmatic gains,

whereas her qualitative analysis suggests that pragmatic instruction plays a more

important role in their ability to use the target forms. Her study highlights the

need for a mixed approach to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of pragmatic acquisition in a study-abroad investigation.

In sum, previous studies in this area have explored a variety of factors that contribute to L2 pragmatics in a study-abroad setting including intensity of interaction, length of residence, language proficiency, attitude, motivation, willingness to communicate, noticing, corrective feedback, pragmatic transfer, and instructional interventions. As for advanced EFL learners who are in a study-abroad program in an English speaking country without pragmatics instruction, one key factor that influences their L2 pragmatics could be authentic social interaction with native speakers, often referred to as L2 contact. Although researchers have looked at the positive correlation between intensity of interaction (i.e., frequency of L2 contact) and pragmatic gains, the effect of the quality of interaction on pragmatic acquisition is unclear. The extent to which the variable contributes to L2 pragmatics is still not fully understood.

2.4 The Speech Act of Requesting

2.4.1 Speech act theory

A speech act is the basic unit of communication (Searle, 1969) and "the core of pragmatics" (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 4). Austin (1962, 1976) defined three

components of a speech act: *locutionary act* (when one says something);

illocutionary act (when he/she also performs an act, such as making statements,

giving orders); and *perlocutionary ac*t (which he/she intends to have an effect on

the interlocutor). Searle (1976) further categorized speech acts into five types: (1)

representative/assertiveness (such as suggesting, reporting); (2) directives (such as

requesting, advising); (3) commissives (such as promising, threatening); (4)

expressives (such as praising, forgiving), and (5) declarations (such as naming,

sentencing). Wierzbicka (1987) defined speech acts using semantic verbs (185

words, such as *invite*, *order*, *reserve*) which convey illocutionary force. The

current study included14 most common speech acts, namely, advising, agreeing,

apologizing, complaining, complimenting, disagreeing, forgiving, greeting,

inviting, promising, refusing. requesting, suggesting, and thanking. Requesting

was chosen as the research focus.

2.4.2 Requesting

Requesting is defined as an act by means of which "a speaker attempts to get

the hearer to do something" (Searle, 1979, p. 13). Trosborg (1995) provided a

more specific construct as "an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester)

conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act

which is for the benefit of the speaker" (p. 187). From this definition, we can

understand why Bachman (1990) and others classify requests as part of the

manipulative function.

Compared with the other speech acts, requesting is one of the most widely

studied speech acts in the pragmatics literature. Fraser (1978) accounted for this

preference as follows:

Requests are very frequent in language use (far more frequent, for

example, than apologizing or promising); requests are very important to

the second language learner; ... they permit a wide variety of strategies for

their performance; and finally, they carry with them a good range of subtle

implications involving politeness, deference, and mitigation. (p. 6)

Schauer (2009) also suggested that requesting can be used as an indicator of

"learners' ability to use suitable linguistic forms" (p. 25) and "express themselves

appropriately and sensitively in face threatening contexts in their L2" (pp. 25-26),

that is, as an indicator of L2 learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic

competence.

2.4.3 Request strategies

Studies across eight language varieties (i.e., Australian English, American English,

British English, Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew, and Russian) were

conducted under the auspices of the Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act

Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989) and led to

the development of a scheme of request strategies. The scheme broadly classifies

the strategies into three broad types: (1) Direct requests; (2) Conventionally

indirect requests; and (3) Non-conventionally indirect requests. Table 2.1 presents

the classification system for requests, which was developed in the CCSARP).

Table 2.1
CCSARP's Framework of Request Strategies (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p.18)

Requests Strategies	Examples
Direct requests	
Mood derivable	*Clean up the mess.*
Performative	*I am asking you to clear up the mess.*
Hedged performative	*I would like to ask you to clean up that mess.*
Obligation statement	*You'll have to clean up that mess.*
Want statement	*I really wish you'd clean up that mess.*
Conventionally indirect requests	
Suggestory formula	*How about cleaning up?*
Query preparatory	*Could you clear up the kitchen, please?*
Non-conventionally indirect requests	
Strong hint	*You have left the kitchen in a right mess.*
Mild hint	*I wanted to cook tonight.*

Trosborg (1995) developed a more specific scheme (see Table 2.2) to code the

sub-category of conventionally indirect requests: ability, permission, suggestion,

and willingness.

Table 2.2
Trosborg's Framework of Request Strategies (1995, p.205)

Requests Strategies	Examples
Indirect request	
Mild hint	*I have to be at the airport in half an hour.*
Strong hint	*My car has broken down. Will you be using your car tonight?*
Conventionally indirect (hearer-oriented)	
Ability	*Could you lend me your car?*
Willingness	*Would you lend me your car?*
Permission	*May I borrow your car?*
Suggestory formulae	*How about lending me your car?*
Conventionally indirect (speaker-oriented)	
Wishes	*I would like to borrow your car.*
Desires/needs	*I want/need to borrow your car.*
Direct requests	
Obligation	*You must/have to lend me your car.*
Hedged performative	*I would like to ask you to lend me your car.*
Unhedged performative	*I ask/require you to lend me your car.*
Imperatives	*Lend me your car.*
Elliptical phrases	*Your car (please).*

In a more recent study investigating German L2 learners' pragmatic

development in English requests in a study-abroad context, Schauer (2009) used

the same three-way distinction between of direct requests, conventionally indirect

requests, and non-conventionally indirect requests. Strategies in the category of

direct request include imperatives, performatives, *want* statements, and locution

derivables. Imperatives are the most direct and explicit form used by the speaker

to ask the hearer to carry out an act. Performatives explicitly inform the speaker's

intention by including a performative verb. A hedged performative contains a

downtoning element (e.g., past tense) to soften the illutionary force, while an

unhedged one does not. *Want* statements indicate the speaker's "desire, wish and

need" (Schauer, 2009, p. 87) for the interlocutor to perform an act. The locution

derivable strategy is used when speakers avoid a locutionary intent in their

expression.

Schauer (2009) listed six major conventionally indirect requests forms to soften

the impact of the illocutionary force: suggestory formula, availability, prediction,

permission, willingness, and ability. As the researcher explained, by using a

suggestory formula, the speaker phrases his/her intent as a suggestion; by

employing an availability strategy, the concern is the hearer's "temporary

availability" (p. 87); With predictability device, the speaker predicts the

probabilities for the hearer to conduct an act; by asking for permission, the

speaker puts the interlocutor "in the position of power to grant permission" (p. 88);

when using a willingness expression, the speaker indicates that it is the hearer's

willingness rather than obligation to carry out an act; while by using ability

formulas, the speaker focuses on the hearer's "physical and mental capacity to

perform the action referred to in the utterance"(p. 88). The least direct strategy for

the speech act of requesting is hint, a non-conventionally indirect strategy. In her

category, Schauer combined mild hints and strong hints into one category.

Meanwhile, she pointed out that a hint may not be coded and interpreted as a

request by the interlocutor.

An important pragmatic choice ignored in Schauer's study is *opting out,* a

communicative strategy of "not performing a speech act" (Bonikowska, 1988, p.

177). Bonikowska explained that a speaker may choose to opt out for politeness

or other reasons, because it is a face-threatening situation (Brown & Levinson,

1978). Therefore, I included this pragmatic choice in the present study.

 In addition to request strategies, *internal and external request modifiers* (Schauer,

2009) are also applied by speakers to modify the illocutionary force of a request.

Internal request modifiers are defined as "linguistic and syntactic devices" (p. 28),

such as *please, maybe*. External request modifiers, also known as supportive

moves, refer to "additional statements which support the request proper" (p. 28),

such as a grounder explaining why the speaker asks the hearer to perform an act.

Alerter is a type of external modification in the form of name (e.g., *Tom*) or

address term (e.g., *Professor Smith*), or attention getter, or a combination of

address term and attention getter.

As observed, a strategy-based approach is commonly applied to examine the

type and frequency of strategies used by learners and native speakers in a speech

act. Wang (2011) argued that request strategies are context-based and vary from

context to context, so he advocated a scenario-based approach to capture native

speaker and non-native speakers' variation of pragmatic behavior in different

scenarios.

2.4.4 Request formulae

Formulae have received greater attention in recent years. According to

Bardovi-Harlig (2012), formulaic language refers to a recurrent chunk or a

conventional expression (e.g., *Nice to meet you*!) in specific social contexts by a

particular speech community. Kecskes (2010) distinguished between two types of

conventional formulas: those used in different contexts and topics (e.g., *To tell you*

the truth), and those that are situationally bound and only used in a specific

context, for example, "*How do you do!*" for introductions.

Unexceptionally, formulaic language is used to realize requests (Wang, 2011).

Some formulaic expressions are situation-bound and used only for requesting

purposes (Kecskes, 2003, 2010). To illustrate, in a corpus study, Curl and Drew

(2008) investigated British English speakers' use of formulaic patterns for

requesting purposes. Their findings showed that simple requesting expressions

such as "Can you…" are most common in ordinary conversation (e.g., telephone

calls between family and friends), whereas the formula of "I wonder if …" is most

frequent in an institutional setting (e.g., out-of-hour calls between a doctor and a

patient). They further speculated that it is the speaker's anticipation of the

contingences associated with the hearer's ability to grant a request that determines

the speaker's selection of formulaic structure. In other words, if a speaker predicts

that a request can be fulfilled, modal verbs (*could*, *would*, *can*) will be used.

Otherwise, "I wonder" , or "I was wondering" will be used if the speaker is unsure.

 Wang (2011) pointed out that use of formulae is an essential element of pragmatic

competence and should be examined in L2 pragmatics research, since it is

important to know whether L2 learners have acquired native-like expressions in

different speech act situations. He proposed the formulae-based approach to

investigate which request formulae are used by L2 learners and native speakers,

and how frequently and when they are used in individual scenarios. Wang's

approach allows the researcher to examine the differences in L1 and L2 speakers'

lexical formulation.

2.4.5 Role of autonomy in English requesting

Requesting is regarded as one of the most face-threatening acts (Brown &

Levinson, 1978, 1987). *Face* is an important cultural value that influences

people's speech behavior. Adopting Goffman's (1967) notion of "face" as "a

positive social value people claim for them in a particular contact" (p. 5), Brown

and Levinson proposed that speakers tend to maintain and enhance face during

social interactions. They have defined two kinds of face: positive face and

negative face. The former refers to humans' desire to be valued, accepted,

recognized and liked by others, whereas the latter concerns the need for

independence and autonomy. They further pointed out that western people value

both faces.

Requesting is imposiing, since it threatens the hearer's negative face or

autonomy. In order to save the hearer's face when a face-threatening speech act is

performed, Brown and Levinson (1987) outlined five politeness strategies:

1. Bald on-record (Clarity, directness and conciseness, such as "Give

   me your notes.")

2. Positive politeness (use if in-group identity markers, such as "Hey, mate, can you lend me a dollar?")

3. Negative politeness (e.g., use of conventional indirect request strategies, such as "Can you give me your notes?")

4. Off -record (use of hints, metaphors, ellipsis, such as "Wow, it's getting cold in here.")

5. Don't do the act (if a particular speech act is regarded as too face-threatening).

Wierzbicka (2003) criticized Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) principle of autonomy as not universal but rather specific to Anglo culture, asserting that these politeness strategies are actually the expression of cultural values shared by English speakers. In the case of requesting, Wierzbicka (Wierzbicka, 1991, 1994, 2006) stressed that autonomy is the rule of thumb governing native speakers' selection of request strategies and expressions. This explains why English speakers tend to use conversational indirect requests rather than imperatives (e.g., *Do this!*) in their speech behavior, because they value individual rights and autonomy.

2.4.6 Role of interpersonal relationship in Chinese requesting

Earlier researchers (such as Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994) borrowed the face concept to explain Chinese speakers' speech behavior. Unlike western people, Chinese people do not view face as a self-image, but rather a public-image, that is, an image a person claims from the community to which they belong (Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994). Furthermore, they attend to each other's face to achieve personal harmony in interpersonal communication (Mao, 1994). Thus, in Chinese culture, requests are not always regarded as "face-threatening" but rather as "signs of a good relationship and respect" (Zhang, 1995a, p. 26). As a result, Chinese people do not always use indirect strategies as native English speakers do when requesting, but employ more direct strategies in certain social contexts (Chen, 2006; Yu, 1999).

Ye (2004) explored how the fundamental Chinese categories of interpersonal relationships affect Chinese ways of speaking and social interaction: *Shuren* [cooked/ripe/very familiar-person) ("an old acquaintance") *vs. Shengren* [uncooked/unripe/unfamiliar-person]("strangers")*, and *zijiren* [self/oneself-person] ("insider", "persons within the same circle; persons closely related with each other", "one of us") vs. *wairen* [outside/outer-person]("outsider') (p. 215). To illustrate, a *zijiren* ("insider") is someone who "is part of a group, whom one can

trust, have good feelings about and who has certain obligations" (p. 216), such as

family members. Ye also discovered the two basic principles governing social

interaction in Chinese culture, namely, *neiwaiyoubie* ("difference between the

insider and the outsider") and *youshuzhiqin* ("from far to close"), with oneself as

the centre of his or her social network, *zijiren* in the inner circle, *shuren* the next,

shengren the outer circle. A Chinese person is expected to attend to another's face

wants or needs if this person is seen as an "insider", but he or she does not have to

attend to that of an "outsider" (Pan, 2000; Ye, 2004). Ye also articulated Chinese

culture-specific values and attitudes in the speech act of making requesting of

Chinese people they know and of people with whom they are unfamiliar. As Ye

depicted, when speaking with a *"Shuren"* (acquaintance) for information or for

help, the speaker always assumes that the interlocutor is willing to help; otherwise,

their relationship will be negatively impacted. On the contrary, when speaking

with a "Shengren" (stranger), the speaker tends to assume that the stranger has no

obligation to help, thus employs a polite and indirect way to show politeness.

Recent research has provided empirical evidence for Ye's (2004) position that

social distance is the most important factor for the speaker's formulaic choice in

Chinese. In a study, Chen, He, and Hu (2013) asked 61 Chinese university

students to provide Chinese requesting expressions in a pen-borrowing situation with people they often meet in daily life. Their data showed that the typical Chinese terms are "可以"(*May*), "能"(*Can*), and "好吗"(*Is that okay if...*). These conversational indirect expressions were used with a person with power (e.g., professor, boss) and a stranger (e.g., post office clerk). To illustrate, one item presented a situation in which the hearer was a well-dressed middle-aged stranger. The most preferred Chinese expression in this case is the most careful and indirect one.

Chinese: 对不去，打扰一下，请问你能借我一支笔吗？(Duibuqi, daraoyixia, qingwen ni neng jie wo yizhibi ma)

Translation: *I'm sorry for interrupting, but could you lend me your pen*?

In contrast, in a situation with a roommate, the preferred expression is explicit and direct.

Chinese: 有笔吗？我用一下。(Youbima? Wo yong yixia.)

Translation: *Do you have a pen? Let me use it.*

Chinese: 我借你的笔用用。谢谢。（Wo jie nide bi yongyong, xiexie.)

Translation: *Let me use your pen. Thanks.*

To conclude, among the three contextual factors of power, social distance, and imposition, social distance between the speaker and the hearer plays the key role in determining Chinese speakers' directness in a requesting event. In other words,

they tend to use fewer indirect expressions when speaking with someone they are

familiar with, and more indirect formulas with a stranger. Therefore, in a speech

act study involving L2 speakers whose first language and culture is Chinese, their

consideration of social relationship over other social factors can explain their

choice in strategies and formulaic structures in a request in L2 based on pragmtic

transfer.

2.4.7 Pragmatic transfer from Chinese to English

Some previous studies demonstrated that Chinese L2 learners tend to transfer

their L1 pragmatic knowledge to L2 in terms of strategies, directness, and internal

and external modifications (e.g.,Zhang,1995b; Chen, 2006; Su, 2010; Wang,

2011).

In order to examine directness of requests in Chinese, Zhang (1995a)

recruited six native American English speakers and six native Chinese speakers to

rate the requesting strategies identified in CCSARP. Interestingly, unlike their

American counterparts, Chinese participants reported that all the strategies were

equally direct. In another study, Zhang (1995b) explored the linguistic forms in

Mandarin featuring 12 situations from daily life (e.g., asking to borrow

something). The participants were 30 Chinese international students who were

Mandarin speakers in the US. The results revealed that the top four requesting

strategies in their native language were Query Preparatory (e.g., *May we turn in*

my paper a few days late?); Mood Derivable (e.g., *Move the car.*); Want Statement

(eg., *I'd like to change, may I*?); and Suggestory Formula (eg., *How about*

reducing the paper to 10 pages?). Unlike English speakers, they used many fewer

downgraders and intensifiers in their native language, but employed grounders

(e.g., *I'd like to buy a TV, but we don't have enough money.*) extensively in their

utterances.

In a study by Chen (2006), the requests by 30 Chinese native speakers, 30

Chinese EFL learners, and 30 native English speakers were compared. The data

were collected through a discourse completion task of 20 request items and then

analyzed based on the coding schema of CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, House, &

Kasper, 1989). With regard to strategies, it was found that the three groups applied

the same preference order: Conventional Indirect > Direct > Non-Conventional

Indirect strategies in all contexts. However, in low imposition, low status, and low

distance situations, Chinese EFL learners tended to use imperatives as well as

conventional indirect strategies (e.g., *Would you allow me…? May I…?*). These

expression formulae are similar to those applied by Chinese native speakers in

Zhang's (1995a; 1995b) studies, which provides further evidence of pragmatic

transfer from learners' L1 to L2.

Similarly, Su (2010) noticed the common practice of direct requesting in

Chinese, that is, that the language lacks syntactic devices (tense, aspect,

subjunctives, conditional) to indicate different degrees of politeness. Instead,

Chinese speakers use supportive moves, such as small talk, as a strategy to

maintain harmony and good human relationships (Scollon & Wong-Scollon,

1991). That is to say, the degree of directness in Chinese is not associated with the

use of utterance internal modification, but with external modifications to protect

face.

Wang (2011) investigated how Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL)

learners made English requests in Macao. He recruited 32 English language

learners, 41 business students, and 32 native speakers of Australian English. A

written discourse completion task with contextual descriptions and images (i.e.,

enhanced WDCT) was used to elicit request utterances from the three groups. The

focuses were strategy use, formulaic expressions, internal modifications, external

modifications, internal modifications, and utterance length. His study revealed

that L1 interfered with the L2 learners' use of request strategies, lexical choices,

and formulae. One limitation of Wang's study, however, was his classification of

the conventionally indirect expressions in requesting into two broad subcategories:

suggestory formula and query preparatory. He did not investigate the distribution

pattern of various query types (ability, willingness, prediction, etc.) in individual

scenarios by native speakers and L2 speakers.

2.5 Teachers' Pragmatics

2.5.1 Pragmatics instruction

Instruction is crucial and necessary for L2 pragmatic development, especially

in a foreign language setting where native speakers' input is restricted and L2

learners have limited opportunities for "full range of human interaction" (Kasper

& Schmidt, 1996, p. 160). Before learning to use pragmatic routines and strategies

appropriately in production, L2 learners need to develop pragmatic awareness,

"knowledge of those rules and conventions underlying appropriate language use

in particular communication situations and on the part of members of specific

speech community" (Alcón-Soler & Jordà, 2007, p. 193). To this end, teachers

should be equipped with pragmatic declarative knowledge which enables them to

explain pragmatic rules in an explicit way.

Takahashi (2001) conducted a study to compare the outcomes of different

instructional treatments on request forms. The data were collected through a

discourse completion task, which show that the explicit group with metapragmatic

instruction outperformed all other groups in the use of target forms. In a later

study, Takahashi (2005) further compared the effect of form comparison treatment

and form search treatment with regard to the appropriate manner of request

realization in English among 49 Japanese EFL learners. The results indicated that

the learners in the form-comparison group achieved higher awareness of the target

forms than the other group, which again confirms the superior effect of explicit

instruction over implicit teaching.

Alcón-Soler (2005) examined the relative efficacy of implicit and explicit

instruction in a Spanish EFL setting. The explicit group received direct

awareness-raising tasks and written metapragmatic feedback on the use of

appropriate requests, while the implicit group received typographical

enhancement of request strategies and a set of implicit awareness-raising tasks.

The results showed that explicit instruction played a more significant role in

improving learner's awareness and performance as measured by producing a

written dialogue, and from a movie excerpts identifying and explaining request

formulae.

Takimoto (2008) investigated the effects of deductive and inductive explicit

approaches in an EFL setting. He randomly assigned 60 Japanese EFL learners to

four treatments: deductive instruction, inductive instruction with problem-solving,

inductive instruction with structured input tasks, and a control group. In the

deductive instruction, the teacher explicitly explained the relationship between the

form of specific down-graders and functional meanings; the input task engaged

the learners to make decisions on the appropriateness of six dialogues; and the

problem-solving task asked the learners to make a comparison of different

requests by answering analysis questions. The research results showed that the

three experimental groups performed equally well on the tests of discourse

completion task, role-play, listening task and judgment test, but the two inductive

groups outperformed the deductive group on the follow-up listening test, which

implied that inductive instruction could be a better solution than deductive

instruction in teaching pragmatics.

The effect of explicit corrective feedback on pragmatics has been investigated

recently. Nguyen and associates (2012) compared the effect of the two types of

form-focused instruction involving three groups of Vietnamese learners of English

over a 10-week course: an explicit group who received meta-pragmatic instruction

and explicit corrective feedback; an implicit group who received input enhancement and recasts of errors, and a control group. Both treatment groups significantly outperformed the control group, and the explicit group outperformed the implicit group on all pragmatic performance tasks: a written discourse completion task, a role play, and an oral peer-feedback task.

To conclude, researchers have compared different instructional approaches and shown that explicit instruction with metapragmatic information outperformed implicit approaches, since the former was able to "heighten learners' attention to specific linguistic features and an understanding of how these features relate to contextual factors" (Ishihara, 2010, p. 103). The importance and superiority of explicit instruction over implicit instruction in pragmatics training highlights the need for the teacher to have meta-pragmatic knowledge to explain language use in different social contexts to the learners. As Ishihara (2010) proposed, effective teachers of pragmatics should have the awareness of pragmatic norms in a target language community and the ability to explain the rules. However, to date, little research has investigated teachers' metapragmatic knowledge in the ILP literature.

2.5.2 Competence in teaching pragmatics

To be effective teachers of pragmatics, ESL teachers need to have a strong

sense of *self - efficacy*. This refers to "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Research has demonstrated that self-efficacy is able to predict and affect behavior changes (Bandura, 1977). Studies such as Eslami and Fatahi's (2008), in which a positive relationship was found between Iranian high school teachers' perceived proficiency in English and their self-efficacy about teaching EFL, suggest that we might expect a similar relationship between teachers' confidence about teaching pragmatics and their actual knowledge of pragmatics. This is an area of pragmatics research that remains to be explored.

There are some studies investigating the impact of intercultural contact in a L2 community on teachers' teaching of intercultural topics. Göbel and Helmke (2010) compared the videos of teachers with high and low cultural contact experience, and found that teachers with more intercultural experience had achieved a higher instructional quality with relation to intercultural topics. It could be inferred from their findings that teachers who have more intercultural experience in the target language community are more likely to include pragmatic awareness and discussions in their classrooms. However, there is little empirical

research conducted to explore the relationship between teachers' study-abroad

experience and teaching of pragmatics.

Ishihara (2010) stated that teachers should have knowledge of pragmatic

variation, L2 pragmatic norms, and meta-pragmatic information to teach

pragmatics. The author also speculated that teachers' pragmatic beliefs are

dynamic and changing in relation to their experience. Therefore, teachers should

be encouraged to reflect on their feeling about teaching L2 pragmatics and their

development at the end of their sojourn.

2.6 Rationale for the Study

In general, as Wang (2011) mentioned, previous studies have provided an

in-depth understanding of the process of pragmatic acquisition in a study-abroad

context. There are several limitations. Firstly, most previous studies have adopted

a pre- and post-test design. One limitation with earlier studies (e.g., Barron, 2003;

Schauer, 2006, 2009) is that although the study-abroad group were measured more

than one time during their sojourn, the at-home group was measured only once

under the assumption that the L2 speakers' pragmatic competence in an AH

context would be static. Recent studies (e.g., Ren, 2012) dealt with the problem

by investigating both the SA and AH groups' development throughout the study.

However, empirical evidence of L1 pragmatic transfer is lacking in those studies, since the non-native speakers' speech act performance in their L1 was not elicited and compared with that in their L2.

Secondly, the primary participants in those studies were English learners; the effect of study broad on English teachers' pragmatic development as well as their pedagogy level has been under-researched. Compared with the current understanding of how L2 learners learn L2 pragmatics in study-abroad, little is known about how EFL teachers develop pragmatic competence during a sojourn in a L2 environment and how their experiences might enhance their pragmatics-focused instruction in the future.

Thirdly, few previous studies have examined the role of *L2 WTC* in learners' engagement in social interaction in a L2 community. Although it is assumed that WTC in L2 allows one to predict how much learners will actually engage in social interaction and take advantage of the L2 setting to develop language proficiency, there is little research to show that there is a positive correlation between the two variables.

Finally, previous studies either adopted a qualitative research method or a quantitative design, but a mixed method approach that integrates quantitative and

qualitative data can be an better alternative to investigate the effect of the

interactional opportunities on pragmatic gains.

In summary, pragmatics researchers have directed much attention towards the

effect of a study-abroad experience on L2 learners' pragmatic development in a

study- abroad (i.e., naturalistic) setting, with a focus on speech acts. However, few

studies have examined the impact of social interaction in L2 on EFL teachers' L2

pragmatic acquisition and professional development in pragmatics pedagogy.

Considering the fact that this area is under-researched in ILP literature, the present

study was designed to fill this gap. It attempted to explore the influence of oral

social interaction with native speakers in a study-abroad context upon their

development in metapragmatic knowledge and pragmatics teaching, with a focus

on the speech act of requesting.

2.7 Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in the present study:

RQ1. What kinds of interaction opportunities that are experienced by Chinese

EFL teachers participating in a study abroad program contribute to their L2

pragmatic development?

RQ2. What aspects of L2 pragmatic knowledge about requesting develop in a

study-abroad context compared with EFL teachers at home in China?

RQ3. To what extent does Chinese EFL teachers' self-efficacy relating to teaching pragmatics improve after a study abroad sojourn?

2.8 Summary

This chapter has addressed the following questions: What do we know about pragmatics and L2 pragmatics learning? How does a study-abroad context and a classroom context affect learners' L2 pragmatic development? How do people perform the speech act of requesting in English and Chinese? The answers to these questions provide a rationale for the research questions that guided the current study. The next chapter outlines and explains the research instruments used in the study.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter   presents a description of the participant groups, instruments, data

collection procedures and   the coding schemes for data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

This study adopted a pre-test post-test comparison design. English interaction in a

natural setting served as a treatment variable (i.e., independent variable) and

development in pragmatic knowledge and in pragmatics teaching ability as

dependent variables. The primary participants were a group of Chinese EFL

teachers who attended a teacher training program in Canada. The amount of

interactive exposure to English was measured through a log. Measures of the

participants' pragmatic knowledge focused on both pragmalinguistic knowledge

(request strategies and formulae) and sociopragmatic awareness (imposition and

social appropriateness judgments). Variables relating to pragmatic competence

were examined through scenarios to obtain more fine-grained results than those

that could be obtained from a traditional strategy-based analysis. The measures of

teachers' professional development in pragmatic instruction involved their

perception about the ease of speech acts and their confidence in teaching

pragmatics. The role of L2 WTC in social interaction was also examined.

3.2   The Sites for the Study

The study was conducted at two sites: Canada and China. Study abroad

participants (henceforth the SA Group) were from an overseas program for

Chinese teachers at an educational institution in a city located in Western Canada,

where English is the dominant language of the local community. The site was

chosen for the fact that the college has run a teacher training program for visiting

Chinese English language teachers continously for seven years. A native English

speaker group (henceforth the NS Group) consisted of students from a different

tertiary level educational institution in the same Canadian city. The comparison

group consisted of a group of at-home EFL teachers (henceforth the AH Group)

working in a Chinese city where Mandarin is the dominant language and English

is taught and used only in the classroom.

3.3 Participants

3.3.1 The study-abroad teacher group

The participants in the SA Group were 19 Chinese teachers of English (see

Table 3.1), with ages ranging from 25 to 50[1]. Five (26%) were male teachers and

14 (74%) were female teachers. Among them, four were high school teachers,

two were college instructors, and 13 were university instructors. Nine teachers

(43%) had bachelor's degrees, nine (43%) had master's degrees, and one (5%)

had a PhD degree. Their teaching experience ranged from 3 to 25 years ($M =$

13.2). When asked about their background in pragmatics,   more than half of the

group (63.2%) reported that they had taken a pragmatics course. However, the

course was more concerned about pragmatics theory than pedagogy. Before

visiting Canada, their use of English in China had been largely confined to the

classroom. None of them had visited an English-speaking country prior to their

departure to Canada.

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[1] At the beginning of the study, there were 20 SA teachers. However, one SA participant   did not
provide sufficient information in her AJT and   logs and so her data was removed from the study.

Table 3.1

Profile of the SA Group (n=19)

Participant	Gender	Age	Education Background	Teaching Years	Teaching Contexts In China
1	F	31-35	MA	10	University
2	F	41-45	MA	15	University
3	F	46-50	BA	25	University
4	F	31-35	MA	7	University
5	F	31-35	MA	7	University
6	F	31-35	MA	5	University
7	F	36-40	BA	14	University
8	F	31-35	BA	10	University
9	F	26-30	MA	8	University
10	M	46-50	MA	25	University
11	M	36-40	PhD	17	University
12	M	41-45	MA	15	University
13	M	41-45	BA	18	University
14	F	31-35	BA	10	College
15	F	31-35	MA	6	College
16	M	36-40	BA	19	Secondary School
17	M	36-40	BA	16	Secondary School
18	F	26-30	BA	3	Secondary School
19	F	41-45	BA	20	Secondary School

During 2013, the participants attended a five-month teacher training program especially designed for teachers' professional development. The program had two native speaker instructors of English, one lecturing on English literature and the other on second language pedagogy. There were four lesson hours each day from Mondays to Thursdays and a field-trip on Fridays. Pragmatics was not addressed in their program syllabus.

3.3.2 The at-home teacher group

The AH Group included 19 Chinese EFL teachers who were native Mandarin speakers and had learned English in China (see Table 3.2)[2]. They had demographic backgrounds similar to those of the SA group. There were four male teachers (21%) and 15 female teachers (79%). Their ages ranged from 26 to 50 years. The average length of teaching experience was 14.6 years. Among them, five teachers were from a high school, two from a college and 13 from a university in Mainland China. The majority of this group (78%) also reported that they had taken a pragmatics course. Their use of English was also largely confined to the classroom. Also similar to the SA participants, they had never visited an English-speaking country before participating in the study. As for their educational background, four (21%) of them held a bachelor's degree, 14 (73.7%) had a master's degree, and one (5%) had a Ph.D. The education level of the AH Group was higher than that of the SA group, since five more of them had taken graduate courses in English.

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[2] At the beginning of the study, there were 20 AH teachers in the study. One AH participant opted out of the study prior to the post-test stage and hence was unable to finish all the tasks.

Table 3.2

Profile of the AH Group (n=19)

Participants	Gender	Age Ranges	Educational Background	Teaching Years	Teaching Contexts In China
1	F	46-50	MA	11	University
2	F	31-35	MA	17	University
3	F	36-40	MA	19	University
4	F	41-45	BA	25	University
5	F	26-30	MA	8	University
6	F	31-35	MA	18	University
7	F	41-45	MA	16	University
8	F	41-45	MA	5	University
9	F	41-45	MA	10	University
10	M	41-45	MA	18	University
11	M	41-45	MA	20	University
12	M	41-45	MA	23	University
13	M	26-30	PhD	18	University
14	F	31-35	MA	18	College
15	F	31-35	MA	21	College
16	F	31-35	BA	9	Secondary School
17	F	31-35	BA	10	Secondary School
18	F	36-40	MA	1	Secondary School
19	F	41-45	BA	12	Secondary School

The demographic information of the two teacher groups shows that they were similar in gender and teaching contexts. It also reveals that there were four more people in the age range of 41-45 and five more MA degree holders in the AH group. This comparison suggests that, as a group, the AH teachers had richer English teaching and learning experiences than the SA teachers.

3.3.3 The native speaker group

The native speaker participants were 20 undergraduate and graduate students from a Canadian university. They all speak English as their first langauge. Among them, four (20%) were male and 16 (80%) were female.

3. 3.4 The Chinese English major group

For the research purpose of collecting baseline data, 16 English major students were also recruited from a leading university in China. Among them, four (25%) were male and 12 (75%) were female. They had all passed the State Test for English Majors Band 4 (TEM-4), so their English proficiency had reached intermediate level or above. Similar to the AH teachers, they had never travelled to an English-speaking country.

3.4 Instruments

This study made use of quantitative data supplemented by qualitative data. The data collection instruments included 1) a background questionnaire; 2) a self-report   language assessment; 3) a self-report L2 WTC scale; 4) a log measuring participants' exposure to English interaction; 5) measures of pragmatic knowledge (written discourse completion task, imposition judgment task and appropriateness judgment task); 6) measures of teachers' confidence in teaching

pragmatics (survey of ease in teaching speech acts and of confidence in

pragmatics teaching in general), and 7) individual interview. The following

sections provide a description and   rationale for each tool.

3.4.1 Background questionnaire

The Background Questionnaire (see Appendix A) consists of two sections:

One   part elicits demographic information about participants' gender, age range,

English background, English teaching experience in China; the other part

concerns their experiences in teaching and learning pragmatics.

3.4.2 Self-report English listening and spoken interaction proficiency

Language proficiency is considered to be an   important variable since it

affects how easily the L2 learner can engage in interaction. The Common European

Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) provides scales to assess

listening, speaking, spoken interaction, reading, and writing in terms of six levels

of language proficiency: A1 (Breakthrough) and A2 (Waystage) as the "Basic

user"; B1(Threshold) and B2 (Vantage) as the "Independent user"; and C1

(Effective operational proficiency) and C2 (Mastery) as the "Proficient user". In

the current investigation, only the Listening and Spoken Interaction scales were

adopted (see Appendix B), for the focus was on L2 pragmatics in oral interaction.

3.4.3 Scale for willingness to communicate in L2

As discussed in the previous chapter, another variable posited to influence the

learning of pragmatics from the input is one's motive to interact with people in the

target language. McCroskey's (1992) *Willingness to Communicate* scale (WTC)

was adapted to predict the teacher participants' engagement in social interaction.

His scale asks a respondent to estimate how likely it is that he or she would

initiate communication with strangers, acquaintances, and friends in the contexts

of public, meeting, group, and dyad in L1, 0% stands for "never" and 100% for

"most probably". It consists of   20 items. Eight of the 20 items are fillers, and the

other 12 items concern three types of interlocutors: strangers, acquaintances, and

friends. It was later adopted and modified by other researchers (such as Cao &

Philp, 2006) to assess learners' WTC in L2, or L2 WTC. For the research purpose,

the scale was further modified and the participants were asked to indicate how

likely they would contact   with native speakers in L2 (see Appendix C).

3.4.4 Measure of English interaction: Log

In the literature, there are a few different ways of measuring L2 use outside of

the classroom. Jackson (2005) had her Hong Kong participants on a study abroad

visit to the UK keep a diary where they wrote about their interactions with

strangers from different cultures, critical experiences that attracted their attention,

and critical reflections. A major challenge for diary studies, however, is how to

ensure that participants faithfully record their experiences, thoughts, and actions

in sufficient detail (Schauer, 2009). Although using diaries allows the researcher

to obtain rich data from participants, diary writing is also effortful. Furthermore,

participants' responses are too variable for systematic comparisons across

individuals.

The most popular way of measuring L2 exposure is through a

questionnaire. Many researchers (e.g., Day, 1985; Freed, 1990; Segalowitz &

Freed, 2004; Spada, 1984, 1986) have used questionnaires adapted from Seliger's

(1977) Language Contact Profile. This questionnaire asks participants to estimate

their frequency of use of the target language using a scale with pre-defined time

periods with respect to a variety of listening, speaking, reading, and writing

activities in a week period. Such questionnaires are easy to administer and easy to

complete; however, as Ranta and Meckelborg (2013) note, the use of a frequency

scale does not provide fine-grained data about language use.

This problem is remedied by having learners keep track of their language

using a log of some kind. Brecht and Robinson (1993) asked their sample of

American students in Russia to keep track of their L2 activities in a calendar with

one-hour blocks. Students were required to record what they were doing, with

whom, and in which language for one week at three different points during their

time outside of class during their four-month sojourn in Russia. Adapting Brecht

and Robinson's approach, Ranta and Meckelborg (2013) developed a

computerized language log to collect exposure data from Chinese graduate

students at a Canadian university. Their computerized log had both advantages

and disadvantages. On the one hand, it provided detailed information about the

learners' use of both L2 and their L1 that was readily accessible in a database; on

the other hand, it required training of technical skills and a time commitment that

cannot be expected of all L2 learners. Considering the merits and demerits of

those tools, Ranta and Mckelborg's idea was adopted in this investigation, since

the need for precision about activity types (quality of L2 interaction) and a

concrete time frame (quantity of L2 interaction) were major concerns. The format

was, however, a paper-and pencil log rather than a computerized one.

In order to obtain fine-grained information about the SA teachers'

interactive language use outside classroom, a log was designed for informants to

record their interaction experiences in the target language   (see Appendix D). It

contained a list of interactive activities and a list of speech acts. The activities

were suggested by four Chinese teachers who had taken the same study-abroad

program in an earlier cohort. They were contacted via email and asked to recall at

least 10 activities they had experienced during their stay   in Canada. Their

responses constituted a list of 15 activities, which include discussions, meetings,

and particularly, a range of interpersonal exchanges in different contexts and for

different purposes. Considering that the list might not be completely

comprehensive, informants were allowed to add any activities not on the list. The

log required informants to take down the codes for speech activities and the time

period for each activity they participated on a daily base. The log also contained a

list of 14 common communication acts, which include greeting, advising,

requesting, complaining, etc. The teachers were asked to check the boxes next to

the acts they either used   themselves or   heard from native speakers' utterances.

They were also suggested to add other activities to the list.

3.4.5 Measure of pragmalinguistic competence: Written discourse completion task

A written discourse completion task (WDCT) was developed in the current

study for three main reasons: firstly,   it is a useful tool for measuring   pragmatic

strategies and conversational formulae of speech acts (McNamara & Roever,

2006); secondly, the method is inexpensive and easy to administer while

allowing control of contextual variables (Kasper, 2000); thirdly, it is easy for the

researcher to compare the responses of native and nonnative speakers across

different cultures (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Another reason for the preference of

a WDCT to other tools (such as role-play) is because the focus of the study was

on teachers' metapragmatic knowledge for teaching rather than their real

performance in an authentic situation. As it allows respondents to think and plan

what to say, their metapragmatic declarative knowledge can thus be elicited. Such

knowledge is necessary for pragmatics teaching in an EFL setting.

In order to examine the teachers' metapragmatic knowledge of formulaic routines

and strategies for requesting, an enhanced WDCT with images (see Appendix E)

was designed for this study. It consists of 12 request scenarios adopted and

modified from previous research (e.g., Liu, 2004; Schauer, 2009). The scenarios

depict a range of situations with variation in social distance, level of imposition,

and communicative purpose. Contextual factors of social power, gender, and age

are provided in the prompt. The respondents are expected to write down what they

would say in each of the given situations.

Table 3.3 provides the description of the chosen scenarios. It shows that

Scenarios 3, 5, 10, 11, concern interactions off-campus while Scenarios 2, 6, 8, 7,

address social exchanges on-campus. The scenarios are also varied with regard to

requesting goals: Scenarios 5, 2, 11, 12, are required for the interlocutor to

perform an act; Scenarios   3, 10, seek for goods; Scenario 8 for information; and

Scenarios 7, 9, request permission.

Table 3.3

Scenarios in the WDCT

Scenarios	Description
1	Ask a stranger standing in front of you not to block your view in a sport game.
2	Ask a classmate/friend to study together for an exam
3	Ask a friend for his computer to finish your homework
4	Ask a classmate to open the window in a hot room
5	Ask a waiter to change a meal
6	Ask a professor to explain a concept
7	Ask a school president, stranger, for an interview
8	Ask a professor for an extension for paper submission
9	Ask your instructor to speak a bit slowly and clearly
10	Ask a friend's mom to give less food
11	Ask a stranger to change seats in a flight
12	Ask a child not to be late for a walk

3.4.6 Measures of sociopragmatic competence

3.4.6.1 Imposition judgment task

    In addition to initiating a request in each scenario in the WDCT, the

respondents are also   asked to judge the degree of imposition in each situation,

so that their sociopragmatic knowledge relating to imposition is assessed, together

with pragmalinguistic knowledge concerning strategies and semantic formulas.

Such metapragmatic knowledge is important for explicit pragmatics teaching.

3.4.6.2 Appropriateness judgment task derived from a multimedia elicitation task

The oral discourse completion task (ODCT) has been widely used in ILP

research to assess L2 learners' pragmatic competence. In a traditional open-ended

ODCT, participants are asked to produce orally what they would say in a given

situation. Schauer (2009) developed a version called the Multimedia Elicitation

Task (MET). Each MET scenario consists of two slides: the introductory slide

informs the participants of the request (e.g., ask a person to open a window), so

they have 10 seconds to plan what to say in such a situation; then the second slide

occurs, with an audio description and a photographic image depicting the situation,

and informants are expected to record their response.

Schauer (2009) identifies some advantages of the MET. First, the measure

allows the researchers to control the context and the type of speech acts they wish

to elicit. Second, the audio and images in the MET provide the participants with

richer audiovisual contextual information to elicit natural talk. Most importantly,

it has the advantage of standardization, since participants are provided with the

same auditory and visual prompts   in the computer-based and timed test.

Given these merits, a MET (see Appendix D) was also developed for the

purpose of collecting baseline data of requests produced by the NS Group and the

CEM Group. Considering that, in an authentic situation, a speaker tends to

retrieve his or her metapragmatic procedural knowledge to perform a speech act

without thinking and planning, the 10-second planning time in Schauer's version

of MET was eliminated in the one particularly designed for the current study. For

each scenario, the audio on the first slide plays the description of the situation, the

second slide shows an image of the situation, and the direction "You say" prompts

the participant to respond. The task is timed so that the respondents have to

respond rapidly.

he development of the MET went through several phases. To start, I chose and

modified 10 request scenarios from other request studies with reference to

contextual factors of imposition (high, medium, and low) and social distance

(friend, acquaintance, and stranger). Second,   an oral description was recorded

for each scenario by using a free online sound-editing software called Audacity,

and then saved as a wav file. Third, an image was selected from the copy-right

free pool of images and clip arts in Microsoft Word 2010 to illustrate each

scenario. As the final step,   a timed PowerPoint file was created and in it were

inserted the audio and image files (see Appendix F). A two-second pause was set

for the image slide and then a ten-second pause for an informant to respond to

each scenario orally.

Aiming to measure participants' sociopragmatic knowledge of requests, a

Appropriateness Judgment Task (AJT) was developed from the baseline data

generated from   the MET.   The task includes the same 10 MET scenarios,

which feature interactions between a native English speaker and an imagined

Chinese ESL speaker   (Mike or Mary). The development of the AJT consisted of

three steps:

First of all, all the native and non-native speaker participants' utterances

generated from the MET were transcribed. A typical expression produced by the

NS Group for each scenario was then identified. Five of the typical native

speakers' expressions were randomly chosen for half of the scenarios and treated

as appropriate items. A non-native expression uttered by a CEM member was also

selected.   Five typical non native-like expressions were selected for the other

half of the scenarios and regarded as less appropriate items. Since the focus of the

test was on pragmatic competence and test-takers' attention needed to be directed

to pragmatic forms and functions, grammatical mistakes in the chosen non-native

speakers' utterances were corrected. Slang words were also eliminated from the native speakers' expressions; thus, the test items presented no vocabulary and grammar challenges to the test takers.

Secondly, the utterances of Mike and Mary were recorded by a male and a female student, who spoke English with a clear Chinese accent. Two Canadian English speakers, one male student and one female student, played the roles of the male and female native-speaker interlocutors. All the audio recordings were created by using Audacity and saved as wav files.

Finally, a PowerPoint file was created to include images and audio files (see Appendix G). Each scenario contained two slides, with the   audio file of scenario description inserted on the first slide and the audio-recorded request, along with an accompanying image depicting the situation, on the second slide. A test-taker was expected   to listen to the 10 scenarios in sequence and to provide a holistic rating of   sociopragmatic appropriateness of the given request expressions on a four-point Likert scale, where "1" equaled "very inappropriate" and "4", "very appropriate". Their confidence about their judgment was also elicited using a four-point Likert scale,   where "1" is used to stand for "very uncertain", "2" for "somewhat uncertain", "3" for "somewhat certain", and "4" for "very certain".

Example:

On the first slide,

🔊　(Mary is talking to her friend from a cell phone on a noisy city street. She can't hear what her friend says. Mary asks, " Could you say that again?")

On the second slide,

🔊 (You are expected to indicate on your answer sheet):

a. To what degree do you think her expression is socially appropriate in this situation? Please circle the corresponding number in the answer sheet.

Very inappropriate			Very appropriate
1	2	③	4

b. To what degree are you certain that your judgment is sound?　Please circle the corresponding number in the answer sheet.

Very uncertain			Very certain
1	2	③	4

Table 3.4 presents the scenarios contained in the MET and the AJT.

Table 3.4

Scenarios in the MET and the AJT

	Request Purpose	Imposition	Social Distance

		Size	
1	To ask your boss to speak slowly	Medium	Acquaintance
2	To ask your student to turn off a cell phone when it is ringing	Low	Acquaintance
3	To consult a professor you do not know an academic question	Medium	Stranger
4	To ask a receptionist to reschedule an appointment at the last minute	High	Stranger
5	To ask your friend to fix your computer	High	Friend
6	To borrow $50 from your friend when shopping	Medium	Friend
7	To ask for a copy of PPT from a seminar presenter you do not know	Medium	Stranger
8	To borrow lecture notes from your classmate	High	Acquaintance
9	To ask your friend to give you a ride	Low	Friend
10	To ask your roommate to pass a glass	Low	Acquaintance

3.4.7 Measures of competence in pragmatics teaching

3.4.7.1 Survey on ease of teaching in speech acts

In the current study, a measure was adopted to assess the EFL teachers' ability

in pragmatics teaching: a self-reported scale relating to teachers' perceived ease of

teaching of speech acts. In this measure, respondents are asked to indicate which

speech acts they found easy to teach and which ones difficult to teach (see

Appendix H).

3.4.7.2 Scale of self-efficacy in pragmatics teaching

In order to measure the participants' self-efficacy about teaching English

pragmatics (see Appendix H), an item on the Competence in Pragmatics Teaching

questionnaire was developed. The participants were asked to indicate how

confident they were about teaching speech acts on a scale ranging from 0% to

100%.

3.4.8 Interview

In the study, a semi-structured interview (see Appendix I) was also included

to collect information about teachers' views on teaching and learning L2

pragmatics. Specifically, the prompt questions were intended to probe a SA

teacher 's views about the following: a) Have you made progress in pragmatic

competence?; b) What types of interaction could help improve pragmatic

competence?; and c) What advice would you give to newcomers to Canada? The

questions for AH teachers were somewhat different. They were invited to talk

about how to improve one's pragmatic competence in an EFL setting.

3.5 Pilot Study

Piloting is important in quantitative studies to ensure that testing items

concerning each variable are appropriate and sufficient (Dörnyei, 2010). Before

being administered to the   participants in the main study, the AJT was piloted

with two EFL teachers from China to ensure that the sound recording was clear

and that there was no ambiguity in the scenario descriptions. Interestingly, they

remarked that the photographic images in the pilot version could be distracting.

As a result, the real person images in the task were replaced by cartoons in the

final version of the AJT.

The draft of the WDCT instrument was pilot-tested among four SA Chinese

EFL teachers who were not potential participants in the study. The objective was

to identify any elements that might be confusing. The L2 WTC scale was also

piloted-tested among the same four Chinese EFL teachers.They pointed out that

they would be more willing to   interact with people from Inner Circle countries

whose first language was English, rather than with those who were from Outer

Circle and Expanding Circle nations and speaking English as a second or

additional language. As a result, the task direction was rephrased to specify that it

was about willingness to initiate communication with speakers who speak English

with a standard accent.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection took place in four phases: (a) baseline data collection

from the NS group and the CEM group; (b) collection of information regarding

the SA and AH teachers' background information, oral interaction ability, L2

WTC, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knoweldge, and perceived potentials

for pragmatics instruction at the start of the study (i.e., pre-test); (c) collection of

log data relating to English interaction on and off campus; and (d) collection of

teachers' L2 WTC, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knoweldge, and

perceived potentials for pragmatics instruction at the time of the end of the SA

teachers sojourn (i.e., post-test).

Phase 1: Prior to the SA teachers' sojourn

The baseline data were collected from the NS Group and the CEM Group

prior to the arrival of the study-abroad teachers in Canada. Fourteen native

English speakers from a Canadian university and 16 Chinese English major

students from a Chinese university were recruited to complete the MET. The task

was administered on a one-to-one basis in front of a computer.   Before the task, I

demonstrated to each of the participants how to play the PPT, and   how to record

his or her oral response to each scenario by clicking the *record* and *pause/stop*

buttons on the menu bar of Audacity.   All their utterances were then saved as

wav files and later transcribed.   The data generated from the MET were then

used to create the AJT. The WDCT was also completed by 20 native English

speakers.

Phase 2: At the beginning of the sojourn period

During the second week of   the   SA teachers' arrival in Canada in July,

2014, they were given an information letter about this study and asked to sign a

consent form if they were willing to participate. They all agreed and signed the

form. Then they were asked to complete the background questionnaire, L2 WTC,

and English proficiency self-assessment. The next day, they were asked to

complete the WDCT with imposition judgment embedded, and then the AJT. All

the surveys were undertaken in a multi-media classroom under the supervision of

the researcher. The AH teachers also completed the same questionnaire and tests

in the same sequence in China under the administration of a research assistant.

It should be noted that the WDCT was intentionally administered prior to

the AJT to avoid test effect, for both tasks involve requesting scenarios and

expressions. Otherwise, the teachers' responses to the requesting situations in the

WDCT could have been more or less influenced by the sample expressions they

heard from the AJT.

Phase 3: During the sojourn period

During their five-month stay in Canada, the SA teachers completed logs of

their interaction in English during two separate weeks: one week in which they

had classes and used English in both instructional and non-instructional settings,

and the other week in which they had no classes. Similarly, the AH teachers

completed the same task in two separate weeks, one in which they taught classes

and the other in which they did not. The copies of the printed calendar were

distributed the day before each given week and then collected the day after it.

Phase 4: At the end of the sojourn period

During the last week of the SA teachers' sojourn in Canada, the same

measures (CEFR, L2 WTC, WDCT and AJT) were administered to the SA and

AH teachers again. Further, each person was scheduled for a 15-20 minute

interview. Most teachers preferred using their first language to answer the

questions. Their responses to the interview questions were recorded via Audacity

and   later transcribed for analysis.

Specific details of the data collection procedures are outlined in Figure 3.1
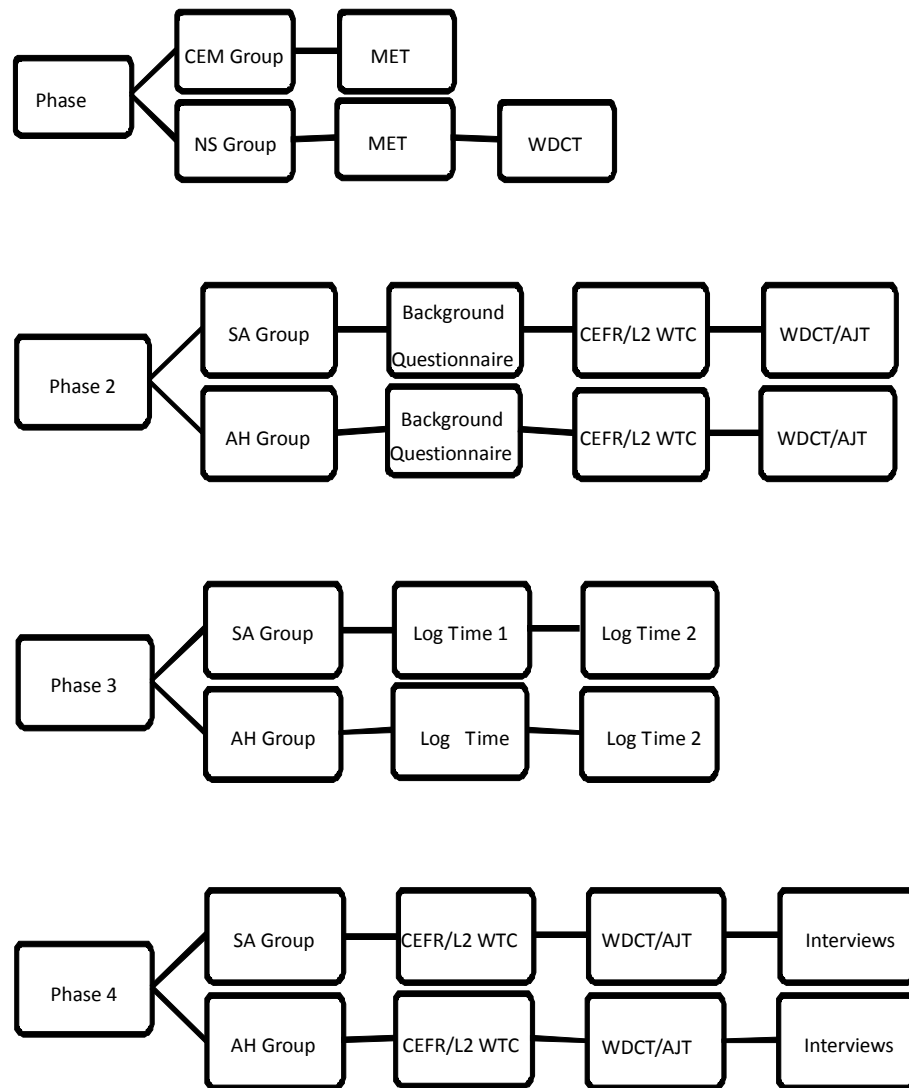
Figure 3.1. Research Procedures.

3.7 Data Analysis

3.7.1 English proficiency

For statistical analysis, the six levels of the CEFR grid were translated into 6

points (from 1 to 6), with "1" referring to the lowest level A1 (the elementary

level) and   "6" equaling to the highest level C2 (the advanced level). The SA and

AH teachers' self-reported scales in the areas of Listening and English Interaction were coded as numerical values, then an independent t-test was run to determine whether the means of the two groups were significantly different.

3.7.2 Willingness to communicate in L2

The L2 WTC scores for the SA and AH teachers were calculated using the scoring formula (See Table 3.5) provided by McCroskey and Richmond (2013). To compute the total scores, the sub scores for stranger, acquaintance, and friend were calculated, and then the sum of the sub-scores were divided by 3. An independent sample t-test was performed. The purpose was to determine whether there were significant differences between the two group means at the initial stage of the study.

At the end of their sojourn, the SA Group was required to report their L2 WTC again. Then the pre-post sub scores of interpersonal conversation were computed. Multivariate tests and paired sample t-tests were performed to examine the link between L2 WTC and real participation in oral communication.

Table 3.5

Scoring Norm for L2 WTC

Scoring:

    Interpersonal: Add scores for items 4, 9, 12; then divide by 3.

    Stranger: Add scores for items 3, 8, 12, 17; then divide by 4.

    Acquaintance: Add scores for items 4, 11, 15, 20; then divide by 4.

    Friend: Add scores for items 6, 9, 14, 19; then divide by 4.

    To compute the total WTC score, add the sub scores for stranger, acquaintance, and friend. Then divide by 3. All scores, total and sub-scores, will fall in the range of 0 to 100.

Note. The scoring formula was drawn from McCroskey & Richmond (2013).

3.7.3 English interaction log

The English interaction log was used to investigate what language learning opportunities in a L2 context might contribute to pragmatic acquisition. The amount of time for the teachers' L2 use in and outside a classroom setting was computed. For the SA Group, the types of interactive exposure in the L2 community were categorized into three types: group discussion, meeting, and interpersonal interaction. The frequency of different interactive activities related to interpersonal interaction was then counted to see whether interactive exposure might play a significant role in the development of pragmatic competence.

In the log, the teacher informants, both at home and abroad, were also required to record what speech acts they had either used or observed during their

English exchanges with native speakers on a daily base. The frequency of their

report for each speech act was reported and compared at the group level for

further analysis.

3.7.4 Enhanced written discourse completion task

A native-speaker norm was used for data analysis in the current investigation

for three reasons. Firstly, as the target SA teachers were staying in an Inner Circle

country, local native norms are logically the standard for assessing their pragmatic

appropriateness and development in the given context. Secondly, the native

linguistic forms in the target language can be compared with those in the L1 for

evidence of pragmatic transfer. Lastly, the native pragmatic norms can be used as

pragmatics teaching resources, particularly for those who need to communicate

with native speakers (i.e., L2/L1 context).

The frequency of request strategies and modifying devices in the whole

WDCT task as well as in individual scenarios were counted, so the use of those

devices by the SA and the AH teachers could be compared and contrasted with

that of the NS participants. The purpose was two-fold: (a) to find out how the

Chinese EFL teachers at home and abroad used L2 to perform the speech act of

requesting; and (b) to explore whether their language use conformed to the native

norms at pre-test and post-test stages. In addition, the frequency of the teachers'

use of request strategies in their first language was elicited and compared to see

how their L1 interfered with their strategy choices and formulaic forms in their L2.

The coding for   participants' pragmatic strategies was a modified version of

that used in Schauer's (2009) study. It comprised three parts: request strategies

(Table 3.6), internal modifiers (Table 3.7), and external modifers (Table 3.8).

Table 3.6

Coding Scheme for Request Strategies

Request Strategies	Explanation	Example
Direct strategies		
Imperative	In a tone of commanding	Tell me the way to X!
Performative	Containing a performative verb	*I want to ask you* the way to X.
Want statement	Stating the speaker's desire, wish or need	*I wish* you'd tell me the way to X.
Locution derivable	Deriving the semantic meaning of the locution	Where is X?
Indirect strategies		
Suggestory formula	Making a suggestion	*How about* telling me the way to X?
Availability	Inquiring about the hearer's temporal availability.	*Have you got time to* tell me the way to X?
Prediction	Predicting probabilities.	*Is there any chance* to tell me the way to X?
Permission	Asking for hearer's permission	*Could I* ask you about the way to X?
Willingness	Addressing the hearer's willingness	*Would you mind* telling me the way to X?
Ability	Inquiring about the hearer's mental or physical capacity to perform the action	*Could you* tell me the way to X.
Hint	Requiring the hearer to decode the speaker's intent	I have to meet someone in X.
Opt out	Non-performance	

Note. The coding scheme was adapted from Shauer's (2009) coding categories request strategies (pp.85-88), which were derived from the studies of Blum-Kulka (1989), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Trosborg (1995) and Van Mulken (1996).

Table 3.7

Coding Scheme for Internal Modifiers

Internal Modifiers	Explanation	Example
Lexical downgrader		
Downtoner	Sentence adverbial used to reduce the force of the request	Could I *maybe* have some of them?
Politeness marker	Employed to bid for their interlocutors' cooperation	Could you open the window, *please*?
Understater	Adverbial modifier employed to decrease the imposition	Can you speak up *a bit*, please?
Past tense modal	*Could* instead of *can* to make the request appear more polite	*Could* you show me the direction to X?
Consultative device	Used to consult the interlocutor's opinion on the proposition of the request	*Would you mind* filling in this form for me?
Aspect	Progressive form of verb	*I was wondering* if you could give them to me tomorrow?
Syntactic downgraders		
Conditional clause	Employed to distance the speaker from the request	*I would like to ask if* you could fill in the form?
Appreciative embedding	Used to positively reinforce the request internally by stating hopes and positive feelings	*It would be nice if* you would fill in the form.
Tentative embedding	Employed to make the utterance appear less direct and to show hesitation	*I wondered if* you might find some time to fill in the form.

Note. The scheme was adopted and modified from Schauer's (2009) Table 4.5 Overview over Internal Modifiers: Lexical downgraders (p. 90), Table 4.6 Overview over Internal Modifiers: Syntactic downgraders (p. 90), which were adapted from the studies of Blum-Kulka (1989), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Trosborg (1995) and Van Mulken (1996).

Table 3.8

Coding Scheme for External Modifers

External modifiers	Explanation	Example
Alerters	Title, name, endearment term, attention getter, etc. used to attract the interlocutor's attention	Teacher, Sir, Wang, John, Sweetie, Hey, Excuse me
Grounder	Used to explain why request	I really don't understand this topic.
Imposition minimiser	Employed to decrease the imposition of the request	I will return them immediately.
Sweetener	Employed to flatter the interlocutor and to put him/her into a positive mood	I think you are the perfect person to do it.
Promise of reward	Used to offer the interlocutor a reward for fulfilling the request	I would fill in yours as well, if you need one day.
Appreciator	Used to show positive hopes and feelings to reinforce the request	That would be very nice.
Considerator	Intended to show consideration towards the interlocutor's situation	If you've got the time.
Apology	Employed to show apology for causing disturbance or inconvenience	I'm sorry.

Note. The above scheme was adopted and modified from Schauer's (2009) Table 4.8 Overview of External Modifiers (p.92), which were adapted from the studies of Blum-Kulka (1989), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Trosborg (1995) and Van Mulken (1996).

All the WDCT data produced by the groups at different phases were coded

by the researcher. A female TESL graduate student who spoke English as a native

language was recruited and trained as a research assistant. After explaining the

related pragmatic concepts and the coding schemes, I guided the assistant to code

five sample request expressions. Then Scenario 8 was randomly selected. The

assistant coded the SA and AH groups' written production in this secenario

independently using the same coding schemes as the researcher. We then met

again and discussed discrepancies. Our inter-rater reliability, calculated using the

Cohen's Koppa, was high, at .995.

Finally, typical *formulaic expressions* used by the teacher groups were

compared with those used by the NS Group for individual scenarios to identify the

formulae preferred by native speakers in specific scenarios, and determine

whether non-native speakers were able to produce native-like expressions in the

same scenarios.

3.7.5 Imposition judgment task

The degree of imposition data in each of the given requesting scenarios in the

WDCT were compared and contrasted. The NS Group's ratings for each

requesting scenario served as the yardstick to measure SA and AH teachers'

sociopragmatic awareness. Statistical tools (such as *t*-test) were applied to

determine whether their performance in each scenario was statistically significant

over time. Given the small sample size, the five missing ordinal numbers (< 1%)

in the data concerning imposition were substituted with the group modes (most frequent category) to ensure that all the participants were retained.

3.7.6 Appropriateness judgment task

The analysis framework of the teachers' performance on the AJT drew upon the work of Hudson and colleagues (1995). In their scheme for speech act assessment, L2 learners' responses were rated on a Likert scale for: (a) ability to use the correct speech act; (b) use of formulaic expressions; (c) appropriateness of amount of information given; (d) degree of formality; (e) directness; and (f) politeness. They also developed rubrics with explicit explanations for each element to be rated. Their scheme was modified to make it more appropriate for the current investigation. The "ability to use speech act" scale was discarded since all the scenarios fell into one single speech act (i.e., requesting). Furthermore, the "politeness" scale was removed since it appeared to overlap with the dimensions of "directness" and "formality". As a result, the non-native speakers' request expressions were rated   based on the criterion of formulaic expressions, information, formality, and directness. Each dimension counted one point and the full mark was "4". The five request expressions provided by the NS Group in the AJT were automatically scored as "4", while the expressions provided by the

non-native speakers were rated as "2" or "3". Take this non-native speaker's

expression as an example:

Scenario 6: to ask a friend to lend 50 dollars.

Request expression: *Lend me 50 dollars, please. I really need it.*

Score: *2*

Rationale for the score: The utterance is too direct (-1) and there is a lack

of reason why the money is needed (-1). Therefore, two points are deducted, and

the final score is "2". These scores served as a yard stick (see Table 3.9) to

measure whether the appropriateness judgment of EFL teachers approximated that

of the scoring norms.

Table 3.9

Scoring Scheme for the AJT

Items	Scenario Description	Expressions	Scores	Problems
1	Ask the boss to repeat what he said	*I beg your pardon? (NNS)*	3	information
2	Ask a student to turn off a cell phone	*I am sorry. But you have to turn off your cell phone. (NNS)*	3	directness
3	Ask a dentist's receptionist to reschedule an appointment	*I'm sorry. Would it be possible to reschedule this appointment? I just can't make it today. (NS)*	4	
4	Ask a professor to contribute to a study	*Excuse me. I was wondering if I could get your opinion on some work I'm doing. I know this area is one you have expertise in. (NS)*	4	
5	Ask a friend to fix a computer	*My computer got a virus somehow. No idea how to get rid of it. Could you help me, please? (NS)*	4	
6	Ask a friend to lend money	*Lend me 50 dollars, please. I really need it. (NNS)*	2	directness/ information
7	Ask an unfamiliar presenter for a copy of PPT	*I want to borrow your power point. Is that okay?(NNS)*	2	formality / information
8	Ask a classmate for notes	*Hi. I was wondering if you would be willing to lend me your notes for the last class. I was sick and I couldn't make it. (NS)*	4	
9	Ask a friend to give a ride	*Hi! Would you be able to give me a ride? (NS)*	4	
10	Ask a roommate to pass a glass	*Pass a glass to me. (NNS)*	2	directness/ formality

Note. 1=very inappropriate; 2=somewhat inappropriate; 3=somewhat appropriate; 4=very appropriate

The frequency of appropriate judgments by the SA and AH groups at pre- and post- stages for each of the 10 requests was counted; the numerical values were then compared across groups, scenario by scenario, for evidence of the SA group's growth in sociopragmatic awareness. Meanwhile, the teachers' certainty levels in their judgments were also computed and compared through a two-way repeated ANOVA to determine whether there were significant differences in their performance during the period of study. Two missing ordinal values (<1%) with regards to certainty ranking in the AJT were also replaced with the group mode.

3.7.7 Measures of competence in pragmatics teaching

To answer the research question concerning teachers' development in pragmatics instruction, frequency of the EFL teachers' noticing of speech acts in their L2 use was calculated and compared across groups over time. So were the frequencies of their perceived ease in teaching speech acts. Additionally, their perceived confidence in pragmatics pedagogy at pre- and post- test stages was also compared using a two-way repeated ANOVA.

3.7.8 Interview

The audio-recorded interview data were transcribed and analyzed thematically by the researcher, who is a bilingual competent in both Mandarin

and English. Common themes related to the research purpose and questions were identified, labeled, and calculated for frequency. The themes concerned pragmatic areas in which they thought they had improved, interactive activities they believed facilitated their pragmatic competence, and advice they had for teachers in a study-abroad context.

3.8 Summary

This study used multiple sources of documentation with quantitative data (such as pragmatic tasks) supplemented by qualitative data (such as semi-structured interview) as a multi-method approach is an important means to improve a study's validity and reliability (Kasper & Rose, 2002). This chapter presented a detailed description of the research instruments developed for this study. Data collection procedures and analysis were also discussed. The results from the analysis of the data are presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. The first section

compares the SA and AH groups in terms of the participants' English language

proficiency and L2 WTC. The second section presents the results beginning with

the quality and quantity of the SA group's interactive exposure to English. The

third part focuses on the results of the WDCT and the AJT to show how study

abroad influenced L2 learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic development.

The final section deals with the effect of study abroad upon the Chinese teachers'

confidence in teaching pragmatics.

4.1 English Proficiency and Willingness to Communicate in L2

The data analysis first set out to determine two things: whether the SA and

AH groups were comparable to each other in terms of their L2 proficiency and

their levels of WTC at the beginning of the study; and whether significant

differences occurred between the two groups over time. EFL teachers were asked

to report their perceived level of listening and spoken interaction proficiency as

well as L2 WTC at the pre- and post- stages. Differential gains in listening,

speaking, and WTC of the two EFL teacher groups were expected, since one

group was in an L2-dominant community in Canada and the other in an L1-

dominant setting in China. However, interestingly, it produced mixed results. On

the one hand, SA teachers reported in the final interviews that apparent progress

was made during their sojourn in Canada; on the other hand, some of them

actually gave a lower or the same score for their language proficiency the second

time, for through real language use in a L2 context, they had come to realize that

their language ability was not as high as they had perceived. To recap, at the

post-test stage, five SA teachers provided a lower rate and four the same rate in

their self-assessment of oral interaction ability in L2 (see Appendix J).

Given the confounding variable of authentic L2 contact and its effect on one's

perception of L2 proficiency, I chose to focus on the teachers' pre-test scores only

to determine whether the two groups were comparable in English listening and

interaction at the initial stage. Statistical results revealed that no significant

differences were detected between the two groups with respect to English

listening proficiency ($p = .76$, $p > .05$), English interaction skill ($p = .12$, $p > .05$),

and L2 *WTC* ($p = .11$, $p > .05$). The two groups were similar at the start of the

study.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics of Language Proficiency and L2 WTC

	M	*SD*	*N*
SA Group			
English Listening (SATime1)	4.10	1.10	19
English Interaction (SATime1)	3.94	.89	19
L2 WTC (SATime1)	51.52	21.34	19
English Listening (SATime2)	4.16	.76	19
English Interaction (SATime2)	4.21	.63	19
L2 WTC (SATime2)	58.68	20.38	19
AH Group			
English Listening (AHTime1)	4.15	1.03	19
English Interaction (AHTime1)	4.42	.71	19
L2 WTC (AHTime1)	61.95	17.59	19
English Listening (AHTime2)	4.52	.77	19
English Interaction (AHTime2)	4.63	.50	19
L2 WTC (AHTime2)	66.47	11.45	19

Note. M = mean, *SD* = standard deviation, *N* = number.

4.2 English Interaction

This section presents the types and frequency of interactive activities in

which the two teacher groups engaged during the research period.

4.2.1 Quantity of English interaction

English interaction was measured using a log during two different time

periods. The week long log at Time 1 aimed to reveal the amount of time the

participants spent on interactive activities in a week when they took classes; the

log at Time 2 was intended to reveal whether participants engaged in more

interactive activities when they were not taking classes. Table 4.2 shows the time

participants spent on oral interaction in L2 at Time 1, and Table 4.3 presents the

time spent at Time 2.

Tale 4.2

Amount of Oral Interaction in English at Time 1 (hours per day)

Partici-pant	In class		Group Discussion		Meeting		Interpersonal Interaction	
	SA Time1	AH Time1	SA Time1	AH Time1	SA Time1	AH Time1	SA Time1	AH Time1
1	2.1	1.9	0.9				3.3	0.4
2	0.0	1.9					1.6	0.1
3	1.6	0.2					6.8	
4	0.0	1.5					1.5	
5	1.7	0.9					0.4	
6	2.3	1.5					2.7	
7	1.6	0.9					2.0	
8	1.7	1.0	0.1				1.1	
9	1.7	1.2			0.3		6.8	
10	1.8	1.3					0.7	
11	1.7	2.5					1.5	
12	1.7	0.2					0.5	
13	1.3	0.9					0.6	0.1
14	1.7	0.7					3.7	
15	0.1	0.5	0.1				1.5	
16	1.9	0.1					1.7	
17	1.1	0.1	0.1				0.6	
18	1.7	0.1			0.3		8.0	
19	1.3	0.1					2.3	
Total	27.1	17.2	1.3		0.6		47.1	0.6
Mean	1.43	0.91	0.07		0.03		2.48	0.03

Note. Participants SA-2 and SA-3 were absent from classes during the week.

Table 4.3

Amount of Oral Interaction in English at Time 2 (hours per day)

Participants	Group Discussion		Meeting		Interpersonal Interaction	
	SA Time2	AH Time2	SA Time2	AH Time2	SA Time2	AH Time2
1	0.3				6.0	0.21
2					0.6	
3	0.3				0.1	
4					1.5	
5					0.9	
6			0.1		1.5	
7	0.3				1.3	0.2
8	0.3				0.5	
9	0.3		0.1		10.4	
10					4.7	
11					0.7	
12					3.4	
13	0.1				0.5	0.1
14	0.1				3.3	
15	0.6				2.9	
16					8.1	
17					0.9	
18					9.4	
19	0.3				2.3	
Total	2.6		0.2		59.0	0.51
Mean	0.14		0.01		3.11	0.03

The tables show that the SA teachers spent considerable time in interpersonal interaction (SATime1: M =2.48, SATime2: M =3.11), whereas the AH group members displayed little use of English outside their classroom (AHTime1: M = .03, AHTime2: M = .03). As for class time, group discussion, and meeting at the

two phases, significant differences between the two groups were not observed.

It is also notable that, although the SA teachers used English more than the

AH teachers as a group, they displayed a high degree of individual variability in

the amount of L2 interaction (SATime1Range = .50 - 6.80; SATime2Range = .10

- 10.4), which suggests that individual L2 proficiency and L2 WTC may play a

key role in determining the amount of L2 learners' engagement in social

communication.

4.2.2 Quality of English Interaction

In order to obtain a better understanding of the nature of English interaction

in L2, the frequency of a range of social contact activities for the SA and AH

groups was also explored. As shown in Table 4.4, the SA teachers participated in a

variety of activities during their sojourn in Canada, with more English contact in

Time 2 than in Time 1 since they had no classes during that week. The most

regular social activities they reported were s*hopping*, *traveling*, *eating out*,

chatting with friends (face-to-face, online, and by phone), as well as *field trips*.

As for the AH informants, they explained that their limited interpersonal

interaction occurred only between a parent and a child for English practice. None

of them had reported authentic interpersonal contacts with native English

speakers.

Table 4.4

Frequency of the SA Group's Interactional Activities within a Week

Activities	SATime1	SATime2
Shopping	38	38
LRT/Bus	32	42
Restaurant	25	42
Online chat with friend	21	15
Field trip	16	15
Phone calls	15	18
Bank /post office	9	2
Travel	8	9
Concert	6	0
Party	5	12
Conversation cafe	4	9
Free chat	3	1
Ceremony	2	0
Chat with life guard	2	7
Bingo hall	2	0
Chat with school staff	1	0
Chat with neighbor	1	2
Total	190	212

4.2.3 Willingness to communicate in L2 and English Interaction

In an effort to explore the possible link between L2 WTC and interaction in

the target language in a L2 community, the overall L2 WTC scores of both SA and

AH teachers at the pre- and post- stages were calculated (see Appendix K). The

SA teachers' interpersonal L2 WTC scores at both phases were also computed (see

Appendix K). Paired sample *t*-tests were performed. For the SA group, statistical

report showed that there was no significant difference in the overall L2WTC

scores at the pre- and post- stages (SATime1: M = 51.52, SD = 21.34 vs. SATime2:

M = 58.68, SD = 20.38; p = .123, p < .05) and in the interpersonal L2WTC scores

(SATime1: M = 53, SD = 23.37; SATime2 M = 56.47, SD = 21.29; p =.282, p

< .05). Similarly, for the AH group, the results were insignificant in the overall

L2WTC scores (AHTime1: M = 61.95, SD =17.59; AHTime2: M = 66.47, SD =

11.45; p = .24, p < .05).

A mediation analysis was also conducted for evidence of mediation effect of

L2 contact in a natural setting on L2 WTC. The results of the multivariate tests

showed that the significant level was .51. The value was less than .05, which

suggests that the effect of L2 contact on L2 WTC in a study-abroad setting is not

significant.

4.3 Impact of English Interaction on Pragmalinguistic Competence

As mentioned earlier, pragmalinguistic knowledge refers to the strategies and

linguistic forms a speaker implements to realize a communicative act (Kasper &

Rose, 2002). The SA and AH teachers' pragmatic knowledge was assessed using

the WDCT designed particularly for the study. There were 12 scenarios included

in the original WDCT. The results show that the teachers had mastered native-like

formulaic expressions in Scenario 1 (ask a stranger not to block the view in a

sport game), Scenario 4 (ask a classmate to open the window in a hot room), and

Scenario 9 (ask the boss to speak more slowly) at the outset of the study, since

they were found to use native-like formulas and strategies. For example, they used

"Excuse me" in Scenario 1; "Would you mind opening the window?" in Scenario

4; and "Excuse me, could you please speak a little slower?" in Scenario 9. Thus,

the statistical results of those three scenarios were excluded for further analysis

and discussion in the study.

4.3.1 Request strategies

4.3.1.1 Request strategies in total

In the WDCT data analysis, request strategies fell into four categories:

conventional directness (*Imperatives, Performatives, Want statement,* and

Locution derivable), conventional indirectness (such as *availability*, *ability*,

willingness), non-conventional indirectness (*hint*), and *opt- out*.

For comparison purpose, means were calculated by dividing the frequencies

of a request strategy by each participant group by the number of group members.

In total, the results (see Figure 4.1 and Appendix L) demonstrated that native

speakers used *imperative* (NS: *M* = .25) and *want statements* (NS: *M* =. 35) at a

lower frequency than non-native speakers across the nine requesting scenarios.

The mean variation in the SA group's frequencies of *imperatives* at the pre- and

post- stages (SATime1: *M* = .75 vs. SATime2: *M* = .42) indicates a tendency

towards the native norm (NS: *M* = .25). In the AH Group, however, there was an

increase in the frequency of *imperative* (AHTime1: *M* = .63 vs. AHTime2: *M*

= .84), showing greater deviation from the native speaker norm.
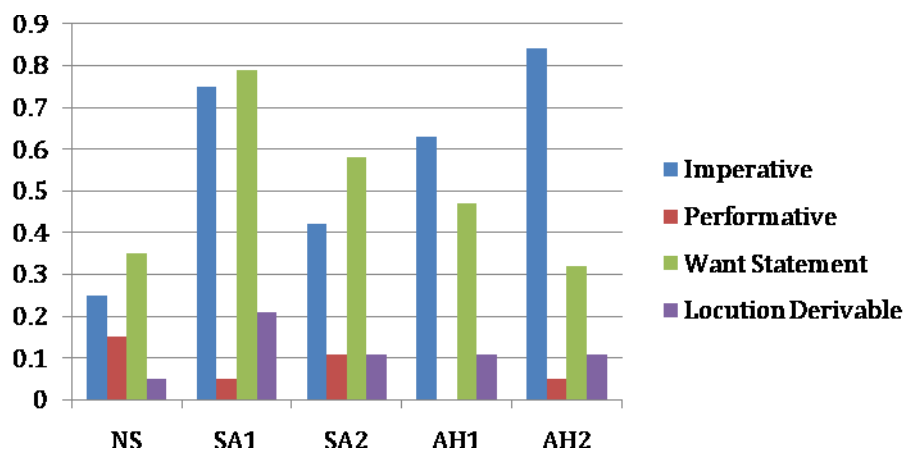
Figure 4.1. Mean Scores of Direct Request Strategies.

Concerning conventional indirect strategies (See Figure 4.2 and Appendix L),

the data showed that among the three groups, the NS Group employed *prediction*

most frequently per person (NS: *M* = .85 vs. SATime1: *M* = .15 vs. SATime2: *M*

= .05 vs. AHTime1: *M* = .32 vs. AHTime2: *M* = .26）and *ability* the least (NS: *M*

= *.95* vs. SATime1: *M* =2.05 vs. SATime2: *M* = 2.89 vs. AHTime1: *M* = 1.94 vs.

AHTime2: *M* = 2.52).

For example,

(NS-4): Unfortunately, my best friend's wedding is happening out of town,

the same day my paper is due. *Is there any possibility* I could get an

extension? (Prediction)

The data yielded mixed results with respect to different indirect strategies

employed by the SA Group. On the one hand, the group produced significantly

more *permission* expressions at the post-test (SATime1: *M* =1.42 vs. SATime2: *M*

= 1.79), indicating an approximation to the native norm (*NS: M* = 1.85). On the

other hand, a considerable increase in *ability* statements was evident (SATime1: *M*

= 2.05 vs. SATime2: *M* = 2.89). In short, the findings also suggest that the SA

teachers still lacked sufficient pragmatic knowledge about *prediction,* despite their

sojourn experience in a L2 community. As for the AH Group, no significant

variation was noted in the range of conventional indirect strategies over time.
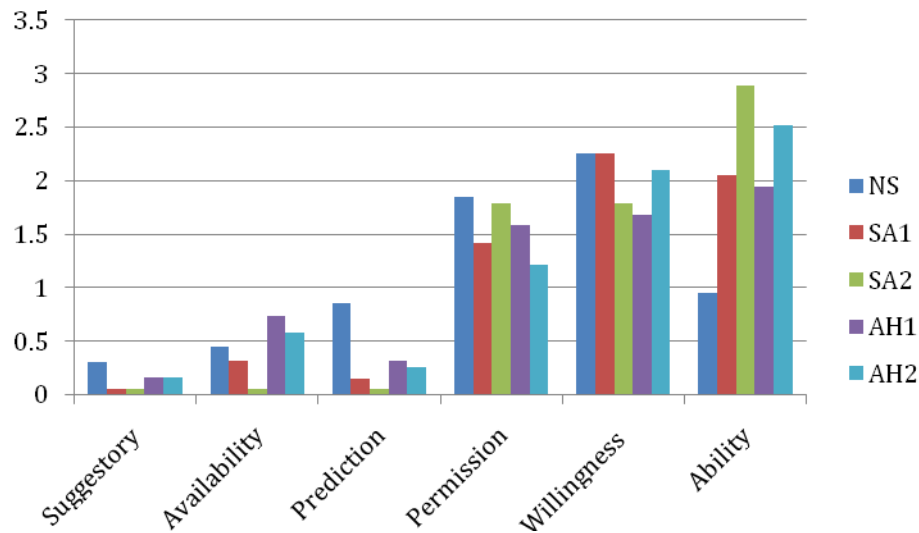
Figure 4.2. Mean Scores of Conversational Indirect Strategies.

As for the least direct request strategy, *hinting,* Figure 4.3 (also see Appendix

L) displays that this strategy was universal and commonly applied by both native

and non-native speakers. A slight decrease was observed in the post-test for

non-native speaker groups.
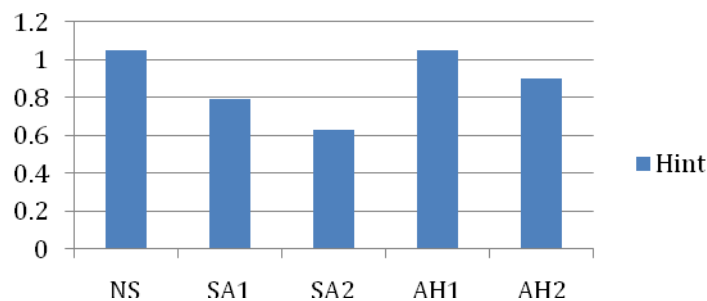
Figure 4.3. Mean Scores of Non-Conversational Indirect Strategy (Hint).

Although the informants were expected to respond to all the scenarios and

opting out was not an option in the WTC, three NS respondents remarked that

they preferred to perform the requesting act in a written form rather than an oral

form in Scenario 7 (ask a school president for an interview) and one suggested

calling the president's secretary. Similarly, in Scenario 3 (ask a friend for his

computer to finish your homework), two of the native speaker informants

suggested that they would not borrow such expensive and personal belongings.

The *opt-out* strategy (see Figure 4.4 and Appendix L) occurred only once in the

data of the AH Group, without provision of a reason. This finding indicates that

the non-native participants had different cultural norms in those specific scenarios

in L1 and had not acquired the related social norms in L2.
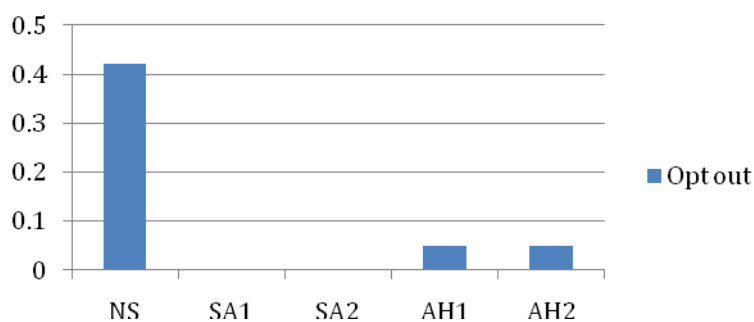
Figure 4.4. Mean Scores of Opt-outs.

The data analysis at the group level provides us with a general picture.

However, the findings do not inform us of which request strategies were actually

employed in a particular situation. Thus, each scenario needs to be examined on

its own and discussed with reference to levels of *imposition* and degree of *social*

distance. Only more frequently used strategies (i.e., those that occurred at least

five times) by any of the groups are displayed in the following tables. The

teachers' use of request strategies in their L1 is also presented to examine whether

there was evidence of pragmatic transfer in the given scenarios. The discussion

starts from the three scenarios of low imposition, followed by the three of medium

imposition, and finally the three of high imposition.

4.3.1.2 Request strategies in individual scenarios

In the WDCT, the 20 native speaker participants were asked to report what

level of *imposition* (high, moderate, or low) they perceived was involved in each

of the nine request scenarios. Frequencies for each imposition level for each

scenario were then calculated, and the one with the highest frequency was taken

as the criterion for imposition assessment purpose (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 *Frequency of Imposition Sizes Perceived by the NS Group (n=20)*

Scenarios	Imposition Level					
	High		*Moderate*		*Low*	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Scenario 2	3	15	12	60	5	25
Scenario 3	11	55	6	30	3	15
Scenario 5	2	10	6	30	12	60
Scenario 6	1	5	13	65	6	30
Scenario 7	12	60	4	20	4	20
Scenario 8	11	55	7	35	2	10
Scenario 10	2	10	6	30	12	60
Scenario 11	3	15	13	65	4	20
Scenario 12	0	0	4	20	16	80

Note. *f* = frequency, *%* = percentage.

It can be seen from Table 4.4.1 that more than half of the NSs rated Scenario 5

(60%), Scenario 10 (60%), and Scenario 12 (80%) as being of *low imposition*;

Scenario 2 (60%), Scenario 6 (65%), and Scenario 11 (65%) were perceived as

being of *moderate imposition*, and Scenario 3 (55%), Scenario 7 (60%), and

Scenario 8 (55%), *high imposition*. The nine situations, therefore, were classified

into three categories based on the native norms as in Table 4.6 and are discussed

with reference to the contextual factor of imposition.

Table 4.6

Distribution of the WDCT Scenarios in 'Social Distance' and 'Imposition'

Degree of Imposition	Social Distance	Scenario	Item Description
Low	Friend	12	Ask a child/friend to be punctual for a walk
	Acquaintance	10	Ask a friend's mom to give less food
	Stranger	5	Ask a waiter to change a meal
Moderate	Friend	2	Ask a classmate/friend to study together for a test
	Acquaintance	6	Ask a professor to explain a concept in class
	Stranger	11	Ask a stranger to switch seats in a flight
High	Friend	3	Ask a friend to use his/her computer
	Acquaintance	8	Ask a professor for extension of paper submission
	Stranger	7	Ask a school president you do not know to schedule an interview

Scenarios of low imposition

Scenario 5: Ask a waiter to change a meal you did not order (Stranger + Low Imposition)

Table 4.7 shows that *ability* and *hint* were the two major strategies applied by the NS Group. To be polite, native English speakers avoided using an *imperative* statement. *Hint* appears to be a universal strategy employed by people in a face-saving situation, in which the speaker asks the hearer to correct a mistake he or she has made. For example,

(NS-3) Sorry. This is not what I ordered. *Could you* take this back and bring me the noodles? (Ability)

(NS-13) *I didn't order this. It is probably someone else's.* (Hint)

(SATime1-1) Sorry. I have ordered noodles. *This is not mine.* (Hint)

(AHTime1-2) Excuse me. *This is not what I ordered.* (Hint)

(SA L1-8) 你好，这不是我点的面条. (Nihao, zhe bushi wo diande

miantiao.)

Translation: Hi, this is what I ordered. I ordered noodles. (Hint)

As for the SA participants, they applied *imperative*, *willingness*, and *ability*

in addition to *hint*.

For example,

(SATime1-17) I'm afraid it's not what I have ordered. *Please change it.*

(Imperative)

(SATime1-4) I ordered noodles. *Would you* change it for what I really want?

(Willingness)

It is to be noted that the use of the *imperative* disappeared in the responses of

the SA group at the second phase (SATime1: $f = 5$ vs. SATime2: $f = 0$), which may

suggest that SA teachers became aware of the inappropriateness of such a direct

strategy in English. The AH teachers seemed to have achieved no improvement in

this case since some of them displayed a consistent use of the *imperative*

(AHTime1: $f = 2$ vs. AHTime2: $f = 4$) in their repertoire over time.

Table 4.7

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 5

Request Strategy	NS (*n*=20)	SA Time1 (*n*=19)	SA Time2 (*n*=19)	AH Time1 (*n*=19)	AH Time2 (*n*=19)	SA L1 (*n*=19)	AH L1 (*n*=19)
Direct							
Imperative	1	5	0	2	4	6	6
Indirect							
Willingness	0	2	7	2	4	0	0
Ability	6	2	4	4	0	1	0
Hint	9	7	7	8	8	11	11

Note. SA L1 = the SA Group in the first language; AH L1 = the AH Group in the first language.

Scenario 10: Ask a friend's mother to give less food at a party (Acquaintance + Low Imposition)

Table 4.8 informs that the NS participants applied both direct *(imperative)* and indirect strategies *(permission, ability*, and *hint)* when asking a senior acquaintance for low-stakes service.

For example:

(NS-16) Thank you for the food. But I want to enjoy it in smaller portions.

Can you give me a smaller scoop? (Ability)

(NS-5) You are a wonderful cook! I love your food, but I can't eat all you

give me. *May I have* smaller portions, please? (Permission)

It is found that nearly half of the SA participants (SATime1: f = 8) preferred

hint to other strategies to be polite when asking a senior to perform an act, which

is a possible sign of pragmatic transfer from Chinese (SA L1: f = 9; AH L1: f = 6)

in which culture old age is always respected.

For example:

(SATime1-6) Thanks. *But this is too much for me.* (Hint)

(SA L1-6) 对不起, 我吃不了这么多. (Duibuqi, wo chibuliao

zhemeduo). (Hint)

Translation: Sorry, I can't eat so much.

The table shows that the SA teachers had a more balanced use of *permission,*

ability and *hint* strategies in the post-test stage, as did the AH teachers. This

suggests that advanced L2 learners may have acquired different formulas for

requests.

Table 4.8

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 10

Request Strategy	NS (*n*=20)	SA Time1 (*n*=19)	SA Time2 (*n*=19)	AH Time1 (*n*=19)	AH Time2 (*n*=19)	SA L1 (*n*=19)	AH L1 (*n*=19)
Direct							
Imperative	4	0	2	3	4	3	5
Indirect							
Permission	5	1	3	2	4	2	0
Ability	6	1	5	1	4	0	1
Hint	2	8	5	6	2	9	11

Scenario 12: Ask a child not to be late for a walk (Young friend + Low imposition)

The analysis (see Table 4.9) shows that, contrary to non-native speakers, none

of the native speaker participants used *imperative* expressions to ask a child to

perform an act, although they viewed this situation to be of low imposition. Rather,

they focused more on the child's capability (NS: f = 8). An example from the NS

participants follows:

(NS-12) Sophie, I enjoy walking with you but I need you to get here on time.

Do you think *you could* come on time next week? (Ability)

In contrast, a common use of the *imperative* strategy appears in the data from

both groups of Chinese teachers in their L2 as well as in their L1 (SA L1 f = 5;

AH L1: f = 7). Owing to the hierarchical relationship between an adult and a child

in Chinese culture, it is socially appropriate for an adult to use such a direct form

and to oblige a child to follow an order. For example,

(AHTime1-13) Sophie, *please be on time next time* when we go for a walk

together. (Imperative)

(AH L1-13) Sophie, 下次可要准时，别迟到啦. (Xiaci yao zhunshi. Bie

chidao la.) (Imperative)

Translation: *Be on time next time*. Don't be late.

A comparison of the SA and AH groups showed that, the SA Group used

imperatives less persistently than the AH Group did (SATime1: f = 9 vs. SATime2:

f =5 vs. AHTime1: f = 3 vs. AHTime2: f = 6). This suggests a tendency towards

the native speaker norm, possibly as a result of their sojourn in Canada. It was

also noted that the SA teachers increased the use of *ability* over time (SATime1: f

= 1 vs. SATime2: f = 8 vs. NS: f = 8), which could be another sign of pragmatic

growth.

Table 4.9

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 12

Request Strategy	NS (n=20)	SA Time1 (n=19)	SA Time2 (n=19)	AH Time1 (n=19)	AH Time2 (n=19)	SA L1 (n=19)	AH L1 (n=19)
Direct							
Imperative	0	9	5	3	6	5	7
Indirect							
Ability	8	1	8	6	10	2	0

In sum, the data concerning the above three scenarios reveals that *ability* was the safest strategy in a situation of *low imposition* in L2. Non-native speakers from China tended to use the *imperative* as well, due to L1 transfer. The SA teachers reduced their frequency of use of the *imperative* strategy at the end of the study period, but their counter partners in China (the AH teachers) did not.

Scenarios of moderate imposition

Scenario 2: Ask a classmate/friend to study together for an exam (Friend + Medium Imposition)

It can be seen from Table 4.10 that the most frequent strategy used by native speakers was *willingness* (NS*: f* =14)*. Their use of *ability* was the least frequent (NS: *f* = 0). It seems that native English speakers were concerned with the hearer's *willingness* rather than *ability* to comply with their request. For example,

(NS-8) I'm struggling with this unit. *Would you be able to* help me study for

the upcoming exam? (Willingness + availability)

(NS-12) I'm having a lot of trouble with this course. *Would you be willing* to

study together? (Willingness)

In contrast, the SA and AH Chinese participants were found to employ *ability* (SATime1: *f* = 8; SATime2: *f* = 10; AHTime1: *f* = 6; AHTime2: *f* = 10*)* as well as

*willingness (*SATime1: $f = 7$; SATime2: $f = 7$; AHTime1: $f = 7$; AHTime2: $f = 3$).

For example,

(SATime2-7) *Can you help* me with my preparation for test? (Ability)

This pattern of results suggests that some learners were unaware of the

underlying semantic meaning of *ability* in L2, a focus on the interlocutor's

physical or mental capability to carry out an act.

Table 4.10

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 2

Request Strategy	NS (n=20)	SA Time1 (n=19)	SA Time2 (n=19)	AH Time1 (n=19)	AH Time2 (n=19)	SA L1 (n=19)	AH L1 (n=19)
Indirect							
Suggestory	2	0	0	1	4	5	7
Willingness	14	7	7	7	3	1	0
Ability	0	8	10	11	6	10	4

Scenario 6: Ask a professor you know to explain a concept (Acquaintance + Medium Imposition)

The analysis displayed in Table 4.11 shows that *willingness (*NS: $f = 7$) and

ability (NS: $f = 6$) can be treated as native norms in this case. It also shows that

the NS participants were able to combine two strategies in one semantic formula

in their repertoire. For example,

(NS -8) I'm having trouble understanding pragmatic competence, *would you*

be able to explain it to me? (Willingness + ability)

(NS -1) I'm having a hard time understanding the concept of pragmatic

competence. *Could you explain it one more time for me now, or*

would another time be better? (Availability)

The SA Group demonstrated extensive use of *ability* (SATime1: $f = 16$;

SATime2: $f = 14$) over any other strategy. Here is a typical example:

(SATime2-4) Excuse me, *could you please explain* the concept to me? I can't

understand it. (Ability)

Compared with the SA Group, the AH Group had a more balanced use of the

two strategies. Thus, no obvious sign of the impact of sojourn upon the SA

speakers' conversational routines was noted in this case.

Table 4.11

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 6

Request Strategy	NS (n=20)	SA Time1 (n=19)	SA Time2 (n=19)	AH Time1 (n=19)	AH Time2 (n=19)	SA L1 (n=19)	AH L1 (n=19)
Indirect							
Willingness	7	3	4	9	7	0	0
Ability	6	14	14	7	10	9	6

Scenario 11: Ask a stranger to switch seats in a flight (Stranger + Medium Imposition)

As shown in Table 4.12 the dominant strategy applied by the NS Group in

this scenario was *willingness* (NS: *f* =16). It seems to be the most appropriate

option in such a situation, for the hearer has the capability to perform the request.

By so doing, the speaker acknowledges that it is "the hearer's decision to perform

or not to perform the desired act" (Schauer, 2009, p. 152).

The same strategy also appeared in the data of the SA and AH groups. The

requests below are typical examples of this strategy in the data.

(NS- 13) If it isn't any trouble, *would you mind changing* seats so I can sit

beside my friend, please? (Willingness)

(SATime2-19) Excuse me, sir, *would you mind changing* your seat with my

friend. We hope we can sit together. (Willingness)

(AHTime2-19) Excuse me. This is my good friend. I want to sit next to him.

Do you mind changing your seat with me? (Willingness)

Chinese EFL teachers also applied *willingness* strategy, such as "Would you".

Nevertheless, a further observation of the use of formulaic expressions revealed

native speakers' use of a wider variety of expressions to convey such an intention.

For instance,

(NS-3) Excuse me, sir. *Would you be willing* to change seats so that my

friend and I can sit together? (Willingness)

(NS-10) Hi, *would you consider* exchanging seats so my friend and I could

sit together? (Willingness)

Unsurprisingly, L2 speaker participants also applied *ability* at a higher

frequency than did L2 native speakers. A few of them perceived the interlocutor

as having more power and therefore employed a *permission* strategy, presumably

due to L1 transfer (SA L1: $f = 6$; AH L1: $f = 6$). The consistent use of *ability* by

the SA and AH groups over time in a wide range of scenarios suggests that a

relatively short sojourn in an L2 context may have had little impact on their

tendency to prefer this strategy.

Table 4.12

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 11

Request Strategy	NS (n=20)	SA Time1 (n=19)	SA Time2 (n=19)	AH Time1 (n=19)	AH Time2 (n=19)	SA L1 (n=19)	AH L1 (n=19)
Indirect							
Permission	0	3	6	2	2	6	6
Willingness	16	9	5	7	11	4	1
Ability	3	6	6	9	5	3	0

To conclude, the appearance of *willingness* in the data of the NS Group across

Scenarios 2, 6, and 11 indicates that respecting the hearer's *willingness* to carry

out a desired act is a universal and appropriate strategy in a situation of *medium*

imposition, regardless of social distances. The WDCT data also show that about half of the L2 speakers used *ability* as the primary solution to any request situation. No significant changes were noticed with regard to *ability* in the SA Group over time.

Scenarios of high imposition

Scenario 3: Ask a friend for his computer to finish your homework (Friend + High Imposition)

As noted from Table 4.13 the majority of the NS members employed *permission* (NS: f =13), which indicates that asking for the hearer's *permission* is appropriate when the speaker intends to borrow an important item from a friend. The same strategy was found prevalent in the data of the SA and AH groups in L2 as well as in L1. The following are some typical expressions:

(NS-19) Hey, I'm sorry. My computer died and I just need to hand in a project.

Could I borrow your laptop? (Permission)

(SATime1-6) *Could I use* your computer for a while to finish my homework?

Mine has crashed. (Permission)

(SA L1-6): 我电脑坏了。借你的用一下好吗？我要写作业。(Wo

diannao huale. Jie ni de yong yixia haoma? Wo yao xie zuoye.)

Translation: My computer isn't working. Could I use yours? I need to

do my homework. (Permission)

The difference between the native speakers and the non-native speakers again lay in the latter's employment of *ability* (NS: f = 0, SATime1: f = 5; SATime2: f = 5; AHTime2: f = 6).

Table 4.13

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 3

Request Strategy	NS (*n*=20)	SA Time1 (*n*=19)	SA Time2 (*n*=19)	AH Time1 (*n*=19)	AH Time2 (*n*=19)	SA L1 (*n*=19)	AH L1 (*n*=19)
Indirect							
Permission	13	9	10	10	6	12	11
Willingness	3	3	2	3	4	0	0
Ability	0	5	5	0	7	3	1

Scenario 7: Ask a school president you do not know for an interview (Stranger + High Imposition)

From Table 4.14 we see that the three common strategies applied in such as high imposition situation by the native speakers were *availability*, *permission,* and *willingness*. For example,

(NS-1) I am very sorry to bother you, but I need to interview you for my

school project. *I was wondering if there was a time* next week that

we could get together? *(*Availability)

(NS-14) Sorry to disturb you. *Could I have a few minutes o*f *your time* to ask

a few questions? (Permission + Availability)

Similarly, the SA and AH groups also employed *availability,* but in a more direct and L1-like semantic way. For instance,

(AHTime2-14) Mr. President, I need a talk to you to finish my school project.

It will be my greatest honor to meet you tomorrow. *Could*

you please tell me when you are available? (Availability)

(SATime2-15) Excuse me. I am a journalist of our school. I want to have an

interview with you. *Could you please te*ll *me when is the*

suitable time for us to meet? (Availability)

The results also show that there was an increase in the SA teachers' use of

ability at the post-test (SATime1: $f = 2$, SATime2: $f = 5$), which may suggest that a

few of them were still unaware of the inappropriateness of such use in a high

imposition situation. As for the AH teachers, the dominating strategy they used at

pre- and post -stages was *availability* (AHTime1: $f = 14$, AHTime2: $f =12$).

Table 4.14

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 7

Request Strategy	NS (n=20)	SA Time1 (n=19)	SA Time2 (n=19)	AH Time1 (n=19)	AH Time2 (n=19)	SA L1 (n=19)	AH L1 (n=19)
Indirect							
Availability	6	6	5	14	12	13	18
Permission	6	4	5	1	1	2	0
Willingness	6	4	4	1	2	1	0
Ability	0	2	5	2	1	2	0

Scenario 8: Ask a professor you know for an extension for paper submission (Acquaintance + High Imposition)

In this scenario when one asks a person of higher status to approve an action

(Table 4.3.2.11), the native speakers' strategy appeared to be primarily *prediction*

(NS: f =13), and to a lesser extent, *permission* (NS: f =5). For example,

(NS-4) Unfortunately, my best friend's wedding is happening out of town, the

same day my paper is due. *Is there any possibility* I could get an

extension?   (Prediction)

As for the SA and AH teachers, they were found to have overwhelmingly

applied *permission* because of their L1 influence (SA L1: f =12; AH L1: f =17),

while *prediction* rarely occurred in their repertoire at both pre- and post- stages.

For example,

(SATime2-17) Professor, *may I* have an extension on my paper?

(Permission)

(AHTime2-14) Professor John, I am invited to my best friend's wedding.

Could I have your permission of a week's extension?

(Permission)

No apparent change was detected with regard to the use of *prediction* over the

study period.

Table 4.15

Frequency of Request Strategies in Scenario 8

Request Strategy	NS (*n*=20)	SA Time1 (*n*=19)	SA Time2 (*n*=19)	AH Time1 (*n*=19)	AH Time2 (*n*=19)	SA L1 (*n*=19)	AH L1 (*n*=19)
Indirect							
Prediction	13	0	1	1	0	0	0
Permission	5	13	10	8	11	12	17
Ability	0	4	3	8	1	2	1

To sum up, in a *high imposition* scenario, the NS Group were more likely to employ a *permission* strategy and expressions when borrowing an expensive item from a friend, *prediction* or *willingness* or *permission* when requesting information from a person of high status, and *prediction* or *permission* when asking for approval of an action from a person of power. In other words, *prediction* was a common strategy for native speakers in a high imposition situation, which involved a high status interlocutor. *Permission* seemed to be the universal strategy in all high imposition situations by all three groups. As for the non-native speakers, some of them responded in a native-like way by using *permission* or *willingness* in such a situation, and a few employed the indirect strategy of *prediction,* whereas others preferred the non-native strategy of *ability.* There seemed to be no clear sign of improvement in the appropriate use of *ability* and *prediction* for requests over time in the SA Group.

4.3.2 Internal modifiers

Internal modifiers in this study included two subcategories: *lexical modifiers*

and *syntactic modifiers*, the two devices often employed by speakers to mitigate

the imposition of requests. To compare the use of request modifiers by the two

groups (the SA Group and the AH Group) with reference to the norm group (the

NS Group), means were calculated by dividing the frequencies of a modifier by

each group at pre and post stages by the number of group members.

Figure 4.5 (also see Appendix L) presents the results of the analysis of

internal modification devices in the WDCT.
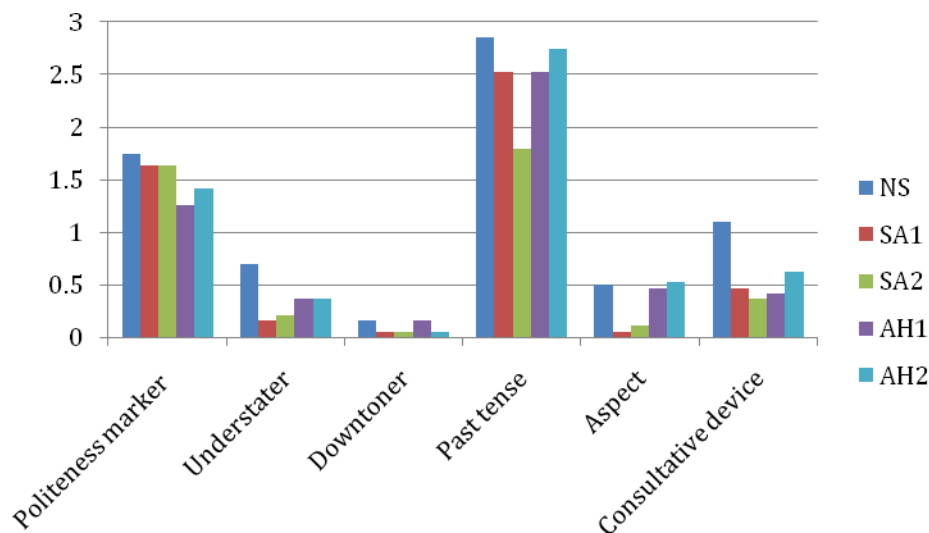
Figure 4.5. Mean Scores of Lexical Modifiers.

With regard to *lexical modification*, the analysis revealed that the NS Group

had a high frequency of use of the categories of *past tense* (*could you*) (NS*: M =* 2.85), *politeness marker* (*please*) (NS: *M =*1.75) and *consultative devices* (NS*: M = 1.1*) when performing a request. A further examination of the data shows that *politeness markers* occurred with high frequency in Scenario 6 (ask a professor you know to explain a concept) and Scenario 10 (ask a friend's mom to give less food); *past tense* was used as a lexical modifier in Scenario 3 (ask a friend for computer), Scenario 6 (ask a professor to explain a concept), Scenario 8 (ask for paper submission extension), and Scenario 11 (ask a stranger to exchange seats). The category of *consultative device* occurred in Scenario 11 (ask a stranger to change seats). For example,

(NS-19) I was a little confused about pragmatic competence.

Could you explain it a bit further, *please*? (Politeness marker,

Scenario 6)

(NS-3) My computer crashed and I have an assignment due tomorrow. Do

you think I *could* borrow your computer for the evening? (Past tense,

Scenario 3)

(NS-10) Sorry to disturb you, but *would you mind* trading seats so I can sit

next to my friend? (Consultative device, Scenario 11)

Compared with the NS Group, the non-native speaker groups applied the

same three forms to a less extent. There is no apparent variation in the lexical

devices over time in the SA and AH a group, which suggests that SA teachers'

overseas experience alone may not be facilitative of pragmatic knowledge

development in this respect.

As for *syntactic modification*, Figure 4.6 (also see Appendix L) shows that

native speakers employed all three types of clauses (*conditional, appreciative*

*embeddin*g, and *tentative* embedding). A closer examination of the data shows that

they applied *appreciative embedding* ("I would appreciate it if...") in Scenario 7

(ask a president for an interview), *tentative embedding* ("I was wondering if...") in

high position scenarios: Scenario 6 (ask a professor to explain a concept) ,

Scenario 7 (ask a school president for an interview), and Scenario 8 (ask your

professor for a paper extension).

For example,

    (NS-1) I am very sorry to bother you, but I need to interview you for my

             school project. *I was wondering if* there was a time next week that

             we could get together. (Tentative embedding, Scenario 7)

    (NS-18) I hate to ask, but I have a very important commitment that means a

lot to me. I *am wondering if it would be possible* to get an

extension on my paper. (Tentative embedding, Scenario 8)

L2 speakers in the current study were found to have acquired short request

expressions (e.g., I-can) for ordinary conversations, but were unaware of the use

of "I-wonder" patterns to avoid being imposing in a formal institutional setting.

For example, also in Scenario 8,

(SATime1-19) Sir, my good friend will get married next week, so *I'd like to*

ask if I can get another week to finish my paper.

(SAL1-19) 先生，我的好友下周结婚，你能否再给我一周时间来

完成论文吗？(Xiansheng, wode haoyou xiazhou jiehun. ni

nengfou zai geiwo yizhou shijian lai wancheng lunwen ma?

Translation: Sir, my good friend Xiaozhou is going to get married.

Can/Could you give me one more week to finish my paper?

In comparison, the AH teachers employed *appreciative* and *tentative*

embedding more frequently than the SA teachers and more in line with the

responses of the NSs (Appreciative clause: NS: $M =. 30$ vs. AHTime1: $M = .74$ vs.

AHTime2: $M = .32$; Tentative clause: NS: $M =. 65$ vs. AHTime1: $M = .63$ vs.

AHTime2: $M = .74$). It is not obvious why the SA group produced so few

examples of either of these types of syntactic modifiers.

For example,

(AHTime1-10) Sir, I have difficulty understanding the concept of pragmatic

competence. *I was wondering if* you would give me a help.

(Tentative embedding)
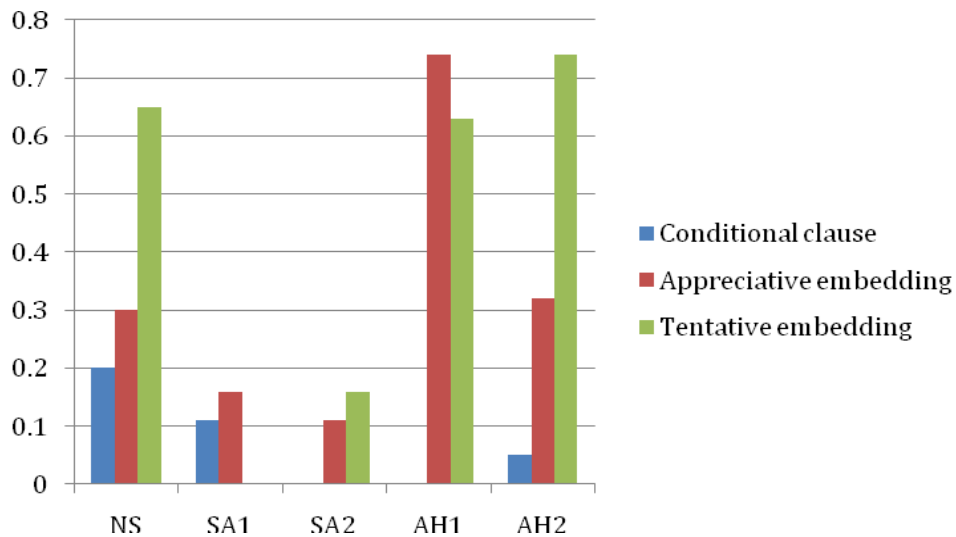
Figure 4.6. Mean Scores of Syntactic Modifiers.

4.3.3 External modifiers

The subcategories of external modifiers in the data collected from the WDCT

data in the current investigation included *alerter*, *grounder, disarmer, sweetener,*

promise of reward, appreciator, considerator and *apology*. Figure 4.7 (also see

Appendix L) enables us to view the direction and magnitude of change. The most

noticeable difference between native and non-native English speakers lay in

title/role, for the SA and AH groups used title/role more frequently than the NS

Group (NS: M = .75 vs. SATime1: M = 1.63 vs. SATime2: M = 2.05 vs. AHTime1:

M = 2.26 vs. AHTime2: M =1.79) did, due to L1 pragmatic transfer. Chinese

speakers tended to employ title/role in their addresses in a speech act to stress

their personal relationship with their interlocutors in their L1 (Gu, 1990).
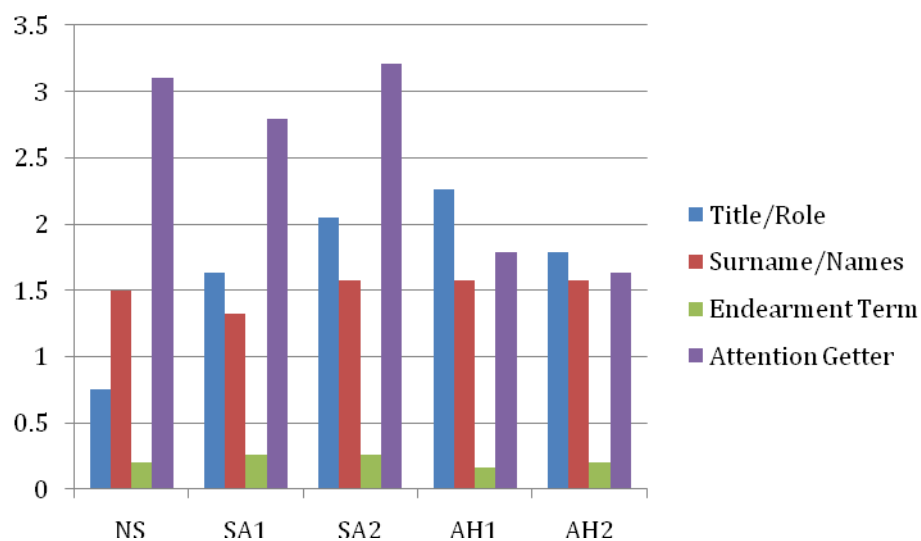
Figure 4.7. Mean Scores of Alerters.

Note. Means were calculated by dividing the frequencies of alerters by each group
by the number of group members.

A further examination revealed that Chinese participants consistently and

extensively addressed a person of a higher rank and a stranger by *title/role* to

show their politeness and respect. For example,

(AHTime1-5) Dear *professor*, could you allow me to submit my paper a little

bit later? I need to attend my best friends' wedding. It's far away

from here. (Title/role)

(SATime1-15) Excuse me, *Professor XX*, may I postpone my paper for I want

to attend my friend's wedding in another city. (Title/role)

It was also noted that there was an increase in the SA Group's employment of

this form in the second phase, which signified that they had shown no significant

change in this aspect over time.

Table 4.16 shows the distribution of title/role in Scenario 8 (ask a professor

you know for an extension of paper submission).

Table 4.16

Frequency of Title/Role in Scenario 8

	NS (*n*=20)	SA Time1 (*n*=19)	SA Time2 (*n*=19)	AH Time1 (*n*=19)	AH Time2 (*n*=19)	SA L1 (*n*=19)	AH L1 (*n*=19)
Title/Role	3	9	12	12	12	13	11

As for other *external modifiers*, Figure 4.8 (also see Appendix L) shows that

grounder, appreciator, and *apology* were of comparatively higher frequency than

other forms. First of all, all three groups displayed a heavy use of *grounders* to

explain reasons in all given scenarios, except in Scenario 12 (ask a child to be

punctual for a walk), in which more than half of the native English speakers

explained to the girl why they expected her to be on time but few Chinese

participants did so. Instead, they were more likely to take the request as an order

for the child to obey, as they usually do in their L1 language and culture, another

sign of negative transfer from L1.

For example,

(NS-8) Hi Sophie, *I'm going to be really busy this weekend*, so can you

make sure you're a little early? *Otherwise, I may not have time for*

our walk. (Grounder)

(NS -10) Sophie, if you want to go for a walk with me, you need to be on

time. *I like to walk with you, but I don't like waiting*. (Grounder)

(SATime2-8): Sophie, I would like you to be on time on the weekend.

(Without a grounder)

(SA L1-8): 苏菲，下次可以准时点吗? (Sophie, xiaci keyi zhundianshi

ma?)

Translation: Sophie, can you be on time next time? (Without a grounder)

As for *appreciator,* this form was found extensively used in Scenario 10

(ask for less food) and Scenario 12 (ask a child to be punctual.)

(NS-12) Sophie, *I enjoy walking with you,* but I need you to get here on time.

Do you think you could come on time next week?

(AHTime1-11) Sophie, *you are so lovely a girl and I like going for a walk*

with you on the weekend.

(SATime2-15) Sophie, *I like your company for a walk,* but can you come

with me on time?

It was evident that both native and non-native speaker participants provided a

grounder along with *an appreciator* to show politeness in a request act. This

observation can be illustrated by the following examples drawn from the data of

Scenario 10 (ask a senior to give less food):

(NS-7) *Thanks, Maria, for the excellent food, I appreciate it.* Could I get a

little less next time? *I have a smaller appetite and don't want to*

throw away extra. (Appreciator + Grounder)

(AHTime1-19) *Thank you for your kindness, but I can't eat too much,* would

you please give me a smaller portion? (Appreciator + Grounder)

(AH L1-19) 谢谢您的盛情，我吃不了那么多. 麻烦您把那份少点的给我.

(Xiexie ninde shengqing. Wo chibuliao name duo. Malang nin

ba nafen shaodiande geiwo.)

Translation: *Thank you for your hospitality. But I cannot eat so much.* Please

give me less food. (Appreciator + Grounder)

The strategy of *apology* was employed by both native and non-native

speakers in Scenario 5 (ask a waiter to change a meal) and Scenario 7 (ask a

school president for an interview). For example,

(SATime1-2) *Sorry*. I don't think I have ordered it. (Apology)

(NS-8）*Sorry*, but this is not what I ordered. (Apology)

As observed, *disarmer, or imposition minimiser* were used by the SA and AH

groups only in Scenario 3 (ask a friend for a computer). This could possibly be

explained by Gu's (1990) Tact Maxim, which states that Chinese speakers tend to

minimize cost to the interlocutor in an imposing speech act. For example,

(SATime1-5) Could you lend me your computer? Mine is broken. *I will*

return it for you before you use it for your project. (Disarmer)

It is also evident that *considerators* were used by all three groups in a high

imposition situation, such as Scenario 7 (*ask an unknown president for an*

interview). For example,

(NS-7) Excuse me sir. *I know you are very busy*, but please, may I make an

appointment to meet with you and interview you? (Considerator)

(AHTime2-7) Dear president, *I know you have a busy schedule*, but could

you spare me 15 minutes (for an interview)? (Considerator)

(SATime2-13) I'm sorry. *I know you are busy*. But would you please make

an appointment with me? (Considerator)

In sum, even at the pre-test stage, the SA and AH teachers were able to

employ a broad range of extensive modifiers, as the native speakers did. There

was no noticeable change in their use of external devices over time. This may

indicate that, except for title/roles, Chinese and English speakers apply similar

external modification devices in requesting. Chinese EFL teachers had acquired

either intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in the L2 and so appear to

have been able to transfer and apply their L1 speaking norms to the L2.
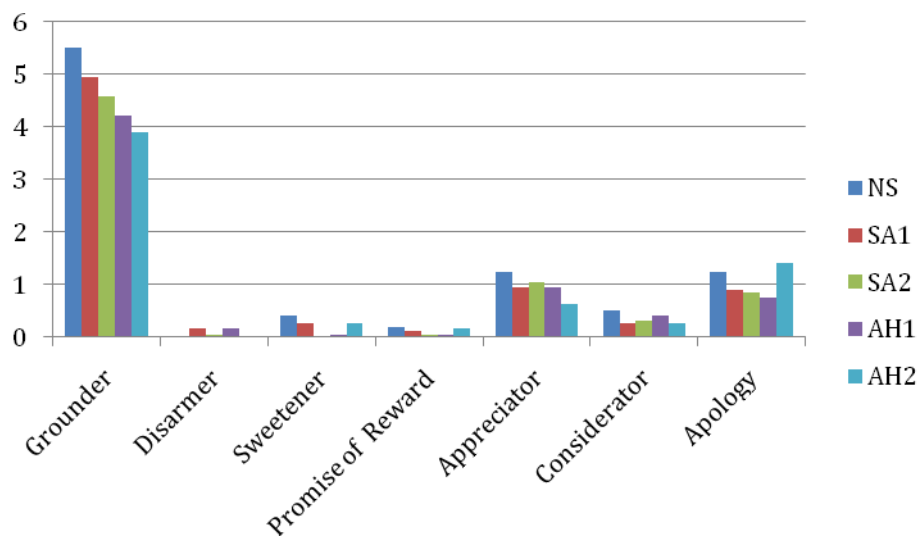
Figure 4.8. Mean Scores of External Modifiers.

4.3.4 Summary

In sum, the findings indicated that the SA teachers seldom used *prediction* to

avoid imposing upon the hearer's autonomy. They applied *ability* consistently but

inappropriately in some scenarios. On the other hand, a considerable decrease was

observed in SA teachers' use of the *imperative* strategy in certain scenarios

compared with that of the AH teacher group. Regarding formulaic expressions,

similar to English native speakers, the Chinese teacher participants were found to

employ a wide range of lexical and syntactical devices to soften imposition, but in

a less native-like way. They do not appear to have acquired native-like routines

for specific functions.

4.4 Impact of English Interaction on Sociopragmatic Competence

4.4.1 Judgment of imposition

This section addresses the research question relating to the effect of study abroad on participants' sociopragmatic competence. The task of imposition judgment was imbedded in the WDCT. The participants were first asked to judge the imposition degree of each request before they responded to the corresponding scenario with their own utterances. The data of the same group at pre- and post-stages were analyzed by dependent t-tests for paired samples.

Table 4.17

t-test Results of Imposition Judgment Scores

Scenario	Scenario Description	p (SA)	p (AH)
2	Ask a classmate/friend to study together for an exam	.013*	.181
3	Ask a friend for his computer to finish your homework	.012*	.050
5	Ask a waiter to change a meal	.015*	.081
6	Ask a professor to explain a concept	.279	.107
7	Ask a school president, stranger, for an interview	.081	.264
8	Ask a professor for an extension for paper submission	.033*	.057
10	Ask a friend's mom to give less food	.413	.081
11	Ask a stranger to change seats in a flight	.145	.441
12	Ask a child not to be late for a walk	.287	.065

Note. * $p < .05$.

As can be seen in Table 4.17 (also see Appendix M), the SA teachers showed

significant improvement in their awareness of imposition in Scenario 2 (SATime1:

M =1.47 vs. SATime2: M = 2.21 vs. NS: M = 1.85, p < .05), Scenario 3 (SATime1:

M =1.84 vs. SATime2: M = 2.15 vs. NS: M = 2.4, p < .05), and Scenario 8

(SATime1: M = 2 vs. SATime2: M = 2.47 vs. NS: M = 2.45, p < .05), bringing

them more in line with the distribution of rankings in the NS group. The SA

participants' judgment of the degree of imposition increased, which may indicate

that they had developed awareness of "autonomy" to some degree for *Zijiren*

(insider) and *Shuren* (very familiar person) (see discussion in Chapter II, Section

2.4.6). However, there was a significant deviation from the native norm in

Scenario 5 (SATime1: M = 1.79 vs. SATime2: M = 2.11 vs. NS: M = 1.5, p < .05).

The AH Group's judgment seems to be more native-like than that of the SA

Group in most of the scenarios (see Appendix M) at the outset of the study, which

would suggest that they had achieved a higher level of pragmatic competence.

The results also showed minor changes in this group over time.

4.4.2 Judgment of appropriateness

The Chinese teachers' sociopragmatic awareness was also measured by

having them judge the social appropriateness of five native and five non-native

requesting expressions presented in the AJT (see Appendix G). The native-like

speech acts were rated as "4", while the non-native ones were rated either as "3"

or "2", considering their deviations from the native norms in terms of formulaic

expression, amount of information, formality, and directness. Table 4.18 reports

the p values of the changes both groups made over time.

Table 4.18

t-tests Results of Appropriateness Judgment Scores

Scenario	Scenario Description	p (SA)	p (AH)
1	To ask your boss to speak slowly	.204	.165
2	To ask your student to turn off a cell phone when it is ringing	.424	.05
3	To consult a professor you do not know an academic question	.281	.05
4	To ask a receptionist to reschedule an appointment at the last minute	.325	.215
5	To ask your friend to fix your computer	.008*	.015*
6	To borrow $50 from your friend when shopping	.084	.068
7	To ask for a copy of PPT from a seminar presenter you do not know	.432	.227
8	To borrow lecture notes from a classmate	.253	.068
9	To ask your friend to give you a ride	.264	.227
10	To ask your roommate to pass a glass	.307	.000*

Note. * p < .05.

The findings suggest that the SA Group made negative significant changes in

Scenario 5 (SATime1: M = 3.68 vs. SATime2: M = 3.31 vs. NS: 4, p < .05) over

time. The AH Group had positive significant results in Scenario 5 (AHTime1: $M =$ 3.05 vs. AHTime2: $M =$ 3.42 vs. NS: 4, $p < .05$), but negative change in Scenario 10 (AHTime1: $M =$ 2.26 vs. AHTime2: $M =$ 3.05 vs. NS: 2, $p < .05$). Table 4.19 presents the percentage of native-like judgment of individual scenarios by the two teacher groups.

Table 4.19

Percentage of Native-like Appropriateness Judgment

Scenarios	SA Time1 (*n*=19)		SA Time2 (*n*=19)		AH Time1 (*n*=19)		AH Time2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Native-like request								
Scenario 3	5	26	9	47	8	42	6	32
Scenario 4	11	58	11	58	11	58	13	68
Scenario 5	13	68	8	42	6	32	11	58
Scenario 8	9	47	10	53	10	53	8	42
Scenario 9	10	53	7	37	3	16	4	21
Non-native request								
Scenario 1	7	37	3	16	7	37	8	42
Scenario 2	3	16	12	63	8	42	6	32
Scenario 6	7	37	11	58	9	47	9	47
Scenario 7	6	32	4	21	7	37	5	26
Scenario 10	8	42	8	42	10	53	2	11

Note. f = frequency, *% =* percentage.

The results are mixed for both groups. As shown in Table 4.19, the SA group exhibited an increase of sociopragmatic awareness in Scenario 2 (SATime1: 16% vs. SATime2: 63%), Scenario 3 (SATime1: 26% vs. SATime2: 47%) and Scenario

6 (SATime1: 37% vs. SATime2: 58%), but a decline in Scenario 1 (SATime1:

37% vs. SATime2: 16%) and Scenario 5 (SATime1: 68% vs. SATime2: 42%). The

AH group made progress in Scenario 5 (AHTime1: 32% vs. AHTime2: 58%), but

regressed in Scenario 10 (AHTime1: 53% vs. AHTime2: 11%). To explore the

reason, an in-depth investigation of each scenario was conducted to shed light on

native and non-native speakers' perception of social norms that shaped their

speaking behavior in the following section.

4.4.2.1 Judgment of native speakers' request expressions
Scenario 3: To consult a professor you are not familiar with
Expression: Excuse me. I was wondering if I could get your opinion on some work
I'm doing. I know you have expertise in this area. (Native speaker)

This formulaic expression was chosen from the NS group's repertoire, thus it

is regarded as the standard norm. However, as seen from Table 4.19, less than half

of the non-native speakers perceived it as a preferred way to make a request in

such a situation (SATime1: 26%;,SATime2: 47% vs. AHTime1: 42%, AHTime2:

32%). One reason could be their unfamiliarity with the gambit "*I was wondering*".

In my experience, this expression is seldom used in Chinese EFL textbooks.

Another reason could be their expectation of the appropriateness of a shorter and

more direct way of speaking, for they might assume that it is a professor's

obligation to answer a student's question. This can be illustrated by a typical

expression in the CEM data:

(CEM-14) Hi. Professor, *do you have time?* I have some questions to ask

you. (Availability)

The data show that, compared with the AH group, the SA group made more

notable gains over time in this case (SATime1: 26%, SATime2: 47% vs. AHTime1:

42%, AHTime2: 32%).

Scenario 4: To ask a receptionist to reschedule an appointment at the last minute
Expression: I'm sorry. Is it possible to reschedule this appointment? I just can't
make it today. (Native speaker)

The results show that about half of the non-native speaker participants from

both teacher groups judged this expression as "appropriate". L2 speakers from

China seldom employ a prediction in such a case, as shown from the examples

drawn from the CEM group.

(CEM -3) I am sorry, but *I have to* reschedule an appointment. (Performative)

(CEM-11) I'm sorry to tell (you) that I have to change my schedule. *Could*

you please change it for me? (Ability)

The statistical results indicated that the SA Group did not appear to be better

able to identify the appropriateness of this item at the end of the study period

(SATime1: 58%, SATime2: 58%).

Scenario 5: To ask your friend to fix your computer
Expression: My computer got a virus. No idea how to get rid of it. Could you help
me, please? (Native speaker)

In the context of asking a friend to fix a computer, the percentage of correct

judgment of the appropriate expression by the SA group decreased from 68% to

42% over time. Take an expression from the data of the CEM Group for example,

(CEM-2) My computer broke down. *Can you* come and have a look?

(Grounder + Ability)

In contrast, the percentage of correct judgments increased remarkably for the

AH Group (AHTime1: 32% vs. AHTime2: 58%). This may imply that pragmatic

awareness of at-home teachers can be promoted by using textbooks to teach

students native-like formulaic expressions.

Scenario 8: To borrow lecture notes from a classmate
Expression: Hi. I was wondering if you would be willing to lend me your notes for
last Psychology class. I was sick and I could not make it. (Native speaker)

The request sequence by a native speaker consists of an attention getter ("Hi"),

a *willingness* statement ("I was wondering *if you would be willing to* lend me your

notes") in addition to a *grounder* ("I was sick and I could not make it."). The

pre-post results show that nearly half of the SA participants accepted this request

as appropriate; the rest appeared to prefer more directness in the request, because

in Chinese culture, a classmate is a "Zijiren" (insider, one of us) (Ye, 2004). This

can be illustrated by the following example,

(CEM-10) My friend, *would you mind* lending your lecture notes to me, so

that I can copy it? I think you don't mind that. (Willingness)

The results indicated that there was no remarkable difference between the two

teacher groups over time (SATime1: 47%, SATime2: 53% vs. AHTime1: 53%,

AHTime2: 42%).

Scenario 9: To ask your friend to give you a ride.
Expression: Hi! Would you be able to give me a ride to the movies? (Native
speaker)

Again, when asking friends to do a favor, a native speaker will respect their

autonomy and employ a *willingness* expression, such as "Would you be able to…"

in this communication context. The findings revealed that the majority of the

Chinese EFL teachers did not perceive this as socially acceptable over time

(SATime2: 37%, AHTime2: 21%). This might be due to the L2 speakers'

unfamiliarity with the semantic formula "Would you be able to... ". To my

knowledge, this expression does not occur in the data of the CEM group. Instead,

a very direct way is preferred. For instance,

(CEM-1) Tom. *Can you* give me a ride, please? (Ability)

(CEM-4) *Can I* go to the movie with you? (Permission)

4.4.2.2 Judgment of non-native speakers' request expressions

Scenario 1: To ask your boss to speak what he has said
Expression: I beg your pardon? (Non-native speaker)

The expression "I beg your pardon" was drawn from the CEM data. It is a

conventional expression of politeness; however, it is rather formal. This politeness

expression was seldom used in the data of the NS Group, but it occurred five

times in the data of the CEM Group. This is because it often occurs in EFL

textbooks without any explicit pragmatic explanation. Many EFL teachers who

used to be English majors learning English from textbooks seemed to be unaware

of its formality. The results demonstrate that the correctness of their judgment of

social appropriateness was lower than 50% (SATime1: 37%, SATime2: 16% vs.

AHTime1: 37%, AHTime2: 42%).

Scenario 2: To ask your student to turn off his cell phone when it is ringing
Expression: I am sorry. But you have to turn off your cell phone. (Non-native
speaker)

This expression is a typical case of L1 transfer, since Chinese teachers tend to

use the same sentence pattern in L1as an order for the student hearer to follow. In

contrast, native English speakers are likely to employ more polite devices, as

illustrated in the following example.

(NS-4) Excuse me. *Could you please* turn it off*? It's very distracting.*

Thanks. (Ability + Past tense + Politeness marker + Grounder +

Appreciator)

As can be observed in the data, the SA group showed a considerable increase

(SATime1: 16%, SATime2: 63% vs. AHTime1: 42%, AHTime2: 32%) in their

correct identification of social appropriateness for this item.

Scenario 6: To borrow $50 from your friend when shopping
Expression: Lend me 50 dollars, please. I really need it. (Non-native speaker)

The expression provided in this scenario was drawn from the CEM group's

responses. It employs the *imperative,* a strategy rarely adopted by native speakers,

even when speaking with a friend. Instead, NSs prefer an indirect conversational

device (e.g., *could you*) to respect the hearer's autonomy. In order to mitigate the

high imposition, NSs would typically also explain why they needed the money

and give a promise to return the money, so as to increase the probability of the

request being accepted. For example,

(NS-15) Oh. My goodness! I forgot my wallet. I really want to get this top.

Could you lend me 50 bucks? *I will pay you back tomorrow.*

(Grounder + Past tense + Imposition minimiser)

As can be seen from Table 4.19, fewer than half of the Chinese teachers

(SATime1: 37%, AHTime1: 47%) recognized this request as "somewhat

inappropriate" at the pre-test phase. The fact that more of the SA group at the

post-test (SATime1: 37%, SATime2: 58%) appeared to realize that this request

was less appropriate suggests possible effects from the study abroad experience.

Scenario 7: To ask for a copy of PowerPoint presentation from a seminar
presenter you do not know
Expression: You really did a great job! Congratulations! I want to borrow your
PowerPoint. Is that okay? (Non-native speaker)

The response to Scenario 7 was selected from the CEM group data. It is a

typical expression by Chinese L2 speakers, including a *compliment* ("You really

did a great job!"), a head act in the form of *want statement* ("I want to…"), and a

confirmation question ("Is that okay?"). In contrast, native English speakers are

likely to use *prediction* ("Would it be possible …") in such a scenario (Schauer,

2009); the request is softened by impersonal words (Van Mulken, 1996; Warga,

2004; Schauer, 2009). Furthermore, NSs usually provide an explanation to justify

their request. For instance,

(NS): *That was an amazing presentation. Would it be possible* to get a copy

of it? *I'd really like to look at it again*. (Sweetener +Prediction +

Grounder)

Both groups' rejection of this non-target-like request remained low (SATime1:

32%, SATime2: 21%, AHTime1: 37%, AHTime2: 26%), which suggests that they

persistently viewed the given expression as acceptable. This might be due to the

fact that they had no exposure to native speakers' language use in such a situation

during their sojourn.

Scenario 10: To ask your roommate to pass a glass.
Expression: Pass a glass to me. (Non-native speaker)

This expression may sound rude and impolite to native speakers who

generally prefer an indirect strategy in requests even when talking to intimates.

Here is a typical example by the NS Group:

(NS): *Could you* hand me a glass, *please?* (Past tense + Politeness marker)

While in China, people prefer using a direct strategy in request with insiders

(such as friends). Not surprisingly, nearly half of the Chinese teacher participants

(SATime1: 42%, SATime2: 42%, AHTime1: 52%, AHTime2: 19%) rated this

request as acceptable and socially appropriate. The sharp drop in the AH Group's

rate approximating to the native norm of this expression may indicate that

Chinese value of human relationships (insider vs. outsider) interferes with their

choice of linguistic forms of requesting in not only L1, but also L2.

Overall, the SA Group did not seem to have made great progress in their

sociopragmatic awareness regarding native-like norms and relevant formulaic

language of English. However, compared with the AH Group, the sojourn group's

awareness of non-native-like expressions was enhanced to some extent over time,

which may suggest that a L2 setting is more facilitative for non-native norm

recognition than a L1 setting.

4.4.2.3 Certainty of appropriateness judgment

Another measure applied in this study was the teachers' perceived certainty

degree with regard to their own appropriateness judgment on a 4-point Likert

scale, ranking from "1" (very uncertain) to "4" (very certain). A two-way repeated

ANOVA was also run, and the results showed that there was no significant

difference between the SA and AH groups in the pre-test scores [F (1, 36) = .008,

p > .001)], nor in their post-test scores [F (1, 36) = .527, p > .001]. In other words,

the SA teachers' sojourn appeared to have no significant effect on their confidence

in sociopragmatic ability as a group.

4.4.3 Summary

   As for sociopragmatic awareness of *imposition*, the results showed that the

AH group's rankings did not change significantly in most cases over time, but the

SA group did in scenarios 2, 3, and 8, which may indicate that naturalistic

exposure in a L2 setting had a positive impact

   With respect to *appropriateness*, the SA Group's ratings yielded mixed results:

a positive change in Scenario 2 (a NNS teacher asks a student to turn off a ringing

cell phone), Scenario 3 (a NS consults a professor an academic question) and

Scenario 6 (a NNS asks a friend to lend $50), but a negative change in Scenario 5

(a NS asks a friend to fix a computer). As for the AH Group at the pre-post stage,

minor progress was noted across all scenarios except for a positive change in

Scenario 5 (a NS ask a friend to fix a computer) and a negative change in

Scenario 10 (a NNS ask a roommate to pass a glass). This may suggest that the

SA teachers became more sensitive to non-native-like expressions than the AH

teachers did. The results also demonstrate that the SA Group did not increase their

confidence in the appropriateness judgment task in most cases, even through

extensive authentic L2 contact, which may suggest that pragmatics learning is

complicated and difficult in a natural setting.

4.5 Impact of English Interaction on Competence in Teaching Pragmatics

4.5.1 Teachers' exposure to speech acts

In the English interaction log, the SA and AH groups were required to provide

information regarding which speech acts they had either heard or used themselves

during a two-week period: one week when they were teaching classes (Time 1)

and the other week when they were not (Time 2) (see Appendix D). Figure 4.9 and

Figure 4.10 demonstrate the two teacher groups' use of the 14 most commonly

used speech acts respectively in this data set. The results showed that the SA

Group reported extensively greater use of speech acts than the AH Group. As for

requesting, they also reported that they had both used and listened to requests.

However, the nature of the requests they were exposed to was not clear based on

the data provided.
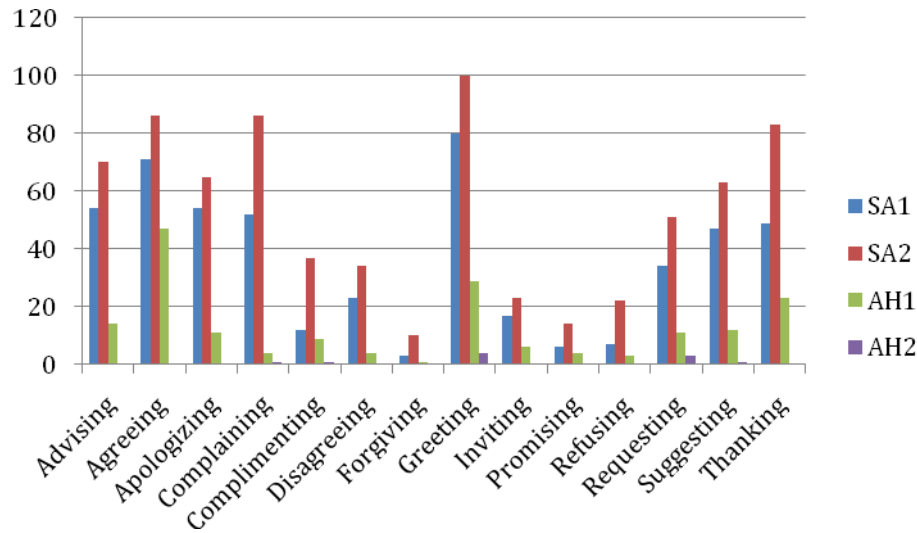
Figure 4.9. Frequency of Teachers' Listening to Speech Acts.
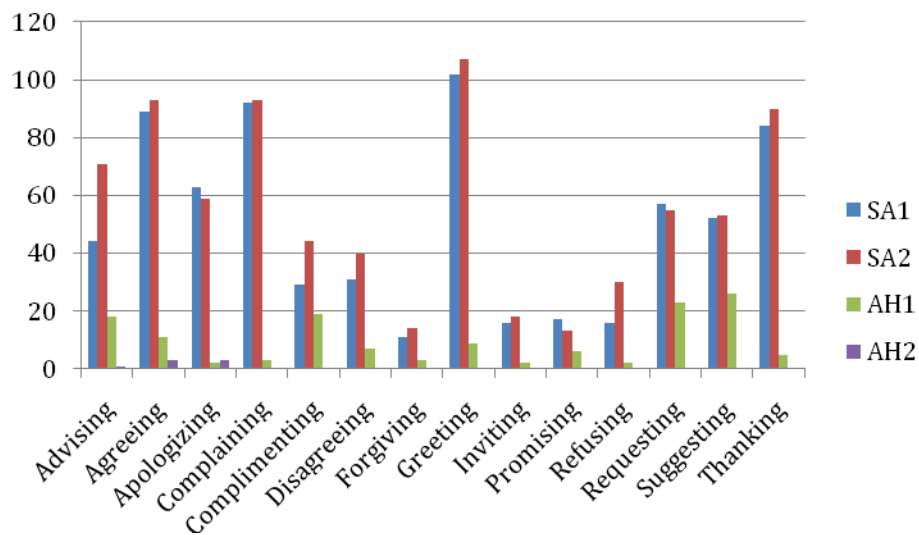
Figure 4.10. Frequency of Teachers' Use of Speech Acts.

The results indicated that the SA teachers in the study-abroad context noticed

the speech acts to a greater extent than those in the EFL context, and their noticing

led to greater awareness of the difficulty or ease of those speech acts, which was

reflected in their self-report at the post-test stage regarding confidence in teaching

speech acts.

4.5.2 Ease of teaching in speech acts

As a subsection of the questionnaire (see Appendix H), the Chinese teachers

were asked to report whether they had had experience in teaching speech acts.

Four (21%) of the SA group and 11 (57.9 %) of the AH group said they had

experienced teaching speech acts. The rest had taught English reading, essay

writing, English literature, or translation, where pragmatics was less relevant. The

fact that more AH teachers had taught English listening and speaking courses may

be the reason why they showed higher confidence in teaching pragmatics at the

onset of the study.

The questionnaire also asked the teachers to indicate which speech acts they

felt were difficult to teach. From Figure 4.11 we can see that the number of the SA

teachers, who regarded face-threatening speech acts such as *complaining,*

disagreeing, promising, refusing, requesting, and suggesting as difficult to teach,

increased at the end of sojourn. With respect to the speech act of *requesting,* more

SA participants perceived it as difficult at the end of their sojourn (SATime2: $f =$

14 vs. SATime1: $f = 6$). No such change was found in the AH Group, since their

rates almost remained the same at the pre-post stages. It may be that the SA

participants' exposure to Anglo culture in Canada enabled them to be more aware

of the complexities of speech acts, particularly face-threatening ones.
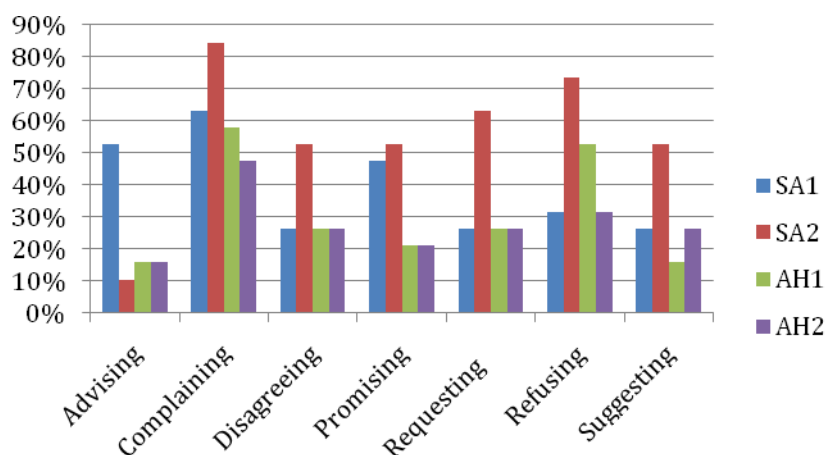
Figure 4.11. Speech Acts Perceived Difficult to Teach.

In this task, the teacher participants were also asked to indicate which

speech acts they felt were easy to teach. As shown in Figure 4.12, the SA Group

mainly identified *greeting, inviting, thanking* as less challenging at the beginning

of their sojourn. At the end of their sojourn, they included another five speech acts

on the list: *advising, agreeing, apologizing, complimenting,* and *forgiving.* In

comparison, the AH teachers cited the same three speech acts of *agreeing,*

greeting, and *thanking* as less challenging at the post-task. Thus, the SA teachers

appear to have gained more confidence in teaching pragmatics during their time in

an English-speaking country.
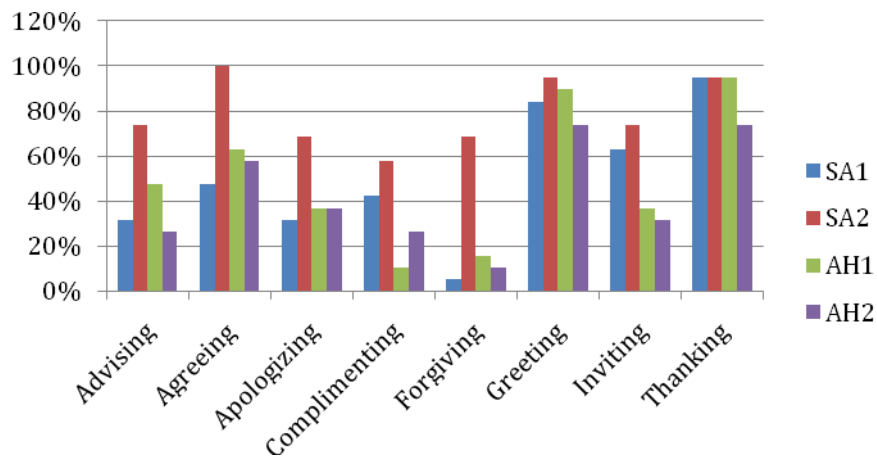
Figure 4.12. Speech Acts Perceived Easy to Teach.

4.5.3 Self-efficacy in pragmatics teaching

At the beginning of the study, both SA and AH teachers were asked about

their pragmatics teaching and learning experiences in the background

questionnaire. Nine SA teachers (47%) said they had taken a pragmatics course,

while in the AH group, the number was 16 (84%). It can be inferred from this

difference that the AH teachers had achieved a higher level of pragmatic

competence than the SA teachers at the initial stage of the study. One might also

assume that they would have a higher degree of confidence in teaching pragmatics

to their EFL students than the SA teachers at the outset.

The Chinese teachers were also invited to report their confidence in

pragmatics teaching at the beginning and at the end of the study using a

percentage scale, with 0% indicating "not confident" and 100% meaning

"completely confident". Table 4.21 provides the descriptive statistics for this

measure.

Table 4.20

Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Self-efficacy in Pragmatics Teaching

Groups	*M*	*SD*	*N*
SATime1	54.5	19.64	19
SATime2	71.3	14.03	19
AHTime1	64.5	10.92	19
AHTime2	73.7	7.61	19

As shown in Table 4.20, the mean score was significantly lower in the SA

group (M =54.5, SD = 19.64) than in the AH group (M = 64.5, SD = 10.92) at the

beginning of the study. A two-way repeated ANOVA demonstrated that there was

a statistically significant difference in the two groups' pre-test scores [F (1, 36) =

1138.735, $p < .001$)]. Both groups had made significant growth in confidence in

teaching pragmatics at the post-test stage, at which point the average score of the

SA Group (M =71.3, SD =14.03) was similar to that of the AH group (M =73.7,

SD = 7.61), thus there was no significant difference between their post-test scores

[F (1, 36) = 2.5, $p > .001$]. Table 4.20 also showed that the magnitude of increase

in the SA group was more than that in the AH group, which suggests that a L2

context may play a more contributing role in promoting teachers' confidence in

pragmatics teaching.

4.6 Selected Profiles

In addition to the above group-based analysis, an analysis of individual SA

teachers' L2 use and pragmatic performance can also reveal the effect of study-

abroad (Yang, 2014). Four participants from the current study were selected based

on the English interaction data. Two of them (SA-9, SA-18) experienced a large

amount of English interaction outside class at both Time 1 and Time 2, while the

other two (SA-5, SA-17) the least in the group. Table 4.21 provides information of

the four SA teachers.

Table 4.21

Information of the Four SA Teachers

No.	Gender	Age range	Teaching year	[1]English Interaction Time 1/ Time 2	[2]AJT Pre/Post	Teaching Confidence Pre/Post %
9	F	31-35	8	6.8/10.4	6/2	65/85
18	F	26-30	3	8.0/9.4	6/4	30/50
5	F	31-35	7	0.4/0.9	9/8	60/80
17	M	36-40	19	0.6/0.9	6/4	80/90

Notes. [1]The numbers indicate hours per day of social interaction in English. [2]The numbers present the discrepancies between the participants' scores and the standard scores in the AJT.

As shown in the table above, three of the SA teachers were females aged

between 26 and 35, and one was male aged between 36 and 40. SA-9 spent plenty

of time (6.8 hours per day) interacting with native English speakers during the

week with class (including chatting online and on the phone), and 10.4 hours

when traveling in a one-week holiday (including exchanges with a neighbor on a

flight, with a salesperson in a shop, with waiters in a restaurant and particularly,

with the tour guide). Her sociopragmatic awareness increased as her deviation

from the native norms decreased (6 vs. 2) in the task of judging appropriateness of

request expressions. Besides that, her confidence in pragmatics teaching grew

from 65% to 85% at the end of her sojourn.

Similar to SA-9, SA-18 also spent a good deal of time chatting with native

speaker friends (8 hour per day) outside class and more time (9.4 per day) when

traveling with SA-9. Her variations from the native standard in the task of AJT

also narrowed (6 vs. 4). As the youngest teacher among the four, her teaching

experience was also the most limited (3 years); and her confidence was

unsurprisingly the lowest (30%), but it rose to 50% after a 5-month stay in Canada.

Contrary to SA-9 and SA-18, SA-5 was much less engaged in communication

with native speakers at both Time 1 (0.4 hour per day) and Time 2 (0.9 hour per

day). Slight changes were observed in her appropriateness awareness (9 vs. 8) over time, but a marked positive growth was noted in her confidence in pragmatics teaching ability (60% vs. 80%). This may suggest that L2 contact, even a mild degree, is beneficial for pragmatics learning and teaching in general, although significant effect is not shown in the specific communicative act of requesting.

SA-17 was the one who had the richest teaching experience (19 years) and strongest motive for communication in L2 (83% and 90%) among the selected four. Like SA-5, although his L2 use was also limited within one hour daily on average (0.6 & 0.9), he also demonstrated a decrease in discrepancies in appropriateness judgment (6 vs. 4), showing a tendency toward the native norms. His assurance in pragmatics instruction was also enhanced from 80% to 90% during his stay in the L2 community.

In sum, the results revealed that the study-abroad contributed to the teachers' sociopragmatic acquisition (e.g., awareness of social appropriateness), since their deviation from the native norm narrowed at the post-task stage. The data also indicated that a L2 context can be facilitative for teachers' competence in pragmatics instruction, since all four participants demonstrated a growth in their

confidence.

4.7 Interview

In the final phase of data collection, the 19 SA teachers were invited to reflect

on their pragmatics teaching and learning experiences in individual interviews.

When asked about whether they thought their pragmatic competence in

English had improved, 7 out of the 19 SA participants reported that they had

acquired daily life conversation expressions for shopping and ordering food in a

restaurant. Seven people commented that local people tended to use simpler and

shorter sentences than those in the textbooks. As SA-1 remarked, "I have learnt to

use less complex sentences. I now use simple sentences which sound more

natural." SA-3 provided some concrete examples that she had noticed in native

speakers' utterances, such as "Have a nice day!" "I am not interested". SA-13 also

talked about noticing that Canadians say "I don't get you" instead of "I don't

understand you". These and other similar responses from the SA teachers lend

support to the findings of the previous studies that L2 exposure in a natural setting

contributes to L2 learners' acquisition of formulaic expressions used in daily

interactions. In sum, their individual interview data showed that their sojourn in

Canada had led to a leap in acquiring formulaic expressions in Canadian English

(e.g., "It is awesome!").

Interestingly, few of the SA teachers recalled that they had noticed and

acquired new expressions for requesting. As SA-13 stated, "I have made no big

change in my use of requesting expressions." They also felt that the gambits of

"Could you", and "Would you" were sufficient to make acceptable requests for

whatever (information, goods or services) they wanted or needed. As listeners,

they appeared not to have noticed alternative ways in which native speakers made

requests in different social contexts. Their lack of sufficient exposure to native

norms of requesting was partially due to their living arrangement. They shared an

apartment with other SA teachers and spent most of their time in a homogeneous

group, as we see from these comments:

"I still live in a Chinese circle." (SA-1)

"I have been staying in a dorm with Chinese people. I feel I am in China."

(SA-6)

"We always go out with Chinese classmates or friends. So it is more an

eye-opening experience than language learning." (SA-10)

The SA teachers also noticed that they received feedback and corrections

from their native speaker interlocutors on their vocabulary and pronunciation, but

seldom on their speech behaviors. As SA- 9 said, "Nobody correct me when I make (pragmatic) mistakes. I realize my mistake, for they say 'Sorry'. But no one tells me why." He further explained why local people did not try to correct his pragmatic errors in L2. "I guess they do not like to correct another person, particularly non-native speakers." Such reflection corresponds to McNamara and Roever's (2006) observation that native speakers tend to be more tolerant and forgiving of non-native speakers' errors, since they are foreigners and not native speakers of the L2.

In the interviews, the teachers were also asked to recall three activities they believed to be facilitative for their pragmatic development. Fourteen SA teachers chose *chatting with local friends* in various modes (face-to-face, on the phone, and on the Internet). Eight mentioned *shopping,* where they acquired new words and useful expressions (e.g., cosmetics for female teachers). Four teachers strongly recommended *Conversation Café,* a regular meeting held by some local churches where they interacted with volunteer ESL tutors for one and a half hours weekly and discussed interesting topics. Four teachers talked about *travelling* with native English speakers, three mentioned *field trips,* for such opportunities enabled them to ask and answer questions. All those reported social activities

were interactive in nature, which confirms Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos' (2011)

assumption that communicative activities that require responses are more

facilitative for pragmatics learning than receptive activities.

As for the AH Group, 17 teachers participated in the interview. Seven of them

claimed that they had obtained more pragmatic knowledge through various means,

such as watching English TV series (AH-1), using listening and speaking

textbooks (AH-5 & AH-6), taking a Pragmatics course (AH-7), teaching a course

on cross-cultural communication (AH-8), teaching a Mandarin as a second

language course (AH-9), and traveling with a native speaker (AH-4). For those

who reported little growth in their pragmatic development, they without exception

attributed it to a lack of real situations in which to use the target language with

native speakers. AH-13 remarked, "There is no obvious improvement for me,

since I have no opportunities to communicate with the native speakers who can

help me improve my English pragmatic competence."

With regard to advice for pragmatic learning, the AH teachers expressed the

belief that *watching movies/TV* (AH: $f = 9$), learning from *textbooks* or *pragmatic*

books (AH: $f = 6$) and seeking out opportunities to be in *contact with native*

speakers (AH: $f = 2$) could lead to pragmatic learning.

4.8 Summary

The central research focus of this study is the impact of interactive exposure

in a naturalistic setting on study-abroad EFL teachers' pragmatic competence in

terms of pragmalinguistic awareness, sociopragmatic awareness, and ability to

teach pragmatics. Findings from the interaction log show that the SA teachers had

access to extensively more amount of L2 contact than the AH teachers, but their

exposure was variable, due to individual differences. Their improvement in

request strategies was significant in the use of imperatives, but not in expressions

of ability. They were found to be able to apply a wide range of external modifiers,

but their acquisition of internal modifiers was not obvious. Their perceptions of

imposition and appropriateness improved to a degree. Overall, these findings

indicated that a L2 context is likely to foster pragmatic development, but it does

not guarantee full native-like acquisition in the area of pragmatics.

The table below provides a summary of the significant changes made by the

SA Group at the end of the study period, compared with the AH Group.

Table 4.22

Summary of the Findings

Improved Areas	SA	AH
Pragmatic knowledge		
Request strategies	✓	
Awareness of imposition	✓	
Awareness of appropriateness	✓✗	✓✗
Competence in pragmatics teaching		
Speech acts	✓	
Perceived teaching ability	✓	✓

Further discussion of the research findings is included in the next chapter.

Specifically, answers to the research questions are provided, theoretical and

pedagogical implications of the research are discussed, limitations are described,

and directions for future research are proposed.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of the data analysis presented in Chapter IV.

It begins by answering the three research questions posed in Chapter II and

discusses the findings in the light of theoretical notions introduced in the literature

review. This leads to discussion of the implications of the study for EFL

instruction and study abroad programming as well as the limitations of the

research.

5.1 Research Questions

The current study adopted a mixed-method approach. Quantitative and

qualitative data were collected and analyzed. Each of the three research questions

that guided the design of the present study can now be answered:

RQ1: *What kinds of interaction opportunities that are experienced by Chinese EFL teachers participating in a study abroad program contribute to their L2 pragmatic development?*

The results show that the SA teachers had received considerable amount of

exposure to the target language. They spent over three hours per day on average in

interpersonal interactions in a week without class, and nearly four hours (2.48

hours outside class plus 1.43 hours in class) daily on average in L2 in a week with

classes. In contrast, their AH counterparts used English for less than one hour

(M=.91) in class for teaching purpose and little L2 contact outside the class. The

results also demonstrate wide variations among the individuals in the SA group

(SATime1 Min: 0.1 hrs vs. SATime1 Max.9.4 hrs) in Time 1 and in Time 2

(SATime2 Min: 0.4 hrs vs. SATime2 Max.8 hrs).

What's more, the SA Group's log report shows that the sojourners were

engaged in a wide variety of communication activities in a naturalistic setting.

Highly interactive events included conversation with native speakers in different

situations (shop, restaurant, airplane, over phone, on the Internet, field trip,

English conversation cafe, etc.), in which they could be fully engaged and

interactive by asking questions and receiving responses. Less interactive

situations consisted of concerts and ceremonies. The SA teachers' interviews

revealed that interactive social activities could potentially promote their pragmatic

ability. The findings support previous studies (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos,

2011; Bella, 2011) on the effect of intensity of interaction on pragmatic

acquisition in a SA context.

RQ2: What aspects of L2 pragmatic knowledge about requesting develop in a study-abroad context compared with EFL teachers at home in China?

With regard to pragmalinguistic knowledge (pragmatic strategy, modification,

formulaic expressions), the SA teachers seem to have made changes in their use of

imperatives, but not in other strategy choices. Unlike native speakers, they

consistently overused *ability* and tended to employ *permission* rather than

prediction when speaking with a senior or a person of a higher social status. The

findings confirm Schauer's (2009) study that L2 learners tend to apply the strategy

of *ability* as a safe solution to all requesting situations, including those of high

imposition. The results also support Schauer's view that L2 learners are likely to

make improvements in a familiar situation, but not in an unfamiliar one.

As for modifiers, no significant results were noted in either group. The

findings also show that both SA and AH EFL teachers still relied on L1 norms and

opted to use external modification (e.g., grounders) rather than lexical devices

(e.g., downtoners, aspect) to soften a request in L2. The results also show that the

most commonly and consistently used formulaic expressions were *ability*

(*can/could you*), *willingness* (*would you*), *want statement* (*I want*) and

consultative devices (*would you mind*), regardless of imposition level. The results

lend support to Wang's (2011) findings that L2 speakers are unable to employ

scenario-specific and native-like expressions in certain scenarios, due to a lack of

observing and performing requests in authentic social contexts.

As for imposition awareness, the SA teachers made significant gains in

WDCT Scenarios 2, 3, 8. The results may imply that L2 contact in a study-abroad setting facilitates learners' implicit learning of imposition.

With regard to awareness of socially appropriate language use, it appeared that SA teachers outperformed AH teachers in recognizing the non-native requests, such as "I am sorry. But you have to turn off your cell phone" (AJT Scenario 2) and "Lend me 50 dollars, please. I really need it" (AJT Scenario 6). . This finding is consistent with Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) observation that learners in an ESL setting are more sensitive to pragmatic errors than learners in an EFL context.

In conclusion, some gains have been made by the SA Group in terms of pragmalinguistic awareness. These findings support the results of previous studies (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Schauer, 2006), which indicated that a study abroad context facilitate L2 learners' acquisition of linguistic forms, but such improvement only occurs in some specific areas. The comparison between the SA and AH groups partially confirms the assumption that a L2 setting presents a better environment for sociopragmatic development than a L1 setting, though it does not guarantee effective pragmatic acquisition in all aspects.

RQ3: To what extent does Chinese EFL teachers' self-efficacy relating to teaching pragmatics improve over a study-abroad sojourn?

Statistical analysis shows that the SA teachers' self- reported confidence in pragmatics teaching increased significantly over time. They also exhibited a new understanding of the difficulty in teaching face-threatening speech acts, and a growing confidence in teaching a wider range of speech acts. Additionally, they reported that they had obtained explicit knowledge about what expressions to teach, but that was limited to social contexts they had personal experiences of such as shopping, and ordering food in a restaurant.

5.2 Theoretical Implications

This study provides empirical support for theoretical concepts associated with L2 pragmatic development. As noted earlier, previous studies have attempted to address the roles of interaction, L2 WTC, pragmatic transfer, feedback, cultural values, and self-efficacy in second language acquisition. These issues, however, have received much less attention in L2 pragmatics and teachers' pragmatics in a study-abroad context. This study has valuable theoretical and pedagogical implications for this under-researched area.

1) Social interaction

According to Long (1996), interaction provides optimal conditions for the

learner to benefit from input and output. The SA teachers' exposure to the L2 is believed to be effective because it provides L2 learners, who otherwise live in a foreign language context, with greater opportunities for oral interaction with native speakers of the target language. Such interactive exposure is considered to be particularly important for L2 pragmatics development (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011). In the present study, the SA Group has shown to make greater gains than the AH Group in their pragmatic competence with respect to pragmatic awareness with regard to indirectness, imposition, and confidence in teaching pragmatics. Also learnt from their interviews, the SA teachers received a considerable amount of English exposure benefiting their improvement in vocabulary, pronunciation, listening and learning of local culture, as well as pragmatic routines for daily-life communication. Similar to previous studies, this study also revealed enormous individual variation in their intensity of interaction (e.g., Matsumura, 2001, 2003) and pragmatic outcomes (e.g., Schauer, 2009). Examination of individual profiles lends support to this conclusion.

This study indicates that the overall strength of an organized study abroad program is to offer teachers a variety of oral interaction opportunities for language use, and cultural and pragmatics learning outside the classroom. Although the

teachers who study abroad have greater opportunity for such experiences, implicit

learning is unlikely to be sufficient for pragmatic acquisition. Thus, as Halenko

and Jones (2011) proposed, explicit teaching of pragmatics should be integrated

into the courses offered as part of organized study abroad programming.

On the other hand, a study-abroad context seems not to provide the sojourners

with exposure to a full range of native spoken requests within a short-term period.

This can be explained by their social role in the new land. As "foreigners" and

"temporary visitors", they were more likely to be put in the role of requester for

information, goods, and services. As a result, similar to the participants in Wong's

(2011) study, they had limited opportunities to observe native speakers' use of the

target language when performing a requesting behavior and to practice it.

Therefore, *social role* seems to be another factor influencing the nature and

content of learners' social interaction.

2) L2 WTC

This study has addressed the assumption concerning the influence of L2 WTC

in interaction engagement in a L2 setting. Statistical analysis indicates that there is

no significant effect. Thus, it cannot be assumed that there is a direct correlation

between L2 WTC and intensity of interpersonal communication in a natural

setting. However, there is evidence in support of the notion that L2 WTC is dynamic (Clément, Baker & MacIntyre, 2003). Among the 19 SA participants, nine individuals reported an increase in their WTC score, an equal number showed a decrease.

3) Pragmatic transfer

The current study lends support to previous studies (e.g., Chen, 2006; Su, 2010; Wang, 2011) showing that L2 speakers' pragmatic strategies and formulaic expressions are largely influenced by their L1 pragmatic norms. A comparison between the AH and SA teachers' production in the WDCT in their L1 and L2 indicated a strong and negative effect in several scenarios: *imperative* strategy was adopted in Scenario 10 (ask a mom to give less food) and Scenario 12 (ask a girl to be on time for a walk); *ability* was employed in Scenario 2 (ask a classmate/friend to study together for an exam); *permission* was used in Scenario 11 (ask a stranger to switch seats in a flight). As a result, L2 speakers favour less indirect devices that are commonly used by the NS Group.

The current study also indicates that the EFL teachers were unable to apply a full range of native-like formulaic expressions featuring syntactic and lexical

modifiers to minimize imposition in requesting in the target language. In contrast,

native English speakers preferred more complicated expressions, such as "*Would*

you be able to ..." and *" Would you be willing to..."* in a situation of low

imposition*,* and *"I was wondering if you could…"*in a high imposition situation.

This is in line with Curl and Drew's (2008) observation that native English

speakers tend to use "I-wonder" in an institutional setting. Lacking explicit

awareness of such rules and intensive exposure to such native forms, the teachers

continuously borrowed linguistic forms from their L1.They either used L1 as a

strategy choice consciously*,* or unconsciously, for they may or may not have been

aware that it is different from the L2 norms.

4) Pragmatic feedback

    As the SA participants recalled in their one-on-one interviews, they received

extensive and explicit feedback and instruction regarding their vocabulary and

pronunciation errors, but no comments concerning their pragmatic problems. That

is to say, there was no explicit feedback regarding politeness and appropriateness

of L2 speakers' language use from native speakers. One possible explanation is

that native speakers have no explicit knowledge to explain pragmatic norms to L2

speakers (Wolfson, 1989). A second explanation, according to DuFon (1999), is

that native speakers tend to avoid making negative remarks. However, the most

convincing explanation can be drawn from Vigil and Oller's (1976) theory of

affective feedback.   According to the authors, subjective and emotional feedback

is often given in covert and non-verbal forms (e.g., facial expression, tone of

voice, and gestures), and is thus less likely to be noticed or interpreted correctly

by the recipient.

5) Cultural values

As discussed earlier, negative pragmatic transfer hinders L2 pragmatic

acquisition. Wierzbicka (2006) provides a useful approach to understanding why

the EFL teachers appeared to be influenced by Chinese pragmatic routines. She

described certain Anglo cultural values that underlie English-speakers social

behavior. The most relevant value for this study of the speech act of requesting is

that of *respect for autonomy*. These value influences English native speakers' act

of request regardless of imposition level, social distance, and power relationships

(Brown & Levinson, 1978). This is why a native speaker adult uses the same

politeness forms to a child as to an adult, or to an intimate as to a stranger.

Conversely, the Chinese cultural value that underlies requests is *human*

relationship, or *social distance* between the interlocutors (insider or outsider,

familiar person or stranger) affects Chinese ways of social interaction, since

neiwaiyoubie (an insider should be treated differently from an outsider) (Ye, 2004).

This study has provided empirical evidence in support of Wierzbicka's (2003)

notion that people's use of politeness strategies is governed by their shared

cultural values, and researchers' observation that a Chinese participant often uses

a direct form to a friend and an indirect form to a stranger (e.g., Chen, He & Hu,

2013; Ye, 2004). For example, the participants tended to use "can you" in the

situation of asking a friend to fix a computer.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

This study has implications for pragmatics teaching and learning in both EFL

and ESL settings.

1) Instructional pragmatics

The findings drawn from the SA data indicate that it is necessary for Chinese

EFL teachers and learners to acquire knowledge about a wider range of formulaic

expressions and indirect devices, as well as their pragmatic functions. So the

utterances produced by native and non-native speakers in the study can be

incorporated into pragmatics instruction. As Bardovi-Harlig (2009, 2012) suggests,

high frequency formulaic expressions by native speakers are social norms, and

can serve as models in pragmatics teaching for L2 learners. Thus, the uses of and differences in native and non-native speakers' requesting examples generated in this study can be implemented in pragmatics teaching materials for adult learners to discuss and reflect upon. The ultimate purpose is to promote their pragmatic awareness of pragmatic norms and pragmatic errors, so that they are able to avoid negative pragmatic transfer, and to make informed decisions about what to say, and how to say it appropriately in a given requesting scenario. The pragmatic measures of MET, WDCT and AJT can be employed for pragmatic assessment purpose. Finally, cultural values that shape people's speech behavior should also be placed in pragmatics teaching and learning.

In the case of requesting, this study highlights the importance of understanding the underlying cultural meaning of *autonomy* that influence native speakers' avoidance of using direct strategies. Wierzbicka (2003) has proposed using *cultural scripts* to describe the ways of thinking, feeling, and speaking in a particular cultural context by a language community to avoid cross-cultural misunderstanding. Karimnia and Afghari (2010) further suggest that cultural scripts can be applied in sociopragmatics instruction to adult learners. According to them, authentic audio- or video- taped conversations should be used as teaching

materials. Their teaching procedure involves three steps: conducting a detailed analysis of a conversation, discussing interactional routines, and generating cultural scripts.

Pedagogical implications can also be derived from AH teachers' advice for pragmatic learning in an EFL setting (i.e., TV and movie clips, textbook, pragmatics books, and authentic contact with native speakers). In practice, teachers can use audio and visual materials for contextualized speech routines, and interpretation and judgment of pragmatic language use (Washburn, 2001). AH teachers' idea of using textbooks for pragmatic learning highlights the importance of textbooks for pragmatic input in a classroom setting. However, from my personal experience as a college English teacher in China, most college English textbooks only provide information of formulaic expressions and sample dialogues (i.e., the what);explicit explanation of the choice of pragmatic strategy, modification devices, formulaic routines for a specific scenario (i.e., the why and the how) is missing. Therefore, it is recommended that textbooks provide teachers and learners with pragmatic information of speech acts at both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic levels. Finally, although it is difficult for learners to have authentic face-to-face contact with native speakers in an EFL

setting, it is feasible for them to use online communication tools (e.g., blogs, chat rooms, sites for social netting) for this purpose (Shively, 2010).

2) Teacher pragmatics

This study indicates a need for teacher training in pragmatics, since EFL teachers' knowledge of complex L2 formulaic language and native speaker communication norms is lacking. Taking requesting as an example, teachers need to obtain explicit metapragmatic knowledge of native-like perception of imposition, scenario-bounded request strategies and internal modification devices, to enable them to teach requesting effectively in their class, so that learners will be able to use the target language socially appropriate in an English Inner Circle country where the native norm dominates.

The current research indicates that teachers' self-efficacy in teaching pragmatics can indeed be enhanced in a study-abroad environment. This is a new contribution to the field of teacher-efficacy since EFL teachers' self-efficacy relating to pragmatics pedagogy is an understudied area.   It also provides evidence to support the allocation of funding in Expanding Circle countries such as China to send their EFL teachers abroad for short-term sojourns.

3) Study-abroad programming

SA teachers' advice to newcomers to Canada could be integrated into an

overseas teacher-training program. One suggestion is *language preparation* prior

to departure for a study-abroad program. Future sojourners were strongly advised

to improve listening, vocabulary, pronunciation and particularly, pragmatic

knowledge before arriving in an English speaking country (e.g., Canada), so they

would be able to notice native speakers' pragmatic use of English and hone their

pragmatic skills. The following quotes were taken from the interview transcripts

of the SA Group.

> "If I could come again, first, before coming, I would view more English
>
> videos about different social contexts, so I would focus on the use of the
>
> language here and repeat in real contexts." (SA-9)
>
> "Read about pragmatics before coming to Canada" (SA-7)
>
> "You should be prepared first. If you have no difficulty in listening and
>
> vocabulary, you will then be able to focus more on communication."
>
> (SA-19)

Second, explicit pragmatic instruction can be incorporated in L2 learners'

study-abroad program, since it is rather difficult for L2 adult learners to acquire

native norms in a study-abroad context in an implicit way. Researchers (Cohen &

Shively, 2007; Shively, 2010; Alcón-Soler, 2014) have claimed that explicit

learning of pragmatics is crucial and necessary for L2 learners to maximize

pragmatic gains in a study-abroad context. In light of Alcón-Soler's (2014) study

regarding request modifiers, such situations can be remedied by instruction. The

author proposed a model comprising four parts: a) deductive teaching with the

focus on pragmalinguistic knowledge (rules of request strategies and modifiers

proceeding authentic samples), b) inductive teaching targeting sociopragmatic

awareness (learners' appropriateness and politeness assessment prior to the

teacher' feedback), c) a cultural comparison to discover differences in cultural

norms; and finally, d) a checklist evaluating learners performance at both

pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic levels. This method could be applicable for

all speech acts.

However, instruction, though effective, is not sufficient for desired pragmatic

learning outcomes (Halenko & Jones, 2011). To retain the effect of instruction,

learners should be given ample opportunities to be exposed to the target speech

act and to practice in a natural L2 setting. Just as suggested by the SA Group,

living arrangement in a study-abroad program is vital. Eleven (58%) of the SA

EFL teachers advised that future participants should avoid speakers of the same

L1 and be involved in the local community, for they found that their staying with

SA peers hindered L2 use and their contact with English speakers. They expressed

their strong preference for a home stay, so that they would be immersed in local

language and culture. Such suggestion confirms the finding of Lee, Browne, and

Kusumoto's (2011) study that *living arrangement* serves a primary role in

language exposure and acquisition.

Furthermore, *take initiative in social communication*. The SA teachers

stressed the importance of active participation in the local community: "You are

here not just as an observer, or an outsider, but should be a real

participant"(SA-12). They strongly recommended interactive activities, such as

Conversation Cafe, and encouraged sojourners to take initiatives to communicate

with local people.

Additionally, SA participants stated that an effective way for them to acquire

the target language and culture is through their frequent contact with native

speaker friends face-to-face, over the phone and via online-chatting. Their

reflections suggest that it is important to build good *personal relationship* with

local community people for pragmatic learning.

The study results also shed light on the importance of *noticing native speakers' implicit negative feedback* for pragmatic acquisition in a natural setting. It is useful to inform learners of the non-verbal negative feedback provided by native speakers in an authentic English context. They should also be encouraged to keep a log of their meaningful interpersonal interactions with native speakers, and reflect on what pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge they have learnt from these experiences.

Lastly, the SA teachers' positive remarks about *online chatting* with their native speaker friends echoed Shively's (2010) ideas that the Internet is a useful and effective media for English contact in addition to face-to-face communication, and such computer-mediated communication can be utilized for the pragmatics training by study-abroad learners during their sojourn and post-study-abroad period.

5.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Studies

There are some limitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed regarding this study. First, convenience sampling was adopted as the sampling method, since accessibility to a larger number of SA participants was not feasible. The inferences drawn from the study results are therefore limited by the small size

and the nature of the particular sample.

Second, WDCT and AJT were adopted as the two primary measures for investigating participants' pragmatic awareness in requests. They did not demonstrate how the participants used English expressions in real-life requesting situations. Therefore, L2 speakers' performance in authentic social interactions should be examined in future studies.

Also, according to Thomas (1983, 1995), the speaker and listener(s) should consider cultural norms, age, gender, social class, occupation, social status, and roles they play in a speech act in L2 culture. The present study approached participants' pragmatic knowledge with a focus on imposition and interpersonal relationship. Other social variables that may also influence L2 speakers' language use, such as age and gender, were not considered in the study.

This study was conducted in a Canadian English community. The identified native norms for English requests may or may not be generalized to other Inner-Circle English countries, such as the U.S., the U.K. or Australia and New Zealand. It is recommended that this type of study be replicated in different English-speaking communities.

Furthermore, the present study only investigated how native speakers and

non-native speakers made requests in a range of requesting contexts. But how

would L2 speakers respond to different requests in the target language? To what

degree could their language contact with native speakers affect responding

strategies? These questions may also need to be investigated to obtain a deeper

understanding about participants' competence in requesting.

The results of the study also show that tremendous individual differences

exist among the SA participants. Future investigation can focus on the impact of

individual factors upon pragmatic acquisition in a naturalistic setting, and explore

how individual factors (such as personality, interest and attitude) lead to L2

learners' nature interaction and pragmatic gains. Since the study highlights the

role of social identity in SA teachers' nature and content of L2 contact, it is

advisable that researchers examine the relationship between social factors and

pragmatic learning in future research.

As for the measurement of sociopragmatic competence, I adopted the

traditional and widely applied assessment scheme developed by Hudson and his

colleagues (1995) to judge politeness and appropriateness of non-native speakers'

requesting utterances in AJT. However, McNamara and Roever (2006) have

proposed an alternative method requiring assessors to play the role of   hearers

and to indicate how they would like to respond to the speaker's expression in a

request. In other words, hearers are expected to indicate whether they would be

willing to carry out the act or refuse to do so. This scoring method is more precise

and could be employed in a further study.

As for the measurement of interactive exposure, though the English

interaction log provided information regarding the communication opportunities

the SA teachers had during their sojourn, it is limited in its precision to measure

English contact and to distinguish the proportion of English reception and

production. It is also recommended that in research, rich qualitative data be

collected through diaries or journals to examine the nature of interactive exposure

for pragmatic acquisition in a real context. The participants could be asked to

detail the critical incidents they have experienced, and to reflect on

pragmalinguistic variables (e.g., formulaic expressions, strategy choice),

sociopragmatic variables (e.g., social distance, imposition, social power), and the

underlying cultural values and norms.

Interestingly, the study reveals that a self-assessment grid like CEFR may

not be a reliable measure for language proficiency for those who seldom have real

L2 contact. Having limited authentic communication experiences with native

English speakers, EFL teachers and learners are apt to overestimate their language

proficiency. An objective assessment, or a standardized test, could better validate

the results in the current investigation. Therefore, a standard test or other objective

means for measuring L2 speakers' language proficiency is recommended in future

studies.

5.5 Summary

The present investigation examined how the pragmatic competence and

pragmatic teaching ability of EFL teachers develops in a study-abroad setting, and

to which extent their development and social interaction are interconnected.

Chinese EFL teachers seemed to have acquired certain pragmatic knowledge and

confidence in teaching speech acts after their five-month sojourn in a

study-abroad setting, but their acquisition is limited to familiar situations that they

have experienced during the sojourn. The study also suggests that L2 pragmatic

acquisition in a study-abroad context is subject to various factors, including

pragmatic transfer, social role, L2 exposure, knowledge of L2 social

communication rules, and noticing of non-verbal pragmatic feedback.

It should be noted that the current study was carried out in an Inner- Circle

country where L2 speakers encounter L1 speakers (i.e., L1/L2 context), thus the

native norms were assumed as the appropriate model, and L2 speakers' pragmatic

competence was examined from the perspective of appropriate language use.

However, English has become a global lingua franca (Jenkins, 1997; McKay,

2003; Seidlhofer, 2004). This means that many users of English in the world

speak English with speakers who are also non-native speakers. In a L2/L2 context,

as McKay (2009) argues, English language instructors need to pay more attention

to developing learners' abilities to negotiate meaning in intercultural interactions

rather to teaching the pragmatic norms of Inner Circle countries. However,

empirical studies (e.g., He & Zhang, 2010; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Li, 2006,

2007) have shown that a native speaker model (e.g., American English) is still the

preferred choice in China over other varieties. Given the fact that English is a

global language for both native and non-native speakers, English educators in

China should consider implementing McKay's (2009) pragmatic theory and

incorporating not only native norms, but also interpretation and negotiation of

meaning skills into English education curriculum and pragmatics instruction.

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APPENDICES
Appendix A
Background Questionnaire

Dear participants,

I would like you to provide some background information. Your information will be kept confidential. Your name will be replaced by a number (e.g., Participant 8) in my dissertation, presentations, and possible publications.

1. Your first name:_____   Family name: _____

2. Email: _____

3. Gender: ☐ Male   ☐ Female

4. Age: ☐ 21-25   ☐ 26-30   ☐ 31-35   ☐ 36-40 ☐ 41-45   ☐ 46-50 ☐ 51-55

5. Number of years of learning English: _____

6. Highest Education level achived:

    ☐ Bachelor's degree

    ☐ Master's degree

    ☐ Doctoral degree

7.Your teaching context:

    ☐ Primary school   ☐ Secondary school

    ☐ College   ☐ University

8. Number of years of teaching English: _____

9. Have you taken a pragmatics course before?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

10.Do you have any training in how to teach pragmatics ?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

11.How important is pragmatic competence for your students? Please circle the number indicates your opinion.

1	2	3
Not important	Slightly important	Very important

Appendix B
English Listening and Spoken Interaction Scale

Directions: Please read carefully the self-assessment grid on the next page. Please first identify the description that applies to each of your English skill levels in the grid, and then report the appropriate levels in the table below.

B1: Intermediate level   B2: Upper-intermediate level

C1: Pre-advanced level   C2: Advanced level

	B1	B2	C1	C2
L I S T E N I N G	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
I N T E R A C T I O N	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.

Your English Listening level:　　☐ B1　☐ B2　☐ C1　☐ C2

Your Spoken Interaction level:　☐ B1　☐ B2　☐ C1　☐ C2

Note. The scale was drawn from the self-assessment grid (p.6) of Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. The levels of A1 and B1 were excluded, for the target EFL teachers were assumed to have reached intermediate level or above.

Appendix C

Willingness to Communicate Scale in L2

Directions: Below are 20 situations in which you might choose to communicate or not to communicate in English. Imagine that you are in each situation. Please indicate how likely (0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 100%) you would like to communicate with native English speakers in each type of situation. For each situation, 0% = never, 100% = most probably.

_____	1.	Talk with an English-speaking acquaintance in an elevator.
_____	2.	Talk with an English-speaking stranger on the bus.
_____	3.	Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of English-speaking strangers.
_____	4.	Talk with an English-speaking acquaintance while standing in line.
_____	5.	Talk with an English-speaking salesperson in a store.
_____	6.	Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of English-speaking friends.
_____	7.	Talk with an English-speaking janitor/residence manager.
_____	8.	Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of English-speaking strangers.
_____	9.	Talk with an English-speaking friend while standing in line.
_____	10.	Talk with an English-speaking waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
_____	11.	Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of English-speaking acquaintances。
_____	12.	Talk with an English-speaking stranger while standing in line.
_____	13.	Talk with an English-speaking shop clerk.
_____	14.	Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of English-speaking friends.
_____	15.	Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of English-speaking acquaintances.
_____	16.	Talk with an English-speaking garbage collector.
_____	17.	Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of English-speaking strangers.
_____	18.	Talk with an English-speaking librarian.
_____	19.	Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of English-speaking friends.
_____	20.	Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of English-speaking acquaintances.

Note. The L2 WTC scale was adopted and modified from Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). It was originally adapted from McCroskey, J.C. (1992).

Appendix D

English Interaction Log

Data: _____ First name: _____ Family name: _____

Directions: Please record time, types of daily English Interaction you have experienced, and speech acts you have spoken or heard.

Time		English Interactive Activities
7:00_____	15:00_____	EIA1. Interacting with instructor/classmates/students in a class
7:15 _____	15:15_____	EIA 2. Interacting with people in a ceremony
7:30_____	15:30_____	EIA 3. Interacting with people in a party
7:45 _____	15:45_____	EIA 4. Interacting with people in a church
8:00 _____	16:00_____	EIA 5. Interacting with strangers in a street or a bus or LRT
8:15 _____	16:15_____	EIA 6. Interacting with people in a restaurant
8:30 _____	16:30 _____	EIA 7. Interacting with a clerk in a bank or post office
8:45 _____	16:45 _____	EIA 8. Interacting with salespersons in a shop
9:00_____	17:00_____	EIA 9. Interacting with people in a field trip (e.g. visiting schools)
9:15_____	17:15 _____	EIA 10. Interacting with people when volunteering
9:30 _____	17:30 _____	EIA 11. Interacting with people in a meeting /seminar
9:45 _____	17:45_____	EIA 12. Interacting with people in a discussion group
10:00_____	18:00_____	EIA 13.Interacting with people over phone
10:15_____	18:15_____	EIA 14. Interacting with people online
10:30_____	18:30 _____	EA15. (Other) _____
10:45 _____	18:45 _____	EIA 16. (Other) _____
11:00_____	19:00_____	EIA 17. (Other) _____
11:15_____	19:15_____	
11:30_____	19:30_____	*Please check the speech acts you have heard or spoken
11:45_____	19:45_____	SA1. Advising □Listen □Speak
12:00_____	20:00_____	SA2. Agreeing □Listen □Speak
12:15_____	20:15_____	SA3. Apologizing □Listen □Speak
12:30_____	20:30_____	SA4. Complaining □Listen □Speak
12:45_____	20:45_____	SA5. Complimenting □Listen □Speak
13:00_____	21:00_____	SA6. Disagreeing □Listen □Speak
13:15_____	21:15_____	SA7. Forgiving □Listen □Speak
13:30_____	21:30_____	SA8. Greeting □Listen □Speak
13:45_____	21:45_____	SA9. Inviting □Listen □Speak
14:00_____	22:00_____	SA10. Promising □Listen □Speak
14:15_____	22:15_____	SA11. Refusing □Listen □Speak
14:30_____	22:30_____	SA12. Requesting □Listen □Speak
14:45_____	22:45_____	SA13. Suggesting □Listen □Speak
15:00_____	23:00_____	SA14. Thanking □Listen □Speak

Appendix E
The Written Discourse Completion Task

Your first name _____ Family name _____

Directions: Please read the description of each scenario carefully, and take down what you would say in English and Chinese, and decide on what level the imposition is. For example, if you borrow a pen from someone, your request is of minor imposition, but if you want to borrow a car, your request is very imposing.

a. What would you say in English?
 Excuse me, what time is it?
b. What do you think of the imposition level?
  □ high   □ moderate   □ low
d. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?
  请问现在几点?

1. You are watching a sport game. A stranger stands right in front of you and blocks your view.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

   □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

2. You are taking a difficult course and need help. You want a classmate to study with you for the upcoming test.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

   □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

3. Something is wrong with your computer, and you have to finish your homework for tomorrow. You want to borrow your friend's computer to finish your homework before he uses it for his project.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

    □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

4. You are attending a seminar. It is a very sunny day and the classroom is hot. Your friend is sitting near the window. You want him to open it.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

□ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

5. You are eating in a restaurant. You ordered noodles; however, the server brings you the wrong meal. You want to change it.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

□ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

6. You have difficulty understanding the concept of pragmatic competence. After class, you want the instructor to explain the concept to you.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

　　□ high　　　□ moderate　　□ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

7. You want to interview a university president for your school project. You have never met him and you know he has a very busy schedule. However, you want to make an appointment to interview him.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

    □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

8. You want to fly to another city to attend your best friend's wedding. You need to ask your professor, for an extension on a paper that is due next week.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

    □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

9. Your instructor speaks rapidly in class and you don't understand. You need the teacher to speak a bit more slowly and clearly.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

　□ high　　□ moderate　　□ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

10. Your host mother, Maria, prepares delicious meals for you. She gives you too much food. So you want her to give you smaller portions.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

What do you think of the imposition level?

　□ high　　□ moderate　　□ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

11. You and your friend are taking a long flight. You want a man sitting next to you to change seats with your friend, so you and your friend can sit together.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

　□ high　　□ moderate　　□ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

12. Your neighbor's child, Sophie, likes to go for a walk with you on the weekend. You like her company, but she is often late. You want her to be on time.

a. What would you say in English?

_____

_____

b. What do you think of the imposition level?

   □ high   □ moderate   □ low

c. Supposing you are in a Chinese context, what would you say in Mandarin?

_____

_____

Note. Scenarios 1, 4, 9 were excluded for data analysis, for no obvious differences were found in the use of formulaic expressions across the three groups.

Appendix F

The Multimedia Elicitation Task

Directions: In this task, you will listen to each of the following 10 scenarios with an accompanying picture. Immediately after hearing the description of each scenario, you will see a screen that shows only "You say". You have 10 seconds to provide an oral response.

Example

You are talking to your friend from a cell phone on a noisy city street. You can't hear what she says.

Next screen, you see: *You say*

You may say: <u>Could you say that again?</u>

1. You hear: *You are working in a company and discussing your report with your boss. He speaks very fast. You do not follow what he is saying, so you want him to repeat it.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

2. You hear: *You are a teacher. In class, a student's cell phone is ringing. You want the student to turn off his cell phone.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

3. You hear: *You are conducting a study on Psychology. You need to consult a professor. You do not know each other well. You meet with her after her class,*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

4. You hear: *You have an appointment with your dentist, but you are unable to make it. You want the receptionist to reschedule your appointment at the last minute.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

5. You hear: *Your computer is not working because of a virus. Your friend is very skilled at fixing computers. You want him to fix your computer. You give him a call.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

6. You hear: *You are shopping with a friend in a clothing store. You realize that you've forgotten your wallet, and you want to borrow $50 from your friend.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

7. You hear: *A speaker, whom you do not know, makes a good presentation on Psychology in a seminar. You would like to have an electronic copy of the PowerPoint presentation.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

8. You hear: You miss a class in your Psychology course and want to borrow the lecture notes from a classmate.

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

9. You hear: *Many of your friends are going to the movies, but you don't have a car. You ask one of your friends for a ride.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*
Please record what you would say.

10.	You hear: *Your roommate is standing in the kitchen by the cupboard. You want a glass from the cupboard.*

Next screen, you see: *You say*

Please record what you would say.

Appendix G

The Appropriateness Judgment Task

Directions: In this task you will listen to each of the following 10 scenarios with an accompanying picture. You will hear what Mary or Mark says in each scenario. Listen carefully. Please decide (a) how socially appropriate the expression is and (b) how certain you are about your judgment. Please circle the corresponding numbers in the answer sheet.

Example

Mary is talking to her friend from a cell phone on a noisy city street. She can't hear what her friend says. Mary asks, "Could you say that again?"

You are expected to indicate on your answer sheet:

a. To what degree do you think her expression is socially appropriate in this situation? Please circle the corresponding number in the answer sheet.

Very inappropriate			Very appropriate
1	2	③	4

b. To what degree are you certain that your judgment is sound?   Please circle the corresponding number in the answer sheet.

Very uncertain			Very certain
1	2	③	4

1. Mark is working in a company and discussing his report with his boss. The boss speaks very fast.   Mark does not follow what he is saying, so Mark wants the boss to repeat it. Mark says, "I beg your pardon?"

2. Mary is a high school teacher. In class, a cell phone is ringing. Mary wants the phone owner to turn off his cell phone.

Mary says, " I am sorry. But you have to turn off your cell phone."
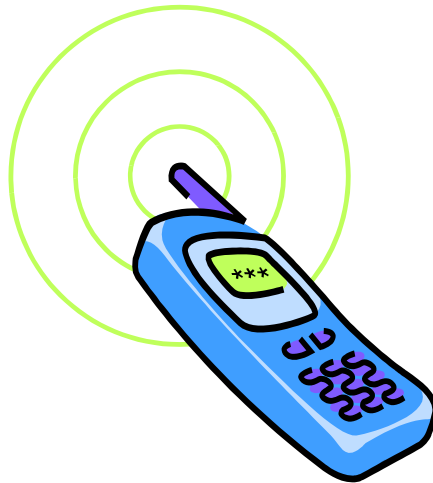
3. Mark has an appointment with his dentist, but he is unable to make it. He wants the receptionist to reschedule an appointment at the last minute.

Mark says,

"I'm sorry. Is it possible to reschedule this appointment? I just can't make it today."

4. Mary is conducting a research study and needs to consult a professor. They do not know each other well. Mary meets with the professor after her class.

Mary says, "Excuse me. I was wondering if I could get your opinion on some work I'm doing. I know you have expertise in this area."

5. Mark's computer is not working because of a virus. His friend is very skilled at fixing computers. Mark wants his friend to fix the computer. Mark gives him a call.

Mark says, "My computer got a virus. No idea how to get rid of it. Could you help me, please?"

6. Mary is shopping with a friend in a clothing store. She realizes that she has forgotten her purse, and she wants to borrow $50 from her friend.

Mary says, "Lend me 50 dollars, please. I really need it.   "

7. A speaker whom Mark does not know makes a good presentation on pragmatics in a seminar. He would like to have an electronic copy of the PowerPoint presentation.

Mark says, "You really did a great job! Congratulations! I want to borrow your power point. Is that okay?"

8. Mary misses a class in her Psychology course and wants to borrow the lecture notes from a classmate. Mary says, "Hi. I was wondering if you would be willing to lend me your notes for last Psychology class. I was sick and I could not make it. "

9. Many of Mary's friends are going to the movies, but she doesn't have a car. She asks one of her friends for a ride.

Mary says, "Hi! Would you be able to give me a ride to the movies?"

10. Mark's roommate is standing in the kitchen by the cupboard. Mark wants a glass from the cupboard. Mark says, "Pass the glass to me."

Note. The pictures in the MET task were replaced by simple cartoons in the AJT task, for the Chinese participants in the pilot study remarked that pictures with real person images could be too distracting to the listeners.

Answer Sheet

Directions: Please listen carefully and decide: (a) to what degree what Mary or Mark says is socially appropriate; and (b) to what degree you are certain about your judgment. Then circle the numbers corresponding to your ratings on the answer sheet below.

1- Very inappropriate /Very uncertain

2- Somewhat inappropriate / Somewhat uncertain

3- Somewhat appropriate /Somewhat certain

4-Very appropriate /Very certain

	Degree of Appropriateness				Degree of Certainty			
1	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
2	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
3	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
5	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
6	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

THANK YOU!

Appendix H

Questionnaire on Competence in Pragmatics Teaching

Directions:

The questionnaire below is designed to help gain an understanding of your experience and confidence in teaching pragmatics?

1. Have you ever taught speech acts, such as suggesting and apologizing.

☐ Yes   ☐ No

2. Which speech acts do you think or predict are the most difficult for you to teach? Which speech acts do you think or predict are the easiest for you to teach? Please check the appropriate responses.

	Speech acts you teach/have taught	Speech acts that are most difficult to teach	Speech acts that are easy to teach
1. Advising	☐	☐	☐
2. Agreeing	☐	☐	☐
3. Apologizing	☐	☐	☐
4. Complaining	☐	☐	☐
5. Complimenting	☐	☐	☐
6. Disagreeing	☐	☐	☐
7. Forgiving	☐	☐	☐
8. Greeting	☐	☐	☐
9. Inviting	☐	☐	☐
10. Promising	☐	☐	☐
11. Requesting	☐	☐	☐
12. Refusing	☐	☐	☐
13. Suggesting	☐	☐	☐
14. Thanking	☐	☐	☐

3. Please use a scale from 0% to 100% to indicate how confident you feel about teaching speech acts. 0% means "not confident at all", 100% means "completely confident".

Not confident   Very confident

  0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

Appendix I
Interview Questions

Questions for the SA teachers

1. Do you think you have improved your English pragmatic competence (i.e., the knowledge and ability to use English appropriately in different social contexts) during the past 5 months? Yes or no?

2. What important English interaction experiences or activities do you think have contributed to pragmatic development? And how?

3. What advice would you like to give to Chinese EFL teachers who would also take a short-term study abroad program in Canada to improve their English pragmatic competence?

Questions for the AH teachers

1. Do you think you have improved your English pragmatic competence (i.e., the knowledge and ability to use English appropriately in different social contexts) during the past 5 months? Yes or no?

2. What important learning experiences do you think have contributed to your pragmatic knowledge? And how?

3. What advice would you like to give to your students to improve their English pragmatic competence?

Appendix J

Results of the EFL Teachers' Listening and Spoken Interaction Proficiency

Participants	Listening		Spoken Interaction		Listening		Spoken Interaction	
	SA Time1	SA Time2	SA Time1	SA Time2	AH Time1	AH Time2	AH Time1	AH Time2
1	B2	B2	B1	B2	B2	B2	C1	C1
2	B2	C1	B2	B2	C2	C2	C2	C1
3	B2	C1	C1	C1	C2	C1	C1	C1
4	C1	B2	C1	B2	B2	C1	C1	C1
5	B1	B2	B1	B1	C1	B2	C1	C1
6	B1	C1	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2
7	B1	C1	B1	B2	C1	C1	C1	C1
8	C1	B2	C1	B1	B2	C1	C1	C1
9	B1	B2	B1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1
10	C2	B2	C1	B2	B1	B1	C1	C1
11	B1	B2	B1	B2	B2	C1	B2	B2
12	B2	B2	B2	C1	C2	C1	B2	C1
13	B1	B2	B1	B2	B2	B1	C1	B2
14	C1	B2	C1	C1	B2	B2	B2	C1
15	B2	B1	C1	B2	B1	C1	B1	C1
16	B2	C2	B1	C1	B1	C1	B2	B2
17	C2	B2	C1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2
18	B1	B1	B1	B2	B2	B2	B2	B2
19	C2	C1	C1	C1	B2	C1	B2	B2

Note. According to CEFR, B1= Intermediate level/3; B2= Upper-intermediate level/4; C1= Pre-advanced level/5; C2= Advanced level/6.

Appendix K

Results of the EFL Teachers' Willingness to Communicate in L2

Participants	L2WTC ([1]Overall)		L2WTC (Overall)		L2WTC ([2]Interpersonal)	L2WTC (Interpersonal)
	SA Time1	SA Time2	AH Time1	AH Time2	SA Time 1	SA Time 2
1	54	63	67	70	63	67
2	49	49	100	92	27	53
3	28	31	52	49	50	40
4	58	38	46	81	40	33
5	66	64	59	50	60	57
6	46	48	57	65	40	70
7	46	28	84	82	53	23
8	14	15	55	71	23	13
9	70	71	75	74	40	40
10	48	63	45	58	70	67
11	63	73	74	63	63	73
12	57	69	63	58	53	83
13	9	77	64	58	7	67
14	36	75	30	62	53	77
15	47	58	57	77	43	30
16	92	86	86	67	100	53
17	90	90	52	52	83	90
18	43	45	36	70	30	70
19	63	72	75	64	90	67

Notes. [1]overall: the overall scores of L2 WTC. [2]Interpersonal: L2 WTC in the contexts of Interpersonal Conversation.

Appendix L

Results of the Written Discourse Completion Task

Frequency and Mean Comparison of the Direct Strategies in Total

Direct Strategies	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Imperative	5	.25	14	.75	8	.42	12	.63	16	.84
Performative	3	.15	1	.05	2	.11	0	.00	1	.05
Want Statement	7	.35	15	.79	11	.58	9	.47	6	.32
Locution Derivable	1	.05	4	.21	2	.11	2	.11	2	.11

Frequency and Mean Comparison of the Conversational Indirect Request Strategies

Conversational Indirect Strategy	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Suggestory	6	.30	1	.05	1	.05	3	.16	3	.16
Availability	9	.45	6	.32	5	.26	14	.74	11	.58
Prediction	17	.85	3	.15	5	.26	6	.32	5	.26
Permission	37	1.85	27	1.42	34	1.79	30	1.58	23	1.21
Willingness	45	2.25	43	2.26	34	1.79	32	1.68	40	2.10
Ability	19	.95	39	2.05	55	2.89	37	1.94	48	2.52

Frequency and Mean Comparison of the Non-conversational Indirect Strategy (Hint)

Non-conversational Indirect Strategy	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Hint	20	1.05	15	.79	12	.63	20	1.05	18	.90

Frequency and Mean Comparison of Opt-out

Request Strategy	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Opt-out	8	.42	0	.00	0	.00	1	.05	1	.05

Frequency and Mean Comparison of Lexical Modifiers

Lexical Modifiers	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Politeness marker	35	1.75	31	1.63	31	1.63	24	1.26	27	1.42
Understater	14	.70	3	.16	4	.21	7	.37	7	.37
Downtoner	3	.16	1	.05	1	.05	3	.16	1	.05
Past tense	57	2.85	48	2.53	34	1.79	48	2.53	52	2.74
Aspect	10	.50	1	.05	2	.11	9	.47	10	.53
Consultative device	22	1.1	9	.47	7	37	8	.42	12	.63

Frequency and Mean Comparison of Syntactic Modifiers

Syntactic Modifiers	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Conditional clause	4	.20	2	.11	0	.00	0	.00	1	.05
Appreciative embedding	6	.30	3	.16	2	.11	14	.74	6	.32
Tentative embedding	13	.65	0	.00	3	.16	12	.63	14	.74

Frequency and Mean Comparison of Alerters

Alerters	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Title/Role	15	.75	31	1.63	39	2.05	43	2.26	34	1.79
Surname/Names	30	1.50	25	1.32	30	1.58	30	1.58	30	1.58
Endearment Term	4	.20	5	.26	5	.26	3	.16	4	.20
Attention Getter	62	3.10	53	2.79	61	3.21	34	1.79	31	1.63

Frequency and Mean Comparison of External Modifiers

External Modifiers	NS (*n*=20)		SA Time 1 (*n*=19)		SA Time 2 (*n*=19)		AH Time 1 (*n*=19)		AH Time 2 (*n*=19)	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Grounder	110	5.50	94	4.95	87	4.58	80	4.21	74	3.89
Disarmer	0	.00	3	.16	1	.05	3	.16	0	.00
Sweetener	8	.40	5	.26	0	.00	1	.05	5	.26
Promise of Reward	4	.20	2	.11	1	.05	1	.05	3	.16
Appreciator	25	1.25	18	.95	20	1.05	18	.95	12	.63
Considerator	10	.50	5	.26	6	.32	8	.42	5	.26
Apology	25	1.25	17	.89	16	.84	14	.74	27	1.42

Note. NS: Native speaker group; SATime1: the SA group at pre-test; SATime2: the SA group at post-test; AHTime1: the AH group at pre-test; AHTime2: the AH group at post-test. *f* = frequency; *M* = mean; Mean scores indicate the average frequency of direct strategies per person in the task.

Appendix M

Results of the Imposition Judgment Task

Scenario 2 Ask a classmate/friend to study together for an exam

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	5	12	1	5	3
	25%	63.2%	5.3%	26.3%	15.8%
Moderate	12	5	13	12	15
	60%	26.3%	68.4%	63.2%	78.9%
High	3	2	5	2	1
	15%	10.5%	26.5%	10.5%	5.3%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.85	1.47	2.21	1.84	1.89

Scenario 3 Ask a friend for his computer to do your homework

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	3	7	2	4	4
	15.0%	36.8	10.5%	21.1%	21.1%
Moderate	6	8	12	11	11
	30.0%	42.1%	63.2%	57.9%	57.9%
High	11	4	5	4	4
	55.0%	21.1%	26.3%	21.1%	21.1%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	2.4	1.84	2.15	2	2

Scenario 5 Ask a waiter to change a meal

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	12	6	6	12	11
	60.0%	31.6%	31.6%	63.2%	57.9%
Moderate	6	11	5	7	6
	30.0%	57.9%	26.3%	36.8%	31.6%
High	2	2	8	0	2
	10.0%	10.5%	42.1%	0.0%	10.5%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.5	1.79	2.11	1.37	1.53

Scenario 6 Ask a professor to explain an concept

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	6	5	2	4	1
	30%	26.3%	10.5%	21.1%	5.3%
Moderate	13	10	10	13	11
	65%	52.6%	52.6%	68.4%	57.9%
High	1	4	7	2	7
	5.0%	21.1%	36.8%	10.5%	36.8%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.75	1.95	2.21	1.89	2.32

Scenario 7 Ask a school president, stranger, for an interview

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	4	5	1	0	1
	20.0%	26.3%	5.3%	0.0%	5.3%
Moderate	4	5	5	4	5
	20.0%	26.3%	26.3%	21.1%	26.3%
High	12	9	13	15	13
	60.0%	47.4%	68.4%	78.9%	68.4%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	2.4	2.21	2.63	2.79	2.63

Scenario 8 Ask a professor for an extension for paper submission

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	2	5	1	2	0
	10.0%	26.3%	5.3%	10.5%	0.0%
Moderate	7	9	8	8	15
	35.0%	47.4%	42.1%	42.1%	78.9%
High	11	5	10	7	4
	55.0%	26.3%	52.6%	36.8%	21.1%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	2.45	2	2.47	2.26	2.26

Scenario 10 Ask a friend's mom to give less food

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	12	13	13	15	13
	60.0%	68.4%	68.4%	78.9%	68.4%
Moderate	6	6	3	4	4
	30.0%	31.6%	15.8%	21.1%	21.1%
High	2	0	3	0	2
	10.0%	0.0%	15.8%	0.0%	10.5%
N	20	19	19	19	19
.	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.50	1.32	1.63	1.21	1.42

Scenario 11 Ask a stranger to change seats in a flight

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	4	9	3	5	7
	20.0%	47.4%	15.0%	26.3%	36.8%
Moderate	13	8	12	11	11
	65.0%	42.1%	63.2%	57.9%	57.9%
High	3	2	4	3	1
	15.0%	10.5%	21.1%	15.8%	5.3%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.90	1.63	2.05	1.89	1.68

Scenario 12 Ask your friend, a neighbor's child, not to be late for a walk

Imposition	NS	SATime1	SATime2	AHTime1	AHTime2
Low	16	9	11	18	15
	80.0%	47.4%	57.9%	94.7%	78.9%
Moderate	4	8	3	1	2
	20.0%	42.1%	15.0%	5.3%	10.5%
High	0	2	5	0	2
	0.0%	10.5%	26.3%	0.0%	10.5%
N.	20	19	19	19	19
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Mean	1.2	1.63	1.68	1.05	1.32

Note. In order to calculate mean, the ranks of imposition were translated into numerical values, low imposition = 1, moderate imposition =2, and high imposition =3.

Appendix N

Results of the Appropriateness Judgment Task

Appropriateness Judgment of the SA Group (Pre-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scen-ario 1	Scen-ario 2	Scen-ario 3	Scen-ario 4	Scen-ario 5	Scen-ario 6	Scen-ario 7	Scen-ario 8	Scen-ario 9	Scen-ario 10
1	2	1	3	4	4	1	1	3	4	2
2	2	2	4	3	3	1	2	4	3	1
3	3	4	2	3	4	3	2	4	4	1
4	2	2	2	4	4	3	2	4	3	1
5	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	3
6	4	4	1	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
7	4	2	1	3	4	1	1	3	2	2
8	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
9	3	2	4	3	4	2	3	3	4	4
10	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	2
11	3	2	3	4	4	2	3	4	4	1
12	3	4	4	4	4	2	2	3	4	2
13	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
14	3	2	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	3
15	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	2
16	4	4	3	1	4	2	4	3	4	2
17	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2
18	2	3	2	4	3	2	2	4	3	1
19	4	4	2	2	4	2	3	3	2	1

Appropriateness Judgment of the SA Group (Post-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	2	3	2	4	3	2	3	3	4	2
2	4	4	2	2	2	1	3	4	2	1
3	4	3	2	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
4	2	4	1	3	4	1	4	2	3	1
5	2	3	3	4	3	2	2	1	3	3
6	2	3	4	3	3	1	1	4	1	1
7	4	1	1	4	4	1	1	4	1	4
8	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	1
9	3	3	4	3	4	2	2	4	3	2
10	4	3	3	4	3	2	3	3	3	4
11	2	3	2	4	3	2	3	3	4	2
12	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4
13	2	3	4	4	3	2	4	4	3	2
14	3	2	4	3	3	2	2	3	3	3
15	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2
16	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	3	1
17	2	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	2
18	3	3	3	4	3	2	3	4	3	2
19	2	3	4	3	2	2	3	1	4	2

Appropriateness Judgment of the AH Group (Pre-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	2	2	4	4	4	1	3	2	3	2
2	3	4	2	3	4	2	2	4	4	1
3	4	3	4	2	4	2	2	3	3	2
4	2	4	4	4	2	3	3	2	2	3
5	3	4	4	4	2	3	3	1	1	3
6	2	3	3	3	4	2	4	3	3	2
7	2	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	2	2
8	2	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	3	2
9	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	2
10	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	4	3	2
11	3	4	3	2	4	1	2	2	2	4
12	3	4	3	3	3	2	2	4	2	2
13	3	4	1	3	4	3	2	4	3	2
14	1	3	2	3	2	2	3	4	2	2
15	1	2	2	4	2	1	3	3	2	1
16	2	3	2	4	3	2	3	4	3	3
17	3	3	1	3	3	2	3	4	3	2
18	2	3	1	4	3	2	3	4	3	3
19	2	3	1	4	3	1	3	4	4	3

Appropriateness Judgment of the AH Group (Post-test) (n=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	2	3	3	4	4	2	3	2	3	3
2	4	4	2	4	4	1	3	4	2	1
3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	4
4	4	4	3	4	2	4	3	1	2	4
5	3	4	4	4	4	3	2	2	3	4
6	2	2	4	4	4	2	2	3	4	3
7	1	3	2	4	2	3	3	2	2	4
8	2	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	2
9	3	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	2
10	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	3	3
11	2	4	3	1	4	1	3	2	2	4
12	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	3
13	3	4	1	3	4	3	2	4	3	4
14	2	2	1	4	3	2	2	4	3	1
15	2	2	1	4	3	2	4	3	2	3
16	3	3	2	4	3	2	3	4	3	3
17	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	4	3	3
18	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	4
19	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	4	4	3

Certainty Degree of Judgment by the SA Group (Pre-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3
2	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4
3	3	4	2	2	4	3	4	4	4	4
4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	2	3	4	4	3	3	2	3	4	3
6	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
7	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4
8	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
9	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4
10	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4
11	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	3
12	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	3
13	3	3	4	2	4	4	4	2	4	3
14	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
15	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
16	4	4	3	2	4	4	4	3	4	4
17	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
18	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3
19	4	4	2	2	4	2	3	3	2	1

Certainty Degree of Judgment by the SA Group (Post-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
2	4	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	4
3	4	4	2	4	4	4	2	4	4	4
4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4
5	2	3	3	4	3	2	3	4	3	3
6	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
8	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
9	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	3
10	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4
11	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
12	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3
13	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
14	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4
15	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3
16	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
17	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
18	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4
19	2	3	4	3	2	2	3	1	4	2

Certainty Degree of Judgment by the AH Group (Pre-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	3	2	3	4	4	2	2	3	3	2
2	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	3	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	3
4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4
5	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4
6	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
8	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
9	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4
10	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	2
11	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
12	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3
13	4	4	3	4	4	3	2	4	4	3
14	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	4
15	4	3	3	3	3	3	2	4	4	4
16	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3
17	3	4	5	6	3	3	4	4	3	3
18	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
19	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4

Certainty Degree of Judgment by the AH Group (Post-test) (*n*=19)

.	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	Scenario 9	Scenario 10
1	3	2	3	4	4	2	3	3	4	3
2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	4	4	3	3	3	2	3	4	3
4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4
5	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4
6	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	4
7	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4
8	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3
9	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
10	3	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	2
11	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
12	3	4	4	2	3	2	2	3	3	3
13	3	3	1	1	4	3	2	2	4	4
14	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4
15	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3
16	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3
17	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3
18	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
19	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

Note. 1=very inappropriate/very uncertain; 2= somewhat inappropriate/somewhat uncertain; 3=somewhat appropriate/somewhat certain; 4= very appropriate/very certain. The standard scores for the ten request expressions in sequence are: 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 2, 2, 4, 4, 2.

Appendix O

Results of the EFL Teachers' Exposure to Speech Acts

Frequency of Teacher's Listening to Speech Acts

Speech Acts	SA Time1		SA Time 2		AH Time1		AH Time2	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Advising	54	.41	70	.53	14	.11		
Agreeing	71	.53	86	.65	47	.35		
Apologizing	54	.41	65	.49	11	.08		
Complaining	52	.39	86	.65	4	.03	1	.01
Complimenting	12	.09	37	.28	9	.07	1	.01
Disagreeing	23	.17	34	.26	4	.03		
Forgiving	3	.02	10	.08	1	.01		
Greeting	80	.60	100	.75	29	.22	4	.03
Inviting	17	.13	23	.17	6	.05		
Promising	6	.05	14	.11	4	.03		
Refusing	7	.05	22	.17	3	.02		
Requesting	34	.26	51	.38	11	.08	3	.02
Suggesting	47	.35	63	.47	12	.09	1	.01
Thanking	49	.37	83	.62	23	.17		
Total	509	.20	744	.30	178	.07	10	.00

Frequency of Teachers' Use of Speech Acts

Speech Acts	SA Time1		SA Time 2		AH Time1		AH Time2	
	f	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*	*f*	*M*
Advising	44	.33	71	.53	18	.14	1	.01
Agreeing	89	.67	93	.70	11	.08	3	.02
Apologizing	63	.47	59	.44	2	.02	3	.02
Complaining	92	.69	93	.70	3	.02		
Complimenting	29	.22	44	.33	19	.14		
Disagreeing	31	.23	40	.30	7	.05		
Forgiving	11	.08	14	.11	3	.02		
Greeting	102	.77	107	.80	9	.07		
Inviting	16	.12	18	.14	2	.02		
Promising	17	.13	13	.10	6	.05		
Refusing	16	.12	30	.23	2	.02		
Requesting	57	.43	55	.41	23	.17		
Suggesting	52	.39	53	.40	26	.20		
Thanking	84	.63	90	.68	5	.04		
Total	703	.28	780	.31	136	.05	7	.00

Note. SATime1: The SA Group in a week with classes; SATime2: The SA Group in a week without classes; AHTime1: the AH Group in a week with classes; AHTime2: the AH Group in a week without classes; *f* = frequency; *M* = mean.

Appendix P

Results of the EFL Teachers' Perception of Teaching Speech Acts

Frequency of Perceived Difficulty of Teaching Speech Acts

Speech Acts	SA Time1		SA Time 2		AH Time1		AH Time2	
	f	*%*	*F*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Advising	10	53	2	11	3	16	3	16
Complaining	12	63	16	84	11	58	9	47
Disagreeing	5	26	10	53	5	26	5	26
Promising	9	47	10	53	4	21	4	21
Requesting	5	26	12	63	5	26	5	26
Refusing	6	32	14	74	10	53	6	32
Suggesting	5	26	10	53	3	16	5	26

Frequency of Perceived Easy of Teaching Speech Acts

Speech Acts	SA Time1		SA Time 2		AH Time1		AH Time2	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Advising	6	32	14	74	9	47	5	26
Agreeing	9	47	19	100	12	63	11	58
Apologizing	6	32	13	68	7	37	7	37
Complimenting	8	42	11	58	2	11	5	26
Forgiving	1	5	13	68	3	16	2	11
Greeting	16	84	18	95	17	89	14	74
Inviting	12	63	14	74	7	37	6	32
Thanking	18	95	18	95	18	95	14	74

Note. f = frequency, *%* = percentage.

Appendix Q

Results of the EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Pragmatics Teaching

Participants	SA Time1	SA Time 2	AH Time1	AH Time2
1	40%	60%	60%	70%
2	50%	70%	50%	80%
3	40%	65%	60%	60%
4	70%	80%	60%	75%
5	60%	80%	60%	60%
6	85%	85%	70%	70%
7	20%	75%	75%	75%
8	50%	50%	60%	80%
9	65%	85%	70%	80%
10	35%	50%	70%	70%
11	60%	80%	60%	80%
12	50%	70%	60%	60%
13	30%	50%	70%	70%
14	85%	65%	50%	80%
15	70%	85%	40%	75%
16	70%	90%	80%	80%
17	80%	90%	70%	70%
18	25%	50%	80%	85%
19	50%	75%	80%	80%

Appendix R

Ethics Approval from the University of Alberta

Notification of Approval

Date: March 1, 2013

Study ID: Pro00030145

Principal
Investigator: <u>Jun Deng</u>

Study Supervisor: <u>Leila Ranta</u>

Study Title: Impact of English Interaction on Chinese EFL Teachers'
Pragmatic Competence in a Naturalistic Setting

Approval Expiry
Date: February 28, 2014

	Approval Date	Approved Document
Approved Consent Form:	01/03/2013	<u>Information Letter and Consent Form for Study-Abroad Chinese Teachers of English.doc</u>
	01/03/2013	<u>Information Letter and Consent Form for At-Home Chinese Teachers of English.doc</u>
	01/03/2013	<u>Information Letter and Consent Form for English Students of Chinese.doc</u>
	01/03/2013	<u>Information Letter and Consent Form for Native English Speakers.doc</u>

Thank you for submitting the above study to the Research Ethics Board 2. Your
application has been reviewed and approved on behalf of the committee. Please
note however, that an amendment will be required to be submitted, if someone
other than Wen Zhou will be acting as the Research Assistant in China.

A renewal report must be submitted next year prior to the expiry of this approval if your study still requires ethics approval. If you do not renew on or before the renewal expiry date, you will have to re-submit an ethics application.

Approval by the Research Ethics Board does not encompass authorization to access the staff, students, facilities or resources of local institutions for the purposes of the research.

 Sincerely,

Dr. Stanley Varnhagen

Chair, Research Ethics Board 2

Note: This correspondence includes an electronic signature (validation and approval via an online system).

Appendix S
Consent Form for the Study-Abroad EFL Teachers

Title of Project: The Impact of English Interaction on the Pragmatic Development of Chinese Teachers of English in a Naturalistic Setting

1. Do you understand that you have been asked to be in a research study?
   Yes   No

2. Have you read and received a copy of the attached Information Sheet?
   Yes   No

3. Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in taking part in this research study?   Yes   No

3. Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study?
   Yes   No

5. Do you understand that you are free to refuse to participate, or to withdraw

from the study at any time, without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request before the date of 31/12/2013?   Yes   No

6.   Has the issue of confidentiality been explained to you? Do you understand who will have access to your information?   Yes   No

This study was explained to me by: _____

I agree to take part in this study:

_____   _____   _____

Signature of Research Participant   Printed Name   Date

_____   _____   _____

Signature of Witness   Printed Name   Date

I believe that the person signing this form understands what is involved in the study and voluntarily agrees to participate.

_____   _____

Signature of Investigator   Date