KOREAN ESL LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE: MOTIVATION, AMOUNT OF CONTACT, AND LENGTH OF RESIDENCE

A Dissertation

by

SOO JIN AHN

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

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ABSTRACT

Korean ESL Learners' Pragmatic Competence: Motivation, Amount of Contact, and Length of Residence. (December 2007)

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This study examined the motivation for learning English, the amount of contact with English, and length of residence in the target language area that affects Korean graduate students' English pragmatic skills studying at Texas A&M University in the U.S. The study attempted to account for differential pragmatic development among 50 graduate-level Korean students in a target speech community in regards to functions of their level of motivation, amount of contact with English, as well as length of residence in the target language community.

Compared to other studies of second-language acquisition (SLA) which have examined variation among individuals with respect to L2 language learning for quite some time, there has been relatively little inquiry into how second language learners acquire L2 pragmatics and which factors affect learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatics. Based on the need for more research on the individual difference factors that affect developmental outcomes in L2 pragmatics, the following research questions were

investigated: 1) How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' degree of motivation related with their achievement of pragmatic competence? 2) How is the reported amount of contact with English related with the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence? 3) How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' length of residence related with their achievement of pragmatic competence? 4) To what extent does student motivation relate to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English? The data for the present study were collected using three types of elicitation instruments: a written background questionnaire, a discourse completion test, and the mini- Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. Analyses in the present study proceeded in three stages: descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, and multiple regressions.

The findings of the study provided that (a) the levels of motivation examined demonstrated a positive and moderate relationship to the Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic competence; (b) overall, the amount of L2 contact appeared to have only a weak and insignificant impact on the participants' pragmatic competence; (c) despite (b), one exception was that productive, more interactive type of language contact moderately influenced the participants' level of pragmatic competence; (d) the participants' length of residence moderately influenced the participants' level of pragmatic competence; and (e) the participants' level of motivation moderately affected their likelihood of pursuing contact with English.

DEDICATION

To my mother

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my chair, Dr. Zohreh Eslami for giving me the time and effort to complete this dissertation. This dissertation would not have been possible without her advice and comments. I am also greatly indebted to my committee members, Dr. Lynne Masel Walters, Dr. Zulmaris Diaz, and Dr. Rafael Lara-Alecio for their much appreciated feedback which helped me present this study in its final version.

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Most of all, my deepest gratitude goes to my family, especially my mother for her persistent love, support, sacrifice, and prayer.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chomsky (1965) defined language competence as the ability to produce grammatically correct words and forms. In the Chomskyan tradition, other abilities, such as being able to know when to use language, and under what circumstances, were not considered part of language competence. In contrast to this narrow concept, Hymes (1972) introduced the concept of communicative competence, which covers the ability to convey communicative intent appropriately in social interaction. Although essential components of pragmatic competence are included in Hymes' model under sociolinguistic competence, Bachman (1990) was the first to make pragmatic competence itself a focus of inquiry.

According to Bachman, pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary competence plus sociolinguistic competence. Illocutionary competence is knowledge of how language, including its forms and structures, is used, and sociolinguistic competence is concerned with how language is interpreted within a given context. The distinction between illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence is reminiscent of Leech's (1983) and Thomas's (1983) division of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics concerns how speakers perform a variety of

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The dissertation follows the style of *Language Learning*.

language functions through utterances, and sociopragmatics concerns how speakers appropriately use language according to context (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983).

One comes to understanding aspects of pragmatic competence in the realization of such speech acts – one pragmalinguistic aspects and the other sociopragmatic. Speech acts are attempts by a speaker to express communicative intentions in a given context and produce a particular effect in the mind of the hearer. A speech act framework is based on theories of illocutionary acts originally introduced by Austin (1962) and further developed by Searle (1969). Austin claimed that communication is a series of communicative acts that are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes. In short, saying something means doing something. Austin contrasted the illocutionary act with the locutionary act and the perlocutionary act. Building on Austin's work, Searle (1980, p. vii) argued that the basic unit of human linguistic communication is the illocutionary act and that illocutionary acts are rule-governed forms of behavior, writing that "the minimal unit of communication is not a sentence or other expression, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, describing, …, etc."

With a focus on the pragmatic aspects of language use, much attention in second-language learning has been devoted to second-language (L2) learners' pragmatic competence. This has led to the study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), "the branch of second-language research which studies how non-native speakers (NNS) understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge" (Kasper, 1992, p. 203). Many ILP studies have revealed that even when L2 learners' utterances are perfectly grammatical, they may violate social norms in the target language because of their lack of pragmatic competence. (Thomas, 1983; Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998). Thus, learners' deviations from native usage may result in pragmatic errors "in that they fail to convey or comprehend illocutionary force or politeness value" (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p.10).

Appropriate language use is important; lack of pragmatic competence can have serious consequences for a learner residing in a community where the target language is spoken. Unaware of the rules and patterns that condition the behavior of native speakers, the learner does not know how to interpret or respond to the conversation that otherwise could lead to increased interaction and even friendships with members of the target language. Inappropriate or inadequate discourse by NNS may lead to negative assessments or impressions by native speakers that can lead them to avoid the NNS. Consequently, learners who have less opportunity to interact with NS in the target language have less of a chance to learn the language and the pragmatic patterns that are an indispensable part of each speech act.

It is evident that native speakers also have various pragmalects that reflect their individual personalities. However, there is no doubt that learners' usage of the target language is relatively more susceptible to misunderstandings that cause breakdowns in communication (Barron, 2002, p.76). Nevertheless, it is clear that interlanguage pragmatics researchers must disregard the hypothesis that "difference = deficit" and instead adopt a descriptive and non-evaluative approach to interlanguage and L2 data to predict which aspects of the learner's linguistic behavior are more (or less) likely to lead to pragmatic failure and which aspects will be relatively more readily accepted (or not accepted) in the target language community (Barron, 2005).

Statement of the Problem

The theoretical and empirical study of interlanguage and intercultural pragmatics has grown significantly over the last two decades (Ellis, 1994). In the past two decades, a substantial body of empirical research in interlanguage pragmatics has tried to describe how speech acts performed by non-native speakers of various linguistic and cultural backgrounds differ from the target language norms. These studies have focused on the production or comprehension of speech acts such as requests, refusals, apologies, and compliments. Compared to other studies of second-language acquisition (SLA), which have examined variation among individuals with respect to L2 language learning for quite some time, most ILP studies to date have been limited to finding how L2 learners perform a particular speech act, and there has been relatively little inquiry into how they acquire L2 pragmatics and which factors affect learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Kasper & Rose, 2002a). Given the fact that acquisition of pragmatic competence has been emphasized in the area of language learning, it is imperative to define more clearly what pragmatic competence is and how it develops. Although previous research has put forth some plausible explanations as to how pragmatic competence is acquired (Kasper, 1992), relatively little is known about which factors influence a learner's acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge.

In the ILP literature, cross-sectional studies and a few longitudinal studies have traced the development of language learners' pragmatic competence (Schmidt, 1983; Siegal, 1994; Bouton, 1999). Such studies revealed that the development of pragmatic competence is very complex and varies greatly from individual to individual depending on learner-related factors such as attitude, proficiency, learning context, and length of residence in the target community (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Researchers have proposed various hypotheses to account for which factors correspond to learners' high levels of L2 pragmatics.

Many researchers have studied the advantages of a second-language context in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics. They claim that in a second-language context, learners encounter more widespread opportunities to use the language and are regularly exposed to the greater availability of pragmatic input in the L2. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that longer length of residence and greater amount of contact with a second-language context would lead to better outcomes in L2 pragmatics (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). However, many questions still remain about the validity of the assumption that living abroad provides an ideal context for language learning (Yager, 1998). We know, for example, that not all individuals who live abroad for an extended time make the same linguistic gains. The second-language context that provides ESL learners many opportunities to engage in using English would be advantageous for some, but not all learners take advantage of the available opportunities.

In addition to the second-language context, student motivation also plays a part in language development. Much of the research on the socioeducational model has explored the role of motivation in language learning and its importance in producing individual differences in the various forms of second-language acquisition (Gardner & Macintyre, 1992, 1993a). In the area of ILP, Takahashi (2001, 2005) speculated that motivation could be one of the most influential individual variables to account for differences in learners' noticing of a L2 pragmatic input (in particular, learners' noticing of bi-clausal complex request forms and other nonrequest features of the input). The study shows that highly motivated learners have more pragmalinguistic awareness than less-motivated learners.

A number of SLA studies suggest that motivation is one of the variables that provide the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning, and later sustain the long-term learning process. However, depending on the area of language to be studied, motivation has been found to have more or less effect. Au (1998) pointed out that a number of studies have revealed zero or negative relationships between motivation and L2 proficiency. Moreover, a dearth of data in the ILP studies has made it difficult to establish a theoretical framework for a positive relationship between learners' motivation and their L2 pragmatic competence. Indeed, there is a need to explore the role of motivation in the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge.

This study focuses on a second-language context and motivation as variables affecting the participants' L2 pragmatic development. Even though the participants in the present study were ESL students studying in the second-language context, it was likely that they would vary individually in the amount of English-language contact they had in everyday life and in their length of stay, as well as in their levels of motivation to learn English and to converge to or diverge from L2 pragmatic norms, which, in turn, may have affected their individual L2 pragmatic competence. Including the amount of contact and length of residence, as well as motivation, as the main factors in pragmatic development made it possible to examine the effects of these indicators on the participants' L2 pragmatic development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine what level of English pragmatic competence is attained by Koreans studying at an American university, and to try to find out which factors contributed to the levels attained. Specifically, the effects of a second-language context chosen were the amount of language contact and length of residence, in addition to motivational variables that influenced the subjects' reasons for studying abroad and learning English as a second-language. The term context as it was used here should be understood to refer not simply to the environment in which the participants are situated at a given time, but also to include reference to their relationship with the environment. Based on the findings of previous studies, the investigator expected that longer length of residence in the target language area and greater amount of L2 contact would tend to promote the subjects' L2 pragmatics. Moreover, students who were more motivated to learn English would be more likely to develop L2 pragmatics.

Theoretical Framework

Most ILP studies to date have been limited to how L2 learners perform a particular speech act, and there has been relatively little on acquisitional research on L2 pragmatics (Kasper, 1992). Even though some studies have been acquisitional, they are most often cross-sectional studies and there have been relatively few longitudinal studies which have traced the development of language learners' pragmatic competence (Schmidt, 1983; Siegal, 1994; Bouton, 1999). Such studies revealed that the development of pragmatic competence is very complex and varies greatly from individual to individual depending on learner-related factors such as attitude, proficiency, learning context, length of residence in the target community, and so on (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). More recently, greater emphasis has been placed on individual differences in acquiring L2 pragmatic competence. Researchers have proposed various hypotheses to account for which factors correspond to learners' high levels of L2 pragmatics.

Ioup's study (1995) supports the positive effect of a natural context for language acquisition. According to her, language learners in informal linguistic environments can achieve native-like level of proficiency without formal instruction. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) compared Japanese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language) learners' production of refusals and found that the ESL learners' refusals were more target-like. House (1996) found that learners who had stayed in English-speaking countries consistently performed better than their peers who had not, both before and after instruction. Rover (1996) found that German EFL students who had spent as little as six weeks in English-speaking countries outperformed learners who did not in the use of pragmatic routines.

Contrary to what these studies claim, however, some researchers argue that length of residence in the target country is not a good predictor for the attainment of increased pragmatic proficiency in the L2. Kondo (1997) examined Japanese EFL learners' apology performance before and after one year of home stay in the United States, and compared them with L1 speakers of Japanese and American English. In some respects, the students' apologies became more target-like, but in others they did not. In a more recent study, Rodriguez (2001) investigated the effect of a semester studying in a target-language community by examining students' request strategies. The findings of the study showed no advantage at all for the study-abroad students. Roever (2001b) also observed that neither learners' comprehension of implicatures nor performance of speech acts in English benefited from the learners' time abroad.

According to Rodriguez and Roever, L2 learners are unlikely to achieve high pragmatic competence in their L2 simply by living in the second-language culture for an extended period of time. It is possible, they argue, that the learner may need to be involved in intensive interaction with native speakers and in intensive contact with the target language in order to achieve native-like pragmatic skills in the L2, in the same way that children acquire their L1 through continuous interaction with adults and peers (Ninio & Snow, 1996).

In second language acquisition (SLA), it is widely assumed that the extensive contact with language is one of the crucial variables in the successful acquisition of the target language (Seliger, 1977; Swain, 1998). For example, Stern (1983) believed that good language learners "seek communicative contact with target language community members and become actively involved as participants in authentic language use" (p. 411). Milleret's (1991) study also showed that lack of the learners' contact with the L2 limits the opportunity for language practice. According to her study, linguistic contact is the basis for much of the learning for study-abroad learners. In addition, Pica (1996) and Ellis (1994) offered evidence to validate the positive correlations between constant contact with the target language and language learning. They claimed that an immersion experience in the target language environment would play a significant role in the SLA of the students.

The above-mentioned studies have proved that the amount of contact learners have with the target language is significant in promoting language proficiency. Nevertheless, some studies examining the effects of contact with the L2 on learners' proficiency have reported mixed findings (Spada, 1984; Day, 1984; DeKeyer, 1986; Freed, 1995b; Brecht et al., 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Yager, 1998; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004).

In her study, Spada (1984) found that language contact did not account for differences in improvement on any of the proficiency measures, tests of grammar, discourse, and sociolinguistic skills. Day (1985) used Seliger's investigation as a springboard to conduct his own investigation into the relationship between the extensive contact with the target language and ESL students' L2 proficiency. His hypothesis was that greater contact with English would be significantly related to the scores the subjects obtained on two measures of ESL proficiency, the oral interview and a cloze test. Day found no support for his hypothesis.

Additionally, Freed (1990)'s study was to investigate the effects of the amount of contact of American students of a foreign language on their L2 proficiency. She discovered that there was no evidence that the extensive contact with the L2 supported any growth in oral proficiency. Yager's (1998) study also attempted to discover whether the extent contact of L2 learners of Spanish are related to greater gains in their oral proficiency while staying in Mexico. He found that no significant correlations occur between language contact and Spanish gain for the students.

The much greater availability of linguistic contact and longer length of residence in the target community would lead to advantages for language learners. However, learner-related factors could hinder or enhance the development of pragmatic knowledge. Niezgoda and Rover (2001) showed that learning setting may not be the only factor influencing the development of pragmatic competence. Instead, affective variables possibly play an important role in learners' L2 pragmatic acquisition. Because motivation has been shown to play a key role in the rate and success of second or foreign language learning (Vandergrift, 2005), it is worthwhile to further investigate whether the language learner's access to the target language community is relevant to his/her degree of motivation, which influences pragmatic competence. Schmidt (1993) observed that "those who are concerned with establishing relationships with target language speakers are more likely to pay close attention to the pragmatic aspects of input and to struggle to understand than those who are not so motivated"(p. 36).

Much of the work in SLA has concerned the role of motivation in promoting language proficiency. The most influential theory of language learning motivation is Gardner and Lambert's (1972) socio-educational model. The classic study by Gardner and Lambert (1972) established the notions of integrative and instrumental orientations. An integrative orientation refers to reasons for L2 learning that are derived from one's emotional identification with another cultural group and a favorable attitude toward the language community, whereas an instrumental orientation indicates an interest in the more practical advantages of learning a new language, such as job advancement (Vandergrift, 2005).

Gardner (2001) suggested that learners with an integrative orientation would be more successful in learning the second-language than those who were instrumentally oriented, because individuals with an integrative orientation would demonstrate greater motivational effort in learning, and thus achieving, greater L2 competence. Although some studies have indicated that the integrative orientation was a good predictor of L2 proficiency, others have found that the instrumental orientation is an equivalent or a better predictor than integrative orientation. More recently, researchers have argued that these orientations are not mutually exclusive, and learners are not motivated solely by one goal or another, but rather may have several reasons for learning a language, although some are expected to be more important than others (Noels, 2001).

Although motivation is widely considered to be a primary source of individual differences in L2 acquisition (Dörnyei, 2001), depending on the area of language to be studied, motivation has been found to have more or less effect. For example, there is little evidence for a relationship between motivation and the acquisition of phonology (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Freed's (1990) study also showed that motivation did not affect the French learners' tendency to pursue interaction in L2. Furthermore, in their study overall motivation did not affect the L2 acquisition. Of the various types of motivation identified in the general psychological literature, some seem more relevant to L2 acquisition than others. For example, Brown et al. (2001) found that the Motivational Intensity subscale and the Desire to Learn English subscale were positively correlated with measures of social extroversion. Also, intrinsic motivation in some studies seemed to be more relevant for language learning than extrinsic motivation, but then again intrinsic motivation might not be relevant to the L2 acquisition in others (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Indeed, further research on the role of motivation in L2 pragmatic competence is required as such research which establishes direct links between motivation and pragmatic development is still in its infancy. Overall, to shed more light on the influence of motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence on the subjects' pragmatic competence, this study was conducted.

Research Questions

The current study investigated the following research questions:

1. How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' degree of motivation, as measured by the mini-AMTB, related with their achievement of pragmatic competence?
2. How is the reported amount of contact with English, as measured by the background questionnaire, related with the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence?
3. How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' length of residence, as measured by the background questionnaire, related with their achievement of pragmatic competence?
4. To what extent does student motivation relate to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English?

Definition of Terms

Compliment: a speech act that explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker—usually the person with whom one is speaking—for some 'good' that is positively valued by both the speaker and hearer (Holmes, 1988).

Compliment response: a speech act that concerns responding to compliments appropriately.

Pragmatic competence: the component of communicative language ability that is related to the use of language and knowledge of its appropriateness to the current context (Bachman, 1990).

Interlanguage: a term coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the systematic knowledge of an L2 that is independent of both the target language and the learner's L1.

Speech act: an utterance that performs a specific function in communication, such as requesting, apologizing, complimenting, complaining, or refusing (Searle, 1980).

Motivation: a concept used to describe the internal factors that arouse, maintain, and channel behavior toward a goal (Frankl, 1992).

Comprehensible input: as put forth by Krashen (1981), input in the form of samples of language that includes linguistic material that is a bit beyond the learner's actual level of language competence.

Interactive language use: an interactional input which provides learners more opportunities to getting comprehensible linguistic input because of the necessity for the learner to negotiate meaning with his/her interlocutor. As Long (1982) maintains, negotiation of meaning is the key to getting comprehensible input, which in turn is thought to aid the second language acquisition process. During the negotiation process, speakers try to repair breakdown in the course of communication to attain satisfactory understanding and this process of modification pushes learners to improve the accuracy of their production resulted in immediate improved performance which could contribute to second language development. Based on this hypothesis, productive, more interactive use of language (e.g., conversational interaction in English and emailing or chatting via the internet) that a participant had with other people can be viewed as a type of language contact which is more beneficial to the learner than mere exposure to receptive, less interactive use of language (e.g., reading books and watching television and listening to the radio, etc).

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, it was performed using a limited sample size, making replication with a larger sample necessary to confirm the results. Second, the study had no interview or verbal report sessions to provide the 'why' of students' responses on questionnaires. In a future study, therefore, the verbal-report such as in-depth interview with participants may help in the interpretation of student responses on questionnaires and in examining students' insights at different stages of their interlanguage development. In addition, the present findings should not be extended to other Korean ESL learners beyond the present sample because no random selection was conducted. Finally, additional research is needed to further examine the effect of motivation, contact, and length of residence using different pragmatic measures, in other speech acts, and with different groups of learners.

Significance of the Study

This study is designed with the intent of providing information on the acquisition of L2 pragmatics by considering how Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence is related to their levels of motivation, amount of L2 contact, and length of residence in the target language community. Although interest in interlanguage pragmatics has grown, there are still relatively few systematic investigations into understanding the factors that contribute to the learners' pragmatic knowledge in a L2. In this sense, the present study would shed some light on the largely unexamined relationships between learners' pragmatic competence and individual variables. This study intends to broaden our perspective of the most important variables that affect L2 pragmatic acquisition in the study of ILP.

Organization of the Dissertation

This study has a total of five chapters. Chapter I introduces the topic of this study and provides a broad overview of the entire research project. Chapter II reviews the relevant scholarly literature that is based on the theoretical background of the study: pragmatic competence, cross-cultural pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, individual difference (ID) research, research methods in ILP, speech act theory, speech act of compliments, and politeness theory. Chapter III introduces the methodology and procedures of the study: population, instrumentations, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Chapter IV presents the statistical results of the study. Finally, Chapter V offers a discussion of the research findings, conclusions, implications of the study, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Pragmatic Competence

Chomsky (1965) defined language competence as purely linguistic knowledge – the ability to produce grammatically correct words and forms. Hymes (1972) rejected the idea, claiming that speakers are competent not only when they have knowledge of grammatical rules but when they know how to use them for communication. In his seminal article 'The ethnography of speaking,' Hymes (1962) sees context as constraining the way the individual uses his or her language in everyday life. According to Hymes, therefore, successful and effective speaking is not just a matter of using grammatically correct words and forms but also of knowing when to use them and under what circumstances (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990). Although pragmatic competence is essentially included in Hymes' model under sociolinguistic competence, Bachman (1990) was the first to focus exclusively on pragmatic competence.

According to Bachman (1990), language competence has two discrete components: pragmatic competence and organizational competence. Pragmatic competence comprises illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence; illocutionary competence is conceived as knowledge of how language is used with its forms and structures, and sociolinguistic competence is concerned with how language is interpreted within a given context. Organizational competence is made up of grammatical competence and textual competence. Grammatical competence concerns vocabulary, syntax, morphology, and phonology. Textual competence relates to coherence and rhetorical organization (pp. 87-9). For pragmatic knowledge, Bachman's model of the components of language competence offers a clear schema of pragmatic competence by broadening the definition to include both illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence.

The distinction between illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence is reminiscent of Leech and Thomas's division of pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics concerns how speakers perform a variety of language functions through utterances, and sociopragmatics concerns how speakers appropriately use language according to context (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). Bachman's illocutionary competence parallels Leech's concept of pragmalinguistics, and sociolinguistic competence corresponds to Leech's sociopragmatic component. More specifically, Cohen (1996) proposed two distinct levels of abilities required for acquisition of pragmatic competence: (1) sociocultural ability to select which speech act strategies are appropriate for the culture involved, the situation, the speakers' background variables such as age, sex, social class, occupations, and relationship in the interaction, and (2) sociolinguistic ability to choose the correct language forms for realizing the speech act. There are certainly areas of overlap among the taxonomies examined above, in that they are all centrally concerned with the effect of context on language.

Context is the quintessential pragmatic concept. According to Mey (1993), "language is the chief means by which people communicate. The use of language, for various purposes, is governed by the conditions of society, inasmuch as these conditions determine the users' access to, and control of, their communicative means. Hence, pragmatics is the study of the conditions of human language use as these are determined by the context of society" (p. 42). Even though pragmatic constraints on language inform people how to use and not to use language in a certain context, the concept of context is not static. Rather, context is dynamic, because it constantly changes and develops with the continuous interaction of the people using the language. In this sense, a truly pragmatic consideration cannot limit itself to the study of mechanically encoded aspects of context (Mey, 1993, p. 42). Hymes sees context as constraining the way the individual speaks, whereas Levinson sees the individual's use of language as shaping the 'event.'

Mey (1993) generally followed Levinson but stresses the idea of pragmatics as the study of language use for interaction and the societal determinants that govern it, (e.g., how interlocutors use appropriate forms of language and communicative strategies to achieve personal goals within a societal framework). Likewise, Crystal (1997) followed a similar approach, defining pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 301).

Stalker (1989) stated that Gumperz also describes communicative competence in interactional terms as the knowledge of linguistic-related communicative conventions that a speaker must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation. In other words, Gumperz (1982) conceptualized communicative competence as the knowledge of rules of grammar on the one hand, and linguistic knowledge that governs the appropriate use of grammar in a communicative situation on the other. Indeed, pragmatics basically concerns appropriateness of forms of language and, in a more elaborate definition, appropriateness of meaning in social contexts.

Pragmatic competence calls for a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts. Related to this, Bialystok (1993) proposed three aspects of pragmatic competence. First, it includes speakers' ability to use language for different purposes (e.g., to request, to instruct, and to effect change). Second, it includes the hearer's ability to understand the speaker's communicative intentions, especially when these intentions are not directly conveyed (e.g., indirect requests, irony, or sarcasm). Indeed, it is possible to understand the sense of every word a speaker utters, yet still not understand what the speaker means. In the same context, J. L. Austin used the term 'force' to refer to the speaker's communicative intention. He maintained that there are two levels of speaker meaning: utterance meaning and force. For example, someone may say to you: *Is that your car?* Although you have no problem understanding the meaning (the first level of speaker meaning), you might not understand the force the speaker intends, for example, whether the speaker is expressing admiration or scorn (Thomas, 1995) Third, pragmatic competence includes command of the rules by which utterances are strung together to create discourse. This apparently simple achievement to produce coherent speech itself has several components: turn-taking, cooperation, and cohesion (Bialystok, 1993, p. 43).

Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

Researchers have claimed that there is wide variability across languages and cultures in pragmatic principles, which are governed by a set of internal and cultural expectations that may or may not be transferable in intercultural exchanges (Wierzbicka, 1991; Clyne, 1994). To this end, a number of studies in cross-cultural pragmatics have generated empirical data to provide more examples of similarities and differences across languages.

One area of research that has contributed immensely to cross-cultural pragmatics is speech acts (LoCastro, 2003). A number of studies comparing different languages in speech act realizations have been conducted in the past two decades in an attempt to identify cross-cultural variables that affect realization of speech acts: compliments (Barnlund & Araki (1985), Herbert (1989), Saito & Beecken (1997), Wolfson (1989)); requests (Blum-Kulka, Danet, & Gerson (1985), Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989), Eslami-Rasekh (1993)); thanks and apologies (Coulmas (1981), Cohen & Olshtain (1981), Eslami-Rasekh (2005)); complaints (Trosborg (1995)); refusals (Beebe et al. (1990)).

These studies have found linguistic differences that are associated with cultural differences, challenging the notion of universality in speech act behavior (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They suggest that speech acts are culture-specific and should be examined within the sociocultural norms and values of each culture. The question of whether pragmatic phenomena are universal or culture-specific has been debated in the literature to date (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Wierzbicka, 1991; Yu, 1999). Ochs (1996) argued against this perspective, saying that "there are commonalities across the world's language communities and communities of practice in the linguistic means used to constitute certain situational meanings. This principle suggests that human interlocutors use similar linguistic means to achieve similar social ends" (p. 425). Likewise, Blum-Kulka (1991) suggested that, to a certain extent, some pragmatic rules appear to be universal across languages and cultures. For example, all languages and cultures seem to have some conversation strategies like indirectness, routines, or performance of communicative action depending on contextual factors (e.g., speaker's and hearer's social distance and social power, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition implicated in communicative acts).

However, Wierzbicka (1991) rejected this universal culture principle, dismissing it as showing an Anglo-centric bias of modern pragmatics. She suggested that speech acts vary in conceptualization as well as verbalization across cultures because pragmatic norms reflect the different hierarchies of values that underpin different cultures. Clyne (1994) also argued that to determine discourse patterns requires not just an inquiry into the language structure, but into the very culture. Using language and participating in society are closely related in our daily life, and, therefore, one might imagine the difficulty faced when trying to assign meanings to lexical, grammatical, phonological, and discursive structures without an understanding of the social situations those structures depict. Rather, the acquisition of language and the acquisition of social and cultural knowledge are intertwined (Ochs, 1996).

Interlanguage Pragmatics

Over the past two decades, much attention in second-language learning has been devoted to L2 learners' pragmatic competence, which has led to the study of interlanguage pragmatics: "the branch of second-language research which studies how non-native speakers (NNS) understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge" (Kasper, 1992, p. 203). Notwithstanding the growing interest in ILP, some areas of investigation in interlanguage pragmatics are quite distinct from studies in SLA. In terms of scope, Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) argued that interlanguage pragmatics belong to both the areas of second-language acquisition and pragmatics. Although many researchers view interlanguage pragmatics as a component of second-language acquisition, this relationship has sometimes been overlooked, and much of the research on interlanguage pragmatics has not really reflected interlanguage or acquisition at all (Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

Most ILP studies to date have been limited to how L2 learners perform a particular speech act, and there has been relatively little on acquisitional research on L2 pragmatics (Kasper, 1992). Given the fact that acquisition of pragmatic competence has been emphasized in the area of language learning, it is imperative to define more clearly what pragmatic competence is and how it develops. Kasper (1992) also observed the dominance of comparative studies methods over acquisition studies in interlanguage pragmatic;

> The bulk of interlanguage pragmatics research derived its research questions and methods from empirical, and particularly cross-cultural, pragmatics. Typical issues addressed in data-based studies are whether NNS differ from NS in the 1) range and 2) contextual distribution of 3) strategies and 4) linguistic forms used to convey 5) illocutionary meaning and 6) politeness – precisely the kinds of issues raised in comparative studies of different communities. . . . Interlanguage pragmatics has predominantly been the sociolinguistic, and to a much lesser extent a psycholinguistic [or acquisitional] study of NNS' linguistic action (p. 205).

The fact that a number of studies on acquisition have been published after Kasper's article implies that other researchers also recognized the need for research into the development of pragmatic competence (Achiba, 2003; Barron, 2002; Schauer, 2004). However, only a rather limited number of studies have generated findings that have significantly changed the overall character of interlanguage pragmatism which has predominantly been contrastive rather than acquisitional.

The reason for this, Kasper claimed, is that interlanguage pragmatics has been modeled on the field of cross-cultural pragmatics. Takahashi (1996) and Bardovi-Harlig (2001) also pointed out that the inclusion of the term *interlanguage* does not necessarily indicate that the research is on acquisition; rather, it is most often comparative in nature. For example, the label *nonnative speakers,* as compared to *learners,* is more often used in cross-cultural studies in which participants are grouped primarily according to their first language, not their level of L2 acquisition.

A second reason is that the research has concentrated on investigating the pragmatics of advanced NNSs rather than learners at all levels. Most cross-sectional studies in ILP have focused on advanced learners, because the level of difficulty of the tasks employed required that learners be proficient enough in the target language to complete a written DCT or an oral role-play. Thus, most researchers include university students as participants for practical reasons—those are the learners to which they have access. However, most university students in the U.S. are at the intermediate or advanced levels of proficiency by the time they reach the university, since most have already had considerable exposure to the target language. The problem with using advanced learners in studies of the acquisition of pragmatics in a second-language is simply that it does not allow insight into the developmental aspects of acquisition. Studies in SLA, as compared to those in ILP, have examined grammatical competence in terms of the identifiable developmental stages of a learner's interlanguage. Therefore, the isolation of all developmental stages is necessary in acquisitional studies.

Some studies, however, have been acquisitional in nature, and a few have even examined pragmatic competence longitudinally (e.g., Schmidt, 1983; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Kanagy & Igarashi, 1997). Despite this, however, numerous constraints remain in carrying out longitudinal studies (e.g., time, finances, attrition, and so on). As a result, many studies in interlanguage pragmatics that focus on acquisition are cross-sectional in design while others are pseudolongitudinal (Rose, 2000). A movement in interlanguage pragmatics research from comparative studies to either cross-sectional or longitudinal research would result in more acquisitionally oriented interlanguage pragmatics studies, linking interlanguage pragmatics research more directly to the scope of SLA research (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Still, the central question is this: How do learners proceed from a beginning stage to intermediate and advanced stages of pragmatic ability? Descriptive accounts of pragmatic development remain scarce.

This leads to the question of what acquisitional interlanguage pragmatics would look like. Such a research agenda is extensively considered by Kasper and Schmidt's (1996) article, which, in turn, is dedicated to the development of pragmatic competence. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) asked the following 14 questions about interlanguage pragmatics:

1. Are there universal rules of language underlying cross-linguistic variation, and, if so, do they play a role in interlanguage pragmatics?
2. How can approximation to target language norms be measured?

3. Does the L1 influence the learning of a second language?
4. Is pragmatic development in a second language similar to first language learning?
5. Do children enjoy an advantage over adults in learning a second language?
6. Is there a natural route of development, as evidenced by difficulty, accuracy, acquisition orders, or discrete stages of development?
7. Does type of input make a difference?
8. Does instruction make a difference?
9. Do motivation and attitudes make a difference in level of acquisition?
10. Does personality play a role?
11. Does learners' gender play a role?
12. Does (must) perception or comprehension precede production in acquisition?
13. Does chunk learning (formulaic speech) play a role in acquisition?
14. What mechanisms drive development from stage to stage?

With respect to these questions, considerable cross-sectional studies and a few longitudinal studies have traced the development of language learners' pragmatic competence (Schmidt, 1983; Siegal, 1994; Bouton, 1999). Such studies revealed that the development of pragmatic competence is very complex and varies greatly from individual to individual depending on learner-related factors such as attitude, proficiency, learning context, length of residence in the target community, and so on (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). More recently, greater emphasis has been placed on individual differences in acquiring L2 pragmatic competence. Researchers have proposed various hypotheses to account for which factors correspond to learners' high levels of L2 pragmatics.

However, the results of these studies have been controversial, and some have not found a strong correlation between the learner's acquisition of pragmatic knowledge and these factors. The growing body of research on ultimate attainment of L2 pragmatics has tried to identify sets of factors that predict high levels of achievement in L2 pragmatics. Numerous challenges still remain in attempting to understand the influence of the various factors that predict high levels of achievement in L2 pragmatics.

The Role of Individual Difference Variables (ID) in the Development of Second Language Pragmatics

Viewing ID factors in language learning has a long tradition in SLA. ID research implies that the search for universal processes in SLA needs to consider learner-to-learner variation, because different learner attributes may have different consequences for language achievement. Existing research in SLA has investigated the social, psychological, cognitive, and personal dimensions of L2 learning, which impact how much and how quickly the individual will learn given the opportunity to acquire an L2 (Collentine & Freed, 2004).

Social factors include variables such as the dominance or subordination of his L1 and L2 groups, preservation, acculturation, or assimilation, enclosure, size, congruence, attitude, and intended length of residence in the target language culture. The basic theory is that the language learner's emotional and social attachment to the target language culture has a positive effect on the amount of language learned. Cross-cultural adjustment and acculturation have been cited as particularly important in determining how much language will be learned. Additionally, attitudes are another important social factor. If the L2 group and TL groups have positive attitudes toward each other, second-language learning is more likely to occur than if they view each other negatively (Schumann, 1986). Intended length of residence in the target language area is another crucial factor. A language learner who intends to remain for a long time in the target language area is more likely to develop extensive contact with the target language members that promotes second-language learning (Schumann, 1986, pp. 381-382).

Psychological factors include variables such as language shock, culture shock, culture stress, integrative or instrumental motivation, and ego-permeability. Schumann (1986) concluded that learners may acquire the language to the extent that they are acculturated to the target language group, and he identified learners' social and psychological state as active factors in language acquisition (p. 379).

Cognitive factors include the learner's language aptitude, intelligence, and differing attention levels. Learners may differ in whether they direct or orient their attention to the input they receive, as well as the output they produce, and these differences may play a crucial role in developmental outcomes in language learning (Skehan & Foster, 2001). Another cognitive variable is related to language learning aptitude, which refers to a learner's basic cognitive disposition or readiness for language learning.

Personality factors are concerned with age, gender, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, tolerance of ambiguity, language learning styles, and language learning strategies (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Many hypotheses have been proposed to account for which personality variables influence success in language learning. The results in this area of research suggest that no single clear-cut and superior variable facilitates acquisition. More importantly, whereas the study of ID has long been a recognized subfield of SLA research, the role of ID factors in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics has rarely been addressed. Studies in the ILP literature that have been conducted to examine learners' pragmatic competence at various stages of pragmatic development have so far used L2 linguistic proficiency, length of residence in a target speech, amount of contact with the target language, and motivation as the main indicators of L2 pragmatic competence (Kasper & Rose, 2002a). Even though the growing body of research on attainment in L2 pragmatics showed sets of factors that contribute to learners' levels of L2 pragmatic achievement, numerous challenges still remain in attempting to understand the individual difference factors that affect developmental outcomes in L2 pragmatics.

Linguistic Proficiency

In ILP, many studies have found that a learner who acquires more linguistic proficiency gradually acquires more knowledge of L2 pragmatics. In a large-scale study of requests, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) found a bell-shaped curve in their learners' suppliance of supportive moves; while low-proficiency learners of Hebrew undersupplied supportive moves, intermediate learners oversupplied them, and high-proficiency learners resembled native speakers. A similar proficiency effect has been found in Takahashi and DuFon's study (1989) in which high- proficiency Japanese ESL learners consistently used more target-like requests. Rose's (2000) study of Cantonese-speaking EFL learners supported Takahashi and DuFon's results, finding a similar increase in target-like conventional indirectness in requests with proficiency, as well as increasing suppliance of supportive moves.

Another example is Trosborg's (1995) study on complaints, which found that advanced learners of English gradually approximated native speakers' performance more than did lower- proficiency participants in some uses of complaint strategies. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) also compared high- and low-proficiency ESL learners' pragmatic awareness of requests with that of NSs of Australian English. The high-proficiency learners correctly distinguished the meaning of conventionally and nonconventionally indirect requests more frequently than the low-proficiency learners. This suggests that ESL learners with a higher level of proficiency may acquire a greater ability to correctly identify target-like request utterances. Other pedagogical evidence on the relationship between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence is summarized in Kasper (1997a) and a more recent collection edited by Rose and Kasper (2001). In another case, Pienemann (1998) observed that a learner who has completed a prior acquisitional stage experiences greater potential influence of instruction on interlanguage development.

So, one may wonder whether, as these findings purport, grammatical competence is a necessary precondition for development of pragmatic competence. Schmidt (1983) conducted a longitudinal study of the acquisition of English by Wes, a Japanese artist who resided in Hawaii. During an early stage of development, Wes used a limited range of request formulas (e.g., "I have" to mean "I will have") (p. 151). He also used the progressive form with requestive force (e.g., "sitting" for "Let's sit down," or "Shall we sit down?"). However, by end of the observation period, gross errors in the performance of directives had largely been eliminated and the incorrect use of progressives such as "sitting" had disappeared.

Schmidt (1983) summarized Wes's progress as follows: "Wes is highly motivated to engage in interaction and communication and in general has developed considerable control of the formulaic language . . . he would show more development over time in the area of sociolinguistic competence compared with his very limited development in grammatical competence . . ." (p. 702). That is, even at an advanced level of pragmatic competence, he still used some of the non-target-like grammars, such as the overextension of "Can I?" (e.g., "Can I bring cigarette?" for the meaning of "Can you bring me cigarette?") (p. 152). Schmidt demonstrates that a restricted interlanguage grammar did not necessarily prevent Wes's frequent interactions with native speakers (NSs), which led him to develop pragmatic competence. Wes's story makes clear that pragmatic development is not dependent on grammatical development.

This study confirmed early work in SLA, reviewed by Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), who observed, "It has been shown repeatedly in the literature that second-language learners fail to achieve native communicative competence even at a rather advanced stage of learning" (p. 321). Further support for Schmidt's conclusion is provided by Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) study, which showed how thanking strategies of advanced ESL learners become closer to target-like expressions of gratitude, but with ungrammatical forms. Bouton's research (1999) also reiterated the issue of the relationship between general language proficiency and pragmatic competence. These findings support the claim that proficiency in L2 morphosyntax does not automatically bring with it proficiency in L2 pragmatics. Indeed, such studies in the pragmatics literature provide rich evidence of a marked imbalance between general proficiency and pragmatic knowledge.

Length of Residence

Students, teachers, and policymakers alike assume that truly functional competence in a language requires living in the country where that language is spoken (Yager, 1998). Whatever else our academic programs can accomplish, the logic goes, classroom drills cannot substitute for extended experience communicating with native speakers in natural settings about real-life matters (Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsberg, 1995, p.37).

In ILP, length of residence is construed as one of the ID variables that affect learners' different developmental stages of L2 pragmatics. Many studies have used length of stay in a target speech community as an indicator of L2 pragmatic acquisition (Han, 2005). Researchers argue that language learners living in a target speech community have many opportunities to interact in the L2, which leads to the learners' successful acquisition of pragmatic competence. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) found a positive relationship between length of stay in the target speech community and the perception of directness and politeness in an L2. They reported that the length of residence in the target community accounted for the target-like perception of directness and politeness by non-native speakers of Hebrew.

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka's study (1985) also showed that the amount of external modification used by L2 learners approximated community pragmatic norms after five to seven years of stay in the target language environment, and that such convergence correlated positively with duration of stay. Bouton (1999) investigated how length of residence affects non-native speakers' understanding of implicature in American English. As their length of residence on a U.S. university campus increased, non-native speakers very gradually acquired the ability to understand the conversational implicature as did NSs of English. This suggests that the amount of time language learners lived in the target environment positively correlates with their pragmatic awareness concerning conversational implicature.

Additionally, it appears that even a short length of residence in the SL context affects pragmatic competence. Churchill (2001) recorded a decrease in direct want statements in the English request realizations of his JFL learners over a month in the target language context. Schauer (2006b) reported that ESL students who stayed nine months in England displayed high pragmatic awareness and assessment that surpassed that of EFL students in Germany. It appears that even though EFL students in Germany were enrolled in a very intense and demanding curriculum for either translators or interpreters and highly motivated to achieve native-like knowledge of the pragmatics of English, they rated grammatical errors more severe than pragmatic errors, while ESL group showed the opposite tendency. The findings indicate that a length of residence in the second language environment played an important role in favor of L2 pragmatic awareness in her ESL population. Overall, these studies suggest that longer stays abroad yield greater L2 pragmatic attainments.

Despite these findings, many questions still remain about the validity of the assumption that living abroad provides an ideal context for language learning. We know, for example, that not all individuals who live abroad for an extended time make the same linguistic gains. Although the studies mentioned above provide additional examples of the relation between pragmatic development and NNSs' length of residence in the target language community, one might wonder to what extent pragmatic comprehension and pragmatic ability are generally influenced by the intensity of nonnative speakers' exposure and social contacts in the target language, as opposed to the quantitative measure of length of residence in the target language community. Related to this, Klein, Dietrich, and Noyau (1995) concluded from their longitudinal study of NNSs' acquisition of temporality that "Duration of stay is an uninteresting variable. What matters is intensity, [...] Therefore, ordering learners according to their duration of stay is normally pointless because too crude a measure for what really matters: intensity of interaction" (p. 277).

Likewise, Matsumura (2003) asserted that acquisition of pragmatic competence is not associated with the length of stay, because learners vary individually in the amount of interaction in a L2 as well as opportunities to interact in the target culture. In other words, simply because learners reside in the target language community does not necessarily mean that they have the desire to interact with the target speech community through watching target-language community TV programs, participating in social events, and so on. Thus, intensity of interaction may account for more of the learning process than duration of stay in the L2 speech community. Indeed, the studies described suggest that L2 learners may acquire more target-like pragmatic norms through extended interaction in the target community. In the absence of some amount of interaction in the target language, learners may not have an opportunity to considerably improve their pragmatic competence.

Amount of Contact

A critical issue in second-language acquisition is whether increased contact with the L2 is responsible for the greater improvement in the L2 proficiency. Some studies found that students who took advantage of the many opportunities to contact with the target language in general have shown greater achievement in L2 pragmatics.

For example, in an investigation of American students in Japan, Huebner (1995) found that language contact facilitated proficiency and greater volume of second language production. Huebner examined students' interview data and journals and concluded that superior performance was related to the amount of L2 contact to acquire

Japanese literacy skills. A similar finding was reported by Regan (1995) who explained that the amount of contact with the L2 influenced the adoption of native speaker speech norms.

Additionally, Kaplan's (1989) study was to investigate the purposes for which participants need to use French in the target community, and what they perceive as their achievement and frustrations (p.290). She found that her participants were more likely to pursue contact in the French speaking community, because it provided more of an opportunity to have greater access to comprehensible input, and to use the language. Her theoretical foundation is situated within the following aspects: (1) comprehensible input and comprehension (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1996); (2) the opportunity for modifying output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Shehadah, 1999); and (3) opportunities to access the form and meaning of the target language through negative feedback and positive evidence (Schmidt, 1990; Doughty & Williams, 1998). This focus on input, output, and interaction is typical of most of the theoretical and empirical research literature regarding the relationship between language use and language acquisition (DeKeyser, 1991).

Comprehensible input, as put forth by Krashen (1981), is input that contains structures that are slightly more advanced than the learner's current level of competence. Input that the learners receive is made comprehensible in a way that the speakers intentionally modify their speech to make it more comprehensible. The learner comes to understand the input based on context and extralinguistic information, such as simplification, redundancy, and clarification. Pica (1987) emphasized the effects of input on second language acquisition, saying that languages are not learned through memorization of their rules and structures, but through language input which is made comprehensible within a context of social interaction.

The second approach is output hypothesis, formulated by Swain (1995). Swain (1995) asserted that it is not input itself that is important to L2 language acquisition, but output as the act of producing the second language. That is, L2 learners notice gaps between their L2 output and the response they receive from an interlocutor's negative feedback and modify their own language use in response. In recognizing these problems, the learners' attentions may be turned to "something [they] need to discover about the L2" (Swain, 1995, p.126). A number of studies have empirically investigated Swain's output hypothesis and its effect on second-language acquisition (Tanaka, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2001).

The third approach is the interaction theory, which is inextricably related to the output framework. The interaction hypothesis, formulated by Long (1983; 1996), contends that language acquisition is strongly facilitated by conversational interaction in a target language because the learner is afforded chances to access comprehensible input, opportunities for output, and implicit correction in the form of conversational feedback through the process of negotiated meaning. In his updated formulation of the interaction hypothesis, Long (1996) explained that "negotiation for meaning is the process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved" (p. 418).

The interaction hypothesis framework provides an equivalent perspective for the study of L2 pragmatic development. Marriot (1995) outlined a framework for studying the acquisition of sociolinguistic competence by examining Australian secondary students who participated in exchange programs in Japan. She examined how learners benefit more from "self- and other-correction" procedures in interactive situations in a Japanese homestay context. Cooperative interactants who surrounded the learners, such as host family members, teachers, friends, and even members of their exchange organization, probably contributed significantly to the development of these learners' L2 pragmatic awareness. These findings suggest that exchange students cannot acquire Japanese addressee honorifics unless they receive – and utilize – corrective feedback, either from their interlocutors or as a part of some form of instruction (Marriott, 1995, pp. 218-219). Likewise, Wray (1999) proposed that interactions with native speakers will help language learners obtain the pragmatic rules of use in the target language. Regarding this, Kasper (1998) noted that "sustained contact with the target language and culture may be required to attain native pragmatic knowledge and skill" (p. 200).

These studies show that learners' L2 proficiency increases during intensive contact with L2 in the target-language environment. However, even though a number of studies have investigated the positive relationship between contact and second-language proficiency, conflicting evidence suggests L2 contact, which presumably provides more linguistic input and is somewhat obligatory for most language learners, is not responsible for the greater improvement in the L2 proficiency (Day, 1984; DeKeyer, 1986; Freed, 1995b; Brecht et al., 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Yager, 1998; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004).

For example, in her study, Spada (1984) found that language contact did not account for differences in improvement on any of the proficiency measures, tests of grammar, discourse, and sociolinguistic skills. Day (1985) used Seliger's investigation as a springboard to conduct his own investigation into the relationship between contact with English and ESL students' L2 proficiency. His hypothesis was that contact with English would be significantly related to the scores the subjects obtained on two measures of ESL proficiency, the oral interview and a cloze test. Day found no support for his hypothesis.

Also, Freed (1990)'s study was to investigate the effects of the amount of contact of American students of a foreign language on their L2 proficiency. She discovered that there was no evidence that the extent of contact with the L2 supported any growth in oral proficiency. Yager's (1998) study also attempted to discover whether the extent of contact of L2 learners of Spanish is related to greater gains in their oral proficiency while staying in Mexico. He found that there were no significant correlations between language contact and Spanish gain for the students.

In addition, Matsumura's study (2003) attempted to account for differential pragmatic development among Japanese students in a target speech community as functions of their English proficiency as well as the amount of contact with English. This study sought to examine the relationships among Japanese students' perception of social status when giving advice in English, English proficiency, and amount of contact with English. The results found nonsignificant interrelationships between the amount of contact with English and the students' perception of social status when giving advice in English. In relation to this finding, further investigation is warranted how and to what extent language contact is related to the L2 pragmatic development.

Motivation

Motivation has been considered an individual difference variable in the learning of a L2, in that learners' attitudes toward the target language and community influence their success in learning L2. The two basic orientations for second-language learning are integrative and instrumental motivation, based on the socioeducational model proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972). They defined integrative motivation as a desire to learn the second-language in order to meet and communicate with members of the target group, whereas an instrumental motivation indicates the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from learning a L2, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, or qualifying for higher pay (Vandergrift, 2005).

Much of the research on the socioeducational model has explored the role of motivation in language learning and its importance in producing individual differences in the various forms of second-language acquisition (Gardner & Macintyre, 1992, 1993a). Whereas the socioeducational model has incorporated new research findings, the basic model has consistently been replicated (Gardner & Macintyre, 1992, 1993b). Gardner (2001) suggested that integrative motivation is more significant than instrumental motivation in second-language acquisition, because individuals with an integrative orientation demonstrate greater motivational effort and, thus, achieve greater L2 competence. However, research over the past forty years suggests that the relative predictive power of each orientation is inconsistent. Although some studies indicated that the integrative orientation was a good predictor of L2 proficiency, others found that the instrumental orientation was an equivalent or a better predictor than the integrative orientation (Noels, 2001).

It has more recently been argued that these two orientations are not mutually exclusive, and learners are not motivated solely by one goal or another but rather may have several reasons for learning a language, although some may be more important than others (Noels, 2001). Gardner does not currently claim that integrative motivation is more influential than instrumental or any other type of motivation, but simply that those who are motivated will probably be more successful in language learning than those who are not so motivated (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991, p. 474).

Gardner's motivation theory involves a socially grounded approach. Most studies that adopted this theory before the 1990s examined the affective domain of L2 learning. Schumann's acculturation theory (1986) supported this argument. Schumann (1986) pointed out that although instrumental and integrative motivations are useful ways to think about success in second-language learning, motivations are complex constructs that interact with social and other variables (p. 384). The primary concern of Schumann's acculturation theory is the process of acculturation (i.e., the social and psychological integration of the learner with the target-language group). Schumann predicts that the learner's psychological distance to the L2 and the L2 community can inhibit or instigate L2 learning behavior. The learner will acquire the target language to the degree that s/he integrates socially and psychologically into the target-language group and community. In this sense, motivation is considered merely one of a large number of affective variables influencing the construct of acculturation.

After the 1990s, several studies on L2 learning motivation extended Gardner's social psychological construct of L2 motivation, adding new elements from general psychology, educational psychology, and cognitive psychology, which have subsequently developed a number of cognitive constructs. These hypotheses hold that the traditional approach to L2 motivation theory, which is based on an integrative and instrumental perspective, is too simple. The proposed extended model is influenced by (1) the need for achievement (Dörnyei, 1990); (2) learners' self-confidence (Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994); (3) learners' goal setting (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995); (4) expectancy-value (Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000); (5) attribution about past failures (Dörnyei, 1990); and (6) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation based on self-determination about the goal to pursue (Noels, et al., 2000).

Related to this, Gardner and Macintyre (1993b) found that anxiety about second-language communication has a strong effect on second-language learning. Much of the research on the effect of anxiety in L2 learning has found negative correlations with second-language course grades (Horwitz, 1986) and the ability to receive, process, and output second-language information (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, 1994b). Additionally, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b) proposed "reciprocal paths" between motivation and language anxiety; those with higher levels of motivation are likely to experience less anxiety, and greater levels of anxiety are likely to inhibit motivation.

Ellis (1994) also argued that Gardner's distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation is somewhat limited, because it does not consider the effects of the learning experiences and the learning conditions of the learners. In other words, learners cannot be defined simply as integratively or instrumentally motivated without considering the relationship between the language learner and the language learning context. For example, it is evident that a leaner learning L2 in a foreign-language class and a learner learning L2 in the host community cannot experience the same kind of motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

In the same context, Norton (2000) introduced the concept of investment, arguing that the instrumental and integrative distinction does not capture the socially and historically constructed relationships between learners and the target language. Norton (2000) noted that when language learners speak, they are not only exchanging information with target-language speakers, but they are constantly organizing and reorganizing their sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world. Thus, an investment in the target language is also an investment in a learner's own identity, an identity that is constantly changing across time and space (pp.10-11).

Gardner's instrumental motivation is different from Norton's notion of investment in that instrumental motivation simply reflects the learner's desire to learn an L2 in order to gain something, whereas Norton's view of investment explains how the learner relates to the changing social world by including conditions such as social identity and relations of power, which influence the extent to which the learner converges to the target language.

Takahashi (2001) speculated that motivation could be one of the most influential individual variables influencing differences in learners' noticing of target request forms. The study shows that highly motivated learners willingly adopt target standards for pragmatic action, whereas less-motivated learners are more likely to resist accepting target norms, which thus become less effective teaching tools for the L2's sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms. Takahashi's (2001) study is noteworthy not only because it is the first to investigate the influence of motivation in L2 pragmatics, but because it calls attention to a revised version of the socioeducational model proposed by Tremblay and Gardner (1995). In the model, Tremblay and Gardner address "goal salience," "valence," and "self-efficacy" as variables mediating between language attitudes, motivation, and achievement.

In the same context, Takahashi argued that learners' personal values may influence how much effort they expend on understanding L2 pragmatic and sociolinguistic practices and how much of a positive affect they have toward a target-language community. Evidence from the studies discussed earlier in this chapter indicates that availability of input through interlocutors or models is a necessary condition for development of pragmatic competence. However, learner-internal factors may control the conversion of input to intake and consequently hinder or boost the development of pragmatic competence. Those who are concerned with establishing relationships with target-language speakers are more likely to pay close attention to the pragmatic aspects of input (including struggling to understand) than those who are not as motivated. Indeed, motivation may be one factor that explains the differences between noticing input, having knowledge of L2 pragmatic practices, and making productive use of this knowledge (Schmidt, 1993). Thus, Takahashi's findings call attention to the relationship of motivation and learning in the wider domain of L2 learning.

Although a number of SLA studies suggest that motivation is one of the variables that provide the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning, and later sustain the long-term learning process, depending on the area of language to be studied, motivation has been found to have more or less effect.

Research Methods in Interlanguage Pragmatics

The primary focus of interest in interlanguage pragmatic research is the manner in which data are to be collected and analyzed. A variety of methodological approaches exist: quantitative (e.g., production questionnaires such as the Modern Language Aptitude Test [MLAT], discourse complete tests [DCTs], role plays, and so on), qualitative (such as interviews or journals and diaries), and multiple-methods.

At its most basic, quantitative research must be precise, produce reliable and replicable data, and must produce statistically significant results that are readily generalizable, thus revealing broader tendencies (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 193). Quantitative research also provides researchers the administrative advantage of collecting a large corpus of data from many individuals in a short period of time. In quantitative research methods, a discourse completion tests (DCT) is used largely to collect data in the field of cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics, because of the practical aspects mentioned above. Notwithstanding its appeal, however, there are claims that DCT data, unlike authentic data, do not bring out fully comprehensive and rich information.

In contrast, qualitative research focuses on the participants', rather than the researcher's, interpretations and priorities, without setting out to test preconceived hypotheses (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 192). Qualitative research captures the individuality of the learner, rather than simply categorizing him or her more precisely (Skehan, 1991). For example, in speech acts studies, DCT tends to remain content-focused, while spoken data are more elaborated, giving more background information, and produce more in-depth and comprehensive information.

There is no question that an in-depth interview with a language learner can provide far richer data than even the most detailed questionnaire. Although natural data are highly regarded for their authenticity and more elaborated information, they also have certain drawbacks. The researcher does not have much control over extraneous variables that may affect the study's outcome. Also, it is extremely time consuming to collect and transcribe the data, and it is virtually impossible with this method to obtain a large amount of data.

ID research has traditionally followed the research principles of quantitative social psychology, relying heavily on survey methods, and the basic tools of the ID researcher have tended to be scale or test construction (Gardner, 1991), which typically involves the number of items comprising the measuring instrument.

In what follows, some studies in interlanguage pragmatics that have developed advanced quantitative methodologies are explored to show how they investigate the role of individual variables on learners' pragmatic development. Takahashi's study (2005) sought to identify any relationships between learners' noticing of the target pragmalinguistic features and the ID variables of motivation and proficiency. Takahashi used Cronbach alpha coefficients to evaluate the internal consistency of the entire questionnaire. Then, for each participant, the mean rate was computed for the questionnaire items. The means for awareness, motivation, and proficiency were converted to standardized scores (*z* scores) for each participants. The standardized data were then analyzed by performing a Pearson product-moment correlation, and step-wise regression was conducted to select first the strongest predictor and subsequently the predictor that accounted for the greatest amount of remaining variance in the criterion after the first predictor was extracted.

Yamanaka's (2003) study explored how L2 proficiency and length of residence in the target-language culture affect Japanese ESL learners' comprehension of indirectness and their ability to infer. Cloze test was used to determine the English proficiency of the NNS subjects; subjects completed background information sheets to indicate their length of residence in the target community; and videotapes and the multiple-choice questionnaire were used to assess subjects' pragmatic ability. Correlation between each of the independent variables (proficiency and length of residence) and the scores on the questionnaire (the dependent variable) were calculated. The subjects who were subcategorized in group by the means of proficiency, length of residence, and pragmatic ability were examined using one-way analysis of variance and Bonferroni *t*-tests to investigate the possibility that a significant difference existed among the groups.

Hashimoto's (2002) study examined the influence of Japanese ESL learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in English and motivation levels for learning English based on their frequency of L2 use. For the motivation measure, a short version of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (the mini-AMTB) was employed. For assessing subjects' WTC in English, this study also used the WTC scale proposed by McCroskey (1992). WTC presents social and individual context, affective cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, and behavioral intention, all of which influence L2 use. Correlation coefficients were computed for all variables to provide some evidence for the theoretical prediction that the frequency of L2 use is positively correlated with WTC and motivation. Structural Equation Model analysis (SEM) was then used to investigate causal relationships among frequency of L2 use, WTC, and motivation.

Some researchers emphasize the importance of using qualitative approaches to complement the largely quantitative tradition of individual difference research (Hashimoto, 2002, p. 35). For example, Kasper (1998) pointed out that the multimethod approach could first reduce any possible task-bias, and consequently could increase in the level of objectivity in the findings. Second, similar findings from a number of instruments lead to a higher degree of reliability than reliance on a single source (p. 105). Barron (2002) criticized this "mixed methods" approach, arguing that "it cannot be assumed that each approach will bring the same as the other approach to light or that where there are discrepancies in results that the one (or other) result will be overridden" (p. 81). Likewise, in the investigator's view the multimethod approach cannot be seen as a 'cure-all' or as an easy process. The prevailing view that more data leads to greater reliability must be strongly reconsidered.

Politeness Theory

The social-norm view assumes that each society has a particular set of social norms consisting of more or less explicit rules that prescribe a certain behavior or way of thinking in a given context. A positive evaluation (politeness) arises when an action is in congruence with the norm, and a negative evaluation (impoliteness) occurs when congruence is lacking (Watts, 2003, p. 89). To examine how context affects speech act realization and how the concepts of politeness and appropriateness are related to speech acts, many studies in interlanguage pragmatics have incorporated a theory of politeness and used Brown and Levinson's (1987) model.

Brown and Levinson's approach to politeness is grounded in the notion of "face," based on the work of Goffman (1967). Goffman wrote, "Face is the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself . . . by making a good showing for himself" (p. 5). The concept of face consists of two specific kinds of needs attributed by interactants to one another: "the desire to be unimpeded in one's actions (negative face), and the desire to be approved of (positive face)" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 13). In short, people communicate these two aspects of face to let others know that they want approval, and, at the same time, to let people know that they do not want to be imposed upon or do not want to impose on others (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The basic idea in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is that "some acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus requires softening" (1987, p. 24). Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed five politeness strategies that allow speakers to avoid a face-threatening act (FTA). They are arranged according to level of directness from most direct to most indirect. The first is to do the FTA with direct imperatives but without redressive action (e.g., in cases of great urgency such as warning a person not to step in front of a fast-moving vehicle). The second is to do the FTA with redressive action by using a positive politeness strategy. Positive politeness is oriented towards the interlocutor's positive face wants – the desire for approval – and consists of substrategies such as establishing common ground and building solidarity through sympathy, understanding, agreement and so forth. The third is to do the FTA with redressive action by using a negative politeness strategy. Negative politeness is oriented towards the interlocutor's negative face – the right not to be imposed upon. It includes strategies such as conventional indirectness (e.g., Can you pass the salt? Would you mind lending me your book?). The fourth is to go off record when performing the FTA. Off-record strategies or hints that are inherently ambiguous can be used when the speaker does not want to commit. This category includes strategies such as nonconventional indirectness, conversational implicature, and vagueness. The final strategy is to not do the FTA. The politeness strategy chosen will depend on the weightiness of the FTA, which is determined by three culturally sensitive variables: social distance, power, and imposition (p. 74).

Brown and Levinson's conceptualization of politeness is consistent with the Gricean notion of the Cooperative Principle (CP), which is a set of conversational maxims to which interlocutors should adhere (i.e., four main maxims of quality, quantity, relation, and manner). Grice's (1975) framework of communication describes how people use language based on the intended meaning of the utterance and how people must recognize the illocutionary force embedded in a particular speech act during a speech exchange. However, Grice's framework does not consider politeness in conversation, making it incapable of directly explaining why people often choose indirect methods for conveying meaning (Leech, 1983).

Both Lakoff and Leech's models also stem from the Gricean CP. Lakoff (1973) described politeness as the avoidance of offence and proposed two overarching pragmatic rules: be clear and be polite. "If one wants to succeed in communication, the message must be conveyed in a clear manner, so that there's no mistaking one's intention; also, the speakers' intention in the communication process need to be polite, by means of not imposing, giving options, and being friendly" (p. 296). While Lakoff's general view of the purpose of politeness is to avoid friction in communication, she does not provide sufficient empirical work to test her normative rules (Watts, 2003, p.61)

Following Grice's framework, Leech (1983) proposed the Politeness Principle (PP) whose main function is "to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative in the first place" (p. 82). However, Leech suggested that while the CP enables interlocutors to communicate based on the assumption that other interlocutors are cooperative, it does not explain the degree of politeness expressed during interactions. Thus, he proposed a second principle, the Irony Principle (IP), which allows the speaker to be impolite by way of implicature, though appearing to be polite. The hearer interprets the speaker's remark as containing the implicature of an indirect offensive point (Kingwell, 1993, p. 396). While Leech's theoretical model of politeness has made important contributions to politeness theory, his theory and claims of universality have been called into question.

Another approach to politeness that goes beyond reference to a Gricean CP is the conversational contract (CC) view presented by Fraser and Nolen (1981). Adopting Grice's (1975) CP, this view of politeness involves an implicit understanding of the rules governing social interaction between cooperative interlocutors. Fraser and Nolen suggest that upon entering a conversation, each person is supposed to bring an understanding of rights and obligations that will determine what interlocutors can expect from the other(s). The rights and obligations that interactive participants bring into the conversation vary greatly. Based on the participants' perception or acknowledgement of status, and power, as well as the role of the speaker and nature of the circumstances, competent interlocutors know how to behave and what to expect during a conversation (Fraser, 1990, p. 232). Thus, cooperative participants are polite when they abide by the CC under particular circumstances. This view is considered "the most global perspective on politeness" (Kasper, 1994), and has been applied to politeness phenomena in non-Western cultures (Nwoye, 1992).

Meier (1995) proposed another, broader view of politeness. In Brown and Levinson's theory, speakers have only a binary choice when handling politeness in interactions. The theory does not clarify what constitutes an act as an FTA or what constitutes a negative or positive politeness strategy. In addition, the politeness strategies they propose ignore the discursive reality of the dynamic struggle that occurs when speakers negotiate politeness in real interactions (Watts, 2003, p. 88). Meier's politeness model places prime importance on the context within which an interaction takes place. Thus, Meier places politeness within the larger framework of social interaction present in a particular speech community, and vis-à-vis appropriateness and norms of social acceptability (Meier, 1995, p. 387)

Speech Act Theory

A speech act framework is based on theories of illocutionary acts originally introduced by Austin (1962). Austin claimed that communication is a series of communicative acts that are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes, and that all utterances perform specific actions by having a specific meaning assigned to them. According to Austin (1962, p. 102), a speaker produces three acts: the locutionary act, which is the propositional or literal meaning of an utterance (i.e., phonemes, morphemes, sentences); the illocutionary act/effect, which is a conventionalized message that the speaker intends to be understood by the listener; and the perlocutionary act/effect, for which the speaker uses illocution to bring about a specific effect on the hearer. For example, somebody might say: *It's hot in here!* (locution), meaning *I want some fresh air!* (illocution) and the perlocutionary effect might be that someone opens the window.

Grice's theory is based on Austin's theories of illocutionary acts. Grice's theory is an attempt at explaining how a hearer gets from "what is said" to "what is meant" (i.e., from the level of literal meaning to the level of implied meaning). Grice's distinction between "what is said" and "what is meant" is identical to Austin's "locution" and "illocution." The concept of implicature, a type of indirect communication, is first described by Grice (1975). Grice distinguishes two different sorts of implicature: conventional and conversational. These have in common the property of conveying an additional level of meaning, beyond the semantic meaning of the words uttered. Conventional implicature leads to inferences on the part of the hearer based on the conventional meanings encoded as lexical items that are not influenced by context, while utterances from conversational implicature are understandable in terms of context features or background knowledge.

According to Grice, conversational implicature is based on what Grice calls the Cooperative Principle, which means that for conversation to be sustained, the participants must mutually cooperate by following four basic maxims: quality (truthfulness), quantity (sufficiently informative to meet the interlocutor's needs), relation (relevance), and manner (being clear) (Thomas, 1995). Grice (1975) wrote that "conversational implicature is an absolutely unremarkable and ordinary conversational strategy" and, therefore, a part of any native speaker's communicative competence (p.

92). Hymes (1962) stated that every speech community has preferred ways of formulating and expressing certain ideas that involve the language conventions shared by its members. Accordingly, we can imagine the difficulty that second-language learners face in distinguishing between different target-language conventions.

In this sense, the acquisition of L2 speech acts is complex because the L2 learner needs to acquire both sociocultural knowledge and appropriate communication strategies of the target culture. Cohen (1996) referred to this type of knowledge as sociocultural ability. "The respondents' skill at selecting speech act strategies that are appropriate given (a) the culture involved, (b) the age and sex of the speakers, (c) their social class and occupations, and (d) their roles and status in the interaction" (p. 388). Thus, the ultimate goal of developing communicative competence should be to provide the L2 learner with sociocultural competence, including the appropriate linguistic forms, necessary to communicate effectively in the target language.

Second-language learners often fail when performing interactive speech acts with native speakers because they might lack the pragmatic knowledge of the target language. Of special interest is that learners' pragmatic errors may affect communication more adversely than linguistic errors. Thomas (1983) reported that native speakers make allowances for grammatical and pronunciation errors, whereas pragmatic errors make speakers sound "boorish" or "impolite;" thus, pragmatic errors can lead to serious negative misjudgments of the speaker and his/her intentions.

Theories of illocutionary acts which were originally proposed by Austin (1962) had been further developed by John Searle (1969, 1976). In his philosophical writings (notably in his 1969 book *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*) Searle distinguished between "propositional content" and "illocutionary force." Those concepts parallel Austin's "locution" and "illocution" respectively. Building on Austin's work, Searle (1980) argued that the basic unit of human linguistic communication is the illocutionary act, and that illocutionary acts are rule-governed: "The minimal unit of communication is not a sentence or other expression, but rather the performance of certain kinds of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, describing, . . . , etc." (p. vii). According to Searle, speech acts can be performed directly and indirectly. Direct speech acts refer to the performance of certain acts in which the speaker means what he literally says, and indirect speech acts refer to performative acts in which the speaker means more or something other than what is uttered. Searle proposed that all speech acts, except explicit performatives, are indirect to some degree.

Researchers have raised some issues related to Searle's speech act theory. One is that Searle treats speech acts as if they were clearly-defined categories with clear-cut boundaries. In reality, however, the boundaries among a variety of speech acts are most often blurred, overlapping, and fluid. In a more recent publication (1991), Searle contradicted this criticism, writing that "of course, this analysis so far is designed only to give us the bare bones of the modes of meaning and not to convey all of the subtle distinctions involved in actual discourse . . . this analysis cannot account for all the richness and variety of actual speech acts in actual natural language. Of course not. It was not designed to address that issue" (p. 85). Notwithstanding this criticism, in the realm of SLA the strength of Searle's speech act theory lies primarily in his success in establishing a taxonomy, which successfully associates illocutionary types with functions**.**

Searle (1976) developed his own taxonomy of speech acts – five basic kinds of illocutionary acts that one can perform in speaking, namely "representatives," "directives," "expressive," "commissives," and "declaratives" (pp. 12-20). His categories include *representatives* that "commit the speaker to the truth of the expected proposition (asserting, concluding)," *directives* that are "attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (requesting, questioning)," *commissives* that "commit the speaker to some future course of action (promising, threatening, offering)," *expressives* with which the speaker can "express a psychological static (thanking, apologizing, complimenting, welcoming)," and *declarations*, which "affect immediate change in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (christening, declaring war)" (Searle, 1976, p.12-20). Compliments are classified as a type of expressive in Searle's speech act taxonomy, in which the speaker expresses feelings or attitudes about something.

Studies on Compliments in English

Compliment Realization Patterns

Various studies address the issue of when compliments appear in American English. Lewandowska (1989) asserted that compliments are favorable judgments, approvals or reassurances typically performed to make the addressee feel good. Complimenting can thus be treated as a social strategy employed to start or maintain solidarity in mundane interactions between colleagues, neighbors, or close friends. Holmes (1988) essentially agreed with this view by treating compliments as "positively affective speech acts directed to the addressee which serve to increase or consolidate the solidarity between the speaker and addressee" (p. 486). According to Herbert (1989), compliments in American English establish solidarity with the listener by praising some feature relevant to that listener, of which the listener approves.

Wolfson and Manes (1981) also summarized the question of what is complimented. They found that the most frequent topics of compliments fall into two major categories: those having to do with appearance/possessions, and those addressing ability/performance. Under the category of appearance/possessions, compliments tend to be on clothing and other personal features such as hairstyles and on possessions such as cars and household items. Compliments on ability/performance may address either general skills or talent, or they may refer to a specific performance. Holmes's study (1988) on New Zealand compliments also supported this finding. Holmes asserted that her data "demonstrate that the vast majority of compliments refer to just a few broad topics: appearance, ability, or a good performance, possessions, and some aspect of personality, or friendliness" (p. 496). The first two accounted for 81.3 percent of her data.

Nevertheless, Wolfson and Manes assert that social variation is an important factor because the interlocutors in such interactions may come from very different social backgrounds. To answer the question of whom Americans compliment, Wolfson developed her Bulge Theory (1989), which states that the majority of compliments are between people of the same age and social status. These groups of people make up the center of the scale, or the bulge. Compliments are much less frequently exchanged between people who are not acquainted, or who are status-unequals. When compliments do occur in these situations, the vast majority are given by the person who has more power over the hearer. The topic of the compliments from higher-to-lower status interlocutors most often concerned the addressee's ability rather than appearance or possessions. But when the speaker was of lower status than the addressee, the topic of the compliment appeared to be on appearance or possession. Empirical support for the Bulge Theory has been found in a variety of studies on compliments in English, including Knapp et al. (1984), Herbert (1986), and Holmes (1988).

In interactions among females and males, Wolfson and Manes (1981) found that women appear both to give and receive compliments much more frequently than do men, especially when compliments have to do with apparel and appearance. Holmes (1988) asserted that women give and receive compliments more often because compliments serve as expressions of solidarity among women. This appears not to be true with males, who may not make use of compliments as often as do women (pp. 5-6).

Compliments serve many other social functions as well. Under certain conditions, compliments replace speech acts such as apologies, thankings, greetings, and requests. For example, Golato (2002) illustrated how compliments are reinterpreted as a request in such situations as a respondent expresses her hope to get something from the interlocutor or to have the interlocutor do something on her behalf (e.g., A: “yummy” B: “there is more – you are welcome to have another pie”) (p. 562). Compliments can also be used to soften the effects of criticism or other face-threatening acts such as requests (Billmyer, 1990). As Wolfson (1983) suggested, compliments may even be used as sarcasm (e.g., “You play a good game of tennis — for a woman”) (pp. 86-93). Spencer-Oatey (2000) also noted that compliments may function as face-threatening acts that may imply that expressing admiration for something belonging to the addressee may be taken as an indirect request for the admired object. If the hearer believes that a compliment is too personal, and is not comfortable with the level of intimacy implied, then the compliment can have a much different effect than the one intended.

Form of Compliments

Research on compliments can be largely traced back to the work of Wolfson and Manes (1981), the most substantial empirical and descriptive work on compliments in American English. Wolfson and Manes (1981) argued that compliments in American English are highly patterned, with a very restricted set of syntax and lexicon, that they may be considered formulas like greetings, thankings, and apologies.

Wolfson and Manes (1981) showed that in American English, compliments uttered by various speakers in many different speech situations were remarkably similar in terms of syntax and lexicon patterns. They found that 85 percent of the compliments given by middle-class adult speakers of American English followed only three syntactic patterns (pp. 120-121).

(1) NP is/looks ADJ 53 percent

(2) I like/love NP 16 percent

(3) PRO is a ADJ NP 15 percent

It is incredible that only three syntactic patterns account for more than 80 percent of all compliments appearing in their extensive corpus.

In addition to the limited types of syntactic patterns of compliments, Wolfson and Manes also noticed that compliments in American English fall into two major categories: adjectival and verbal. While an innumerable number of adjectives exist in the English language, they discovered that mere five are the most frequently used: *nice, good, beautiful, pretty*, and *great*, which comprised 67 percent of the compliments collected. Wolfson and Manes (1981) found that as with adjectives, only five verbs (*like, love, admire, enjoy*, and *be impressed by*) accounted for all of the total compliments formed by verbs. Of them, the verbs "like" and "love" occur most frequently.

Wolfson and Manes's findings were substantiated in Holmes's (1988) study of complimenting behavior in New Zealand. In her study, Holmes explored the syntactic patterns and the lexical items found in compliments in New Zealand English. Holmes found that in terms of syntactic and lexical levels, compliments in New Zealand English are very similar to those in American English in that they use a limited range of adjectives and verbs, and the ones used are the same as those found in Wolfson and Manes's (1981) study. In Holmes's data, *nice, good, beautiful, lovely*, and *wonderful* made up a majority of adjectival compliments, and the verbs *like* and *love* appeared in 80 percent of verbal compliments. Likewise, nearly 80 percent of the compliments collected in her study used the same three syntactic structures that Wolfson and Manes identified.

Knapp, Hopper, and Bell's (1984) study also revealed these syntactic patterns to be the most frequently represented in their data; 75 percent of the compliments in their data followed these three patterns. In addition, they found *nice, good*, and *great* in 74 percent of the adjectival compliments in their study. Nelson, Bakary and Batal's (1993) investigation of Egyptian ad American complimenting behavior obtained similar results regarding compliments in American English; 66 percent of the compliments in their data followed the same syntactic pattern as those identified by Wolfson and Manes. These studies convincingly support Wolfson and Manes's remarkable findings.

To explain why speakers of English limit their complimenting behavior to such a rigid set of syntactic and lexical constraints, Wolfson and Manes (1981) proposed that compliments occur at any point in a conversation, often quite independent of the preceding sentence or overall context. The formulaic nature of compliments, they claim, highlights the compliment, making it easily identifiable. Using a "safe" formula also decreases the risk of unintentionally creating distance by saying something that could be misconstrued, thereby defeating the intent of the compliment, which speakers use to increase solidarity (Wolfson and Manes, 1981, p. 124).

Compliment Responses

Less attention has been given to the investigation of responses to compliments in English than has been given to the actual compliments. Indeed, Wolfson (1989) confessed that it was not until 1985 that she began to look seriously at the responses to the compliments occurring in her corpus. One early study focusing specifically on compliment responses is Pomerantz's (1978) descriptive analysis of compliment responses in American English. Based on her data, Pomerantz posited that agreement/acceptance and disagreement/rejection were the predominant compliment response type in American English.

These conflicting responses often result in a dilemma for the recipient of the compliment, however; "how can one gracefully accept a compliment without seeming to praise oneself?" (Herbert, 1986, p. 77). This dilemma can be understood in two conflicting politeness maxims: one is to "agree with your conversational partner" (Leech's agreement maxim), and the other is to "avoid self-praise" (Leech's modesty maxim) (Pomerantz, 1978, pp. 81-82). Pomerantz also claimed that these two maxims are in conflict during response to a compliment. Thus, recipients have two basic options: to agree with the complimenter and violate the modesty maxim, or to disagree and thus violate the agreement maxim.

Manes (1983) also recognized the dilemma posed to receivers of compliments and offered her own set of strategies which enable speakers to both accept but not necessarily agree with the compliment. Some strategies can be seen in (1) – (3) below:

(1) A: Good shot.

B: Not very solid though.

(2) A: You're a good rower.

B: These are very easy to row. Very light.

(3) A: You're looking good.

B: Great. So are you.

The strategy Manes identified in (1) above is for the receiver to play down the compliment. In (2), the recipient denies credit. In (3), Manes adds the dimension of accepting compliments outright.

Additional categorizations of compliment responses in English can be found in Holmes' (1988) study, which found that the most common New Zealand compliment response was *acceptance* (used in 61 percent of the responses collected), followed by *shifting credit* (29 percent of the total responses). Only 10 percent were overtly rejected (p. 496). In a contrastive study, Chen (1993) elicited compliment responses from American and Chinese university students. Chen's analysis resulted in the distinguishing of ten response strategies for English, which are very much comparable to Holmes' (1988) findings. Chen's *accept* type makes up about 60 percent of the total compliment response which is equivalent to 61 percent in Holmes' (1998) study, and *deflect* type which is the next response type comprises 29.50 percent which is equivalent to 29 percent in Holmes' study. Only five categories of compliment response strategies were distinguished for the Chinese speakers, to which Chen attributes differences in social values between the two cultures. (For additional studies contrasting English compliment responses with those of other languages, see Daikuhara's, 1986, for Japanese; Lee, 1990, for Hawaiian Creole English; Herbert, 1991, for Polish; Han, 1992, for Korean; Wieland, 1995, for French; and Yuan, 1998, for Chinese).

As Hoffman-Hicks (1999) states, although the data in the above cited studies were collected from the extensive corpus, the analyses of compliment responses in American English given above are incomplete and there may be many other types of compliment responses which are not addressed in these studies (Hoffman-Hicks, 1999). To obtain a clearer picture of compliment response behavior in English, therefore, more empirical research is needed.

Language learners are usually taught that the only correct way to respond to a compliment is to accept it with a simple "Thank you" (Han, 1992). Herbert (1990) also pointed out that, according to both etiquette books and native speakers' awareness of prescriptive norms, "thank you" is considered the most appropriate response to a compliment in the United States. While this response may be appropriate, studies show that "an unadorned 'thanks' may unintentionally limit or even end an interaction between status equals, and deflecting compliments may serve to extend the interaction between interlocutors, which may lead to interlanguage development" (Billmyer, Jakar, & Lee, 1989, p. 17).

Wolfson (1989) agreed with this view. According to Wolfson, a native speaker of English would consider the compliment a strategy to lengthen the conversation. In this case, a simple "thanks" may unintentionally bring about the opposite outcome by blocking opportunities to extend the interaction. When this occurs between native and nonnative speakers, the interlanguage development of the nonnative speakers may be hindered (Wolfson, 1989). Therefore, it would be valuable for L2 learners to study this speech act as part of L2 acquisition. By being aware of the rules and patterns that condition the behavior of native speakers of the target language, learners would be able to more satisfactorily develop relationships with native speakers and acquire native pragmatic knowledge and skill.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will detail the methodology used to examine the relationship among the predictors of motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence, and the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence. Quantitative measure of these three variables is used in identifying the subjects' pragmatic achievement. A description of the context of the study, operational definitions of variables, and a review of the overall research design, are covered in this chapter.

Participants

The participants of this study were 50 Korean graduate students majoring in different academic fields at Texas A&M University in the United States. The number of participants was sufficiently above the minimum number (30) needed to reduce the standard error to acceptable limits (Gorard, 2001). The investigator gathered information regarding Korean graduate students from various Korean communities (e.g., Korean students' association, Korean churches, and so on). The investigator contacted them in person and participation was entirely voluntary. They received no remuneration for their participation. The study examined the Korean ESL learners' level of approximation to native speakers' use of giving compliments and responding to compliments, and the effect of the three research variables (motivation to learn English, the amount of contact with English, and length of residence in the target-language area) on the pragmatic competence level attained. The following table shows an overview of the characteristics of participants.

Table 1. Summary of Demographic Descriptive Statistics

(N=50)		Mean (SD)
Age		32(2.86)
Gender	Female	23(46%)
	Male	27(54%)
Age of Arrival in the U.S.		28(3.43)
Length of Residence in the U.S.		3.94(1.57)

There were twenty-seven male and twenty-three female participants whose age ranged from twenty-three to thirty-eight. The mean was 32 and the Standard Deviation (SD) was 2.86. Their ages of arrival in the U.S. ranged from twenty-two to thirty-five. The mean of this variable is 28 and the SD is 3.43. The length of time the participants have spent in the United States ranged from two years to eight years with a mean of 3.94 years and a SD of 1.57. To reduce the possible effects of earlier experiences in the target- language community, the subjects chosen had no previous experience living in the target-language community.

Instrumentation

The data for the present study were collected using three types of elicitation instruments: a written background questionnaire, a discourse completion test, and the mini- Attitude/Motivation Test Battery.

Background Information Questionnaire

The researcher used the background questionnaire to identify the extent of English-language contact the participants were exposed to in daily life and length of time they had lived in the United States (See Appendix B). This background information was later used in analyzing the data. The majority of studies that have collected data on L2 learners' contact with their L2 within a given setting have done so by means of a questionnaire (Day, 1984; Spada, 1986; Freed, 1990; Yager, 1998; Kim, 2000). For this reason, a similar questionnaire, as had been used in previous research, was used in this study to collect data on participants' L2 contact. The questionnaire was a self-report instrument designed to elicit information on the total amount of time participants were in contact with English during the week, both inside and outside the classroom, and the number of years spent in the United States. The questionnaire contained a total of 10 items. Six of these items were designed to elicit general information about the participants' linguistic, educational, and personal background and were not included in the assignment of contact scores for individual participant. The remaining 4 items were used to measure participants' contact. To get the total number of contact hours, the researcher totaled the number of hours given in answer to each question. The data obtained from the background questionnaire was used to examine whether there was a positive relation among the variables of amount of L2 contact and length of residence and the Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic competence.

The research into the effect of amount of contact on any change in the learner's interlanguage has shed light on how amount of contact learners have affects their L2 learning. However, one of the major problems with this research is that the researchers treat each type of activity involving L2 contact as equally beneficial in L2 learning, assuming that the only part an individual learner can have in the language learning context is to seek out L2 contact (Longcope, 2003). Some research attempted to overcome this problem by classifying L2 contact activities as either productive (more interactive) or receptive (less interactive) and examining whether productive or receptive language activities are better in improving L2 acquisition (Spada, 1986; Freed, 1990; Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994; Cadierno, 1995; Dekeyser & Sokaiski, 1996; Allen, 2000).

Also, some research assigned different quantitative values for measuring type of contact (Spada, 1986; Longcope, 2003). One of the main reasons for this is that not all L2 contact activities will become comprehensible; for example, some input will be beyond the comprehension of L2 learners and not, therefore, be processed. Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis serves as the theoretical basis for the differential assignment of quantitative values. Long, while acknowledging that simplified input and context can play a role in making input comprehensible, stresses the importance of conversational adjustments that occur in negotiating meaning when a communication problem arises (Ellis, 1994). During the negotiation process, speakers try to repair breakdown in the course of communication to attain satisfactory understanding and this process of modification pushes learners to improve the accuracy of their production resulted in immediate improved performance which could contribute to second language development.

Based on these ideas, the questionnaire used in the present study asked participants to record how much time they contacted with English in listed activities. These questions pertain to the amount of productive use of language (e.g., conversational interaction in English and emailing or chatting via the internet) that a participant had with other people and the amount of receptive use of language (e.g., reading books and watching television and listening to the radio) a participant had. In L2 research, it has been viewed that speaking and writing require learners to produce the language, whereas listening and reading require them to receive the language (Ferch, 2005). It is important to note that quantitative values were differently assigned for each activity in order to analyze the data collected. As Long (1982) maintains, interactional input provides learners more opportunities to getting comprehensible input, which, in turn, is thought to facilitate learners L2 development. Therefore, the participants' response to conversational interaction in English whether it is with native speakers of English or other non-native speakers of English (item #7 on the questionnaire) was given 3 points. The response to emailing or chatting via the internet (item#10) was given 2 points because this activity does not make the same communicative demands on the learner as engaging in conversational interaction. Reading books (#8) and watching television and listening to the radio (#9) were given 1 point, respectively.

This idea was supported by Spada (1986), who commented why receptive use of language such as watching television would be given less weight than engaging in a conversation in the coding of the data. She stated:

> The rationale for the differential assignment of quantitative values in this case is that although the same amount of time is spent in both activities, they can be viewed as being qualitatively different [...] Presumably, watching television does not make the same communicative demands on the learner as engaging in conversation. Furthermore, even though watching television can be a rich source of linguistic input to the learner, it may not always be comprehensible input, depending on the learner's proficiency level. In conversation, however, the learner is more likely to obtain comprehensible linguistic input, because of the necessity for the learner to negotiate meaning with his/her interlocutor. If, as Long (1982) maintains, negotiation of meaning is the key to getting comprehensible input, which in turn is thought to aid the second language acquisition process, then conversational interaction in English can be viewed as contact which is more beneficial to the learner than mere exposure to linguistic input via the radio, television, etc. (p. 186).

In defining amount of contact in a different way, it may be possible to get a clearer picture of which type of language contact activity facilitates second language acquisition.

The Mini-Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

The mini-attitude/motivation test battery (mini-AMTB) was used to measure the subjects' degree of motivation to learn English (See Appendix C). Developed by Gardner (1985), the AMTB is the most frequently used assessment tool to measure students' attitudes and motivation to learn another language, and to assess various individual difference variables based on the socio-educational model. The AMTB consists of more than 130 items, and its reliability and validity have been verified by several studies (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, 1993a; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000). The mini-AMTB is made up of 11 items that fall into five dimensions of motivational constructs: integrativeness (items 1-3), attitudes toward learning situation (items 4 and 5), motivation (items 6-8), instrumental orientation (item 9), and language anxiety (items 10 and 11). The mini-AMTB uses a seven-point interval scale anchored at the end points, with the mid-point as neutral.

The mini-AMTB has recently been used in many studies of L2 motivation (e.g., Macintyre & Charos, 1996; Baker & Macintyre, 2000; Masgoret et al., 2001), because it reduces administration time while measuring the basic constructs of the original AMTB. Despite the potential problems with single-item measures, Gardner and Macintyre (1993a) have shown that this instrument has been used in a number of data-based studies of L2 motivation all over the world, and is still considered the best standardized test of L2 motivation.

With regard to reliability, for example, Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the internal consistency of the subscales (Macintyre & Charos, 1996). Macintyre and

Charos (1996) reported that the internal consistency values ranged from .48 to .89. Specifically, the Cronbach alpha was .89 for attitudes toward learning situation (i.e., attitude toward the language teacher and the course), .86 for integrativeness (i.e., attitude toward the target language group and interest in the target language), .65 for motivation (i.e., desire to learn English, motivational intensity, and attitude toward learning English), and .48 for language anxiety (i.e., anxiety experienced during English classes and English use). The measure of internal consistency reliability for instrumental orientation is the lowest of all measures in Macintyre and Charos's 1996 study, and is generally very low in other studies as well (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a).

In addition to Macintyre and Charos's study, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a) also empirically tested the validity of the mini-AMTB by assessing learner attitudes and motivations in second-language learning. In the case of university students learning French, Gardner and MacIntyre found meaningful correlations between the major constructs of the measure and second-language achievement.

The instrumentation in the present study was piloted on a select group of participants to determine the appropriateness of the questionnaire items. There was a need to modify the questions that were not applicable to Korean ESL learners in this study. For example, the phrase "a second language" in some items has been changed to "English" to help students remember that they should focus on English-language learning motivation. In addition, the phrase "I am attending at present," which was used in some items to ask students' attitudes about English classes and English instructors, was changed to "I am attending or have attended before," because most of the participants were not enrolled in an English-language program during the course of this study. The following table shows a listing of the five constructs addressed in the min-AMTB and the items used in each construct.

Table 2. Components of The Mini-AMTB

Construct 1	**Integrativeness**
Item 1	Integrative orientation
Item 2	Interest in the English language
Item 3	Attitudes toward members of the English language community
Construct 2	**Attitudes toward the Learning Situation**
Item 4	Evaluation of English instructor
Item 5	Evaluation of English course
Construct 3	**Motivation**
Item 6	Motivation intensity
Item 7	Desire to learn English
Item 8	Attitudes toward learning English
Construct 4	**Instrumental Orientation**
Item 9	Instrumental orientation
Construct 5	**Language Anxiety**
Item 10	English class anxiety
Item 11	English use anxiety

Measurement of English Pragmatic Competence

Data for examining pragmatic competence of Korean ESL learners in the speech acts of compliment and compliment responses were collected via a written DCT (See Appendix A). The written DCT data were evaluated by two native speakers of English using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) nativeness rating scale. Two scores were offered for each participant (one for compliments and the other for compliment responses). To measure the participants' English pragmatic competence, the two scores were averaged and only the average was obtained for each participant. The DCT, which Blum-Kulka first employed in 1982 for the purpose of investigating speech acts, is a questionnaire consisting of a set of briefly described situations designed to elicit a particular speech act and prompting open responses from the respondent. Subjects are asked to read the situations and respond in writing to a prompt. They are expected to respond as closely as possible to what they would say in a real-life situation. DCT is used largely to collect data in the field of cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics and has several advantages: (a) it provides learners with an opportunity for knowledge display that is precluded for many NNSs by the cognitive demands of face-to-face interaction (Yamashita, 2001, p. 35); (b) it allows researchers to collect a large corpus of data from many individuals in a short period of time; (c) researchers can control different sociopragmatic variables related to a given context (e.g., the relative power relationship, the social distance, and imposition) and therefore the data is comparable; and (d) the DCT easily produces replicable data and results that are readily generalizable (Beebe & Cummings, 1996).

Some researchers claim that DCT data are weak because they may differ from natural conversations in certain ways. DCT responses are shorter in length, simpler in wording, and show less elaborated negotiations in conversation (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Also, they lack the depth of emotion that qualitatively affects the tone, content, and form of linguistic performance (Beebe & Cummings, 1996). Additionally, as Yamashita (2001) noted, “beginners and/or early intermediate learners usually have great trouble in reading and understanding the language which is used to describe each situation (p. 36).

To be sure, there is no question that natural data provide more elaborated and authentic data than even the most detailed DCT, because natural data occur in real time (Beebe & Cummings, 1996). However, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) argued that natural data also have drawbacks. The researcher does not have much control over extraneous variables that may affect the outcome of the study. Another drawback is that a long period of time is often needed to collect data that are thorough and accurate. Furthermore, as for the range of strategies, Beebe and Cummings (1996) and Rintell and Mitchell (1989) prove convincingly that both DCT-collected data and natural data produce similar patterns and formulas, and that the most notable differences between these methods are length and complexity of responses due to the repetitions, hesitations, and longer supportive moves found in oral interaction. In addition, Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) pointed out that if learners are not able to provide native-like responses in a low-pressure situation, such as responding to a DCT, "it would be more unlikely that they would be able to function more effectively in face-to-face interactions with their accompanying pressures and constraints" (p. 169).

To provide a suitable context for eliciting compliment sequences, the investigator used the findings of Wolfson and Manes' (1981) study, which found that the most frequent topics of compliments have to do with appearance/possessions and with ability/performance. Thus, the investigator designed scenarios that the participants in the present study would be familiar with and would experience regularly in a school context.

The DCT included four situations requiring both compliment and compliment responses. Respondents were asked to write down in English what they would say and how they would respond to the compliments in each situation. The scenarios took into account social relationship of power and distance between the two interlocutors (i.e., interlocutors are equal status, or the addressee is either higher status or lower status). All situations in the DCT included mutually acquainted interlocutors, because research has indicated that the great majority of compliments occur between interlocutors who are friends or acquaintances, rather than strangers (e.g., Manes, 1983; Wolfson, 1981, 1989). The following table shows an overview of the situations on the DCT:

Table 3. Description of DCT Situations

	Distance	Dominance/Power	Compliment Type
Situation 1	-	=	Ability
Situation 2	-	-	Performance
Situation 3	-	+	Appearance
Situation 4	-	=	Possession

– Distance indicates that speaker and hearer know and/or identify with each other. +Power means that speaker has a higher rank, title or social position, or is in control of the assets in the situation, whereas –Power means that speaker has a lower rank, social position, or is not in control of the assets in the situation, and =Power indicates that speaker has an equal rank or social position (Hudson, 2001). The DCT used was fully open-ended, with no rejoinder. No response lines were given, and enough space was provided so that participants could write as much or little as they wish.

Data Collection Procedures

The study is divided broadly into two phases, a pilot study and a main study. A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study to determine the practical feasibility of the inquiry and to ensure internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaire and the discourse completion test (i.e., to make sure that the instruments appear to be clear to the respondents and the answers are examples of the data that the researcher expects). The pilot study was tested on five Korean graduate students who were enrolled at Texas A&M University. They were chosen because they were similar to the research participants in terms of educational background, age, and length of stay in the target-language community. Problematic items in the pilot study were revised in the main study (e.g., based on the results of the pilot study, some adjustment in the phrases of the mini-AMTB was made to make these instruments more appropriate for participants in the study).

Subjects first signed a consent form confirming their willingness to participate in the study. The researcher provided the participants with detailed instructions about the tasks in their L1. Each of fifty participants was asked to complete the written open DCT as well as the background information questionnaire and motivation questionnaire.

The written open DCT consisted of four scenarios in which participants were asked to write what they would say and how they would respond in the situation provided. They were also asked to write as much or as little as they thought appropriate for each situation. To assess the degree of appropriateness and nativeness of Korean

ESL learners' target-language structures, the written DCT data were evaluated by two native speakers of English using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) nativeness rating scale, which uses native data as a baseline to judge how the speech act of gratitude in English is realized in the native language and target language. Two scores were offered for each participant (one for compliments and the other for compliment responses). To measure the participants' English pragmatic competence, the two scores were averaged and only the average was obtained for each participant.

The internal consistency and inter-rater reliability of the rating scale have been demonstrated by some studies (Kryston-Morales, 1997; Kim, 2000). Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) scale was not ordered, but used categories to identify types of nonnative responses (not acceptable, problematic, acceptable, nativelike perfect, not comprehensible, and resistant). For the present study, value labels were used to allow the investigator to identify levels of the pragmatic ability of an individual participant (e.g., 4=Native-like, 3=Acceptable, 2=Problematic, 1= Not acceptable). The researcher discussed the rating scale system with the two native English speaking raters (doctoral students in ESL) and provided them with training based on Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) study.

Data Analyses

A statistical analysis of the data was carried out using version 14.0 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Tests for normality of variables, interrater reliability, an internal consistency analysis for the mini-AMTB questionnaire, and multicollinearity among variables were taken to prevent against the standard types of validity issues and to improve the reliability of the analyses in quantitative research of this type. Descriptive statistics were then used to show how the Korean ESL learners are differently ranked in terms of levels of approximation to native speech act behavior, the amount of contact with English, length of residence in the target language area and the degree of motivation. The means for level of pragmatic competence, amount of contact with English, length of residence in the target environment and motivation were converted to standardized scores (z scores) for each participant. The standardized data were then analyzed by performing a Pearson product-moment correlation and multiple regression ($\alpha = .05$).

Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients were carried out to examine if there is a statistically significant correlation among three independent variables (motivation for learning English, the amount of contact with English, and length of residence in the L2 community) and Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic competence. That is, Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients were calculated to assess which of the three independent variables is the better predictor of Korean ESL learners' achievement of pragmatic knowledge.

Analysis of the data falls into several categories:

1. The relationship between Korean ESL learners' level of pragmatic competence and motivation.

2. The relationship between Korean ESL learners' level of pragmatic competence and the amount of contact with English.
3. The relationship between Korean ESL learners' level of pragmatic competence and length of residence in the target-language community.
4. The relationship between Korean ESL learners' level of motivation and the likelihood of pursuing contact with English.

The basic question answered by this study was whether the three variables (motivation for learning English, the amount of contact with English, and length of residence in a target-language community) are related to Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence. Also, as a subproblem, this study investigated to what extent Korean ESL students' motivation for learning English relates to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English.

In addition to examining to what extent overall motivation relates to the subjects' pragmatic competence, the investigator sought to determine the extent to which the five AMTB subscales influence the subjects' pragmatic attainment. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was carried out to examine how the subjects' pragmatic competence is related to the five motivation subscales. Research over the past forty years suggests that the relative predictive power of different components of motivation was found to be inconsistent (Brown et al., 2001). For example, whereas some studies indicated that the integrative orientation was a good predictor of L2 proficiency, others found that the instrumental orientation was an equivalent or a better predictor than the integrative orientation (Noels, 2001).

The investigator was also interested in what types of language contact are most conducive to the subjects' pragmatic development. In L2 research, there is some research evidence that supports the notion that productive, more interactive types of language contact can lead to greater L2 acquisition than receptive, less interactive types of language contact. For example, Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki's (1994) study suggests that productive, interactive language activities led to greater vocabulary acquisition than receptive activities such as reading with their EFL participants in Japan. This finding is also supported by Lybeck (2002)'s study, which examined the role of the learners' interactions with native speaker interlocutors in relation to their acquisition of L2 pronunciation patterns. The results show that the learners who had lack of access to native speakers had lower overall pronunciation accuracy than those who had connections with native speakers of the target language.

Conversely, some studies show that receptive, less interactive types of language contact develops much better rates in the learner's L2 learning. For instance, Cadierno's (1995) study showed that for some grammatical structures, receptive L2 activities may be superior. Likewise, Freed's (1990) study show that advanced students who spent more time in less interactive L2 contact demonstrated much more growth on language achievement tests. Interactive contact with native speakers did not predict changes for students at the high intermediate and advanced levels. Indeed, more data is needed to gain a complete understanding of which type of language contact is more facilitative in promoting the learner's interlanguage.

The third phase of analysis consisted of multivariate statistical analyses. More specifically, linear regression analysis was used to examine the bivariate relationship between each of independent variables and participants' pragmatic achievement. A subsequent analysis utilized multiple regression analysis to determine the joint effects of all independent variables on the dependent variable. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if the findings in correlation coefficient analysis are upheld by the multiple regression analysis. Additionally, whereas the correlations measure the degree to which these variables are linearly related, a multiple regression analysis demonstrates what proportion of the dependent variable can be predicted by each independent variable. It might also be expected that the larger regression model, using all three predictor variables, would have a greater squared value than the model using each predictor variable alone. This means that one predictor does not simply explain the differences in the level of Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatics; rather, all three variables may appear to be mutually involved in determining Korean ESL learners' level of interlanguage pragmatic competence.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Previous chapters have introduced this research project, outlined the overall framework of the study, reviewed the literature pertaining to the topic, and detailed the methodology that was used in this study. This chapter will present the statistics from all correlation coefficient and regression analyses, and structure the results of the analyses around the four research questions first presented in Chapter I. The following chapter will discuss the implications of these results, as well as contextualize them within a larger frame of reference.

This study aimed to account for the different levels of pragmatic development among fifty graduate-level Korean ESL learners and whether the learners' pragmatic ability was influenced by motivation levels for learning English, the amount of contact with English, and length of their residence in the target-language community. Including all three variables (motivation, amount of L2 contact, and length of residence in the target environment) as potential factors in pragmatic development made it possible to examine the effects of these three indicators on pragmatic development. While attempts have been made to identify the effects of a multifaceted set of variables on language acquisition in SLA, a small number of studies have focused on pragmatic acquisition.

Therefore, this study considers the effect of important variables affecting L2 pragmatic acquisition. As noted earlier, the variables were operationally defined as: 1) the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic skill in English as measured by the DCT; 2) their amount of English-language contact and length of residence in the United States as measured by a background questionnaire; and 3) their level of motivation for learning English as measured by the mini-AMTB.

Descriptive Statistics

Analyses in the present study proceeded in three stages, each of which worked as a preliminary step to the next. In the first stage, univariate descriptive statistics were conducted to obtain mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the raw data for each observed variable. In addition to providing an overview of the data, descriptive statistics indicate whether the data were distributed normally, and thus provide justifications for the selection of appropriate inferential statistics for the analyses. Table 4 displays a summary of univariate descriptive statistics for the four observed variables.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Research Variables

	N	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
DCT	50	3.58	.26	.606	.337	-.003	.662
Amount of Contact	50	32.04	18.43	.751	.337	-.633	.662
Motivation	50	4.67	.74	-.252	.337	.011	.662
Length of Residence	50	3.94	1.57	.597	.337	-.231	.662
Valid N (listwise)	50						

The mean level in the DCT representing the L2 pragmatic competence of the Korean ESL learners when performing complimenting behavior indicated that the Korean ESL subjects attained a relatively high level of English pragmatic competence. A mean of 3.58 out of four categories (e.g., 4=Native-like, 3=Acceptable, 2=Problematic, 1= Not acceptable) suggests that the Korean ESL learners' DCT rating is between the "acceptable" and "native-like" category. DCT rating results of the Korean ESL learners are discussed in more detail later.

The multifaceted background information questionnaire quantified the participant's length of residence in the target-language community and the amount of L2 contact the participants were exposed to in daily life. It examines various aspects of a student's contact with L2 both in class and out of class, in terms of four items. The items surveyed the total amount of time the participants spent in contact with English each week, such as productive, more interactive use of language (e.g., conversational interaction in English and emailing or chatting via the internet) that a participant had with other people and receptive, less interactive use of language (e.g., reading books and watching television and listening to the radio) a participant had.

In L2 research, the general consensus is that conversational interaction with native speakers of the target language is essential for the learner's acquisition of language (Gass & Varonis, 1994). That is, more interactive language contact provides a forum for learners to readily detect a discrepancy between their learner language and the target language and that awareness of the mismatch serves the function of triggering a modification of existing second language knowledge. There is some research evidence that supports the notion that not all L2 contact activities will become comprehensible; for example, some input will be beyond the comprehension of L2 learners and will not, therefore, be processed. Therefore, it may be fruitful to inquire into which type of language contact is better in improving participants' L2 pragmatic competence. The overall amount of English-language contact that the participants reported to had a mean of 32.04. Additionally, the seven-point scale to determine subjects' level of motivation for learning English had a mean of 4.67, as recorded by each participant for five motivation subscales (i.e., integrativeness, attitudes toward learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation, and language anxiety). This suggests that on the whole, the participants had high motivation toward learning English.

The standard deviations for DCT, motivation, and length of residence were relatively small (lower than 1.0 for DCT and motivation, and little greater than 1.0 for length of residence). However, the standard deviation for amount of contact was quite large, indicating that there was a great deal of variation in the total amount of time participants spent in contact with English each week.

In a more detailed level, the research design incorporated the following precautions to prevent the standard validity issues and to improve the reliability of the analyses in quantitative research of this type. Validity and reliability of an estimated model typically include testing for normality of variables, multicollinearity test among variables, and interrater reliability. First, the measures of skewness (quantification of the asymmetry of the distribution) and kurtosis (quantification of the shape of the distribution) were examined to ensure that the data of individual variables represented a normal distribution. As seen in Table 4, the skewness and kurtosis values of the four variables all lie between ± 1.0, which means that all four variables fall within the "excellent" range as acceptable variables for further analyses (George and Mallery, 2001).

DCT Scores

The first variable, Korean ESL learners' DCT scores, showed a normal distribution, with a skewness of 0.606. An examination of the kurtosis revealed the measure of -0.003. This is within acceptable limits for a normal distribution.

Amount of Contact

The second variable of interest, the amount of contact as measured by Korean ESL learners' background questionnaires, also showed a normal distribution. The skewness for the variable was 0.75 and similarly, the measure of kurtosis was -0.63. In short, the measures of skewness and kurtosis were within acceptable levels and consistent with a relatively normal distribution.

Motivation

Again, a review of the summary statistics of the motivation variable showed a fairly normal distribution. The skewness was -0.25 and measure of kurtosis was 0.01.

Length of Residence

The fourth variable, length of residence, showed a relatively normal distribution, with a skewness of 0.597 and a kurtosis of -0.23. Again, this is within acceptable limits for a normal distribution.

In addition to testing for normality of the variables, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to examine the degree of consistency in the two independent raters who scored the participants' DCT scores. Slightly lower Kappa values were obtained for computing interrater reliability. The two raters demonstrated a calculated correlation coefficient of .50 (p =.001) when using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) nativeness rating scale for assessing the subjects' pragmatic competence (According to Cohen's Kappa, Kappa values ≥ .60 is acceptable interrater reliability (Stemler, 2004)). To decrease variability between the raters, the investigator asked the raters to refer back to the Nativeness Rating scale and the criteria for each score. The scores in question were discussed until they reached a consensus. Thus, the result showed a high degree of correspondence between the ratings (α =.82, p =.001). Thus, consistency between raters in assessing the subjects' DCT scores proved the usefulness of Eisenstein and Bodman's (1993) nativeness rating scale. An internal consistency analysis for the mini-AMTB questionnaire showed a Cronbach alpha estimate of .68. Meanwhile, multicollinearity was found to pose no threat to the reliability of the subsequent regression analyses. The issue of multicollinearity will be addressed in regression analysis.

DCT Rating Results

Table 5 presents the Korean ESL learners' levels of pragmatic ability in English. A large number, 128 (64 percent) of the dialogues, achieved a rating of 4 (native-like).

An example of a Korean ESL learner in Situation 1:

> 'What a great writer you are!'
>
> 'Am I ?
>
> ' Yes, could you please write our academic paper alone?
>
> I will support you with academic papers and experimental results,
>
> and others that I can do better than you'
>
> 'Sure'

This response did not contain any errors and the syntax was native like. Results of the holistic DCT rating showed that 56 (28 percent) obtained a rating of 3 (acceptable) which contained minor mistakes that made it un-native like but the meaning was understandable.

An example of a Korean ESL learner in Situation 1:

‘Sure, it’s my pleasure to corporate with you’

Nine dialogues (4.5 percent) received a rating of 2 (problematic) which meant that they contained errors that might cause misunderstandings. This could have been an instance of pragmalinguistic and/or sociopragmatic failure (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993).

An example of a Korean ESL learner in Situation 4:

‘Wow, you bought it with own your money! What a good man!’

‘What’s the most fabulous thing to buy this car?’

This response was problematic because it is difficult to understand. Also, there were 7 dialogues (3.5 percent) that were rated as 1 (not acceptable) meaning that they were difficult to comprehend and they were instances of a violation of a social norm.

An example of a Korean ESL learner in Situation 4:

‘Your writing is also good though.

I’m better than you because I’m an American’

This response was unacceptable because there is a violation of a social norm, a likely instance of sociopragmatic failure.

Table 5. Summary of Holistic Rating of Dialogues on Nativeness Rating Scale for Korean ESL Learners

No. of Rating Dialogues	4	3	2	1	
Sit. 1	37	9	2	2	50
Sit. 2	37	10	3		50
Sit. 3	25	21	2	2	50
Sit. 4	29	16	2	3	50
Totals	128	56	9	7	200
Percent	64%	46%	4.5%	3.5%	100%

* Rating scale = 4 – Native-like
3 – Acceptable
2 – Problematic
1 – Not Acceptable

Using the score on the DCT as the criterion measure of pragmatic skills in English of the Korean ESL learners, the investigator went on to consider the research questions concerning what factors contribute to success in achieving pragmatic competence. Two types of statistical analyses were applied to the data: correlational analysis and multiple regression analysis.

Correlations

Correlation coefficient analyses were performed to investigate the relationship among all four variables of interest. Correlations were used to express in mathematical terms the degree of relationship among three independent variables and the dependent variable. A principal advantage of the correlational approach is that it permits simultaneous measurements of several variables and their interrelationships.

Research Question One

Q1. *How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' degree of motivation, as measured by the mini-AMTB, related with their achievement of pragmatic competence?*

The first research question examined to what extent DCT score is related to the degree of motivation of Korean ESL learners. To examine the relationship between motivation for learning English and pragmatic competence based on the DCT test, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed using SPSS with alpha set at .05. As seen in Table 6, the correlation coefficient between DCT scores and the level of motivation was moderate and relatively significant at $p < 0.1$. This result shows that the higher the level of motivation the participants had, the higher their pragmatic competence.

Table 6. Correlations between Pragmatic Competence and Motivation

Variables	*r*	*p*
Pragmatic Competence & Motivation	.258	.071

This finding is congruent with other research in SLA in which there is a positive relationship between motivation and language proficiency (Schmidt, 1993; Niezgoda & Rover, 2001; Cook, 2001; Takahashi, 2005). The test result indicated that as the level of motivation for learning English increases, DCT scores increases.

Table 7. Correlations between Compliments/ Compliment Responses and Motivation

Variables	*r*	*p*
Compliments & Motivation	.314*	.027
Compliment Responses & Motivation	.131	.363

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

In this study pragmatic competence was measured in terms of giving compliments as well as responding to compliments. Looking into whether motivation had an effect on compliments and compliment responses, respectively, the results showed that motivation had a relatively significant influence on the speech act of compliments at $p < .05$, whereas no significant relationship was found between motivation and compliment responses at $p > .05$.

Next, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was carried out to examine which subcomponents of motivation are correlated with pragmatic competence. The identification, measurement, and relationship of these different components of motivation have been well studied in extant literature (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001; see also Skehan, 1991, for a summary and evaluation of research). For example, some studies showed that integratively motivated students were more likely to succeed in acquiring a second-language than those less integratively motivated (Gardner, 2001). Brown et al. (2001), who adapted Gardner's AMTB, found that the motivational intensity subscale was positively correlated with measures of social extraversion. Research over the past forty years suggests that the relative predictive power of each motivational orientation was found to be inconsistent. Although some studies indicated that the integrative orientation was a good predictor of L2 proficiency, others found that the instrumental orientation was an equivalent or a better predictor than the integrative orientation (Noels, 2001).

To ensure a more effective and trustworthy analysis, before the correlation analysis, a review of summary statistics was conducted to determine if there is a normal distribution for the motivation subscales. Descriptive statistics in Table 8 show mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the raw data for the five motivation subscales:

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Motivation Subscales

	N	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Integrativeness	50	4.64	.96	-.477	.337	.154	.662
Attitude	50	4.81	1.01	-.316	.337	.390	.662
Motivation	50	4.52	1.04	-.081	.337	-.639	.662
Instrumental	50	6.04	1.15	-.980	.337	.081	.662
Anxiety	50	4.11	1.27	-.218	.337	-.512	.662
Valid N (listwise)	50						

It should be noted that the measures of skewness and kurtosis of the five motivation subscales were within acceptable levels and consistent with a relatively normal distribution.

Table 9 presents the correlation between the participants' pragmatic competence and the five motivation subscales.

Table 9. Correlations between Pragmatic Competence and Motivation Subscales

Variables	*r*	*p*
Pragmatic Competence & Integrativeness	.281*	.048
Pragmatic Competence & Attitude toward learning situation	.261	.067
Pragmatic Competence & Motivation	.203	.157
Pragmatic Competence & Instrumental orientation	-.098	.498
Pragmatic Competence & Language anxiety	.092	.524

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 9, it was found that integrativeness subscale was the variable with the highest correlation (r = .281, p = .048) with participants' DCT scores, followed by the variable "attitude toward learning situation" with the second highest correlation (r =.261, p =.067). That is, the result showed that the variables "integrativeness" and "attitude toward learning situation" – the favorable feelings toward the target language and culture, and positive attitudes toward the situation where the learning is taking place – were the leading contributor to differentiating participants' DCT ratings. The participants' pragmatic competence was not significantly correlated with the other three of the motivation subscales.

Research Question Two

Q 2. *How is the reported amount of contact with English, as measured by the background questionnaire, related with the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence?*

In addition to levels of motivation, the present study included the amount of contact with the L2 as an indicator of pragmatic development, because in SLA, many studies have shown that language contact was significantly important in learners' language learning (Hashimoto, 1993; Lapkin et al., 1995; Bacon, 2002). This section presents the results for Research Question 2, which investigated whether learners' pragmatic ability is related to the amount of contact with the target language. A Pearson product-moment correlation matrix was used to examine the relationship between the amount of contact with English as measured by a background questionnaire and Korean ESL students' level of pragmatic ability in English. The correlation coefficient matrix is shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Correlations between Pragmatic Competence and Amount of Contact

Variables	*r*	*p*
Pragmatic Competence & Amount of Contact	.046	.754

Contrary to what was expected, the correlation coefficients for amount of L2 contact were not statistically significant at $p > .05$. Given the nonsignificant interrelationship between amount of contact with English and the students' pragmatic abilities in the speech act of compliments, the hypothesis that greater amount of contact with English would lead to higher levels of pragmatic competence was not supported. The result was consistent with other research that show language contact, which presumably provides learners with opportunities to develop their interlanguage, does not necessarily result in L2 proficiency (Day, 1984; DeKeyer, 1986; Freed, 1995b; Brecht et al., 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Yager, 1998; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004).

Table 11. Correlations between Compliments/ Compliment Responses and Amount of Contact

Variables	*r*	*p*
Compliments & Amount of Contact	.053	.713
Compliment Responses & Amount of Contact	.024	.870

In this study pragmatic competence was measured in terms of giving compliments as well as responding to compliments. Looking into whether amount of contact had an effect on compliments and compliment responses, respectively, the results showed that amount of contact had no significant relationship with both compliments and compliment responses.

With respect to the finding of the lack of correlation between the amount of L2 contact and pragmatic competence, the research has shown that the type of contact, rather than the amount of contact, is more important in developing language proficiency. In L2 research, it has been viewed that although the same amount of time is spent in some activities, they can be viewed as being qualitatively different (Longcope, 2003). As Long (1982) maintains, interactional input provides learners more opportunities to readily detect a discrepancy between their learner language and the target language and that awareness of the mismatch serves the function of triggering a modification of existing second language knowledge, which, in turn, is thought to facilitate learners L2 development. Thus, the investigator calculated a Pearson product-moment correlation matrix between separate types of contact with English that participants were exposed to and their pragmatic competence in order to examine the relationship between language learning outcomes and the various types of language contact variable.

As already mentioned, the background questionnaire included a wide range of questions to elicit information on the participants' background as well as a series of questions related to the amount of contact with English they have. These questions pertain to the amount of productive, more interactive use of language (e.g., conversational interaction in English and emailing or chatting via the internet) that a participant had with other people and the amount of receptive, less interactive use of language (e.g., reading books and watching television and listening to the radio) a participant had. In the research into the effect of amount of contact on any change in the learner's interlanguage, numerous studies classified L2 contact activities as either productive (more interactive) or receptive (less interactive) and examined whether productive or receptive language activities are better in improving L2 acquisition (Spada, 1986; Freed, 1990; Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994; Cadierno, 1995; Dekeyser & Sokaiski, 1996; Allen, 2000).

It is important to note that quantitative values were differently assigned for each activity in order to analyze the data collected. Spada's study (1986) serves as the theoretical basis for the differential assignment of quantitative values in this study: the participants' response to conversational interaction in English whether it is with native speakers of English or other non-native speakers of English (item #7 on the questionnaire) was given 3 points. The response to emailing or chatting via the internet (item#10) was given 2 points because this activity does not make the same communicative demands on the learner as engaging in conversational interaction. Reading books (#8) and watching television and listening to the radio (#9) were given 1 point, respectively. Spada (1986), in commenting on why these activities would be given less weight than engaging in a conversation, stated, “even though these activities can be a rich source of linguistic input to the learner, it may not always be comprehensible input, depending on the learner’s proficiency level” (p.186).

To ensure a more reliable and valid analysis, before the correlation analysis, a review of summary statistics was conducted to determine if there is a normal distribution for the different types of contact variable. Descriptive statistics in Table 12 show mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the raw data for the four different types of contact variable:

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics of the Four Types of Contact Variable

	N	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
conversational interaction	50	6.69	1.85	-.803	.337	.925	.662
reading books	50	14.97	15.35	.958	.337	-.378	.662
watching television and listening to the radio	50	6.99	5.47	.629	.337	-.374	.662
emailing or chatting via the internet	50	3.39	4.55	4.361	.337	24.038	.662
Valid N (listwise)	50						

A review of the summary statistics showed an abnormal distribution for the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet." For a normal distribution, values for skewness and kurtosis must be near zero. The variable "emailing or chatting via the internet" does not fall within the "excellent" range as acceptable variables for further analyses, because the skewness and kurtosis values of the variable fail to lie between ± 1.0 (George & Mallery, 2001). The measures of skewness and kurtosis were 4.36 and 24.03, respectively. Thus, the investigator executed a data transformation on the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet."

Data Transformation

To see that the variable is normally or near-normally distributed after transformation, a data transformation was conducted on the interactive contact variable. This is because "many statistical procedures assume or benefit from normality of variables . . . data transformation can be employed to improve the normality of a variable's distribution" (Osborne, 2002, p. 1). It must be noted that this procedures is, in some cases, controversial. A data transformation, for example, should never be used to disguise procedural errors such as missing data or mistakes in data entry (Osborne, 2002). In fact, many prominent statisticians, including Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), argue that researchers should consider the transformation of variables in all circumstances to improve analyses, even when normality is not an issue.

The three most common methods of data transformation to reduce positive skew involve 1) taking the square root of the variable; 2) taking the logarithm (log) of the variable; or 3) taking the inverse of the variable (Ritchey, 2000). However, even after computing the square root of the variable and recalculating the summary statistics, transformation for the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet" failed to lower the skewness and kurtosis of the variable. Table 13 summarizes the results of the data transformation for the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet":

Table 13. Summary Results of Data Transformation

	N	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Sqrt (emailing or chatting via the internet)	50	1.59	.92	1.444	.337	5.237	.662

Accordingly, the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet" was dropped from further analysis.

Table 14 presents the correlation between the participants' DCT performance and the types of contact. The investigator used the total number of hours per week reported in the background questionnaire summed across the different types of English contact activities. Note that the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet" was dropped from this analysis because it showed an abnormal distribution.

Table 14. Correlations between Pragmatic Competence and the Different Types of Contact Variable

Variables	*r*	*p*
Pragmatic Competence & conversational interaction	.377*	.007
Pragmatic Competence & reading books	.077	.593
Pragmatic Competence & watching television and listening to the radio	-.214	.136

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The results found only significant positive correlations between the variable "conversational interaction in English" and participants' pragmatic competence at $p < .05$. It was clear from the data presented in this study that the relationships the learners had with native speakers were integral to their pragmatic competence. This finding lends support to the notion that productive, more interactive language activities lead to greater language acquisition than receptive, less interactive language activities such as reading books and watching television and listening to the radio, etc.

Research Question Three

Q3. *How are differences in the Korean ESL learners' length of residence, as measured by the background questionnaire, related with their achievement of pragmatic competence?*

The third research question examined to what extent achievement of high pragmatic competence in the subjects' L2 is related to the length of residence in the second-language community. To examine the relationship between length of residence and pragmatic competence based on the DCT test, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed using SPSS with alpha set at .05. As seen in Table 15, the correlation coefficient for DCT with length of residence indicates that there is relatively significant effect of length of residence on the subjects' pragmatic attainment at $p < 0.1$.

Table 15. Correlations between Pragmatic Competence and Length of Residence

Variables	*r*	*p*
Pragmatic Competence & Length of Residence	.257	.072

As shown in Table 15, the relationship between the two variables was in the desired direction and both moderate and statistically significant; that is, longer length of residence was more likely to lead to better outcomes in the L2 pragmatics. It is widely accepted that learners living for an extended time in the target-language community might take an advantage of the many opportunities to contact in the L2 and in turn would have shown greater achievement in their target language. Thus, the findings in the present study lend support to those from many studies, in which pragmatic development was associated with learners' length of residence in the target-language context (Ioup, 1995; House, 1996; Flege & Liu, 2001; Churchill, 2001; Kuriseak, 2006).

Table 16. Correlations between Compliments/ Compliment Responses and Length of Residence

Variables	*r*	*p*
Compliments & Length of Residence	.273	.055
Compliment Responses & Length of Residence	.171	.235

Focusing on two sub-domains of the participants' pragmatic competence, the speech acts of compliments and compliment responses, the results showed that only the correlation between length of residence and compliments was relatively significant at $p < 0.1$.

Research Question Four

Q4. *To what extent does student motivation relate to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English?*

In what follows, the investigator proceeded by examining if there is any evidence of a positive relationship between the two independent variables of motivation and the amount of contact. This is to test to what extent Korean ESL students' motivation for learning English relates to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English.

Table 17. Correlations between Motivation & Amount of Contact

Variables	*r*	*p*
Motivation & Amount of Contact	.258	.071

The result of the correlation analysis indicates that the relationship between the two independent variables was in the desired direction and both moderate and statistically significant at $p < 0.1$, implying that the students with high levels of motivation tended to seek out more contact with English.

To do further analysis, the investigator computed correlation coefficients for all eight indicators of motivation and amount of contact, as summarized in Table 18. Note that in earlier section, the variable "emailing or chatting via the internet" was dropped from this analysis, since it showed an abnormal distribution.

Table 18. Correlations between Motivation and Amount of Contact Variables

Variables	*r*	*p*
Integrativeness & conversational interaction	.502*	.000
Integrativeness & reading books	.115	.428
Integrativeness & watching television and listening to the radio	-.046	.749
Attitude & conversational interaction	.369*	.008
Attitude & reading books	.258	.070
Attitude & watching television and listening to the radio	.038	.793
Motivation & conversational interaction	.278	.051
Motivation & reading books	.349*	.013
Motivation & watching television and listening to the radio	-.025	.862
Instrumental & conversational interaction	.110	.447
Instrumental & reading books	.139	.335
Instrumental & watching television and listening to the radio	.282*	.048
Anxiety & conversational interaction	.015	.919
Anxiety & reading books	.102	.479
Anxiety & watching television and listening to the radio	-.081	.578

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The correlation coefficients among indicators of motivation and amount of contact varied from the lowest being -.025 (Motivation & “watching television and listening to the radio”), to the highest being .502 (Integrativeness & conversational interaction). As indicated in Table 18, some indicators were moderately and positively correlated with each other. In particular, those students who were more likely to pursue interactive opportunities to use the English were somewhat more motivated to learn English (r = .278, p = .051) and had more favorable feelings toward the target language and culture (r = .502, p = .000), and positive attitudes toward the situation where the learning is taking place (r = .369, p = .008). In addition, those students who had desire to learn English (r = .349, p = .013) and more positive attitudes toward the learning situation (r = .258, p = .070) reported spending more time reading English books, newspapers, and the like. Also, there appears to be a relatively robust relationship between these Korean ESL learners’ responses to statements related to Instrumental orientation subscale and the following reported frequency of listening to the radio and watching TV in English (r = .282, p = .048).

Overall, the results of correlation coefficient analyses for the four observed variables revealed that motivation and length of residence demonstrated positive and moderate relationships to the Korean ESL learners’ L2 pragmatic competence, which suggests that highly motivated learners are superior in their pragmatic competence to those with lower motivation and learners who spent more time in the target language community have higher level of pragmatic competence than those who spent less time. However, the overall amount of language contact variable was not significant with

Korean ESL students' pragmatic competence. Nevertheless, the correlation between the more interactive type of language contact – the variable "conversational interaction in English" – and the subjects' pragmatic competence was relatively significant.

Multiple Regression

The third phase of analysis consisted of multivariate statistical analyses. As noted in Chapter II, numerous studies in ID research used generalized linear models or SEMs. Regression analysis is a statistical tool that utilizes the relation between two or more quantitative variables so that one variable can be predicted from the other(s). Regression analysis can be used to determine whether the relationship between the dependent variable and predictor variable is significant; and how much variance in the dependent variable is accounted for by the predictor variable. This statistic tool is to understand the predictive relationship between a set of variables. Multiple regression is appropriate when the research problem involves a single metric dependent variable and multiple metric independent variables. SEM is an extension of the general linear model that simultaneously estimates relationships between multiple independent, dependent and latent variables. The purpose of SEMs is to handle many independent variables, even when these display multicollinearity. In the present study, the investigator uses generalized linear models because there is no multicollinearity problem in this study and this study has a small number of independent variables that require minimal variance in variable distributions.

Thus, linear regression analysis was first used to examine the bivariate relationship between: 1) subjects' levels of motivation and their pragmatic competence, 2) subjects' amount of contact and their pragmatic competence, and 3) subjects' length of residence and their pragmatic competence. Bivariate correlation analysis provides the clearest picture of the relationship between two variables. The coefficient of multiple determination (R^2) is reported to note the percentage with which variation in one variable is related to variation in another variable. Bivariate correlation analysis also indicates the significance of each relationship.

Table 19. Model Summary of Bivariate Regression of Three Predictor Variables

Dependent Variable: DCT scores

Independent Variable: Motivation

Model	R^2	*t value*	*p value*	*Beta*
Motivation	.066	1.848	.071	.258

Dependent Variable: DCT scores

Independent Variable: Amount of Contact

Model	R^2	*t value*	*p value*	*Beta*
Amount of Contact	.002	.316	.754	.046

Dependent Variable: DCT scores

Independent Variable: Length of Residence

Model	R^2	*t value*	*p value*	*Beta*
Length of Residence	.066	1.841	.072	.257

When examined individually, the regression models of the effects of motivation and length of residence on pragmatic competence were relatively significant, as shown in Table 19. Note that the models including motivation and length of residence explain approximately 7 percent of the variation in the dependent variable, respectively. However, the model including amount of contact as the independent variable failed to demonstrate a significant relationship between this variable and the dependent variable. Clearly, the data show that a quantitative measure of participants' levels of motivation and length of residence proved useful in identifying their pragmatic competence.

Next, the regression model becomes slightly more complicated by analyzing the contribution of total independent variables to the total explained variation in the dependent variable. More specifically, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the influence of the three independent variables (motivation, the amount of contact, and the length of residence) on the Korean ESL learners' DCT overall scores. The coefficient of multiple correlation (R) and the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2) note the degree and percentage with which variation in pragmatic achievement is associated with variations in the independent variables. In short, the overall R^2 (or adjusted R^2) quantifies how well the model predicts Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic achievement vis-à-vis influencing variables.

Results were examined to test two questions: Was it possible that Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic achievement was best predicted as a combination of all three predictor variables of motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence, or did a single predictor variable yield greater predictability? To answer these questions, a multiple regression was performed by entering three predictor variables (motivation, amount of contact and length of residence). DCT scores were entered as the dependent variable in a multiple regression equation and motivation, amount of contact and length of residence as independent variables.

Table 20. Model Summary of Simultaneous Multiple Regression of All Predictor Variables

Dependent Variable: DCT scores

Independent Variable: Motivation, Amount of Contact & Length of Residence

Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R Square	SE of the Estimate
all in	.380	.145	.089	.253

Analysis of Variance

Model	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*Sig.*
Regression	.498	3	.166	2.592	.064
Residual	2.946	46	.064		
Total	3.444	49			

Coefficients

Variable	B	SE B	β	*t*	*Sig.*	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	2.071	.255		8.127	.000		
Amount of Contact	.001	.002	.061	.414	.681	.862	1.160
Motivation	.093	.050	.261	1.847	.071	.934	1.071
Length of Residence	.049	.024	.291	2.044	.047	.920	1.088

The results of this model showed that the three independent variables met the statistical requirements for entry into the equation. The multivariate statistics, detailing the results of all regression analyses, are found in Table 20. The test of R^2 was performed in order to determine whether the proportion of variance in the dependent variable was accounted for by all the predictor variables. The F value indicates a linear relationship. In other words, F value is used to test whether there is a regression relation between the dependent variable, y, and the set of predictor variables. Obtaining a significant calculated F value indicates that the results of regression and correlation are indeed true and not the consequence of chance. In addition, the statistics reported include the standardized beta coefficients, which derive from computing the regression equation after converting all data to z-scores, resulting in all variables having the same unit of measurement. The beta coefficients determine the relative contribution of each predictor to explaining variance in the dependent variable. The independent variable possessing the beta coefficient with the largest magnitude – regardless of whether its sign is positive or negative – is the most important variable for explaining variance in the dependent variable. Also, the closeness of R square and Adjusted R square indicates that this model would likely produce the same results with a different sample from the population.

Inspection of the squared multiple correlations (R^2) suggests that when these independent variables became the input to the multiple regression, overall, approximately 15 percent of the variance was explained by the three variables (motivation, amount of contact and length of residence) on the Korean ESL learners'

English pragmatic competence. Cohen established criteria for large (R^2= .26), medium (R^2= .13) and small (R^2= .02) effect sizes in multiple regression analysis (1988. pp. 413-414). According to these criteria, the effect size for the three independent variables was medium. The results from the regression analyses confirmed that motivation and length of residence were the main predictors of pragmatic competence. Inspection of the squared multiple correlations (R^2) suggests that some moderate and relatively significant relationships were found among these predictors, F (3, 46) = 2,592, p = 0.064, as shown in Table 20. The three independent variables explained about 15 percent of the variance and 85 percent of the variance remains unexplained by this model.

To explain the degree to which the independent variables (motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence) affect the L2 pragmatic achievement of Korean ESL learners, the weight of their respective standardized regression coefficient, or beta (β), was calculated for each predictor variable. Predictor variables with the largest beta weights were determined to be the predictors with the strongest regressed relationships with the dependent variable of English pragmatic skills. As seen in Table 20, the predictor variables of length of residence and motivation yielded a beta of .291/.261 and a t value of 2.044/1.847 resulting in a relatively significant relationship (p = .047/.071), respectively while the predictor variable of amount of contact yielded a beta of .061 and a t of .414 resulting in a nonsignificant relationship at $p > 0.1$.

A visual examination of the scatterplot matrix clearly reveals the linear relationship of the independent variables with the dependent variable, as shown in Figure 1:

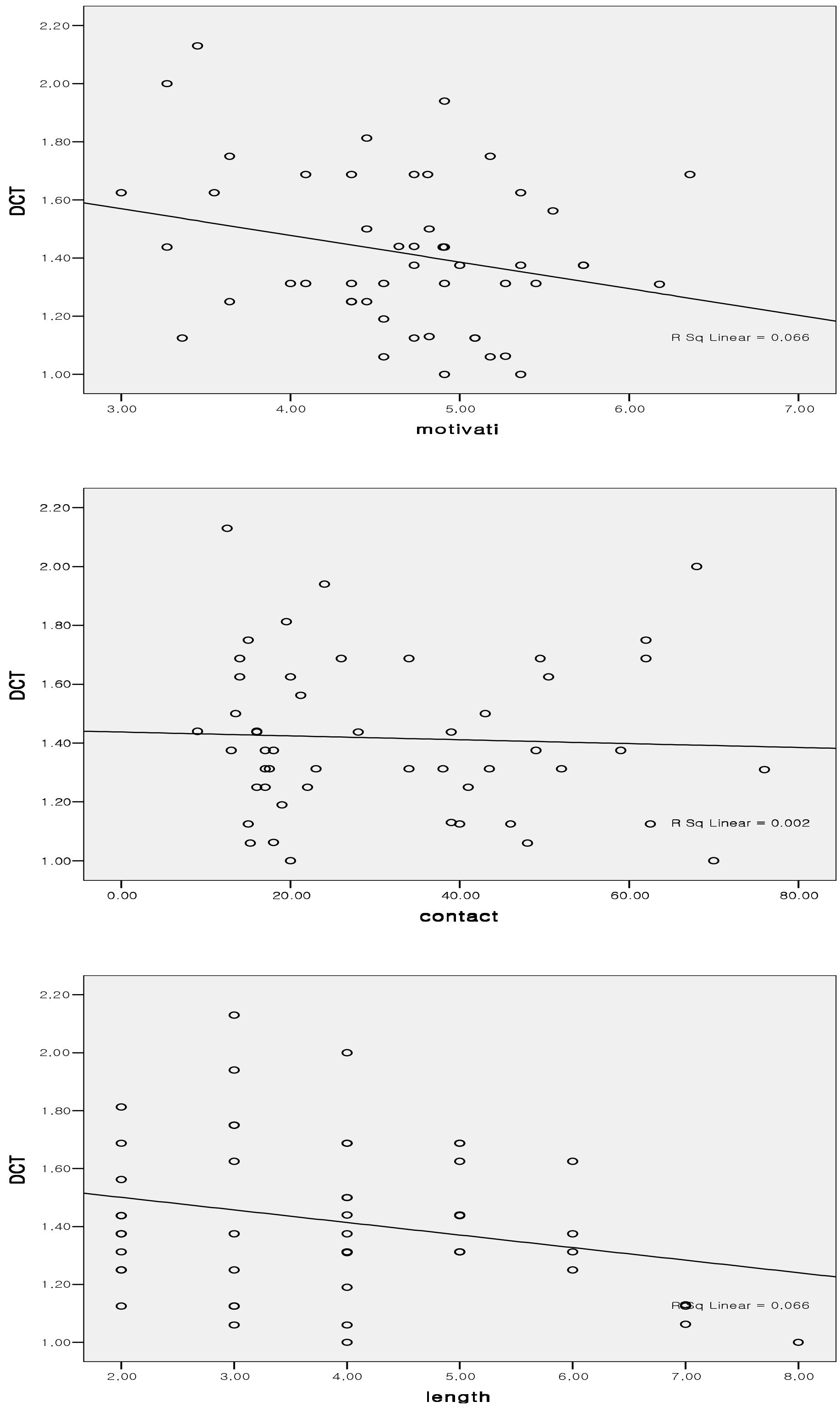

Figure 1. Scatter Plot of DCT and Predictor Variables

The linear nature of the relationship between DCT and two independent variables (motivation and length of residence) is immediately clear.

Multicollinearity Test

To ensure validity, multicollinearity was analyzed to determine if there is a threat to the validity of the study. The assumption of the absence of multicollinearity is essential to the multiple regression model. Multicollinearity indicates that two or more of the independent variables are highly correlated. Highly correlated predictors can cause problems in regression models; these problems center around the issues of reliability and interpretation of the model's coefficient estimates (Leahy, 2000).

Certain problems may arise when two covariates are highly correlated, meaning that they convey essentially the same information (Motulsky, 2002). More specifically, the common, shared variation between the variables makes it hard to estimate the separate effects of each and to get coefficient estimates with small standard errors. Moreover, if the correlation coefficient for these variables is equal to unity, then high standard errors and high parameter estimates are also likely. Furthermore, a conclusion concerning a regression relation based on an F test as well as the value of the coefficient of determination is affected by the existence of multicollinearity.

The exact point at which multicollinearity becomes a concern for regression analysis remains the subject of debate. Most mathematical texts set the benchmark at correlations of .70, whereas other statisticians (i.e., Wulder, 2005) have argued that multicollinearity only becomes an issue at correlations greater than .80 or even .90. Variance inflation factor (VIF), tolerance value and condition index are common ways for detecting multicollearity (Howell, 2002). In the current study, multicollinearity was assessed by examining tolerance and VIF values. As seen in Table 20, tolerance values indicate above 0.9 meaning minimal overlap among predictors and VIFs of the three independent variables show low levels (> 1). Note that if the tolerance value is close to zero, the variables are multicollinear. Also, values of VIF exceeding 10 are often regarded as indicating multicollinearity. Thus, there is no multicollinearity problem in the study.

In summary, we see that a moderate and statistically significant relationship was found in the larger regression model including all three independent variables. Findings from these regression procedures are consistent with those obtained through examination of simple correlations, and suggest that among all predictors considered in the present study motivation variable and length of residence were the main predictors of the criterion variable implying that highly motivated Korean ESL learners and those who spent extended time in the target language community appear to have a positive tendency for higher levels of L2 pragmatic competence.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion of the Findings

Chapter I introduced the topic of this study and provided a broad overview of the entire research project. In the simplest terms, this analysis was intended to explore the relationship between the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence and three identified variables. To that end, a comprehensive review of the literature pertaining to this topic was presented and evaluated in Chapter II. Chapter III detailed the methodology used to ascertain the strength of the relationship among the variables, with the larger goal of determining if a quantitative measure of Korean ESL learners' motivation for learning English, the amount of contact with English, and length of residence in the target language community could prove useful in identifying their pragmatic abilities. Chapter IV presented the statistics from all correlation and regression analyses; the output was structured around the three research questions first presented in Chapter I. This final chapter will discuss the implications of these results, as well as compare the findings in this study to the work of others.

In ILP, little attention has been given to the study of pragmatic competence among Korean learners of English in the second-language context, and little research has investigated issues regarding the effects of variables that contributed to different levels of L2 pragmatic competence. Moreover, most work on ILP has concentrated on the speech acts of requests and apologies; the act of complimenting in English has not received as much attention.

This study examined the following questions: 1) How do differences in the Korean ESL learners' degree of motivation correlate with their achievement of pragmatic competence? 2) How does the amount of contact with English correlate with the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence? 3) How do differences in the Korean ESL learners' length of residence correlate with their achievement of pragmatic competence? 4) To what extent does student motivation relate to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English? Pearson's *r* correlation coefficients were calculated for all three independent variables (motivation, the amount of contact, and length of residence), to assess which of the variables was the better predictor of participants' DCT scores. The correlation between pragmatic competence and two independent variables (motivation and length of residence) was relatively significant; contrary to what was expected, however, the correlation coefficient for the amount of contact was relatively low. By inspection of the raw correlations across items in the questionnaire and correlations with the criterion, it was clear that motivation and length of residence were good indicators of how much pragmatic competence in English the Korean ESL students have achieved.

To help the reader keep the larger picture in mind, the results are first summarized in terms of five general conclusions: (a) the levels of motivation examined demonstrated a positive and moderate relationship to the Korean ESL learners' L2 pragmatic competence; (b) overall, the amount of L2 contact appeared to have only a weak and insignificant impact on the participants' pragmatic competence; (c) despite (b), one exception was that productive, more interactive type of language contact moderately influenced the participants' level of pragmatic competence; (d) the participants' length of residence moderately influenced the participants' level of pragmatic competence; and (e) the participants' level of motivation moderately affected their likelihood of pursuing contact with English.

In answer to the first research question, the finding in the present study has provided evidence that is consistent with more general claims about pragmatic development and the effect of motivation. The results support the claim that motivation is a factor in second-language pragmatic acquisition. Schmidt (1993) argued that motivated English learners are more interested in crucial features of English language rules that are important for successful L2 communication than those who are not so motivated. Niezgoda and Rover (2001) suggested that motivation influenced Czech-speaking English learners' sensitivity to grammatical and pragmatic errors. Cook (2001) also pointed out the possibility that highly motivated JFL learners notice pragmatic functions and have better understanding of a polite speech style in Japanese. A similar observation was made by Tateyama (2001), who found that highly motivated JFL learners showed better performance in a role-play exercise in which a Japanese routine formula, *sumimasen*, was produced.

Additionally, Takahashi (2001) speculated that motivation could be one of the most influential individual variables influencing differences in learners' noticing of target request forms. The study shows that highly motivated learners willingly adopt target standards for pragmatic action, whereas less-motivated learners are more likely to resist accepting target norms, which thus become less effective teaching tools for the L2's sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms. Given the assumption that students who choose to study abroad are likely to be highly motivated to learn English (Schumann, 1986), it is not surprising that motivation might have been an indicator of the pragmatic competence.

In regard to the relationship between motivation and the speech acts of compliments and compliment responses, there was a moderate correlation between motivation and compliments, but not in the speech act of compliment responses. What do these results suggest? One possible explanation is that the participants' pragmatic knowledge is domain specific. Even if the participants have developed some knowledge of the speech act of compliments, they may have not developed knowledge to the same extent in the speech act of compliment responses. One possible reason for this is that the speech act of compliments has multiple functions, such as "greeting, thanking, apologizing, requesting, irony, and flattery," and they are even used as substitutes for other speech acts (Wolfson, 1981, p.123). Thus, the speech act of compliments provides learners with higher frequency of use. However, compliment responses are more formulaic in nature, whereas compliments require more complex syntax. Wolfson (1989) pointed out the overuse of the formulaic "thank you" as a compliment response by language learners when they communicate with native speakers. According to her, nonnative speakers of English frequently used "thank you" as a compliment response to English compliments, regardless of the social context.

It is also possible that responding to compliments for example is more cultural specific and some studies have shown that Koreans often downgrade the compliment or return it to the complimenter. They contributed this to a pragmatic transfer of Korean sociolinguistic rules to English speech behavior. A common response to compliments in Korean is to reject or deflect compliments in order to avoid self-praise in interactions. Thus, the results of insignificant relationship between motivation and the speech act of compliment responses may provide evidence that L1 cultural norm is reflected in the learners' resistance to converge to L2 social norms.

With respect to the finding in the first research question, the investigator proceeded to determine the extent to which the subcomponents of motivation were related to the subjects' pragmatic competence. The results show that learners' pragmatic competence is not associated with all motivation subscales: the variables "integrativeness" and "attitude toward the learning situation" were found to be closely related to the participants' pragmatic competence. This finding is congruent with other research in which integrative motivation has been shown to positively correlate with language achievement (Schmidt, 1993; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, & Schmidt, 2001). Dörnyei (2001) defined the integrative motivation as a motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings toward the target language and culture. Schmidt (1993) explained that the integrative motivation is important because it determines the extent to which learners actively pay attention to the pragmatic aspects of target language and struggle to understand them. Learners with an integrative motivation are more concerned with establishing relationships with target language speakers and converging to native speaker use, which in turn improve their target language. Most studies of integrative motivation have been conducted in second language contexts and have addressed the role of integrative motivation in predicting second language proficiency (Schmidt, 1993; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, & Schmidt, 2001). They concluded that language development is dependent on favorable attitudes toward the second language community.

Likewise, recent studies addressing the relationship between motivation and learning have found links between the variable "attitude toward the learning situation" and learners' strategies of focusing and sustaining attention to properties of the target language (Schmidt, 2001). This finding suggests that those who have more positive attitudes toward the learning situation are more likely to pay close attention to the target language structures and forms, which in turn improves their L2 proficiency.

Recently, the question has been raised as to the psychological definition of motivation that the learners' motivational characteristics lead to language acquisition. Norton (1995) argues that the definition of motivation in SLA research embodies a "property of the language learner – a fixed personality trait" which has primarily been drawn from the field of social psychology, but SLA research has not captured the "complex relationship between relations of power, identity, and language learning" (p.17). Norton claims that a learner's motivation to learn a second language and participate in social interactions is more complex than what social psychologists believe it to be. Norton, in her examination of the role of the kinds of identities learners can assume in interactions in the target language, argued that a learner's desire to use the target language was not a question of motivation, but rather one of identity and power relations. The ways in which learners viewed themselves and their relationships to others conditioned their opportunities to both experience and use the target language and as such their language learning outcomes. Related to the above mentioned, Norton (2000) puts forward the new notion of investment rather than motivation, identifying the second language learner not as a one-dimensional entity but as someone with a complex social identity and desires. Norton's view of investment explains how the learner relates to the changing social world by including conditions such as social identity and relations of power, which influence the extent to which the learner converges to the target language. According to Pavlenko (2001), identity is a socially recognizable category and personal beliefs that are tied to socially ascribed categories, such as gender, race, and age.

Reporting on a study conducted in 1992 on natural language learning by five immigrant women in Canada, for example, Norton (1995) states that in certain social conditions, the women were uncomfortable to speak English, thus suggesting that although they were highly motivated their investments sometimes conflicted "with the desire to speak […] investments are closely connected to the ongoing production of a language learner's social identity" (p.20). Indeed, Norton views investment as a construct that is not static and generalizable but the relationship between the language learner and their always changing social identity within the language learning context.

According to Norton, many questions linking the language learner to the social context in which he/she is acquiring the language have been left unanswered. To this end, future studies are needed to address the issue of ELS learners' social identity that demonstrate to what extent identities shape the ways in which people make sense of the world and influence how they acquire the second language in a new social environment.

In answer to the second research question, the present study indicates that the relationship between the overall amount of contact with the target language and pragmatic competence was weak and nonsignificant. One would have expected that students who took advantage of the many contact opportunities in the target language in general would have shown greater achievement in L2 pragmatics. However, these findings were, in some sense, predicted by previous studies that questioned the assumption that the amount of language input might be a factor in successful second-language learning (Day, 1984; DeKeyer, 1986; Spada, 1986; Brecht et al., 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Yager, 1998). Even though it is often assumed that those who have greater opportunities to use the L2 have an advantage over those with little L2 contact, the evidence has been contradictory.

For example, in Spada's study (1986), no correlation was found between amount of contact and speaking scores. In addition, Loschky's (1994) investigation of the effects of contact on the target structures did not find any effects of language contact on recognition or production of the target structures in the subjects. Loschky's results suggested that greater opportunities to use the L2 do not necessarily provide advantages in terms of intake or acquisition. Segalowitz and Freed (2004) also found a weak and nonsignificant effect of contact with the L2 on oral performance of the American learners of Spanish.

In addition, Matsumura's study (2003) attempted to account for differential pragmatic development among Japanese students in a target speech community as functions of their English proficiency as well as the amount of contact with English. This study sought to examine the relationships among Japanese students' perception of social status when giving advice in English, English proficiency, and amount of contact with English. The results found nonsignificant interrelationships between the amount of contact with English and the students' perception of social status when giving advice in English. Works by Freed and colleagues (Freed, 1995b; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004) underscore the need for further investigation into the relationship between L2 language proficiency and language contact, with regard to the findings that language contact did not lead to increased proficiency.

A critical issue in second-language acquisition is whether increased contact with the L2 is responsible for the greater improvement in the L2 proficiency. It is useful to differentiate between the three broad approaches used in studies that have investigated the relationship between language use and L2 acquisition: (1) comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition; (2) conversational interactions with negotiation make the input comprehensible; and (3) comprehensible output aids learners in moving from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Gass & Selinker, 1994, p.219).

The concept of comprehensible input implies that the learner comes to understand input as a result of simplification, redundancy, and clarification, and the help of contextual and extralinguistic information. However, Gass and Selinker (1994) argue that comprehensive input hypothesis does not specify how extralinguistic information aids in actual acquisition. A notion in second language acquisition research that attempts to specify how extralinguistic information aids acquisition is that of negotiation. Gass and Varonis (1994) show that negotiating meaning is an integral part in interactive conditions especially when a communication problem arises and those negotiations allow learners to attend to problematic input and pushes them to modify their output in response to an interlocutor's negative feedback, which, in turn, may facilitate their L2 development. That is, interactional input provides a forum for learners to readily detect a discrepancy between their learner language and the target language and that awareness of the mismatch serves the function of triggering a modification of existing second language knowledge.

This hypothesis lends support to the notion that not all L2 contact activities will become comprehensible; for example, some input will be beyond the comprehension of L2 learners and not, therefore, be processed. In relation to this, some researchers have revealed that while the amount of contact with the L2 was not related to learners' proficiency on some measures, differences in type of contact were related to proficiency on others. That is, differences in the type of contact learners have with the L2 might explain the fact that some studies have found an effect for contact while others have not (Spada, 1985). Ward and Rana-Deuba (2000) noted that we do not know whether it is the quality or quantity of language contact that is of primary importance in language learning. They addressed the question of what types of contact, as well as frequency of contact, are most conductive to increased proficiency and fluency. Krashen (1981) also argued that without this qualitative information, it is difficult to know how much of the subjects' contact time is spent in what he has referred to as "real and sustained language use situations" (p.44).

In L2 research, there is some research evidence that supports the notion that productive, more interactive types of language contact can lead to greater L2 acquisition than receptive, less interactive types of language contact. For example, Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki's (1994) study suggests that productive, interactive language activities led to greater vocabulary acquisition than receptive activities such as reading with their EFL participants in Japan. This finding is also supported by Lybeck (2002)'s study, which examined the role of the learners' interactions with native speaker interlocutors in relation to their acquisition of L2 pronunciation patterns. The results show that the learners who had lack of access to native speakers had lower overall pronunciation accuracy than those who had connections with native speakers of the target language. According to the study, interactions with native speakers in authentic contexts would be extremely beneficial in achieving a high level of L2 proficiency.

Conversely, some studies show that receptive, less interactive types of language contact develops much better rates in the learner's L2 learning. For instance, Cadierno's (1995) study showed that for some grammatical structures, receptive L2 activities may be superior. Likewise, Freed's study (1990) attempted to measure proficiency differences for learners who had two different kinds of exposure to English: productive, more interactive (direct oral/social involvement with friends, family, etc.) and receptive, less interactive (media-related activities such as movies, TV, radio, newspapers, books, etc.). The results in Freed's (1990) study show that advanced students who spent more time in less interactive types of language contact demonstrated much more growth on language achievement tests. Interactive contact with native speakers did not predict changes for students at the high intermediate and advanced levels. More data is needed to gain a complete understanding of which type of language contact is more facilitative in promoting the learner's interlanguage.

To this end, the investigator in this study suspected that it may not be the amount but rather the type of contact that most affects the participants' pragmatic ability. As indicated by Table 14, type of contact accounted for differences in learners' L2 pragmatic competence. It was clear from the data presented in this study that the relationships the learners had with native speakers were integral to their pragmatic competence. This finding lends support to the notion that productive, more interactive language activities lead to greater language acquisition than receptive, less interactive language activities such as reading books and watching television and listening to the radio, etc. Of course, more data is needed to better define the relationship found. Rather than simply saying which type of language contact is better, it may be more fruitful to inquire into the dynamics of the relationships between learners and native speakers: for example, one can look at what the learner may be doing during L2 contact with the native speaker interlocutor that may facilitate learning the L2, as well as that the learner's interlocutor may be doing that may help the learner learn the L2.

Within the context of SLA, there have been a number of claims about how a second language environment was conducive to language learning because learners had more contact with the target language and because certain conditions (input made comprehensible, comprehensible output, and negotiation for meaning) were more available in daily basis (Kasper & Rose, 2002b). The issues of acquisition and learning have been raised by looking at the development of L2 proficiency in terms of whether it takes place in a formal or an informal environment. The difference between them is that in the informal environment language learners can achieve native-like proficiency through unconscious exposure to natural linguistic content, whereas the latter contributes learners' proficiency to conscious knowledge of formal linguistic rules. L2 language acquisition in formal environment assumes that the learner will learn some aspect of the language by studying the rules of grammar and by focusing on the forms and the structures of the language.

For example, Hiroko (1995) suggested that language contact in an informal environment seems a less powerful predictor of differences in learners' L2 proficiency than form-based classroom instruction in a formal setting, which is designed to teach specific aspects of the target language and gives learners opportunities to consciously attend to meaning by receiving instruction which attempts to provide more acquisition opportunities in the classroom. Spada (1986) found no correlation between amount of contact and speaking scores. She claimed that "learners who live in what Krashen has referred to as 'acquisition-rich' environments and take advantage of such settings to use their communicative skills in the L2 also need opportunities to focus on the structural properties of the language and attend to form" (p.197).

There is considerable debate among researchers as to whether informal environment is more useful over formal environment in language acquisition (Ioup, 1995). While some studies indicate that learners can efficiently utilize informal linguistic environments in achieving L2 proficiency, other studies suggest that language learners cannot achieve native-like proficiency without explicit form-focused instruction (Ioup, 1995). With regard to the findings of the present study that language contact in an informal environment did not lead to increased L2 pragmatic competence, thus, the investigator suggests that it could be related to the lack of explicit form-focused instruction.

A number of researches demonstrated that in a second language environment the learners could have greater access to comprehensible input and have increased opportunities to use the language or to practice "a sizable amount of speaking" (DeKeyser, 1991). However, these interactional features between language contact and language acquisition could be contradicted by an individual (Milroy, 1987). Schmidt (1993) argued that "simple exposure to appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge because the specific linguistic realizations are sometimes opaque to learners and the relevant contextual factors to be noticed may be defined differently or may not be salient enough for the learner" (p.36). For example, even when students do participate in conversations, unless they feel that the "learnable" are explicitly elicited, noticed or corrected, they are not learning anything (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995)

Kasper (1997b) proposed that language contact is essential for L2 pragmatic learning, but does not secure successful pragmatic development. Learners who observe L2 pragmatic behaviors don't simply record what they hear and see in the manner of a videocamera. Similarly, DuFon (1999) asserted that little is known about how individual learners take advantage of language contact, and what factors influence their willingness and ability to contact with the target language.

According to the above-mentioned studies, mere contact with a language does not necessarily result in L2 proficiency. In recent SLA research, much emphasis has been placed on the concept of attention and the related notion of noticing (Gass, 2003). Attention allows learners to consciously recognize the relevant features of input and attempt to analyze them for higher-level understanding or awareness of language. Therefore, conscious awareness (noticing) is a necessary condition for learning. Schmidt (2001) went so far as to claim that learning that occurs without a learner's awareness does not play a significant role in the larger picture of second-language learning. Similarly, Doughty (2001) argued that what is important for second- language learning is not so much immediate comprehension, but the necessity of drawing learners' attention to particular forms.

There are numerous individual characteristics that influence foreign language learning, and researchers have categorized these variables in a number of ways (e.g., cognitive, affective variables, and so on). Of them, affective factors are important because they determine the extent to which an individual actively involves himself or herself in language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesized, "[…] success in mastering a foreign language would depend on the learner's perceptions of the other ethnolinguistic group involved, his attitudes toward representatives of that group, and his willingness to identify enough to adopt distinctive aspects of behavior, linguistic and nonlinguistic, that characterize that other group" (p.132). The study of affective factors in language learning emphasizes differences between people and seeks to identify why some people are more successful learners than others.

For example, Schumann's acculturation model provides an explanation for why learners often fail to achieve a native-like competence; they may refrain from converging with target pragmatic practices as a result of their social and affective (psychological) distance to the target group. Young (1992) addresses that "when you consider yourself to be a potential member of a group, you subconsciously acquire all the aspects of the group's behavior that mark you as a member" (p.167). For some language learners, however, the need for adopting the norms of the target language may not be so strong. In response to the native speakers' language or feedback, they do not modify their nontarget-like forms and repeat their original utterances.

Within second language acquisition research, motivation has also been one factor to explain the differences in making productive use of knowledge of L2 practices. Schmidt's study (2001), addressing the relationship between motivation and learning, found that learners' strategies of focusing and sustaining attention to properties of the target language was solely a function of the learner's motivation. Takahashi (2001) also observed individual differences in participants' ability to notice the target request structures and evidenced how motivation affected students' attention in the acquisitional process of the L2 pragmalinguistic features. The study shows that highly motivated learners willingly adopt target standards for pragmatic action, whereas less-motivated learners are more likely to resist accepting target norms, which thus become less effective teaching tools for the L2's sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms. Indeed, further investigation is warranted to provide insights as to how learners' personal values that may influence the conversion of input to intake can impede or increase the development of pragmatic competence.

Another major finding of this study is that the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence was correlated with their length of residence. It is widely accepted that language development normally occurs during a study abroad over a given period of time. Carroll (1967) guided one of the pioneer studies that analyze the benefits of study abroad. These data show that language development is found over the time spent abroad. Many subsequent studies show positive correlations between learners' L2 proficiency and their length of residence.

Lennon's study (1990) looked at the interlanguage development of four native German speaking learners of English who spent six months at a university in England. This was carried out longitudinally and interviews, which consisted of a picture story narration and informal conversation, were performed 15 times over the period. It was found that time spent abroad was the predictor of the students' English oral proficiency which moved from an initial high level to an even higher level. He asserted that his longitudinal study presented some evidence that even the advanced learners were influenced by the time spent abroad.

Schauer (2006b) reported that ESL students who stayed nine months in England displayed high pragmatic awareness and assessment that surpassed that of EFL students in Germany. It appears that even though EFL students in Germany were enrolled in a very intense and demanding curriculum for either translators or interpreters and highly motivated to achieve native-like knowledge of the pragmatics of English, they rated grammatical errors more severe than pragmatic errors, while ESL group showed the opposite tendency. The findings indicate that a length of residence in the second language environment played an important role in favor of L2 pragmatic awareness in her ESL population.

Flege and Liu's study (2001) also found that Chinese speaking students of English made progress learning English as their length of residence in the target language community increases. The students with relatively long length of residence obtained significantly higher scores than those with relatively short length of residence in all three L2 proficiency tests.

Lapkin, Hart, and Swain's (1995) investigation does provide informative data that the effects of length of residence on a learner's linguistic development are learner specific. They examined English-speaking learners' gains in French language proficiency as a result of several months spent in Quebec. The study showed that learners with initially lower French language proficiency made greater gains than other levels of learners. What has rarely been addressed in the existing line of research on length of residence and ILP development is how distinctly students in a different level of L2 proficiency would acquire target language norms, when they are exposed to the target language community over extended period of time. To reach a fuller understanding of the effects of study abroad, thus, future research needs to clarify the differences in the impact of length of residence in the target language community on students' levels of proficiency.

This study revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between length of residence and compliments, but no significant relationship between length of residence and compliment responses. As already mentioned, even if the participants have developed some knowledge of the speech act of compliments, they may have not developed knowledge to the same extent in the speech act of compliment responses. Or, given that responding to compliments is more cultural specific than compliments, L1 cultural norm is reflected in the learners' resistance to converge to L2 social norms. Several studies in L2 research have investigated the potential link between learner subjectivity/identity and their L2 development (Siegal, 1996; LoCastro, 2001). They examined how individual differences in L2 learners' subjectivity/identity influence their motivation, investment, and attitude toward language. Such individual differences may influence and constrain the willingness to adapt native speaker standards for linguistic action (LoCastro, 2001). Indeed, the ways in which learners viewed themselves and their relationships to native speakers conditioned their opportunities to both experience and use the target language and as such their language learning outcomes. There is a need for more replication studies to be undertaken so that future studies can provide more insights on these relationships.

In relation to the question, “to what extent does student motivation relate to the likelihood of pursuing contact with English,” the present study expected that higher motivation would lead to more frequent contact with L2. The rational for this is that in L2 research, it has been widely assumed that productive, more interactive use of language leads to greater L2 acquisition and motivation is a primary source of individual differences in the learner’s willingness to use L2 (Hashimoto, 2002). Segalowitz and Freed (2004) contend that “learners differ in terms of how ready they are linguistically and cognitively to seize the opportunities provided and to benefit from them once they do” (p.196). According to Kasper and Rose (2002a), motivation could be seen as an important variable to influence how learners consciously recognize the relevant features of input and attempt to analyze them for higher-level understanding or awareness of language. However, even though many studies examined motivation as a predictor of proficiency, there were few studies that examined it as causes of L2 use. Thus, it might be useful to consider the relationships between motivation and the participants’ likelihood of pursuing opportunities to seek contact in English.

As seen in Table 17, the result of the correlation analysis indicated that the relationship between the two independent variables was in the desired direction and both moderate and statistically significant, implying that the students with high levels of motivation tended to seek out more contact with English. Further analysis of correlation coefficients among all components of motivation and all types of language contact showed that some subscales of motivation were moderately and positively correlated with different types of contact in English. In particular, those student who were more motivated to learn English and had more favorable feelings toward the target language and culture, and positive attitudes toward the learning situation tended more likely to pursue productive, more interactive opportunities to use the English. Given the fact that the interaction with native speakers fosters opportunities for negotiation, attention to gaps in feedback, and restructuring in the learner's interlanguage, which is a necessary condition for facilitating L2, those students with such motivational orientations may display a greater language acquisition. To better define the relationship found, further research is needed to examine if there is possibility that motivation and amount of language contact jointly operate on the target pragmatic competence; that is, highly motivated learners with greater amount of language contact may be superior in their pragmatic competence to those with lower motivation and lower amount of language contact.

Next, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if the findings in correlation coefficient analysis are upheld by the multiple regression analysis. The results of the regression analyses revealed that the R^2 value for the combined model using motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence as the independent variables was .145. The data proved that motivation and length of residence were the main predictors of the Korean ESL learners' English pragmatic skills, and the amount of L2 contact was not necessarily sufficient to explain the variation in L2 pragmatic acquisition in these participants. The model using motivation and length of residence as the independent variables supported research emphasizing the relationship between language acquisition and these two variables, whereas the model that used the amount of contact as the independent variable produced results inconsistent with the body of research documenting the close relationship between this variable and language acquisition.

In summary, the data suggest that motivation and length of residence are stronger predictors of Korean ESL learners' English pragmatic abilities than the amount of contact. Nevertheless, the weight of beta (β) calculated for each predictor variable shows that the larger regression model, using all three variables (motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence) as independent variables, had a greater R^2 value than the model using each predictor variable alone.

The study attempted to account for differential pragmatic development among Korean students in a target speech community as functions of their level of motivation, amount of English-language contact as well as length of residence in the target community. It should be kept in mind, however, that only about 15 percent of the variance of L2 pragmatic achievement is explained by the combination of all three predictor variables studied here. The remaining 85 percent of unexplained variance is called the "error variance"; in other words, over half of the variance of L2 pragmatic achievement is not explained by these variables. This finding gives rise to some speculation that there are other variables, such as learner-related factors, that have not been measured in the present study but seem to influence learners' L2 pragmatics.

Even in the same language-learning context, learners differently gain L2 proficiency. How ready they are linguistically and cognitively to seize learning opportunities provided and to benefit from them are both crucial and complex. This study documents examples of these complex interactions. It remains for future studies to identify additional variables that influence learners' pragmatic acquisition. Such interactions may help explain the enormous individual variation one sees in learning outcomes and they underscore the importance of studying such variables together rather than in isolation. As we gain more knowledge about this dynamic interaction, the more we will understand the potential influence of one variable compared to others on L2 pragmatic attainments.

Conclusions

The purpose of this exercise was to determine if quantitative measures of Korean ESL learners' degree of motivation for learning English, amount of contact with English, and length of residence in the target-language environment can be used to identify their English pragmatic skills.

As the literature review in Chapter II has shown, numerous studies have demonstrated that motivation and length of residence are related to language acquisition. However, studies on the effect of these variables on pragmatic development of learners are scarce. With respect to the major purpose of this study, the investigator has found, consistent with most previous studies in SLA that motivation and length of residence seem to be correlated to L2 pragmatic achievement.

However, contrary to what had been expected, the variable of amount of contact did not emerge as a significant predictor for the development of pragmatic competence. Note that even though there was a lack of predicted effects of overall amount of language contact on L2 pragmatic competence, the relationship between more interactive types of language contact and the pragmatic competence pointed to significant relationships.

The findings in the regression analysis show that the shared variance (r^2) among the variables is approximately 15 percent, indicating that a relationship – one that is certainly not negligible – does exist among these variables. Specifically, the situation for this sample seems to be that motivation and length of residence are better predictors of the subjects' DCT performance than amount of contact with the target language. For whatever reason, the amount of contact covariate in this study lost much of its explanatory power in the variation of the subjects' pragmatic competence. Admittedly, such covariate does not build a strong case for using these predictor variables to determine which elements affect learners' L2 pragmatic development. The error variance may include other variables, such as the cognitive, social, psychological, and personality factors. Thus, further study is needed to examine the effects of some other variables, which may account for differences in learners' pragmatic achievement.

Implications for Practice

The premise of this study is that motivation, the amount of contact, and length of residence are critical factors in predicting learners' L2 pragmatic performance. The growing interest in interlanguage pragmatics reflects the rapid growth in the theoretical and empirical study of pragmatics over the last two decades. However, there are still relatively few systematic investigations into understanding the factors that contribute to the learners' pragmatic knowledge in the L2. Additionally, although there are several studies exploring factors that might affect learners' L2 pragmatic achievement, few studies involved Korean ESL learners as the focus group. With the questions addressing factors that might influence Korean ESL learners' pragmatic achievement, this study may provide further information about how Korean ESL learners acquire L2 pragmatics during their stay overseas.

In the present study, the investigator has examined variables that have been shown in prior studies in the ILP literature to have influence on the learner's pragmatic competence. Thus, the present study adds to the field's growing understanding of learner's pragmatic competence by providing further evidence for relatively significant relationships among variables: the findings in the present study have provided evidence that is consistent with more general claims about pragmatic development and the effects of motivation and length of residence. The results support the claim that motivation and length of residence are factors in second-language pragmatic acquisition.

Another implication of the results of this study is that even though there was a lack of correlation between overall amount of L2 contact and pragmatic competence, the relationship between more interactive types of language contact and the pragmatic competence pointed to significant relationships. This finding suggests that simple exposure to language contact is unlikely to be sufficient for acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge because the specific linguistic realizations are sometimes not salient enough for the learner. Thus, input should be noticed and some explicit techniques such as input enhancement and form focused instruction that would make the learners attend to the targeted linguistic features are necessary for pragmatic learning to take place.

Despite these implications, the results of this research invite the reader to consider the impact of a multifaceted set of variables on L2 pragmatic acquisition. At the very least, the study of ILP within and across various contexts of learning would force a broadening of our perspective of the most important variables that affect L2 pragmatic acquisition in general. Even though the growing body of research on attainment in L2 pragmatics showed sets of factors that contribute to learners' levels of L2 pragmatic achievement, numerous challenges still remain in attempting to understand the individual difference factors that affect developmental outcomes in L2 pragmatics.

Limitations of the Study

Many of the limitations inherent in this study were outlined at the outset of this project in Chapter I. First, this study selected three impact variables (motivation, the amount of contact, and length of residence) to explain the covariance inherent in the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic ability in English. As the results suggest, there are other variables that have not been measured but may have tremendous predictive value on the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, further study is needed to demonstrate which factors could better predict Korean ESL learners' pragmatic abilities.

Second, while this study provides insights into the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence representing a unique cultural background, it is also a limitation of the study, making the results less generalizable to other populations. A study like this should be replicated with a larger sample and different groups of learners in different cultural contexts, at different age levels, and at different language levels. Thus, generalization of the present findings should not be extended to other ESL learners beyond the present sample.

Third, methodological limitations of the present study should be noted. Some researchers argue that there are problems involved in the use of self-report questionnaires in L2 studies (e.g., some participants do not answer seriously to the questionnaire) (Dörnyei, 1994). Additionally, questionnaires, although quick and easy to administer, are limited in their ability to probe the "why" of participant responses. In the present study, verbal-reports such as in-depth interviews with participants may have helped in the interpretation of student responses on questionnaires and in examining their insights at different stages of their interlanguage development, thereby enhancing the reliability of the study. The study employed only one method (DCT) to assess the particular aspect of the participants' pragmatic competence (i.e., compliments & compliment responses). However, DCTs used in this and other studies are not sufficiently sensitive to capture students' overall pragmatic abilities. Thus, to obtain natural speech act performances, data need to be gathered through direct observation and participation in a great variety of spontaneously occurring speech situations.

Furthermore, the questionnaire data alone may not explain the week-by-week fluctuations in measuring learners' L2 contact. In addition to obtaining quantitative measures, it is also essential to use qualitative information about learners' contact gathered longitudinally to provide vital complementary information as to the influences making for such fluctuation. To get a more complex picture of learners' language contact, the researcher could use daily diary entries as a measure of contact, or learners could be requested to fill out a daily contact sheet which could specify not only the length and type of contact, but also, detailed information about the context in which the contact took place, the type of interlocutors learners interacted with as well as more information about the amount and type of contact that learners do outside the classroom.

Despite these limitations, the present study has shed some light on the largely unexamined relationships among the Korean ESL learners' pragmatic development, level of motivation, the amount of contact, and length of residence. Moreover, this study suggests several recommendations for the implementation and evaluation of the identified three variables in L2 pragmatics and for further research in this area.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future studies of interlanguage pragmatics need to explore the effects of motivation, language contact, and length of residence on pragmatic development using a longitudinal design. Clearly, much work is needed to explore the relationship of various aspects of pragmatic competence (e.g. making requests, apologies, complaints) with various methods of interlanguage pragmatics assessment (e.g. role plays, journals, diaries, retrospective interviews). Moreover, in light of the results of the current study, replication studies as well as additional studies that examine other areas of pragmatic development are necessary to provide a more complete picture of how the selected three variables influence pragmatic development.

Particularly, with regard to the results which showed no significant relationship between the amount of contact with the L2 and learners' pragmatic abilities, additional research is needed to further examine how and to what extent the learners take advantage of the second language contact, using different pragmatic measures, different type of measurement of contact, in other speech acts, and in other L2s.

To date, little attention has been paid to L2 pragmatic acquisition of adult learners studying in the second-language context. Moreover, researchers have been more interested in understanding what seems to be happening in these contexts as opposed to why and how individual learners take advantage of these opportunities in learning L2 pragmatics. Thus, much more evidence is needed to profile experience of adult learners of the L2 and the factors that may contribute to their higher levels of L2 pragmatic attainment.

It should also be noted that, while this investigation successfully explained a relatively significant portion of the variance in the participants' pragmatic abilities in English, the greater part of the variance remains unexplained. Thus, future research might also examine alternative predictive variables which may prove more useful than measures of motivation, amount of contact, and length of residence in identifying pragmatic abilities. Finally, the investigator's goal in the present study was prediction and not explanation, so future studies need to investigate how or why each variable impacts on the dependent variable. Similarly, such studies will also provide important information to maximize the potential for the development of pragmatic competence in a L2.

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APPENDIX A

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK

Please read the description of each situation carefully and then write down in English what you would say and what the responses of the other person might be in that situation. Continue to write as much as you think is appropriate for each situation until the topic would change. Try to respond as you would naturally do in real-life language use. Consider that the friend is of the same gender as you are.

Situation 1

You and your friend decide to co-write an academic paper. While working together, you notice that s/he is a very good writer.

You:

Your friend:

You:

Your friend:

You:

Your friend:

Situation 2

You go to your professor's house for an end of term potluck party and while leaving you would like to compliment his wife on the food.

You:

Your professor's wife:

You:

Your professor's wife:

You:

Your professor's wife:

Situation 3

You bump into an undergraduate student whom you go to the same church with and you notice that s/he is wearing a new pair of jeans today and s/he looks really good.

You:

An undergraduate student:

You:

An undergraduate student:

You:

An undergraduate student:

Situation 4

Your friend comes to class one day, seems very excited, and sits next to you. S/he pulls out a picture – it's a picture of her/his new car.

You:

Your friend:

You:

Your friend:

You:

Your friend:

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Please report hours you spent on the activities listed in the questionnaire during the week just preceding administration of the questionnaire.

1. Age: _________ years old 2. Sex: Male/ Female

3. How old were you when you came to the U.S.: ________ years old

4. How long have you been in the U.S.?
_________ years ____________ months

5. If you have ever taken TOEFL, what was your best score?

6. Before coming to the U.S. did you ever visit or live in an English speaking country such as Canada, Australia, Britain, etc?
If your answer is yes, how long did you stay in the country?

7. How much time do you spend speaking English with English-speaking Americans or non-native speakers of English per week? (For example: teacher, friend, neighbor, etc.)
_______________ hours per week

8. The average number of hours per week you read English books, newspapers, or magazines:
_______________ hours per week

9. The average number of hours per week you watch TV and listen to the radio, tapes, or records in English:

_______________ hours per week

10. The average number of hours per week you send email or chat in English via the Internet:

_______________ hours per week

APPENDIX C

MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate your opinion after each statement by circling the one that best describes how you feel or think personally in the seven-point scale.

1. If I were to rate my feelings about learning English in order to interact with members of the English language community, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Weak Strong

2. If I were to rate my interest in the English language, I would say it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Low Very High

3. If I were to rate my attitude toward members of the English language community, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Unfavorable Favorable

4. If I were to rate my attitude toward English instructor in classes I am attending or have attended before, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Unfavorable Favorable

5. If I were to rate my attitude toward English classes I am attending or have attended before, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Unfavorable Favorable

6. If I were to rate how hard I work at learning English, I would characterize it as:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Little Very Much

7. If I were to rate my desire to learn English, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Low Very High

8. If I were to rate my attitude toward learning English, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Unfavorable Favorable

9. If I were to rate how important it is for me to learn English for employment, I would say that it is:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Low Very High

10. If I were to rate my anxiety in English classes I am attending or have attended before, I would rate myself as:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Calm Very Nervous

11. If I were to rate my anxiety when speaking English, I would rate myself as:

1________2________3________4________5________6________7

Very Calm Very Nervous

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