

**PRAGMATICS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: THE EFFECTS OF
PEDAGOGICAL INTERVENTION AND TECHNOLOGY ON THE
DEVELOPMENT OF EFL LEARNERS' REALIZATION OF "REQUEST"**

A Dissertation

by

CHIA-NING LIU

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2007

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

**PRAGMATICS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION: THE EFFECTS OF
PEDAGOGICAL INTERVENTION AND TECHNOLOGY ON THE
DEVELOPMENT OF EFL LEARNERS' REALIZATION OF "REQUEST"**

A Dissertation

by

CHIA-NING LIU

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Approved by:

Co-Chairs of Committee,	Lauren Cifuentes Zohreh Eslami
Committee Members,	Lynn Burlbaw Robert Hall
Head of Department,	Dennie Smith

December 2007

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

ABSTRACT

Pragmatics in Foreign Language Instruction: The Effects of Pedagogical Intervention and Technology on the Development of EFL Learners' Realization of "Request."

(December 2007)

Chia-Ning Liu, B.A., Feng-Chia University; M.Ed., Texas A&M University

Co-Chairs of Advisory Committee: Dr. Lauren Cifuentes
Dr. Zohreh Eslami

This study investigated the effectiveness of explicit pragmatic instruction on the acquisition of requests by college-level English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Taiwan. The researcher applied quantitative and qualitative approaches to determine first whether the use of explicit pragmatic instruction had a positive effect on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. Second, the relative effectiveness of presenting pragmatics through two delivery systems—face-to-face, in-class activities and computer-mediated communication (CMC) via e-mail and WebCT—was compared.

One hundred and eighteen Taiwanese undergraduate students who made up three intact classes in an "English for Tourism" course completed the entire study. The three groups were: (1) the control group, in which students received no explicit instruction on pragmatics but received instructor-led lessons from the textbook's teacher's manual, (2) the experimental/Teacher Instruction (TI) group, in which students learned pragmatics in a face-to-face classroom setting with explicit instruction on pragmatics, and (3) the experimental/CMC group, in which students learned pragmatics explicitly through e-mail and WebCT discussions with their partners at Texas A&M University. There were 40

Taiwanese students in the control group, 36 Taiwanese students in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and 42 Taiwanese students in the experimental/CMC group. Treatment types (Control/TI/CMC) were randomly assigned to the intact classes.

The results showed that explicit pragmatic instruction had a positive impact on the EFL learners in both the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups. Learners who received explicit pragmatic instruction performed better on the Discourse Completion Task posttest than those who did not. The findings also indicated that technology can be a valuable tool for delivering pragmatics instruction.

DEDICATION

To my parents, for their unconditional love, support and devotion,
To my mom, a respectful and brave woman,
To my husband, Jack Shu, for his endless love and caring,
and to God, a wonderful mentor in life.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

When I started to write this paragraph, I realized that I am approaching the “day” that I have been working toward for many years. It has been a long journey and one that would not have been as abundant without so many people’s involvement. I would like to offer my sincere appreciation to those who have been helpful by adding color and depth to my journey.

First, I would like to dedicate my heartfelt appreciation to my co-chairs, Dr. Zohreh Eslami and Dr. Lauren Cifuentes. I am grateful for the strong support I received from both of them through this long academic journey. Their stimulating ideas and powerful presentations inspired me greatly throughout my growth as an academic researcher. Their friendship, guidance and support encouraged me numerous times when I encountered academic or personal hardships.

I would also like to express my appreciation to Dr. Lynn Burlbaw for his valuable insights and suggestions in finishing this dissertation and for his gracious generosity serving on my dissertation committee. I am also deeply indebted to Dr. Robert “Bob” Hall. He offered valuable advice concerning data collection and data analysis methodologies. His warm nature always cheered me up when I encountered challenges.

I thank all the participants in this study for contributing their valuable time and effort. I also deeply appreciate Dr. Yi-Chuan Hsieh at Chin-Yun University in Taiwan, without whose collaboration this project would not have gone as smoothly.

Further, I thank my husband, Jack Shu, for being patient and loving when I felt weak and low while finishing this dissertation. I give thanks to my parents and brother and sister in Taiwan for their endless support and caring throughout this challenge. This

dissertation represents five years of effort that constituted one of the greatest challenges of my life. I know it could not have been accomplished without many people's help along the way, and to them I offer my sincere gratitude.

Finally, I offer my sincere appreciation to God, a wonderful life savior and mentor who taught me to stand firm and fearless in Him no matter the circumstances.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Purpose of the Study.....	7
Research Questions.....	8
Rationale of the Study.....	8
Assumptions.....	9
Significance of the Study.....	10
Limitations.....	11
Definition of Terms.....	11
Outline of the Dissertation.....	12
CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW.....	14
Pragmatics.....	14
Pragmatic Competence.....	15
Grammar and Pragmatics.....	17
Assessing Pragmatic Competence.....	19
Pragmatics and Language Instruction.....	21
Theoretical Frameworks.....	23
The Noticing Hypothesis.....	23
Speech Acts Theory.....	26
Politeness and Speech Acts.....	28
Requests.....	32
Review of Studies Focusing on Requests.....	34
Review of Effects of Instruction on Pragmatic Development.....	36
Technology and Language Instruction.....	42

	Page
Benefits of CMC	43
Computer Conferencing System	44
Electronic Mail.....	44
Applying Pedagogy and Design Principles in CMC Settings.....	46
Technology and Pragmatics	47
Review of Literature on Language Learners' Perceptions	48
Summary	51
 CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY	 53
Participants.....	53
Characteristics of the Participants.....	54
Research Design and Procedure.....	56
Design	56
Treatment Materials and Procedures	59
Participation Check.....	62
Timetable	62
WebCt Discussion Questions.....	63
Instruments.....	63
What Is the Discourse Completion Test	65
Why the Discourse Completion Test	66
Data Analysis	68
Rater's Training and Rating Participants' Performance on the DCT.....	68
Research Questions One, Two, and Three.....	69
Research Question Four.....	69
Research Question Five	69
 CHAPTER IV RESULTS.....	 71
Group Comparison.....	71
Qualitative Findings.....	87
Students' Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics	89
Students' Perceptions Toward Learning Pragmatics through CMC.....	90
Students' Attitudes Toward Their Texas Tutors.....	94
Students' Perceptions of the Content in Pragmatics Instruction.....	97
 CHAPTER V CONCLUSION.....	 100
The Noticing Hypothesis	100
The Effect of Explicit Instruction on the Development of Language Learners' Pragmatic Competence	101
Implications of the Findings for Pragmatics Instruction.....	106
Implications of the Findings for Language Instruction.....	107

	Page
Implications of the Findings for Applying CMC in Pragmatics Instruction	109
Implications of the Findings for Teaching Pragmatics in an EFL Context.....	112
Limitations of the Study.....	114
Directions for Future Research	114
REFERENCES	117
APPENDIX A INFORMED CONSENT FORM	127
APPENDIX B TEACHER’S CONSENT FORM	129
APPENDIX C CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES.....	131
APPENDIX D WEEKLY LESSON PLANS (10 WEEKS).....	132
APPENDIX E STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION SURVEY	145
APPENDIX F DISCOURSE COMPLETION TESTS.....	147
APPENDIX G DCT SITUATIONS IN TERMS OF POWER, SOCIAL DISTANCE, AND IMPOSITION.....	150
APPENDIX H RATING COMPONENTS DEFINITIONS.....	151
APPENDIX I RATER’S RATING ON PARTICIPANTS’ PERFORMANCE.....	153
VITA.....	157

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1	Characteristics of the Taiwanese Participants.....	55
Table 2	Activities Table.....	63
Table 3	Descriptive Statistical Results of the DCT Pretest Scores by Group.....	73
Table 4	Descriptive Statistical Results of the DCT Posttest Scores by Group ...	74
Table 5	ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Speech Act.....	75
Table 6	ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Information.....	75
Table 7	ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Expression	76
Table 8	ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Politeness.....	76
Table 9	Summary Table of Pairwise Group Comparisons	77
Table 10	Effect Size of Groups in Different Treatments.....	84

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1	Research Design.....	59
Figure 2	DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Control Group	78
Figure 3	DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Experimental/Teacher Instruction Group	79
Figure 4	DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Experimental/CMC Group.....	81
Figure 5	DCT Posttest Mean Scores of Groups	82
Figure 6	Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Speech Acts by Groups	85
Figure 7	Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Information by Groups.....	85
Figure 8	Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Expression by Groups	86
Figure 9	Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Politeness by Groups.....	86

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an overview of the study: the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the rationale of the study and the outline of the dissertation.

Background

The adoption of the communicative approach in second- or foreign-language teaching has placed more importance on the achievement of functional abilities in the target language. Language learning has shifted from a grammatical perspective to a communicative perspective that emphasizes understanding and appropriate use of language in communicative contexts. The listener's failure to comprehend the speaker's intended meaning may cause misunderstandings and lead to conversation breakdowns (Miller, 1974; Thomas, 1983).

In past decades, researchers have tried to formulate models of communicative language proficiency and identify the components of communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980, Bachman and Plamer, 1982; Bachman, 1990). Canale and Swain proposed the communicative competence model, which consists of three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge that leads to mastery of the language itself.

Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts. Strategic competence is the mastery of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be implemented to compensate for breakdowns in communication resulting from limiting conditions in actual communication or insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence, and to enhance communication effectiveness. A decade later Canale and Swain's study, Bachman proposed the language competence model, which consists of two main categories: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence refers to knowledge of linguistic units and the rules for forming structured sentences (grammatical competence) and the knowledge of using discourse in context (textual competence). Pragmatic competence consists of illocutionary competence, which means knowledge of speech acts and speech functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or the ability to use language appropriately in sociocultural contexts. These elements demonstrate that to be communicatively competent, an individual must gain not only knowledge of a language's linguistic forms, but also knowledge of appropriate language use in communicative contexts.

The development of pragmatic competence in a second language involves the ability to appropriately use a wide range of speech acts such as greeting, apologizing, complimenting, and requesting. Of these, requesting has been one of the most studied speech acts (Ellis, 1992; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Rose, 1999) and is the focus of pragmatic instruction in this research.

Research into the performance of speech acts by second- or foreign-language learners has revealed differences between language learner and native speaker (NS)

realization patterns (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Since the 1980's, scholars such as Blumka-Kulka, House, and Kasper have recommended including explicit pragmatics instruction in the language learning curriculum to bridge the gap between language learners and native speakers. These suggestions have been supported by Schmidt (1996) and Bardovi-Harlig (1999), who noted the importance of further research into the inclusion of pragmatics instruction in language teaching and that the addition of pragmatics instruction in the interlanguage pragmatics field strengthens second language acquisition.

Several studies have examined the effect of instructional intervention in the development of pragmatic knowledge. Topics include pragmatic fluency (House, 1996), pragmatic routines (Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Wildner-Bassett, 1994), conversation closing (Bardolvi-Harlig et al., 1991), apologies (Eslami et al., 2004; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990), compliments (Billmyer, 1990; Rose & Kwai-fun, 2001), conversational implicature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995) and requests (Eslami et al., 2004; Rose, 1994; Fukuya, 1998). Results from most of these studies indicate the positive impact on language learners' pragmatic knowledge, supporting the belief that pragmatic ability can be enhanced or developed through systematic classroom activities. Studies conducted by Eslami (2005), Kasper (1997), Rose (1999), Takahashi (2001), and Tateyama (1997) also suggest that pragmatic features can be acquired through explicit instruction.

Statement of the Problem

One of the challenges in language instruction is teaching the appropriate use of language. Previous studies have shown that even those language learners who know grammar and word meanings still often fail to convey their intended messages because

they lack the necessary pragmatic or functional information (Wolfson, 1989). In addition, research into the pragmatics of adult second- or foreign-language learners has demonstrated that an individual with advanced grammatical development does not necessarily have corresponding levels of pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei, 1997). Furthermore, studies addressing the realization of speech acts by second- or foreign-language learners (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990; Kasper, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001) have found that even advanced language learners often face difficulties in comprehending a speaker's intention and conveying the appropriate politeness values in communicative contexts.

There is general agreement that pragmatic knowledge in the second language can be acquired through universal pragmatic knowledge, and that some aspects from the learner's first language can be transferred to the second. However, Bialystok (1993) has reported that adult second-language or foreign-language learners must develop new representations of pragmatic knowledge that do not exist in their first language if they are to acquire processing control over the existing pragmatic foundations. Bialystok (1993) proposed a model of pragmatics acquisition that incorporates her claim that the process of acquiring pragmatics competence entails two separate components: acquiring knowledge and acquiring control over attention to this knowledge, which allows the speaker to use the language automatically. According to Bialystok, the second component is crucial for adult second-language learners, who often produce pragmatically inappropriate second language utterances not because they lack pragmatic knowledge, but because they cannot access this knowledge when needed in real-world contexts.

Despite the plethora of theory and research that supports the need for pragmatics instruction, EFL instruction mainly focuses on grammar and ignores the pragmatic development of language learners. Studies have found that when pragmatics is not offered, opportunities for developing pragmatic competence are quite limited (Kasper, 2000). Researchers have also found that certain aspects of pragmatics in an EFL setting are not automatically acquired (Edmondson, House, Kasper, and Stemmer, 1984). The result is that even those who have studied English for years may still find it difficult to use language appropriately in communicative contexts.

The role of instruction in pragmatics becomes even more important in foreign-language classrooms because pedagogical intervention is the main avenue by which most learners explore the target language. Learning English is rather difficult in an EFL environment compared to an English as a second language (ESL) environment because EFL learners do not interact with native speakers as ESL learners do. Cook (2001) stated that in foreign-language classrooms, the target language tends to be viewed as an object of study instead of a means of socialization and communication. Language class activities in EFL settings often focus on decontextualized language practice, which does not expose learners to the types of sociolinguistic input that facilitate competence. For a non-native English speaker, linguistic forms can be learned by practicing and learning the rules and structures. However, there are no definite rules for appropriate language use since the variables related to language use interact in complicated ways.

The scope of learners' perceptions represented in studies on the effectiveness of instruction in second language pragmatics is rather smaller than the range of learning targets. This study also seeks to understand how language learners view themselves while

engage in the learning process of acquiring pragmatics. According to Savignon (1997:107), “if all the variables in L2 acquisition could be identified and the many intricate patterns of interaction between learner and learning context described ultimate success in learning to use a second language most likely would be seen to depend on the attitude of the learner.” Therefore, the views of learners should not be ignored in the language-learning process.

Over the past two decades, computers have become common instructional tools in English-as-a-second-language or foreign-language classrooms. Today, collaborative e-mail exchanges are among these tools. Electronic communication has been found to have a number of features that are beneficial for language learning. Research has indicated that electronic communication can enhance students’ motivation (Warchauer, 1996) and improve writing skills (Cononelos and Oliva, 1993). Cifuentes and Shih (2001) further stressed that computer-mediated communication (CMC) provides an authentic context for learning functional abilities by providing EFL learners with opportunities to interact with native English speakers. With explicit instruction in how to communicate in the virtual environment, CMC may enhance intercultural teaching and learning (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003). In light of these positive effects, the present study integrates technology as a delivery system of pragmatic instruction to adult EFL learners.

This study used the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) which has shown to enhance learners’ pragmatic ability (Eslami, 2005, Kasper, 1997, Rose, 1999, Takahashi, 2001, Tateyama, 1997). EATSA used in this study has five instructional components: Motivation, Form Search, Form Comparison, Form Analysis, and the Use of Speech Acts. The function of each is explained in Chapter III under the

treatment and procedure section. This study examines the use of this systematic approach to teach pragmatics to EFL learners. In addition, it explores the effect of CMC as the instructional vehicle to deliver EATSA to EFL learners.

Purpose of the Study

This study attempts to add to the scholarly literature on the impact of pragmatics instruction to adult EFL learners' pragmatic development. It seeks to examine whether Taiwanese EFL learners' pragmatic competence can be enhanced by instruction on pragmatics. In addition, this study adopts Hudson, Detmer, and Brown's (1992) framework of assessing pragmatic competence in terms of four components (speech acts, information, expression, politeness), and tries to find out which component of pragmatic competence is easiest, and most difficult, to develop. Rose (2005) pointed out that the most basic question that studies on the effect of instruction in pragmatics may consider is whether a particular area of pragmatics is teachable. Further, this study integrates technology as one of the delivery systems to determine whether CMC can serve as a potential channel to deliver pragmatics instruction to EFL learners. Moreover, this study seeks to determine language learners' perceptions of learning pragmatics through on-line communication. The results of this study will further our understanding of the effectiveness of implementing pragmatics instruction in an EFL language learning environment and will help us identify the impact of different delivering systems on EFL learners' pragmatic development and broaden the scope of studies in the area of learners' perceptions of learning pragmatics.

Research Questions

The study is designed to answer the following questions:

1. Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) have a positive effect on EFL learners' pragmatic competence in terms of four components: speech act, information, expression and politeness?
2. Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) through computer-mediated communication (CMC) have a positive effect on EFL learners' pragmatic competence in terms of four components: speech acts, information, expression and politeness?
3. What is the effect of on-line (CMC) EATSA compared to in-classroom (face-to-face) EATSA?
4. What is the order of difficulty for learning the four components (speech acts, information, expression and politeness) in face to face and CMC conditions?
5. How do Taiwanese students perceive learning pragmatics on-line with their Texan partners?

Rationale of the Study

The ideas presented so far have constituted a rationale for pedagogical intervention with a threefold goal: to help learners become aware of and exploit their existing knowledge by using existing pragmatic knowledge in appropriate sociocultural contexts; to help learners attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated (Schmidt, 2001); and to provide learners with contextualized and pragmatically appropriate input through pragmatic instruction to compensate for incomplete or misleading input.

From theoretical perspectives and empirical studies, we know that the knowledge of speech acts and their functions are basic components of communicating in a second or foreign language. The rich studies of communications such as requests, apologies and compliments have provided a framework through which we can compare baseline information with contrasting sets of data that can be used for the empirical instruction of pragmatics, as well as for the study of the effects of instruction in the interlanguage pragmatics field, especially in a foreign-language context (Rose and Kwai-fun, 2001). These findings confirm the important role of pragmatics instruction, especially in foreign-language settings where pedagogical intervention provides the only opportunity for students to practice the target language. Even though empirical studies have indicated the positive impact of pragmatics instruction on second- or foreign-language learners, few studies have examined the implementation of pragmatics instruction using CMC in the classroom. Furthermore, although scholars have compared learner populations from a variety of linguistic backgrounds, few have studied the effectiveness of teaching pragmatics to adult Chinese-speaking college students. In addition, the power of technology has not been widely explored in the field of teaching pragmatics. In an effort to bridge these gaps, the present study intends to investigate the effects of pragmatics instruction of requests to adult EFL learners and to explore the affordability of using CMC interactions with native speakers.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that participants:

1. provided honest responses on both pretests and posttests;
2. did not experience significant test anxiety that would have affected their

performance on both pretests and posttests; and

3. were given clear instructions regarding pretest and posttest administrations of Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) and understood how they were supposed to respond.

Significance of the Study

The goal of this study is to contribute to the existing literature on pedagogical intervention in the development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence and to inform approaches to second- or foreign-language instruction with theory and research on pragmatic development. This study has implications for second- or foreign-language educators in the areas of teaching, assessment and syllabus design. The results of this study will further our understanding of the effectiveness of implementing pragmatics instruction in EFL learning environments. It will also help us determine the impact of face-to-face and CMC delivery systems on EFL learners' pragmatic development. English education in EFL settings has overlooked the importance of pragmatics, and the findings of this study may help language educators realize the role that pragmatics can play in language education and how the pragmatic features of language can be developed in classrooms.

Moreover, the results may help instructors understand how Taiwanese students perceive learning pragmatics through on-line technology, identify a suitable learning environment and conditions, and decide the extent to which this mode of pragmatics instruction is applicable to EFL learners.

Limitations

The present study took place in college settings; it lacked random selection and random assignment of individuals to groups. Furthermore, because the participants were Taiwanese college students who were majoring in EFL, the findings may vary if applied to other groups.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are included to clarify the terminology used in the present study:

Competence: the knowledge and ability that underlie language use (Hymes, 1972).

Computer-mediated communication (CMC): “the exchanges of ideas, thoughts, and information among people through networked computers” (Shih, 2000, p. 13).

Degree of imposition: “a potential expenditure of goods and/or services by the hearer” (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1995, p. 27).

Discourse Completion Tests (DCT): “Written questionnaires which include a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study” (Kasper and Dahl, 1991).

Functional ability: the ability to accomplish communication purposes in a language.

Interlanguage: a type of “learner language” that is viewed as an independent social or psychological phenomenon (Phillipson, Kellerman, Selinker, Smith, and Swain, 1991).

Interlanguage pragmatics: “the study of nonnative speakers’ use and acquisition of pragmatic and discourse knowledge in a second language” (Kasper, 1989).

L1: first language

L2: second language

Power: “A social parameter referring to the degree to which the speaker participating in the interaction can impose his plans at the expense of his interlocutor’s plans” (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985, p. 18).

Pragmatics: “the study of language use” (Leech, 1983, p. 5).

Pragmatic competence: “a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts, or most prominently the ability to use and interpret nonliteral forms, such as metaphorical uses of language and indirect requests . . .” (Bialystok, 1993, p. 43).

Speech acts: “the minimal unit of speech that has rules in terms both of where and when they may occur and of what their specific features are culturally named acts, such as complaining, apologizing, advising, and so on” (Hymes, 1972).

Outline of the Dissertation

Chapter I offers an overview of the study, describes the problem, states the purpose of the study, and offers the rationale for the study.

Chapter II provides a review of the literature concerning the development of pragmatics and the application of technology in language learning classrooms. It starts with the theoretical background to summarize theories of second language pragmatics development, namely, Schmidt’s noticing theory and Bialystok’s two-dimensional model. The theories that explain second language pragmatics competence then are highlighted, with special attention given to speech act theories and politeness theories. This is followed by a summary of literature on the role of pedagogical intervention in developing

second-language or foreign-language pragmatic competence. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the merits of integrating technology into language learning classrooms.

Chapter III provides an overview of the study's methodology, giving a description of the participants, and overview of the research design and procedure, as well as the instruments used to collect data. It includes a discussion of the impact of teaching pragmatics using teacher instruction, e-mail and WebCT on Taiwanese EFL learners' pragmatics competence, as well as a comparison of the relative effectiveness of learning pragmatics through in-class activities and CMC. Data are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

Chapter IV focuses on the results. The data acquired from the survey of students' perceptions of learning pragmatics are compiled and analyzed qualitatively. Data from the survey provide in-depth information on how learners view their on-line learning experiences using pragmatics. The quantitative analysis of the data elicited through the pretest, posttest Discourse Completion Task (DCT) is analyzed quantitatively.

Chapter V summarizes the major findings from Chapter Four and reports the implications and limitations of this study. It concludes with suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a review of the literature concerning the development of pragmatics and the application of technology in language learning classrooms. It begins with a definition of pragmatics and pragmatic competence. Then, the theories explaining L2 pragmatic development are summarized, with special attention given to the noticing hypothesis, speech act theories and politeness theories. The theories are followed by a summary of literature that addresses the role of pedagogical intervention in developing second-language or foreign-language pragmatic competence. This chapter concludes with the merits of integrating technology into language learning classrooms.

Pragmatics

The term *pragmatics*, originally used within the philosophy of language (Morris, 1938) and later extended into sociolinguistics and other disciplines, addresses how people comprehend and produce a communicative act or speech act in a speech situation.

Levinson (1983) defined pragmatics as the field of study in which linguistic features are considered in relation to the meaning-focused use of the language. This suggests the study of pragmatics not only focuses on linguistic features, but also looks into the meaning of language use to identify and distinguish two intents or meanings in each utterance or act of verbal communication. One is the informative intent or the sentence meaning, and the other is the communicative intent or speaker meaning (Leech, 1983). Leech (1983) proposed to subdivide pragmatics into the *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics* components. According to Leech, pragmalinguistics refers to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational and interpersonal meanings.

Sociopragmatics refers to “the sociological interface of pragmatics” (Leech, 1983, p. 15), which means the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretations and performances of communicative action.

According to Crystal (1997, p. 301), “pragmatics is 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 have on other participants in the act of communication.” This definition alludes to the semiotic conceptualization of pragmatics in the theory of Morris (1938), in which pragmatics describes one side of the semiotic triangle: the relation between the sign and its interpreters or users.

Pragmatic Competence

The notion of pragmatic competence was early defined by Chomsky (1980) as the “knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purpose” (p. 224). The concept was seen in opposition to grammatical competence that in Chomsky’s term is “the knowledge of form and meaning.” Hymes (1972) opposed Chomsky’s notions of performance and competence and proposed that communicative competence should be incorporated into language ability. Hymes (1972) pointed out that communicative competence not only deals with grammatical competence, but also sociolinguistic competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) considered pragmatic competence an important component of communicative competence. The notion of communicative competence has been the subject of discussion for decades (Bachman, 1990; Canal, 1983; Canal and Swain, 1980; Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Hymes, 1972). This model has three components:

grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to the learners' abilities to produce grammatically or phonologically accurate sentences in the language used. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the learners' ability to accurately present their sensitivity to linguistic variation within different social contexts. Strategic competence, in simple terms, is the ability to successfully "get one's message across." In Canale and Swain's model, pragmatic competence is identified as sociolinguistic competence and defined as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use. Later, Canale (1988) expanded this definition to include "illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context" (p. 90).

A decade after Canale and Swain's research, Bachman (1990) proposed the language competence model, which contains two main categories with four elements: organizational competence (grammatical competence and textual competence) and pragmatic competence (illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence). Organizational competence refers to knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of using them together in a structured form of sentences (grammatical competence) and discourse (textual competence). Pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary competence (knowledge of speech acts and speech functions), and sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in sociocultural contexts). In other words, pragmatic competence in Bachman's model refers to the ability to use language to fulfill

a wide range of functions and interpret the illocutionary force in discourse according to the contexts in which they are used.

Grammar and Pragmatics

The relationship between grammatical and pragmatic competence has been neglected in interlanguage pragmatics research (Tello Ruoda, 2004). However, researchers such as Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1997) and Niezoda and Rover (2001) conducted studies concerning ESL and EFL learners' grammatical and pragmatic awareness, and their findings revealed that EFL learners recognized more grammatical errors than pragmatic errors, while the opposite trend was observed among ESL learners. Other studies conducted by Bardovi-Harlig (1999, 2001) have indicated that language learners with high levels of grammatical competence do not necessarily exhibit high levels of pragmatic competence. The findings suggest that performance on measures of grammatical ability would not significantly predict performance on communicative tasks.

Two claims have been made regarding the relationship between the development of pragmatics and knowledge of grammar. One states that L2 speakers cannot learn pragmatics without also learning the underlying grammar for appropriate expression, and the other claims that learners can manage to be pragmatically appropriate without fluent knowledge of the grammatical structures that native speakers demonstrate. The first claim disregards the fact that adult L2 learners are already pragmatically competent in their L1, and thus are likely to be able to transfer this ability to the L2. This claim also ignores the existence of universal pragmatic competence, by which L2 and FL learners distinguish principles and practices related to turn taking, are able to discriminate between the use of various speech acts, to recognize conversational implicature and

politeness conventions, and to identify major realization strategies for communicative events. Universal pragmatic competence allows speakers to notice sociopragmatic variability and make linguistic choices accordingly (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

The hypothesis that grammar precedes pragmatics is supported by research that found that advanced L2 learners employed perfect target language grammar in a pragmatic fashion. According to the researchers, the dependence of pragmatics on grammar can take three forms: (1) language learners demonstrate knowledge of a particular grammatical structure or element but do not use it to express or modify illocutionary force (Salsbury and Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Takahashi, 1996); (2) language learners demonstrate knowledge of a grammatical structure and its pragmalinguistic functions, yet use the pragmalinguistic form-function mapping in non-native like sociopragmatic forms (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1991; Scarcella, 1979); and (3) language learners have knowledge of a grammatical structure and use it to express pragmalinguistic functions that are not conventionalized in the target language (Bodman and Eisenstein, 1988; Beebe and Takahashi, 1989).

The second claim, that grammatical competence is independent of pragmatic competence, is supported by several studies. Schmidt's (1993) study of Wes demonstrated that a restricted interlanguage grammar does not necessarily prevent pragmatic competence from developing, especially when language learners acculturate in the target language. Results from other studies also confirm this finding (Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986, 1993; Salsbury and Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Walters, 1980). These studies demonstrated that when L2 or FL learners do not have the grammatical knowledge to

perform an action in the target language, they rely on a pragmatic mode, which supports the claim that pragmatics precedes grammar.

The contradictions between these two hypotheses can be reconciled when they are considered under a developmental perspective in which adult L2 or FL learners initially rely on L1 pragmatic transfer and universal pragmatic rules to communicative linguistic action in the target language (Tello Ruoda, 2004). As language learners' interlanguage development progresses, their learning task changes and they start to figure out not only the primary functions of the target-language grammatical forms they have achieved, but also the meanings.

Assessing Pragmatic Competence

Increasing interest in the study of pragmatics has created a concomitant need to develop appropriate and valid means for assessing pragmatic competence. One of the primary problems in developing instruments to assess pragmatic competence is the variability of behavior demonstrated by the speakers when engaged in discourse (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1992). As Kasper and Dahl (1991) pointed out, the study of pragmatic ability inherently involves addressing two contributors to variability in performance. The first is the social properties of the speech event, and the speaker's strategic, actional and linguistic choices for achieving communicative goals, which contribute to variability. The second is the particular types of data collection procedures and associated instruments, which will create variability. The second source of variability in performance is frequently ignored.

According to Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1992), a framework of assessing pragmatics must consider several basic factors. First, the second language speaker's

competence may vary depending upon the particular speech act involved. Second, the second language speaker's perceptions of relative power, social distance and degree of position will potentially differ from the perceptions of native speakers. Furthermore, variation may be created by the particular task in which the speaker is involved. The researchers' proposed framework was an initial attempt to systematically control these variables.

The work of Hudson et al. pointed out that it is important to identify the causes of pragmatic failure when considering pragmatics assessment. The identification of the causes of pragmatic failure in particular contexts will vary depending upon whether the focus is on linguistic or sociopragmatic judgments. Thomas (1983) asserted that pragmatic failure occurs on any occasion when the speaker's utterance is perceived by a hearer as different than what the speaker intended. Under this view, failure can be due either to "sociopragmatic failure," inappropriate utterances due to a misunderstanding of social standards, or "pragmalinguistic failure," utterances that convey unintended illocutionary force.

Sociopragmatic failure refers to misinterpretations that lead to violations of the social conditions placed on language use. Its central focus in communicative competence is context. Thus, failure can result from a misdiagnosis that reflects different value judgments stemming from relative power, or the social distance relationships of the interlocutors, or the degree of position associated with compliance in a certain speech act. These value judgments are reflected in utterances that demonstrate differences from a native speaker's perception of appropriate formality, directness, register, politeness, and different pragmatic ground rules (Thomas, 1983; Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985; Odlin,

1989). On the other hand, pragmalinguistic failure by a second language user occurs when the pragmatic force that the user assigns to any particular utterance differs systematically from the force generally associated with it by native speakers. Native speakers may perceive pragmalinguistic failure as rudeness, evasiveness, and so on. These perceptions may be created by reliance on a fixed verbal formula, or a message that contains too little information. However, there is no absolute distinction between sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic failure because sociopragmatic concerns are realized pragmalinguistically (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1992).

Hudson et al. pointed out that when assessing pragmatic competence, the three sociopragmatic components reflect contextual facets that may be manipulated to provide planned variations on the target utterance. The pragmalinguistic components of politeness, amount of information, correctness of linguistic form of formula, and so on, represent the categories for evaluating the speakers' actual responses. As such, they provide the basis for a scale of measuring pragmatic competence, and the relative effects of the above variables on the target language(s) can be analyzed.

Pragmatics and Language Instruction

For second- or foreign-language learners, the opportunity to develop the pragmatics of the second language comes from two main channels: exposure to input and production of output through classroom use of the target language, or from a planned pedagogical intervention directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics (Kasper and Rose, 2002). Compared to the environment outside the classroom, language classrooms have been considered poor environments for developing pragmatic ability in a target language because they generally offer low interaction with native speakers of the target language.

This limitation imposes huge demands on instruction that most likely cannot be attained through the traditional classroom format.

Foreign-language learners have limited exposure to the target language compared to second-language learners. Language class activities in EFL settings often focus on decontextualized language exercises, which do not expose learners to the types of sociolinguistic input that facilitates pragmatic competence acquisition. In addition, research has shown that many aspects of pragmatic competence cannot be acquired without a focus on pragmatics instruction (Kasper, 2000). Schmidt (1993) suggested that simple exposure to the target language is insufficient; pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and thus are not likely to be noticed despite prolonged exposure. Furthermore, Schmidt noted that even the learning of first language pragmatics is facilitated by a range of strategies that caregivers employ to teach children communicative competence, which means children learning first language pragmatics do so with more than mere exposure to the target language. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) proposed the necessity of instruction in pragmatics by documenting that second-language learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics differ significantly from native speakers in their pragmatic production and comprehension in the target language.

As suggested above, the addition of pragmatics to the classroom could compensate for the restricted opportunities for developing competence in a foreign-language setting. Furthermore, continued practice leads to faster and more efficient acquisition of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge in the learners' interlanguage system.

As discussed earlier, Kasper and Rose (2002) stated that learners may develop the pragmatic competence of the target language through two modalities found in the classroom: students may learn from exposure to input and production through instructional activities not necessarily intended for the development of a pragmatic function, and they might learn as a result of planned pedagogical action directed towards the acquisition of pragmatics. The present study was directed by the second statement (hypothesis) that explicit pragmatics instruction is needed in foreign-language classrooms in order for language learners to develop their pragmatic ability and practice the target language pragmatic abilities through a planned intervention that helps them further acquire pragmatic competence.

Theoretical Frameworks

This study employs several theoretical models. The noticing hypothesis from the work of Schmidt (1990, 1993a, 1994a, 1995) is the foundation for investigating the effect of explicit instruction in the acquisition of second language pragmatic knowledge. The speech acts theory of Austin (1962) and the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) provide a framework for the analysis of the pragmatic productions of the Taiwanese EFL learners in this study. Those models are described in the following sections.

The Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt's (1990, 1993a, 1994a, 1995) noticing hypothesis addresses the role of conscious process in L2 acquisition. It is concerned with the initial stage of input (the L2 resources available in the learner's environment) processing and the attentional conditions required for input to become intake (Schmidt, 1995). In Schmidt's opinion,

learning requires awareness at the level of noticing. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis accounts for initial input recognition and focuses on the importance of attention and consciousness (1993) in second-language acquisition. According to Schmidt, in order to distill intake from input and make it available for further processing, relevant input has to be noticed—detected while in a state of awareness and attention (Schmidt, 1995, 2001).

Some researchers have previously claimed that learning a language is a primarily unconscious process (Chomsky, 1965, 1986, 1990; Gregg, 1984; Krashen, 1982; Seliger, 1983). The importance given to subconscious processes in language learning led in part to the rejection of prior foreign-language teaching methods that emphasized the patterns and rules of a target language in favor of a pedagogy that focused on meaning with little or no explanation of grammar, error correction, or focused practice (e.g., the Natural Approach). Other researchers (Carlson and Dulany, 1985; Fisk and Schneider, 1984; Kihlstorm, 1984), however, support the idea, also present in Schmidt's work, that "there is no learning without attention" (Schmidt, 1995, p. 9). In addition, various theories of consciousness (Baars, 1988; Carr, 1979; Gardner, 1985; Norman, 1986; Schmidt, 1990; Schneider, 1985) have suggested a crucial role for consciousness in dealing with novel information, novice behavior, and learning.

In studies of second-language acquisition, Schmidt found evidence that supports the role of consciousness in learning a language. The study on the preterit/ imperfect distinction by Leeman, Arteagoitia, Friedman and Doughty (1995) found that enhanced input within a communicative teaching methodology involving no specific discussion of rules led to higher rates of accuracy and frequency of use of Spanish past tense forms by learners as compared to those who were only given the communicative teaching

technique. In addition, Schmidt cited a study of his own acquisition of Brazilian Portuguese (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) and found that he applied a lexical semantic distinction for choosing between preterit and imperfect. In addition, forms that were frequent in the input had a high correlation with their correct usage, possibly indicating a positive effect of noticing. Huot (1995) reported on the acquisition of English in a naturalistic setting by a French-speaking child. Observations revealed that the child noticed various aspects of English, providing metalinguistic notes on new words and forms encountered. A comparison with her English production found that these noticed forms were also present in her English utterances.

For acquiring second- or foreign-language pragmatics, Schmidt (2001) pointed out that global alertness to target language input is not sufficient; attention has to be allocated to specific learning objects, or “directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular domain. . . . In order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated.” (p. 30). In addition, Schmidt distinguished between the concepts of noticing and understanding. Noticing is defined as the “conscious registration of the occurrence of some event,” while understanding implies “the recognition of some general principle, rule, or pattern.” “Noticing refers to surface-level phenomena and item learning, while understanding refers to deeper levels of abstraction related to (semantic, syntactic, or communicative) meaning, system learning” (p. 29).

Schmidt (1995) elaborated on the distinction between noticing and understanding as follows:

In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, 'I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you please look at this problem?' is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic development in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matter of understating (p. 30).

Speech Acts Theory

One of the most influential notions in the study of language use is speech acts (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989). Speech acts have been studied from diverse perspectives, including linguistics, philosophy, and cultural anthropology. From a historical perspective, speech acts study originates in the philosophy of language (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989). The basic insights offered by the work of philosophers (Austin, 1962; Grice, 1975; Searle, 1969) are based on the assumptions that the minimal units of human communication are not linguistic expressions, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as greeting, apologizing, asking questions, and requesting help.

Within the framework of human communication theory, specific utterances have been labeled as "speech acts." Linguistic philosophers Austin (1962, 1965) and Searle (1969, 1975) did much of the research and analysis on speech acts. Austin (1962) explained the nature of a speech act in claiming that "In saying something, a speaker also does something." According to Austin (1962), the performance of a speech act involves the performance of three types of acts: a locutionary act that conveys the literal meaning of the utterance; an illocutionary act that performs a particular social function contained

within the utterance or written text; and a perlocutionary act, such as the result the utterance produces within the interlocutor of the message. Austin further explained these acts as “the *locutionary* act . . . which has a meaning; the *illocutionary* act which has a certain force in saying something; the *perlocutionary* act which is the achieving of certain effects by saying something” (p. 120). For example, in uttering, “I am cold,” the speaker performs the locutionary act of saying something that reflects his or her current physical state. The speaker may also perform the illocutionary act of giving some value to this act by requesting a jacket, for example. Moreover, the speaker may perform the perlocutionary act of producing what Austin called “certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the audience” (p. 10) so that the audience may respond as the speaker intended. In Austin’s opinion, words do more than make a statement of fact; “to say” something is “to do” something (p. 12).

Continuing Austin’s research, Searle (1969) made a major contribution to speech act theory. He divided speech acts into five categories. *Assertives* commit the speaker to the truth of some proposition (e.g., reporting, announcing, claiming, and so on). *Directives* are attempts to bring about some effect through the action of the hearer (e.g., requesting, ordering, and so on). *Commissives* commit the speaker to some future action (e.g., refusing, offering, and so on). *Expressives* are expressions of some psychological state (e.g., apologizing, thanking, and so on). *Declarations* bring about the correspondence between the propositional content and reality (e.g., sentencing, dismissing, and so on).

For a speech act to be successful, Austin (1965) and Searle (1965, 1975) suggested that it must meet certain conditions, which they called “felicity conditions”

involving the form and context of an utterance that must be met if the utterance is to do what is intended. For example, at a wedding ceremony, a man and a woman exchange vows and rings; their explicit expressions such as “I do” demonstrate their decision to be married, but it is the officiate’s pronouncement that they become husband and wife that makes them so. The pronouncement itself is the actual speech that produces the union, and the rest is the context necessary for the speech act to be effective.

Over the past two decades, speech act theory has been used as a theoretical basis for many cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic studies. Achiba (2003) pointed out the importance of speech act theory for the studies of pragmatics:

According to speech act theory, speakers perform illocutionary acts by producing utterances. An illocutionary act is a particular language function performed by an utterance. That is, through their utterances speakers convey communicative intentions, such as requests, apologies, promises, advice, compliments, offers, refusals, compliments and thanking. The study of speech acts provides a useful means of relating linguistic form and communicative intent (p. 2).

Politeness and Speech Acts

Speech acts have been defined from various perspectives, and some researchers have suggested speech acts are ruled by universal principles of cooperation and politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983). As Sifianous (1992) pointed out, speech act theory is directly related to the issue of politeness. The theory of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) is a comprehensive construct for the analysis of the realization of speech acts and the various factors affecting it. For this reason, researchers from the fields of cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics have used politeness theory

(Brown and Levinson, 1987) to realize and analyze the speech act behaviors of both native and non-native speakers.

Brown and Levinson illustrated their theoretical framework with examples from three languages: Tamil from South India; Tzeltal from Chiapas, Mexico; and American and British English. Their model presumed the validity of the Cooperative Principle for the use of language proposed by Grice (1975), one of the first scholars to document how a successful conversation can occur between interlocutors. Grice (1975) described four principles or guidelines that enable speakers to communicate most effectively: quality, quantity, relation, and manner. Quality refers to being non-spurious, or speaking the truth and being sincere. Quantity refers to the amount required. Relation refers to relevance, and manner means be perspicuous or to avoid ambiguity and obscurity. Because these rules can be violated, politeness could be a source for “flouting” or deviating from these maxims. Grice assumed that his four principles are always observed in any communication.

In facilitating interactions, speakers take into account their own needs and the recipient’s wants. Politeness theory is built on the concept of *face*, first introduced by Goffman (1967) and redefined by Brown and Levinson as the “public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Face refers to an individual’s self-respect and the maintenance of self-esteem in public or private situations, such as trying to avoid embarrassing others or making them feel uncomfortable. Politeness is expressed in the actions, both linguistic and non-linguistic, that individuals perform during interactions in order to maintain their own face and that of others. The concept of face consists of both positive and negative aspects. Positive face

is concerned with people's desire that their goals, possessions, and achievements be understood, admired or liked—their wish for the approval of others. Negative face concerns people's wish that their actions be unimpeded or without territorial invasions (p. 62).

According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed for the purpose of protecting the hearer's face. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 69) noted that face-threatening acts (FTAs)—acts that infringe on the hearer's need to maintain his or her self-esteem and respect from others—are to be avoided or performed only with measures to reduce the possibility of offense. Brown and Levinson suggested the following politeness strategies:

Bald On-record: This strategy offers no effort to minimize the impact of FTAs and is commonly used by people who know each other very well, such as close friends and family.

Request:

“Clean the house!” Or “Put the coat away!”

Positive Politeness: The speaker uses this strategy to minimize psychological distance by expressing friendship and supporting the hearer's need to be respected. It is usually used between friends and in social situations where the speaker and hearer know each other fairly well. It usually tries to minimize the distance between them by expressing friendliness and solid interest in the hearer's need to be respected (to minimize the FTA).

Attend to the hearer:

“You must be hungry; it's been a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?”

Negative Politeness: This strategy assumes imposition on the hearer and intrusion into his or her space; therefore, it assumes the presence of social distance or awkwardness.

Minimize imposition:

"I just want to check if I can borrow your car for a couple of days."

Off-Recorder: This category refers to indirect strategies that remove the speaker from any imposition.

Hints:

“It's hot in here.”

Brown and Levinson also proposed the factors of distance, power, and imposition that speakers should consider when performing the face-threatening act. Distance (D) refers to “social distance” between the speaker and hearer. It is a relationship that derives from the frequency of contact and types of exchanges made between the interlocutors. Power (P) represents an asymmetrical relationship that addresses the extent to which hearers can demand acceptance of their desires at the expense of the speaker’s desire. With regard to ranking (R), situation and culture determine the rankings of impositions. Brown and Levinson claimed that D, P, and R factors are relevant, independent, and subsume all others (such as status, occupation, authority, ethnic identity, friendship and situational factors) that have a principled effect on the performance of face-threatening acts.

Requests

Speech acts fall into many subcategories, including apologies, requests, suggestions, greetings, compliments, and many more. The study of pragmatics often analyzes utterances in terms of specific speech acts. The act of requesting—the focus of pragmatic instruction in this study—has been one of the most-studied speech acts. Trosborg (1994) defined requesting as an “impositive” speech act because it imposes on the hearer. “A request is 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” (Trosborg, 1994, p. 187).

Blum-Kulka (1991, p. 256) defines requests as “pre-event acts, intended to affect the hearer’s behaviors;” under this perspective, “an effective request is one for which the hearer recognizes the speaker’s intent,” and understands what he or she is supposed to do. Requests express speakers’ expectation towards some prospective verbal or non-verbal action, on the part of the hearer (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Furthermore, a request is a pre-event act because the desired result takes place after the request is performed.

Requests are considered face-threatening acts for both the requestee, whose freedom of action can be impeded, and for the requester, who runs the risk of losing face if the requestee does not comply.

A speaker who requests something of a hearer intends to accomplish one or more of four possible goals: action, goods, information, and permission (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). For example, a speaker may ask a hearer to perform some action (e.g., “Would you please open the window?”). Requesting goods is used when a speaker desires a hearer to transfer a material item or items (e.g., “Can I borrow your computer?”). A

request for information is different from a request for goods because the speaker is asking for verbal information (e.g., “Do you know where the mall is?”). The request for permission is used when a speaker requests the hearer to approve an action (e.g., “Can I take a day off?”).

Requestors should decide whether the goal of the request is appropriate according to prevalent social norms to prevent miscommunication. The ability to choose an appropriate request requires language learners to be familiar with the sociocultural norms of the target language community. Even L2 learners with advanced language proficiency may use an inappropriate request goal if they have not acquired the sociocultural norms of the target language community. Kim (1996) illustrated the necessity of language learners’ acquisition of sociocultural norms of the target language community for successful L2 communication in this way:

Nonnative English speaker: Could you please send the package for me?

Native English speaker: Not a problem. I have some errands to do myself at the post office today anyway.

Nonnative English speaker: I am terribly sorry. I wouldn’t ask you this if I wasn’t so busy.

In Kim’s example, the utterance of “I am terribly sorry” by the non-native English speaker is not appropriate. An expression such as “thank you” would be more appropriate under the target language norms. Many factors contribute to a non-native English speaker’s use of “thank you,” including L2 proficiency, the recognition of status between communication interlocutors, and his or her experience in the target language community. Experience in the target community provides language learners with opportunities for

exposure to L2 pragmatic input and for encounters with native speakers' use of appropriate responses.

Review of Studies Focusing on Requests

Schmidt's (1983) three-year longitudinal study of the acquisition of English by a Japanese artist was an early study of pragmatic development. Wes, the subject, lived in Hawaii. Schmidt found that Wes used a limited range of unanalyzed request formulas at the beginning stage of his linguistic development. He also used a requestive marker such as "please" as a politeness marker. Schmidt also found that Wes transferred Japanese sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic norms into L2 English. Schmidt found that Wes underwent important development after living in Hawaii for three years. First, Wes no longer used progressive forms of the directive function, and increased his use of imperatives. In addition, Wes's use of requests became more elaborate and occurred in longer utterances. On the other hand, Schmidt also found that Wes's use of requests still included some non-native features, such as the use of "Can I —?" (e.g., "Can I bring cigarette?" to convey the request of "Can you bring me the cigarette?").

Ellis (1992) conducted a two-year study of requests from two beginning learners of English, a 10-year-old Portuguese boy and an 11-year-old Pakistani boy in classroom settings. Ellis found that the boys used direct requests more than all other directives. Conventionally indirect request forms (e.g., "Can I —?") also appeared in their use of requests. Throughout the observation period, nonconventional requests such as hints were rarely used. Additionally, the two boys failed to systematically vary their use of request types of forms according to the addressee; no distinction was made between hearers who were adult or peers. Although the boys showed some pragmatic developments such as the

use of indirect requests, Ellis pointed out that the range of request strategies these boys had achieved throughout the observation period remained more restricted than those of adult native speakers. Ellis suggested two explanations for this limited development. First, Ellis claimed that the two young learners were still in the process of acquiring the pragmatic and linguistic knowledge needed to perform requests in an ESL setting. Second, he suggested that the boys did not feel the need to use elaborate request strategies since they were in classroom settings and knew each other very well. However, the findings from the study suggest that studies with adults in ESL settings with baseline data are needed to better understand the final achievement of request strategies.

A study by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) examined how foreign graduate students in an American university developed negotiation skills with their academic advisers over time. They pointed out that NNSs performed more rejections of adviser suggestions than did the NS students. NNSs more frequently used rejections than NSs, perhaps because NNSs left course suggestions to their advisers and then reacted to them, whereas NSs were more likely to initiate course suggestions that led to fewer rejections by NSs. These different approaches to course suggestions indicated that even NNSs with high L2 proficiency, they still faced the challenge to use appropriate form according to the sociocultural norms of using suggestions in an American academic setting. In addition, NNSs were also found to use inappropriate excuses for rejecting their academic advisers' suggestions, saying that the course was either too easy or too difficult. The findings imply that high L2 proficiency alone is not sufficient for the development of pragmatic competence for NNSs, and that even advanced language proficiency does not necessarily bring an adequate level of pragmatic competence.

Hill (1997) studied how 60 Japanese learners of English developed request strategies according to differing L2 proficiency levels. The findings suggest that learners in low proficiency groups tended to rely on direct requests, and used fewer direct requests as their L2 proficiency increased.

In summary, the studies reviewed above suggest that mastery of L2 pragmatic competence by NNSs is complicated and challenging. Language learners with advanced L2 proficiency still face the challenge of using appropriate forms of a certain target community, which implies that language learners with advanced L2 proficiency may not automatically possess corresponding levels of pragmatic competence. The following section reviews studies of the effects of instruction on pragmatic development. Examining the effects of instruction on pragmatic development is important given the findings that L2 proficiency alone is not sufficient for the full development of pragmatic competence in NNSs.

Review of Effects of Instruction on Pragmatic Development

Research into methods of pragmatic instruction has mainly been divided into two categories: *explicit* teaching, or so-called *deductive* teaching, and *implicit* teaching, known as *inductive* teaching (Rose, 1997). Under the explicit teaching method, learners engage in metapragmatic activities that focus on the features of the target language. The implicit teaching method does not provide this opportunity. As discussed in the previous section, there is a demonstrated need for pragmatics instruction in foreign-language classrooms, and research shows that target features are most effectively learned when part of explicit metapragmatic information. Explicit pedagogical intervention is thus

considered one of the ways in which L2 learners can most efficiently develop pragmatic competence.

Several studies have examined the effect of instructional intervention in the development of pragmatic knowledge. These studies have covered pragmatic fluency (House, 1996), pragmatic routines (Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Wildner-Bassett, 1994), conversation closing (Bardolvi-Harlig et al., 1991), apologies (Eslami, 2005; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990), compliments (Billmyer, 1990; Rose and Kwai-fun, 2001), conversational implicature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995) and requests (Eslami, et al., 2004; Rose, 1994; Fukuya, 1998). Most of these studies found a positive impact on language learners' pragmatic knowledge, which supports the hypothesis that pragmatic ability can be enhanced or developed through systematic planned classroom activities.

Billmyer's (1990) study on the effects of instruction on compliment and compliment responses by adult Japanese females was among the earliest of interventional studies. Billmyer's goal was to address gaps by non-native speakers in communicating appropriately at advanced levels. The participants, all at the advanced levels of English language competence, were divided into two groups. One group received six hours of explicit instruction on English compliments in their ESL courses, and the other was a control group that did not receive this instruction. The study found that learners who received the instruction offered a greater number of compliments and made more spontaneous compliments than members of the control group, who complimented mostly in response to the task or their conversation partner's inducement. In addition, those who received the instruction used a more diverse inventory of adjectives and used more deflection strategies characteristic of native speakers when responding to compliments.

Billmyer concluded that the instruction on English compliments and compliment response effectively enabled the learners to formulate more appropriate speech act functions based on the norms of native English speakers.

Lyster (1994) examined instruction given on the sociolinguistic use of language in Grade 8 French immersion classes. Citing previous studies on the language learning of immersion students, Lyster (1994) hypothesized that despite years of input and opportunities to interact using the target language, the sociolinguistic competence of these learners—defined as “the ability to recognize and produce socially appropriate language in context” (p. 263)—continued to be comparable to that of non-native speakers. In his investigation, Lyster examined the use of the French *tu/vous* in formal and informal contexts for both oral and written tasks. The learners had opportunities to practice using formal and informal registers of French in role-playing exercises and in writing letters of request or invitation to different individuals. Lyster’s study had three groups and a control group consisting of two classes at the same level. The study found that the learners in the treatment classes significantly improved their ability to use the formal *vous* when required in written and oral communication. The participants also increased their awareness of the sociostylistic distinctions in the target language by demonstrating knowledge about the appropriateness of particular utterances in different contexts. Lyster found out that making immersion students aware of sociolinguistic aspects of French and providing contextualized practice in the classroom led to more socially appropriate uses of the target language.

House (1996) examined the teaching of conversational routines in English communication courses for advanced learners. She compared the effects of implicit and

explicit teaching techniques on the acquisition of various linguistic devices to manage interactions such as gambits, greetings, and discourse strategies as a measure of pragmatic proficiency. Participants in the explicit group received metapragmatic information about the conversational routines and their uses. In contrast, participants in the implicit group did not receive explanations of the pragmatic rules. House found that participants in both treatment groups improved their fluency in terms of initiating and changing topics. However, participants in the explicit group demonstrated a wider array of strategies for rejecting a previous request. Despite these gains, both groups continued to have problems responding appropriately during conversations. Thus, House suggested that the classroom environment and the length of the course may not have provided sufficient input and practice to internalize the pragmatic knowledge.

Tateyama et al. (1997) examined the teaching of the functions of routines formula—*sumimasen*—and other similar routine expressions in request strategies. Participants were 27 students enrolled in a Japanese 102 class at university level. The students received two treatments—explicit teaching and implicit teaching. Students in the group that received explicit teaching were taught the use of *sumimasen* and other similar routine expressions used in request strategies and viewed a short video containing the target features. They also received handouts that explained the differences in usage of the routine formulas according to social contexts. Students in the implicit teaching group did not engage in any of the explicit metapragmatic activities, but twice watched the same video clips that were shown to the explicit teaching group once. The results indicated an advantage for the explicit teaching group. Students who received explicit teaching

performed better than those in the implicit teaching group in terms of multiple-choice tests and role-playing exercises.

Takahashi (2001) studied the role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence and learning request strategies. In her study, input was enhanced by classroom tasks intended to make the learners focus on the target strategies in a particular way. Four input conditions were set up: explicit teaching, form-comparison, form-search, and meaning-focused. These differed in degree of input enhancement, with the explicit teaching condition demonstrating the highest degree of input enhancement and the meaning-focused condition the least. Participants were 138 Japanese college students who had received between seven and ten years of formal classroom instruction in English. The results of a quasi-experimental pretest/posttest indicated that the students in the explicit teaching group showed greater use of the target forms than those in the other three groups. The results supported the hypothesis that the degree of input enhancement affects the learning of target request strategies and suggested that the target pragmatic features were most effectively learned when a relatively high degree of input enhancement was realized with explicit teaching on pragmatics.

Eslami et al. (2004) explored the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the comprehension of advanced EFL students of the speech acts of requesting, apologizing, and complaining. Classroom activities included teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping, role playing, and other pragmatically oriented tasks that promoted learning of the intended speech acts. Participants were Iranian undergraduate students in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, with a group of American students that provided the baseline. This study applied the pre-post control group design. The

results indicated that students' speech act comprehension improved significantly, supporting the claim that explicit metapragmatic instruction facilitates interlanguage pragmatic development.

In their study, Koike and Pearson (2005) examined the effectiveness of teaching pragmatic information through explicit or implicit pre-instruction, and explicit or implicit feedback to Spanish-language learners. The participants were 99 adult native speakers of English; 67 were in the treatment groups and 32 were in the control groups. Results on the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest indicated that students who were in the explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback groups performed significantly better than the other experimental group and the control group in multiple choice items. Students who received implicit instruction with implicit feedback performed better in the open-ended dialogues. In addition, the two posttests indicated that the groups that receive instruction or feedback, whether explicit or implicit, appeared to become aware of a greater number of options to express suggestions than the control group. Findings from the study indicated a positive impact of pragmatic instruction in developing language learners' pragmatic competence.

Results of the above studies strongly support the need of pragmatics instruction in language classrooms and provide ample evidence for the benefits of instruction in pragmatics. The findings also suggest that explicit teaching of pragmatics rules to NNSs is more effective than mere exposure to the target language.

Technology and Language Instruction

The technology revolution has provided another means of facilitating second language teaching and learning and made the application of technology in language learning commonplace. As technology has advanced, computers have become more accessible to both individuals and schools. As a result, cross-cultural on-line learning has emerged rapidly despite the barriers of culture, languages, and geography.

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is interaction via telecommunications (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003), specifically, the exchange of ideas, thoughts, and information among people through networked computers. The senders and receivers of messages interact with each other by sending and receiving text or graphics on computer screens (Lewis, Whitaker, and Julian, 1995). The two most common applications of CMC are computer conferencing (Holmberg, 1989; Haag, 1995; Lewis et al., 1995; Paulsen, 1995) and electronic mail (e-mail). E-mail interaction supports asynchronous communication while computer conferencing allows for both asynchronous and synchronous interactions.

Over the past two decades, computers have become common instructional tools in ESL/EFL classrooms. Previous research suggests that applying CMC into classrooms can facilitate communication (Cooper and Selfe, 1990), reduce anxiety (Kern, 1995; Sullivan, 1993), increase oral discussion (Sullivan and Pratt, 1996), enhance motivation (Warschauer, 1996), improve writing skills (Cohen and Riel, 1989; Cononelos and Oliva, 1993), shape foreign language pragmatics learning and use (Belz, 2002), and develop connections between writing and thinking (Warschauer, Turbee, and Roberts, 1996).

Benefits of CMC

Realizing the potentials of computer technology, educators have become increasingly interested in using computers as a tool for foreign-language teaching. One of the most important reasons that on-line learning has received attention from second language professionals is that it enables students to have meaningful and authentic exchanges in the target language. CMC has become an emphasis in recent language movements in part because it promotes equal participation in the classroom (Chun, 1994; Sullivan and Pratt, 1996).

The most widely acclaimed benefits of CMC are that it allows more equal and increased participation than regular face-to-face classroom-based activities (Blake, 2000; Bump, 1990; Cahil and Catanzaro, 1997; Chun, 1994; Sullivan and Pratt, 1999; Warschauer, 1996), positive attitudes (Beauvois, 1994), greater student empowerment with decreased teacher control and dominance (Kern, 1995; Sullivan and Pratt, 1996) and a wider variety of discourse functions and interactional modifications (Chun, 1994; Sotillo, 2000). In addition, CMC also increases individualized instruction, better meeting the needs of diverse students. Unlike other computer-assisted language learning applications, CMC seems to promote meaningful human interaction that can foster the learning process. Advocates claim that CMC can be an excellent medium for cultivating social relationships within or across classrooms, resulting in collaborative, meaningful, and cross-cultural interactions among members of a discourse community created in cyberspace (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003, Salaberry, 1996; Warschauer, Turbee and Roberts, 1996; Warschauer, 1997).

The pedagogical benefits of CMC as facilitated through e-mail have become one of the most commonly discussed topics in the foreign-language-learning literature (Salaberry, 1996). Language educators have pointed out the linguistic and psychological benefits of adopting e-mail in the classroom (Beauvois, 1994; Chun, 1994; Gonzalez-Bueno, 1998; Gonzalez-Bueno and Perez, 2000; Kern, 1995; Sullivan and Pratt, 1996; Van Handle and Corl, 1998; Warschauer, 1996). Cifuentes and Shih (2003) further emphasized that CMC provides an authentic context for learning functional abilities when EFL learners interact with English-as-a-first-language speakers. When provided with explicit instruction on how to communicate in the virtual environment, CMC might benefit intercultural teaching and learning.

Computer Conferencing System

Computer conferencing systems allow users to send messages to multiple users. These systems can have asynchronous or synchronous settings, meaning that communication can occur one-way only or through simultaneous two-way interactions. Bates (1995, p. 125) states that “users can create sub-conferences so different topics of discussion can be addressed or differentiated.”

Electronic Mail

The implementation of technology has meant that electronic mail (e-mail) use is just as common (if not more so) than traditional postal mail (Shih, 2000). People use e-mail for everyday communication as well as instruction. With proper equipment and access, users can send messages from their electronic mailboxes and receive responses in a similar manner (Bates, 1995). Paulsen (1995) characterized e-mail as a technology appropriate for individual teaching and learning. In addition, Tao (1995) surmised that

learners using e-mail are influenced by the cognitive, social, and affective aspects of their exchanges. Users are motivated to practice reflective thinking and increase their social interactions with people in the same or a different culture due to the equalizing effect of technology. As Shih (2000, p. 35) stated, “the equalizing effect is the way telecommunication technologies encourage equal participation of users.” Shih and Cifuentes (2000) examined the use of telecommunication by Taiwanese students learning the English language and American culture through on-line technologies. Participants were 40 Taiwanese students who were majoring in English and 40 American preservice teachers. Students engaged in e-mail correspondences and Web-board discussions. Results indicated that the Taiwanese participants were positive about on-line English learning and intercultural communication after the experience.

The literature includes a number of studies that incorporate e-mail exchanges into research design (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003; Hellebrandt, 1999; Kost, 1999; Kroonenberg, 1995; Nelson and Oliver, 1999; Shih and Cifuentes, 2000). E-mail discussion by pairs has gained a great deal of attention in second- or foreign-language teaching because it enables students to have meaningful and authentic conversations with speakers of the target language (Warchauer, 1996). This type of computer-mediated communication enables learners to have equal participation in the classroom (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003; Chun, 1994; Sullivan and Pratt, 1996). In addition, it has been shown that e-mail has the unique feature of providing students exposure to authentic, culture-laden contexts through their interactions with speakers of the target language (Hellebrandt, 1999). For example, e-mail was reported to facilitate “very realistic form(s) of communication because it is a real communication about real, relevant topics with real people”

(Kroonenberg, p. 24). Because CMC is now widely used, it is essential to understand the issues involved with cross-cultural learning. According to researchers (Cifuentes and Shih, 2003; Warschauer, 1997; Warschauer, Turbee and Roberts, 1996), cross-cultural on-line learning experiences give students from vastly different background the opportunity to interact and learn at the same time. It also provides second-language learners the authentic environment required in the acquisition of the target language, and cultural knowledge through on-line interaction and communication.

Applying Pedagogy and Design Principles in CMC Settings

Designing pedagogically effective computer-assisted language learning activities has been a concern. Hoven (1999) proposed an instructional design model based on the sociocultural theory for multimedia listening and viewing comprehension. Watts (1997) suggested a learner-based design model that focuses on the goals and needs of learners, rather than on the technology itself. Hemard (1997) presented some design principles for creating hypermedia authoring applications, including “knowing and appreciating the intended users’ needs,” providing a “user-task match,” and “providing easy error – solving devices” (p. 15). He recommends considering such factors as technical compatibility, the authoring task, and interface requirements when creating hypermedia language applications. Later, Chapelle (1998) suggested seven criteria for developing multimedia computer-assisted language learning (CALL) based on second language acquisition theory:

1. making key linguistic characteristic salient
2. offering modifications of linguistic input
3. providing opportunities for comprehension output

4. providing opportunities for learners to notice their errors
5. providing opportunities for learners to correct their linguistic output
6. supporting modification interaction between the learner and the computer
7. acting as a participant in second-language learning tasks

Technology and Pragmatics

Research on computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has focused on pedagogical and structural issues (Warchauer, 1997; Warchauer and Kern, 2000). This research has taken the form of narrative accounts of the successful integration of technology into culture and language curriculums and descriptive characterizations of computer-mediated communication at the international level (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995; Sotillo, 2000). Research in this area has not yet examined the cultural, historical, or social dimensions of language learners engaged in CALL activities (Chapelle, 2000). The fields of foreign-language learning and teaching have neither advocated nor presented linguistically critical interpretations of the development of intercultural competence in telecommunication (Belz, 2002).

Belz (2002) explored the socio-institutional dimensions of a German-American telecollaboration and the ways in which these collaborations may shape foreign-language learning and use. According to Belz, telecollaborative partnerships are particularly productive sites for the examination of social aspects of foreign-language study because they entail tight sociocultural and institutional interfaces. She applied the multi-strategy methodology of social realistic investigation to the situated activity of the German-American telecollaboration to college data on learning and language use that was as rich as possible. The participants were students enrolled in a teacher education program in

Germany and students enrolled in German Conversation and Composition at Penn State University. Participants interacted using e-mail, synchronous chat, and Web-based information exchange. They collaboratively engaged in a series of tasks for the purpose of developing foreign-language competence and intercultural awareness. The results indicated that telecollaborative foreign-language study is a complex and multifaceted social action that is “shaped by an intricate inter-relationship of social and institutional affordances and constraints, aspects of individual psycho-biography, as well as language and computer socialization experiences and particular power relationships” (Belz, 2002, p. 73).

Belz and Kinginger (2003) in another study presented a detailed look at the development of intercultural competence in a German-American e-mail partnership by examining the electronic exchange produced from on-line communication within the framework of appraisal theory. Three participants were selected for data analysis. The findings suggest that the teacher can play the important role of moderator in telecollaborations in classroom settings. In contrast to face-to-face classroom-based learning, “the teacher in telecollaboration must be prepared and educated to identify, explain, and model culturally-contingent patterns of interaction in the absence of paralinguistic meaning signals, otherwise it may be the case that civilizations ultimately do clash-in the empirical details of their computer-mediated talk” (p. 93).

Review of Literature on Language Learners’ Perceptions

Regardless of whether including pragmatics in language learning contexts is considered effective, and essential to language teaching, reports on its implementation have not been widely studied from the learners’ view. As Savignon asserted (1997:107),

“if all the variables in L2 acquisition could be identified and the many intricate patterns of interaction between learner and learning context described, ultimate success in learning to use a second language most likely would be seen to depend on the attitude of the learner.” Learners’ view cannot be ignored in order to achieve the learning target.

Some studies use different instruments or interviews to investigate learners’ attitudes and beliefs about language learning (Bacon and Finnemann, 1990; Gaies, 1999; Gaies, Galambos and Cornish, 1999; Wen and Johnson, 1997). However, most look at learners’ perceptions and views about language learning in general; few focus on learners’ perceptions and views about instructional practice in particular, especially in pragmatics. In a learner-centered approach, learners have the major role in the teaching-learning process, which can result in the promotion of their interests and preferences toward language learning (Makavora, 1997). Rifkin (2000) pointed out that learners’ beliefs about the learning process are “of critical importance to the success or failure of any student’s efforts to master a foreign language” (p.394). Nunan (1993) identified the involvement of learners in making meaning with both their teacher and their peers as a key factor in determine success.

The lack of studies of learners’ perceptions might stem from the lack of research instruments for investigating learners’ perceptions. Horwits (1988) developed a questionnaire called “The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory” (BALLI) to assess language learners’ opinions on various issues and aspects of language learning. While BALLI has been a useful tool to enable researchers to understand a broad picture of the learners’ beliefs about language learning in general, it does not assess the learners’ beliefs about the learning process or instructional practice in particular.

Yorio (1986) investigated students' beliefs about the efficacy of various aspects of language instruction by conducting a series of surveys of Intensive English language learners at the University of Toronto's Continuing Studies Program. Learners showed contradictory beliefs about language learning, indicating that they preferred language courses that stressed communicative competence, yet they are reluctant to depart from language instruction using traditional language teaching techniques.

In their study, Abraham and Vann (1987) suggested that language learners' perceptions might affect language learning outcomes. While two learners had the same beliefs about language learning in many areas such as the importance of active class participation and extending English learning outside the classroom, they had different beliefs about the necessity of conscious attention to grammar and about topic avoidance as a way to communicate better. At the end of semester, one student performed better in TOEFL but performed worse in spoken English, while the other student did the opposite. The researcher concluded that different views about language learning resulted in different outcomes.

Kumaravadivelu (1991) compared teachers' intentions and ESL students' interpretations of a skill-integrative task and found ten potential sources of teacher and student mismatches. In a similar study, MaCargar (1993) investigated ESL students' and teachers' expectations concerning their respective roles in language learning. He found that differences existed not only between students' cultural backgrounds but also between the students and American ESL teachers in most expectation categories. Another study (Nunan, 1993) compared learning preferences of teachers and learners in the Australian Adult Migrant Education Program. Significant differences between learners' and

teachers' priority rating of eight instructional components were found. Learners and teachers were in contrast in three areas in terms of error correction, student self-discovery of errors, and pair work. Kern (1995) studied first-year French students and their teachers in two different institutions to measure the degree of variation in beliefs about language learning within and across the institutions and to identify the potential differences in students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. He found out that the type of analysis significantly affected results; goal analysis of group means and percentages showed no significant differences between teachers' and students' beliefs as well as between students' pretest and posttest responses, but analysis of individuals and course section groups showed greater differences. He pointed out that multivariate research designs are needed to enable us to better understand the complex relationship between students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning.

Summary

As this review of the literature indicates, the development of pragmatic competence plays a significant role in the learning of a second or foreign language. In addition, there is a need for including instruction on pragmatics in language learning settings. Findings from studies exploring the development of pragmatic knowledge and pragmatic ability in a second or foreign language were also taken into consideration in the documentation of the facilitative role of explicit instruction in pragmatics, especially in the EFL classroom, where opportunities for developing target language pragmatic competence is limited. In addition, realizing the potential benefits of computer technology and CMC, educators have become increasingly interested in their use in

foreign-language teaching. Studies conducted by educators also suggest the potential uses of CMC in teaching pragmatics to language learners.

Based on the literature, we know that even advanced L2 proficiency learners still face challenges in using the appropriate forms while performing speech acts. Similarly, the opportunities for EFL learners to develop pragmatic competence are limited, creating a need for including explicit instruction on pragmatics in language learning settings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The present study investigated the effectiveness of different delivery systems for teacher instruction and CMC in the teaching of pragmatics. The impact of teaching pragmatics by teacher instruction, e-mail, and WebCT discussion on Taiwanese EFL learners' pragmatic competence was explored. The relative effectiveness of learning pragmatics through in-class activities was compared to delivery via telecommunications. Data collected in school settings were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. This chapter describes the participants, the research design and procedure, and the instruments used to collect the data.

Participants

The original sample selected to participate in this study was 130 undergraduate students majoring in English as a foreign language (EFL) from Ching-Yun University in Taiwan and 22 graduate students in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language at Texas A&M University. However, several participants were absent for part of the treatment or for the pretest or posttest. Therefore, the final sample was made up of 118 Taiwanese undergraduate students and 22 graduate students. The Taiwanese students belonged to three intact classes and were enrolled in the class "English for Tourism." Because of institutional constraints, it was not possible to assign students randomly to different groups, thus making it necessary to work with three intact groups. In an effort to determine English-language proficiency equivalence in the three groups, the General English Comprehension Test was given to the 118 participants.

The three groups were: (1) the control group, which received no explicit instruction on pragmatics but had instructor-led lessons from the textbooks; (2) the experimental/Teacher Instruction (TI) group, which learned pragmatics in a face-to-face classroom setting with explicit instruction on pragmatics from the instructor; and (3) the experimental/computer-mediated communication (CMC) group, which learned pragmatics explicitly through CMC (e-mail and WebCT discussion) with partners at Texas A&M University. There were 40 Taiwanese students in the control group, 36 Taiwanese students in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group, and 42 Taiwanese students in the experimental/CMC group. Treatment types (Control/TI/CMC) were randomly assigned to the intact classes.

Prior to this study, participants were given consent forms that had been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Texas A&M University. All participants' class productions, including their general English comprehension scores, e-mail correspondence, and pretest and posttest scores on the Discourse Completion Task (DCT), were coded and collected. The identities of the students were confidential and only the researcher had access to the data. The participants' and teachers' consent forms were obtained prior to the study (See Appendixes A and B).

Characteristics of the Participants

The results from the demographic survey indicated that the Taiwanese participants shared basic demographic characteristics. Their first language was Mandarin, and their field of study was EFL. The students were in their third year of college-level English at the university and ranged from 20 to 25 years in age. The majority of the

participants were female. They had received between seven and 12 years of formal English-language classroom instruction in Taiwan.

Table 1 summarizes characteristics of the participants based on the frequency counts for the variables, gender, age, and years of formal English instruction.

Table 1

Characteristics of the Taiwanese Participants

	Control Group (<u>n</u> = 40)	Experimental- TI Group (<u>n</u> = 36)	Experimental- CMC Group (<u>n</u> = 42)
Gender			
Male	5	8	7
Female	35	28	35
Age			
20	5	15	17
21	18	9	15
22	9	9	7
23	5	1	3
24	1	0	0
25	2	2	0
Average age (years)	21.62	20.97	20.93
Year of formal English instruction			
7	3	10	4
8	3	6	9
9	8	11	16
10	13	5	11
11	8	2	1
12	5	2	1
Average instruction (years)	9.32	9.03	9.16

Five members of the control group were male and 35 were female. Their average age was 21.62 years. The average amount of formal English-language instruction was 9.62 years.

In the Experimental/TI group, eight were male and 28 were female. The average age for this group was 20.97 years. The average amount of formal English-language instruction for this group was 9.03 years.

In the experimental/CMC group, seven were male and 35 were female. The average age for this group was 20.93 years. The average amount of formal English-language instruction for this group was 9.16 years.

Chi-square tests were conducted for the comparison among groups in terms of gender, age, and years of formal English language instruction. The results showed no significant difference among the proportion of male and female students in the three groups, $p = 0.142$. In addition, no difference was found among the proportion of Taiwanese participants with different ages in the three groups, $p = 0.142$. Moreover, there was no significant difference among the Taiwanese participants regarding years of formal instruction in the three groups, $p = 0.305$. Finally, the results showed that the three groups did not differ significantly in the performance of the General English Comprehension Test ($F = .91$, $df = 2$, $p = .89$).

Research Design and Procedure

Design

This research adopted a quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest design (pretest—treatment—posttest). Open-ended discourse completion tests (DCT) were used to collect the primary data in the pretest and posttest sessions. The independent variable was the

treatment with three different levels and the dependent variable was students' DCT productions.

Figure 1 illustrates the research design. The study lasted for ten weeks. Participants in the control group did not receive any instruction on pragmatics. Participants in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group received explicit instruction on pragmatics from their instructor in Taiwan. Participants in the experimental/CMC group received explicit instruction on pragmatics through their partners in Texas. After the ten weeks of treatments, participants were given a DCT posttest to measure their pragmatic competence. Finally, participants in the experimental/CM group were surveyed to determine their perceptions of learning pragmatics through on-line partnerships and on-line communication.

This research intended to answer the following research questions:

1. Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) have a positive effect on the EFL learners' pragmatic competence in terms of four components: speech acts, information, expression and politeness?
2. Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) through computer-mediated communication (CMC) have a positive effect on the EFL learners' pragmatic competence in terms of four components: speech acts, information, expression and politeness?
3. What is the relative effect of on-line (CMC) EATSA as compared to in-classroom (face-to-face) EATSA?

4. What is the order of difficulty for learning the four components (speech acts, information, expression and politeness) in face to face and CMC conditions?
5. How do Taiwanese students perceive the experience of learning pragmatics on-line with their Texan partners?

The first and second research questions concerned the effectiveness of pragmatics instruction on the development of Taiwanese EFL college students' pragmatic competence. The researcher answered the questions by examining the Taiwanese EFL college learners' pragmatic productions used in learners' pretest and posttest DCT situations. With respect to the first and second research questions, it was hypothesized that Taiwanese EFL learners would display a positive effect of pragmatic development in their DCT performance.

The third research question investigated whether Taiwanese EFL learners' pragmatic competence differed based on delivery system (teacher instruction, e-mail, and WebCT discussion).

The fourth research question sought to determine whether there was an order of difficulty among components in terms of pragmatic competence development.

The fifth research question investigated how Taiwanese perceive their on-line learning experience with their partners, and sought to determine the views and perceptions of the learners.

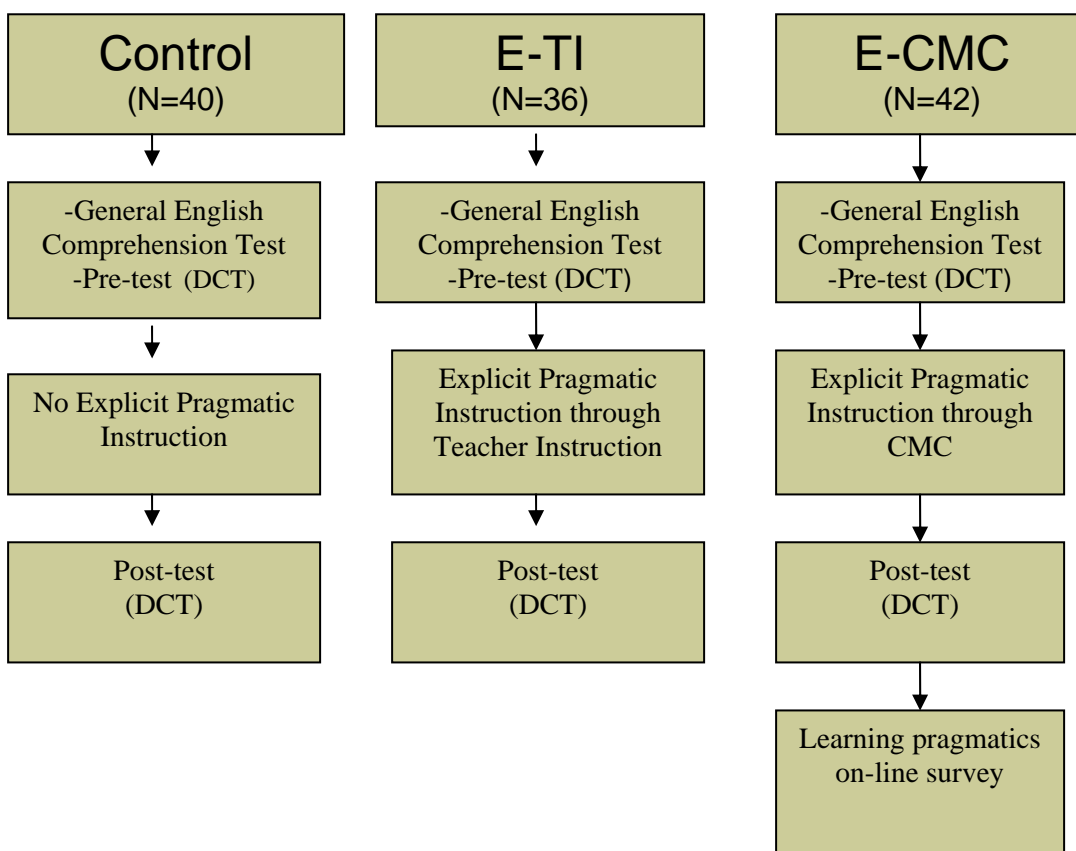


Figure 1. Research Design

Treatment Materials and Procedures

Prior to the treatment, the researcher met with the instructor of the Taiwanese participants to make sure that treatment materials and the research procedure were clear and feasible in the classroom setting. The Taiwanese students were in three intact classes, which the researcher randomly assigned to be the control group, experimental/TI group and experimental/CMC group. All participants in the experimental groups received the treatment as part of their curricular activity during regular class periods.

The 42 Taiwanese participants in the experimental/CMC group received a WebCT workshop during their first meeting to become familiar with this software. They

were each given a username and were informed that they had a partner in Texas with whom they would be required to have weekly on-line communication. Participants learned how to log onto WebCT and participate in group discussions.

During the ten-week duration of this study, all 118 Taiwanese participants met once a week for 100 minutes. At the beginning of each class, the professor in Taiwan spent 15 minutes dealing with class management and student affairs issues. Because the 118 Taiwanese participants were enrolled in an “English for Tourism” class, participants in all three groups were engaged in the warm-up tasks of watching a short English-language film about tourism for about 15 minutes, followed by the instructors’ 20-minute explanation of the film. Each week, the instructor taught one unit from the textbook *At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry*.

During the remaining 50 minutes of class, participants in the control group did not engage in any explicit pragmatics activities. Instead, the instructor lectured for about 30 minutes on learning tourism in English using the teacher’s manual as a guide, followed by 20 minutes of summary and discussion. During the 30 minutes of lecture, students interacted with the instructor through questions and answers. Additionally, students had small group conversations with their peers during the 20 minutes of summary and discussion. Students practiced using English through writing, listening, reading, and classroom discussions (See Appendix C).

The participants in the experimental groups (TI and CMC) were given explicit instruction on pragmatics during the remaining 50 minutes of each class session, with a focus on learning “request” features. Each group used identical Web-based content that the researcher developed based on the ten-week lesson plan (Appendix D).

The five components used in this study were explicitly taught to those in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and experimental/CMC group: (1) *Motivation*, in which teachers tried to impel the learners to focus on the activities. For instance, teachers provided examples of miscommunication to motivate students to learn pragmatics and concentrate on the activities that followed. The goal was to make learners interested in thinking about speech acts and issues related to language use. (2) *Form search*, in which teachers provided examples that addressed the intended speech act of requesting and asked learners to find examples from the available resources of textbooks, movies, videotapes, conversations, dialogues, and so on. The goal was to help learners become aware of contexts where “requesting” occurred. (3) *Form comparison*, in which learners compared their own pragmatic production to that of native English speakers. The goal was to illustrate how speech acts are realized by language learners, how cultural norms dictate the use of speech acts, and why it could be challenging for second-language learners to appropriately use speech acts in different cultural contexts. (4) *Form analysis*, in which teachers explained various uses of the speech act of requesting and identified the forms used in different communicative contexts. Learners were asked to identify social variables in these contexts and judge the appropriateness of usage. The goal was to provide learners the opportunity to identify the use of “requesting” in different contexts and to learn how to use the speech act appropriately. (5) *The use of speech act*, in which teachers provided examples of DCT situations to which learners responded. The goal was to help learners reflect on what they had learned from the classroom activities.

The researcher designed ten weeks of lesson plans and gave them to the teacher in Taiwan and to graduate students at Texas A&M University as a guide to deliver EATSA

(see Appendix D) as well as supplemental materials developed by Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig and Rebecca Mahan-Taylor that featured additional examples.

The graduate students at Texas A&M University delivered ten weeks of lesson plans to their partners in Taiwan through e-mail correspondence and WebCT discussions. Participants in the CMC group, including the graduate students at Texas A&M University, were required to submit at least two e-mails to their partners per week and to participate in the WebCT discussion when questions were posted. The Taiwanese students in the CMC group interacted with their partners in the United States from the computer labs at Ching-Yun University. The graduate students at Texas A&M University were each assigned two or three Taiwanese partners.

Participation Check

Each week, the researcher communicated via e-mail with the 22 graduate students at Texas A&M University regarding their correspondences to ensure that the instruction and communication were sustained.

Timetable

The activities addressed in the lesson plans are outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

Activities Table

Week	Dates	Activity Topics	WebCT discussions
1	9/26-10/02	Motivation	
2	10/03-10/09	Form Search	
3	10/10-10/16	Form Comparison	
4	10/17-10/23	Form Analysis	Web connection 1
5	10/24-10/30	Use of Speech Acts	
6	10/31-11/06	Form Search/Form Analysis	
7	11/07-11/13	Motivation/Form Comparison	
8	11/14-11/20	Form Search/Use of Speech Acts	Web connection 2
9	11/21-11/27	Motivation/Form Analysis	
10	11/28-12/04	Form Comparison/Use of Speech Acts	

WebCT Discussion Questions**Web connection Discussion 1:**

Please share with your partners within groups your favorite movies or songs and provide examples of the use of speech acts, especially “requesting,” in the various contexts.

Web connection Discussion 2:

Please share with your partners within groups the challenges, findings, and issues that you have encountered so far. What are the difficulties, frustrations, celebrations, or advantages that you have found in terms of learning requests from your partners? What do you suggest to make this connection more efficient?

Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study:

General English Comprehension Test: Because random selection of participants to groups was not possible, the General English Comprehension Test was administered to ensure the comparability of the groups in terms of language equivalence. This standardized test, used to determine the English proficiency of the Taiwanese participants,

has sections on writing, reading, listening, and speaking. A reliability coefficient of 0.769 (coefficient alpha) was obtained from the pilot study.

Students' Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics Online Survey: Student's perception of learning pragmatics online survey helped us to see how students reacted and viewed their learning experience on pragmatics through on-line discussion. This was the method for collecting feedback from the learners regarding the insights they gained from using the web-based materials and instruction. Students might share any confusion that they had experienced, the strengths and weakness of the materials with a specific focus on the utility of the speech act; any technical problems participants had encountered and suggestions for future improvements. The researcher assumed that learners' characteristics and beliefs could be accurately described or measured through self-report. The rationale for developing this survey was to understand how learners viewed this learning process. It seems that their perceptions of learning pragmatics have not been studied, and this survey sought to understand how participants in this study viewed the learning experience and classroom activities. The survey consisted of eight open-ended questions designed to elicit participants' perceptions about learning pragmatics, about on-line learning and teaching, and their experiences in the project (see Appendix E). A version also was provided in Mandarin to ensure that all participants understood the questions.

Open-ended Discourse Completion Tests (DCT): Open-ended DCT is a measure of learners' speech act performance that consists of a written speech act discourse completion task. In this study, the open-ended DCT contained 12 requesting situations (see Appendix F) to which participants responded in English. And the DCT pretest and

posttest used to measure participants' pragmatic competence in this study were the same. Some of the situations were designed by the researcher and some were adopted from Beebe and Takahashi (1989). For each situation, contextual variables such as relative social status, level of acquaintance (close, somewhat close, or distant), level of social distance, and the intensity of the act (magnitude of imposition) were manipulated. The learners' performances in each of the 12 situations were rated using a five-point scale, and the total DCT score for each learner ranged from 12 to 60. Two native-English speakers from a local middle school in the community where Texas A&M University is located rated the DCT performances. Raters were trained prior to the formal rating process.

The written DCT consisted of 12 situations that were based on three variables—power, social distance, and imposition—selected because they were identified from the research on cross-cultural pragmatics as the three independent and sensitive variables that subsume all others and play a principal role in speech act behavior (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1990). Appendix G shows the different levels of power, social distance, and imposition in the 12 situations, which consisted of six each of the following: speakers with higher power, speakers with lower power; speakers with higher social distance; speakers with lower social distance; speakers performing high-imposition task; and speakers performing a low-imposition task.

What Is the Discourse Completion Test?

The Discourse Completion Test (DCT) is widely used for data collection in interlanguage pragmatics studies. It was first introduced by Levenston (1975) as a means of assessing the English proficiency of immigrants to Canada. Subsequently, Blum-

Kulka (1982) adopted a written DCT to examine speech acts realization. A DCT consists of short dialogues that depict a variety of social situations relevant to the speech act under study. Before each dialogue, a brief description of the situation is provided. The dialogue usually begins with a statement that is followed by a blank indicating an unfinished dialogue. Participants are asked to identify the speech act under study.

Example 1 provides an example of a written DCT.

Example 1:

You are applying for a new job in a small company and have already set up the date and time for an interview. However, you missed the time and would like to reschedule the appointment. What would you say to the manager?

You: _____

Why the Discourse Completion Test?

In general, there are four types of data collection methods for pragmatic productions: spontaneous speech in natural settings, open-ended oral role play, open-ended DCT, and multiple-choice DCT. Manes and Wolfson (1981) claimed that the best approach is to collect data from spontaneous speech in natural settings when speakers were not aware of being observed. Naturally occurring speech may be ideal, but in practice it is difficult to obtain and compare across situations. In real life, a particular behavior may not occur frequently enough to allow collection of a meaningful large sampling of data, and the range of situations from which the data could be collected might be narrow. Because the variables in naturally occurring speech are complex and can only rarely be held constant to allow for comparison, speech acts observed in natural settings can be studied and analyzed only as individual cases.

Beebe and Cummings (1996) discussed the weaknesses of natural (ethnographic) data. She stated that while the weaknesses of written questionnaire data have been widely discussed, much less attention has been paid to the problems of “ethnographic” data. Ethnographic data may be natural, and natural data may be good in terms of representing spontaneous speech, but there are serious drawbacks. These data are often unsystematic, and the social characteristics of the informants are frequently unknown and unreported. Furthermore, the data are unsystematically collected and often are drawn from an undefined population.

Beebe and Cummings (1985) found several advantages of DCT. First, large amounts of data can be collected effectively and efficiently. Second, an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies in speech acts can be created and studied. Third, the necessary elements of a socially acceptable response can be studied. Fourth, insight can be gained into the social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech act performance. Fifth, the body of rules governing speech acts by speakers of a given language can be discussed. Beebe and Cummings (1985) reported the results of comparing DCT data and natural data from spontaneous telephone conversations. They concluded that the productions elicited from telephone conversations were longer, more repetitive, more elaborate, and varied more in the number and types of strategies and formulas used. However, they also found that DCT written data actually reflect the content in natural dialogue. They concluded that even though the Discourse Competition Task does not provide natural speech data, it does demonstrate the idea of the stereotypical shape of the speech act. Natural speech may reflect the real dialogue; however, it does not offer situational control despite the fact that

the situation is regarded as one of the most influential variables in speech act performance.

The DCT also meets the need of cross-linguistic research to control social variables for comparability, which allows researchers to control basic social factors such as setting, power, gender, or social status. The control context helps elicit the realization of the speech act under study, and the manipulation of social factors across situation allows researchers to investigate variation in strategies relative to social factors (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1984; Blum-Kulka, et al. 1989). These studies indicate that the written DCT is an adequate and efficient method for the present study.

Data Analysis

Raters' Training and Rating Participants' Performance on the DCT

Two native-English speakers who were middle school teachers in the community where Texas A&M University is located were trained to use the rating scale and contents and then rated participants' pre—post DCT performances. They assessed participants' pragmatic competence based on the rating system developed by Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995), which contains the following components: the ability to correctly use speech acts; expressions; the amount of information used; and politeness (see Appendix H). Participants' performances were rated on a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 to 5, and scores ranged from 12 to 60 for four components (See Appendix I). A workshop was given to the two raters before this task. Interrater correlations from the pilot study yielded an acceptable level of agreement for interrater reliability ($r > .90$).

Research Questions One, Two, and Three

The data collected from this study were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. In this study, the first three research questions (“Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Act (EATSA) have a positive effect on the EFL learners’ pragmatic competence?” “Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) through computer-mediated communication (CMC) have a positive effect on the EFL learners’ pragmatic competence?” and “What is the relative effect of on-line (CMC) EATSA as compared to in-classroom (face-to-face) EATSA?”) were tested using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with the type of “treatment” as between subject factor, and with the pretest as a covariate.

Research Question Four

A correlation analysis was performed to answer research question four: “What is the order of difficulty for learning the four components (speech acts, information, expression and politeness) in face to face and CMC conditions?”

Research Question Five

In addition, the data acquired from the survey of students’ perceptions of learning pragmatics were compiled and analyzed qualitatively using the content analyses described by Boyatzis (1998). Qualitative methods were added to this study to explore how individuals viewed their on-line learning experience about pragmatics. Thematic analysis was used to analyze the data. After analyzing the data obtained from students’ survey questionnaires, some general themes were identified during the coding process and later developed to several categories. Those specific themes and categories will be reported in Chapter IV under the qualitative analysis section. Data from the survey

provided in-depth information on how learners viewed their learning experiences on pragmatics through CMC.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter IV presents the results of the data analyses of the present study in two sections. The first is a report on the data analyses to answer the research questions from the quantitative perspective; specifically, it includes a statistical comparison of the participants' performances on the Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) posttest across different treatments and content delivery systems (face-to-face and CMC). The second section explains the data using a qualitative analysis of the results of the survey of students' perceptions of learning pragmatics. Data from the survey provide in-depth information on how the students viewed their learning experiences on pragmatics through on-line discussions.

Group Comparisons

A .05 level of significance was used in all of the statistical analyses. This study applied a pretest-posttest control group experimental design, and the independent variable was the treatment with three different levels: (1) the control group, which received no explicit pragmatics instruction; (2) the experiential teacher instruction group, which received explicit pragmatic face-to-face instruction from the classroom instructor; and (3) the experimental CMC group, which received explicit pragmatics instruction from their Texan partners through CMC (e-mail and WebCT discussions). The dependent variable was students' pragmatic competence.

Institutional constraints made the random assignment of students to the different groups impossible, thus making it necessary to work with three intact groups. In an effort to determine the English-language proficiency equivalence of the 118 participants in

Taiwan, the General English Comprehension Test was used. The statistical analysis showed that these groups did not differ significantly in the performance of the comprehension test ($F = .81, df = 2, p = .92$).

In addition, the effect size of standardized differences used in this study was estimated by the use of Cohen's d , which defines effect size as the difference between means divided by the pool within group standard deviation (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

In this study, the first three research questions—"Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) have a positive effect on the EFL learners' pragmatic competence?" "Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) through computer-mediated communication (CMC) have a positive effect on the EFL learners' pragmatic competence?" "What is the relative effect of on-line (CMC) EATSA compared to in-classroom (face-to-face) EATSA? — were tested using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), with the type of "treatment" as between subject factor, and with the pretest as a covariate. Levene's test of equality of error variances was found to be homogenous. The Shapiro-Wilk tests also showed that distributions of the scores for all groups were normal. The data met ANCOVA assumptions.

The descriptive statistical results of the DCT pretest scores by group are reported in Table 3. Each student received four scores based on his or her ability to use correct speech acts, the amount of information, expressions, and levels of politeness. There was no significant group effect for the DCT pretest; namely, the three groups did not differ in their pragmatic competence relative to these four components (speech acts, information, expression, or politeness) prior to the treatment ($F = 2.131, df = 2, p = 0.126$).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistical Results of the DCT Pretest Scores by Group

Rating Components		Groups		
		Control (N = 40)	TI (N = 36)	CMC (N = 42)
Speech act	Mean	44.43	45.50	41.38
	<u>SD</u>	5.09	5.93	4.15
Information	Mean	41.60	42.75	39.96
	<u>SD</u>	4.75	6.56	4.23
Expression	Mean	43.80	43.86	42.12
	<u>SD</u>	4.63	5.84	4.03
Politeness	Mean	42.95	44.89	41.12
	<u>SD</u>	4.90	5.32	3.95

After ten weeks of treatment, the group comparison of the DCT posttest scores was conducted. The descriptive statistics results reported the mean scores of each group (See Table 4).

The control group produced mean scores of 44.55 (SD = 3.52) in speech act, 44.63 (3.38) in information, 44.48 (SD = 4.03) in expression, and 43.90 (SD = 4.07) in politeness. The experimental/Teacher Instruction group yielded mean scores of 50.25 (SD = 4.06) in speech act, 48.75 (SD = 4.54) in information, 49.03 (SD = 4.43) in expression and 48.87 (SD = 4.07) in politeness, and the experimental/CMC group yielded mean scores of 47.79 (SD = 3.72) in speech act, 47.62 (SD = 3.92) in information, 48.92 (3.84) in expression and 47.70 (SD = 4.05) in politeness.

Comparing the mean scores yield from both pretest and posttest of the treatment groups found that the component of information improved the most in terms of mean differences (TI: 6; CMC: 7.66). On the other hand, the least improved component among the three groups was diverse; for the control group, the component of speech act tended

to improve the least (0.12); for the Teacher Instruction group, the component of politeness tended to improved the least (3.98); for the CMC group, the component of expression was found to be the least improved component in terms of mean differences (6.17). Further, we found out groups differed in terms of four components under different treatments through effect size. Under Teacher Instruction treatment, the component of speech act seems to be the most improved component with a largest effect size ($d=1.50$); and the component of information seems to be the least improved component with a smallest effect size ($d=1.04$). Under CMC treatment, the component of expression tended to have a largest effect size ($d=.97$) while the component of expression had a smallest effect size ($d=.82$).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistical Results of the DCT Posttest Scores by Group

Rating Components		Groups		
		Control (N = 40)	TI (N = 36)	CMC (N = 42)
Speech act	Mean	44.55	50.25	47.79
	<u>SD</u>	3.52	4.06	3.72
Information	Mean	44.63	48.75	47.62
	<u>SD</u>	3.38	4.54	3.92
Expression	Mean	44.48	49.03	48.29
	<u>SD</u>	4.03	4.43	3.84
Politeness	Mean	43.90	48.87	47.70
	<u>SD</u>	4.07	4.07	4.05

In addition, the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) results indicated a statistically significant main effect on the type of treatments: $F(2,114) = 30.767, p < .001$ (speech act), $F(2,114) = 15.312, p < .001$ (information), $F(2,114) = 4.709, p < .001$ (expression), F

(2,114) = 9.182, $p < .001$ (politeness). We found differences did occur among groups (see Tables 5, 6, 7, and 8)

Table 5

ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Speech Act

Source	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F	p
Covariate	451.704	1	451.704	45.852	.000
Between	606.195	2	303.097	30.767	.000
Within	1123.065	114	9.851		
Total	2180.964	117			

Table 6

ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Information

Source	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Covariate	366.722	1	366.722	29.249	.000
Between	383.959	2	191.979	15.312	.000
Within	1429.308	114	12.538		
Total	2179.989	117			

Table 7

ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Expression

Source	Sum of Square	<i>Df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Covariate	591.615	1	591.615	50.360	.000
Between	110.721	2	55.360	4.709	.001
Within	1316.640	114	11.549		
Total	2018.976	117			

Table 8

ANCOVA Summary Table for the Effects of the Type of Treatment on the DCT Posttest of Politeness

Source	Sum of Square	<i>Df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Covariate	402.683	1	402.683	32.415	.000
Between	228.133	2	114.066	9.182	.000
Within	1391.359	114	12.205		
Total	2022.175	117			

A post hoc test was performed for group comparisons. Bonferroni post hoc testing was conducted to identify whether the groups were different and, if so, which groups differed. The Bonferroni test revealed that there were two pairs of groups whose means differed in statistically significant ways from each other at the $p < .05$ level. The experimental/Teacher Instruction and the experimental/CMC groups scored significantly

higher than the control group in terms of the four rating scores (speech act, information, expression, politeness); however, there is no statistically significant difference between the experimental/Teacher Instruction and experimental/CMC groups on the means of the DCT posttest. It can be concluded that students in the experimental/Teacher Instruction groups performed as well as those in the experimental /CMC groups (see Table 9).

Table 9

Summary Table of Pairwise Group Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
Speech Act	Control	TI	-5.700	.000*
		CMC	-4.289	.000*
	TI	Control	5.700	.000*
		CMC	1.205	.292
	CMC	Control	4.289	.000*
		TI	-1.205	.292
Information	Control	TI	-4.125	.000*
		CMC	-2.994	.001*
	TI	Control	4.125	.000*
		CMC	1.131	.210
	CMC	Control	2.994	.001*
		TI	-1.131	.210
Expression	Control	TI	-4.553	.000*
		CMC	-3.811	.000*
	TI	Control	4.553	.000*
		CMC	.742	.426
	CMC	Control	3.811	.000*
		TI	-.742	.426
Politeness	Control	TI	-4.961	.000*
		CMC	-3.790	.000*
	TI	Control	4.961	.000*
		CMC	1.171	.207
	CMC	Control	3.790	.000*
		TI	-1.171	.207

* $P < 0.05$

After 10 weeks, members of the control group did not show significant improvement in their DCT posttest in terms of speech act, information, expression, and politeness ($F = 8.257$, $df = 7$, $p = .216$). This indicates that students who did not receive

explicit instruction on pragmatics did not increase their pragmatic competence. Figure 2 illustrates students' performance in terms of DCT pretest and posttest.

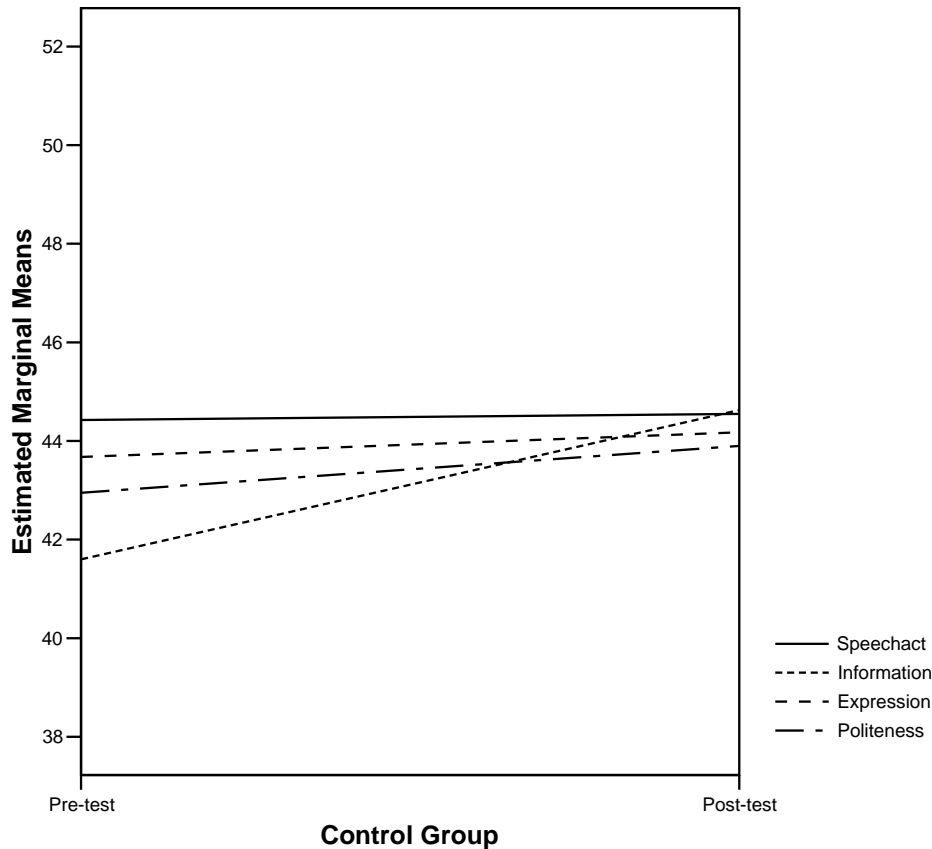


Figure 2. DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Control Group

On the other hand, after ten weeks of explicit teaching on pragmatics, the experimental/Teacher Instruction group showed significant improvement in the DCT posttest. Overall, the experimental/Teacher Instruction group generated significantly higher scores on the DCT posttest than the DCT pretest ($F = 11.156$, $df = 7$, $p < .05$), and the means for each rating component on the DCT posttest demonstrated an apparent increase that ranged from 3.98 to 6.0 points. Furthermore, as Figure 3 shows, the scores

on information yielded by the experimental/Teacher Instruction group remained the lowest both on the DCT pretest and posttest. However, the mean scores on the information component displayed the greatest improvement from the DCT pretest to the DCT posttest ($M_{DCT\ pretest} = 42.75$, $SD_{DCT\ pretest} = 6.56$; $M_{DCT\ posttest} = 48.75$, $SD_{DCT\ posttest} = 4.54$). The members of this group were found to have the highest mean scores on the speech act rating component; that is, participants tended to be able to identify the use of requests while performing different language function tasks. Meanwhile, the mean scores on expressions, the amount of information, and levels of politeness also improved moderately after the treatment.

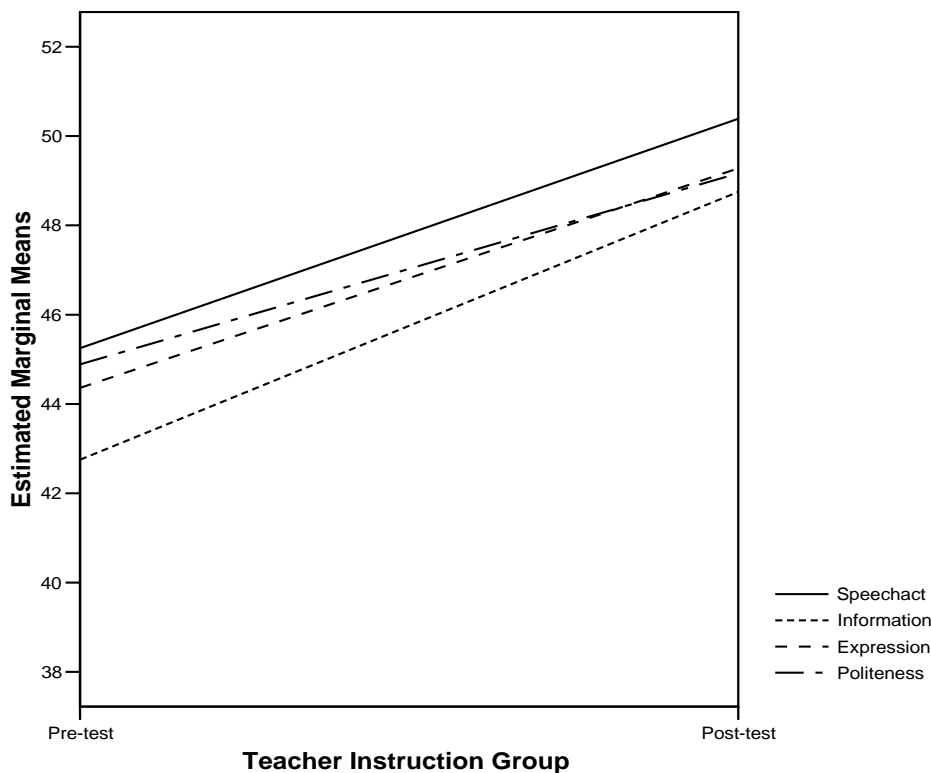


Figure 3. DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Experimental/Teacher Instruction group

The students in the experimental/CMC group learned pragmatics through e-mail and WebCT discussions with their Texan partners. The study results showed a significant improvement of DCT posttest for the experimental/CMC group compared to the pretest. The participants in the experimental CMC group generated significantly higher scores on the DCT posttest than the DCT pretest ($F = 47.897$, $df = 7$, $p < .05$); the means for each rating component on the DCT posttest increased ranged from 6.17 to 7.66 points.

Compared with the performances in the DCT pretest, the experimental CMC group produced significantly higher scores ($p < .05$) on the DCT posttest in terms of the four rating components. Like the results from the experimental/Teacher Instruction group, the scores on information yielded by the experimental/CMC group remained the lowest on both the DCT pretest and posttest. However, the mean scores on information displayed the greatest improvement from the DCT pretest to the DCT posttest ($M_{\text{DCT pretest}} = 39.96$, $SD_{\text{DCT pretest}} = 4.23$; $M_{\text{DCT posttest}} = 47.62$, $SD_{\text{DCT posttest}} = 3.92$). Overall, the mean scores of speech act, expressions and levels of politeness also improved moderately after the treatment (see Figure 4).

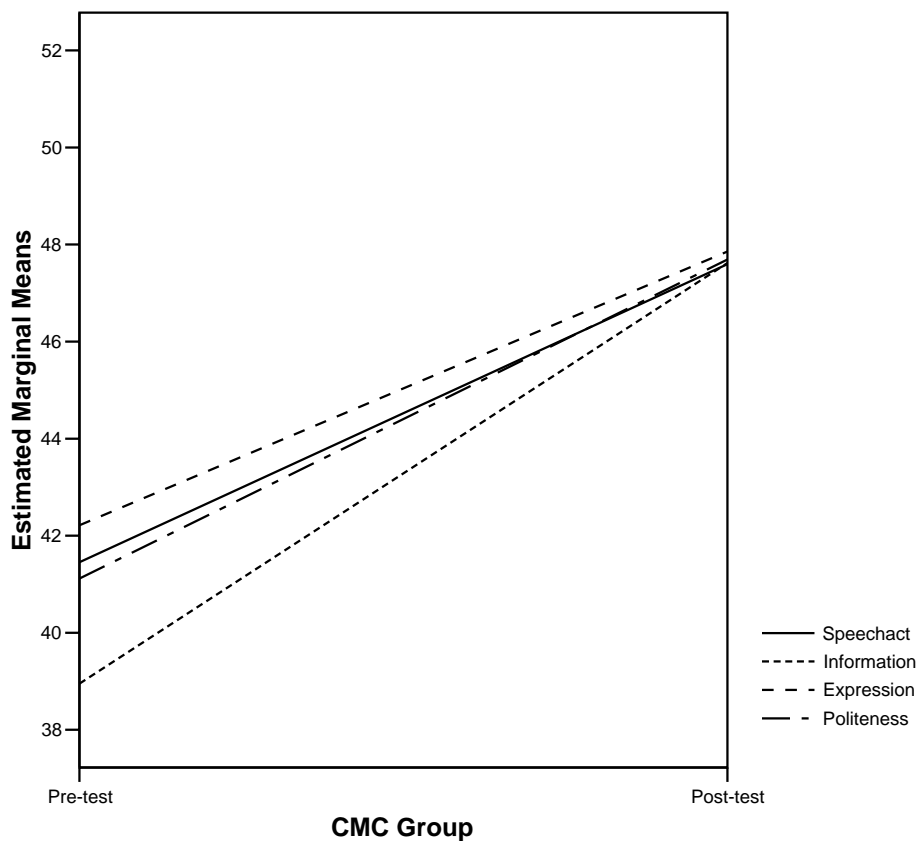


Figure 4. DCT Pretest and Posttest Scores by the Four Rating Elements for the Experimental/CMC group

As Figure 5 illustrates, the control group produced lower scores in all four rating components when compared to the two experimental groups. Furthermore, the scores of the experimental/Teacher Instruction group were the highest of the three groups. However, the difference between the students in both the experimental/Teacher Instruction and experimental/CMC groups was not statistically significant (see Table 10).

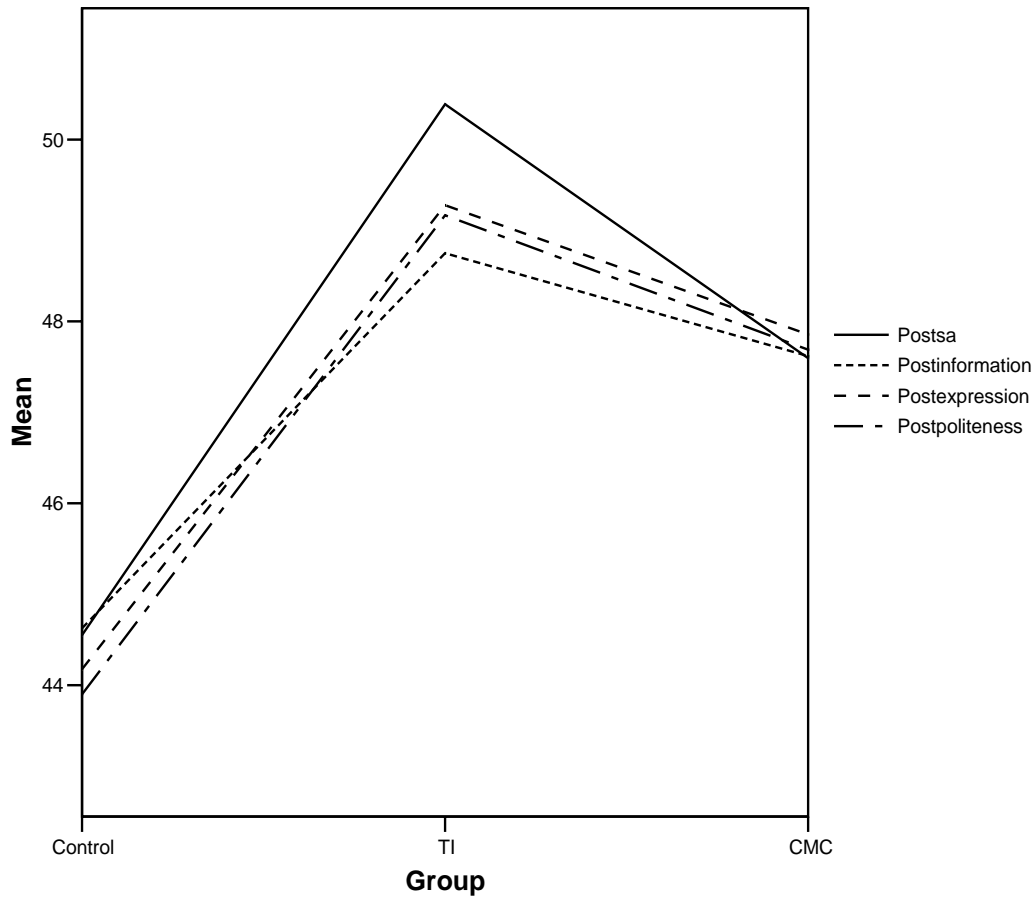


Figure 5. DCT Posttest Mean Scores of Groups

Moreover, Cohen's d indicated a positive large effect size 1.50 for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and the control group. Additionally, Cohen's d for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/CMC group and in the control group was .90, a relatively large positive effect size. This indicates that explicit instruction on pragmatics had positive effects on EFL learner' pragmatic competence development in terms of speech act (see Table 10).

In addition, Cohen's d indicated a positive large effect size (1.04) for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and those in the

control group. Furthermore, Cohen's d for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/CMC group and those in the control group was .82. The large effect sizes also indicate that explicit instruction on pragmatics had positive effects on EFL learners' pragmatics competence development in terms of information (See Table 10).

Additionally, Cohen's d reported a positive large effect size (1.08) for the pairwise comparison of those in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and those in the control group. Cohen's d for the pairwise comparison of those in the experimental/CMC group and those in the control group was .97. These effect sizes obtained from groups also indicated that explicit instruction on pragmatics had positive effects on EFL learners' pragmatics competence development in terms of expression (see Table 10).

Cohen's d indicated a positive large effect size (1.22) for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and those in the control group. In addition, Cohen's d for the pairwise comparison of participants in the experimental/CMC group and those in the control group was .94. The large effect sizes indicated that explicit instruction on pragmatics had positive effects on EFL learner' pragmatics competence development in terms of politeness (See Table 10).

On the other hand, for both experimental groups, no statistically significant differences were found between the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and the experimental/CMC group on the DCT posttest performances in terms of the four rating scores. As seen in Table 10, Cohen's d indicated a small negative effect size of -.36 for the pairwise comparison of participants in experimental/CMC group and those in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group in terms of speech act; a small negative effect size of -.27 for the pairwise comparison of participants in experimental/CMC group and

those in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group in terms of information; a small negative effect size of -.18 for the pairwise comparison of participants in experimental/CMC group and in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group in terms of expression; and a small negative effect size of -.29 for the pairwise comparison of participants in experimental/CMC group and those who were in the experimental/Teacher Instruction group in terms of politeness.

Table 10

Effect Size of Groups in Different Treatments

Rating Components	Groups					
	Control (N = 40)		TI (N = 36)		CMC (N = 42)	
Effect Size	TI	CMC	Control	CMC	Control	TI
Speech act	1.50	.90	-1.50	-.36	-.90	.36
Information	1.04	.82	-1.04	-.27	-.82	.27
Expression	1.08	.97	-1.08	-.18	-.97	.18
Politeness	1.22	.94	-1.22	-.29	-.94	.29

$$\text{Effect Size: } \frac{\bar{X}_{\text{treatment}} - \bar{X}_{\text{control}}}{(\text{SD}_{\text{treatment}} + \text{SD}_{\text{control}})/2}$$

Figures 6 to 9 show the mean scores of the DCT pretest and posttest in terms of the four rating components—speech act, information, expression, and politeness—and how the groups improved before and after the pedagogical intervention.

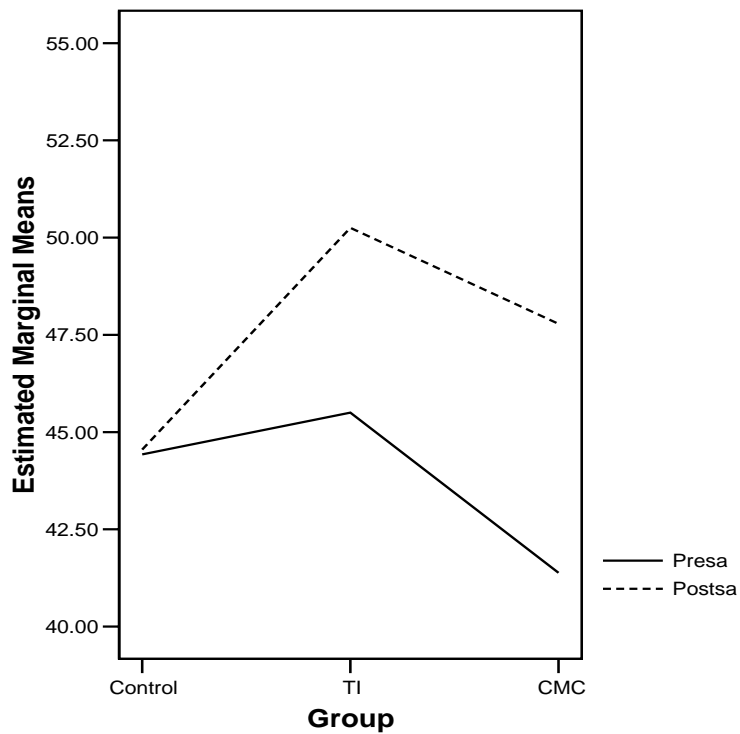


Figure 6. Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Speech Acts by Groups

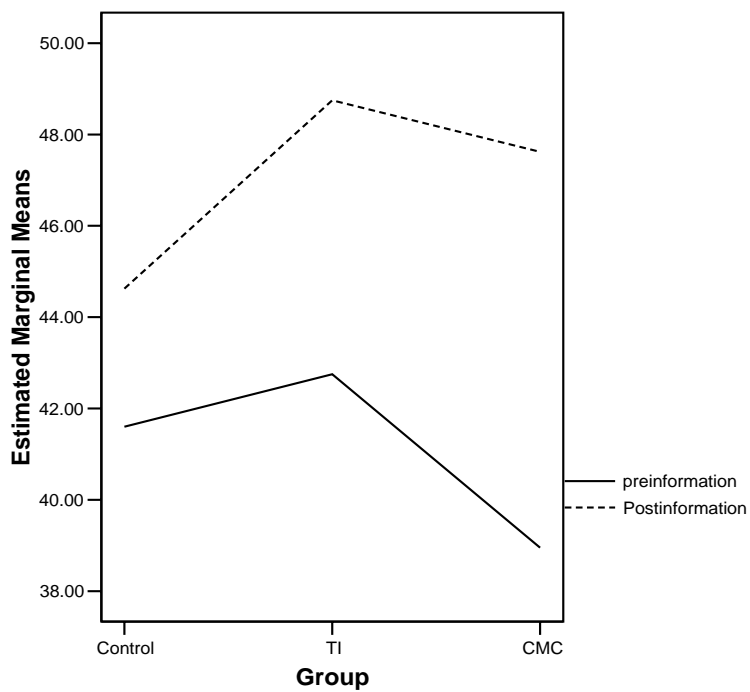


Figure 7. Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Information by Groups

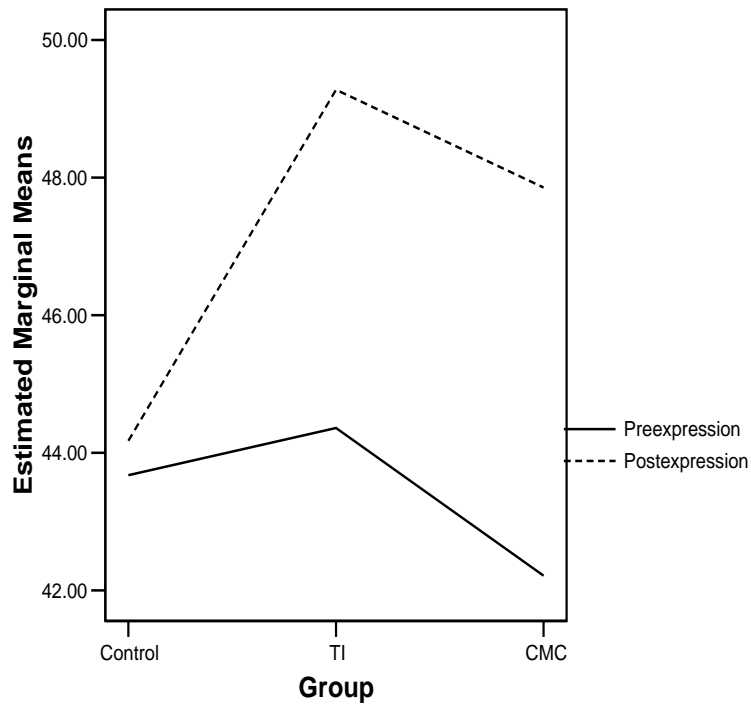


Figure 8. Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Expression by Groups

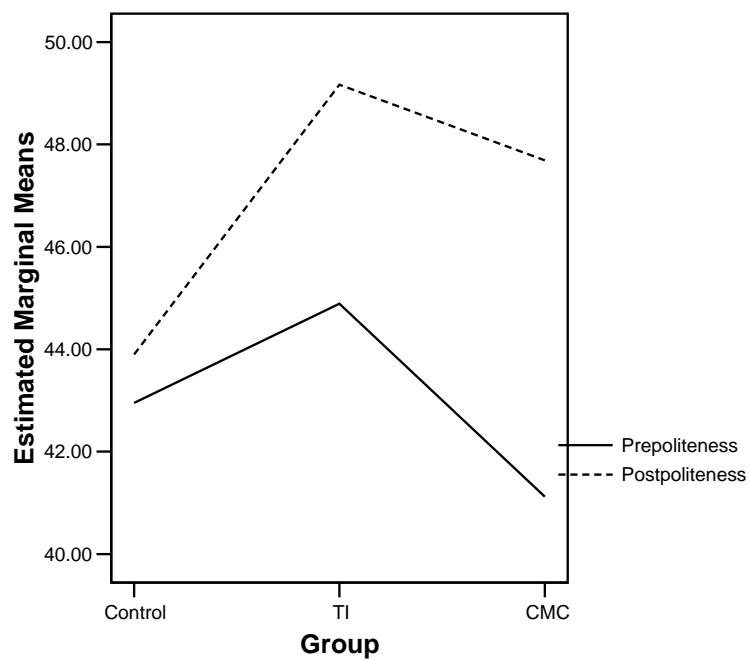


Figure 9. Mean Scores of Pretest/Posttest of Politeness by Groups

Like previous studies (Bouton, 1994; Eslami, 2005; Tateyama, 2001; and Takahashi, 2001), this research found that explicit instruction in pragmatics helped EFL learners develop pragmatic competence. The students in the experimental groups scored significantly better on the DCT posttest than did those who received no pragmatic instruction. From these results, we may also suggest that CMC can be used as a potential tool to deliver pragmatic content. Further, pragmatic instruction through CMC communication with the Texan tutors provided Taiwanese EFL students the opportunity to develop pragmatic competence by recognizing the pragmatic functions, linguistic characteristics, and meanings of their occurrences in different social and cultural contexts. During the ten weeks of treatment, the Taiwanese participants progressively developed their pragmatic competence with sufficient practice and with feedback from the instructor or Texan tutor regarding the appropriateness of their language use in diverse communicative contexts. These students were therefore more able to use the target language appropriately in contexts and generate meaningful conversations.

Qualitative Findings

The following section seeks to identify some elements that may have been overlooked in the quantitative analysis and is intended to answer the research question regarding Taiwanese EFL students' perceptions of learning pragmatics through CMC. After data collection, the thematic analysis proposed by Boyatzis (1998) was applied to perform the data analysis. Thematic analysis is a process for encoding qualitative information. A theme is a pattern found in the information. The use of thematic analysis involves three different ways of developing a thematic code: (a) theory driven, (b) driven by prior data or prior research, and (c) inductive (i.e., from the raw data) or data driven.

For this study, the inductive or data-driven code was chosen because it is aimed at knowing Taiwanese learners' views and beliefs about learning pragmatics online. The first stage in this approach was determining the sampling and design for the study, as well as selection of subsamples. The second stage was code development, in which the researcher discovers and develops themes that differentiate the subsamples. The third stage of the process involves applying the code (the themes that emerged) to the full samples.

Developing a code inductively using thematic analysis requires criterion-referenced or anchored material. The material to be coded must represent a subsample of two or more specific samples used in the research. The raw information collected from those two subsamples would be the basis for developing the code. There are five steps involved in inductively developing a code: (a) reducing the raw information; (b) identifying themes within subsamples; (c) comparing themes across subsamples; (d) creating a code; and (e) determining the reliability of the code.

After following the five steps proposed by Boyatzis, several themes were identified from the raw data: the positive role of implementing pragmatics to the curriculum; positive reactions to the learning content; reactions to the repetitive learning activities; sensitivity to peer interaction; the welcoming learning environment; the practical learning content; the different learning content; the preference for traditional learning settings; and alternative learning channel. Several categories were coded based on the themes, including students' perceptions of learning pragmatics; students' perceptions toward learning pragmatics through CMC; students' attitudes toward their partners in Texas; and students' perceptions of the content in pragmatics instruction.

Students' Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics

(The students' names reported in the following section are not their real names.)

Thirty-five of the 42 students indicated that they had positive perceptions of learning pragmatics. They reported that learning pragmatics was practical and essential for their learning of English.

For example, student Chei-Han wrote that "I liked this learning process and I learned a lot from this learning subject. In my past English learning experience, I did not have the opportunity to learn or pay attention to the subject of pragmatics. Through this learning experience, I came to learn that learning English is not only learning the grammar, or sentence structure; I also need to have the knowledge of pragmatics in order to make appropriate speech acts. Speech acts, the new term to me, but we used it everyday in our daily life. . . . I enjoyed learning pragmatics as part of English learning."

Most of the students believed that learning pragmatics improved their ability to communicate in English and that they gained more knowledge in terms of pragmatics after this learning experience. More than half of the students reported that learning pragmatics was a meaningful part of their English curriculum. They agreed that learning pragmatics provided them with the opportunity to practice their use of daily speech acts and made them more aware of expressing themselves appropriately when performing speech acts. Most students stated that their ability to communicate in English became better because of the focus on learning pragmatics.

In addition, more than half of the students reported that they could apply what they learned to real-life situations. They believed that learning pragmatics was more practical than grammar-focused instruction in terms of English-language learning.

Student Huan Pan wrote that "... [A]fter learning pragmatics and knew the ideas of speech acts, I started to realize pragmatics was very important for me to learn English. From what I learned of pragmatics, I knew that we had the opportunity to use speech acts in our daily lives, yet, we did not realize we used it or whether we used it appropriately. Learning pragmatics helped me to pay more attention to the use of daily use of speech acts, such as request, apologize, greeting, etc, and it was very helpful and practical for helping me to develop my English skills."

On the other hand, three students indicated that learning pragmatics did not contribute to their overall mastery of English, and they did not view learning pragmatics as essential.

Student Shu Ping wrote that "I really don't think learning pragmatics is necessary and important for improving my English. . . . [I]t did not help me to get good scores in English exams and I already knew the concept of using speech acts. . . ."

Overall, students had positive attitudes toward learning pragmatics. They indicated that from this experience, they not only learned how to use language appropriately, but they also understood and gained more knowledge about using communicative strategies in communication contexts.

Students' Perceptions Toward Learning Pragmatics Through CMC

Eighteen of the 42 students who participated in the CMC project stated that learning pragmatics through partnerships helped them learn how to make request, and

they were able to practice the activities addressed in lesson plans through this on-line connection. Most believed that this experience improved their English writing and communicative abilities, and increased their English vocabulary. More than half reported that they thought learning pragmatics through CMC was beneficial to their pragmatics learning. These participants agreed that learning pragmatics through e-mail communication is a good avenue for expression. They could do the exercises at their own pace and if needed could have more time to practice the designed activities with their partners.

One student expressed that her English writing ability improved because of the frequent on-line learning with her Texan tutor. Yi- Fen wrote that “I really enjoyed this learning experience. . . . I had a very good partner that she was willing to help me and answered my questions all the time. I felt that my English has improved since participating in this on-line project. I have learned many new words and now I am more confident about using and learning English. . . . The on-line learning experience is very different from face to face classroom. I really liked it.”

In addition, several students reported that they could apply what they learned from the lesson plans to real-life situations. For example, one student stated that she used this knowledge when she checked in to a hotel. She stated that learning pragmatics with her partner was a positive and wonderful learning experience in terms of her English and pragmatics learning.

On the other hand, two students did not think this on-line connection helped in terms of English learning and pragmatics acquisition. They stated that their partners’

reactions did not meet their expectations, and they did not feel comfortable practicing the lesson plans activities with their partners.

Participant Cheng Jie wrote that “. . . I did not feel comfortable about learning pragmatics through e-mail communication with my partner. We did not have much to talk and discuss, and whenever I tried to express myself in English, I just felt frustrated because I did not have the knowledge and skills to express myself. Maybe this is the reason that my partner did not discuss the activities of the lesson plans much with me. . . . If we could have the chance to have face to face discussion, maybe the situation would be different. . . . I don't think this learning experience is helpful for me to learn pragmatics and English.”

Chun Fang wrote that “. . . Whenever I tried to write an e-mail in English to my partner, I just felt nervous and anxiety about it. I think it is because my English is not good enough for me to communicate with my partner. . . . My partner seemed be upset about my lack of e-mail correspondences, if we could have chance to meet in person, maybe I can try to explain my feeling via both English and body language, and maybe we could have a better communication . . . I personal preferred face to face instruction than on-line communication because my English was not good . . . “

Overall, students who were in CMC group were positive about learning pragmatics via e-mail communication and WebCT discussions. They indicated that this experience taught them not only how to use appropriate English words and idiomatic expressions, but also that they understood more communicative strategies used by the Americans and experienced an example of cultural diversity. Furthermore, they had the

opportunity to interact with individuals in the target culture and used the target language appropriately, experiences often lacking in traditional face-to-face classes.

Some students pointed out that the anonymity provided by e-mail made them feel more comfortable and confident in talking to foreigners. Nevertheless, a majority of students mentioned that writing e-mails in English was quite challenging. They were intimidated by lengthy messages from their English-speaking tutors, which led some participants to stop responding to their Texan tutors. Still, this experience caused the Taiwanese participants to realize that their English reading and writing abilities required significant improvement. This was the first time some of them had communicated on-line with English-speaking foreigners or learned how to communicate in English through e-mails, and how to use English phrases in ways acceptable to Americans. They spent a great deal of time composing their e-mails. Nevertheless, one student was afraid that the focus on the messages' content could mean that his Texan tutors might not spend time correcting his grammar and spelling mistakes. He was uncertain about whether he had made serious grammatical errors in his e-mail correspondences.

On the other hand, some students identified disadvantages with this format. Five students stated that they were unable to perform the e-mail correspondences or WebCT discussions regularly because of limited Internet access both on and off campus and because the computer labs on campus were not open for the amount of time needed. Because of this, they believe they did not produce their best responses. Four students with no Internet access at home stated that it was difficult to send e-mails and participate in the weekly WebCT discussions at the stated times. A few asked their correspondents to send e-mails less frequently.

Additionally, eight students stated that learning pragmatics required much time and effort because the topics under discussion were new to them. When the learning tasks turned out to be more difficult than anticipated, they needed more guidelines and direction. They sometimes chose to not respond to the e-mails they received because they were intimidated to reveal their limited English ability and limited knowledge in pragmatics. Some participants in the CMC group were not confident enough to respond to their tutors if they were not well prepared with adequate answers for each question. As the difficulty of the assigned learning tasks gradually increased, the Taiwanese students took longer to respond to e-mails and some discontinued their participation in the WebCT discussions.

In addition, two students complained that they were more interested in discussing fashion, daily news, and cultural issues with their partners, and they hoped that their partners could present more concise, nonacademic, and personal instructional materials, instead of formal essays containing lengthy explanations of pragmatic concepts.

Students' Attitudes Toward Their Texas Tutors

Thirty-eight of the 42 students reported a positive attitude toward their Texan tutors. The majority stated that their tutors were very friendly to work with, patient, and passionate about teaching pragmatics.

Participant Hu Jun wrote that "I felt that I am lucky to have a very nice and friendly partner who was willing to teach me even though my English was not so good. She tried her best to explain the content to me, and I believed she figured out my limited English proficiency and she tried to deliver the lesson plans or the concept knowledge with very simple words for me to understand. She is the best!"

Five students stated that their Texan tutors often used words and phrases that they readily understood, and did not need to spend much time looking up unfamiliar words in dictionaries during communication. These students felt less anxious when their Texan tutors encouraged them to express their thoughts without considering grammatical rules.

Another student appreciated the concern her Texan tutor expressed after a typhoon damaged her home. This communication led to a friendship that made her feel more comfortable about learning pragmatics with a partner over a long distance.

Shao Ning wrote that “I really appreciated what my partner has done to me. She was very friendly and passionate to teach me even though my English was hard to understand sometimes. Last time, she even asked my house damage due to the typhoon, and I was so touched by her friendship. This made me feel like I was not only her partner, but also a friend, and this helped me feel more comfortable about leaning from her, and I was more eager to learn.”

Fifteen students stated that their Texan tutors were very nice and always responded to their e-mails quickly. Another student stated that he became friends with his Texan tutor after corresponding about their families and campus life. One student mentioned that her Texan tutor even sent her a Thanksgiving greeting card, increasing her enjoyment of their interactions.

Two students complimented their Texan tutors’ instructional strategy of always presenting examples first and moving on only after they were sure the concepts were understood. The tutors also asked the students to provide more examples to strengthen their understanding of the concepts.

On the other hand, several students stated that their Texan tutors used a high level of English that made it difficult for them to complete the assignments.

Ru Fang wrote that “I really could not understand and follow my partner’s instruction because he used the English that was difficult for me to understand. . . . I believed my English was not very good, but I have tried to understand what he tried to discuss, still, I failed to catch his points and this let me feel frustrated and did not want to continue to learn. . . .”

Four students reported that their Texan tutors asked them to write more than what they expected in each week’s task. Furthermore, the tutors’ quick response caused some students to feel anxious about responding. Two students also stated that what their Texan tutors said was not very reliable. The tutors sometimes did not fulfill their promises, which made students uncertain about how to react.

For example, Na Huai wrote that “At first, I was so exciting about this learning project because I never had the chance to interact with people from other country via on-line communication, however, after weeks, I realized that this learning experience was really hard for me to learn the context because my partners kept asking me to write more and more and I really had a hard time to follow. “

Another student, Chun Han, also reported that he did not know how to react to his partners because sometimes his partner did not follow his own words. “. . . I had a very good communication with my partner at the beginning, whenever we discussed the weekly task and assignments; it seemed we were all involved in the learning process. However, I found out that my partner sometimes did not follow his own guideline about teaching me the context which made me confused about what we were supposed to do.

He also did not keep his promise sometimes when he said he would do something but in fact, he forgot about it. I am a little upset about this.”

Overall, most students stated that their Texan tutors were patient and kind, and directed them to discuss pragmatics issues. They felt comfortable about this on-line learning experience because their partners were helpful and thoughtful. The tutors provided examples that were useful and practical, making the experience enjoyable. Only a minority believed that it was essential to evaluate the tutors prior to the instruction to weed out those with bad attitudes and discriminatory natures.

Students' Perceptions of the Content in Pragmatics Instruction

Most students thought that the content provided by their Texan tutors led to a greater understanding of English pragmatics. Compared to the content presented in conventional textbooks, this instruction was more practical and useful for daily communication. For example, one student stated that he did not know that the phrase “You rock” means “You are so cool” until his tutor explained it to him. This student was pleased to learn idiomatic expressions from his tutor. Another student said that the pragmatic instruction helped her make appropriate requests at airports while traveling aboard. One student also mentioned that he was strongly aware of the differences between Chinese and English pragmatics from communicating with his Texan tutor, and that he regarded this learning experience as valuable because he rarely had an opportunity to interact with foreigners.

This instruction taught most students how to make requests in a culturally appropriate and acceptable manner, and that there often are several ways to make a request.

Dong Chin wrote that “I knew there were several ways to make requests and each way of making request requires our knowledge of pragmatics in order to make it appropriately. Now, I realized it was important to make appropriate request in order to prevent misunderstandings that occur in communication contexts.”

However, several students responded that their tutors used English words and phrases that they did not understand and had difficulty deciphering. Students also recommended that the content of instruction be more situational and more animated, with graphs, sounds, or short movies.

Some students thought that the content needed improvement. For example, participants were often confused when their tutors posted similar or ambiguous questions every week. One student stated that communication with his Texan tutor made him feel frustrated. He recommended that the content progress from an easier level to a more difficult level. Another student later expressed that his preoccupation with the social status of his Texan tutor led him to regard his tutor as a formal teacher with a master’s degree and made him less willing to express his thoughts or challenge the tutor on certain issues.

Despite these reservations, half of the students stated that they were aware of the importance of pragmatics and realized that English was not as difficult as they previously thought. They also came to realize the importance of pragmatics through this learning experience, which they considered challenging but worthwhile. It helped them to gain an international perspective and greater knowledge of diverse opinions and writing styles. Furthermore, it helped them apply what they learned in the classroom to real-life situations.

Overall, most of the students had positive perceptions of the content of this pragmatics instruction. They stated this on-line learning experience gave them the opportunity to learn and use pragmatics. The content of the instruction and its focus on pragmatics was very beneficial in their acquisition of English terms and pragmatics.

The qualitative results revealed that several participants in the experimental CMC group disliked the e-mail requirement. It was discovered that this process of learning pragmatics required learners to highly concentrate their time and effort and to be willing to think deeply, organize, and process what they learned. Rather than investing the time to respond to e-mails, some Taiwanese pupils may prefer rote memorization when mastering something new. Taiwanese students rarely are exposed to the types of sociolinguistic input that facilitates the acquisition of pragmatic competence. Based on these findings, it is suggested that educators use technology in helping Taiwanese EFL learners build English-language pragmatic competence so that they can better comprehend and generate appropriate communicative acts.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes the overall findings of this study and answers the five research questions. The findings of the study are discussed vis-à-vis the research questions and the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1994a, 1994b, 1995). The implications of the effect of explicit instruction on the development of pragmatic competence, implications for teaching pragmatics, and implications for second-language instruction are presented. Some limitations of this study are suggested, as are future directions for similar research.

The Noticing Hypothesis

The main theoretical framework adopted for this study was Schmidt's research regarding the role of conscious learning in the development of target-language pragmatic competence (1990, 1993a, 1994a, 1995). Schmidt states that learning requires awareness at the level of "noticing" and addresses the role of conscious processing in L2 acquisition. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis proposes that consciousness of input in the form of "noticing" makes target-language items more available for acquisition. This study tested whether explicit instruction on pragmatics makes learners notice aspects of the target-language pragmatics and leads to greater language acquisition. Data were collected and analyzed to determine if explicit pragmatic instruction significantly affects learners' pragmatic competence development.

The research questions concerned the effect of explicit pragmatics instruction on language learners. The data analysis found in Chapter IV reveals that learners who were given explicit pragmatic instruction did perform better than those who did not. This

supports Schmidt's noticing hypothesis that "noticing" does increase the availability of target-language features. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis accounts for initial input recognition and acknowledges the importance of attention and consciousness (1993) for every aspect of second-language acquisition. The results of this study supported Schmidt's hypothesis.

This research also found that explicit instruction on pragmatics had a positive impact on both the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups. Explicit instruction on pragmatics as a teaching approach had positive effects for EFL learners regardless of whether they received instruction through face-to-face classroom teaching or a CMC learning environment. Furthermore, the results suggested that teaching pragmatics through CMC is a potentially beneficial delivery mechanism for pragmatics content.

The Effect of Explicit Pragmatics Instruction on the Development of Language Learners' Pragmatic Competence

From the results presented in Chapter IV, it can be seen that the mean scores of students' pragmatic competence showed statistically significant improvement in both the experimental/Teacher Instruction group and the experimental/CMC group. This suggests that explicit instruction on pragmatics does have a positive impact on language learners' development of pragmatic competence. After one semester of pedagogical intervention, students in the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups did seem to be more aware of target-language pragmatics in the type of explicit enhancement used in this study. Findings that indicate statistical significance concerning general awareness and specific uses of requesting in the target language support the hypothesis that explicit instruction on pragmatics does improve language learners' pragmatic competence.

The results of this study supported the aforementioned anticipation. Similar to what was found in previous studies (Billmyer, 1990a; Bouton, 1994; Eslami, 2005; House and Kasper, 1981b, Kasper, 1997; Lyster, 1994; Morrow, 1996; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Rose, 1997; Takahasi, 2001; Tateyama, 1997), the researcher found that students who received explicit instruction on pragmatics (through participation in the Teacher Instruction Group or CMC groups) performed better on the DCT posttest than did those who did not receive this instruction. This pedagogical intervention enabled participants to practice specific pragmatic features in the target language, made them aware of what they already knew, and encouraged them to use their existing pragmatic knowledge in L1 in L2 contexts. This makes clear the role of pedagogical intervention in helping learners recognize their existing pragmatic knowledge in L1 and apply it to L2.

Furthermore, this study provides evidence for Schmidt's noticing hypothesis with regard to the instruction of pragmatics. As Schmidt and Frota (1986) pointed out, noticed information that was later used or applied by language learners in different contexts strengthens communicative interaction and leads to language acquisition. This was also found to be true in the present study. Learners who received explicit instruction on pragmatics were able to notice certain features of the target-language pragmatics, such as how to "request" in certain communicative contexts, and employ it in the DCT posttest. In addition, through the pedagogical intervention, "noticing" may have occurred and led to L2 acquisition. Learners used the examples taught during the treatment period and applied them to real-life contexts. For example, one student from the treatment group reported that her new knowledge helped check in at an airport reservation counter.

In response to the first question—Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) have a positive effect on the EFL learners’ pragmatic production?—the findings appear to indicate that the role of explicit instruction is an important factor in the learning of L2 pragmatic features. The application of EATSA activities appears to have influenced the learners in the experiment groups to perform better than those in the control group at statistically significant levels in DCT posttest.

The results that the treatment group learners performed at a statistically significant level reveals that when learners are given the opportunity to “notice” and practice the target language’s pragmatic features, they are more consciously aware of the appropriate forms of the target-language pragmatics.

In response to the second research question—Does application of the Explicit Approach for Teaching Speech Acts (EATSA) through computer-mediated communication (CMC) have a positive effect on the EFL learners’ pragmatic production?—it appears that applying CMC as the communication channel for delivering pragmatics instruction had a positive impact on the learners’ development of pragmatic competence.

The development of pragmatic competence in an (EFL) context has not been studied widely and, more importantly, there is a lack of research on the use of technology in teaching pragmatics. The results presented in Chapter IV reveal that CMC can be a beneficial delivery mechanism for pragmatics instruction.

The scholarly literature indicates that using CMC in a language-learning environment has numerous benefits, including promoting meaningful human interactions that can foster the learning process (Salaberry, 1996), and facilitate communication

(Cooper and Selfe, 1990). In addition, it is an excellent medium for cultivating social relationships within or across classrooms (Salaberry, 1996; Warschauer, 1997; Warschauer, Turbee, and Roberts; Cifuentes and Shih, 2003) and providing an environment that fosters equal participation (Chun, 1994; Sullivan & Pratt, 1996). Moreover, learners can proceed at their own pace, which helps reduce anxiety (Kern, 1995; Sullivan, 1993). The process of communicating via e-mail or Web-based discussions helps learners develop the connection between thinking and writing (Warschauer, Turbee, and Roberts, 1996). The results of the present investigation confirm the merits of applying CMC to educational settings and provide evidence that CMC is a potential channel for helping learners recognize the pragmatic features of the target language and “noticing” appropriate linguistic forms.

The findings may also indicate that giving explicit instruction on pragmatics to the treatment groups (in this case, the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups) allowed learners in both groups to recognize appropriate forms of target language pragmatics, and may have brought the learner’s awareness to a more conscious level, as seen in L2 productions tasks. The data analysis presented in Chapter IV indicates that learners improved vis-à-vis the terms of four grading components (the ability to use the correct speech act, to provide appropriate expressions, to provide enough information to accomplish the task, and to use the appropriate level of politeness) after ten weeks of pedagogical intervention. However, since the four components were highly correlated, it was hard to suggest the order of developing the four components. This also answered research question four, regarding whether there was an order for developing the four components. The overall findings suggest support for Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis. It

appears that increased frequency of pragmatic features or pragmatic information in explicit instruction on pragmatics may foster conscious awareness of certain features and lead to acquisition by L2 learners.

Results related to the third research question—What is the relative effect of on-line (CMC) EATSA as compared to in-classroom (face-to-face) EATSA?—indicated that both the Teacher Instruction group and CMC group scored significantly higher than the control group on the DCT posttest, while the students in the CMC group performed as well as those in the Teacher Instruction group. This finding indicates that experimental treatments appear to have a positive impact on the development of learners' pragmatic competence. The data scores of learners' pragmatic competence from both the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups reported a statistically significant level, supporting the earlier hypothesis that explicit instruction on pragmatics does have a positive impact on language learners' development of pragmatic competence. The researcher did not find statistical significance in the difference between the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups. More importantly, this suggests that CMC can serve as a potential channel for the delivery of pragmatics instruction.

In response to the fifth research question—How do Taiwanese students perceive learning pragmatics on-line with their partners?—the qualitative data analysis revealed that most learners had positive perceptions of learning pragmatics on-line with partners and became more aware of certain linguistic forms and appropriate language use in contexts. Some Taiwanese participants reported that they did not feel comfortable interacting with their partners at Texas A&M University because of their limited English proficiency. When they tried to respond to their partners' e-mails, they felt embarrassed,

which might have led to a breakdown in communication. In addition, some Taiwanese participants reported that they believed their status was not equal to their partner's, which might have caused anxiety during these interactions. Other than that, CMC provided learners the opportunity to interact with target-language speakers and practice the pragmatic forms or features of the target language through on-line communication. Learners from the experimental CMC group confirmed that explicit instruction on pragmatics helped them gain more knowledge in target-language pragmatic forms and specific features. Compared to conventional textbooks on English reading or writing, the content of this pragmatic instruction was more practical and useful in facilitating daily communication.

Implications of the Findings for Pragmatics Instruction

The findings of this study seem to support Schmidt's noticing hypothesis, especially as related to learners' ability to produce significantly more appropriate forms or "provide enough information to accomplish the task" once they have become aware of these concepts and forms through explicit instruction on pragmatics. The fact that participants performed particularly well in this area may indicate that pragmatic features have to be noticed continually to be integrated into the learners' development of L2 pragmatic infrastructure. The finding also supports Gass and Varonis' claims (1994) that because constant repetition may facilitate integration, attention must be focused on both form and production.

This study used an explicit approach to teaching pragmatics features to examine the influence of enhanced pragmatic instruction. The speech act of "requesting" was selected as the subject for repeated instruction during the treatment. The treatment used

relatively explicit approaches to delivering the pragmatics content, and learners noticed and practiced the activities throughout the ten-week treatment period. The goal was to improve L2 acquisition by helping learners “notice” and “practice” certain pragmatic features while building on their existing pragmatic knowledge.

In conclusion, the findings of this study replicated the previous research findings on the effect of explicit instruction on pragmatics; in other words, the target pragmatic features were found to be most effectively learned when learners were under the condition in which a relatively degree of pragmatics instruction was realized with explicit pragmatic information. Therefore, this research suggests that providing pragmatic information on the target features can enhance learners’ L2 pragmatic competence. The results obtained from the explicit instruction on pragmatics for the treatments also motivate us to explore further the role of instruction in the development of language learners’ L2 pragmatic competence. As Schmidt (1993b) proposed, learning requires awareness at the time of learning, and the findings of this study support this argument, particularly in light of the performance of learners’ DCT posttest by participants in the Teacher Instruction and CMC groups.

Implications of the Findings for Language Instruction

Bachman’s language competence model consists of two main categories: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence refers to knowledge of linguistic units and the rules for combining them in structured sentences (grammatical competence) and the ability to use discourse in the appropriate context (textual competence). Pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary competence—knowledge of speech acts and speech functions—and sociolinguistic competence.

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to use language appropriately in sociocultural contexts. These elements demonstrate that in order to be communicatively competent, an individual must not only know a language's linguistic forms, but also how to use language appropriately in communicative contexts. The integration of pragmatics with other linguistic competencies has ramifications for the application to language pedagogy. As mentioned in Chapter I, adoption of the communicative approach in second or foreign-language teaching has increased the importance given to the achievement of functional abilities in the target language. Language learning has shifted from a grammatical perspective to a communicative perspective and the focus of language use has emphasized the ability to understand and produce appropriate language in communicative contexts. Despite the widespread acceptance of the communicative language teaching approach, course materials continue to be grammar-based. The previous sections and the results of the present study have discussed the importance of explicit instruction on pragmatics for learners' development of target language pragmatic competence. This may suggest that modifications to language curricula are needed to reduce the current emphasis on teaching grammatical forms. Studies have indicated that advanced learners with higher-level L2 competence still have gaps in their pragmatic knowledge. Therefore, pragmatic competence should not be viewed as a mechanism that is activated automatically as linguistic competence increases.

The lessons used for the present study represent an effort to integrate target language pragmatics into the language classroom. With regard to teaching methodology, the results of this study do indicate a positive impact for explicit instruction on pragmatics on language learners' pragmatic competence. Giving learners explicit

instruction on pragmatics can help direct their attention to aspects of the target language uncovered through class discussions and practice. Explicit instruction on pragmatics has much to offer L2 acquisition and instruction. Increasing the role of pragmatics in language instruction fosters the goals of the communicative methodology by offering contexts for learners to acquire and comprehend the forms and features of target language. Presenting the target language forms in their pragmatic frames may facilitate acquisition by learners who can make immediate connections between a linguistic item and its application in interactions.

Implications of the Findings for Applying CMC in Pragmatics Instruction

As mentioned earlier, the positive role of instruction on pragmatic competence of English-language learners in English as a Second Language (ESL) settings has been established by researchers (Bouton, 1994; Fukuya, 1998; Morrow, 1996). However, the development of pragmatic competence in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) context has not been studied widely and, more important, there is lack of research on the use of technology in teaching pragmatics. This study, which used CMC as the delivery channel for pragmatics instruction, investigated the effectiveness of the use of CMC (primarily e-mail correspondence and WebCT discussions) on Taiwanese EFL students' development of pragmatic competence.

Literature on CMC instruction has suggested that decentralized, learner-centered, and democratic on-line environments promote development of critical thinking and reflective thinking skills (Tiffin and Rajasingham, 1995). Previous studies have demonstrated the numerous merits of applying CMC into language learning classrooms. First, CMC tends to create more equal participation than face-to-face discussion,

resulting in more fully collaborative interactions (Kelm, 1992; Kern, 1995; Meskill, Swan and Frazer, 1997; Warschauer, 1996; Warschauer, 1999). Second, CMC allows learners to better notice the input from others' messages and incorporate that input into their own messages, thus expanding opportunities for the learning of new linguistic forms and rules (Warschauer, 1999). In addition, since computer-assisted discussion is in written form and allows more planning time than does face-to-face talk, it features language that is lexically and syntactically more complex than oral communication (Warschauer, 1996). In addition, computer-based discussion can take place outside the classroom and thus can provide students increased opportunities to communicate in the target language. It is noted that cross-cultural on-line learning can enhance students' motivation and critical thinking skills. In addition, it also improves students' social interactions and helps them acquire different cultural knowledge. CMC learning has provided students with the opportunity to acquire cultural awareness using an authentic environment. This study examines how participants from diverse backgrounds established connections and learned pragmatics on-line. Participants shared the target pragmatic knowledge and their experiences one-on-one. In addition, participants from Taiwan experienced authentic learning through interactions with their partners from Texas. This demonstrated the power of collaborative learning and peer interaction.

Collis and Remmers (1997) stated that four issues must be taken into account to produce successful on-line learning contact: communication and interaction, language, content, and representation form. In this study, the researcher was encouraged to find participants from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds connecting on-line. However, this also raised several issues that need to be considered for future research on

the use of CMC in pragmatics instructional design. First, on-line learning requires active learning. Some of the tutors reported that their partners did not actively engage in the on-line communication; students' motivations may have inhibited their learning because this communication requires action by both partners. In addition, some participants reported insufficient language proficiency to communicate with their partners on-line, which may suggest that proficiency plays a role in successful on-line communication. The lack of active participation could be the result of low language proficiency. In addition, participants with limited English-language proficiency might also have felt anxious while interacting with their partners. Furthermore, a few participants also raised the issue the role the instructional content plays in fostering interpersonal connections and strengthening one's motivation to learn the second language. Those factors reflect Collis and Remmers' claim (1997) that communication and interaction, language, content, and representation form are important components of on-line learning.

Finally, high-quality instructional design is essential to meaningful and successful on-line communication. Participants need clear step-by-step instructions to achieve the learning outcomes. Moreover, on-line communication means that participants cannot see each other face to face, which may cause anxiety. When participants think they are of unequal status (teacher-student) it is especially important to have a welcoming learning environment to make the on-line learning experience successful.

The CMC experience in this study provided learners with the opportunity to develop cultural awareness and acquire specific pragmatic features through an authentic environment. Several limitations need to be taken into account when developing on-line instruction. First, technology failures may interrupt the flow of communication. Second,

on-line cross-cultural communication requires that participants have at least minimal awareness of the second culture in order to avoid miscommunication and enhance the learning outcomes. For example, the Taiwanese learners tended to respect their elders and teachers. In this study, some participants reported that they felt nervous and anxious while interacting with their partners because they viewed their partners as teachers and thus of a higher status. This may have influenced their responses and reactions to their partners. In addition, because the Taiwanese learners tended to be passive learners, successful ongoing communication would have required that their partners understood this learning culture.

Despite these limitations, computer-mediated communication has many potential benefits as an educational tool in an ESL or EFL classroom. On-line learning helps students develop their own learning system and concept of self-identity (Lam, 2000). The use of CMC in this study allows researchers to judge its adequacy as a potential delivery system for pragmatics instruction. In addition, the results of this study enhance our understanding how CMC can be integrated into pragmatics instruction to enhance learners' pragmatic competence.

Implications of the Findings for Teaching Pragmatics in an EFL Context

Previous studies have indicated that even language learners who have a fairly advanced level of proficiency do not necessarily have corresponding levels of pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei, 1997; Takahashi and Beebe, 1987). Research into the performance of speech acts by second- or foreign-language learners has uncovered differences between language learners and native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Since the 1980's, scholars such as Blumka-Kulka, House and Kasper have

suggested including explicit pragmatic instruction in the language curriculum to compensate for the gap between language learners and native speakers. These suggestions are supported by Schmidt (1996) and Bardovi-Harlig (1999), who pointed out that pragmatics instruction provides a stronger link between interlanguage pragmatics and second-language acquisition.

The findings of this study further support and suggest inclusion of explicit instruction on pragmatics in the language learning settings because learners do not acquire appropriate usage of the target language on their own. The role of instruction in pragmatics becomes even more important in foreign-language classrooms, because pedagogical intervention is the primary access by which learners explore the target language. Learning English is more difficult in an EFL learning environment compared to an English as a second language environment because EFL learners do not have the opportunity to interact with native speakers of the target language as ESL learners do. Therefore, the role of instruction and the responsibility of language educators become crucial to language learners' acquisition of target language pragmatics. A language educator's responsibility is to remind learners that grammatical knowledge alone does not ensure language proficiency, but that proficiency comes from knowing and implementing linguistic rules found in the target culture. In addition, language educators have to provide explicit instruction on pragmatics so that learners have the opportunity to "notice" certain pragmatic features as they build on their existing pragmatic knowledge and move toward L2 fluency.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations. Because it took place in a college setting, it lacked random selection and random assignment of participants to groups. In addition, participants were Taiwanese college students majoring in EFL, and the findings may vary if applied to other groups of participants. A few of the Taiwanese EFL learners appear to have had lower levels of English proficiency, which may affect English reading literacy, the on-line communication process, and learning outcomes.

The majority of the 118 Taiwanese participants were female. Although no significant difference among the proportion of male and female students in the three groups was found, it is suggested that future studies have an equal gender ratio.

Moreover, the lesson plans and activity materials used in this study were designed by the investigator and delivered by the Taiwanese Instruction teacher and graduate students at Texas A&M University. The design of the materials and the quality of instruction might differ in other contexts. In addition, the use of written DCT to collect the data and the focus on only a single speech act might also be limitations.

Directions for Future Research

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. The data analysis was based heavily on answers to a written DCT questionnaire. The DCT format is constructed for eliciting pair responses, so multiple turns of interaction cannot be examined. As research has suggested, studying speech act communication in more than one conversational turn can provide researchers with additional information about how the speaker and hearer negotiate meaning (Manes, 1983; Wolfson, 1989a). That information is very helpful in determining

- how speakers mean what they say. Hence, further studies might use an ethnographic approach to determine if these findings can be empirically confirmed.
2. We selected only the speech act of “requesting” in this study, and focused primarily on learners’ ability to appropriately perform “requests” in communicative contexts. Additional studies need to be done to examine different speech acts to obtain further insights into the behavioral patterns governing these other acts.
 3. The contextual variables used in this study were “power,” “social distance,” and “imposition of the task.” Further studies could be designed to examine other contextual factors, such as age and gender.
 4. We used asynchronous communication for CMC group, which means that learners did not have the chance to communicate with each other simultaneously. Further studies could employ synchronous communication to present a more comprehensive picture of the instruction and provide learners with the opportunity to interact on-line at the same time.
 5. In-depth cross-cultural research on sociocultural values relevant to request performance is needed. Further studies on different cultural values could help us gain knowledge of the speech act and how best to adapt or integrate research findings into pedagogical materials, so that foreign-language teachers could more efficiently aid L2 learners in developing communicative competence in performing the speech act of request.

6. Additional studies involving the teaching of pragmatics to learners at various language proficiency levels could be conducted that might further support the concept that pragmatics instruction needs to be incorporated throughout the L2 curriculum. These studies would help instructors reach learners at various levels and figure out what pragmatics instruction would be most beneficial.
7. The design of this study was cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. Data from longitudinal studies might provide a more holistic picture of the ways in which proficiency and pragmatics instruction interact over time. Further studies are needed to investigate whether similar findings of the study can be empirically verified.

REFERENCES

- Achiba, M. (2003). *Learning to request in a second language: A study of child interlanguage pragmatics*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, Second Language Acquisition Series.
- Austin, J. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L., & Plamer, A. (1982). *Language testing in practice: Design and developing useful language tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1999). Exploring the interlanguage of interlanguage pragmatics: A research agenda for acquisitional pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 49(4), 677-713.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In G. Kasper., & K. Rose. (Eds.). *Pragmatics and language teaching*. (pp.11-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dornyei, Z. (1997). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic vs. grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 233-259.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. (1990). Congruence in native and nonnative conversations: Status balance in the academic advising session. *Language Learning*, 40, 467-501.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. (1991). Saying "No": Native and nonnative rejections in English. In L. F. Bouton & Y. Kachru. (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, 487-521.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. (1993). Learning the rules of academic task: A longitudinal study of pragmatic development. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 279-304.
- Bates, A. W. (1995). *Technology, opening learning and distance education*. London, England: Routledge.
- Beebe, L., & Cummings, M. (1985). *Speech act performance: A function of the data collection procedure?* Paper presented at the TESOL Convention, New York.
- Beebe, L., & Cummings, M. (1996). Natural speech data versus written questionnaire data: how data collection method affects speech acts performance. In S. Gass., & J. Neu. (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures*. (pp. 65-86). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Beebe, L., & Takahashi, S. (1989). Sociolinguistic variation in face-threatening speech acts: Chastisement and disagreement. In M. Eisenstien (Ed.), *Dynamic interlanguage* (pp. 199-218). New York: Plenum.

Belz, J. A. (2002). Social dimensions of telecollaborative foreign language study. *Language Learning & Technology*, 6(1), 60-81.

Belz, J. A. & Kinginger, C. (2003). The cross-linguistic development of address form use in telecollaborative language learning: Two case studies. *Canadian Modern Language Review/Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 59(2), 189-214.

Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic presentation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43-57). New York: Oxford University Press.

Billmyer, K. (1990). " I really like your life style": ESL learners learning how to compliment. *Penn Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*, 6, 31-48.

Blake, R. (2000). Computer mediated communication: A window on L2 Spanish interlanguage. *Language Learning and Technology*, 4(1), 120-136.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1987). Indirectness and politeness in requests: Same or different? *Journal of Pragmatics*, 11, 131-146.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1991). Interlanguage pragmatics: The case of requests. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith & M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/ Second language pedagogy research* (pp. 255-272). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Blum-Kulka, S., & House, J. (1989). Cross-cultural and situational variation in requesting behavior. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural and situational variation in requesting behavior* (pp. 123-154). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Bouton, L. F. (1992). Can NNS skill in interpreting implicatures in American English be improved through explicit instruction? A pilot study. In L. Bouton, & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning*, (pp.88-109). Urbana- Champaign: University of Illinois, Division of English as an International Language.

Bouton, L. F. (1994). Conversational implicature in the second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 22, 157-67.

Boyatzis, R.E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information*. London: Sage Publications.

- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cahill, D., & Catanzara, D. (1997). Teaching first year Spanish on-line. *CALICO Journal*, 17(3), 453-474.
- Canale, M. (1983). On some dimensions of language proficiency. In John W. Oller (Ed.), *Issues in language testing research* (pp. 333-342). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Chappel, C.A. (1998). Multimedia CALL: Lessons to be learned from research on instructed LA. *Language Learning & Technology*, 2 (1), 22-34.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspect of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1980). Language and problems of knowledge. *The Managua Lectures*(pp. 1-49). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin, and use*. New York: Praeger.
- Chun, D. (1994). Using computer networking to facilitate the acquisition of interactive competence. *System*, 22(1), 17-31.
- Cifuentes, L., & Shih, Y. D. (2001). Teaching and learning online: A collaboration between U.S. and Taiwanese students. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 33(4), 456-474.
- Collis, B., & Remmers, E. (1997). The World Wide Webe in education: Issues related to cross-cultural communication and interaction. In B.H. Khan (Ed.), *Web-based instruction* (pp85-92). Englewoods Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- Cononelos, T., & Oliva, M. (1993). Using computer networks to enhance foreign language/culture education. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 26(4), 527-534
- Cook, H. (2001). Why can't learners of Japanese as a foreign language distinguish polite from impolite speech acts styles? In K. R. Rose., & G. Kasper, (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. (pp. 80-102). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cooper, M., & Selfe, C. (1990). Computer conferences and learning: Authority, resistance, and internally persuasive discourse. *College Engl* 52(8), 847-869.

- Crystal, D.(1997). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. 4th edition. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Eisenstein, M., & Bodman, J. (1986). ‘ I very appreciate’: Expressions of gratitude by native and non-native speakers of American English. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 167-185.
- Ellis, R. (1992). Learning to communicate: A study of two language learners’ requests. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14, 1-23.
- Eslami, Z. (2005). Raising the pragmatic awareness of language learners. *ELT Journal*, 59(2), 199-208.
- Eslami-Rasekh, Z., Eslami-Rasekh, A., & Fatahi, A.(2004). Using metapragmatic instruction to improve advanced EFL learners pragmatic awareness. *TESL EJ*, 8 (2) A2, 1-12.
- Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1984). *Strategies in interlangauge communication*. London: Longman.
- Fisk, A., & Schneider, W. (1984). Memory as function of attention, level of processing, and automatization. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 10, 181-197.
- Fukuya, Y. (1998). *Consciousness-raising of downgraders in requests*. Paper presented at second language research forum, University of Hawaii, Manoa, October.
- Gardner, H. (1985). *The minds’ new science: A history of the cognitive revolution*. New York: Basic Books.
- Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on face-to-face behavior*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Books.
- Grice, P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Speech acts* (Vol.3, pp. 41-58). New York: Academy Press.
- Hartford, B., & Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1992). Experimental and observational data in the study of interlangauge pragmatics. In L. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning*, Monograph 3 (pp. 33-52). Urbana-Champaign, IL: DEIL.
- Holmberg, B. (1989). *Theory and practice for distance education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routine and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 225-252.

- House, J., & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in foreign language. In W. Loersch & Schulze (Eds.), *Perspective on language in performance* (pp. 1250-1288). Tuebingen: Narr.
- Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J.D. (1992). *A framework for assessing cross-cultural pragmatics*. Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawaii.
- Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1995). *Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics*. Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawaii.
- Huot, D. (1995). Observer lattention: Quelques resultats d'une etude de cas . In Richard W. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (Technical Report #9) (pp. 85-126). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, England: Penguin Books.
- Jonassen, D. H. (2000). *Computers as mindtools for schools: Engaging critical thinking*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Interlanguage pragmatics in SLA. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 145-148.
- Kasper, G. (1997). *Can pragmatic competence be taught?* (Net Work#6) (HTML Document) Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center. <http://www.111.hawaii.edu/nf1rc/NetWorks/NW6/>
- Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage pragmatics. In Heidi Byrnes (Ed.), *Learning foreign and second languages: Perspectives in research and scholarship* (pp. 183-208). New York: Modern Language Association.
- Kasper, G. (2000). *Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development*. Plenary address, Annual Meeting of the American Association of Applied Linguistics, Vancouver, British Columbia, March.
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 215-247.
- Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 81-104.
- Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *SSLA*, 18, 149-169.

Kelm, O. (1992). The use of synchronous computer networks in second language instruction: A preliminary report. *Foreign Language Annals*, 25(5), 441-453.

Kern, R. (1995). Restructuring classroom interaction with networked computers: Effects on quantity and characteristics of language production. *Modern Language Journal*, 79(4), 457-476.

Kern, R. & Warschauer, M. (2000). Theory and practice of network-based language teaching. In M. Warschauer & R. Kern (Eds.), *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kihlstrom, J. (1984). Conscious, subconscious, unconscious : A cognitive perspective. In Kenneth S. Bowers & Donald Meichenbaum (Eds.), *The unconscious reconsidered* (pp. 149-211). New York: Wiley.

Kim, R. (1996). *Teaching politeness in English speech acts*. *English Teaching*, 51, 3-34.

Koike, D.A., & Pearson, L. (2005). The effect of instruction and feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. *System*, 33, 481-501.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon.

Kubota, M. (1995). Teachability of conversational implicature to Japanese EFL learners. *IRLT Bulletin*, 9, 35-67.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language learning-tasks: Teacher intension and learner interpretation. *ELT Journal*, 45 (2), 98-107.

Lam, W, E. (2000). L2 Literacy and the design of the self: A case study of a teenager writing on the internet. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34 (3), 457-482.

Leech, G. (1983). *The principle of pragmatics*. New York: Longman.

Leeman, J., Arteagnoitia, I., Friedman, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). In Richard W. Schmidt(Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (Technical Report #9) (pp. 217-258). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Lewis, J., Whitaker, J., & Julian, J. (1995). Distance education for the 21st century: The future of national and international telecomputing networks in distance education. In Z. L. Berge and M. P. Collins (Eds.), *Computer mediated communication and the online classroom Volume III: Distance learning* (pp.13-30). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytic teaching on French immersion students sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 15, 263-287.

Makarova, V. (1997). Discovering phonetics. *The Language Teacher Online*, 21(3). Japan: TLTOonline.

Morris, C. (1938). Foundations of the theory of signs. In O. Neurath, R. Carnap, & C. Morris. (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of unified science*, Vol 2, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Olshtain, E., & Blum-kulka, S. (1985). Degree of approximation non-native reactions to native speech act behavior. In Susan Gass & Carolyn G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 303-325), Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. (1990). The learning of complex speech act behavior. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7, 45-65.

Omar, A. (1991). How learners greet in Kiswahili: A cross-sectional survey. In Y. Kachru (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (Vol.2, pp.59-73). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Riding, R. J. (1994). *Cognitive styles analysis*. Birmingham, England: Learning and Training Technology.

Riding, R. J., & Douglas, G. (1993). The effect of learning style and mode of presentation on learning performance. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 63, 273-279.

Rifkin, B. (2000). Revisiting beliefs about foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(4), 394-409.

Rintell, E., & Mitchell, C. J. (1989). Studying requests and apologies: An inquiry into method. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* (pp. 248-272). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Rose, K. R. (1994). On the validity of discourse completion tests in non-Western contexts. *Applied Linguistics*, 15, 1-14.

Rose, K. R. (1997). Pragmatics in teacher education for nonnative speaking teachers: A consciousness-raising approach. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, 10, 125-138.

Rose, K.R. (1999). Teacher and students learning about request in Hong Kong. In E. Hinkel (Eds.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rose, K.R. (2005). On the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics. *System*, 33 (3), 385-399.

Rose, K., & Kwai-fun, C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliments responses. In G. Kasper., & K. Rose. (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language teaching*, (pp. 145-170). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Salaberry, R. (1996). The development of past tense verbal morphology in classroom L2 Spanish. *Applied Linguistics*, 20, 151-178.

Schmidt, R. W. (1983). Interaction, acculturation, and the acquisition of communicative competence: A case study of an adult. In E. Judd & N. Wolfson (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 137-174). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 129-158.

Schmidt, R. W. (1993). Awareness in second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13, 206-226.

Schmidt, R. W. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. In J.H. Hulstijn & Richard W. Schmidt (Eds.), *AILA Review: Consciousness in second language learning: Conceptual methodological and practical issues in language learning and teaching*, 11, 11-26.

Schmidt, R.W. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In Richard W. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (Technical Report #9) (pp. 1-63). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognitive and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmidt, R. W., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. Day. (Ed.), *Talking to learn: conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237-326). New York: Newbury House.

Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. (1975). Indirect speech acts. In C.P & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics: Vol. 3. Speech acts* (pp. 59-82). New York: Academic Press.

Shih, Y.C. D., & Cifuentes, L. (2000). Online ESL learning: An authentic contact. In S. Young, J. Greer, H. Maurer, & Y. Chee (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 8th International Conferences on Computers in Education 2000* (pp. 1255-1262). Taipei, Taiwan: National Tsing Hua University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED451713)

Shih, Y. C., & Cifuentes, L. (2003). Taiwanese intercultural phenomena and issues in a United States-Taiwan telecommunications partnership. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 51(3), 82-90.

Shulman, L. S. (1997). Disciplines of inquiry in education: A new overview. In R.M. Jaeger (Ed.), *Complementary methods for research in education* (pp. 3-29). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Sullivan, N., & Pratt, E. (1996). A comparative study of two ESL writing environment: a computer-assisted classroom and a traditional oral classroom. *System*, 24(4), 491-501.

Takahashi, S. (2001). Role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171-199). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tao, L. (1995). *What do we know about E-mail-An existing and emerging literacy vehicle?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, New Orleans, LA.

Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines. In K, Rose & G, Kasper (Eds.). *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 200-222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tateyama, Y., Kasper, G., Mui, L., Tay, H., & Thananart, O. (1997). Explicit and implicit teaching on pragmatics routines. In L. Bouton., (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning, monograph series* vol. 8, pp. 163-178. Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as an international language, University of Illinois, Urbana-Campaign.

Thomas, J. (1983). *Cross-cultural pragmatic failure*. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 91-109.

Trosborg, A. (1994). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Warschauer, M. (1996). Computer - mediated collaborative Learning: Theory and Practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 81(4), 470-481.

Warschauer, M, Turbee, L., & Roberts, B. (1996). Computer learning networks and student empowerment. *System*, 24(1), p. 1-14.

Watts, R. (1997). Linguistic politeness and politic verbal behavior: reconsidering claims for universality. In R, Watts., S, Ide., & K, Ehlich. (Eds.), *Politeness in language: Studies in its history, theory and practice*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 87-115.

Wildner-Bassett, M.E. (1994). *Improving pragmatic aspects of learners' interlanguage*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Wolfson, N. (1989). *Perspectives: Sociolinguistics and TESOL*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I am invited to participate in an educational research study that will examine Taiwanese English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners' cross-cultural communication through telecommunication. I understand that a total of 130 people have been asked to participate in this study. The purpose of this study will be to learn if pragmatic competence will be enhanced through this cross-cultural communication setting. The principal investigator is Ms. Chia-Ning Liu, working under the advisement of Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh of Texas A&M University. There will be approximately 130 students in two different universities: Texas A&M University in USA and Chin-Yun University in Taiwan. There will be approximately 22 students from Texas A&M University and 108 students from Chin-Yun University.

If I agree to be in this study, I will be asked to fill out pre-connection and post connection surveys to allow the instructor to keep track of my correspondence. During the time of this study, I may be assigned into groups to interact with peers. By the end of the semester, I will hand in my e-mail messages to Ms. Liu. I am now being invited to let the principal investigator of the study to analyze my work. And I have been told explicitly that my discourse production will be disclosed. The data I submitted to the researcher will be confidential. I will be assigned a number and only the principal investigator-Ms. Liu will have access to my corresponding name. Neither the instructor in Taiwan nor U.S.A has the access to these data. I understand there will be no benefits or risks occurred while participating in this project. And I understand that even though I decide to withdraw from this project, it will not affect my grade and class standing. I am free to refuse to let the researcher analyze my work. By doing so, my grade for this course will not be affected.

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board-Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research-related questions or problems regarding subjects' rights, I can contact the institutional Review Board through Dr. Michael w. Buckley, Director of Research Compliance, Office of Vice President for Research at (979) 845-8585(mwbuckley@tamu.edu).

I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. If I have further questions, I may contact Ms. Chia-Ning Liu by one of the following: Tel: (979) 695-2145; E-mail: chianing@tamu.edu; and mailing: 228 Stuttgart Circle College Station, TX 77845, USA. Or Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh by one of the following: Tel: (979) 845-0560; E-Mail: zeslami@coe.tamu.edu.

I have been given a copy of this consent form.

Signature of the Subject

Date

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date

學生同意書

我被邀請參與一項跨文化教育研究計畫, 其主旨在於檢驗台灣英語學習者的實用性能力. 我了解這項研究是針對英語應用的實用性, 也了解這項研究的用意在於研究英語學習者的語言實用應用能力是否能透過此一跨文化溝通學習管道得以提升. 這項研究計畫是由劉佳寧小姐所提出, 同時在其指導教授 Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh 指導下進行. 我知道大約有一百三十人參與這項研究, 他們分別為美國德州農工大學及台灣清雲科技大學學生.

如果我同意參與這項研究, 我將會填寫一些研究進行前及進行後之間券調查, 使研究者可以追蹤我的回應. 在研究進行時, 我將會被分到小組中與我的研究小組成員透過電腦學習, 以及電子郵件及網站討論交流, 來學習英語應用的實用性. 我會交上我的電子郵件及討論結果給研究員. 我了解我所交的一切資料及成品都是機密, 除了研究者及其指導教授將不會有其他人有機會接觸. 我了解參與這份研究時可以隨時決定是否要退出這項研究, 同時成績並不會受到影響. 即使我決定要退出這項研究, 這並不會影響我拿這課學分的權利. 同時這項研究並不會涉及任何危險性也不會有任何利益性衝突.

我了解這份研究計畫已經被美國德州農工大學人類研究計畫相關部門所批准, 如果我有任何問題可與 Dr. Michael W. Buckley 聯絡. 聯絡方式如下: 電話: (979) 845-8585 電子郵件: mwbuckley@tamu.edu. 如果我有任何問題, 我也可以與劉佳寧小姐聯繫. 聯絡方式如下: 電話: (979)695-2145 電子郵件: chaining@neo.tamu.edu 住址: 228 Stuttgart Circle College Station, TX 77845 或者也可與其指導教授 Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh 聯繫. 聯絡方式如下: 電話: (979)845-0560 電子郵件: zrasekh@tamu.edu

我已經了解這項研究計畫內容, 也沒有任何疑問. 我決定參與這項研究, 同時也保有一份同意書影本.

參與者簽名

日期

研究者簽名

日期

APPENDIX B

TEACHER'S CONSENT FORM

I understand that I am being asked to give permission for my students' test scores, study notes and discourse productions along with approximately 130 students participating in the study "Cross-Cultural Telecommunication" to be released. I understand that my students are going to participate in the study of "Cross-Cultural Telecommunication," conducted by Ms. Chia-Ning Liu at Texas A&M University. Ms. Liu plans to use this information to learn if pragmatic competence will be enhanced through this cross-cultural communication setting. Test scores, webct discussion and email communication will be collected as units when they are completed.

I understand that my students' grades will not be affected regardless of whether my students' information is released to Ms. Liu. I understand there will be no benefits or risks occurred while participating in this project. And I understand that even though my students decide to withdraw from this project, it will not affect their right to obtain the course credit since this is part of the course work. I understand that my students can withdraw from this study anytime. I understand that my students' names will not be mentioned in any reports of the research. However, discussion discourse that my students create may be used in reports of this research.

I understand that this research study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board – Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights, I can contact the Institutional Review Board through Dr. Michael W. Buckley, Director of Research Compliance, Office of Vice President for Research at (979) 4584067 (mwbuckley@tamu.edu).

I understand that I can contact the researcher, Ms. Chia-Ning Liu, at 228 Stuttgart Circle College Station, TX 77845, phone (979) 2202947 or email:chaining@neo.tamu.edu. or Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh by one of the following: Tel: (979) 845-0560; E-Mail: zeslami@coe.tamu.edu.

I have read and understood the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

 Printed name of Teacher

 Date

 Signature of Teacher

 Date

 Signature of Researcher

 Date

教師同意書

我同意將我的學生參與這份研究的結果交給負責人劉佳寧小姐分析.我知道我的學生將與美國農工大學的英語教學研究生, 透過電腦學習, 以及電子郵件 及網站討論交流, 來學習英語應用的實用性. 我了解這項研究是針對英語應用的實用性, 也了解這項研究的用意在於研究英語學習者的語言實用應用能力是否能透過此一跨文化溝通學習管道得以提升.

我了解參與這份研究的學生可以隨時決定他們是否要退出這項研究, 同時他們的成績並不會受到影響即使學生決定不參加. 我了解參與這項研究的學生, 他們的名字並不會在任何研究報告中被提及, 我也了解我的學生已被清楚的告知他們的成績及參與過程的資料可能被研究. 我也了解任何人都沒有機會接觸到學生的資料除了劉佳寧小姐我也了解即使參與者要退出這項研究, 這並不會影響他們拿這課學分的權利. 同時這項研究並不會涉及任何危險性也不會有任何利益性衝突.

我了解這份研究計畫已經被德州農工大學人類研究計畫相關部門所批准. 如果我有任何問題, 可與 Dr. Michael W. Buckley 聯絡. 聯絡方式如下: 電話 (979)4584067, 電子郵件 mwbuckley@tamu.edu

如果我有任何問題, 我也可以與劉佳寧小姐聯繫. 聯絡方式如下: 電話 (979)695-2145 電子郵件 chaining@neo.tamu.edu 住址: 228 Stuttgart Circle College Station, TX 77845 或者也可與其指導教授聯繫. Dr. Zoreh Eslami-Rasekh 聯絡方式如下: 電話 (979)845-0560, 電子郵件 zrasekh@tamu.edu

我已經了解這項研究計畫內容, 也沒有任何疑問. 我決定參與這項研究, 同時也保有一份同意書影本.

教師簽名

日期

研究者簽名

日期

APPENDIX C
CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Group	Activities
Control Group	<p>15 minutes: Classroom and students issues</p> <p>15 minutes: Warm Up : Film</p> <p>20 minutes: Explanation of the film</p> <hr/> <p>30 minutes: Lecture (questions and answers)</p> <p>20 minutes: Summary and Discussion (small group discussion)</p>
TI Group	<p>15 minutes: Classroom and students issues</p> <p>15 minutes: Warm Up : Film</p> <p>20 minutes: Explanation of the film</p> <hr/> <p>50 minutes: Weekly lesson plans delivered by the instructor (see Appendix D)</p>
CMC Group	<p>15 minutes: Classroom and students issues</p> <p>15 minutes: Warm Up : Film</p> <p>20 minutes: Explanation of the film</p> <hr/> <p>50 minutes: Weekly lesson plans delivered via CMC (see Appendix D)</p>

APPENDIX D**WEEKLY LESSON PLANS (10 WEEKS)****Week 1 9/26-10/02****Unit: Motivation**

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Goal: To motivate learners to think about speech acts and issues related to language use

Introduction:

The purpose of this activity is for teachers to get learners' attention and motivate them to focus on the activities. Teachers will provide learners with examples that address miscommunication or inappropriate use of language in communicative contexts to motivate them to learn pragmatics and focus their attention on the following activities. Teachers can identify miscommunication or share their own miscommunication experiences.

Description of the Activity:

The teacher will start with a warm-up task of introducing himself or herself. After the introduction, the teacher may talk about speech acts, such as requesting, greeting, apologizing, etc., and identify and provide students with some examples from daily life. Since the students are enrolled in the "English for tourism," class, the teacher may share personal travel experiences. Teachers can ask the students to introduce themselves and ask whether they have the experience to communicate with people from different linguistic or cultural backgrounds. If so, the students should share their experience.

Procedure:

1. Get to know each other: personal introduction (hometown, hobbies, occupations, etc.)
2. Introduce the use of speech acts, such as requesting, greeting, or apologizing, in everyday conversation. Provide examples with a focus on travel.
3. Share personal miscommunication experiences and ask students to share their own experiences and identify typical miscommunications.
4. Reflect on these miscommunication examples and ask if the students (or you) can provide some explanations for them.
5. Summarize and help students become aware of the importance of the use of appropriate language in conversation.

Week 2 10/03-10/09**Unit: Form Search**

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Goal: To help learners to become aware of the contexts where “requesting” occurs

Introduction:

In this activity, teachers will provide examples that show when the speech act of requesting is used by asking learners to search for examples of requesting from available sources, such as textbook dialogues, movies, videotapes, daily conversations, etc.

Description of the Activity:

Start with an assessment of how much their students know about speech acts (especially requesting) by asking the students to find examples in textbooks, movies or daily conversations. Teachers can also provide examples of authentic language from movies or novels to illustrate the use of requesting. Ask the students to describe the situations when the requesting takes place, and how people go about making the request. Also ask the students to discuss examples of requesting and the use of various forms of requesting. Ask the students to write down the different linguistic forms in English that they have found.

Procedure:

1. Provide examples of requesting from dialogue, emails, movies or other available sources.
2. Have students provide you with examples of requesting from textbooks, movies or daily conversations and explain in what situation they were used.
3. Have students write down the different forms of requesting that they have found from step 2 and compare them, then guess why different forms are used in different situations.
4. Build on student responses (step 3) and discuss the possible factors that cause differences in the use of different forms of requests.
5. Summarize and help students become aware of the importance of the use of appropriate language in conversation.

Week 3 10/17-10/23
Unit: Form Comparison

Level; Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To demonstrate how cultural norms are reflected in people's use of requests in their first language and in English, and compare the use of requesting in the learner's first and second language. Also, to illustrate the challenges that second-language learners face when using speech acts in different cultural contexts.

Introduction:

In this activity, teachers will ask the learners to produce examples of the use of requests from their experience based on their first language. The students should literally translate these examples from their first language to English and compare the two forms. The students then should share their problems or difficulties in translating their use of requests from their first language to English and discuss why this can be challenging.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers should ask the students to identify two or three examples of the use of requests in various situations based on their first language and to translate the examples to English. Discuss the problems or difficulties that result. Teachers should provide appropriate responses based on the students' examples and ask the students to compare these with their own examples.

Procedure:

1. Have students identify two or three examples from an everyday context and write down the examples in their first language.
2. Have students translate their step 1 examples to English.
3. Have students discuss or share the problems or difficulties encountered when they perform step 2.
4. Provide appropriate responses to requests in English based on the students' examples and ask the students to compare the teacher's response with their own.
5. Summarize and help students become aware of the importance of the use of appropriate language in conversation.

Week 4 10/24-10/30
Unit: Form Analysis

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To provide learners the opportunity to analyze the use of the request in different contexts and to use it appropriately

Introduction:

In this activity, teachers will provide students with the opportunity to analyze the various forms of requests used in different communicative contexts. Learners will have the opportunity to identify the social variables found in different contexts and judge the appropriateness of different usages.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers will play the role of a hotel representative and ask students to request a room. Later, the students will perform the following tasks: ask your boss for a promotion, ask the hotel clerk for an additional blanket, and ask a friend to take care of your dog for a few days. Later, the students will discuss the forms taken by various request situations, including factors such as age, power, imposition (the effort of performing a task), social distance (close friend/stranger) and social status (professor/student) that might affect learners' use of a request. Teachers will provide examples of requests using different social distances (friend/stranger), power levels (lower power/higher power) and imposition (high task/low task).

Procedure:

1. Teachers play the role of a hotel representative and ask students to request a room.
2. Students make requests in the following situations: asking your boss for a promotion, asking the hotel clerk for an additional blanket, and asking your friend to take care of your dog for a few days.
3. Have students discuss the forms taken by the request examples in step 2. Compare the use of head act, external modifier and internal modifier in the different scenarios.
4. Discuss the possible factors (age, social distance, power, imposition, etc.) that may cause different processes and outcomes in the examples.
5. Provide examples of requests in English that address different ages, social distances, social power levels and imposition. Examples: employee to boss (male-male) to ask for a transfer to another workplace; friend to friend (male to female) to ask to buy a book for him; teacher to student (female or male to female) to ask that homework be submitted to her office.
6. Summarize and help students become aware of the importance of the use of appropriate language in conversation.

Week 5 10/31-11/06**Unit: Use Request with Discourse Completion Test (DCT)**

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To help learners use requests in various situations by using Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

Introduction:

In this activity, teachers will provide examples of various situations and have learners use requests to respond to these situations using DCT.

Description of the Activity:

After the previous weeks' activities, students should have a basic awareness of how requests are used in different contexts. The focus of this week will be helping students to use what they have learned in various situations and to practice the use of requesting in various contextual factors with the DCT.

Procedure:

1. Provide an example of a DCT situation (see below) and have students respond to the situation.

Example of DCT:

You are a flight attendant. Before the airplane is set to take off, you discover that one of the passengers did not fasten his/her seatbelt. What would you say to remind him/her to fasten the seatbelt?

You:

2. Ask students to share what they have written for the DCT example and explain why they responded in that way.
3. Have students practice the following DCT situations:

Situation 1:

You are staying at a hotel. As you return from dinner, you would like to ask the receptionist whether anyone has called while you were out. What would you say to him/her?

You:

Situation 2:

You have to do an interview for your Spanish class. You overheard someone speaking Spanish and would like to ask him/her about the interview. What would you say?

You:

4. Provide several examples of appropriate responses in the above situations that help students become aware of appropriate responses in different contexts.

Week 6 11/7-11/13
Unit: Form Search/Form Analysis

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To enable learners to become aware of the use of appropriate requests and to ascertain the meaning of different linguistic forms

Introduction:

This week, teachers will provide learners with various linguistic forms of request, including explicit and implicit, and have the learners identify the use of requests in various contexts and compare appropriate ways of using requests.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers will provide learners with examples of various linguistic forms of request and ask learners to identify the request as explicit or implicit. Then, have the learners compare the use of different linguistic forms and discuss and evaluate the appropriate uses of these two forms of request depending on context.

Procedure

1. Provide students with situation 1 and examples of requests in that situation. Have students identify the use of requests from these responses.

Situation 1: A foreign student who recently arrived at Texas A&M University is trying to open a savings account at a bank, but doesn't understand the point that the bank teller is trying to make. The student would like to ask the teller to go over this again:

(Explicit request): Don't tell the learners in advance that these are explicit requests, but ask them to identify the use of the request at the initial stage.

- a. Will you please repeat it again?
- b. I don't get it. Please say it again.
- c. Excuse me, but I didn't quite catch the point. Can you go over it again?
- d. I'm sorry, I didn't understand the point you were explaining. Could you possibly say it again, please?
- e. Say it again.

(Implicit request): Don't let learners know in advance that these are implicit requests, but ask them to identify the use of the requests themselves at the initial stage.

f. What did you mean?

g. I am sorry, I didn't catch what you were saying.

h. Sorry, I wasn't paying close enough attention to what you said and missed your points.

i. I missed some points from your earlier explanation.

2. Have students identify the use of the requests in the above sentences. All of them are requests, but some are explicit (direct) and some are implicit (indirect). Explain that requests can take either form.
3. Ask the students to rate the appropriateness of the examples, then share and discuss their thoughts on this.
4. Ask students to identify and collect examples of requests from their available resources and analyze whether they are explicit or implicit.
5. Summarize by pointing out that regardless of the form of request (explicit/implicit) used, its appropriateness is important to successful communication.

Week 7 11/14-11/20
Unit: Motivation/Form Comparison

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To motivate learners to think about the use of requests in different contexts and to compare the use of requests in different linguistic forms

Introduction:

In this activity, teachers will motivate students to think about their use of requests in various contexts. Teachers will provide students with examples commonly used by native English speakers and ask them to compare their use of requests to the examples that their Texas tutors have provided.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers will share their own examples of using requests in a restaurant and ask the students to write down in English examples of their similar experiences. Teachers will provide a list of examples of native English speakers' use of requests to the same situation that the students have described and ask them to compare their examples to the examples provided by the teachers.

Procedure:

1. Share examples of your own experiences in using requests in a restaurant and ask the students to provide their own examples.
2. Provide students with a list of responses that native English speakers could use in response to the situations that the students have provided.
3. Ask the students to compare their use of requests to the examples provided by their Texas tutors.
4. Summarize by pointing out that the use of requests may differ in terms of linguistic form, but the need to use the appropriate request is important despite the speakers' different linguistic or cultural backgrounds.

Week 8 11/21-11/27
Unit: Form Search/Use request in DCT

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To enable learners to vary their requests as situationally appropriate and become aware of the need for linguistic variation when making requests, depending on the situation

Introduction:

This activity is intended to introduce students to the use of requests in various situations and have them match an appropriate request with various contexts. Teachers will give students one example of the use of a request in DCT and ask the students to use a request in the situation.

Description of the Activity:

This activity contains request examples and possible settings. Teachers will provide students the request examples and settings and ask them to match the examples to the settings. The requests were collected in Australia from naturally occurring interactions between native speakers (Yates, 2000). Teachers will then ask the students to discuss the factors where various requests occur and ask the students to practice the use of requests in DCT.

Procedure:

1. Provide students with the following request examples and settings, and ask them to match the examples to the settings.

Request Examples

- a) It'd be cool if you could move up one.
- b) Get us a pie, mate.
- c) If you could just grab a copy of that for a moment.
- d) I was wondering if I could have, um, three weeks of annual leave?
- e) Would it be OK if I handed my assignment in next Monday?
- f) Could you just pop that up there for me?
- g) Do you wanna move over?

Settings

1. in a secondary school class
2. in a lecturer's office
3. at university
4. in a plane, before take-off

5. in the audience of a school concert
6. in a car park
7. in an office
8. on a footpath

2. Have students share their response.

3. Let students know the actual social context in which the request was found.

- a) the audience of a school concert/female teenager to another female teenager
- b) a car park/one fisherman to another fisherman
- c) a secondary school class/male teacher to mixed-gender class
- d) an office/female employee to female boss
- e) a lecturer's office, at university/female adult student to female lecturer
- f) a plane, before take-off/female flight attendant to female passenger
- g) a secondary school class/male teacher to mixed-gender class

4. Discuss the factors that influence various situations where different forms of request occurred with students.

5. Have students respond to the following situation:

DCT Example:

You are taking the class “Physics 101” this semester. However, you do not understand some concepts found in Chapter 3 of the textbook. You go to the professor’s office to ask him or her to go over the concepts again. What would you say?

You:

6. Summarize by identifying the importance of being aware of the need for linguistic variation in requests depending on the situation.

Week 9 11/28-12/04
Unit: Motivation/Form Analysis

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To enable learners to perform requests appropriately in various contexts

Introduction:

This week, students will practice performing the act of requesting through email. Teachers will provide revised versions of the students' email request messages and ask them to compare the teacher's use of requests with their own in terms of head act, internal modification and external modification.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers will ask students to perform the act of request by sending an email to ask for permission to be absent from a conference that has been assigned. Have students rate the appropriateness of their request. Teachers will then revise the students' email messages and ask them to compare the revised message with their own in terms of head act, internal modification and external modification.

Procedure:

1. Ask students to send an email to the teachers in which they request permission to miss one of the assigned conferences.
2. Ask students to rate the appropriateness of their email messages and share the reason why they think they are appropriate or not.
3. Revise the students' email messages and send them back to them. Ask the students to compare the revised email message with their original in terms of head act, internal modification, and external modification.
4. Summarize by identifying the importance of using requests appropriately based on various contexts.

Week 10 12/05-12/11
Unit: Form Comparison/Use request in DCT

Level: Intermediate EFL learners

Time: 50 minutes

Goal: To provide learners with the opportunity to compare the use of requests in various contexts, and practice performing the act of requesting in DCT

Introduction:

This week, teachers will provide students with a situation and ask the students to respond. Later, teachers will provide a list of examples used by native English speakers in the same situation. Finally, have students practice performing the act of requesting in DCT.

Description of the Activity:

Teachers will provide a situation and ask the students to interpret the situation and respond to it. Teachers will provide a list of example responses to the same situation that the students encountered. Ask the students to compare their requests to the examples provided by the teachers and practice making requests in DCT.

Procedure:

1. Ask the students to read the following situation and share what they think is the friend's intention:

Situation: One of your friends has to leave home for a few days, but she does not have anyone to look after her cat while she is away. She wants you to do her a favor but she knows it is a big imposition, so she keeps telling you about the place she is visiting and why she cannot take her cat. You interrupt her and ask her what she is trying to say.

2. Ask the students to respond to the situation.
3. Provide a list of examples of responses by native English speakers in the same situation. Ask the students to compare their responses with the examples that their teachers have provided.
4. DCT situations exercise:

You are waiting in line for a movie with your friend. You just realized that you have left your wallet at home, and you do not have time to get it. You would like to ask a favor from your friend. What would you say to him or her?

You:

APPENDIX F**DISCOURSE COMPLETION TESTS**

Name
Gender
Major
Age

Discourse Completion Tests

Please read the following situations. Write what you would say in each situation. It is expected that you would say something in **English** in each of the situation.

Situation 1

The mid-term examination is approaching, and you have missed some classes. You like to borrow the class notes from one of your classmates who has attended class regularly. What would you say to him/her?

You: _____

Situation 2

You are applying for a new job in a small company and already set up the date and time for interview. However, you missed the time and would like to reschedule the appointment. What would you say to the manager?

You: _____

Situation 3

Your friend's birthday is coming and you are shopping for him/her. You see something in a display case that is appropriate as a gift. You want to look at it more closely. What would you say to the salesperson?

You: _____

Situation 4

You are going to your friend's new house. You thought you knew the direction to his/her house, but it seems that you are lost. You see a police officer and like to ask for direction. What would you say to him/her?

You: _____

Situation 5

You are supposed to hand in an assignment to your professor today. You have not been able to finish it. You would like to ask for an extension. What would you say to your professor?

You: _____

Situation 6

You have arrived a new place and would like to open an account at the bank. You go to the bank and find the bank teller. What would you say to him/her ?

You: _____

Situation 7

You are a freshman in university. Today, you go to school for orientation for new comers. But you can not find the building where you are supposed to go. Two students are approaching you, and you want to ask them for direction. What would you say to them?

You: _____

Situation 8

You are in a meeting with your boss. However, you forgot to bring a pen with you. You would like to borrow a pen from him/her. What would you say to your boss?

You: _____

Situation 9

You have worked in a company for more than 3 years. You would like to ask for a raise. You go to your supervisor's office. What would you say to him/her?

You: _____

Situation 10

You have arrived a hotel. It is time for you to check in. What would you say to the hotel representatives?

You: _____

Situation 11

You ask your classmate to pass a pencil to another classmate. What would you say to him/her?

You: _____

Situation 12

It is raining now. You need a ride home. You call your brother for help. What would you say to him?

You: _____

APPENDIX G

12 DCT SITUATIONS DISPLAYED IN TERMS OF POWER, SOCIAL DISTANCE, AND IMPOSITION

Situation	Power+	Power-	<u>SD</u> +	<u>SD</u> -	Imposition+	Imposition-
1		X		X	X	
2		X	X		X	
3	X		X			X
4		X	X			X
5		X		X	X	
6	X		X		X	
7	X		X			X
8		X		X		X
9		X		X	X	
10	X		X			X
11	X			X		X
12	X			X	X	

Power+: Speaker has a higher rank, title or social position, or is in control of the assets in the situation. Examples would be a supervisor, manager, or customer.

Power-: Speaker has a lower rank, title or social position, or is not in control of the assets in the situation. Examples would be a subordinate worker, member of an organization with less status, or salesperson serving a customer.

SD+: Speaker and hearer do not know or identify each other. They are strangers interacting in a social/life circumstance.

SD- : Speaker and hearer know and/or identify each other.
Examples are co-workers or people who belong to the same organization.

Imposition+: The hearer must expend a large amount of goods, services, or energy to carry out the request.

Imposition- : The hearer must expend a relatively small amount of goods, services, or energy to carry out the request.

(These definitions were adopted from Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1995). Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawaii)

APPENDIX H

RATING COMPONENTS DEFINITIONS

The raters were trained using the following definitions:

Ability to use the correct speech act:

Each situation is designed to elicit a particular speech act; you should consider and rate the degree to which each response captures what you consider to be the speech act the situation was intended to elicit. You may ask yourself the following: How appropriate is this speech act for this situation? Some possible problems may occur during the rating. As you read the responses, it should become apparent that speech acts are not mutually exclusive. For example, a request might begin with an apology: “I am sorry, but could you move your car?” It is still a requestive speech act. As long as the response includes the speech acts within it, it should be considered “appropriate” and be rated accordingly. It may also be the case that the response given is very indirect or is intended to introduce a topic without actually getting to the point. In these cases, you should still rate the given response on its appropriateness in the situation.

Expressions:

This category includes use of typical speech acts, gambits, and so on. Non-typical speech might result from the non-native speaker not knowing a particular English phrase or some types of first-language transfer. The question to ask yourself when rating this category is: How appropriate is the wording/are the expressions?

Amount of information:

In this category, the question is: “How much speech and/or information is appropriate for this given situation?” Do the participants provide sufficient and appropriate information in a certain situation for people to comprehend?

Politeness

Politeness includes the aspects of formality and directness that include the use of politeness markers (thanks, please, if you don’t mind, and so on). Because politeness has many elements, it is impossible to prescribe a formula of politeness for a given situation. Therefore, in this category, you should ask:” How much politeness is appropriate for this given situation?”

(The definitions and descriptions of the terms speech act, expression, amount of information and politeness are adopted from Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1995). Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawaii)

APPENDIX I

RATER'S RATING ON PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE

The two native raters rated participants' performance based on 5 point rating scale ranging from 1 to 5 as following:

1 point - Minimal attempt to complete the task and/or content frequently inappropriate

- The student makes an effort but falls short, possibly missing required elements.
- Response may be unrelated to the assigned task.
- There may be very little ratable material.

2 points - Partial completion of the task, content partially appropriate, ideas are undeveloped

- Response is partially relevant but lacks appropriate details.
- A required portion of the task may be missing.

3 points- Capture some ideas of the task, content partially appropriate, ideas partially developed

- Response is mostly relevant and shows partially appropriately details
- Some required portion of the task is missing

4 points – Demonstrate essential ideas of the task, content mostly appropriate, ideas adequately developed

- Most required elements are present.
- Response directly relates to the task as given.
- Response has sufficient information

5 points - Superior completion of the task, content appropriate, ideas well developed and well-organized

- Present all required elements
- Response directly relates to the task as given.
- Response has all sufficient information
- Response is well-organized

Situation#1	Participants coding #					Pre or Post Test
Speech act	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #2	Participants coding #					Pre or Post Test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #3	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Total Score						
Situation #4	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #5	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test

Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #6	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #7	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #8	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #9	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	

Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #10	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #11	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	
Situation #12	Participants coding #					Pre or Post test
Speech	1	2	3	4	5	
Expressions	1	2	3	4	5	
Amount of information	1	2	3	4	5	
Politeness	1	2	3	4	5	

VITA

CHIA-NING LIU
228 Stuttgart Circle
College Station, TX 77845
Phone: 979-695-2145
E-mail: jenny0916@hotmail.com

Education

- | | |
|---------------|---|
| 01/02 - 12/07 | Curriculum and Instruction, Texas A& M University, College Station, TX
Ph.D. Dec 2007 |
| 08/99 - 12/00 | Curriculum and Instruction, Texas A& M University, College Station, TX
Masters of Education Dec 2000 |
| 09/93 - 06/97 | Chinese Literature, Feng Chia University, Taichung, Taiwan
Bachelors of Arts June 1997
Four-Year Scholarship
National Chinese Talented Program |

Selected Publications and Presentations

Liu, C.N., Eslami, Z., & Cifuentes, L. (March, 2007). Learning pragmatics through Computer-Mediated Communications. Paper presented for 17th International Conference on Pragmatics and Language Learning. University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii.

Liu, C.N., Hsieh, Y.C., Cifuentes, L., & Eslami, Z. (Oct, 2006). From theory into practice: An on-line learning experience between Taiwanese EFL college students and their Texas partners. *AECT*, Dallas, TX.

Liu, C.N., Hsieh, Y.C., Eslami, Z., & Cifuentes, L. (Jan, 2006). Learning “Pragmatics” on-line through partnership: A cross-cultural study between Taiwanese college students and their Texan tutors. *The 11th Annual Educational Research Exchange*, Jan, 27, 2006. 1st place of poster competition.

Liu, C.N., Hsieh, Y.C., Eslami, Z., & Cifuentes, L. (2005). Learning “Pragmatics” on-line through partnership: A cross-cultural study between Taiwanese college students and their Texan tutors. *Proceedings of the 28th annual Conference of the Associations for Educational Communications and Technology*, pp.328-335.

Liu, C.N., & Eslami, Z. (Jan, 2005). Learning “Pragmatics” on-line: Celebrations and Challenges. *The 10th Annual Educational Research Exchange*, Jan 28th, 2005.